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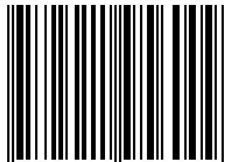
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Problems Following the Education of Roma Children in Their Free Movement and Their Attempts for Asylum

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Abstract

Immigration is a growing phenomenon in the recent years with its characteristics on the social groups which are mainly involved and with its impact on the educational level of children also. The life of Roma children is associated with a lot of economic and social problems. They often move inside or outside the country for a more normal life. Frequent changes have their own psycho-social impact on children, as the most sensitive category of the society. They often suffer the long-term consequences which influence the progress of their education and future. Multicultural education and inclusive education are considered to be a good opportunity for marginalised groups offering equal education opportunities in the destination country the same as in their native country, but still they come across some difficulties. This is a qualitative research which aims at giving an analysis about the impact of immigration on the multicultural education and on the inclusion of children within the education system. What happens to these children once in the destination countries and how do they adapt their old experience? What is the impact of this transition on their emotions? The case study was performed through the: theoretical study of the phenomenon, monitoring, students, parents, educators and focus groups' interviews. This study is focused on the primary and low secondary school students. This study introduces some evidence provided by children, educators and parents, proving that returning back to your home country does only enrich their life experience. It does not have a clear positive effect on their education and inclusion to the education process.

Keywords: Education, Inclusion, Multicultural Inclusion, Asylum, economic – social difficulty.

Introduction

Problems following the education of Roma children in their free movement

Globalisation, economic problems and disputes are some of the reasons causing free or obliged movement of different social cultural groups towards more developed countries. They are obliged to seek for better living conditions and they also have to live with the variety of problems related to the cultural characteristics of the nation that they represent and of the country that they come from. Usually the movement takes place from developing countries to already developed or economically consolidated countries. Immigration is a growing phenomenon in the recent years with its characteristics on the social groups which are mainly involved and with its impact on the educational level of children also.

Educational experiences of refugee children in the developed countries, for example in the United States, are from the most marginalised educational groups internationally. Actually, more than half of the 57 million out-of-school children globally live in conflict-affected environment (UNESCO, 2013).

Often the actual kind of knowledge migrant children possess is not of an academic type and as such cannot be measured by the available standardized assessment tools. (Adams & Kirova, 2005, p. 8). This can result in teachers giving priority to socially sensitive teaching practices, but teachers may also feel less competent to provide the adequate level of content to the newcomer children, and to facilitate their learning. The lack of appropriate curriculum (materials) and sound information about the child's previous educational experiences, as well as poor assessment of general knowledge and skills, can pose challenges to teachers' daily life in a classroom with these children (Educational International, 2010).

While parents try to improve the quality of their children's lives, they fail to think of their education. Despite the multicultural profits and life experience gained, they risk a permanent disengagement from school. Children face several challenges once in the new country, such as, facing the unknown, social-emotional adaptation, cultural adaptation, extreme difficulties which their families go through, etc. Beside the tradition of the destination country, becoming part of a new education system usually it is based on two strategies, the inclusive and multicultural education, which the last two years are globally considered to be priorities.

Theoretical point of view on the inclusive education and multicultural education

Inclusive education and multicultural education are education strategies which aim the inclusion and qualitative education of vulnerable and marginalised groups in both the origin and destination countries. Inclusion means being offered equal education opportunities and multicultural education means to give support and show respect for the culture of the country from where the children come.

Banks (1996) defined multicultural education as "a field of study and an emerging discipline whose major aim is to create equal opportunities for students from diverse racial, ethnic, social and cultural groups."(Banks, 1996, p. 46). Nieto (2004) views multicultural education as a process that requires not only challenging issues of difference and diversity, but also those of power and privilege. In other words, when inequitable structures, policies and practices of schools exist, they must be confronted.(Nieto S. , 2004).

Nieto and Bode (2008) expand upon this definition to include seven characteristics of multicultural education. First, multicultural education is antiracist.(Nieto & Bode, 2008)

First, multicultural education is antiracist.

Second, it is basic, meaning multicultural education should be considered as important as reading, writing, and math. Thirdly, multicultural education is critical for all students, not just for students of colour, or those who are considered disadvantaged. Fourth multicultural education is pervasive. It is embedded in all aspects of school life, environment, lessons, and relationships among teachers, students, and the larger school community. Fifth, multicultural education promotes social justice. Sixth, multicultural education is an ongoing, complex process that is never fully complete. Last, multicultural education is critical pedagogy based on experiences, knowledge, and viewpoints of the learners and the teachers.

Manning and Baruth (2009) suggest multicultural education is both a concept and process, designed to "teach learners to recognize, accept, and appreciate differences in culture, ethnicity, social class, sexual orientation, religion, special needs and gender"(Manning & Baruth, 2004, p. 5). In addition, they believe multicultural education should instill a sense of responsibility and a commitment toward the democratic tenants of justice, equality and democracy. Bennett's (2011) writes, "Multicultural education is a complex approach to teaching and learning that includes the movement toward equity in schools and classrooms, the transformation of the curriculum, the process of becoming multiculturally competent, and the commitment to address societal injustices"(Bennett, 2011). Regardless of minor nuances in these descriptions, educators bear the responsibility for changing school culture to reflect the values of multiculturalism(Dimmock & Walker, 2005).

Inclusive education is an educational strategy aiming the effective inclusion of children in educational activities. Inclusion and integration represent two concepts being so close but far from education.

It is important to make the difference between these two concepts. Inclusion represents a wider concept than integration. Even though integration aims the inclusion of special needs students within the education system, still it is different from inclusion. Different authors (Soder, 1991; Jordan and Powell, 1994; Major, PijandHegarty,1997) stated that "integration comes after exclusion, as a way to avoid it. Integration can result in adapting the scholar programme to the special needs of students, but that is not enough for their inclusion within education. In the worst case, integration leads only to physical presence of children with special needs within the general schools or to a new version of the scholar programme."

Inclusion means much more than physical presence. "In order to provide inclusive education, various levels of politics and thoughts are needed as it is not only a school concern. It goes beyond connected to the life of children beyond school, to their family and community" (Stangvik, 1997). "Inclusion does not mean only to arrange school environment, but reforming

the school”(Pijl, Meijer, & Hegarty, 1997). Reformation means changes in the mentality of the policymakers and professionals of education. Traditional mentality in favour of the education system shall be open for changes influenced by the contemporary paradigm in education and it shall offer solutions for the children’s advantage.(Pijl, Meijer, & Hegarty, 1997, p. 151)

Education in Albania and marginalised groups

Albania is undergoing an extended economic, political and social transition. Its education system is being reformed due to the need of changes under the influence of globalizing factors. From time to time laws and strategies have been created in favour of thereformation of school policie supporting the multicultural and inclusive education. The first concerning issue seems to be about what’s written and what is being put into practice within the education institutions. The implementation of education reform in Albania leads to an education system that includes diversity of students and that adapts education to this diversity. In general, the education environment is characterised by the mentality “one-size-fits-all” and the concept of inclusive education is based on equal teaching for all students, despite their profiles, social background, skills and personal style and without following them individually” (Sultana, 2006). Various researches on the education field have shown that the education reform goes through three levels: the teacher’s attitude against students with special needs, adapting the curricula and factors outside the school. The second concerning issue is about how trained and qualified is the pedagogical staff in order to work with those students part of that contingent that needs inclusive education. Inclusive education opposes the avoidance and oppressive values against people and groups in need. These values consider these people as weak due to their problems and negate them as humans.(Armstrong, 2003). In the form of inclusive education, multicultural education interferes as an effective approach. Reducing prejudice and being socially fair, are key standards which need to be empowered and extended within the education system. It presents the role of school in the development of the key attitudes and values to a democratic society. It appreciates the cultural differences and affirms the pluralism reflected by the students, their community and the teacher. It challenges all types of discrimination at school and within the society through promoting the democratic principles of social rights(Sultana, 2006). But still education is a weak point for certain social groups, especially for the Roma people. Marginalisation is the cause to partial inclusion and integration. The Roma inclusion decade 2005-2015, which is the most absolute initiative for the improvement of their life, recognizes education as the key to their social integration. Through this research we are trying to provide a qualitative and measurable perspective of the Roma children education in Albania. Over than 90% of Roma children do not have a studying place at home. About 70% of them state that their parents are not able to offer them their help when studying. About 90% of children state that they do not follow any additional courses on those subjects they might face difficulties. The quality of education received by the Roma children is quite more reduced than that of others(Pasha, 2012).Inclusion and the inclusive strategy are considered by the law on education, still no achievements are accomplished.

Albania lacks the full and proper data on the level of education of Roma children, especially for those from official census. Meanwhile, contradicory data come from administrative resources, from various surveys, official estimates or nongovernmental societies. Even the results from Census 2011 did not provide real figures. A lot of debate and discussions came from the side of diferent societies and organizations interested on this target group. There are various reasons why we lack the correct figures. The Roma people live in the outlying districts, in remote not properly urbanised areas. There should be a clear record taken from the responsible people on the lack of roads and buildings fearing the stigmatization and misuse of the information for discrimination purposes or diesbelieving the state or the scepticism against the profits received from participating in the census:(INSTAT, 2011)

Meanwhile, it is generally known that school enrolment and attendance and the quality of education of the Roma children is very low, school dropouts rates are high and a small group of Roma children graduate in elementary school, even less graduate in high school or university. They say that the Roma children experience various forms of prejudice, discrimination and segregation.

The reasons why the Roma children do not regularly attend school or drop out school are: unregistered births, immigration, commitment to work or helping out their parents who work, lack of knowledge of the Albanian language and unsatisfying assessment at school, being embarrassed to restart school after several dropouts, the need to protect girls once they are teenagers, low educational support from their parents, goods poverty, racism/discrimination.

2.2. Social, economic and cultural characteristics of the Roma community related to education

The Roma and other migrating communities make the biggest minority group in Europe. They observed that in the European Union countries discrimination and other abuses of the human rights against the Roma and other migrating people have been deteriorating and no European government can pretend to be successful in defending the human rights for these minorities which urged the development of an inclusive report on the situation of the Roma and migrating communities in Europe.(UNDP , 2006)

Estimates show that the Roma population in Albania varies from 80.000 – 120.000. They are mainly located in the suburb of the cities. They have mainly their identity and conserve their language. The rate of unemployment and illiteracy is four times higher compared to the majority of the population(UNDP , 2006). Social exclusion is viewed as the main cause of their poverty. Governmental policies for the Roma community are known as Ethno-linguistic and not as a national minority due to the lacking a motherland. Yet government says that rights deriving from the Framework Convention on National Minorities are applicable to the Roma people also.

There is a special act related to the policies of education of the Roma children (OSCE, 2003). Even though, many positive attempts referring to school reconstruction or new classes available in the Roma community areas, referring to teachers' trainings and free books dispatching, education strategy objectives have been partially achieved. Although there are specific plans for the implementation of this strategy, the government has not provided the necessary manpower, institutional and financial resources for the implementation of relevant monitoring and evaluating bodies. The ministry of Education and Sports has undertaken the initiative of "second chance" for the education of the Roma children, which represents the most important step towards their educational and social integration. The current strategy for the Roma has not addressed the problem of racism segregation that they do actually experience at school. The objectives of the Roma strategy have not addressed the influence of their family as the most important aspect of education. Education provided to the Roma children does not take into consideration the special sociology of the Roma as a social group.(FRA, 2014, p. 13). All these special and important issues of concern have direct impact on their studying progress. The vicious circle leads only to poverty which can be avoided through giving up school.

The methodology of study

The case study has been achieved through: theoretical study of the phenomenon, research on documentation, interviews with students, educators, school directors and focus groups of parents.

The qualitative study has been performed in a school in the outlined district of Tirana where 35% of its students are Roma students and 90% from those who have been seeking asylum are Roma students. Children who together with their families lived in destination countries were included in the study. The theoretical study of the phenomenon was based on the contemporary literature in order to have a study with multiple points of view.

The research has been mainly focused on the data provided by schools. These documents reflect the attendance and progress of children in the countries where their families were seeking asylum. Only those attending German schools have submitted documents from corresponding schools. Students studying in other countries were not provided with the requested documents.

Through the interviews with students we were introduced to the long way towards asylum, their emotional experiences and description of schools that they have attended in the destination countries.

The interviews with teachers were performed in order to make an analysis on the situation of the children after their return from relevant schools.

The interviews with school directors were performed to have information on the behaviour towards them once they are returned in their old classrooms and to have a deeper knowledge on the problems which follow the phenomenon.

Focus groups were created in order to have an answer why they are always leaving to other countries, regardless of the refusal of their request for asylum, in order to confront their thoughts and understand in depth their lives challenges and their mentality.

Which are the factors that lead the Roma community in Albania to seek asylum

Poverty is the major factor that draws them to seek asylum. Albania lacks the official statistics but subsequent studies have been made from various organizations offering their help to this community as per humanitarian and study purposes also.

The average income per head for Roma people in Albania, in the first half of the last decade has been estimated less than one third of those non-Roma people and over 80% of them live under the living level of 14%.

On the other hand, the regional study of 2011 for the Roma gives the average 37% live under the estimated indigence rate for the Roma population or more than the duplicated estimated indigence for the non-Roma population who lives near to the Roma areas.

The study results published by the UNDP in 2006 show the Roma unemployment level is almost 3 times higher than the non-Roma population as a result of the combined poor teaching and discrimination. According to the regional study of the Roma in 2012, the quality of their living conditions is problematic. 36% out of the Roma houses, 61% from them do not have a toilet. A considerable number of Roma houses (30%) do not have direct access to consumable water. (OSCE, 2013)

Two years later, another study writes: generally the major problems for the Roma community have economic nature related to the possibility to afford a decent life, like, unemployment, lack of food, lack of living conditions etc. The Roma seems to be quite pessimistic about their near future finance. Only 15% of them think that their economic condition will be better in 2013 than in 2012. The remaining think that it will become worse (33%), or that it will continue to be the same (24%), or that they do not know how to answer (29%).

According to their statements, their family income can only help them survive and in the majority of cases they can hardly survive. Incomes from informal activities, like collecting and selling recycled materials is the main way 40% to earn their living. If we come to include those who declare to earn their living from employment in the informal private sector (10%), and those declaring occasional employment as the main way of earning a living (day based work, 11%), the result is 61% of Roma families earn their living through working in informal sectors.

The only chance of doing a state paid job is for some family heads working in the greenery or cleaning service, etc.

The Roma community is unsatisfied even from the labour office (about 74%). They state that from those declared as unemployed; only 29% are registered in the labour office while 71% of the unemployed Roma people who could have the support of the labour office services are not able to register.

The Roma state several causes for their unemployment. They are mainly related to the lack of job opportunities generally in Albania, ethnicity, their low educational and professional level. So, the data show that 81% of the Roma people do not have a profession, 9% have low demand professions and only 6% have inn-demand jobs.

Living conditions for the Roma are too difficult. According to the study, 35% of Roma families live in no larger than 40m² areas and that 31% of their houses are used by two or more families. 18% of Roma families live in huts and shacks, in very difficult conditions and there is no opportunity to turn them into legal properties, while 50% of them declare living in old houses.

Nearly one in three Roma people say “unemployment” is their major problem in their ordinary life. Generally, the real problem of this community is their financial status and challenge of affording a decent life... (Pasha, 2012, p. 14)

Among the most common works are: second hand goods trade, collecting recycling materials, plastic and paper. In order to collect all these materials they wander through garbage bins near to the urban areas or at the garbage patches. We have to stress that different aged children are involved in these works.

Another common phenomenon is their exploitation as street beggars. Cases when they are monitored by mentors are even more serious, working under pressure to collect certain amounts of money. Very often TV investigative programmes have shown facts that these children are victims of human trafficking. Often, Roma families are big families which consist of numerous members and the elders take decisions on behalf of the young members, usually affecting their education in

favour of early marriages or keeping girls at home. During a session from the interviews of focus groups with parents, they say: "although we have been through a lot of difficulties such as our journey to Germany and moving from one camp to the other while seeking for asylum, after being unsuccessful and returning back here, we will keep trying. We cannot have a proper job here; we collect various materials, refrigerators, washing machines whenever we find any. Our earnings per day depend on the goods we collect. Women are unemployed while our little kids need care. We do not have assistance and if we go there, for sure we will be provided financial support and shelter. Besides, we can do some works of community and maintenance service etc. Our major problem is language, as it prevents us from getting a job but we hope our children learn."

Another parent says that they sell second hand goods but this is not being allowed anymore as the police are asking for business license and permits and in contrary they take hold of all goods. "But we don't have licenses for this! I won't apply for one anyway! Do we earn enough money to apply for one?"

Free movement and immigration impact on education and confrontation of the Roma children to new reality

Being a group in need and always affected by subsequent changes and traditionally moving from one country to another, they often experience new things. A lot of refugee children experience dropouts from school or limited approach to education.

Based on relevant policies in the destination countries, refugee children are included within the education system and they can attend language classes according to their age. A lot of difficulties related to adaption to the new educational level are witnessed, mainly related to their learning progress in their homeland.

The educational experience of the refugee children in the First Asylum countries seem to be far from the objectives of the UNCHR. These global education models for the refugee children in the First Asylum countries have had their impact on their education after resettling to the destination countries.

Refugee children might manifest some learning difficulties, due to school dropouts, not because they are lacking skills. Learning gaps can be minor (after dropping out school for some weeks only) or big (years without attending school). Education is often sporadic after they are settled in the new country, which can influence their families' attitudes. Based on the past experience, teachers can recognize the parents or children's hesitation to invest time on school and relevant relationship. Refugee children are usually exposed to multiple language learning which can lead to language confusion and limited opportunities to master academic language.

Careful attention is necessary in order to identify the learning needs based on their academic experience, compared to the born capacities to learn. There are various factors that might prevent refugees' enrolment at school, including their living in acute needs; conflict, legal restrictions according to enrolment and frequent displacement in the first asylum countries, and also the fear of getting exposed to migration applications or other authorities.

Refugee children usually face language barriers. They can have obstacles with lessons that have to be learnt in a different language from their own, or in case they have to take lessons in a limited resource environment in order to support language learning. Refugees in the same class can speak different languages which need various interpretations; they can slow down or interrupt the teaching process. They are usually exposed to many languages which prevent them from mastering one of them.(Bourgonje, 2010)

Children leaving Albania, face two language challenges. First, in their country the lesson is not held in the Roma language. They speak their language just in the family setting and when they attend Albanian schools, they start to learn Albanian language as their first foreign language, spoken and written. In the asylum countries they are introduced to a new unknown language. So, in a very short time, they are exposed to three different languages. If we add academic barriers to this, children then will feel not ready to attend school.

Education in the destination countries

Problems with education in the destination countries have been treated by various researcher in the recent years. International data show the growing rates of migration all over the world and more than the half of refugees consists of

children. Migration has several educational impacts(Bourgonje, 2010). It is important to highlight that there is no difference between educational problems and needs. Children of refugee and immigrants seeking asylum has turned into a global concern for educators. Education systems face the need to answer to the current tendencies of migration and to the demographic changes of students in an adequate manner.

Migrant education is high on the policy agenda in many OECD countries. Growth of the ethnic and cultural diversity provides new opportunities and challenges within the education systems. While, focusing on outcomes for these children and reviewing education policies at the international level, has rarely been done. In 2008, The OECD Thematic Review on Migrant Education has started a project in support of developing practices by ensuring a deep analysis on the approach to immigrants' education(OECD, 2008).

There is a low and unequal education provided to refugees. As a result, even those refugees who have displaced their children from the first asylum countries might have lower skills and knowledge than their peers.

Another problem for Roma children from Albania is that they leave without getting any documents from schools. How do they integrate in their new classrooms?

The focus group with parents said: "school enrolment was arranged by the social centre that used to cover: monthly payment, health problems, school, so, you could turn to them for any issue of concern. Enrolment in classes or language courses was done according to age. You could receive language classes in common classrooms for three days and in your classroom for two days. They were integrated at school but depending on the interest and possibility shown by their parents. Parents' interest was relative from one family to the other. The most important thing was learning the new language, and this was worth for us parents as well."

The Roma students who had attended school came from several European countries, such as: Italy, France and Germany. Only a few students had attended classes regularly according to their age. Only those students coming from German schools were provided with the corresponding documentation. Picture 1, shows one photo of the documentation provided to student A. R. by the school she used to go to.

Picture 1

61130 NIDDERAU - WINDECKEN

Schuljahr: 2014 / 2015 2. Halbjahr Jahrgangsstufe: 3
Klasse: 3c

Zeugnis

Arbeitsverhalten	1	Sozialverhalten	2
Pflichtunterricht			
Religion	*	Kunst*	2
Deutsch	*	Musik	2
Sachunterricht	*	Sport / Schwimmen	2
Mathematik	*	Englich** (1 Fremdsprache)	2

Bemerkungen: Anisa lebt erst seit Oktober 2014 in Deutschland und geht seitdem regelmäßig zur Schule.
* Als Seiteneinsteiger erfolgt, durch die Verordnung zur Gestaltung des Schulverhältnisses Teil 7 §56 geregelt, in diesen Fächern eine Verbalbeurteilung. Siehe Blatt 2 – Anlage zum Zeugnis. Aus diesem Grund hat sie die fehlende Benotung nicht zu vertreten.

Versäumnisse: 0 Tag(e) (0 Tag(e) entschuldigt / 0 Tag(e) unentschuldigt)
0 Stunde(n) (0 Stunde(n) entschuldigt / 0 Stunde(n) unentschuldigt)

Sie wird in die Jahrgangsstufe 4 versetzt.

61130 Nidderau, den 24. Juli 2015 Kenntnis genommen.
(Datum)

In the document it is said: A.R. lives in Germany from the last October and since that time she attended school regularly.

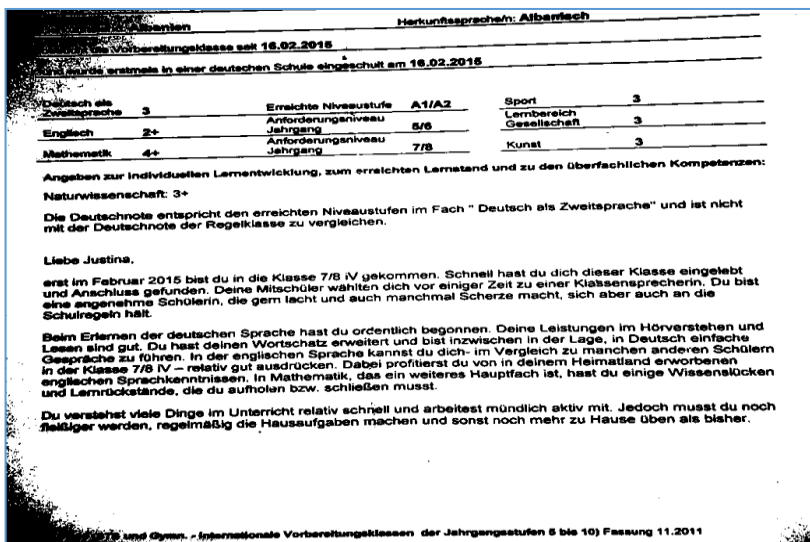
In German language she masters reading. She is confident when reading already conducted texts but her reading skills in new texts are vulnerable. Her writing is recognizable. A. R. is able to use capital or lower case letters in her exercises. She has done progress in mathematics. She is willing to work according to her abilities and enjoys her achievements. A. R. is interested in ethics and her inclusion varies according to her language skills during the class. She is very active during school activities. She learns quickly and she is highly motivated. Her vocabulary has improved and she is able to discuss with teachers and peers.

Picture 2



Certificate of Attendance. She was born on 19 May in Tirana and she is attending the academic year 2015-2016, seventh grade. She attended school from 01.08.2015 to 11.11.2015

Picture 3 is a photo of the document from student J. XH.



In the document it is said: for student j. XH., German language assessment shows the achieved level in German language and it is not the equivalent to the normal classes evaluation. Dear J. XH. you came at school in February 2015 and you integrated within a short time. You are a very good student, always smiling; you make jokes but always respecting the rules. You are always learning and your listening and reading skills are very good. Your vocabulary is improved and you are able to make simple discussions in German language. As compared to other students, you can express yourself very good in English language. There are a few deficiencies in mathematics which you need to improve, as it is one of the key subjects. You can understand things relatively fast, and your verbal communication is active. Even though, you have to show your earnest effort to regularly do your homework and get more exercises done at home.

Observations performed within the school environment after returning back at their homelands

In some countries, the Roma asylum seekers have been provided kind of temporary defence, which prevented them from getting the status of the resident even not progressive exhibition of their rights. Repetition of the disposition of a shortly "tolerated" status has prevented thousands of Roma people to come and integrate within the new societies. The right to asylum has been recognized by the United Nations Convention relating to the Status of Refugees (1951) for all refugees without discrimination. The Roma asylum seekers and displaced persons have to be treated the same as the non-Roma asylum seekers or displaced people. Many European countries have performed banishing practices for the Roma. The document from the Committee of Ministers of the Council of Europe, 20 guidelines on *forced return* provides the standards on defence procedures which the state members should respect when undertaking forced return. The guidelines stress that group banishing of expats is forbidden (UNDP, 2006).

After they return back to Albania, schools adapt the current laws, that means putting the child at the same classes they were attending before leaving. The school director says: "based on the guideline for students returned from immigration date, 10.11.2015, students returning from immigration, especially those coming back from Germany, and from other countries also, get enrolled according to their age, after doing an exam testing the level of their knowledge, or converting the results from the documentation provided by the previous school. Usually there is no documentation provided, or it does not fit with our system. So, they attend classes just a limited number of subjects, such as language, mathematics and a few sciences, but they have proper attendance at school and regular learning. There are 19 students who returned from immigration and started to attend the same grade that they were previously attending. Their performance was poor even though they keep attending school regularly, but still improvement is difficult. The documentation provided by these students, they evaluate the language knowledge as a second language, basic knowledge which makes not possible for them the understanding of the information but evaluation is given to their commitment and willingness to learn. There are at least 11 students who have decided abandon school as they think they will not make it and they do not accept to follow lower grades. Separation from school have many consequences in children, they aim at dropping out school, especially if they are in the higher grades."

After going back to school, student L. 13 years old describes her return as follows: "we left our country because my mother was unemployed, my father sells second hand clothes in the trade market, but we cannot afford a living as there are 6 members in my family. We left on July 2015, traveled by bus, ferry, and then by bus again, changing a country every 3 hours. We stayed for 1 month in camps. We spent 15 months abroad. We couldn't attend a lot of courses as we were moving quite often. If we stayed more we could go to school. As we were told the school was a very good one. We couldn't go to school, so we attended just a few courses instead. I was happy to come back because I missed my friends and my school."

Student I, 6th grade, says that: "we could learn some things, some German, some English, we did some sports like swimming and other sports, we sometimes went to excursions or camping. I can't say it was not good, but I like it more here. My mother, my father and my sisters and brothers went back to Germany again, but I didn't want to. I preferred to stay here with my grandparents because I missed them, I missed my neighbourhood, my friends and my school. Despite this, I feel better with my old friends. When I first came here, I knew just a little Albanian as we used to speak Roma language at home, then I got used to it, while I had to learn German and English there. It was difficult for me to learn two additional languages and even though I tried, I could hardly find the words to speak."

Student E, 5th grade, after her return back she says, "We were so happy to come back, especially me and my sisters as our home and friends are here."

H, 5th grade, describes her journey back like this: “We used to go to school there. A kind of a supervisor, used to come and enrol us in different courses. There were about 20 students from different nationalities and age in these classes, but we didn’t feel bad about it. I liked the way how we used to learn English and my performance was good. There were TVs and the blackboards were similar to TVs. We used to do mathematics and we it was clear those coming from Afghanistan were very good in mathematics. I like it more there, even school was better. I started being friends with an Italian girl. I would like to go back again.”

A, 15 years old, says: “I stayed at school for 9 months. There were 40 students in the classroom. There was food service at school. I had a school card and I used to go there regularly. I started to like school after learning German. I will regularly attend school here also, even though I started being absent a few times before leaving Germany because I had to help my family at the trade market sometimes.”

Student J, 15 years old, reveals her experience: “we spent almost 2 years there. I went there with my family and the cause was financial situation for sure. We don’t earn a lot here; my parents do not have a permanent job. I started to go to school there, so did my sisters. There is not much similarity between schools here and there. I don’t know, but school there is less busy and more practical than here. We will try to go back there again. Meanwhile I will finish elementary school here.”

In their interviews, teachers describe some of their students who returned back here.

The second grade teacher says: “when I ask him, “what did you learn? Which were your favorite subjects there?” - He looked at me amazed. He tells me that they used to play with friends and teachers in the classroom and in the yard also.” The teacher describes her work like this: “We aim to provide teaching techniques based on games, not only because of the physical conditions of school, but the program itself prevents us from free activities. We try to exercise children continuously because our job is also measured by testing students’ achievements in the key subjects: mathematics and language.”

The fifth grade teacher describes the return of her student as follows: “when he first came back, he was kind of more driven back, as he was not as troublesome as the others, but now he is similar to them. I noticed that children would notice the change also.”

The seventh grade teacher, she describes her 3 students: “there are many gaps in their learning, maybe because of the big distraction or loose of interest. I often talk to them in order to recognize the causes, but there can be too many; comparison to the previous environment, lose faith in parents, impossibility to earn back the lost time etc. In the beginning I thought they would be more mature and take it more seriously, but I see they are putting less effort than before.”

Conclusions

The qualitative research brings light on the immigration phenomenon of the Roma population from Albania to the developed countries of the region for a better living. The main reason of leaving the country is poverty and lack of the basic conditions of living. Because of poverty, their children do not attend school regularly as they are being exploited to work since an early age. Frequent displacing leads to even longer separation from school. Seeking for asylum offers the opportunity to leave in other countries for some months. Depending on the destination country policies, children attend courses or classes according to their age. Their education in these countries faces language difficulties and academic formation such as maladjustment. In the documentation provided by schools the go to in the destination countries, it is said that their knowledge is not comparable to those students going to normal classes. Destination countries institutions evaluate the students’ attitude and social relationship more than the acquired knowledge. Asylum rejection sends them back to the origin country where they have to face the same problems as before, even worse than before. In this case, families will be looking for another chance of immigrating and again children will have to leave school. In conclusion of the study, we can say that frequent displacement of the Roma families in search of better living conditions do only enrich their experiences without providing a clear positive impact on the multicultural education or inclusive education.

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Appendix 1

How competent do you feel on understanding the Roma community - from 1 to 5 meaning, very competent, competent, somehow competent, a few or not at all.

Did you gain confidence after the social justice training - from 1 to 5 meaning, very competent, competent, somehow competent, a few or not at all.

Did you gain an experience from the training on the treatment of the Roma children in the classroom? - from 1 to 5 meaning, very competent, competent, somehow competent, a few or not at all.

Appendix 2

sex F M
Age (circle) 25-30 30-35 35-45 45-55
Have you heard of multicultural education yes No
If Yes, please try to write a short description

Does It represent an important element of teaching, or you think it is not suitable for Albania?

Yes No it is not suitable for Albania

Mark with +

According to your opinion, multicultural education has to do with racism, sexism, classism, linguistics, religious intolerance or xenophobia

Do you think teacher are prejudicial to students?

If Yes, is that relate more to:

Economic background, racial background, sexual orientation, religious belief, Gender belief corresponding ethnicity (Aromanians, Greeks, Macedonians) put numbers from 1 to 6.

is there any prejudice reflected if the teacher asks the girls to clean and the boys to fill the water?

Yes No if Yes, what type of prejudice? _____

is the teacher more familiar to the child of the businessman or the cleaner?

What type of prejudice do we have here? _____

Do you think it is reasonable to have information on the culture and tradition of your students so the teaching process is more qualitative? Yes No

Were there any Roma students in your classroom? Yes No

If Yes, did he/she sit In|: the front desk last desk in the middle you do not remember

Can you make the difference between a Roma and an Egyptian? Yes No

If yes, which is the indicator? _____

Is it important for you to make the difference between them? Yes No

What do you think about his/her development, if there was a Roma student in your classroom?

Good Very good Bad Sufficient Comment _____

Is it necessary for you to follow any training in order to help you with minimizing your prejudicial attitude towards the students?

Yes No

Do you think that this is a prejudicial questionnaire? Yes No

Semi-structured interviews for parents and teachers

Appendix 3

The questions included within ths semi-structured interview are:

Did you decide on who your teacher will be, or just as it goes by chance?

Which was the selection criteria, age, personal knowledge, being rude or accurate with the children?

Do you think you have to meet the teacher often?

The Profile of Tomorrow's School Teacher

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Abstract

Nowadays teachers are precious! The list of features that will be considered in this article is not a mere "static" description of the professional teacher we know but it is a set of attributes that should be developed in the name of tomorrow's new professionalism that raises numerous requests. Traditional competences need to be enriched and complemented (replenished) with new ones. The new form of professionalism requires teachers who want to work and have the concern to lay the foundations of lifelong learning; it requires teachers who want to cultivate creative personalities, open-minded people, individuals who worship free and deep thought and individuals who are devoted to innovation. Teaching in tomorrow's world is a challenge. The modern world does not deal with what is already known; it is interested in what we can do with what we know. Only in this way, school helps the society adapt to economic, social and technological changes. Only this way teachers fulfill their mission which regards helping the general progress. Only this way, in front of people with diplomas, the ability to think differently and to be creative will make the difference. Nowadays pupils have grown up with the internet and the numerical media, and this constitutes the point of reference for them. The whole generation is situated in a special rapport with information and the new ways of socializing. This evolution should not be put aside by teachers. The issue that rises in front of them, particularly those who are not grown up in this kind of universe, does not question whether to go towards this evolution or not, but rather use it in an effective way. New perspectives and difficulties open up to us. Only like this, teachers fulfill their mission in support of the overall progress. It will be exactly the ability to think differently and act creatively that would make the difference among graduates in the future. It remains to be seen to what extent the stakeholders, especially the teachers, will be willing to invest in the new professionalism that the school of tomorrow requires.

Keywords: profile, teacher, professionalism, modern world.

Introduction

Teachers have constituted a topic of discussion during all the times, since Socrates, Aristotels to Komenski, Pestaloci, Herbart and up to nowadays.

This profession has undergone transformations and it would be an illusion believing that it will be changeless. The majority of any society, in any time, designs for teachers the role of the "wise who will prepare future generations donating them the appropriate knowledges of the adult". Children are the citizens of the future and teaching them means precede tomorrow. The person who wishes to become a teacher should know that there are lots of roles to accomplish, such as: social assistant, psychologist, educator, conflict regulatory or the confidential figure; therefore, both, from a human and technical point of view, this figure will always be in a constant altering.

In the future, teacher's role will no longer consist in transmitting knowledge to the pupils. His main duty will be teaching them how to learn to become able to face a world that alters constantly and is full of insecurities. If we want to act on children, influence on them, define their development, it is not sufficient examining just the means that are at the disposal of the teacher. On the contrary, we should take in consideration teacher's personality, in his external light, the impression he offers, as well as, the special conditions of this action (Leif, J., et Rustin, 1984). Some individuals have features, particular

behaviours which favors them to become excellent teachers. In case they manage to succeed in this, it is indispensable for them to possess other qualities to become successful (Murati, Xh., 2004).

Constant qualities of a teacher

A question raises: what kind of qualities should a teacher have for his portrait to be lovable, attendable, notable and complete? What kind of qualities should he have in order to see the present, and moreover the future, in him?

Today's teacher, and moreover tomorrow's one, should possess *pedagogical competences*.

He should adapt his explanation to the class needs. He should explain in a clear way, without skipping steps in his reasoning; he should plainly, and without misunderstandings, show the path of thinking. He should know his pupils' way of reasoning well. He should be organized, follow a logical plan, answer pupils' questions, even when it means slowing down the class rhythm; he should illustrate his words with concrete examples, bring everything through a comprehensible language in order to avoid complicating the subject; and he should use appropriate means in the service of his goal. He should be clear to all his pupils; he should be accurate and avoid to write everything everywhere in the blackboard space. On the contrary, he should write just the essential part in it. He should be competent on the subject he explains; he should convey trust; he should not hesitate; he should make corrections.

Today's teacher, and moreover tomorrow's one, should have the ability to *present knowledge*.

He should be interesting; he should know how to attract attention; he should know how to make pupils love his subject; he should know how to transmit his passion and hit the imagination. He should be dynamic, energetic; he should have a sense of humor in order to relieve pupils from uncomfortable situations by not making a drama out of them. He should be motivated and love what he makes; he should be passionate, alive, a good speaker, dominant; he should speak out loud and in an obvious way; he should avoid being monotonous; he should be audibly reachable to everyone. He should have a good administration of the course rhythm; he should pause to allow memory to get refreshed; he should be creative with the means and methods he uses to convey knowledge. He should know how to manage the group. He should have the respect of his audience; he should be charismatic; he should show authority; his voice should be heard; he should know how to keep the class under control without being too strict in order to avoid making the pupil hesitant to ask the friend next to him (it is not always easy to listen, even when you wish you could). He should encourage collaboration among pupils. He should be fair, unbiased and non-judgmental toward his pupils.

He should be empathetic: cautious, open, comprehensible to pupils. A teacher should not rush, but rather quietly understand problems related to pupils' comprehension toward him. He should know how to repeat without getting upset, but rather show patience when any of the pupils do not understand anything. He should show interest in all of them being human and tolerant. He should know how to dialogue and joke with the pupils. The teacher should feel responsible for his pupils and their knowledge. He should not avoid pupils having difficulties and gaps in knowledge, but rather do something more for them. He should be generous and answer questions even when they arise out of the defined program. He is an educator and as such he should advice pupils on life problems, as well. He should not despise them. He should know how to place himself in their shoes and level.

As far as personality is concerned, he should be polite, jovial, smiling and funny. He should have a simple look, yet cool, precise and intelligent. Showing this kind of personality helps his desire to communicate and pupils' passion to learn. A good teacher judges in a correct way every time and he acts in a humble way. He is passionate and enthusiastic, dynamic and fair, ready to help and open-minded, attentive and creative, empathetic and auto-critical; he accepts his knowledge limits and get interested in what pupils say, think and do. He addresses his pupils the same way he addresses adults; he shows courage, feels enthusiasm for his job, encourages them to imitate him, undertakes risks, shows compassion and curiosity for the pupils, loves them and makes them work for him.

Kids are not all good-behaviour kids; they are not all perfect, thus they should be accepted as they are, with their flaws and qualities, strengths and weaknesses, eases and difficulties. Working with children is not a simple thing. School belongs to all children, including those who do not fancy learning. Teaching is a profession that holds big responsibilities.

A teacher trains and educates. His task does not include only training, but educating, socializing, cultivating values, as well. Educating means assisting a child in growing up. Teaching means being a professor, a sociologist, a psychologist, an educator, an instructor, etc. This requires not only an open mind, but skills to play with all the disciplines, as well.

Teaching is a profession that goes under constant transformation

Actually the consequences of the political and economic environment fall on children, as well. The latter reflect not only learning difficulties in school, but also the burden of their social problems. Nowadays, when lots of cultures are presented, when children with limited capacities and children facing divorce in their family get integrated, teacher's tasks within the school institution are increased. The more his tasks are increased, the more this profession develops, get modified and faces changes. Teaching world itself is a prey to continuous changes and reforms. Thus, it is always the teacher himself the one asking for some ease in adapting and improvising by breaking the routine.

Teacher in front of the “digital world born child”

Our 21st century school should educate pupils to become able to adapt themselves during their whole life to a more complex, globalized, multicultural and diverse environment which is characterized by an amazing technological progress (Allard, L., 2015).

As the main mission of the teacher is to educate citizens, he could not perform this task without the appropriate training in using digital means. A teacher should be conscious about this fact. However, even if he cannot, being in front a “digital world born child” (Capello, M., 2015), he is obliged to adapt himself continuously in order to perform in this aspect, too. Children are grown up with Google and the idea that every information is found there: “type Google and find what you want”. Grown-ups type Google, as well, but they know information can be found elsewhere, too. Internet is an essential issue and the teacher should fight to transform it into a pedagogical mean and put it at the disposal of children or youngsters' civic education (Qerimi, H., 2006).

Using internet in the teaching process constitutes a priority and can make its easier. Internet is an important teaching tool and it often provides a coherent or a more updated information than teaching texts. Internet helps the teacher add knowledge and improve teaching. He finds information, knowledge, materials, guides or suggestions in internet. A teacher can make use of different computer educative programs, varying from exercise-practice programs to practical tasks, simulation and/or instructive games program. Internet provides access to a series of topics and information coming from governmental organizations, non-governmental organizations, colleges, universities, libraries, archives, companies or individuals.

Information selection constitutes the real problem

In order for the teacher to solve this problem in the best possible way, he should build bridges and connections with his pupils outside school environment, as well. This connection should be conserved continuously. How can a teacher of the obligatory school system or high school system conserve this kind of connection with the “digital world born children”, thus his pupils? Online blogging activation permits him to publish documents and set up an interactive dialogue with them without a proper physical presence. This method helps collective work and strengthen the relationship between the teacher and the pupils. This constitutes a way for the pupils to face each-other, making comments, questions, reacting, making compliments or critics as regard to treating issues that relates to topics that have been discussed during the course.

This method helps the orientation toward projects that highlights and empower individualism, interaction, creativity and collaboration among pupils themselves and among pupils and the teacher.

Class conversations could be complex and they could intimidate children. Whereas, within a blog, things could flow naturally and a child possesses the word/answer without the pressure of his coevals. The teacher owes the blog and can feel the pleasure of his pupils' interaction increasing along with his role getting stronger. Various topics can be discussed in a blog, including teaching topics or other additional materials, as well. There is place for passions to be shared among the members of the blog. Pupils are able to share discoveries and support each-other. Such a collaboration equally brings academic profits as well as social ones. Blogs may function well because they are a natural continuity of the connection a teacher has with his class. This remains a connection between an individual and a group, not the classical interaction between two

individuals. Class model is a universal one; it was not born yesterday. Thus, there is no reason to change it, and internet cannot change it in a significative way either.

Albanian children in front of the present technology

Information and communication technologies have become a determining feature of our time in the Albanian society as well. This leads to a different life compared to the one we used to live before. There are teenagers, youngsters and children surrounded everywhere by digital technologies, such as: computers, internet, electronic games, mobile phones and other gadgets. It is not rare nowadays to see children holding a “smartphone” which enables them everything; it connects him with the family, close friends and a vast number of his coevals from other parts of the world. A child can hear music and download other music from his favourite musical genres; he can get informed on match results; he can interact in Facebook; he can read or watch television – under this circumstance, he can even think why could a teacher ever be necessary when he has the world in his hands with just “one touch” (F. Salliu 2004).

Thus, the teacher should show to the “digital world born child” that his presence is valuable.

He should give his contribution in order to:

Make it possible for the knowledge and truth on the world to be absorbed and applied in the future;

Ensure an ever-growing development of the critical thinking and the creating one;

Permanently increase the desire and curiosity to know more and more.

On the other hand, it is also true that the Albanian teacher does not always face a “digital world born child”. We should admit that not all the children or all the schools in us are provided with computers, particularly if we speak about the remote areas.

In this case, it remains a challenge providing schools with computers and helping the children of these remote areas make use of them in an appropriate way. Teachers should find ways to integrate technology as a working means for educational needs, either by using their personal equipments, or by using the equipments of those pupils who have the possibility to have them.

Whereas, in those cases when there are computers, the teachers should fight in order to prevent pupils from spending time in front of the computers just to chat or play games. Teachers should work to transform this into an effective usage of the computer, which means they should use computers to help teaching process.

Internet and school

Nowadays, among other things, they say that with internet emerging the future school will no longer be the place where children could learn and the teacher will not be more but a simple decoder. There are other extreme opinions stating and imagining complete virtual teachers. There are numerous opinions that foresee pupils will share knowledge and will solve problems together within “a collectivity” and the teacher “will only ease this process”. For the moment, this whole situation is possible only in places like Singapore, the most developed country as regard to new technologies area, where every pupil has got an ordinator in school; a pupil has got tablets and video cameras. Notwithstanding this technological hurricane, nothing is impossible!

Conclusions

Nowadays’ teacher, moreover tomorrow’s teacher, should get constantly trained during his whole life. Should we design his portrait, we would say this teacher should be a reflective practitioner, able to carry out researches in his field, basing and adapting his activity on needs’ assessment and pupils’ progress. He should continue with the pedagogical differentiation in order to fit with the pupils’ diversity.

Teaching is a progressive and integrated development process as regard to knowledge, abilities and expressions on life. Being an interactive profession, and not a static one, it evolves under the influence of a permanent dynamics just like big technologies.

Appropriate and valuable technologies, as well as other teaching resources, will depend on the defined objectives and individuals who fulfill them. According to Eggen and Kauchak (2007),

Just like other teaching resources, appropriate and valuable technologies will depend on defined objectives and on individuals fulfilling them. According to Eggen and Kauchak (2007), without a connection with the teaching objectives, technology could be counterproductive and therefore it can set apart from learning. Teachers should become well aware of this fact.

Today's teacher, and moreover the future one, should not only adapt himself to the speed at which technological changes happen and to the access children have in it, but he should also adapt himself to the cultural changes and the intelligence of the children.

Every day brings new challenges

With a view to positively make use of the full capacity virtual world offers, it is important for teachers to teach pupils ethical and responsible expressions because social changes actually are and will always be the result of the technological changes.

Teachers should teach pupils to:

use online time as rationally as possible;

dedicate the necessary time to internet or other activities, thus challenging digital age;

clarify what information should/should not be delivered in internet;

understand that everything in internet is continuous, replicable and accessible to an invisible auditorium.

One should never forget that teaching resources, even the most interactive ones, such as internet, are just instruments. It is the teacher who should use them wisely. Only the teacher's wisdom will make pupils capable of understanding the world, get integrated in it, get realized and become part of it without turning into its powerless victims. As an actor of the educating community, the teacher contributes and will always contribute, along with his similars, for school designing in the social environment. Consequently, it is indispensable for him to be a humanist, a builder and a designer. Only this way will he open the door to the future for his pupils. Today's teacher, and particularly tomorrow's one, will permanently find themselves in front of challenges: the bigger and more important the challenge, the greater the satisfaction it will produce. In this big human challenge, the teacher who asks and will ask to participate with dignity, will be required to offer a lot from himself.

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Religious Harmony, An Important Factor in the Political Unity of Albanians in Years 1912-1924

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Abstract

In the years 1912-1924, Albania was the place in which were four religions: Islam, Orthodox, Catholic and Bektashi. The ideological, political, cultural, educational movement known as the Albanian National Renaissance, (30 years of the XIX century until 1912 with the declaration of independence of Albania), it devoted an important attention of the political unity of Albanians face as chauvinistic platforms like Megaliideja and Narcetania. present at the time and at high risk for Albanians. The objective of these platforms was as much territorial and assimilationist. The equality of nationality and religion was an idea which was becoming bigger; who was turk was a Muslim, who was catholic was Latino, who was greek was Orthodox. Endangered the existence of a nation. Albanian Renaissance before 1912 aimed to find ways and appropriate means that political unity of Albanians does not sullied in front of assimilating platforms. An important political act for albanians was the Declaration of Independence from the Ottoman Empire on 28 XI.1912. In such a decisive moment religious unity should be an important part for the benefit of political unity. The motto of the Renaissance was "The religion of Albanians is Albanianism", which resulted successfully. During these years albanians demonstrate unity and religious tolerance for political unification. Among the facts that demonstrated this thing mentioned: The government proposed by Ismail Qemal (primeminister) in the moments of the declaration of independence was not approved by the Albanian personalities in the assembly of Vlorë. As part of its dominant elements of the Muslim faith, being rewritten after the elements of the four religions in Albania. Proof of this religious unity was the Regency, (Supreme Council), in 1920 the functions of Monarch with four personalities of four religious which functioned until 1924. This clearly demonstrates that the Albanians of all religious in front of national interests were unique. Respecting religious affiliations between them.

Keywords: religious beliefs, unity, politics, albanians, platforms, assimilation

Introduction

As it is known in the course of history, ongoing invasions of the Illyrian's descendants dictated, arbers and later to the Albanians, their religions, until the historical reality that we object to this statement, the years 1912 -1924, Albania was the place of four religious: Muslim, Orthodox, Catholic and *Bektashi*. Despite this fact the report between religious and national feelings, has been in favor of national feelings. The national idea in Albania prevails over everything, even over religion.¹ Since the beginning of XIX-th century (1809-1810 years), the political and literary english personality Hobhauz Xhon Kam, during a trip to the Balkan countries, concluded that albanias had a very strong national feeling, the love for their country. *"When the people of the other countries in Balkan asked who they are, - write Hobhouz, - they say ,- we are mohammedan , or we are catholic, and the residents of this country (Albania) reply I am Albanian. "*² *Always common for the albania territory and the albanians remaind the language no the religion, remaind the idea that they had albanian blood, despite of the religion.*

¹ Gabriel Hanotaux, writer of the preface of the book of Gabriel Louis-Yaray, "Unknown Albanian, In the new Kingdom of Albania", Dituria 2006, pg.12-13.

² Academy of Science of Albania, "Albania Encyclopedic Dictionary", vol.II, Tiranë 2008, pg 949.

The major fact of our history is a very positive feature of our national development. *With prominent traditional religious tolerance among Albanians, it also constitutes one of his more precious spiritual treasures, originality with which he enters proud in family of civilized nations.*¹

Nation and religion were and are sacred for Albanians... A good religiosity was a good patriot, too. For Albanians the nation is and was before religion. *God gives Nationality, while the religion is an each own choice.* An Albanian of whatever religion, was a man who fought with spirit for national dignity, liberty and who fought that his country not to be hurt. The Pashko Vasa's idea, "*religion of Albanians is Albanianhood*"², was not a coincidence. "*It is the generalization of a historical reality that continues to survive to this day.*"³ This characteristic feature for Albanians is manifested from them in all stages of their historical development. Despite the Albanian religion, Albanianhood has united them throughout the course of history, has provided their political unity in all efforts for freedom and independence. *Albanians although located among several religions, arose on them and remained a single nation and undivided. We are dealing with an undisputable historical merit of our people, which rose above religious divisions, do not let them turn into political and religious divisions, as it has happened in other nations.... Today the obligation of Albania is to preserve this historic victory of their ancestors.*⁴ It appeared even rose to new levels especially during the period of the Albanian Renaissance, (it launched in the 30-40 th century. XIX until 1912 with the Proclamation of Independence) when national and religious unity of Albanians, so their unity and political union in national movement successfully withstood anti chauvinistic attempts of political platforms, Megal-idea and Narcetania, etc. that aimed at the occupation of Albanian lands. It was propagated too much, the reconciliation of nationality and religion: who was Muslim considered Turk, who was Catholic was considered Latin, who was Orthodox was considered Greek. Endangered the existence of a nation. Renaissance's man of Albania found the best ways that the political unity of Albania wasn't violated. This was expressed by the creation of the Albanian League of Prizren on June 10, 1878 which realized the unification of Albanians regardless of religion and submit their applications with political and national character. Mucise Unlu, an Ottoman researcher, noted that: "*between Muslim, Catholic and Orthodox Albanians, (participants in LSHP-RM), there is no discussion, it is not religion that unites them, but before anything, they are Albanians.*"⁵ "*so Albanianhood, national feeling*"⁶ Renaissance motive was Albanianism and nationalism. Expressions: "*Keep our love for the nation and freedom highest, that without freedom and nationality there is no homeland, and without homeland there is no religion.*" "*Les Balkans*", an Athine magazine of years 30, sympathetic of Albania independent, wrote that the history of Albanians wars for independence, proves that: "*When they (Albanians-R.M.) had to battle for freedom, religious issues have passed into the background*". The author welcomes... *tolerant spirit of the Albanians, who loves his country indefinitely, when it comes to independence minimizes religious difference... Patriotism, nationality, is one of the most distinctive characteristics of their character at all times.*"⁷ The national historic events of 1912 that preceded the independence of Albania: the general uprising, the Assembly of Junik (May 1912), the assembly of Sinja and the memorandum of July 23, 1912 in whose the Albanians participated despite of religion, showed the unity of Albanians regardless of religion and region, to include Albania in the way of civilization. "*We, - said in one of the request that the insurgents addressed to the European states, - we go to war and death to this sacred ideal, regardless the religion: a high religion, who passed all, makes us brothers, inspires us, moves us, leads us, the resurrection of our homeland, unity and freedom ...*"⁸ The Albanian National Renaissance Movement was finalized with the collection of the National Assembly of Vlorë and the Albanian declaration of independence on November 28, 1912. The assembly of Vlorë united all the Albanians of every religion. Interfaith Cooperation for the national cause is clearly evidenced in the act of "*Declaration of Independence regardless of religion, National Assembly composed of delegates of all Albanian territories, regardless of religion, gathered today in Vlorë proclaimed the independence of Albania*"⁹.... Not only the representation in Parliament but also the government created by him that had an inclusive national and religious character was an expression of political unity of all

¹ Gazmend Shpuza, "Albanianhood above all", Alenanca's Newspaper, date 22 september 1995, pg. 13.

² Beqir Haqi, Religion and Nationality, "Man", nr.11 (23), June, Tirane, 1944, pg. 2.)

³ Gazmend Shpuza, "Albanianhood above all", Alenanca's Newspaper, date 22 september 1995, pg. 13

⁴ Gazmend Shpuza, "Albanianhood above all", Alenanca's Newspaper, date 22 september 1995, pg. 13

⁵ Kujtim Nuro, Hight gate don't know Kosovo!, Albanian Newspaper, 13 december 2015.

⁶ Gabriel Louis-Yaray, "Unknown Albanian; In new kingdom of Albanians", Dituria 2006, pg.149..

⁷ Taken from Lord Broughton, 1851,

⁸ Isuf Bajrami "The declaration of independence can not be realized without national unity and territorial unity", Monday, 03 December 2012 09:15 (<http://2lonline.com/arkiva/opinion/8725-shpallja-e-pavaresise-nuk-mund-te-realizohej-pa-bashkim-kombetar-e-unitet-territorial.html>)

⁹ Institute of History, "Lef Nosi-Historic Documents 1912-1918", Tirane 2007, pg.107

Albanians... The Prime Minister was elected Ismail Qemali. And in the first government of the Albanian state were represented all religious communities harmonized based on national interest. By creating it and by creating their own state, Albanians assured the leading center .. *"it will unite under the banner of Albania, the Albanian people"*¹ *"The principle of building state institutions on the basis of representation of all religions was implemented as the composition of Senate as well as in government (1912-1914.... Principles with entire national character and entire religious character... They will serve as a guide in the relations of the new state with religious institutions..."*² Vehbi Dibra chairman of the Senate that created the National Assembly of Vlorë was Muslim but in the declaration of Independence declared that .. *"Christian and Muslims are inseparable Albanian brothers"*³ Vlorë government failed to extend its authority and power throughout Albania, after the most of the Albanian territory was found occupied by the armies of neighboring states. In occupied territories the invaders were trying to sow the seeds of hatred and division to destroy the harmony between Albanians of different faiths in function of their policies, but without results. In connection with this quote: At the beginning of December 1912 the Serb commander in Elbasan, colonel Hadzic, gathered Orthodox men in the Metropolis church and told...: *"Listen men, Turk finished once and forever for the crimes, robberies, rapes that are committed by Turks on the Christian element, so against you..."* At the end one of the present men said: *"Christians in Elbasan have not had war or persecution by Muslims, but elements of Muslim and Christians religious together have declared the independence of Albania, distracting from the Turkish occupation."*⁴ Vlorë government remained in power from December 1912 until January 1914. Decisions of the Conference of Ambassadors in London not only halved the Albanian territory, but they decided at the top of Albania the German Prince V. Vidin and the protectorate of six Major Powers on the remaining territory. Prince Vidi came in Albania on March 7, 1914. The choice of Prince Wilhelm of the Protestant faith by the Great Powers, in a place like Albania with four religions, was not without purpose, because the arrival of the prince intended political stability and tranquility in the country, away from any religious influence and regional impact. The composition of the government was being on the basis of representatives of all religious faiths. Organic Status of Albania established the ICC adopted on April 10, 1914 designated as the Principality legislature the National Assembly with 36 members, where 21 were directly elected and 10 members were elected from the Prince. *"Because of the duty 4 members were representatives of religious communities, and the Albanian High Commissioner at the National Bank."*⁵ After the outbreak of World War I. Prince Vidi after a 6-month that he stayed at the top of the Albanian state, in September 3, 1914 left Albania. The place was engulfed by an anti-rebel insurgency of the Center Albania, promoted and organized by anti-Albanian foreign districts, directed by some Turkoman and esadist elements aimed at restoring under the Ottoman regime.

Against these elements arose Albanian religious patriots like Vehbi Dibra⁶, who in those difficult moments stressed addressing all Albanians: ... *"Our People small in number, that were enough contracted and bloody in wars with foreigners, had not necessity to killed with each-other, neither the government, neither the people, neither the nation, had no interest that Albanian blood be shaid for close one's interests: but the country, needed peace, to unite all for a purpose, for the progress of the Nation."*⁷

Beginning and development of anti-national uprising of 1914-1915 years in central Albania, followed by the introduction and invasion of Albania by the armies of two warring blocs of the First World War 1914-1918, which crumbled land in their occupation zones. In Albania there was no state institution survived. But even in those circumstances there were attempts of Albanian religious patriots, and their requests sent to international institutions to defend the territorial integrity of the country. *"At Anton Harapi draft memorandum of 1918, towards the Great Powers signed by Christian and Muslim, Archbishop Serreqi wrote to the League of the Nations: "We are here because Kosovo and Cameria .. we are all one blood daughter of a land."* In December 1918 to precede decisions of the Conference of Peace in Paris, Albanian patriots tried by every means and at any cost to be represented at the conference. For this intention, convened the Durres' Congress in December 25, 1918, which created the Government with Turhan Pasha Permetin Prime Minister. The Government of Durres had the politicians from all the lands and of all religions in Albania. The government announced in its program attempts

¹ A. Puto, "The Albanian's independence and the diplomacy of Great Powers 1912-1914", Tirane 1978, pg.126-127, "The freedom of Albania", Sofje, 22.07.1913.

² Muin Çami "Albania through the History", Onufri 2007, pg. 28-29

³ <http://2lonline.com/arkiva/opinion/8725-shpallje-e-pavaresise-nuk-mund-te-realizohet-pa-bashkim-kombetar-e-unitet-territorial.html>

⁴ Shyqyri Demiri, "Brief history of the region of Elbasan", Tiranë 2006, pg. 125

⁵ Afrim Krasniqi "Political systems in Albania (1912-2008)", Tirane 2009, pg. 37-39.

⁶ In 1913, The Provisional Government of Vlorë task him the General Muftu of the Muslim Community through Albania

⁷ <https://sq-al.facebook.com/notes/peshkopi-diber-albania/haxhi-vehbi-dibra-1867-1937/342031142542562/>

to... "to have an Albania of albanians" in boundaries that God has Faur , and where the albanian language is spoken, Albanian seeds, the oldest in the Balkans, had been able to preserve their nationality, the spirit of liberty and independence of its." ¹ Durres Government chose and sent an official delegation consisting of Turhan Pasha, Luigj Bumci, Luigj Gurakuqi, Mihal Turtulli, Mehmet Konica, Gjergj Fishta, Mehdi Frasheri which will attend in the Conference of Peace in Paris. Mihal Turtulli, member of albanian delegation in Conference of Peace in Paris, in session of Febrary 27, 1919 said that: ... " Albanians based their requirement in nationality and soul of population... It is known all around the world that in lands wich are called from greeks like the North Epir, while we called the south Albania there is no greek... they think that cristians , as i am, are greeks, but this is incorrect..."² All the Albanian delegation members ³ of Durresi Government in Paris, even those were from different faith, in the same unity, signed the Memorandum in wich define the proposals presented to the Peace Conference regarding Albania, by opposing the decisions of Conference of Ambassadors in London.⁴ AntiAlbanians and annexation plans being discused in the table of the Peace Conference for new territorial fractures in Albania, caused the reaction of all Albanians and Albania National movement. To oppose antialbanian plans and for protect Albanian state convend from 21 to 31 Janary 1920 National Congress of Lushnja. This Congress, by academic Arben Puto, was a recovery of the national idea in a new dimension. ⁵ Lushnja National Congress became clear expression of political unity, unity and readiness of Albanians based on national interests, beyond any religious division, to protect the nation. Regency, with the functions of head of state,an organ created by Congress, composed from four members of four religions in Albania. In choising of these personalities was not only attended religious or politic criterion, but also regional expansion. "... They was choisen for their patriotism, wisdom and experience, but also as representatives of four religions in the country: Mohammedan: Abdi Toptani, Orthodox, Sotir Peci; Bektashi: Akif Pasha Elbasani and Catholic, Bishop (Louis) Bumçi "⁶ "Never in its History,- said this day Akif Pasha Elbasani,- Albanian Nation wasn't united as it is today, with a desire to have their government , after the "Albania for Albanians" formula." ⁷ Representation in National Concil, Government and Hight Council (organs created by Lushnja Congress), the politicians of all the religions and politicians of the albanians lands, shows clearly that decisions and state organs created had a national character. During the 1920-th year, Albania attempted for membership in the League of Nations, where our state was presanted from Fan Noli, a vizionary politician, curchman by profession and orthodox faith. It was no coincidence that in a country with four religions and with overwhelming majority Muslim population, to attend an Orthodox as representatives of Albania in National League. This was a dignifying expression of a country aspiring for membership, with national unitary spirit despite religious divisions. In December 17, 1920 Albania and albanians become part of National League. An iportant historical moment for albanians were the first parliamentary and pluralist ellection of April 1921. It was the first experience in the pluralist and parliamentary political life. Naturally that during the ellection will appear obstacles and difficulties. Foreign antialbanian circles tried to prevent the development of the electoral process in some regions of the country. Albania Government supported by all religious opopulation, reacted sharply to these attepts. The first parliamentary ellections in Albania lasted 2-3 month (february,march,april 1921) and ended in April 5, 1921. This ellections attested the strong national politic volition of albanians electors. Even a small attempt to confuse and organized conflicts between Muslims and Catholics failed. British resercher R. Hibert noting the Albanian national feelings and the fundamental role of their albanicism , at that time emphasize that their political succes in this event prove "Albanianism - without changing religions. Patriotism victory in parliamentary elections marked another political success "on opponents of Albania State and on the opponents of its parlamentary democratic constitution, whose exactly during the parlamentary elections played very strong the letter of provincial, religious and territorial division, threatened to challenge one of the new European countries, one of the oldest nation in Europe..." (Reginald Hibert) cito?

During the period 1920-1924 the members of cabinet government were politicians of differents religions. In May 21, 1923 National Concil put on the agenda the discussion for the draft law for the religious communities. The main discussions in

¹ Kastriot Dervishi, "The History of the Albania State 1912-2005", Tirane 2006, pg. 90.

² The same, pg.92.

³ Luigj Bumçi, Mihal Turtulli, Mehmet Konica, Mehdi Frashëri, Luigj Gurakuqi.

⁴ Academy of Science Alb, Institute of Histori, General Directory of Archive, " The war of Albanians for national liberation 1918-1920, vol. I, Tirane 1975, pg. 498

⁵ [Newspaper "Shqip"](#), June 18, 2012, Prof. Arben Puto "Albania , state of national unity and inseparable"

⁶ Tajar Zavalani "History of Albania", Phoeniks 1998, pg. 259

⁷ M.Çami,"The war of Albanian people for national liberation (documentary), Tirane,1976, vol II-të doc.89 (Isuf Bajrami "[Declaration of Indipendence can not realize without national unity and territorial unity](#)", Monday, Dicember 03, 2012 09:15)

this session focused about the nationality of the directors of religious communities in Albania. Fauf Fico proposed that the directors “*of all the religions in all the instants, should be albanian citizen, and at least two generations, ethnic Albanians, and at least two generations, with Albanian nationality.*”¹ Fan Noli proposed that the clerics (directors) were Albanians and enjoy political rights² This discussion were done with the intention that realized the state unity, reconciliation and nationalizy of religion. According to the legal status of religious communities, stated among other things that: “*Senior Clergy should be Albanian citizen, to know albanian language, enjoy civil and politic rights, to be from Albanian race for at least three generations.*”³ Harmonization of the Albanian national consciousness with the religious consciousness was evidenced significantly during the 1920-1924 years. In consolidation of the Albanian state a very important role played the religious institutions. “*on top of which came new elements...wich have battled for doing the curch and mosque , institution with national spirit.*”

If at the time of the Declaration of Independence Albanian state declared itself separate from religion, what it was essentially an act of quite advanced for the time, the religion institutions in Albania were not divided from their leading religious centers abroad, which inspired not only religious dogma, but also dictate the policy. ⁴ But the albanian personalities in charge of religious institutions attempted to disconnect from centers abroad Albania. In January 17, 1921 albanian bektashi organized the First Bektashian Congress, wich declared the Albanian Autocephalous Bektashi Clergy.⁵ In 1923 The First Congress of Albania Muslim, proclaimed the independence (autocephaly) of Albanian mosque. ⁶ These were acts with national character, because represented subsidiary acts of independence and sovereignty of Albania state. ⁷

Even today religious harmony is one of the most notable virtues of the Albanian Nation. Its express in the good relations, in mutual respect between elements with different religions,even in recents years in Albania, these are strengthened not only in religious coexistence, but also in joint cooperation contributions, but also in cooperation for the establishment of building religious institutions. In Milot communes, of Malbardh village with 900 residents , are only 9 houses with residents of catholic faith, and the other residents are Muslum and all contributedand helped for the Catholic church building. Also the catholic people contributed for Mosque construction. The same happened in Derven village, no far Kruja city, where muslum people helped to construct the church and then catholic people helped to construct the mosque. Regardless of religion muslum and catholic are united for building this religious institutions and this holy places. Based on the tolerance values, citizens celebrate Cristmas, Easters, Bajram, and the month of Ramadan etc. This religious harmony and the solidarity of human brotherhood is a special virtue for Albania and for all Albanians people, because all around the world only Albania has this attribute. This appreciated and noted Pope Rancesk “*Albania,- said Pope,- is a model no only of the co-existence, but also brotherhood among different religions.*”⁸

¹ Kastriot Dervishi, “Albanian State History 1912-2005, Tirane 2006, pg.171.

² The same, pg. 172

³ The same, pg.172.

⁴ Muin Cami, "About the hamonizationof the national and religious conscience in Albania 1921-1924", The Magazine Human Rights. 3(23)-2000 pg 65.

⁵ Science Academy, A. R., FESH. Vol. I pg. 203. In Berat Congres September 10-19, 1922 founded Albania Autocephalous Orthodox Curch (KOASH--R.M.) pg. 1262.

⁶ Science Academy A. R., FESH, Vol. 2, Tirane 2008, pg 1260

⁷ Hasan Dosti, "Hasan Dosti for Fan Nolin. In book FLAMURTAR I KOMBIT. Study Seminar on the occasion of the Centennial of the Birth of Theofan S. Noli, pg 28. Published by PanAlbanian Federation of America Vatra 517 East Broadway Boston, MA.02127.

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How Do Young People Respond to Conflict? A Comparative Study of Argentinean and Portuguese College Students¹

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Abstract

Questions relating to sociability, relationships concerning conflicts and behaviours of indiscipline and violence among young people have turned out to be of particular importance. Various studies exist about the sociability of young people (e.g. Machado Pais, 1990; Margulis & Urresti, 1998; Cangilini, 2004). Nevertheless, studies focused on sociability and behavior in the face of socially learned conflicts in the context of inter-personal relationships are still very scarce. The investigation carried out falls within the area of Co-operative Conflict Resolution (CCR) - a field of knowledge and practices that emerged in the 1980s (Ury & Fisher, 1991; Aréchaga, Brandoni & Finkelstein, 2004). The work that we present shows the results of a study undertaken with young people attending the first year of university education in public and private universities in Argentina and Portugal. This investigation, which was of an exploratory nature, had two general objectives: i) to analyse the ways of approaching conflicts by young people (aged 18 to 31 years); and ii) to understand the present day social dynamics that characterise these young people. The descriptive analysis of the data, which was obtained from the responses to a questionnaire with open and closed questions completed by around 700 young university students, revealed some differences concerning the behaviour adopted towards conflicts by these young Argentineans and young Portuguese.

Keywords: Sociability; Relationships; Conflicts; Young people; Co-operative Conflicts Resolution

1. Introduction

Studies on sociability and the building of personal identities of adolescents and young people (Efron, 1996; Dubar, 1998; Frigerio, 2004; Berger & Luckman, 2008 among others) highlight the importance of establishing links with peers, of representations constructed of themselves and the way that others view them. For teenagers and young people the establishment of relationships and building links with their peers is particularly significant in the process of building their own personal identities (Efron, 1996; Dubar, 1998).

The subjects' building of their own personal identities also proceeds by means of identifications (Dubar, 1998). This is both a mental and social process, by which each person's identity is formed and transformed by assimilating or appropriating aspects and attributes of those around them (Frigerio, 2004; Berger & Luckman, 2008). We can say that the personal identity of the subject is constructed and reconstructed on the basis of the relationship and interaction with others, in interdependence with culture (Cangilini, 2004).

In the case of adolescents and young people, the exchanges that they establish within reference groups are particularly important, given that they can contribute to strengthening or weakening their process of identity-building and subjectivity.

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This process of construction of subjectivity, associated with cultural stimuli, fosters their ways of being in the world. Sociability circuits include institutions, which also foster socialisation, assuming understanding and internalisation of the world as a meaningful and social reality (Berger & Luckman, 2008), implying the incorporation of rules, norms, values and skills that make up the identity and definition of otherness, generating senses of belonging and modes of incorporation in social spaces (Dubar, 1998).

Studies on young people address their behaviour patterns with different social actors - peers, adults, significant adults, hierarchical superiors, social representatives - and their conduct in relation to conflict management. Machado Pais (1998) states in relation to young people the loss of meaning and historical continuity, which leads them to minimise a vision of the future, life projects and long-term relationships. As a result young people live primarily in the present, focusing their attention on themselves. Kessler (2004) points out that in the case of young people in conflict with the law, there is a clear need to “take advantage”, i.e. to compete and achieve the desired goal at any price.

The question of gender is another important aspect to take into consideration in relation to sociability and the behaviour of young people in situations of conflict. According to Coria (2008), gender defines a different position in relation to attributes, sociability circuits, relationship modes, conflict management and negotiating attitudes.

Social representations often arise, associating young people to dangers, victimisation, individualism and lack of productivity. These representations stigmatise and conceal the rich diversity of specific young people and their particular socio-historical context, which contributes to fostering a demonisation of young people in the social imaginary universe, simplifying the reasons for violence, sometimes in an extreme form (Reguillo, 2007). However, young people are produced and moulded by the hegemonic spaces allocated to them and they also construct their own personal identities, by disputing, reproducing or negotiating the established social order (Vila, Infantino & Castro, 2011).

The research carried out and the respective interest of such research is underpinned by the importance of identifying ways of internalising and addressing conflicts in order to conceive prevention and capacity-building strategies for young people, in order to approach them in a positive and cooperative manner. In this sense, the current study falls within the framework of Cooperative Conflict Resolution (CCR) - a recent field of study and intervention, which first appeared in the 1980s.

In this context, methods and devices of collaborative negotiation, facilitation and mediation of situations of conflict have been developed (Ury & Fischer, 1991; Folger & Taylor, 1992; Aréchaga, Brandoni & Finkelstein, 2004; Brandoni, 2015). The increased attention to this field of enquiry and practices derives from growing discontent with traditional forms of justice administration and conflict resolution because of the respective delays, costs and consequences, which thereby often accentuate reactive and violent behaviour. At the same time, cooperative conflict resolution, such as mediation, is presented as a means and a process that values communication, cooperative dialogue and recognition of the other, thus contributing to forms of conviviality and sociability of rehabilitation and consolidation of social ties (Zabatel, 1999).

We know how conflictual and violent behaviour are currently experienced and denounced in different contexts: interpersonal, organisational, social and community. The media are powerful communicators of the consequences of such behaviour patterns, which are currently reflected in violent extremism, with serious consequences at the national and international level. Systematic and massive dissemination often has a negative final impact on social representations and behaviour patterns, thus accentuating radicalism and violent extremism.

One of the goals of Sustainable Development in the world by 2030 is to “promote peaceful and inclusive societies for sustainable development, provide access to justice for all and build effective, accountable and inclusive institutions at all levels” as a result of which the fields of research and education face strong challenges, in order to foster solidarity, justice and peace.

The current study has been drawn up to prepare an initial approach with university students, to inquire about how they perceive conflict situations and address conflict between peers and adults, in order to identify and propose appropriate intervention strategies for the education and training of young people in a positive and cooperative approach to conflict. The search for consensus, reconciliation and the integration of the interests of different social actors are considered to require specific knowledge and skills. Such knowledge and skills are scarce in the educational plans of children and young people, and only rarely occur in social exchanges and in the social imaginary universe. The media often cultivates a representation that associates adolescents and young people with violence, danger and an absence of limits.

In this article we will refer to some of the results of a study conducted in 2015 with young Portuguese and Argentinean university students.

2. Methodology

2.1 Objectives, methods and techniques

Based on a brief theoretical context that was previously conducted, the current study focuses on a mixed methodology - quantitative and qualitative – in order to collect information from a large group of subjects and advance some information from respondents who were willing to participate in group and / or individual interviews.

In order to study forms of sociability and conflict approaches of young people, various objectives were defined, including the following: i) analyse the ways of approaching conflicts by young people (aged 17 to 31 years); ii) understand the present day social dynamics that characterise these young people; iii) compare the results of this study with other studies on the social representations and practices of young people; iv) provide information on the necessary conditions to design capacity-building programmes, aimed at fostering a positive and cooperative approach towards conflict and mediation.

2.2 Data collection instrument and procedures

Information has been collected so far by means of a survey questionnaire entitled "Questionnaire on conflict management" prepared by Argentinean students and researchers under the supervision of the researcher, Florencia Brandoni (2014), translated and adapted into Portuguese by the researcher Ana Maria Silva (2014).

The questionnaire consists of a total of twenty questions: two open questions, eighteen closed questions (four with a response option, if answered affirmatively) and five conflict situations, in relation to which they are asked what the respondent would do if they found themselves in the respective situation.

The questions included in the questionnaire focused on the following dimensions: situations that are considered to be confrontational and violent; causes of conflicts with adults and peers; the connotation attributed to conflicts; behaviour patterns in situations of conflict with adults and peers; perception about the social imaginary universe related to conflict; perception of socially-installed procedures for conflict resolution.

Data was collected in Portugal (Braga) and Argentina (Buenos Aires) in early 2015. In both countries the questionnaire was applied in a public university and a private university. For this purpose, consideration was made of the researchers' access to the potential respondents.

The questionnaire was applied collectively in the classroom, and took about 30 minutes to fill out. Students were invited to participate in an international study on conflict management and sociability. The cover page of the questionnaire explained the study's objectives. The students were thanked for their participation and the confidentiality of the responses was also guaranteed. Replies to the questionnaires were anonymous and voluntary. Respondents were solely asked to identify their sex and age. Nevertheless, respondents who were interested in participating in group or individual interviews could identify themselves.

2.3 Set of respondents

The respondents to the questionnaire were university students from different courses, attending the first year of higher education.

In Argentina they were students from the University Nacional Tres de Febrero (UNTREF) and the University of San Andrés, both located in Buenos Aires, involving a total of 256 university students (133 women and 123 men), aged between 17 and 31 years from fifteen different courses.

In Portugal they were students from the University of Minho (UMinho) and the Catholic University, both located in the city of Braga, involving a total of 453 university students (338 women and 115 men), aged between 17 and 31 years old, from seventeen courses. The mean age of respondents in the two countries was 20 years old.

Table 1. Breakdown of the set of respondents

Country	Total number of respondents	Women	Men	Average age
Argentina	256	133	123	21
Portugal	453	338	115	19
Total	709	471	238	20

Table 1 reveals that the set of respondents from both countries involved 709 respondents, of which 471 were women and 238 men. The highest proportion of women in the sample, namely Portugal, reflects the current reality of the Portuguese higher education system.

3. Presentation and discussion of results

The goals underlying the questions formulated in the questionnaire were on the one hand to understand how young people perceive conflict situations in the social environment in which they live; on the other hand, the way that they react and act when confronted with conflict situations in their personal lives.

Given the total amount of information that has been collected this article presents the results for the dimension *Behaviour patterns of young people in conflict situations with peers and adults*. The information was collected via three questions: two closed questions and one with five situations regarding which the respondent was asked what he or she would do in that situation.

3.1 Behaviour when faced by conflict with other young people

For the question: *What behaviour do you use most often in conflict with other young people?* the respondents were presented with 16 options, from which they could choose up to five responses or add others. Table 2 presents the response options.

Table 2. Response options for the most frequently used behaviour by young people and adults

Options

1	Compete with the other
2	Give up your claim in favour of the other
3	Seek an agreement, based on the differences
4	Seek to impose your position
5	Support the other's decision
6	Use physical force
7	Forget the conflict
8	Seek help or someone to resolve the conflict for you
9	Seek allies to increase power and impose your position
10	Become infuriated and imagine how to get revenge
11	Threaten
12	Hinder or obstruct the other's actions
13	Reconsider your position
14	Avoid conflict
15	Talk and listen to the other
16	Dialogue to convince the other

Although two of the variables assumed in the study were sex and age, there were no significant differences between the young respondents in Argentina or in Portugal for these variables. Most of the young Portuguese people stated that the behaviour patterns they most often choose when they face a conflict situation with another young person are to *dialogue and listen to the other* (56,5%), *avoid the conflict* (53,9%) and *seek an agreement, splitting the differences* (53,6%); at a less expressive level, but other response options that were also valued by the surveyed young people were as behaviours *forget the conflict* (40,6%) and *reconsider the position* (30,5%). Options such as *undermine or create obstacles for the other's actions* (2,6%) and *threaten* (4,2%) were behaviours that had fewer supporters among the young people. Most of the young Argentines preferred to *impose your position* (72,2%), followed by *dialogue and listen to the other* (66,8%).

The option *avoid the conflict* had the lowest number of supporters (5,9%). In table 3, we can see the total percentages of responses to each option in both countries.

Table 3. Percentage breakdown of responses to the question: *What is your most frequently used behaviour in situations of conflict with young people*

	Options	%	
		Argentina	Portugal
1	Compete with the other	27,3	10,4
2	Give up your claim in favour of the other	36,7	9,5
3	Seek an agreement, based on the differences	36,7	53,6
4	Seek to impose your position	72,2	19,6
5	Support the other's decision	40,6	21,2
6	Use physical force	24,6	7,5
7	Forget the conflict	45,3	40,6
8	Seek help or someone to resolve the conflict for you	26,2	4,4
9	Seek allies to increase power and impose your position	32,8	7,5
10	Become infuriated and imagine how to get revenge	21,1	8,8
11	Threaten	21,9	4,2
12	Hinder or obstruct the other's actions	21,5	2,6
13	Reconsider your position	44,9	30,5
14	Avoid conflict	5,9	53,9
15	Talk and listen to the other	66,8	56,5
16	Dialogue to convince the other	56,3	29,1

Comparing the response rates to the various options emphasises the differences related to options 4 and 14, which show the differences in behaviour in situations of conflict of the young Argentinean and Portuguese respondents and we will later analyse this question, comparing the behaviour in situations of conflict with young people and adults.

3. 2 Behaviour in situations of conflict with adults

The same question was formulated regarding the behaviour of respondents in situations of conflict with adults. They were given the same response options, except for option 14, in which the option 'avoid the conflict' was replaced by 'obey'. Table 4 shows the response rates for each of the options by the young people in each country.

Comparison of the results for young people in both countries reveals several differences, some of which are more accentuated in the responses to the various options, as can be seen in table 4. These differences make it possible to give consistency to the differences noted by the young Argentinean and Portuguese respondents relating to behaviour with young people.

Table 4. Percentage breakdown of responses to the question: *What is your most frequently used behaviour in situations of conflict with adults*

	Options	%	
		Argentina	Portugal
1	Compete with the other	16,8	4,9
2	Give up your claim in favour of the other	31,3	18,1
3	Seek an agreement, based on the differences	32	48,8
4	Seek to impose your position	60,9	25,4
5	Support the other's decision	50,8	31,3
6	Use physical force	14,8	2,4
7	Forget the conflict	44,1	44,6
8	Seek help or someone to resolve the conflict for you	20,7	3,8
9	Seek allies to increase power and impose your position	26,2	9,3
10	Become infuriated and imagine how to get revenge	15,6	5,5
11	Threaten	14,8	2,0
12	Hinder or obstruct the other's actions	13,7	2,2
13	Obey	41	35,1
14	Talk and listen to the other	60,5	68
15	Dialogue to convince the other	67,2	49,7

The attitude that the surveyed young people assume before a situation of conflict with other young people is identical to that chosen by them when it comes to a situation of conflict with adults, since 68% of young Portuguese and 60.5% of young Argentinians stated that they prefer to *talk and listen* in a situation of conflict with someone older, whereas 49.7% and 67.2% respectively opted to *dialogue to convince*; 48.8% of young Portuguese chose to *seek an agreement*, based on the differences and 44.6% prefer to *forget the conflict*, while 60.9% of young Argentinians seek to *impose their position* in relation to adults. Options such as *undermine or create obstacles for the other's actions*, *threaten* or *use physical force* were also the behaviour patterns least chosen by the young people of both countries in their conflict with adults. This attitude towards adults shows that there is a prejudice in relation to conflicts between different generations.

The options offered were grouped into five categories corresponding to different styles of behaviour in situations of conflict: i) compete ii) give in, iii) evade iv) dialogue, v) become hostile.

Table 5 shows the results obtained for the five behaviour patterns considered. The results show that a significant percentage (42%) of young Argentinians assumes dialogue as a behaviour that is more frequently used both with young people and with adults, while the young Portuguese reveal that the behaviour most used in conflicts with other young people is evasion (47.3%) whereas the behaviour most used in conflict with adults is dialogue. It should also be pointed out that young Portuguese have the highest percentages in these two behaviour patterns both in relation to young people and adults, whereas the other behaviour patterns have much lower percentages, wherein becoming hostile and use of force are the least representative in the responses (5, 8% and 3% respectively).

Table 5. Behaviour of young Argentines and Portuguese in situations of conflict with other young people and with adults

Behaviours	Options	Behaviour with young people		Behaviour with adults	
		Argentina	Portugal	Argentina	Portugal
Compete	1, 4, 9	15%	12,5%	14,6%	13,2
Give in	2, 5	12%	15,4%	24%	24,7
Evade	7, 14	16%	47,3%	8,6%	39,6
Dialogue	3, 8, 13, 15, 16	42%	34,8%	40,8%	42,6
Become hostile	6, 10, 11, 12	14%	5,8%	11,5%	3%

The young Argentines present options that are distributed evenly across the various behaviour patterns, whereas dialogue clearly prevails, both in terms of behaviour with young people (42%), and with adults (40.8%).

3. 3 Behaviour of young people in situations of conflict

To further identify the behaviour patterns of young people in situations of conflict, five situations were presented in order to enable young people to state how they would deal with such situations. In a specific manner, the young people were led to reflect about concrete situations of conflict that are likely to happen in their lives, wherein a response was presented to each of them concerning the behaviour that they would adopt. The situations ranged from experiences of conflict with other young university colleagues or closer friends, such as teachers, employers and other adults. Table 5 describes the various situations.

Table 5. Situations for young people to identify how they will respond to them

Description of the situations	
Situation A	In the Curricular Unit (UC) of Contemporary Culture, you have been asked to work in pairs. You ask João to work with you, since you believe that he is a friendly and responsible young man. He gets on well with you and accepts your offer. Given your working hours and the days of the class, you can only meet up at the weekend. On Saturday, you play a sports championship with your friends, but on Sunday you are to meet with João. However João spends every Sunday with his family and girlfriend, so it can't be on that day. What do you do?
Situation B	On the day you arrive to do a final test, on the last call for the test, you realise that your name isn't included on the list of enrolled students. You complain to the administrative officer in charge of the Academic Services, with whom you have good relationship, and he says that the professor is responsible for the situation. You enter the room, you see the professor starting the test, and he says that he can't authorise you to take the test, if you're not on the list, and that he distributed the notes in due time. What do you do?
Situation C	The day before yesterday, you met with Mariana, a friend of yours, who commented that she saw your boyfriend/girlfriend in the mall at the weekend. After beating around the bush, she says that her cousin told her that s/he met your boyfriend/girlfriend and spent the night with him/her. What do you do?
Situation D	After a long period of searching and waiting, you secure a job in a shop. The work agreement is only to serve customers. You don't like the shop's owner very much, but an employee who has been working there for a year seems nice. After a week, the owner asks you clean the shop's basement and you don't like this request, because it wasn't in your initial agreement. He tells you that the other employee doesn't want to keep on doing this task. What do you do?
Situation E	You arrive at your house and you see that the neighbour of the apartment at the end of the building has once again left the car parked on the pavement. You're already sick and tired of telling him that the pavement can't support the weight and will break the bricks, as has happened in the past. Having to change the bricks leads to inconvenience, complications and expenses. Moreover, the car obstructs the entrance and exit to your house. You ring the bell and ask the neighbour to move his car and, without letting you speak, he starts screaming threateningly. What do you do?

After a general reading of the various situations, we realise that the surveyed young people sought, in all cases, to provide adequate responses that could solve the problems that they faced. The responses more frequently chosen by the young

Portuguese people for each of the situations, after analysis of the data, were in line with the type of responses presented in the previous questions, related to the behaviour that they would choose before situations of conflict either with other young people, or with adults.

The following table presents the responses with the highest percentages for young Argentinean and Portuguese people in each situation.

Table 6. Behaviour of young Argentinean and Portuguese people in the different situations

Situations	Responses	Young Argentineans	Young Portuguese
		%	%
A	Negotiate	76	68
B	Dialogue	11	27,8
	Claim	35	21,6
	Compete	48	12,2
C	Dialogue	18	54,3
	Evade	40	13,9
D	Give in	43	42,2
	Compete	26	21
E	Claim	49	46,6
	Pacify	6	10,2

Comparing the results of analysis of the responses given by the young Argentineans and Portuguese we observe the previously identified trend. However, the evasive behaviour manifested by the young Portuguese in the reactions to the conflict with young people and adults was less significant here, given that in situation C this response was only given by 13.9% of the respondents, but is more evident in young Argentineans with 40% of responses in the same situation.

3. 4 Discussion of the results

The results above make it possible to identify similar behaviour in relation to the situations of conflict of young Argentineans and Portuguese people, wherein dialogue (with percentages between 34% and 43%) is the behaviour that is most frequently chosen by young people and which is considered to be the most effective in terms of resolution of situations of conflict.

Table 7. Preferential behaviour of young people in conflict with other young people and with adults

Preference/Level of effectiveness	Behaviour with young people		Behaviour with adults	
	Argentina	Portugal	Argentina	Portugal
1º	Dialogue	Evade	Dialogue	Dialogue
2º	Evade	Dialogue	Give in	Evade
3º	Compete	Give in	Compete	Give in
4º	Become hostile	Compete	Become hostile	Compete
5º	Give in	Become hostile	Evade	Become hostile

In the previous table it can be seen that the two most frequently used behaviour patterns are dialogue and evasion. The latter is more pronounced amongst the young Portuguese respondents, wherein for these young people the next most frequently used behaviour patterns are to give in, compete, become hostile, and use force, however with much smaller percentages than dialogue or evasion. Young Argentineans reveal that dialogue is the preferred behaviour pattern, followed by evasion, with a much lower level of response. To compete, become hostile and give in are the least commonly used behaviour patterns used by young Argentineans, but still with percentages that are similar to, or higher than, those of the young Portuguese respondents.

Notwithstanding the fact that dialogue and evasion represent a significant percentage, and therefore, represent a preferred behaviour pattern, the majority (between 57% and 66%) of the surveyed young people were divided into two different behaviour patterns: more assertive or more evasive.

In relation to the presented situations, a diversity of behaviour patterns was also recorded. Ranging between negotiate, seek alternatives and discuss, mainly, but also to give in, compete and claim. We note the frequent and natural use of distributive negotiation and also cost-benefit analysis (e.g. in the case of whether to give in, so as to keep the job). In the case of young Argentineans, conflicts that result in violence are conflicts between neighbours and loved ones. The percentage of the use of physical or verbal violence, even if lower, range between 20% and 4% when faced by the aggressive action of the interlocutor and in conflicts with loved ones. The results of the responses given to the situations require greater depth in the individual or group interviews that make it possible to assess with greater accuracy the responses given by the young people as well as the interpretation of the content of the responses.

4. Final considerations

The results obtained in the three questions relating to the behaviour patterns of young people in several situations of conflict before the various actors, it can be noticed that a significant percentage of young people prefer and/or recognise that dialogue and negotiation assume important levels of effectiveness in addressing and resolving conflicts, contrary to some studies that tend to associate behaviour patterns of increased aggression or violence with young people (Kessler, 2004). This study also does not demonstrate the significant differences in the responses between male and female respondents that have been shown in other studies (Coria, 2008). We can see some differentiation in the behaviour patterns among young people in the two countries: a tendency towards greater assertiveness and aggressiveness in the behaviour of young Argentineans and greater passivity and acceptance in the young Portuguese respondents. When we confront these results with the bi-directional model of Kilmann and Thomas (1977), we realise that a significant percentage of young Argentineans and Portuguese (about 40%) adopt behaviour patterns that valorise negotiation, the search for compromises and dialogue, expressing a concern with oneself and with others. These are important results in order to socially validate a positive image of young people. As regards the remaining 60% of respondents there is a distribution between the different behaviour patterns, wherein competition is more accentuated amongst young Argentineans and escape or evasion amongst young Portuguese respondents. These results deserve attention and interest in order to be analysed in greater depth, especially in subsequent interviews and other specific tests.

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The Introduction and the Application of Technological Innovations as Administrative Efficiency Factor in Education

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Abstract

Innovation is a rapidly developed issue, keeping all the aforementioned alerted. Considering this picture, the key issue of this thesis is to clarify the concept innovation as administrative efficiency factor in relation with education using the relevant literature. The existing literature indicates that educational structure and practices are in the center of great reforms. These reforms associated with New Public Management. NPM is a process that involves interaction between managers and markets. It is a set of cost-cutting and management concepts from the private sector including downsizing, entrepreneurialism, enterprise operations, quality management, customer service etc. According to that concept, school managers are trying to create a smaller, more responsive, more entrepreneurial and more effective public sector. Technological innovation has a key role on this and surely it can be the cornerstone of every change which may occur on this field of public administration.

Keywords: technological innovations, school management, innovation, performance, efficiency

1. Introduction

As society struggles with fast changing circumstances, the cutting-edge in public governance becomes a high-aiming target. Public administration is at a stage where considerable pressure for change exists. Innovation in governance seems to repeat a historical pattern. It begins with administrative reforms to enhance the performance of public authorities, moves to changes in public policy, then involves the more difficult task of wider institutional reform and finally requires institutional innovation to complete the cycle of modernization (Caiden & Puniha, 2011).

The UK Department of Business, Innovations and Skills give a typical definition of Public Sector Innovation (PSI): "Innovation is the process of identifying, testing implementing and spreading ideas that add value". Governments play an important role in establishing the conditions that will enable a knowledge- and innovation-driven economy to prosper. The withdrawal of administrative burdens, the subsidizing of specific research and developed projects and the launching of creative partnerships with businesses from the private sector are few of the government challenges. In addition, the deal with societal challenges, like education quality and crime fighting are also vital.

The extended concern on how to utilize and achieve these concepts affects politicians, public servants and those whose seek to shape public opinion. Moreover innovation is a rapidly developed issue, keeping all the aforementioned alerted. Considering this picture, the key issue of this thesis is to clarify the concept innovation as administrative efficiency factor in relation with education using the relevant literature.

2. Methodology

This is a paper which is a clear literature review based on secondary data. Secondary Data is often includes surveys and researches that may have some relation with the research scopes but they do not always give the answers that the research is looking for. Nevertheless, they can help the author to gain knowledge and make comparisons with her research results.

This paper will rely on the presentation of the related literature review. Hence it will reproduce all of the related papers and research so to make up this paper.

3. Literature Review

3.1. Educational institutions as organizations

The term <organization> in the scientific management field comes with double meaning, which also consists of the definition:

a) as an entity (school, hospital or ministry)

b) as a basic managerial function (Katsaros,2008) The organizations are systems with coordinated activities, acts and forces that are brought by two or more people, who through communication they aim towards achieving one or more common goals. (Pavlopoulos,1983)

The "organization" -kindergarten, school, university, college or the educational system itself expects from the manager to do three things:

- to use the available resources in order to achieve his goals
- to maintain and develop the resources
- to be efficient The role of manager is different from the teacher's one, while the teacher is only responsible for the intellectual well being of the students, the manager on the other hand has to be the "glue" inside the organization connecting the different parts, facilitating the learning process and taking care of the financing and bureaucratic procedures.

3.2. Educational Management and Leadership

From the numerous researches that tried to give a definition in leadership by defining the concept, is noted its importance. Leadership is a process designed to influence the actions of a person or a group, in its effort to achieve the objectives of a company when the prevailing conditions are given. (Hersey & Blanchard, 1969) Analyzing the definition of leadership it is obvious that the leader, the subordinates and other variables constitute the process of leadership (Mpourantas, 2005). Between leadership and management as well as between manager and leader there are differences (Foot & Hook, 2008).

The necessity to change the behavior and the attitude of the people, when the prevailing conditions favor it, even to change the way that an organization operates or when an organization is trying to improve the working conditions as well as to implement an innovation, then we are referring to leadership. Leadership with the help of communication, aims to influence the behavior and the activities of the subordinates in order to achieve the goals. On the other hand, the use of bodies, sources of information and human resources in order to accomplish the aims of an organization, then we are talking about management. Managers form people's behavior through the official authority they possess. On the other hand the leader, with no official authority, demonstrated and recognized by a group of people, creates clear and perceptible values which are incorporated into the organization's strategy. Management deals with the non-human resources while leadership focuses on the human ones. Many efficient managers with the passage of the time become efficient leaders (Buchanan & Huczynski, 2004).

Zileznik refers to four areas in order to define the differences between leaders and managers: their goals, their work, the image they have of themselves and the relations with others. Managers set goals that occur from the organization's needs

and are objective, while leaders express their own vision, having personal perception about the goals. General managers choose the most satisfying solution in order to achieve the organization's goals, the relationship with the subordinates is based on the power they have through the authority they possess and they seek stability inside the organization. Leaders are looking for innovative ways to solve a problem, develop emotional relationships with the subordinates, inspiring them and they don't take anything for granted, being always in search (Zileznik, 1977).

3. 3. Introduction to Educational Management

Many researchers involved in the area of management and came up with a variety of definitions. The management is defined as the process by which the elements of a group are integrated, coordinated and utilized so as to efficiently achieve organizational objectives. (Carlisle, 1982) Management is defined as an operational process that includes five individual acts: programming, organization, administration, coordination and control (Saitis, 2008).

Saitis (1994) defines management as a rational combination of various activities that are included into a collaborative effort, inside an organization which is designed to serve specific purposes. Education is an area of management that shows both similarities with other areas and quite a few differences that require adaptation and new approaches. Specifying the definitions mentioned above at the school level the following findings are noted. The management function at school level, serves the purpose as mentioned at the law 1566/85 (article 1) that is defined as "purpose of the primary and secondary education is to contribute to the overall, harmonious and balanced development of the intellectual and psychosomatic abilities of the students" creating the conditions that will maximize the performance of the teaching and supportive staff, the local society and the parents. Implementing the definition of management in the field of education we could rephrase it as : a system of action that is based on the rational use of available resources – human and material- in order to fulfill the objectives that are set by the various types of the educational institutions (Saitis, 2000, p. 24). Indisputably the educational management is not only responsible for the implementation of the laws but also for the upgrade of the quality of the educational procedure that takes place at the school units (Saitis, 2008).

3. 4. Specifying innovation in the public administration

In general terms public governance refers to a pattern of rules applying in the public sector. It conveys the administrative and process-oriented elements of governing. There are five separate categories that constitute the public governance (Kapucu, 2010):

- Administrative governance concerns about public administration
- Public policy governance shows the cooperation between networks and political elites
- Socio-political governance indicates institutional relationships in society
- Contract governance is a collection of policies controlling contracting-in and outsourcing practices
- Network governance analyzes the cooperation between government and nongovernmental organizations in order to promote communal interest.

More commonly public governance occurs through Networks (that engage public and private collaborations), Market mechanisms (where competition under government regulation allocate resources) and through methods that involve governments and the state bureaucracy. Innovation in public governance is an extended set of linked activities, a mechanism which is implemented to solve problems or to gain better governance outcomes. The increasing need for productivity and efficiency in the public sector gives innovation a leading part in all administrative activities engaged by government. It depicts the art of doing things in a better way than before.

Innovations diversify to incremental (those who evolve a current service or product) and to radical (those who launch something entirely new). Consider a product or service. Incremental innovation is to make the product better, simpler etc. Radical innovation is to launch a completely new product or service.

In addition, depending on who has initiated the process leading to behavioral changes, innovations are divided into "top-down" and "bottom-up". The first give priority at the top levels of management, meaning management or organizations or institutions higher up in the hierarchy. In the "bottom-up" process public employees, civil servants and mid-level policy

makers are the groups that start the initiative. We make a more detailed approach on the following section “the diffusion process”.

Finally, whether the innovation process has been initiated to solve a specific problem or in order to make already existing products, services or procedures more efficient it can be divided to needs- led and efficiency-led innovations. It has been shown that needs-led innovation is rarely driven by a major crisis but rather, mostly by internal problems (budget constraints, problems meeting the objective, etc.) which led to dynamic incremental innovation processes. Top-down innovations are probably less frequent than bottom-up innovation though more radical; they seem to be more driven by changes in the agencies' organization or pressure from the civil society (lobbying) than from legislative or electoral processes (Theinint, LL&A 2010).

Innovations can take several forms:

- Product innovation- developments of products or services that an organization offers,
- Administrative innovation- the use of a new policy instrument, which may be a result of policy change,
- Process innovation- changes in the ways products/services created and delivered,
- System innovation- a new system or a fundamental change of an existing system, for example the establishment of new organizations or new patterns of co-operation and interaction,
- Paradigm innovation- shifts in the underlying mental models which frame what the organization does,
- Conceptual innovation- a change in the outlook of actors (such changes are accompanied by the use of new concepts),
- Radical change of rationality-meaning that the worldview or the mental matrix of the employees of an organization is shifting Rarity and significance can be seen as a precondition for innovation meaning that innovation is a relative phenomenon (Anttiroiko, Bailey & Valkama, 2011).

A second precondition for innovation is the successful implementation. Well-established, old mechanisms usually introduce non-innovative reforms and changes. In public sector success is debatable because one group may be benefitted while, at the same time, disadvantage others. Success cannot be appraised properly. In the private sectors gains from innovation are translated into profits and market shares, thus payoffs can be evaluated.

3. 5. Factors and Pre-conditions for successful Innovation in education's management

There is a variety of factors and pre-conditions that enhance the creation of innovative ideas and sustain the outcome in the management of education. The following list gives a representative illustration of these elements (Rivera León, Simmonds & Roman 2012):

- Leadership is a vital factor of success. It includes the achievement of strategic alignments across an organization, the understanding of boundaries, the incentives to staff to take on actions and the collaboration across work units
- Culture, strategy and human capital. Innovation is more likely to happen in environments where a culture that encourages and rewards new ideas exists. A culture of trust, which gives authority to translating innovative ideas into practice, and embedding respect and good communication are thus essential. In addition, the work of top level managers is vital, in setting strategic directions to the organizations they lead.
- Understanding the environment. A good understanding of the focus of their organizations, the internal dynamics and its external environment is essential in order to meet the targets. The environment is volatile and changes constantly , requiring public organizations to be flexible enough to respond to these changes. Capturing evidence and having access to information through qualitative and quantitative data is vital in understanding the environment and reacting to it.
- Organizational capabilities and innovative capacity. Empowering and supporting staff responsible to bring innovative solutions into action, which in turn necessitates leadership, investment and commitment. Organizational flexibility and agility is needed in order to shift and obtain necessary skills and resources to meet emerging needs and opportunities.

- Good governance. Governments should be accountable in respecting citizens freedoms, ensure the political stability and the absence of violence, be effective and provide quality services, regulate friendly policies and respect for the rule of law and control of corruption.

- sustained support of politicians, officials and suppliers. Political leaders and officials can establish a culture in which innovation is seen as natural. Organizations whose structures may change before the implementation of PSI, require projects that will embody low risk for a long term process.

3. 6. The application of technological innovation so to create efficiencies on education management

Innovations applied to education into four modes: technological, processual, organizational and institutional (Kickert, 2005).

These innovations vary from new tools and methods to the formation of hierarchy in organizations and the transformation of state centrism institutions to network societies. Innovation models are complex procedures as a result of the number of participants and the activities involved. Early models were simplistic linear affairs and mainly about physical products and processes – the typical “technology push” or “demand pull” stereotypes. These have gradually evolved to more complex and interactive models, weaving different knowledge strands together. Such complex interactive models are particularly relevant in the context of services where users are a key part of the equation. Depending on the circumstances each model has a better application. It is not a case of one being better than the other but rather that we need different model for a different situation. In the following list we present a number of models for ways in which innovation can happen in education with the use of tecnology (Bessant & Tidd, 2011):

- Research and Development led model

A concept is conceived by specialists, refined and launched. Investments in research and development lead to new products, services etc.

- High involvement innovation

This model stresses the ability of all employees to contribute to incremental problem solving innovation through what are often called continuous improvement' or 'kaizen' programs. Strategic objectives of an organization are clearly specified and understood. Targeted in this way high involvement innovation can deliver significant traction in areas like quality improvement, waste reduction and efficiency gains.

- Diffusion-centred

This model focuses on how to spread an idea rather than to generate a new idea. It is equally important to spread successfully and adopt an idea through a variety of participants as to create a new one. The main concern is to make the idea work.

- Radical/discontinuous

In this model a specialist works on a radical idea, being completely free, autonomy and break with conventional approaches. An early and famous example of this would be the 'skunk works' which Lockheed Martin set up to help them develop the – for its time – impossible innovation of an invisible airplane. By allowing the group significant autonomy and keeping it separate from the mainstream it was possible to develop the stealth technologies which later became a mainstream innovation for the business. Public sector examples might include some of the radical policy think tanks and some of the Future Focus activity, but the question could also be raised about the relative absence of such models on the public sector innovation landscape.

- Entrepreneur driven

This model recognizes that much innovation arises from individual ideas in the early 'fluid' phase in the innovation life cycle. The value of an innovation model based on this is that it captures the fast creativity of diverse and enthusiastic individuals and small groups and may give important clues or even early entry to what becomes the dominant design for the future. It also underlines the venture capital model of growth, in which sponsors and entrepreneurs are connected to develop and scale innovations with a high level of novelty. This model has significance for the public sector since it potentially taps into the rich vein of social entrepreneurship distributed across individuals and groups around key regional, issues and concerns.

It highlights the need for brokering and connecting to enable these entrepreneurs to flourish and their ideas to reach a wider audience – the amplifying effect. Examples might include The Hub, Innovation Exchange, BBC Backstage, Young Foundation, Education innovation challenge etc.

- Recombinant innovation

Innovation does not always involve pushing the frontiers of a particular market or technology; in some cases it can happen through transferring lessons from one world where they are well-developed into a new context. Key to making this happen is mechanisms to bridge across different worlds. Public sector examples might be the transferring of lean / six sigma principles which originated in manufacturing but could also include learning from radical experiments in different contexts – for example, Aravind eye clinics education institute and 'bottom of pyramid' (BoP) learning around health care, mobile banking and services in BoP markets.

- User-led innovation

Based on the pioneering work of Eric von Hippel work, this model recognises that users are often initiators or at least co-creators of innovation at the 'fuzzy front end'. Ideas may be developed into prototypes by user innovators and then be picked up on and produced/refined by professionals. Private sector interest in this approach has grown, not least as a consequence of the emergence of powerful selforganizing user communities – such as that surrounding Linux – which have become major sources of innovative ideas. There is now extensive use of 'crowd sourcing' and innovation competitions to mobilize expertise and insight at the front end of innovation.

In the public sector, in our case in educational management, there is considerable scope for this kind of activity – in Denmark it became the centrepiece of a major innovation initiative and led to the establishment of a specialist group – 24 Mindlab – with the mission of developing and diffusing user led approaches across the educational management. In the UK a variety of activities – such as the experience-based design work at educational institutes are examples of this approach.

- Long term co-evolution

This model relates to the specialized and occasional type of innovation in which transformational innovations emerge out of highly complex and chaotic environments. Under conditions where there are many different stakeholders and other elements – for example, technologies, markets, financial sources, etc. – it becomes impossible to predict the direction or long term trajectory of innovation. Instead complexity theory suggests something will eventually emerge as a product of 'co-evolution amongst these different interacting elements. An example might be the long-term picture of chronic disease management – we know that this is a growing problem involving a wide range of stakeholders – patients, health professionals, patient's associations, drug and medical companies, pension providers, etc. The growing incidence of chronic disease, its rising costs and increasing expectations mean that the current model is likely to be unable to deal with this challenge – but what replaces it is impossible to predict via simple extrapolation. Instead it will co-evolve out of the interactions of the various stakeholders. This does not lend itself to a structured innovation model but it is possible to develop some approaches to 'manage' innovation under these conditions. Complexity theory indicates that there are some patterns to complex system behaviour – for example, it is possible to identify 'attractor basins' zones where something begins to emerge – and to use amplifying feedback to enhance that to the point where it becomes a dominant design. The innovation management lessons here would be to be in 'there', engaged with the co-evolving space, be in there early, and to be in there actively, picking up on shifts which might become nodes around which radical new options emerge. A private sector equivalent might be the Danish diabetes care provider Novo Nordisk which invests £1m/year into the non-profit Oxford Health Alliance – a diverse group trying to work on chronic disease in radically different ways. This investment represents their 'lottery ticket' – by being close to the discussion they are 'in there' and 'in there early' and in a position to detect where early possible radical solutions might be going and to follow up on these. It is not clear where public sector equivalent organizations or approaches might be found though some of the think tanks might represent communities in which this might be happening. This was an indicative list as stated by iande.com, presenting relevant models operating in the public sector. Many combinations of the previous models can also happen. In addition, some models are better than others depending on the circumstance that are applied. More over in many cases an excellent solution is a combination of them.

4. Discussion

This paper presents an overview about innovations in the education management and how it can improve efficiencies. There is an extensive literature that covers the subject of innovation in the public sector, more precisely in the education management, sufficiently and detailed reports from institutional departments that document efforts globally. Still, innovation is an ongoing process as managers face volatile socio-political and economic environments. We made a comprehensive capture of published literature concerning technological innovations and we presented indicative cases where the efforts of managers are illustrated and assessed. Educational administration represent a significant part of the European socioeconomic activity. As the demand for educational services in many advanced countries is growing faster than the rest of the economy, it is essential for radical innovative solutions to be applied in order to address budget constraints and higher expectations of the users.

It must be said that educational management occurs through Networks, Market mechanisms and through methods that involve governments, schools, teachers, headmasters and the state bureaucracy. Innovation in education targets at the solution of major problems and the development of new opportunities. Innovation models are complex procedures as a result of the number of participants and the activities involved. Mainly they involve, research and development processes, synergies of public authorities with the private sector and focus on the diffusion process. All those lead into an efficient mode of management for school units.

5. Conclusion

Educational structure and practices are in the centre of great reforms. These reforms associated with New Public Management. NPM is a process that involves interaction between managers and markets. It is a set of cost-cutting and management concepts from the private sector including downsizing, entrepreneurialism, enterprise operations, quality management, customer service etc. According to that concept, school managers are trying to create a smaller, more responsive, more entrepreneurial and more effective public sector. Technological innovation has a key role on this and surely it can be the cornerstone of every change which may occur on this field of public administration.

Regarding the future of technological innovations in the management of educational institutes, organizational knowledge plays a significant role at launching and implementing innovative ideas. Knowledge management efforts typically focus on organizational objectives such as improved performance, competitive advantage etc. it is a changing mix of workers experience, values, expert insight, and intuition that provides an environmental framework for evaluating and incorporating new experiences and information.

6. Suggestions for Further Research

This paper tracks down the key issues on the Introduction and the application of technological innovations as administrative efficiency factor in education. The literature review indicated that there are many opportunities from the leverage of technological innovations. However, there is a need to proceed with a further research, which will be a qualitative research among educators so to examine this case.

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The Role, Responsibilities and Duties of the Homeroom Teacher in Albania Education System During the Communist Regime (1945 – End of '60-S)

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Abstract

Education is one of the most sensitive topics on a worldwide scale as it is one of the core components for a qualitative future generation. In Albania, education is always related and affected by the greatest political movements and events of the country's history. As such important, observation the history education evolution can serve as a great source of understanding different issues that today society is facing and by the quality and quantity of the actual education we can invest in a better future for the country. The emphasis in this research is put at the period in between 1945 until end of '60 as a timeframe snapshot of the evolution of the Albanian education. Extreme ideologization and politicization, are the key features of the role, responsibilities and duties of the homeroom teacher during the 50's but that doesn't mean that it continues the same for the homeroom teacher at the end of '60s. The ideologization and politicization expansion in Albanian schools comes intensified significantly based on the political and economic relations in between Albania and the Soviet Union. This is clearly expressed in the majority of articles and explication by the specialized pedagogical bodies in the periodicals of the time. Despite the fact that the model of the homeroom teacher had to be oriented toward the soviet model, some core features/functions are not changed as; The homeroom teacher been a key figure in the Albanian school, high school as well as seven grade education; He/she was responsible for the progress of his/her students, for order and discipline in class and the education of the class as a collective and each student of it; To achieve his/her role, the homeroom teacher must organize differentiated work as well as individual with students, to collaborate with other teachers with the pioneer and youth organization, with parents and with the school, where was obliged also to report periodically; In conclusion, although the Communist Party was inducting its models in the school and specifically in the role, responsibilities and duties of the homeroom teacher, this key role created some core values and competences inside the institution that would remain mostly untouched throughout different political changings.

Keywords: *Education, homeroom teacher, school, ideologization and politization, Communist Party*

For this period, is used an extensive literature review of mainly primary sources of the periodical press of the time. All the published materials in the periodical press that are related directly to the role, responsibilities and duties of the homeroom teacher are reviewed. A particular importance for our study have been the published articles in specialized educational bodies of the time such as pedagogical magazines, Magazine "National Education" and the "Teacher" Journal (today "Teacher" magazines). Thousands of pages and hundreds of articles are read and reviewed. To analyze the role responsibilities and duties of the homeroom teacher for this period are carefully selected over 50 articles. In these bodies many directors of the Ministry of Education, other educational institutions, inspectors, field experts, school principals, teachers, etc., have been contributing with articles.

1. The role, responsibilities and duties of homeroom teacher in the 50s

Through all the articles of this period the emphasis is put on the role of the homeroom teacher in the framework of the overall goal of the school. The main purpose of the school in that period was "... to equip the younger generation with a qualitative education, courageous, to possess the fundamentals of science, be equipped with features of will to overcome

beyond the difficulties faced in the job, love the people and fatherland, love the Soviet Union, be passionate partisan of peace. (Magazine "National Education", 1950, no. 8, page 6).

The ideological and political indoctrination of Albanian school, its direction, the work of homeroom teachers, education of students with this spirit, the support and influence of the Soviet school in all its aspects, are constant features throughout this decade. "To our new School - notes the Ministry of Education and Culture of the time - is assigned the duty to teach and educate both children with communist morality, fatherland's next generation" (magazine "National Education" 1957, no. 6, page 27).

These two requirements are a central feature of the work of the homeroom teacher of this period.

Within this framework it is defined and the role of the homeroom teacher, who has to deal with the education of the young generation. "Our school - stated in the press of the time - based on the principles of Soviet pedagogy, does not conduct educational work on special hour" (Magazine "National Education" 1958, no. 12, page 53); it is spread across the educational system. The homeroom teacher has a special responsibility to coordinate and direct all educational work. (Magazine "People's Education" 1958, no. 12, page 53).

The main duties of the homeroom teacher are (Magazine "National Education" 1950, no. 8, page 7-12) to ensure the development and implementation of school rules, to monitor progress of students of his/her class on behavior and how they use their free time. It is the duty of the homeroom teacher to recognize the characteristics of the class in general and each student in particular. He/she should aim at creating a healthy collective spirit in the class, but not based on orders from above, but through promoting student initiatives from below. He/she is also responsible for the health of each student, as for the patriotic education of students of his class. It is his/her task is to empower students not only to plan learning activities, but also the way of using their free time.

To achieve these objectives, he/she designs a specific plan of activities, documenting the implementation of this plan by holding a special diary and reports on the implementation with a report to the Director. He/she has to coordinate work with other teachers of the school, the pioneer or youth organization.

Special role is given to the cooperation with the parents of each child, but previously he/she is required to get to know the conditions of each student's family.

Some forms of work that are recommended to the homeroom teacher (Magazine "Popular Education" 1950, no. 8, page 7-12) are: organization of scientific circles, the class wall journal, organizing excursions and visits to in production and work centers, publishing the school literary newsletter, organization of meetings with personalities from different sectors. It is considered as responsibility of the homeroom teacher to make it possible for every student in his class to engage in useful social work, especially in the organization of patronage, the form of work in which most advanced students contribute towards pupils with lower performance or students of higher classes students take on the patronage students of the lower grade classes.

The homeroom teacher must make differentiated work especially with the lower performance students. He/she was asked to organize separate meetings with the parents of these students in the school, but also to organize visits to the families of these students. (Magazine "People's Education" 1950, nr. 7, page 50). For the lower performance he/she had to organize in school study sessions through a specific work plan based on the subjects, as well as with all those students who did not have suitable working conditions in their homes. (Magazine "People's Education" 1951, no. 8-9, page 51). He/she was also responsible for organizing the morning study or morning consultation. (Magazine "People's Education" 1951, no. 8-9, page 52).

Organizing visits in the student's family are recommended especially during exam season. (Magazine "People's Education" 1951, no. 8-9, page 52). Especially during these seasons he/she was asked to coordinate the work with the parents committee. (Magazine "People's Education" 1950, nr. 7, page 50).

When it comes on the collaboration of the homeroom teacher with parents, he/she is recommended organizing meetings with parents last Sunday of each month, during which he/she had to present not only the grades of students, not just the state of their behavior, but it was required by him/her to come prepared to develop an educational lecture. (Magazine

"People's Education" 1950, nr. 7, page 49). To the school it was asked that through the homeroom teachers to organize "Teacher's Service" to welcome the parents to come for consultation. (Magazine "People's Education" 1958, no. 12, page 58). Also in school is required the creation of the school parents representation corner. (Magazine "People's Education" 1958, no. 12, page 58).

The importance of teacher visits in the families, as well as the organization of meetings with parents, are mentioned in many articles of this period. (Magazine "People's Education" 1951, no. 8-9, page 51); (Magazine "People's Education", 1953, no. 5, pages 35-36).

Particular authors, consider as an important "front" for the education of students the cooperation between the school and families. (Magazine "People's Education", 1953, no. 5, page 35). The same thing happens with emphasis on the role of the wall newspaper and the development of working visits in to the production centers. (Magazine "People's Education" 1951, no. 8-9, pages 53-54)

In the press are brought concrete examples of the homeroom teacher's work in high school as well as in the seven grades education. It underlines the need for connecting the homeroom teacher with other teachers, coordination of the work of teachers with students, organization of their free time and especially the creation of collective within each class. (Magazine "People's Education" 1957, no. 6, page 27).

However, there are also critical writings as well as the presentation of problems that schools and homeroom teachers face of the time. One troubling problem of the time that involved the homeroom teacher, in high school as well as at seven grade education, was in school discipline and regime. Indicator concerns in this regard were: the worst grade evaluating student behavior, school expulsions, unsubscribing and a number of other disciplinary actions. (Magazine "People's Education" 1957, no. 6, page 28). Among their main causes are identified as: lack of internal regulation of the school, the homeroom teacher's indifference, lack of educational plans, significant concessions to enforce regulations, poor work with parents and students, etc. (Magazine "People's Education" 1957, no. 6, page 28).

To address and resolve these concerns, importance is given to the designing and implementing internal regulations of the school. According to the Ministry of Education and Culture "Drafting of internal regulations is a responsibility: where participants need to be not only the school director and deputy director, but also the secretary of the base organization of the party, youth secretary, the chairman of the professional committee as well as experienced class tutors... The regulation project is reviewed in the pedagogic council meeting and approved by the director of the school. (Magazine "National Education" 1957, no. 6, page 29).

One of the homeroom teacher working forms with his/her classmates should be the weekly class meetings. The topics of these meetings was to be different, interesting and useful. They should be used as forms for creating the behavior of cultured and courteous speech and general cultural education of the students. (Magazine "People's Education" 1958, no. 12, page 55- 56).

The homeroom teacher was required to combine the stimulation and encouragement form, with criticism and sanctions. Even in this direction there are provided concrete examples. (Magazine "People's Education" 1958, no. 12, pages 56-57).

The most important article on the role, duties and responsibilities of the homeroom teacher for the second half of the '50 and early '60, we believe that is the article Nos Delianës, Director of the Institute of Teacher's Perfecting in Tirana. (Magazine "People's Education" 1958, no. 4, page 25- 38).

In his article the author interprets the regulation of the tutor's class, drafted and sent by the Ministry of Education and Culture in November 1956.

In this article there are many new responsibilities and tasks that are added to the homeroom teacher, as there are repetitive duties that belonged to the homeroom teacher before the release of this regulation.

The role of teachers is generally seen as provider of knowledge and skills, and also as an educator.

The homeroom teacher should be subject teacher in his/her class and was responsible for all educational work developed with students in that class. He/she was considered the closest assistant to the director.

First, it was required of him/her ideologically, politically and educationally growth.

The homeroom teacher should draft a detailed plan of its educational work, which had to be coordinated with the general plan of the school, with the working plan of the pioneer or youth organization.

"The homeroom teacher's duty is to monitor the progress of the students of his class and student behavior, so he/should should keep records on the progress of enrollment and student behavior." (Magazine "People's Education" 1958, No. 4, page 25). For this purpose, he/she is obliged to assist in the classes of other teachers, talk with them, control of student notebooks, their cards and register of class. He/she should recognize his class students at school, outside of it and in the family. It is his/her task is to determine how united are the class students, which is the level and interest of each student towards the political life of the country and the international situation, and whether they evaluate them right or not.

The homeroom teacher studies and verifies the main characteristics of the class as a collective and those of each student as an individual. He/she should discover each student's family conditions, the past family's past as well as the relations among family members.

He/she should keep detailed records for each student at the end of the year and had to build a wider characteristic which was placed in the student's personal file.

A special responsibility of the homeroom teacher's work was considered the work with the lower level performance students, so he/she was asked to design a specific plan of concrete measures.

In the article is emphasize the special role of the wall newspaper class for progress and discipline in the classroom and also the creation of patronage teams for poor the lower level performance students.

In the framework of cooperation with other teachers, he/she had to regulate the student's homework load in all subjects, he/she was demanded to organize periodical meetings of teachers who teach in his/her class.

The aim of his/her work had to be the ensured of unity in the educative teaching work.

It was considered his/her duty to care for the cleanliness and hygiene of students and class.

In this article the emphasis is placed on the headmaster responsibility for organizing weekly class meetings and the implementation of "the rules of the students".

Also it is emphasized the responsibility of the homeroom teacher to organize thematic meetings on festive occasions or commemorations and particularly celebrations devoted to political events. He/she was asked to organize these meetings by including preferably all the students.

On the same time, the homeroom teacher was required to organize the "amusement" of the students. These evenings are known by the term "thematic-amusement" which aimed to combine education with entertainment. It is recommended that these evenings should be organized in the premises of the school (Education and Popular Culture 1955, No. 11, p 58).

Also, the homeroom teacher can also organize student's birthday celebrations, but only of those who had very high scores. It was recommended these celebrations to be organized in the homes of students "... so that the celebration might have a familiar character and serve to better recognition of them and for further strengthen of their friendship" (Education and Popular Culture 1955, No. 11, pp 58-59).

For excellent students it was recommended that "... The homeroom teacher in cooperation with the pioneer and youth organizations can organize symbolic gift, certificates of merit, etc." (Education and Popular Culture, 1955 No. 11, p 59).

The homeroom teacher duty for creating different clubs and different liaising with parents, was highlighted.

The homeroom teacher's work was monitored directly by the school principal, who provided this not only through the asked documentations but also by organizing separate meetings with the homeroom teachers, he was even asked to organize methodical meetings with the homeroom teachers; and for this purpose it was recommended translated literature from the Soviet school.

At the end of the article it is given the educative work plan of the homeroom teacher as well as a concrete work plan for the homeroom teacher of the sixth grade. (Magazine "People's Education" 1958, no. 4, pages 25-38).

If we generalize what was said above, we can conclude that:

- The homeroom teacher during the '50 has been a key figure in the Albanian school, high school as well as seven grade education.
- He/she was responsible for the progress of his/her students, for order and discipline in class and the education of the class as a collective and each student of it.
- During this period, special importance was given to ideological and political education of students relying on the experience and the Soviet school.
- To achieve his/her role, the homeroom teacher must organize differentiated work as well as individual with students, to collaborate with other teachers with the pioneer and youth organization, with parents and with the school, where was obliged also to report periodically.

2. The role, responsibilities and duties of homeroom teacher in the 60s

Based on the legal, political and administrative perspective, the 60s are distinguished for some important moments that affect the Albanian school in general and the role and responsibilities of homeroom teacher in particular.

In the 1960 was published a number of decisions known as the "*Theses of the Central Committee of the PPSH and the Council of Ministers for the reorganization of schools and for the further development of national education*", which "*aimed to link more closely the school with life, to give the young generation general polytechnic education and prepare them for manufacturing work, without reducing the level of knowledge of students*". (National Education, 1960, No. 7, Page 28).

In the 1963 was compiled the new law "*On the organization of the education system in the RPSH*".

- According to this law "*The education system in the National Republic of Albania has as objective the general education of the young generation and their preparation to take active part in the construction of the socialist society. Its duty is to equip the young generation with genuine knowledge, to build the Marx-Lenin outlook, to provide vocational training and jobs, to educate youth in the spirit of socialist patriotism and proletarian internationalism and to provide their moral, physical and aesthetic education*". (Article 1)
- It also stated that: "*The fundamental principle of work in schools and in institutions of higher education is the connection of learning and education with life, production, the socialist mode of the construction of the country*". (Article 4)

In enforcement of the law, in 1964 was compiled for the first time "*The Educational Work Program*" and in 1966 was compiled "*The Regulation of General and Vocational Schools*."

The strongly emphasized idea in all these documents and in the press of the time, was the need to combine "*the teaching work with educational work in one process of comprehensive training and education of children and youth*". (National Education 1964, No. 1, Page 128).

A special role in this direction was needed to be carried on by the homeroom teachers. This was limited not only by the fact that their responsibility in the education process was crucial, but also because until that moment, there were emphasized problems in their performance. In the press of the time it is highlighted that "Our teachers (homeroom teachers) many times they fall into formalism in their educative work with the students. This responsibility is reduced into some formal meetings

of the class, into compiling of standard education working plans in the class, in a “*campaign*” way of work, mainly superficial, without specific goals, without actual content... In most of the times the educational work is done in a spontaneous way, randomly, many times it becomes uniform and same despite the different ages of the students” (National Education, 1964, No. 1, Page 128).

Ascertain that in many cases the educational working plans were all almost the same (the “Teacher” journal. 1964, No.13, Page 4). Fundamental weaknesses were found even in the organization and development of weekly meetings with the class by the homeroom teacher, meetings that were mostly monotonous and non-relevant. In many cases the meetings of the class were even considered as a trial. (the “Teacher” journal, 1963, No.2, Page 3).

Special attention was given on the content of the educative work. Different authors strictly believed that the personality of the student is shaped during the whole process, activity and their social life: at school, at home, outside-outdoors. They emphasized that “*these factors must be driven in the best way in order to create an educative balanced unity*”. (National Education, 1964, No. 1, Page 129). For this purpose, it had to be compiled a system of the educative work in general.

Precisely to define better the content of the educative work in schools it was compiled the “*Educative Work Program*”. This document defined the basic characteristics of the educative work, the qualities that needed to be taught to the students; it recommended the activities that needed to be organized for each class and at the same time it had specific directives for the homeroom teachers. (National Education, 1964, No.1, Page 129).

It was recommended that this program needs to be executed in compliance with the concrete conditions of every school, but the main condition was that “*in the educative work, the teachers should be focused on the clear directives on education given by the party*”. (National Education, 1964, No. 1, Page 129).

In many schools, it was observed a gap in between the teaching work and the educative work. Therefore, in the new program it was demanded that the educative work and the teaching work must create a unity and together to aim the creation of the new man. (National Education, 1964, No. 1, Page 129).

The homeroom teacher was recommended to use a variety of methods, forms and activities in the educative work, starting with the class meetings, continuing with the educative work of all the class combined with the individual educative work with each student, to the “5 minutes” appointments with the class at the end of each lesson.

For the meetings with the class, it was recommended that the homeroom teacher should give special importance to the process of preparation as well as continuity of the work even after the meeting.

The homeroom teacher should give importance to the clarifying and convictive work with the student, taking organizational precautions to achieve the targeted goals, persistence and discipline for the accomplishment of specific duties as well as delegation of some responsibilities to the students. The homeroom teacher should be very careful in order to assist the students so they will be able to “*walk on their feet*”. (National Education, 1964, No. 1, Page 132-33).

The homeroom teachers should work systematically during all the scholastic year starting since the first grade.

The Educative work program gave special importance to the work “*in the psychological front*”. “*This-stated there- is a working front that touches directly the content of the educative work*”. (National Education, 1964, No. 1, Page 136). Therefore, it was required psychological preparation, high morale, persistence and patience.

Whereas the *Educative Work Program* has to do more on the content of the educative work in schools as well as some methods and forms of its organization, the other document, *Regulation of General and Vocational Schools*, addresses issues more based on the administrative character.

In article 12 of this regulation it is stated that: “*every class should be leaded by the homeroom teacher, who is assigned by the Director of the school. The home room teacher, continues article 12, is responsible to coordinate the educative work of the teachers, to collaborate with the pioneer or youth organization for the communist education of the students, to follow and take care of the behavior and their progress, to maintain closed relations with the parents and help them in their children’s education.*”

The homeroom teacher works based on a trimonthly or semester plan of education work. He/she organizes meetings with students of the class when needed. (Regulation of General and Vocational Schools, Tirana 1966, Page 10).

In regard to the actions undertaken for the student's promotion and punishment, in the power of the home room teacher is acknowledged only the right to accord the disciplinary action of remark in front of the class. (Regulation of General and Vocational Schools, Tirana 1966, Page 18).

In the periodic press of that period, especially in the education area, the discussion on the above decisions and documents, as well as the specific problems of the Albanian education, hold a considerable position. Many articles and texts are written before, during and after these decisions have been published. We will focus on those problematics that are tightly related with the role, responsibilities and duties of the homeroom teacher.

Since the first year of the 6th decade (1960), it is reemphasized the role and responsibility of the homeroom teacher in the framework of the whole Albanian education system. There it is specially highlighted that the role of the homeroom teacher it is not limited in just producing statistics or evidences of the student's progress or just the organization of some class meetings. *"In the whole learning process – educative of a class, the homeroom teacher plays a very important role: he/she will unite and balance the work of the other subject teachers, will transmit to the class the directives from the School Directorate, will organize their implementation in collaboration with all the other teachers, the youth organization, parents and the School Directorate.* (National Education, 1960, No.6, Page 50).

Herein, the homeroom teacher work must be concentrated towards the student's progress in the learning process, as well as towards their education. He/she should know the group of the class as well as each individual separately. For this purpose, he/she should keep a special diary. (National Education, 1960, No.6, Page 51).

For the first time, importance is given to the work of the homeroom teacher with the classes compound by boarder students. It is a duty of the homeroom teacher that for these children he/she *"should keep closed relationships with the caretakers and vice director of the dormitory; he/she as well should keep continuous contact with the parents of the students by writing to them letters, to inform as well as guide them in relation with their child"*. (National Education, 1960, No.6, Page 55).

The homeroom teacher is advised to rely on the *"archives of the class"*, the group of students with high results and excellent behavior, to accomplish with a high quality the educative work and achieve great results in the class. (National Education, 1960, No.6, Page 50).

Special importance is given to the qualitative organization of the class's meetings, the better usage of the newsstand of the class, organizing patronage groups, etc. But special focus is put on the relationship and collaboration in between parents and teachers. *"The homeroom teacher informs on the student's behavior as well as on the progress, guides them on the ways of studying at home, on the entertainment time and ways, on the household, sleep, etc."* (National Education, 1960, No. 6, Page 54). It is required that this collaboration must be extended during the whole scholastic year, not just at the last month of the year.

The homeroom teacher is required to work with enthusiasm and coordinate his/her work with the neighborhood around the school and its organizations. (The "Teacher" journal, 1961, No.12, Page 2).

He/she is asked to organize together with the students, helpful/useful social works. In the press channels are given examples of these activities, among which are mentioned *the collection and delivery of medicinal herbs* (The "Teacher" journal, 1961, No.12, Page 2), *cleaning of the surroundings of the school, cleaning different areas of the neighborhood or the city etc.* (The "Teacher" journal, 1963, No.2, Page 3). Throughout these activities it was aimed the education of the students with the passion for work, the feeling of hygiene, as well as to save the state enough money. (The "Teacher" journal, 1963, No.2, Page 3).

The teacher possessed the "leverages" that could "use" for the successful execution of his/her responsibilities. Suchlike, was the student trustee, who had to be considered as the connection in between the class and the homeroom teacher. (The "Teacher" journal, 1961, No.12, Page 2). Furthermore, the homeroom teacher was recommended to "use" the active part of the class's parents, compound by 3-4 parents. The active part of class's parents constituted the core of the *Class's Parents Council*. This organization could help the homeroom teacher by becoming his/her coordinator in the relations with

the other parents. The members of this organization could pay visits in the families of the students with learning, discipline or frequentation problems, or even by helping the homeroom teacher in organizing general meetings with the class's parents. (The "Teacher" journal, 1961, No.12, Page 2).

By all means it was required that the work with the parents should be coordinated "*in order that the requests should be equal, adapted, according to the age and as much consequent as possible*" (The "Teacher" journal, 1963, No.2, Page 3). In the education press are given many positive examples on the successes or results of the homeroom teachers of the time. These are often used as models for the other homeroom teachers. According to a model presented by a group of teachers, at the beginning of the scholar year they group the class based on the weaknesses and based on this they build their educative plan for the whole year. In this direction they have in mind the "organizational measures, the ideological work, the out of the class work, working with parents as well as other thematic. (The "Teacher" journal, 1963, No.2, Page 3). Anyhow most important for these teachers remains the progress, discipline and attendance, besides the personal example of the teacher. For this there are used also proverbs as "Words teach you, examples educate you." (The Teachers Journal, 1963, No.2, Page 3).

One of the ways that is still recommended massively in between the concrete examples, is the patronage form and the placement of the patrols; the first, to help weaker students; the second, to control the compliance of the daily regime decided in the class meeting. (The "Teacher" journal, 1963, No.12, Page 3).

The collaboration and relationship of the homeroom teacher with the other colleges that teach at the homeroom class, remains a very preferred way of the homeroom teacher work. He/she had to talk to them in regard to the weaknesses of each student, had to ask them on giving extra assignments if needed, to specific students, to activate them as much as they could during the lessons, etc. Most impressive are the visits of the homeroom teacher in specific teaching hours of other teachers, to observe the standing of the students, their behavior, the activation, the quality of the response, presence, etc. (The "Teacher" journal, 1963, No.12, Page 3). This was necessary so that all the teachers would have the same tactic with the students of the class." (The "Teacher" journal. 1964, No. 19, Page 3; No.8, Page 2).

The student's booklet is considered as important documentary way of the communication in between the homeroom teacher and parents. The booklet was specifically used to show the student's progress.

Many teachers practice successfully the visits in the families of the students with different problems, like low frequentation and absences, low results, absence long periods of time for medical reasons, as well as other joyful occasions. (The "Teacher" journal, 1963, No. 12, Page 3).

In this framework are seen also the conversations with the parents regarding different issues. Parents are invited in the class meetings, in order to know better the situation in the class, the level of progress, weaknesses, accomplishments, frequentation problems, behavior and discipline. (The "Teacher" journal, 1963, No. 12, Page 3).

In several special occasions and activities parents are asked to contribute voluntarily through their work, experience and knowledges, or even help with materials according to the type of the activity.

An interesting way how to mobilize the students on the preparations for different activities, have been the invitations for special guests during these activities in the class. The presence of these guests was used as a chance for the students to better clean the class, decorate it properly, prepare the activity with greater desire, passion and responsibility and be more active during its implementation. (The "Teacher" journal, 1964, No. 19, Page 3).

Inside the publications, it is stated that the students gradually start to appear with uniforms and "pioneer scarfs". One of the successes of the homeroom teachers is the fact that "boys and girls sit on the same bench together". (The "Teacher" journal, 1964, No. 13, Page 4).

The 60s of the XX century mark the intensification and enlargement of the role, responsibilities and duties of the homeroom teacher in the Albanian education system.

- This feature is part of the politic aspect (*The Thesis of the CC of PPSH and Council of Ministers of 1960*), as well as the legal one (*Law on the organization of the education system in the Republic of Albania 1963*), enriched

by other important documents with professional character (*The Educative Work Program 1964*) as well as administrative (*Regulatory of General and Vocational Schools 1966*).

- On an ideological outlook, it is evident for the first time the concept of “*the creation of the new man with the Marxism-Leninism outlook*”.
- As we have emphasized previously, during these years it was demanded that the educative and learning work in the school should create a sole unity.
- In this framework, the homeroom teacher duty was to coordinate the educative work of the teachers, to collaborate with the youth or pioneer’s organization, on the communism education of the students, to follow and take care of the behaviors and their progress, to maintain closed relationships with the parents and assist them in the education of their children.
- In the specialized media of the time there were offered models, forms, ways and examples on how the homeroom teacher must and could achieve an objective like this. Besides the already known ways from the 50’s, new ways were introduced also.
- The reliance on the soviet school, in the pedagogy and soviet model, are not mentioned anymore.
- Despite the ideologization and politicization of the Albanian education system, and specially the educative work in the Albanian school, the core of the homeroom teacher work on taking care for the progress of their students, on frequentation, discipline and holistic education, even in the 60s remains unchanged, constant.

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Challenges of Western Balkan Countries on Their Road to EU Integration

Mirvan Xhemaili

Abstract

Western Balkans is one of the regions that has experienced the worst and the longest transition after the Cold War. The dissolution of Yugoslavia at the beginning of 1990s was associated by destructive interethnic conflicts, by local and regional wars, and also by political and ethnic accidents. Western Balkans is also closely related to Europe politically and economically. The historical period to be considered in this research is the post-Cold War period, after the immense changes in central Europe, and the southeast Europe, i.e. the Balkans. The international factor has actively intervened in the Balkans. The international presence is both military and civil. Various international mechanisms have played a determining factor through direct activities in the region. The process of dissolution of former Yugoslavia has fragmented the Western Balkans in many spheres, starting from the border changes to demographic changes. This process also resulted in creation of new states that changed the geopolitics of the region. The fragmentation was caused by many factors: historical, political, economic, military, geopolitical, and strategic. Also, this development was determined by the political concepts that are leading the region in respect to EU integration. The development of the regional political process has now conditioned and oriented the Western Balkans towards integration in Euro Atlantic structures. Knowing that these countries have as a strategic aim the full membership in the EU, I can say that this makes the process more dynamic and faster, because we are dealing with a process that entails the same principles and same values that are closely related to regional interests. Regardless of the same orientation on values and geopolitical interest, the Western Balkans is currently in a fragmented level in regards to EU integration.

Keywords: Europe, Balkan Region, conflicts, cooperation, integration.

Introduction

The European Union map remains open for the Western Balkans¹ and the Balkan countries should be on the edge border of EU. The European map would be considered incomplete without the countries of the Western Balkans. Unlike the other part of Eastern Europe, the Western Balkans is one of the regions that has experienced the most difficult transition after the Cold War. At the aftermath of post-communist transitions when most Central and Eastern European countries embarked on a process of deep economic and political change, the Balkan countries remained entrenched in a series of ethnic conflicts, succession wars and endemic circles of instability. The Western Balkans of the last 25 years had former Yugoslavia as a central issue. The dissolution of Yugoslavia resulted to seven independent states. After the wars that followed the initial proclamation of independence in several of these countries, a period of consolidation ensued, along with European integration as well as reconciliation efforts. During this period, the EU was engaged in the region through leading a series of peace-keeping missions and paying the lion's share of assistance. By 2000s the EU has promised to turn a leaf and lead those countries into stable, self-sufficient democracies, at peace with themselves and each other, with market economies and the rule of law. This article seeks to identify and analyze the problems and challenges of transition, the political, economic and social transformations, the process of policy-making in these countries of the Western Balkans, the external and internal factors, the nature and the role of national actors and the political leadership in this process. The article also seeks to uncover the impact of the EU in the Western Balkans political transformations. Approaching the EU impact on Western Balkans political reforms as a process of countries' socializations to the norms institutionalized in the European environment, this study dwells on both the external and domestic factors that determine the mechanisms of norm

¹ The term the Western Balkans means, the States that that emerged of the collapse of the ex-Yugoslavia, including Albania. So countries such as Kosovo, Albania, Montenegro, Bosnia-Herzegovina, Macedonia, Serbia and Croatia. In this study would not have treated the case of Croatia, because it is already a member with full rights in the European Union from 1 July 2013.

assertion in the domestic areas. European Union to the Western Balkans, and the opportunities and challenges that this will bring about. We will focus on the political dimension of this process, particularly in meeting the Copenhagen criteria. Particularly, the principal objective of this paper is to explain the reasons that led to the wars in Western Balkans and the EU initiatives that were supposed to help in resolving these problematic issues and to facilitate the accession of the countries of the region to the European Union. Regardless of the effort jointly performed by the EU as well as countries from the region, this research shows that a lot of work will still have to be done before all of the countries become adequately developed in a political, economic and societal sense to become members of the European Union. The origins of the European idea and the formation of the European community after the Second World War lie in the aspiration to prevent further wars among European nations. As stated in the Schuman Declaration of 1950: “*One of the main goals of the original idea of European integration is defined as preserving peace in the Member States*”. In this research, we argue that the same concept should be applied to the territory of Western Balkans, that is, that the European integration of the region could help to preserve peace in the region while also providing stability and, consequently, political and economic growth. Furthermore, as D. Trenchov (2012:5) argues, we note the growing need for interdependence amongst all of the European nations and states on different political and societal levels. Moreover, as the central aim of the process of European integration is twofold—entailing of stabilization as well as accession—we critically assess the relative value of the European Union applying either a regional or individual approach to the respective countries in the process of accession. Regardless of similar orientations in geopolitical interests, the Western Balkans is at the stage of fragmentation because of its past legacy and transition difficulties concerning integration in the EU. Political and economic developments in the region have been unsatisfactory. Reasons for this include security issues and the slow transition. In the beginning of the 1990s, and especially after 1992, the relations between the countries of the Western Balkans and the EU were organized based on the Trade and Cooperation Agreement. The key purpose of this agreement was to inspire economic and market reforms in order to prepare for an association agreement with the EU. As regards to the regional approach the European Union in 1996 made a differentiation between the two terms ‘South-East (SE) Europe’ and ‘Western Balkans’. ‘SE Europe’ refers to all of the countries from the Gulf of Trieste to the Black Sea, while Western Balkans consists of “Yugoslavia minus Slovenia plus Albania” (Alibali 2003). It could be said that generally the relations between the EU and the Western Balkans countries are evolving and that the EU has embraced a good methodology to the region since it has brought progress as well as cooperation between the conflicted countries. This is particularly apparent in the bilateral and multilateral meetings organized by or with the support of the European Union where political leadership of these countries gather and take common decisions that are valuable for the whole region. However, we notice that more should be done on the level of civil society, where efforts would have a direct impact on citizens. Another problem might be the often noticed difference in discourse chosen by politicians depending on whether they are addressing domestic or international audiences. The key argument of this study is that the selected EU method of imposing political dialogue in the region is correct and should be further developed. Saying this, we underline that the countries that emerged from the former Yugoslavia (including Albania) are relatively small countries that need mutual support in many different policy areas as well as in the process of EU accession. Besides the value derived from cooperation at the official level, the citizens of these countries will benefit more by working together, cooperating in the fields of culture, education and business. We must say that all earlier enlargements of EU had encouraging impact by providing the new momentum for reform of all aspiring countries involved. The enlargement of market, economic growth, financial and monetary strengthen and stability are just some of the prerequisites that increase the EU in as a global actor to escape from traditional shell. The process of EU enlargement involves conditioning, assisting, monitoring and checking a candidate country’s capacity to be an EU member.

European Integration of Western Balkans: From reconciliation to the European future

After the World War II, Yugoslavia became a leading country of Non-Aligned Movement during post war period, and the greater part of the rest of the world divided itself into two ideologies -Western and Eastern that was more than a reason for the initiation of the Cold War. (Maleski, 2012). The dissolution of Yugoslavia generated the open angers between the new independent countries. Open conflicts and disputes between the newly formed independent countries and the part of Yugoslavia that wanted to preserve the status and conditions from before, created a lot of problems and difficulties for Europe and incited its inspiration commitment in the Balkans. Setting up a two-side problem, efforts were made to find an acceptable The Enlargement policy has been considered as the most successful and powerful policy. The Enlargement policy has helped many European states to transform into functioning democracies, and also into prosperous countries. The EU has long viewed the enlargement process as an extraordinary opportunity to promote political stability and economic prosperity in Europe. The logic of functionality seeks to address the weak state structures and institutions that

resulted from the post-communist transition, the ethnic wars, the intrusive and heavy-handed external interference and the lack of capacity and experience of the new independent states, successors of former Yugoslavia. State weakness has become the main challenge of the region and refers to the lack of the rule of law, flourishing organized crime and corruption, and illegitimate and no representative institutions (UNDP 2002). Western Balkans countries are all geopolitically oriented towards EU, but the transition process in these countries is ongoing. The European Union has been committed to help these countries to consolidate their states and develop their stable institutions as well as their economies. The EU has made many times clear that its policies are in favor of including these countries to the club of the 28 member states. The prospect of joining the EU is the greatest guarantee and the most powerful stimulus for democratization and progress of Western Balkan countries and that the EU, because of the political conditionality attached to the financial aid, will have a considerable and positive impact on domestic reforms and transformations. The process of integration in the European Union is both political and technical. It is political considering the fact that all the aspiring Balkan countries are oriented geopolitically towards the European Union, and all of these countries have EU integration as a national strategic objective. Also, even within EU there should be a unanimous consensus to be in favor of the enlargement process. It is technical process because in order to join EU, these countries have to fulfill certain criterion (Copenhagen Criterion) and standards. The process of EU integration has helped these countries consolidate their states and their democracies. By 2000s the situation in the Western Balkans was resolutely different from the vicious circle of nationalism, violence and authoritarianism that had locked-in their distinct path of transformation in the first decade of transition. The Balkan countries from the outset have distinguished themselves for their specific and challenging path of transition. The historical transformation that started with the fall communism in 1989 had all the premises to be particularly challenging. Not only did it involve a triple and simultaneous transformation of both the economy, politics and in some occasions states themselves, but it also involved dealing with the particular legacy of communism as a distinct form of organization (Eckiert and Hanson 2003). The process of integration of Western Balkans in the EU is characterized by many challenges and distinguishing characteristics: the post-communist challenge, the post-conflict challenge, and the challenge of decriminalization of political arena.

Post-Communist challenge:

The countries of the Western Balkans have made great strides in overcoming the legacy of a half century of communism and introducing wide-ranging reforms. All of the Balkan Countries aspiring to join the EU have been communist countries. The transformation of political leadership in Western Balkans during the presents an interesting phenomenon. Both former Communist leaders as well as new democratic leaders became nationalists in the newly formed states. The wars were used by former Communist leaders in order to stay in power. They also delayed the political democratization of the former Yugoslav states, State building within the states of the former Yugoslavia coincided with the post-conflict transition as well as the transition to post-Communist rule, which made the situation difficult. We can easily see elements of authoritarian decision making process by the political leadership in the Western Balkans, and the political leadership is responsible for the insufficient reforms and the slow rhythm of changes that have been done in the countries until now.

Post conflict challenge

The countries of Western Balkan region (1991-1998) also had a recent history of violent instability, wars and ethnic conflicts and divisions, representing in this way a bigger challenge for both themselves and the EU. (Balfour, 2011). The main reason for these wars and conflicts were the unsolved national disputes among these countries. During this period, the EU was more concerned in reconciliation of the region, repairing the damage, the security issue, respectively the financial support. The foundations of democracy, the rule of law, political dialogue and human rights are still being established in these countries. At the same time, these are all criteria posed by the European Union for countries seeking to become members, which is the goal of all Western Balkans countries. Currently, they are all declaratively typical democracies showing higher or lower levels of functional democratization. However, there are many bilateral disputes between neighboring countries within the region. The relations between these states are still burdened by the previous wars. The strategic issues that these countries need to deal with in order to advance bilateral relations, but also in order to gain access to the European Union, are border issues between the respective countries. The process of transformation from a centrally planned to a market economy is a huge and multidimensional task, which requires incorporation of the principles of market liberalism, free and open markets, liberalization, privatization, deregulation, labor market flexibility and minimal state intervention. The countries of the Western Balkans have made important progress in economic stabilization and in their

macro – economic system. The main of the SAP, the SAA, focuses on respecting for the key democratic principles and the development of a market economy with the integration of the country into the EU single market

The challenge of decriminalization of political arena

If one analyzes the progress reports that the EU Commission issues yearly for countries of the Western Balkans, it is obvious that continually there are some fields that have been criticized constantly, such as: corruption, organized crimes, free elections, media and so on. In this regard, it is worth mentioning that the wide ranging organized crime and its links with the structures of power and political elites are a bad sign of any governance of law and seriously impede the progress of the countries. This sign and its infiltration in various domains of public and political life are linked to the absence of statehood and poor or even severe economic situation. Therefore, it is important to mention the recent law that has been passed by the Assembly of Albania on decriminalization of political arena, and other countries should take this as an example to keep the criminals out of public and political life.

EU approach to the Western Balkans

The enlargement policy has long been considered as the EU's most successful tool for democratizing transition countries. The experience of Central and Eastern European countries during the 2000s undoubtedly supported this belief, while comforting the EU's legitimacy in its role of transformative power. Nevertheless, the Western Balkan democracies have not made any improvement recently. Populism and authoritarian temptations have put Western Balkans' civil society under greater pressure; they have weakened key institutions guaranteeing the rule of law and harmed political pluralism and electoral processes. Young people, in particular, seem estranged both from the political systems as well as increasingly from the idea of European integration making a contribution to their lives. The abridgement of freedom of the media, the degradation of parliamentary democracy, the rise of political radicalization, clientelism and voter abstention have become markers in many Western Balkan democracies. The European Union decided on using a regional approach in this part of Europe in order to achieve greater stability among the conflicted states and a normalization of relations between them. Its role is predominantly stabilizing, as each country has applied for, or expressed interest in, acceptance into the EU. The European Union was committed to facilitate the process of transformations and reconstruction in the region of the Western Balkans, therefore, the agreement formula for the Western Balkans was a new strategy with a regional dimension, called the "Stabilization and Association Process (SAP) (Elbasani, 2013). This is a framework in which a contractual relationship – the Stabilization and Association Agreement (SAA) and an assistance program (CARDS) – help each country to progress towards EU membership. (Bello, 2010) The SAP is a long term policy for moving gradually from stabilization and reconstruction to association and sustainable development in a flexible and dynamic process. By introducing European values, principles and standards to the transition countries it aims to help with their reforms, bringing them closer to EU membership (European Commission 2003:2). The SAP has been complemented by another project which is also an EU initiative, the Stability Pact for South – Eastern Europe. The Stability Pact focused on democratization and human rights, economic reconstruction and development and security issues, with the aim of accelerating the transition of the countries towards stable democracies, market economies and open pluralist societies. It would help faster integration of the region into the EU structures. To benefit, countries had to co-operate and work on tensions and crises in the region, develop good regional relationships, create free trade areas, and fight against organized crime, corruption and all forms of criminal activities. (World Bank 2000) The EU has continued to show its readiness to support the countries of the Western Balkans continuously, so in 2003 the SAP was confirmed by the Thessalonica Summit as the overall policy framework. Later, in 2004 the European Commission approved the first ever "European Partnerships for the Western Balkans. The preparation of the Balkan countries for integration into European structures is a major priority of the EU. The Summit of Thessalonica in June 2003 was a milestone in the relations of the EU with the Western Balkans. The Summit sent a strong political message to the countries and the people of the Western Balkans: their future lies in integration into EU structures, EU is committed to the European future of all Balkan countries, and the Europe will be fully re-united only after this region has become an integral part of it. The rate of progress of this integration, however will depend on the performance of the countries themselves and on a wide range of reforms. Countries that wish to join the EU and become its members, have to follow a certain path, which for some countries is long, difficult and requires a lot of hard work. This path is a set of technical stages as below:

Pre - Accession Process: trade, cooperation and association agreements

Accession – Process: candidate status

EU Membership: membership status

The objectives of the Pre-Accession Process are created not only for integrate the Western Balkans in the EU, but also to eventually overcome ethnic conflicts in the region. For the effective implementation of the standards required from EU, which are the criteria defined in the European Partnership documents the EU rewards each applicant country with additional funds for Pre-Accession Assistance (IPA) for the implementation of the reforms. Also, the process of integration is based on certain criterion established by the EU. In 1993, the Council of Europe of Copenhagen set out political, economic, legal, and administrative criteria for membership in the EU. (European Council 1993: 1). The political criteria requires countries to have stable institutions that ensure democracy, the rule of law, human rights, and respect and protection of minorities. The economic criteria requires countries to have a functional market economy, as well the capacity to face the pressure of competition and strength of the internal European market. The legal criteria require candidate countries to make their national legislation compatible with that of the EU and to have the ability to implement the EU body of laws and regulations. The administrative criteria requires that the candidate countries have the administrative capacity to implement the laws and policies and of the EU. **Regional cooperation:** European integration and regional cooperation are closely intertwined. One of the key aims of the SAP is to encourage countries of the region to cooperate among themselves across a wide range of areas, including the prosecution of war crimes, border issues, refugees and the fight against organized crime. One of the specific components of the IPA is dedicated to regional cooperation and cross-border programs. **Visa-free travel:** Visa-free travel to the Schengen area was granted to citizens of the Former Yugoslav Republic of Macedonia, Montenegro and Serbia as of December 2009, and to citizens of Albania and Bosnia as of November 2010. In January 2012, a visa liberalization dialogue was launched with Kosovo. In its May 2016 fourth report on Kosovo's progress in this area the Commission concluded that Kosovo had met all the requirements, but that two outstanding issues should be dealt with by the day of adoption of its proposal by the European Parliament and the Council. Countries of the Western Balkans - Albania, Bosnia, Croatia, Macedonia, Serbia, Montenegro and Kosova have understood that reforms in establishing democratic and stable institutions, creating a functional state based on the rule of law, creating a market economy, and increasing the role of citizens in society; are the best path to a new future in peace, stability, prosperity, and freedom. Hence, the EU has helped the countries of the region during the course of transition, particularly the countries of the Western Balkans. This support and assistance aims at planning their accession into the EU as member states as soon as they meet the needed standards. The EU has always shown a willingness to promote the membership of the Western Balkans, but the EU's approach will be promoted only as long as the region and the countries individually continue to reform their political and economic systems. The EU always reminds the countries of the Western Balkans that the assessment on their membership will be taken on the basis of individual progress, disregarding all uncertainties that there is alternative way for the region to integrate in the EU. Although the consensus among member states of the EU exists about the constructive impact on EU enlargement policy, on political stabilization and socio-political development in the Western Balkans, it is expected that the accession of Western Balkan countries will be a challenge to the existing and the new member states. This describes the differences in the approaches of European political elites and citizens concerning their support for the membership of the region to the EU. It is clear that the implementation of the EU standards by the Western Balkan countries will have a crucial effect on the willingness for enlargement. The effects 'of enlargement fatigue' that would be caused the by the membership of the Western Balkan countries and the concerns of delaying the process of internal reform within the EU institutions must be taken into account. This "enlargement fatigue" displays a problem that the EU member states face. Specifically, they have to choose between internal growth and development, which is a priority to the EU, and the enlargement. It is thought that the most beneficial result in this regard is the mixture of these two goals, profiting from the EU enlargement, in parallel with keeping its unity and internal efficiency. The enlargement strategy is centered on the principle of conditionality – the offer of the EU rewards (most importantly financial assistance and membership) on the condition that WB states meet the demands set by the EU. In order to support the development of Western Balkan countries in 2006 the EU adopted the Pre-Accession Instrument (IPA) 2007-2013 as a form of financial assistance. It is expected that many of the institutional and development priorities identified in Western Balkan countries will receive financial support through the IPA over the next few years. The perspective of integration of the Western Balkan countries in the EU has played a central role in political, economic and social stabilization by relaxing the effects of internal conflicts and efficient

transformations. Even if the progress of the Western Balkan countries towards EU integration continues with varying dynamics, the hope of possible membership is an important factor and catalyst to continue with the reforms. It will take hard work and the political will of those in power in the region. So, with sufficient political will and ability to reform and endorse the core values and the principles of the European Union, the countries of the Western Balkans, among them Albania, will be next in line. The present situation is the following: the EU has developed a policy to support the gradual integration of the Western Balkan countries with the Union. On 1 July 2013, Croatia became the first of the seven countries to join, and Montenegro, Serbia, the Former Yugoslav Republic of Macedonia and Albania are official candidates. Accession negotiations and chapters have been opened with Montenegro and Serbia. Bosnia and Herzegovina and Kosovo are potential candidate countries. (European Parliament)

Challenges and Perspectives: The internal and external political challenges of the Western Balkans Countries

The EU integration process is a highly complex process which comprises of the design and implementation of reforms in a wide range of areas. The experiences of new EU member states as well as those currently in different phases of their EU integration process clearly indicate that working simultaneously in many areas and making decisions about complex political, economic, legal and institutional issues with long-lasting consequences for the everyday life of citizens is far from an easy task. The challenge of European integration can encourage the development and functioning of democratic institutions capable of dealing a rapid and complex transition involving areas such as cultural, economic, institutional and political life. The determination made on the way to EU integration will generate the conditions for a modern market economy and boost these countries' capabilities to compete within the EU. The countries of the Western Balkans have been slow to adopt the EU integration process. The most important challenges such as these countries' economic and political problems persist unsolved. This is because the countries of the region have not been able to resolve the regional challenges and achieve a political consensus. These challenges could deter the necessary political and economic reforms and the overall process of EU integration. The integration process depends on, particularly, the level of aspiring democracy, political stability and the position that have taken the governments and political elites to advance this process regardless of partisan interests and power struggles. The EU adopted in 1993 the Copenhagen Criteria for membership, creating a foundation for economic, political, legal and administrative development. The required standards by the EU would enable the region to improve significantly the standard of living for their nations and also bring it closer to the European family. Although the Copenhagen criteria had been established, the region was an arena of several wars in the 1990s. The wars between Serbia and Slovenia in 1991, Serbia and Croatia from 1991-1994, Serbia and Bosnia and Herzegovina from 1992-1995, Serbia and Kosova Albanians in 1998-1999, the civil unrest in 1997 in Albania, and the armed conflict in 2001 between ethnic Albanians and the government forces in Macedonia, not only hindered the process of fulfilling the Copenhagen criteria, but even worse, reversed any progress that had already been made towards integration (Reka and Sela, 2007). The development of regional political process has now conditioned and fully oriented the Balkans towards EU integration structures. Taking into account that all the countries of the Balkan region aim at full integration into the European Union, then we conclude that this makes the process faster and more dynamic because we are dealing with a process that involves the same principles and values which are closely related to regional interests. The main challenges of the Western Balkans countries on the road towards the EU deal with the commitment and dedication of the governments, which should address European integration as one of the most important priorities, establishing institutions, strategies, coherent and consistent plans, that ensure economic growth and walking quickly towards European Union (Reka, 2010). However some of the conditions set by the EU can have large effects on the political and economic system of the applicant country, this as the cause of the nature of EU intervention. The Western Balkans Countries found themselves having to build a system of democratic governance from scratch. These countries had to undergo a dual transformation, both political transformation and economic transformations. Countries of the Western Balkans: Macedonia, Albania, Kosova, Bosnia and Herzegovina, Serbia, and Montenegro continue to have difficulties: from high level of unemployment, organized crime, corruption, austerity measures, and lack of foreign investments. These problems directly hinder the process of integration in EU. The Western Balkans will remain a priority interest for the EU. If we examine the present-day political situation in the Western Balkans and in each country of the region individually, one can easily conclude that after all these efforts and commitments in the field by the EU, the problems and challenges are still evident in these countries. The region must overcome these problems through sincere cooperation with the international community to be part of it. The aspiration for EU membership remains an essential stabilizing factor in the region that also reassures fundamental reforms in each country. Two decades and a half after the fall of communism, the countries of Western Balkans have moved away from the exclusionary and violent ethnic politics that have characterized regime change in the first half of the 1990s, while reaching a critical mass in

support of integration. Despite the fair share of differences among different countries in the region, Balkans in general seems to score low on all or most legacy-oriented factors that can facilitate post-communist transformation (Pridham and Gallagher 2000). Regardless of the fact that all countries of the Western Balkans have achieved progress in their path to EU membership, the dynamics of this process is the reason why some of these countries are closer to EU membership while others are lagging behind. The membership of the Western Balkan countries to the EU will depend on overcoming main difficulties linked with the persistent threat of internal political instability. This is affected by internal ethnic, religious or political struggles, some of which have worsened to such a point that it has paralyzed the implementation of government reforms. Furthermore, the countries of the region have weak internal structures, organized crime, and corruption which have created restricted effectiveness on the part of public administration and other state institutions. The successful processes of reconciliation in the region is needed to ensure the political stability is very important in this route to EU. The economic transformation and implementation of free trade values will also play a substantial role and guarantee economic growth. **Political Challenges:** One of the most challenging issues in the process of EU integration is the political challenge, there are in many cases situations when different political parties in the countries of the region that cannot reach consensus on matters that are considered crucial for the process of integration. Therefore, the unresolved political issues in the Western Balkans could pose a serious obstacle to regional co-operation, a good neighborhood, investment promotion and the European integration process. The low level of economic development indicates that the Western Balkans is lagging behind in meeting the European criteria for a sustainable and competitive economy. In addition to this, it is very important that the political leadership of these countries leave aside their political parties own interest aside when there are serious matters and reforms needed for the purpose of integration, There is also the problem of institutional effectiveness and the efficiency of administration in the various countries that have not yet achieved an adequate professional level. Open conflict remains a remote option across the whole spectrum of the countries merging from former Yugoslavia. Elites' appeal to nationalism and their chances to seize power through forging ethnic violence seem to be less attractive in the current constellation of political forces and public opinion. Liberal political parties, figuring reformists, have gained strength in government and society. From Croatia to Serbia and Macedonia, and even in the states that have experienced violent wars like Kosova and Bosnia, moderate politicians committed to reform and EU integration proved strong enough to compete with and sometimes replace nationalists. Political leadership of these countries should not use the integration importance only as a rhetoric, instead they should use the citizens will to join the EU as a motivation to undertake the necessary reforms needed for this crucial process. **Institutional Challenges:** The Western Balkan countries should accept the process of EU integration as an instrument which facilitates the transitional period and helps them accelerate reforms. This process should be used in a proper manner because, as the accession countries become exposed to regional and global competition within the context of EU membership, the negative impacts of a weak economic incentive and institutional regime will be felt more acutely (World Bank and European Commission, 2002). The first challenging field in the institutional picture of the Western Balkan countries is the lack of qualified professionals within the public administration to correspond effectively to the necessities for harmonization of the administration functions with European norms and models. Secondly, in the process of decentralization and transferring more power to local authorities, there are many hindrances and challenges that prevent this process from deepening and full implementation. Although it is enshrined constitutionally, the local government requires a series of additional measures to ensure its proper and independent functioning. It should be also highlighted that the Assembly (Parliament) is constitutionally structured as a supreme institution in most of the countries, but in practice, its powers are formal and limited. It is essential to strengthen the role of the Parliament in the internal and external processes, in the national and foreign affairs which means to strengthen the control over the executive power by the legislature. The founding of the institution of the ombudsman in each country is a positive tendency and can be perceived as a significant and required step towards a democratic legitimate state and a prerequisite for good governance. The stability of democratic institutions is one of the conditions of accession to the European Union. The countries of the Western Balkans have other challenges that have to be resolved before this region becomes part of the EU. Among many challenges, we will consider some of the most acute ones. We have to emphasize the fact that these post-communist cases, where the main impetus of reform has come mostly from external sources, thus lacking domestic ownership of the process. Knowing the fact that the process of integration takes a general involvement of all members of society, it is important to mention the involvement of the civil society in this process as well. **Civil Society** activities are another key feature of democracy and are essential for the promotion and respect for human rights and building the rule of law. Civil Society organizations can help the process of achieving increased political accountability as well as promoting public discussion of important political, economic and social issues which to improve the quality of reforms in these areas. Even though there is a reported advancement of the capacity and positions of the Civil Society for monitoring and evaluation of the government in each country, its impact is

still weak and regular discussions with its representatives in the legislative process are lacking. In this regard, in its progress reports the European Commission makes recommendations for improving the social and economic dialogue between the Civil Society and the authorities at national, regional and local level. **Free and fair elections**, is additional main criterion for the improvement the democracy in each country. To ensure steadiness and respect for the rule of law, it is indispensable that elections are held in line with the relevant international and European standards. The elections held in the recent years in different countries of the region are generally carried out in accordance with the international principles as on the one hand there has been substantial improvement in the presence of various communities to vote, but on the other hand, there are still registered cases of using excessive violence and pressure on citizens during election time, which does not respond to the criteria for democracy. In addition to this, it is important to mention the case of Macedonia that has amended the electoral code recently, so that certain number of voters have to verify their right to vote within a certain amount of time given. The reform of the **judicial system** is on the one hand, one of the most subtle political criteria that should be met by potential candidates for EU membership, and in addition, it is a prerequisite for ensuring the rule of law as one of the defining values in the EU. Regarding the judicial reform in the countries of the Western Balkans it is significant to mention that its conduct needs both legislative and institutional changes. The European Commission most frequently calls for judicial efficiency and warns against non-transparent and unmotivated decisions for appointments of judges and prosecutors and their independence, as well as against the inadequate access to justice. The recommendations and criticisms of the EC shows that in the first place the Western Balkan countries need a comprehensive, integrated and coordinated strategy to reform their judicial systems. Another important pillar of democracy is the **freedom of media and speech**. The challenges facing all countries in the region include the intimidation of journalists, political pressure, corruption in the form of “custom-made” articles and reports, illegal state subsidies to government-controlled media. There is lack of transparency regarding the ownership of major media groups and as a result there is blending of political, economic and corporate interests. So the space for serious discussion on important topics is reduced below the minimum health and leads to outright and intentional profanation of the fourth power. Western Balkans Countries have other challenges as well that need to be resolved before the countries join the EU. Other challenges include: **The internal political dynamics**: countries of the Western Balkans need to have responsible political leadership that is capable to take the necessary reforms and standards towards EU. In other words, there should be an internal political consensus for this major objective. **The external political dynamics**: Countries of the Western Balkans not only have to fulfill the Copenhagen criteria, but they have to strengthen their good neighborhood policy, which means that they have to build bilateral political and economic relations with their neighbor countries. (Bashkurti, 2006). There are many factors that gave rise to four types of present-day conflicts: bilateral border issues, ethno – religious conflicts, cultural and historical tensions and legal dispute. More should be done to overcome the current disputed issues. Knowing that the disputed Issues: wars and conflicts are a burden on the bilateral relations. A more proactive role from the EU should be done in this regard to resolve these disputes. **Conclusion** Having offered all potential difficulties and perspectives, one may doubt whether common European identity can really be achieved or whether countries of the Western Balkans will catch the European train. Despite the existence of numerous obstacles, the future looks optimistic. On one hand we have all the countries of Western Balkans having the integration in the EU as a priority strategic objective, and also a high percentage of citizens which are in favor of EU integration. On the other hand we have the EU constantly showing commitment to include these countries in the club of the 28 member states. The enlargement policy has long been considered as the EU's most successful tool for democratizing transition countries. The experience of Central and Eastern European countries in the 2000s certainly backed this belief, while comforting the EU's legitimacy in its role of transformative power. However, the state of Western Balkan democracies has not improved over the past decade. On the contrary, it has eroded in several cases. Populism and authoritarian temptations have put Western Balkans' civil society under greater pressure; they have weakened key institutions guaranteeing the rule of law and harmed political pluralism and electoral processes. Young people, in particular, seem estranged both from the political systems as well as increasingly from the idea of European integration making a contribution to their lives. The abridgement of freedom of the media, the degradation of parliamentary democracy, the rise of political radicalization, clientelism and voter abstention have become markers in many Western Balkan democracies. More should be done by the countries of the Western Balkans countries in fostering democracy and rule of law in the region, strengthening administration capacities, and improving internal and external security, but there are still serious challenges (related to corruption, organized crime, unsustainable economic models, open political issues and insufficient regional cooperation) that the region has to work on. In addition to this various aspects need to be considered seriously by the countries of the Western Balkans: The region has certainly turned a new leaf resolutely closing the tragic chapter of the 1990s and opting en masse for European integration, while the EU has upheld its active leverage extending the promise of membership under a new frame of enlargement. Yet,

the issue facing the EU and the moderate elites across the Balkans is how to turn the bad story of the past into a successful story of new institution-building. This promises to be a long way ahead. On the one hand, the frame of enlargement tailored to the Balkans might be hampered by the lack of EU commitment and the vague promise of membership. On the other hand, the domestic scope conditions that characterize most Balkan states, despite of their differences and overall progress are still a challenge for both their fast transformation and process of Europeanization. Further research on EU effects in the region has still to trace the longer term impact of EU at the institutional level, which could display different degrees of compliance across different countries and areas of change. Ultimately, the degree to which EU tools translate into domestic change remains a puzzle for empirical research seeking to reconstruct the preferences of domestic actors and their state constraints in each particular case of reform. The countries of the Western Balkans have no other alternative other than join the European Union.

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The Role of Symbols in Social Movements

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Abstract

This paper analyzes the birth of VETVENDOSJE as a social movement through different symbolic representations. Based on the theoretical model of symbolic interaction the study will analyse how the Network Action for Kosovo, created as a counter response against the Serbian dictatorship in Kosovo, continued its actions by creating the slogan "NO NEGOTIATION- VETVENDOSJE", collecting signatures by the citizens and requiring to UNMIK, to investigate on the destiny of numerous Albania disappeared during the war by the Serbian Army. UNMIK did not take into consideration the petition because it was more interested in the development of institutional conversations to define the judicial status of Kosove. This made the followers of VETVENDOSJE to put the big slogan in front of the UNMIK building "NO NEGOTIATION-VETVENDOSJE! The appearance of this slogan transformed the network into the VETVENDOSJE movement and in the same time it made possible the idea that people will have their right to decide on the judicial and political sovereignty of Kosovo. This slogan had strong conceptual and emotional power on its followers and incited numerous protests and public meetings. From this we can conclude that symbols and their symbolic representations serve perfectly for the creation social movements.

Keywords: Contradicting Serbian dictatorship, UNMIK, the petition, the slogan, protests and public gatherings

Introduction

Most of physiological, psychological or socio-cultural concerns of people or groups derive by the use of physical or non – physical violence that they suffer by another man, group or social or other state institution that wants to impose to the first group the behaviors and believes of the second. This happens because the presence of the features and different attitudes of the first group, even in the case when do they not show any open challenging or attacking signs, are perceived as a possible danger for the second group, as long as the characteristics of the first group are considered to be unknown and a threat for the second one.

Putting the situation of both parts in a context, the third party, will try to take measures to defend it or at least to counter act to this problem just to defend their lives, values and relationships that have consolidated this social-cultural group. Said this, while the creation of meaning and collective belongings within socio-cultural groups or social movement comes derives from common physiological and psycho-cultural symbols such as language, flag, race, folklore, myths, traditions, customs etc. and their preservation should be based on their symbolic representation every time their characteristics and attitudes are endangered by other threatening groups. Based on the theoretical model of symbolic interaction, applied in the case of VETVENDOSJEMovement, this paper wants to affirm the idea that the birth of a social movement can happen through the use of symbols and their expressive language. It was the open contradiction against the dictatorship and occupation of Kosovo from Serbia, the moment that formalized the creation of Network of Action for Kosovo and that later on composed petition that required UNMIK to blame Serbian state structures for the numerous lost lives and to make it responsible for finding the missing bodies. The refusal and lack of an answer to fulfill this human right by those who were concerned only about the judicial status of Kosovo through institutional and international talks, made the followers to take further symbolic actions. The slogans put in front of the UNMIK building "NO NEGOTIATION- VETVENDOSJE! – made clear that the international bodies were not only disrespecting the basic rights and liberties of a nation but also signaled the transformation of the Network of Action in VETVENDOSJE movement, a movement that would incite an active and

continuous communication in defining and assessing the common goals of those who were part of the movement (Gumperz, 1982). Still it was not clear if these symbols would encourage protests or further public gatherings.

The objection against the Serbian dictatorship, drafting the petition for war missing peoples and encouraging protests against UNMIK

In the 1990, after the fall of Yugoslavia, the people of Kosovo were faced with a continuous socio-political and ethno-cultural violence by the Milosevic state institutions. While Croatia and Bosnia-Herzegovina were fighting against Serbs, for Kosovo was even more difficult because it did not have the status of a republic or the status of an autonomous country within the federation.

However, inspired by the example of them to defend the rights and liberties of a nation and it could be free only by the often articulation of symbolic signs such as the nation, language, traditions etc. and their use to encourage different forms of action or organization, people in Kosovo started to use this symbols more and more. Quite often the first reactions on social-cultural and ethno-cultural problems have had and still bear some symbolic uses. These symbolic uses express both the nature and content of a given issue and inculcate irreversible images in the mindset and imagination of those people or social groups that are affected by these problems. Those images are more than necessary to encourage people to become part of a movement. Same stands true for Kosovo as well if we remember that:

The beginnings of VETVENDOSJE are to be found in several actions taken by the Network of Action for Kosovo, actions that aimed to create an active society in this country and to make people aware about the cause and encourage them to defend universal rights, human liberty and social justice. Found in 1997, by a bunch of international activists led by the American writer Alice Mead, this network started its actions by supporting citizen protests against the occupation and Serbian dictatorship such as the support for the creation of the Independent Union of Pristina University Students and their non-violent protests for the liberation of university space and buildings (the history of VETVENDOSJE Movement!: 1)

The Network of Action for Kosovo, founded to support and defend liberties and human rights of those oppressed by the Serbian dictatorship, together with the expressive and active articulation against this dictatorship, could be seen as contextualizing and essential data in understanding the creation of meanings that influenced those communicative behaviors of participation and evaluation (Green & Smith, 1983). Under these conditions this network was announced to be an acting subject against these oppressions. It contains two main criteria: "first that this network requires the mobilization of those who were not and secondly its opponent is to be found outside its supporters" (Gamson, 1990: 14-17).

While we see this meaning to be created and calcified, all attention is paid to its possibility to expand and use its influence in favor of its continuance in documenting the Serbian crimes during the war and achieve to conduct a whole campaign asking the liberation of war hostages, in 1999-2000 (History of VETVENDOSJE Movement!: 1). In July 2003, it was decided that the network main office would be in Kosovo. They decided to draft a petition wanting to find the lost people during war and they collected 236.311 signatures (History of VETVENDOSJE Movement!:1) giving life to a voluntary union of people who wanted to change the society for good (McCarthy & Zald, 1973). The use of this sign, the petition, was all inclusive and made the network involve many people who were supporting this movement (McCarthy & Zald, 1973a). For Anderson, the approach towards this new context, both in space and time and in symbolic signs "likely will exercise a considerable influence on the continuity of the group structure and in the results of interaction" (Anderson, 1976: 209). Such delineations ought to be analyzed together with some actions in time not only to spread and expand the support of its meaning but to create a discrepant reality with the existing one. This together with the placement of the lost people' photos in front of the Parliament and Government of Kosovo (History of VETVENDOSJE Movement!: 1), are proofs of a nation convictions and beliefs of people that want to change some elements of the social structure and to make justice in a society (McCarthy & Zald, 1977). The problem is that we need more to undertake collective actions to change the social structures and responsible institution than to deal with the international body, the Serbs or the local governors to accept their moral responsibilities for the massacres (Zald & Ash, 1966), a responsibility that seems to be not accepted by them at all by any of them.

Organizing families of those who were lost together with the appearance of accusing notes, in slogans against people who were responsible for murders and massacres happened in Small Krusha, in Gjakova and in Recak (History of VETVENDOSJE Movement!: 1), gave a boost to the symbolic delineation. Responsible for the declared indifference of the

international body and the Serbs in terms of legal punishment of those who commit those human massacres, in 10 June 2004, activists decided to protest in front of the UNMIK building with music, holding in hand red cartons, declaring themselves citizens and activists and promising that they would fight against the anti-democratic regime of this institution (History of VETVENDOSJE Movement! : 1). Together with the strong sense that these protests would continue, the participation was being shaped as a “political” action against some policies or conditions that are unacceptable (Lipsky, 1968). In this moment the network in collaboration with some organizations such as “The call of mothers” from Gjakova, “26 March 1999” from the Small Krusha and other familiars of the victims of Recak, - on 26 March, 7 May and 10 June 2005- put three huge placards in the buildings of UNMIK (History of VETVENDOSJE Movement! : 1) . This situation becomes a condition in understanding those symbolic signifiers in the form of an agreement through which the meaning is communicated in action (Tannen, 1984), for the simple fact that the first placard had on it the names of 56 people who were accused for the assassination and hostage of 112 people from Small Krusha: the second one had the names of 35 people who were accused for killing 750 persons from Gjakova and taking hostage 680 other inhabitants, who are still missing: the last placard had on it the names of 20 people who were accused to be responsible for the massacre of 42 people in a village, in Recak (History of VETVENDOSJE Movement! :1-2). Followed by a second wave of protests- named “All are being missed” and with the support of “The call of mothers” organization- the names of all lost people were shown in ten huge stands, placed in 10 most well lit parts of the capital, despite their ethnicity, religion or other features (History of VETVENDOSJE Movement!: 2). Such codification did not only create the feeling of familiarity among activists and supporters but also avoided any ethnic or religious fragmentation in the names of the lost people, under the slogan that all are being missed, unified all individuals with the cause that these people were killed.

2.1 The slogan “NO NEGOTIATION- VETVENDOSJE! – An incentive for the creation and continuance of movement through protests and public gatherings.

Aiming to motivate more action among activists and supporters, in 12 June 2005, it was decided to put in the walls of UNMIK the slogan “NO NEGOTIATION- VETVENDOSJE (Historiku i VETVENDOSJE Movement!: 2). This slogan would not only transform the Network of Action for Kosovo into VETVENDOSJE movement but it would include an immediate and continuous communicative process that would negotiate membership and interactive role of each of participants (Gumperz, 1982a). Said this, we could question how and how much would these premises influence the further organization of the movement, giving path to the creation to a more intensifying relationship between the movement and its supporters. Tracing down these symbols opens a path for a more inclusive social movement, saying that an initiative does not only need signifiers and their graphic representation; even though they are easy to memorize and to create meaning in the same time they create in people’s mind memories and experiences related to a figure or a group of symbolic gestures, something which is more difficult to be transmitted by language that cannot create memory and emotions through its vocal articulation.

A movement to continue as such, it needs participation and the ability to put in action encouraging tools that would improve its continuity. The slogans written in 12 June 2005 were banned by the state police two days later and in the same day 12 activists re-write them, an act that put them under arrest by the police (NO NEGOTIATION- VETVENDOSJE! 14 June 2005)

Days later, 27th of June, VETVENDOSJE Movement protested against the visit of VukDrashkovic in Kosovo, who was responsible for crimes committed by Serbians in Kosovo as he was the vice prime minister of ex-Yugoslavia during the bombards. He was also known for his neo-fascist and ethnic ideologies (400 eggs against Drashkovic, 27th June 2005).

In a certain way this protesting action mirrors the expression of concerns for the institutions (Turner, 1969) that direct Kosovo and also shows an injustice (Turner 1960a) by this or other Serbians during the war in Kosovo. Pronouncing and continuing the movement by identifying and aiming to solve some important problems- as is the case of not accepting any of the negotiations in defining the status of Kosovo by the international bodies and basing itself to the power of voting by the people of Kosovo- the movement did not only formalized its activity but also legitimated itself as an actor and a factor of change in the country. This means that the movement becomes part of politics and stands against the bad government. A common action within the movement is created by the requests and goals that are declared from this side and on the other side stands the government or the international body that wants to put down this request (Tarrow, 2001), legitimizing this continuous polarization.

In 20th July 2006, some activists were beaten and then attacked by fuel substances, by the police because together with other activists they wrote down some slogans (Kerbac and spray for activists in Shtime, 20th July 2006). This and other events showed that the movement and activists were violated, something that made this political confrontation more colorful (Tarrow, 2001a). To create a sense of support and all inclusive approach of the movement in this first stage, it decided to focus its actions on public gatherings and debate with the people around Kosovo; in 12 August in Kacanik, 14 August in Prizren, 15 August in Lipjan and 16 August in Klive, VETVENDOSJE activists! Organized meetings with citizens in public places, discussing political and social developments in Kosovo (Meetings and Slogans, 16 August 2005)

The use of this tool by the movement is seen as a technique to make citizens conscious about the necessity to know and solve their problems and also to increase the support of people for the movement. The development of debate carries some specific meanings- “ terms that label objects and daily life tools, needs and request (Marcuse, 2006: 107)-, giving a chance to the movement to be modeled according to the sustainable scheme of Beginning, Answer and Assessment (Mehan, 1979). This means that by offering an opportunity to identify and treat the causes and the content of problems, gives way the chance to understand the consequences that these problems would bring in a larger scale for the whole society. Knowing the causes and consequences of problems, through public gatherings, people become more conscious for them. The issue is that consciousness does not solve these people’s troubles, something that would require the support in protests that would lead to the solutions of these problems. It is this sense that makes VETVENDOSJE Movement capable to delineate its activity based on meetings, the creation of centers in the whole territory and the protests. In 15th, 16th and 17th of September 2005, were held several meetings and were founded centers of this movement in Viti, Dardane and Besiane (Meetings, Slogans, New Centers of VETVENDOSJE! 17th September 2005). In 21th September was organized a protest against the visit of SandaRashkovic (head of coordinating office in Serbia for Kosovo and Metohine) in Kosovo, given that she emphasized before coming that we can start conversations only if we all agree that Kosovo is a Serbian territory (Against the visit of SandaRashkovic, 21th September 2005)

To expand its influence and its participants, the movement went out the urban areas, trying to reach the suburbs, organizing meetings in rural areas such as the meeting in Rugova in 25th September, where were discussed some political problems of the country (Rugova and Mitrovica, 25 September 2005), while in 22th of October 2005, some activists held a meeting with some villagers of Korishta, explaining the negative processes that were being organized against Kosovo (Public meetings in Korishta and in Prizren, 22th October 2005), describing the movement as an active enterprise to earn what was being taken by the political system (Lipsky, 1968a). These two types of actions, the debates and the protests, clarifies the idea that even though the activists are not capable to immediately transform the conditions they are living due to lack of resources, it is important that they are there to perform actions that attract the attention of many people who can later organize themselves in groups to solve these problems and who can support further the movement and its goals (Turner, 1969b).

Conclusions and suggestions

Each small or large socio-political, socio-cultural or ethno-cultural group within or outside the territory of a country, is created based on a meaning that is defined by the physiological features and other ethno –cultural or socio-political characteristics that its members think and affirm as common in comparison with other groups. Usually, when the physiological or ethno-cultural symbols that encourages the content modeling of relationships among its members are endangered or threatened by the attacks of another ethno-cultural group who might aim to disappear the psycho-dynamic symbols through which are created and developed daily activities of this group. When faced with this, the only way to defend its continuity is by the unification of all members in a group through the symbols they declare to signify this common sense. If yesterday, the continuity of one group was not threatened by the other group, the least that could happen was that the two groups recognized their symbolic representations based on time, space and judicial orders. But in the case that one group attempts to serve and exercise these symbolic values through their legitimization in another judicial order, as was the case of Slovenia, Croatia and Bosnia- Herzegovina claiming independence in the 1990, convicted that their ethno-cultural symbols would be threatened or even cease to exist if they would allow the Serbian hegemony. The bigger group would try to justify its pressure against small groups, requiring the exercise of symbolic values and their relationships within this judicial order, even though the small groups would still believe that they will be destroyed by them. The bigger group will also try to attack directly, physically or emotionally the small groups, aiming to create and preserve their psycho –cultural and ethno –cultural hegemony within a given region. More or less, taking in consideration the massacres,

genocides and ethnic cleansing that happened in Croatia, Bosnia-Herzegovina and in Kosovo that experienced the same calamities, it was created the conviction that keeping Yugoslavia alive through the dictatorship of Milosevic was nothing but a legitimization and imposition of the Serbian ethno and psycho cultural symbols on smaller countries that were part of this federation. In this perspective, this paper tried to explain why it was important to keep alive, use and encourage ethno, socio and psycho –cultural symbols to create a social movement that would fight for human rights of a nation, the nation of Kosovo, stressing out the loss of people and the punishment of those who took part on these massacres, genocides and massive ethnic cleansing, giving to Kosovo and to its people the right to decide for themselves, its independence and forms of state organizations. Even though these points were never fulfilled, it is important to emphasize that through the articulation, use and organizational incentives that these symbols had, was created a social movement, called VETEVENDOSJE, who has served and it is still serving as an actor and real political factor, being politically represented in the Parliament, continuing to control the good functioning of ethno-cultural, state, socio-political and socio-economical relationships in Kosovo.

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Violence Against Children at Home and Family in Kosovo Society. the Prevalence, Types and Perpetrators of Violence

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Abstract

The main purpose of this study was to study the level of violence against children in the family and home, types of violence, and perpetrators. This study is based on the study of a sample of 618 children grades 10-12, from high schools of Pristina. The sample was subjected to a questionnaire, made up of 4 questions for each type of violence: neglect, psychological violence, physical violence and sexual violence. The results of this study show that during their lifetime, nearly 30% of children at least once felt neglected, over 44% at least once have experienced psychological violence, 35% physical violence and 11% sexual violence. Mostly children experience violence in the home and family, by people who are not part of the immediate family (19.7%), followed by parents (18.6%) and siblings (10.7%). Girls experienced more neglect and psychological violence, while boys more physical and sexual violence. Neglect and sexual violence against children are expressed more in urban environments, while physical and psychological violence more in rural areas. The data shows that children more experience violence from family members of the same sex. Fathers and brothers are those who practice more violence against boys, while mothers and sisters more to girls.

Keywords: Violence, neglect, psychological violence, sexual violence, physical violence

Introduction

Kosovo for a long time has passed through a long phase of violence that violence has escalated, especially in the 90s under Serb occupation, where psychological and physical violence was almost an everyday life. The violence peak will be armed war during 1998 - 1999 years, in that period will be carried even the harshest and most brutal human behavior, such as rape and numerous massacres to the extent of genocide against the Kosovo Albanian population.

End of war and structured Serb violence in Kosovo, in fact does not mean the violence completion and anti-social behavior in our society. Many problems that will characterize our society in the postwar period, as political (political uncertainty status, lack and law breakdown etc.), economic (not economic development) and social (poverty, unemployment, lack of prospects etc.), along with the consequences of war (many murders, the disappearance of many people, many destructions, large number of weapons in the hands of the population, trauma, etc.), resulted in actuality today that largely characterizes the phenomenon of violence, a phenomenon which is widespread in almost all segments of society, starting from the family as the foundation of our society to continue in school and educational institutions and society in general.

From this social context even children of all ages in general were not excluded. They have now become the object of violence by parents, teachers, peers, but also the society in general (KAS, 2014; UNICEF, 2005). Using violence against them wherever they are, in families, at school, in the streets, in the neighborhood, by other words everywhere.

Literature review

Family is the first environment, the environment where are created experiences the first social reports with close people, primarily with parents or caretakers, and then with other family members. Since the family is of vital importance for the child, the violence experience in this environment, growth and child's development in such conditions resulting in the most serious consequences for their child's development

If we refer to the United Nations report on violence against children, the report violence against children in the family treats it dividing into four types of violence, physical violence, neglect, sexual and psychological violence (Pinheiro, 2006). According to the report, physical violence is the most widespread form of violence against children compared to other types of violence against children in the family. Kicking, punching, hair pulling, shaking, pinching are some of the violent behavior that most children suffer violence. Parents are considered the most common physical violence perpetrators. But other members as brothers and sisters, grandparents, uncles, aunts often do physical violence at home (Party, Unalacak., Unluoglu, 2011). Even brothers and sisters physical violence in the family could be the most frequent violence comparing with parents violence itself (Olive, Collins, & Levitt, 2007).

On the other hand neglect is considered one of the most difficult forms to interpret, especially in poverty conditions. However, in developed countries, the neglect is regarded as one of the most common forms of abused children in the family (Hussey, Chang & Kotch (2006). There are children under age who neglected the most (Olive, Collins & Levi, 2007; Pala, Unalacak & Unluoglu, 2011).

According to the World Health Organization is estimated that around 150 million girls and 73 million boys under 18 have suffered forced sexual intercourse or other sexual violence involving physical contact (Pinheiro, 2006, p. 55). However, in general violence and sexual abuse of children in the family is less widespread than other forms of violence.

From the total number of abused children, only 10% are considered to be sexually abused. Males' dominated age of the sexual abuse is 4-6 years, while women 11-14 (Olive, Collins & Levi, 2007. p. 78). A large number of violence cases is practiced by family members or close family persons, such as: parents, stepfathers, caretakers, aunts, uncles, siblings, grandparents, cousins and family friends (Pinheiro 2006).

All physical and sexual violence forms among other also cause psychological damage, but psychological violence can take specific forms, such as insults, calling different names, humiliation, isolation, ignorance, intimidation, etc. Thus, according to a survey conducted in 5 countries (Chile, Egypt, India, the Philippines and the US), yelling and roaring against children were punishment practices for children by parents in all 5 countries (Pinheiro, 2006, p. 62). The family and its structure, as factors with significant impact on violence against children in the family have been the subject of many research studies conducted by different researchers. According to these studies, children are generally victimized mostly by different persons outside the family, then the family members (Turner, Finkelhor & Ormrod, 2007; Savolainen, 2007). Against girls usually exerted low-level violence, unlike the boys against whom violence is serious (Sariola & Utela, 1992)

Methodology

The data in this study come from PhD study about violence against children in society. The purpose of the research is to study the violence prevalence against children in the family and home, types and violence perpetrators against children. The study is based on quantitative methodology, in a sample of 618 students with 10-12 grades who come from Pristina secondary schools (Tab.1). Sample selection was based on probability method of simple random sampling, based on 95% of the confidence level and the 5% of margin error. In the sample was administered a questionnaire, based on obtaining of the students' experiences about violence in home and family, through self-reporting. The questionnaire includes closed type questions, where subjects choose one of the options that best fit about their experiences ,regarding violence specifically, divided into 4 parts: neglect (lack of food, hygiene, support, protection in risk cases and lack of health care), psychological violence (insults, ridicule, use of names contemptuous, holding anger, threats and intimidation, verbal threats or intimidation on use of weapons), physical violence (hitting, kicking, hair pulling, assault with use of solid objects or weapons) and sexual violence (harassment and verbal concerns about child sexuality such as touch the body or intimate part of children without his / her desire .moreover forcing to have or watch sexual things, and sexual purpose attacks, attempted or sexual rape).

This division is based on the United Nations report on violence against children (Pinheiro, 2006). For each form of violence, are raised by 4 questions, those questions actually describe a specific type of violent behavior that children, students could have experienced during their childhood. Also, students were asked for people who mostly use violence against them in family and home. Before the questionnaire administered, subjects were initially informed about the purpose, and is consented from subjects and institutions where questionnaire is administered (schools). The administration of the

questionnaire was made in a period of 40 minutes, after that the data from the questionnaires were entered and analyzed by SPSS 22.

Tab. 1. Demography Characteristics of participants

Sample	N / %	Total
Age		618
15 years	75 / 12.1	
16 years	179 / 29.0	
17 years	178 / 28.8	
18 years	176 / 28.5	
Other	10 / 1.6	
Gender		618
Female	315 / 51.0	
Male	303 / 49.0	
Urban – rural		618
Urban	486 / 78.6	
Rural	132 / 21.4	

Results

Study data about violence against children in the family and home, shows that the most widespread form of violence against children in the family is psychological then physical violence, neglect and sexual violence end (Table 2).

So, 263 or 43.5% of students have experienced psychological violence at least once during their lives. Of these, 207 or 34.2% have experienced psychological low-level violence up to average, 43 or 7.1% of psychological violence was from average level to the high-level and 13 or 2.3% of psychological violence was from high level to the extreme.

213 or 34.7% of students have experienced physical violence at least once in their lifetime. Of these, 117 or 28.9% have experienced violence from low-level to average-level, 23 or 3.7% physical violence from average level to high-level and 13 or 2.1% of students have experienced violence from the high-level to the extreme level.

Different types of neglect, at least once in their lives have experienced 179 or 29.5% of students, where 149 or 24.6% have been neglected up to average-level, 23 or 3.8% have been neglected from average-level to high-level and only 7 or 1.2% of students felt neglected in extreme level.

The type of violence that is in smaller prevalence is sexual violence against children. The results show that 68 students or 11.1% have experienced sexual violence in family and home at least once. Of these 46 or 7.5% have experienced sexual violence up to the average, 23 or 3.7% of the average level up to high-level and 12 or 2% have experienced sexual violence to an extreme level.

Tab. 2 Prevalence and types of violence in total and according to gender of participants

Types of violence	None N / %	Low to moderate N / %	Moderate to severe N / %	Severe to extreme N / %	Total N / %
Neglect	428 / 70.5	149 / 24.6	23 / 3.8	7 / 1.2	607 / 100
Female	212 / 67.9	84 / 27.0	12 / 3.8	4 / 1.3	312 / 51.4
Male	216 / 73.6	65 / 22.1	11 / 3.8	3 / 0.9	295 / 48.6
Psychological Violence	342 / 56.5	207 / 34.2	43 / 7.1	13 / 2.3	605 / 100
Female	170 / 54.8	104 / 33.6	25 / 8.0	11 / 3.5	310 / 51.2
Male	142 / 58.3	103 / 34.9	18 / 6.1	2 / 0.6	295 / 48.8
Physical violence	401 / 65.3	177 / 28.9	23 / 3.7	13 / 2.1	614 / 100
Female	217 / 69.1	81 / 25.8	9 / 2.9	7 / 2.2	314 / 51.1
Male	184 / 61.3	96 / 32.0	14 / 4.6	6 / 1.9	300 / 48.9
Sexual Violence	544 / 88.9	46 / 7.5	10 / 1.6	12 / 2.0	612 / 100
Female	288 / 91.4	20 / 6.4	3 / 0.9	4 / 1.2	315 / 51.5
Male	256 / 86.2	26 / 8.7	7 / 2.3	8 / 2.6	297 / 48.5

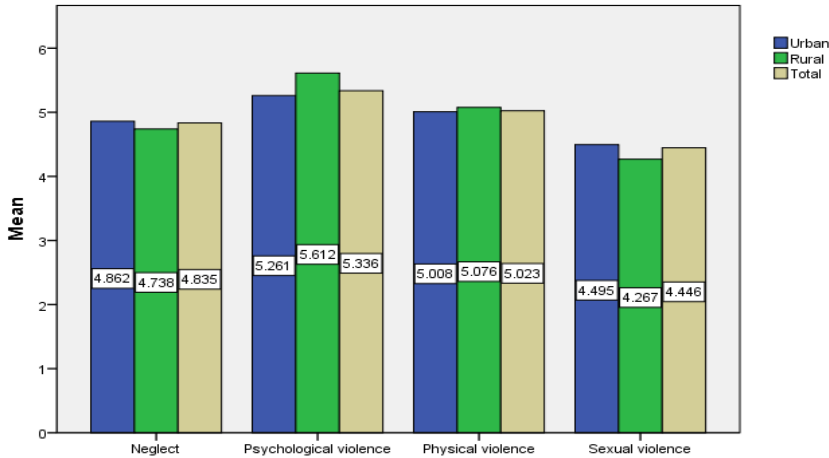
Viewed by gender aspect (Table 2), girls reporting that they have been more neglected in comparison with boys, beginning from the lowest level to the highest level of neglect. 32.1% of girls reported that during their lifetime felt neglected at least once, while 5.1% felt at a level over the average to the extreme, opposed of boys who 26.4% felt at least once neglected, and 4.7% have been neglected from the average level to the extreme. However, this difference is not of statistical significant.

Also to psychological violence are girls those who reported that they have experienced psychological violence more, or 45.2% of them, in contrast to boys who reported at 41.7%. However, the boys reported having experienced violence a little more of low-level than girls (34.9% vs. 33.6%), while the average level to the extreme are girls those who have experienced more than boys (11.5% vs. 6.7%). These differences between girls and boys are not with statistical significant. There are no differences of statistical significance as regards to the physical violence. Generally there are boys who have experienced more physical violence than girls (38.7% vs. 30.9%), with the only difference that the girls have experienced above average and extreme level of violence compared with boys (2.2% vs. 1.9%).

However, the differences are significant in statistical aspect when we are talking about sexual violence ($P < 0.05$ level). The boys are reporting that they have experienced more sexual violence in the family and home, compared to the girls (13.8% vs. 8%). This difference is at all levels of violence experienced.

On the other hand the differences concerning urban - rural aspect are students those who come from urban areas who have reported more neglect and sexual violence experienced, compared to students from rural areas who report more physical and psychological violence experience (graph.1). But none of these differences are not with statistical significant.

Graph.1 The prevalence and types of violence based on the participants' residence (urban - rural)



Tab.3 Perpetrators of violence against children in the family and home

	Total N / %	Female N / %	Male N / %	Urban N / %	Rural N / %
Father	76 / 13.0	32 / 10.0	44 / 15.5	56 / 12.2	20 / 16.0
Mother	33 / 5.6	19 / 6.3	14 / 4.9	30 / 6.5	3 / 2.4
Brothers	47 / 8.0	20 / 6.6	27 / 9.5	38 / 8.3	9 / 7.2
Sisters	16 / 2.7	16 / 5.3	0 / 0	12 / 2.6	4 / 3.2
Somebody else	115 / 19.7	50 / 16.6	65 / 22.9	85 / 18.5	30 / 24.0
Nobody	298 / 50.9	165 / 54.6	133 / 47.0	239 / 51.9	59 / 47.2
Total	585 / 100	302 / 100	283 / 100	460 / 100	125 / 100

The most frequent perpetrators of violence against children in the family and home are usually people who are not part of the immediate family (Tab.3). From the total sample, 19.7% of them reported that the most frequent violence perpetrators in family and home are not members from immediate family (father, mother, brother, sister). From immediate family, the most often perpetrator are fathers (13%), after them brothers (8%), then mothers (5.6%) and at the end sisters (2.7%). When we are to violence perpetrators against children in family, there are gender differences with regard to the perpetrators gender, as well gender of those who have experienced violence. Perpetrators from outside the immediate family use more violence against boys than the girls in general (22.9% vs. 19.7%). Fathers seem to practice more violence against boys than the girls (15.5% vs. 10%), while mothers practice violence against girls more than boys (6.3% vs. 4.9%). This violence against same gender appears also to brothers and sisters. Brothers use more violence against boys than girls (19.5% vs. 6.6%), while the sisters have been reported to have used more violence against girls only (5.3%), but not against boys (0 %).

There are also differences in residence terms (urban - rural) of the study subjects. Even here, most perpetrators are persons who are not part of the immediate family, with a difference that these people are reported more from students coming from rural areas (24% vs. 18.5%). According to these data, the fathers from rural areas use violence against their children more than those from urban areas (16% vs. 12.2%), while mothers from urban areas use violence against their children more than those from rural areas (6.5% vs. 2.4%). Brothers as perpetrators were more reported by students who come from urban areas than those from rural areas (8.3% vs. 7.2%), while the sisters have more reported as perpetrators from students who come from rural areas than those from urban areas (3.2% vs. 2.6%).

Discussions and conclusions

The results of this study show that Violence against children in the home and family is widespread in Kosovo society. According to the Report of the United Nations (Pinheiro, 2006), physical violence is more prevalent than other types of violence, while in Kosovo it seems that psychological violence is more prevalent (43.5% have experienced at least once, and about 10% went to levels above the average). However, when we are at this level of psychological violence, this somehow confirms the fact that psychological violence is experienced whenever there are other types of violence. But also it can take special forms like insults, social isolation, harassment and intimidation, especially in parenting practices of punishment for children by parents (Pinheiro, 2006).

On the other hand, in Kosovo, the prevalence of physical violence against children in the family it is quite high (34.7% of students have experienced at least once physical violence in family and approximately 6% have experienced violence above average level).

While, neglect which is considered as one of more prevalent types of violence against children in families in developed countries, in Kosovo is less prevalent than psychological violence and physical violence (approximately 30% of students felt at least once neglected and 5% felt neglected above the average). This can be explained by the fact that in poverty conditions, what is considered to be neglected is difficult to interpret (Pinheiro, 2006). In this regard, Kosovo is not part of the industrially developed countries, and poverty in Kosovo is in the level of 30% of the population, while extreme poverty is 10% of the population (KAS, 2013).

The prevalence of sexual violence against children in Kosovo's families and homes are consistent with other studies about this issue (Olive, Collins & Levi, 2007). However, 10% of students experienced at least once one of the sexual violence types, and 2% of students have experienced sexual violence above average level. If we add the fact that overall violence against children, including sexual violence in Kosovo families mostly coming from people outside the immediate family, this indicate that parents, generally do not abuse with their parental responsibilities that they have.

This study also shows that there are no significant gender differences in terms of violence experienced between boys and girls. Girls generally experience more neglect and psychological violence, while boys experience more physical violence and sexual violence. In this sense, the fact that boys experience more sexual violence differs from many other studies, according to which are girls who experience sexual violence more than boys (Radford, L, et al., 2009).

This study highlights that most often perpetrators of violence against children in the family and home are not members of immediate family. This can be explained by the fact that in Kosovo still is tendency to live in large families, composed of more than 2 generations (grandparents, parents, children, aunts and uncles). The most perpetrators from immediate family are fathers who practice violence more often, followed by brothers, mothers and sisters. These findings of the study about perpetrators are in line with the findings from the study in UK "Child Abuse and Neglect" (Radford, L, et al., 2009). When we are talking about members of immediate family, in the study we distinguished "violence against the same sex". Fathers and brothers practice violence more often against boys than girls and vice versa, mothers and sisters use more violence against girls. In rural areas physical and psychological violence against children are more prevalent than in urban areas, where more prevalent are neglect and sexual violence against children in the Kosovo families.

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The Gender Equality

Dr. Mirela SHAMETI

Abstract

The subject of this topic is the gender equality as a fundamental right and part of the human rights. As such it deserves the proper attention and position in the society. This paper aims to explicate the significance and implementation of the principles of the rates on gender equality. It also explicates discrimination in base of gender with regard to the involvement of woman in decision-making and political life of a certain country. These principles of the gender equality will be analyzed in the local and international aspect. Therefore, the study field is going to be comprehensive, but leaving somehow in darkness the historical aspect. This, for the only fact that I think it is a very specific subject, and the historical background is understandable. In the international relations women have had an important role mostly because of their ability to achieve peace. Outlook feminists say that women should be used and exploited for their talent. Since, women instead of being chosen to adapt the men's games, may change the rules of the game themselves in order to reflect the fact that "average" women may be the main actors in the important roles of the international relations, but unfortunately this remains only a theory. Moreover, the analysis will also focus in the actual aspect of the implementation of the gender equality, the role and importance given to the principles of this right for a well-functioning of the society with equal rights. Even though in a modest way, the goal is that by means of this topic I could make a contribution no matter how minimal about women rights in this field. Women should know how much they are worth and that their role in a democratic society is much greater than the maintenance of the home and taking care for the children. They have all the potential to govern a country in the same way or sometimes even better than men. Feminist currents believe that a world in which most of the politicians or the military would have been women could have been a different world.

Keywords: gender equality, CEDAW, local governance, gender quotas, decision-making, policy-making.

Introduction

Did I, my lines intend for public view,

How many censures, wou'd their faults persue,

Some wou'd, because such words they do affect,

Cry they're insipid, empty, uncorrect.

Lady Winchilsea!

I am starting the paper with these lines to express the injustices that have been made to women, since they were considered to be "appropriate" only for some functions, mostly the reproduction ones, the growth and care of children, cooking and housework. While, men on the other side were the ones that "owned" the producing functions. It was exactly by these violations of females' capability that encouraged women all around the world to raise their voices and be heard.

The human right are what has been fought for many years. They are what human minds have written books, organized protests, faced challenges and even sacrificed their lives. But, despite all difficulties the achievements accomplished in this direction are enormous. Conventions have been signed, memorandums, laws, normative acts, etc.

However, if to recognize and respect human rights as a whole has been difficult, recognition of women's rights in particular has been and remains a challenge. Unfortunately, historical studies show that since the period of ancient Rome to the

present day, most legal systems have treated women as inferior to the male gender. The inferior position of women is considered a natural fact that has its roots in the dictionary or the way how objects or phenomena are labeled in many countries.

As a voice and support for women's rights all over the world, the feminist movement was developed. This, once a political movement with small dimensions, has become a very important ideology, mainly during the last 30 years.

The feminist movement has developed so much that in the '90 it took place also in the international arena, requiring a gender equality even in the international level.

Challenges for women's rights began to materialize when feminist jurisprudence had some goals and requirements associated with integration and gender equality. They, among other things, required that:

- During the drafting of legislation should "be asked the woman," that should define and accept the experience of women in regard to the rights,
- The right should take into consideration the practical reasoning of woman,
- To increase the awareness of woman on her role.

These marked the onset of a successful road towards what later would be called "gender equality". But to reach that point was an excessive work, because it was almost impossible from the male gender to accept such equality.

However, we must say that there are many wrong concepts and groundless facts regarding the education of children and society with healthy concepts for gender equality. Many people think that if we will not stress male elements in the education of boys and female elements in the education of girls, they will become homosexual.

It must be said that equality between women and men is a fundamental right for all. It is a core value of democracy in Albania and its integration into the EU. In order to achieve this true equality between women and men should be recognized not only legally, but implemented efficiently in all aspects of life: political, economic, social and cultural. Despite various efforts to address gender equality, and progress achieved in its formal recognition of the equality of women and men in daily life it is still not a reality.

It must be said that equality between women and men is a fundamental right for all. It is a core value of democracy in Albania and its integration into the EU. In order to truly achieve this, equality between women and men should be recognized not only legally, but implemented efficiently in all aspects of life: political, economic, social and cultural. Despite various efforts to address gender equality, and progress achieved in its formal recognition of the equality of women and men in daily life it is still not a reality. In practice, women and men do not enjoy the same rights and social, political, economic and cultural inequalities continue. These inequalities are the result of social configuration directory based on gender stereotypes present in many families, in political processes, in public life, in administrative procedures and in the organization of society. At the same time, these are areas in which it is possible to act, new approaches should be adopted and initiated a structural change.

Methodology

Wanting to conduct an accurate study of the paper I have tried to use some method, which I think have been productive.

For having a fairly concrete result:

- I have used the analytical methodology, analyzing normative acts of the field, national and international legislation;
- I referred to facts and actual events, have taken the experiences of different countries both in Albania and abroad. Experiences that I think have brought changes;
- I have used statistical data, with comparable effect to view the current state of the application of gender equality in the country;

- I have highlighted problems faced by gender equality as a fundamental right and legal cramps for its application;
- I have tried to illustrate the actual situation of implementation and non-implementation of gender equality in decision-making;
- I have used referring methods in doctrines, works of honorable professors of Law;
- I have also referred to the jurisprudence of the European Court for Human Rights, as the basic instrument for the establishment of the violated rights;
- Another method that I have used it and hermeneutics, which means the process of systematic analysis of existing knowledge and new derivation of conclusions from the interpretation and transfer of concepts.

Chapter I

Meaning and legal frameworks of gender equality

•What is gender equality?

To understand accurately gender equality has not been very simple because of the fact that there was not a clear definition for it. It has always been conceptualized as a right that women were seeking and probably in a superficial way. Many reforms and efforts were needed to achieve a rough consolidation of the concept of gender equality.

At first, I would like to refer to the doctrinal concept, since I find it more general. According to the doctrine gender equality is equal participation of women and men in all areas of life, economic, social, political, cultural, equal position among them, the possibility of equal chances to enjoy their rights and to fulfill their duties in society by benefiting equally from its development accomplishments.

This is the principle by which human beings should have equal rights regardless of race, sex, religious beliefs, socio-cultural or political status

According to the European Commission's gender equality means that women and men have equal conditions for the fulfilling of their human rights and to contribute to and benefit from the political, cultural, social and economic development. Gender equality is the same society assessment of similarities and differences between men and women in the roles they play. It is based on men and women as full partners in society, their community and families. It starts with equal evaluation of girls and boys.

Gender equality also means access to opportunities that allow people to live the life they choose.

In the Albanian legislation gender equality is defined as the equal participation of men and women in all fields of life, equal positions among them, equal chances and opportunities, to have rights and to fulfill the obligations in society, benefiting equally from its evolutionary accomplishments.

Based on this definition formal and fundamental equality should be explained as part of the gender equality.

Formal equality

Formal model of gender equality has to do with the classic equalization that outlines the treatment of women equally with men. The problem with this model stands in the fact that is not taken into consideration gender and biological differences between women and men, but it imposes a kind of pressure on women to behave according to the conventional standards of men.

Protectionist equality

Submission of equality through protectionist policies, argues that women should be deprived from doing some work, because it is in their interest. Protectionist equality accepts differences between men and women, but considers these changes as a weakness for women.

Egalitarianism

Egalitarianism recognizes the differences between people and works to address these differences, in order to ensure equality of results. Egalitarian doctrines maintain that all humans are equal in fundamental worth or social status.

This is also the model that Albanian legislation promotes. It emphasizes the importance of equal opportunities for equal access of women with men to the resources provided by the state. These laws and policies are provided through support from the institutions established by law.

But these measures among other things should also ensure equal outcomes except such opportunities and possibilities.

International Acts in support of gender equality

On a global scale women occupy only 6.8% of all ministerial posts and in despite of the Beijing Action Plan only 19.5% had improvement in women's participation in decision-making, ensuring their representation by not less than 30% in national assemblies. To make the application and implementation of gender equality in the world more realistic have been taken many measures of a legal character, enabling the partial realization of the gender equality goal.

Many international acts have been adopted setting out general principles of gender equality. These principles subsequently enable different countries to adopt domestic legislation in accordance with or even ratifying agreements, conventions, etc.

Albania is one of these countries which has ratified many international acts regarding the gender equality, and also approved special laws for the proper implementation of this right, which basically is part of the human rights.

International acts

International acts in support of gender equality are global instruments referring the international acts of UNO protecting individuals, their human dignity and fundamental freedoms. The fundamental document of these acts is the International Bill of Human Rights. It consists on:

- United Nations Charter (UNC)
- Universal Declaration of Human Rights (UDHR)
- International Covenant on Civil and Political Rights and its two Optional Protocols (ICCPR)
- International Covenant on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights (ICESCR)
- Convention on the Elimination of all Forms of Discrimination Against Women (CEDAW)

Universal Declaration of Human Rights (UDHR)

UDHR composes the heart of the international juridical corpus and norms of every democratic country regarding human rights. As a document of the past and actuality at the same time, UDHR is programmed and proved to serve the future.

The UDHR consists of thirty articles which have been elaborated in subsequent international treaties, economic transfers, regional human rights instruments, national constitutions, and other laws.

International Covenant on Civil and Political Rights (ICCPR)

This covenant implements to state parties that have ratified it to respect and ensure the rights and freedoms of their citizens, rights defined in covenant. There are two Optional Protocols to the Covenant.

The First Optional Protocol establishes an individual complaints mechanism, allowing individuals to complain to the Human Rights Committee about violations of the Covenant.

The Second Optional Protocol abolishes the death penalty; however, countries were permitted to make a reservation allowing for use of death penalty for the most serious crimes of a military nature, committed during wartime.

International Covenant on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights (ICESCR)

This convention obliges states to respect and ensure the rights and freedoms of their citizens. These rights consist mainly of the right to work, the right for fair and favorable working conditions, the right of association, the right to social insurance, rights with respect to the family, the right to education, the right to participate in cultural life and rights of profitability from scientific progress.

Convention on the Elimination of all Forms of Discrimination Against Women (CEDAW)

This Convention, CEDAW is an international treaty adopted by the UN General Assembly aiming at protecting women's rights as human rights, is often referred as Women's Convention or Bill of Rights of Women. Until now, the CEDAW Convention has been ratified by 185 countries.

It is the first convention of human rights, which obliges State Parties to modify and refrain from social approaches, cultural patterns and practices, which are based on the idea of the inferiority or superiority of either sex.

CEDAW integrates the civil, political, economic, social, and cultural rights of women, in the normative framework of non-discrimination and equality.

The CEDAW convention has a triple purpose. It makes compulsory the adoption of appropriate and effective measures in three different levels:

- To implement full equality in law and public administration;
- To improve women situation de facto;
- To combat gender stereotypes and gender ideology.

These three objectives of the convention have the common purpose; that of **elimination of all forms of discrimination against women**.

Optional Protocol to the Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination against Women (OP-CEDAW)

The OP-CEDAW is an international treaty which establishes complaint and inquiry mechanisms for the Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination Against Women (CEDAW). Parties to the Protocol allow the Committee on the Elimination of Discrimination against Women to hear complaints from individuals or inquire into "grave or systematic violations" of the Convention. The Protocol has led to a number of decisions against member states on issues such as domestic violence, parental leave and forced sterilization, as well as an investigation into the systematic killing of women in the Mexican city of Ciudad Juárez, Chihuahua.

Regional instruments

The principle of gender equality is one of the basic principles of the Council of Europe. European Court of Human Rights has held that equality of the sexes is one of the major goals of the Member States of the Council of Europe. Some European instruments related to human rights and gender equality are:

- European Convention of Human Rights (ECHR)
- Protocol no. 7 of ECHR
- Protocol no. 12 of ECHR

•European Social Charter, etc.

European Convention of Human Rights (ECHR)

Gender equality is stated as one of the fundamental principles of the European Convention on Human Rights. Article 14 of the Convention provides that: *"The enjoyment of the rights and freedoms set forth in this Convention shall be secured without discrimination on any ground such as sex, race, color, language, religion, political opinion or other, national or social origin, associating with the status of a national minority, property, birth or other status."*

The convention is an international treaty drafted to protect human rights and fundamental freedoms and has played an important role in the development and awareness of Human Rights in Europe.

The ECHR also established the European Court of Human Rights (ECtHR). Any person who feels his or her rights have been violated under the Convention by a state party can take a case to the Court. Judgments finding violations are binding on the States concerned and they are obliged to execute them. The Committee of Ministers of the Council of Europe is responsible for monitoring the execution of judgments, particularly to ensure payment of the amounts awarded by the Court to the applicants in compensation for the damage they have sustained.

The ECHR is composed of another fifteen protocols since 2010. These protocols can be divided into two main groups: those amending the framework of the convention system, and those expanding the rights that can be protected. In this paper I am just mentioning protocols no.7 and no.12, which are directly related to my topic.

Protocol no. 7 of ECHR and article no. 5

Article no. 5 of protocol no. 7 provides that: *"Spouses shall enjoy equality of rights and responsibilities of a private law character between them and the relationship with their children, regarding marriage, during marriage and at its dissolution case. This article shall not prevent States from taking measures necessary in the interest of children. "*

According to this article, spouses shall enjoy equal rights with regard to marriage, during and in the event of termination. This equality should be ensured only in relations between the spouses themselves, about their person or property, and in their relationships with their children. Rights and responsibilities are purely private law, shall not apply to other areas of law, such as administrative law, fiscal, criminal, social, religious, or labor laws. This article, which deals with the case of "spouses", excludes the period before marriage, and does not apply in the case of the ability to marry, which is granted by the law of the country in question.

Protocol no. 12 of ECHR and its' article no.1

Protection against discrimination under Article 14, was recently completed by Article 1 of Protocol No. 12 of the ECHR. Protocol 12 expands the range of application of Article 14, by providing a completely independent application of the principle of non-discrimination, to any right set forth by law. This particular protocol expands the range of protection from discrimination to include negative obligations of the contracting parties as well as a positive obligation.

It stands next to Article 14, without amending or repealing it. Protocol No. 12 of ECHR guarantees the right's standing on its own, for equality.

Article 1 of Protocol 12 provides a non-discrimination clause and therefore provides a range of protection which extends beyond the "the enjoyment of rights and freedoms established in in the Convention".

Article 1 of Protocol 12 provides protection from discrimination by public authorities. The article is not intended to impose a general positive obligation on Parties to take measures for the prevention or correction of all cases of discrimination in relations between private persons.

European Social Charter

European Social Charter is a complementary instrument to the European Convention on Human Rights, as it includes a number of economic and social rights. Institution that guarantees the respect of Charter is the European Committee of Social Rights.

The Convention addresses issues of gender equality and non-discrimination. For this it requires that the rights defined in the European Social Charter to be provided to everyone, both domestic and foreign, regardless of race, gender, color, language, religion, opinion, nationality, social composition, state of health or association with a national minority.

European Union Legislation

A short introductory explanation that deserves attention is the difference between the EU and the EC. Currently, therefore, before the entry into force of the Lisbon Treaty, the European Community and consequently the right of the EC, it is only a part of European Union law. All the right of gender equality is a right that has its roots in the treaty that set up the European Community (**EC Treaty**), which is older than the EU Treaty. Consequently, while we can talk about the right to gender equality EU, more accurate references are those to the EC Treaty. With the entry into force of the Lisbon Treaty, the EU and EC merged into a single unit that is the European Union.

In the Treaty that set up the European Economic Community, adopted in 1957, was included only a single provision (Article 119 of the Treaty the EEC, now Article 141 of the EC Treaty's) to fight gender discrimination, namely, the principle of equal pay between men and women for equal work. However, the European Court of Justice stated that Article 119 of the EEC's aim was not only economic but also social. Later, the ECJ ruled that the economic aim is secondary to the social purpose. It also stated that the principle of equal pay is an expression of a fundamental human right.

With the entry into force of the Amsterdam Treaty in 1999, the promotion of equality between men and women throughout the European Community has become one of the essential tasks to Community.

In addition, since 1999, the Community had the authority to take appropriate action to combat discrimination based on sex, racial or ethnic origin, religion or belief, disability and age or sexual orientation.

This article has provided a legal basis about anti-discrimination directives not related to gender, but also for the Directive of the principle of equal treatment between men and women in access and supply of goods and services 2000/113 / of the EC.

Directives

•Directive 79/7 / of EEC for the equal treatment of men and women in statutory security schemes.

The so-called Third Directive on equal treatment between men and women covers the social security provided for by law (statutory). The Directive prohibits direct discrimination and indirect both due to sex (Article 4, paragraph 1). Protected persons are "population works - including self-employed persons and workers whose activity is interrupted due to illness, accident or unemployment, not apart from them and persons seeking employment- and workers retired or disabled, as well as self-employed persons "(Article 2).

Directive 2004/113/ of the EC of equal treatment between men and women in access and supply of goods and services

This is the first directive that treats gender equality issues outside of the employment field. The submission of this Directive recognizes that discrimination based on sex, including harassment and sexual harassment, also takes place in areas outside the labor market and can be equally damaging, acting as a barrier to the successful integration of men and women in economic life and social. The principle of equal treatment means that there should be no discrimination directly or indirectly based on sex, including less favorable treatment of women for reasons of pregnancy and childbirth. More favorable provisions for the protection of women as regards pregnancy and childbirth do not conflict with the principle of equal treatment.

Restated Directive 2006/54 / of the EC

In 2006, the new directive 2006/54/ of EC, which merges existing provisions of the various directives of the equality of the sexes, including some cases from case law of the ECJ.

This directive abrogates:

- Directive 75/117/ of EC for equal pay for women and men.
- Directive 76/207/ of EC for equal treatment of men and women in hiring.
- Directive 86/378/ of EC for equal treatment of men and women in social insurance schemes.

The aim of this Directive is to clarify and merge into a single text the provisions on employment, including promotion and vocational training, as well as working conditions, along with wage and occupational social insurance schemes.

After the conduction of the study of legal framework we can conclude that gender equality has been in focus of both EU and CEDAW.

If we make a comparison vertical between the EU law and CEDAW could say that the regime of EU law is a corpus more applicable laws, and the law of CEDAW, which treats its obligations to States Parties, has very limited opportunities to sanction violations.

Chapter II

Mechanisms of gender equality into a country.

LGE (The Lobby for Gender Equality) charges Ministry of Labor, Social Affairs and Equal Opportunities as the authority responsible for gender equality. The Ministry's main function is to monitor the implementation of relevant laws and the application of the principles of non-discrimination and equality between men and women.

Auxiliary mechanisms for achieving gender equality in general levels are:

Department for equal opportunities and family policy (DEOFF). DEOFF's mission is to promote gender equality and women's participation in economic, political and cultural life, and develop policies for the prevention and reduction of gender-based violence. It consists of two sections:

- Section for gender equality and measures against violence, and
- Section for rights and protection of children.

National Council for Gender Equality. It is responsible for proposing policies for gender equality. This Council advises the government on national policy direction for the harmonization of gender and gender equality and ensure the inclusion of gender in all areas.

•**Commission of Labor, Social Affairs and Health** is responsible for women and family issues, in addition to issues of labor relations, social affairs, social security and health. This committee reviews the draft, take legislative initiatives in the areas of its expertise and cooperates with the MoLSAEO on issues of gender equality and children.

•Commissioner of Protection against Discrimination, examines complaints of discrimination from individuals, groups of individuals or organizations on issues such as discrimination, including gender, but also gender identity, pregnancy, sexual orientation, marital or family status and parental responsibility.

Gender equality officers in the central government level (ministries) and the local unit are mandated to lead efforts to harmonize gender and expected to play the role of promoters and monitors the implementation of the national gender policy.

Recommendations

Political parties have a special responsibility to speed up implementation of measures to increase the proportion of women not only as candidates, but also as elected parliamentarians and government ministers and local. In all parties and within the Parliament should have zero tolerance for language and behavior that is abusive exclusionary and belittles women, as well as personal attacks on candidates that significantly express a direction against women. Party programs should include their apparent position in relation to gender equality and the empowerment of women in all thematic and sectorial areas. Male and female candidates should be informed about comprehensive policies on gender equality and women's empowerment.

Pursuant to the Declaration and Beijing Action Plan and the implementation of LGES, gender mainstreaming requires institutional changes in working methods, and the explicit responsibility of promoting gender equality. Gender equality is an integral part of strengthening democracy - the process is incomplete if there are no policies, measures and practices that aim to reduce inequalities between men and women in all spheres of life and to align gender democracy.

Article 9 and 22 of LGES clearly engages Albanian government to take special measures for the empowerment of women in Albania. It was followed by an analysis of current conditions, various sectors of political and public life have gender balance. Women remain under-represented at senior levels in the administration and politics. To remedy these situations specific measures to encourage the participation of the less represented gender such as recruitment policies that favor for a limited time less represented gender.

Some of the measures that can be taken are:

- The consistent realization of fuller, systematic and comprehensive studies for deeper recognition of the problem, of depth, differentiated intensity occurrence of problems of gender equality in Albania.
- The necessity and importance of collecting statistical data for performing analyzes gender studies, for in-depth knowledge of the current situation of gender perspectives, to design and implement concrete and effective programs, aiming at enhancing gender equality.
- Drafting of strategies and policies of "pro gender" nature, with clear and achievable objectives.
- Recognition of domestic and international legal framework for gender equality and the improvement of existing legislation and undertaking new legislative initiatives.
- Strengthening the educational role of print and electronic media, which could become the strongest ally of women in Albania in her battle for equality and social justice.
- The importance of increasing the participation of women in political and public decision making as a prerequisite for the democratization of the Albanian society.
- Women's rights to be seen as human rights in general and not just as gender rights.
- Raising awareness of women themselves for their rights and their role in achieving gender equality.
- Increasing the role of women as social actors in the development of society as much as men for eliminating discriminatory practices and gender stereotypes on this role.

Conclusions

Women represent half of the potential talents and skills of humanity and their under-representation in decision-making is a loss for society as a whole. Gender equality means equal access to and control over resources and benefits, equal participation in political decision-making on law and equality for women and men. Gender equality is not only a democratic necessity in itself, but also an economic necessity, social policy and poverty reduction and the integration of Albania into the EU.

Political and structural changes should promote increased participation of women in political life. The amendment of the Electoral Code in order to ensure a better implementation of the gender quota by ending the uncertainty expressed in the case of general elections (option "and / or" in the ranking of candidates) through the application of systems that have resulted effective in other countries as well as ongoing review of the threshold of gender quotas.

It is necessary to increase the number of women participating in decision-making structures of the party by reviewing the statutes of parties and procedures for the selection of leaders. Creating alliances of women as a group, but also with men allies, informally and organized inside / outside and beyond political forums are essential strategies that their participation is higher and real. Thus, their role in politics will be more powerful. Increased media attention in respect of equal treatment between men and women representatives, regarding the portrayal of political figures.

Increased capacity of journalists to advanced knowledge on gender issues, in order to develop a competent and professional media coverage. Strengthening the role of media in promoting women in politics, both in terms of awareness of the quota, women's right to self-representation, value added from our most powerful women in political and democratic processes. Strengthening the role of civil society in general and the organizations dealing with gender issues and women in particular, the promotion of women in politics and the development of alliances needed in this regard. Improving and creating social programs and services is essential to reduce the overload of gender roles, so that women have the opportunity to realize their potential in all spheres of life, as well as in the political field.

Drawing conclusions and recommendations that should be a priority for the new stage of the struggle of women in Albanian society to deepen the indicators of gender equality by turning it into a social challenge, it aims to highlight some objectives measurable indicators for work of all state institutions, public, media and civil society.

The issue of gender equality should be seen making several comprehensive analyzes this problem, which is really a social and political problem and gender. So the problem must be seen as political issues related to the political rights of women in decision making, such as social problem that has to do with women's rights as a man and the obstacles it faces in familiar environment.

In conclusion, I would like to summarize once again what I have discussed above, noting aloud that people are born male and female first and family formation makes men and women. May not be important if you are female or male, when the potential to change and improve society is of a higher dimension. Albania has tried and is trying day by day to make its contribution to improving the gender ratio in all areas of life, by passing laws that help to establish gender-balanced and respect the gender quota required by European standards.

But despite the bulk of the world's population are women, their participation and role remains very low in political life and not only in a country. Still cannot fail to mention the fact that things are improving. Women are aware that they have a key role in the development of students and society in shaping a country's history and every day more and more of them are giving their useful contribution. They are demanding always more to get a proper education, making possible that nowadays 58.2% of university students are females.

During a study regarding international relations, I noticed how much the feminine spirit was needed in the maintenance and improvement of relations between the countries. Women leaders would make the world to have more goods and peace. Many of these women have sacrificed their lives and goals that have filed a gender equality worldwide. And though it seems a utopian goal in itself, I think it is very possible and realizable. It may take many more years and may require many reforms and new laws, but women will achieve the equality and respect they deserve in a democratic and European society.

Negotiating Boundaries Between Gender and Social Identities in the Principality of Samos: The Case of Divorces (1902–1911)

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Abstract

This study focuses on divorces in the Principality of Samos, which existed from 1834 to 1912. The process of divorce is described according to the laws of the rincipality, and divorces are examined among those published in the Newspaper of the Government of the Principality of Samos from the last decade of the Principality from 1902 to 1911. Issues linked to divorce are investigated, like the differences between husbands and wives regarding the initiation and reasons for requesting a divorce. These differences are integrated in the specific social context of the Principality, and the qualitative characteristics are determined in regard to the gender ratio of women and men that is articulated by the invocation of divorce. The aim is to determine the boundaries of social identities of gender with focus on the prevailing perceptions of the social roles of men and women. Gender is used as a social and cultural construction. It is argued that the social gender identity is formed through a process of “performativity”, that is, through adaptation to the dominant social ideals.

Keywords: Marriage, Divorce, Gender, Social Identity, Principality of Samos

1. Introduction

The divorce rate has been increasing since the Restoration and into the twentieth century. The history of divorce has become an issue in contemporary literature, in contexts such as England (Stone, 1990 & 1993), Italy (Seymour, 2006), the Ottoman Empire (Iliadou-Tachou & Orfanou, 2014), and internationally (Phillips, 1991). As Riessman (1990) suggested, gender is linked to different perceptions of what a marriage should provide and different reasons for divorce. Gender is seen in this study as a social and cultural construction (Rosaldo and Lamphere, 1974; Evans, 2003; Maruani, 2005). It has also been asserted that gender interacts with the concepts of class, race, and ethnicity (Lord, 2005; Moore, 2006). The sense of social gender identity is formed through a process of adjustment to dominating social ideals (Butler, 1990).

The aim of this study is to evaluate the negotiation of boundaries in the social identity of gender within the specific framework of the Principality of Samos (1834–1912). Specifically, the prevailing perceptions about the social role of men and women are discussed. For this purpose, officially published divorces issued by the principality were used. During the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries, the Aegean island of Samos was part of the Ottoman Empire and followed the framework of the Ottoman Christian communities, including divorce (Laiou, 2007). For the Orthodox Church, the legality of divorce is granted up to two conditions if there are specific statutory preconditions allowing the dissolution of the marriage (Papadakis, 2008; Academic Dictionaries and Encyclopedias, 2015). In the case of Samos, the Orthodox Christian religion had absolute jurisdiction over marriage and divorce, as the island is considered to have local Greek communities with a large Orthodox Christian majority (Laiou, 2007). From 1834 to 1912, Samos was a semi-autonomous principality under Ottoman suzerainty. The investigation of divorces in the principality is significant because of its legislation, which constitutes a unique example

that is based on the local Samian statutory framework that is clearly differentiated from the framework of the Greek Communities of the Ottoman Empire (Svoronos, 1903). This article examines divorces within this peculiar legal system in the context of the principality.

For civil relations (Svoronos, 1907), the General Assembly of Samians elected the provisions of the Harmenopoulos Collection of Laws in 1839, and the litigations in the courts of the principality were resolved according to this collection (Fragoulis, 1899). Constantin Harmenopoulos was a Byzantine judge who codified Byzantine Law in his *Hexabible* in 1345 (Argyriadis, 1978). Additionally, the French Penal Code was also used. In 1840, the Judicial Manual for the Courts of the Principality was published. Since 1852, the Civil Code of Greece was introduced to the Principality, and legislation became clearly oriented toward Greece (Svoronos, 1907). In the late nineteenth century, by order of Prince Karatheodori, a committee was established in order to publish a new Civil Code that would be comprehensible to all and reflect the progress of civilization. In 1874, this committee of lawyers established a review of the Civil Code of Greece and elaborated a new one for the principality with the intention of simplifying the code of Greece and making it appropriate for the small island of Samos (Fragoulis, 1899).

The process of divorce in the legislative framework of the principality fell under Law ΠΑ'1860 About the attempt to reconcile spouses in the case of the demand for the dissolution of marriage. This provides that when a husband or a wife applied for divorce or separation from "table and bed", they must also appeal to the Orthodox metropolitan bishop, who would invite both spouses to compromise. Should he be unable to reconcile the spouses within three months, he would write a report addressed to the court. Only then could the court accept applications for divorce and order for the claim to be heard. During this period of three months, the Metropolitan could give written permission to the wife to move out of her family home if considered necessary. Only after such authorization could the courts intervene at the request of one of the two spouses, even during the three-month period of the attempt of reunification.

Finally, in the case of an irrevocable court decision on the dissolution of marriage, the prosecutor would send a copy to the ecclesiastical authority, and the Metropolitan would declare the marriage spiritually dissolved as well. Later, Law 198/1881 About divorce provided that the action for the dissolution of marriage cannot be admitted in the First Instance Court without prior permission from the Episcopal authority. The bishop who attempted to reconcile the spouses would be entitled to order temporarily the delivery of necessary clothing to each other in cases of clothes being withheld from the petitioning spouse by the respondent spouse (Laws of the Principality of Samos, 1859–1908).

In 1903, Law ΠΑ'1860 and Law 198/1881 were in effect (Svoronos, 1903). In 1907, the process of divorce remained the same except for one difference: the Metropolitan had only one month instead of three to attempt reunification. And after the period of reunification, the Court of First Instance could decide about the children or alimony in the event the wife does not have her own property. The relatives of both spouses could not be considered as witnesses, although children and servants were acceptable. The application could be for "divorce" or for "separation from the table and bed". Furthermore, a wife could claim the separation of her own dowry from her ex-husband's property to the Court (Svoronos, 1907).

The evolution of divorce laws that provide reasons for divorce is described as follows. Law ΟΣΤ'1860 For the dissolution of marriage permitted the dissolution in the case of five years of continuous separation of spouses of "the table and bed". Seven years later, Law ΣΕΒ'1867 About repealing the wedding dissolution explained the reasons for repealing Law ΟΣΤ'1860:

We understand that a five-year separation of spouses of the table and bed introduced by Law ΟΣΤ'1860 as a reason of dissolution of a marital union gave rise to many divorces, with moral and material harm to family members. The reasons for the dissolution of the 'sacred relationship of marriage indicated in the Civil Code are considered sufficient. Thus, after the resolution of the General Assembly of Samos in 1867, we decided to abolish Law ΟΣΤ'1860.

However, in the 1880s, the content of Law ΟΣΤ'1860 returned to power with Law 198/1881 About divorce, which provided for the separation of spouses for five years as a reason for divorce, if it could be proven that it would be impossible to live together again. Another reason for divorce described by the law was the husband's abandonment of the wife for five years and without caring for her nutritional and financial maintenance (Laws of the Principality of Samos, 1859–1908). The Civil Code of Samos of 1899 maintains the provision of Law 198 and abolishes the provisions about the separation of spouses of "the table and bed", maintaining power in the provisions about five or seven years of abandonment or for the

disappearance of one spouse. In this case, the claim for divorce of a spouse was possible in the following cases: a) six years after a disappearance and b) after the adoption of the act of invisibility. The Civil Code of 1899 added the following to the existing reasons for divorce: the overnight accommodation of a wife in a foreign residence without the consent of her husband (Fragoulis, 1899).

Adultery was another reason for divorce. Law 143/1880 For the revocation of adultery and slander recalls provided that the inclusions for adultery in any case could be withdrawn upon payment of the official recall costs (Laws of the Principality of Samos, 1859–1908). The Civil Code of 1899 provided that when a husband denounced his wife for adultery, should she prove her innocence, the wife could be justified by the court as a petitioner for divorce. A wife could also ask for a divorce if her husband lived with a concubine, and a husband could ask for a divorce in the case of the wife's adultery.

The Civil Code of 1899 provided that each of the two spouses could apply for divorce against the other in the event of an attempt on the other's life or injuries that are often repetitive (Fragoulis, 1899).

According to Law 198/1881, the serious illness elephantiasis was a legal reason for divorce (Laws of the Principality of Samos, 1859–1908). The Civil Code of Samos of 1899 also maintained the provisions of Law 198/1881.

The conviction of a felony constituted a cause for divorce. The Civil Code of 1899 limited this to only premeditated felony cases and exempted felony cases conducted without premeditation and related to political issues, which had both been reasons for divorce. However, condemnation to a criminal punishment for a political offense remained a reason for divorce (Fragoulis, 1899).

Immigration expanded during the late nineteenth century and the early twentieth century in Samos (Orfanou, 2012). As a result, Law 198/1881 provided for the migration of a spouse as a reason for divorce when a second marriage abroad was proven (Laws of the Principality of Samos, 1859–1908). The Civil Code of Samos of 1899 maintained the provisions of Law 198/1881 (Fragoulis, 1899). Almost one decade later, Law 1916/1907 About reasons for divorce continued to consider the marriage of one of the two spouses abroad as a reason for divorce. Although the second marriage was invalid according to the laws of the principality, it was a reason for divorce if it was valid in the country of origin of the new spouse or in the country where the marriage occurred. However, by the next year, Law 1916 was abolished by Law 2119/1908 About repealing Law 1916 on divorce (Laws of the Principality of Samos, 1859–1908).

The innovation of the Civil Code of Samos of 1899 concerning divorces was the following: the codex as it concerns the rights and obligations of marriage produced between spouses stipulates that the obligation of a husband to pay alimony to his wife ceases when she forsakes her house and refuses to return without legal reason. However, in such circumstances, the court had the power to order temporary judicial sequestration of a part of the dowry annuity of the wife according to the circumstances. The court awards the judicial sequestration or a part of it to the man. With this innovation, which is omitted from the Italian Code and French rights, the legislature could impose obligations to the wife, such as lead and residence with her husband, for financial reasons. The Civil Code of Samos of 1899 provided that the spouse who is judged by the court as being responsible for the divorce loses the financial benefits designated in the contract of marriage. If judged by the court as not being responsible for the divorce, the husband retained the economic benefits provided by the contract. Generally, the amount granted did not exceed one third of the income of the spouse paying it. Children do not lose any of their rights after dissolution of marriage.

Finally, the Civil Code of Samos of 1899 provided that the legislation was also valid for couples where one spouse is not Orthodox Christian. In the case of two non-Orthodox Christians spouses, they could apply for divorce only if their religion allowed it (Fragoulis, 1899).

In the Principality of Samos (1834–1912), divorce laws were developed and often changed according to social evolution and needs. Marriage in Samos is "approved" as a social construction by the principality. For example, starting in 1838, the Prince Stefanos Vogoridis endowed three of the poorest indigenous girls of the island for their marriage by lot using the Princely Fund every year on his name day (General State Archives of Greece, Regional Archives of Samos. Proceedings of Z' General Assembly of Samians, 1839). All marriages were registered in the Civil Registry by a procedure that needed the presence of a priest, both spouses, and two witnesses. In particular, the Law ΛΣΤ'/1854 provided that the report to the registrar of a marriage should be done within three days after the marriage (Law ΛΣΤ' About civil-status records). Marriage

was considered as a factor in social and familial stability. The Principality officially encouraged marriage, including by its laws, and it tried to discourage its dissolution.

2. Research Methods

2.1. Methods

Two research methods were used: a) historical hermeneutics (Cohen & Manion, 1996); and b) content analysis (Berelson, 1952; Kyriazi, 2011) of divorces concluded in the official *Newspaper of the Government of the Principality of Samos* (1902–1911). For a systematic presentation of quantitative data, tables were used (Bell, 1993). This historical research was conducted using existing data (Cohen & Manion, 1996) from the published divorces. Even without results for the whole period of the Principality of Samos (1832–1912), this data could provide reliable information on the last decade of the Principality.

2.2. Research subject

This research focuses on the local area of the island of Samos, inhabited by a Greek Orthodox population. The period chosen is limited in the last decade of the Principality of Samos and the first decade of the twentieth century (1902–1911). The main aim of this study is to evaluate gender as a social and cultural construction through the study of divorces. The individual research goals were a) the identification of different reasons for seeking divorce between men and women and the integration of these differences in a specific social context; and b) mapping of the qualitative characteristics of the gender ratio of women and men expressed in the invocation of the divorce.

2.3. Materials

The research was based on primary published sources of data. For this purpose, we studied official applications and decisions on divorces published in the *Newspaper of the Government of the Principality of Samos* during the semesters of 22 June to 31 December 1902 and 9 January to 9 August 1903, as well as during the years spanning 2 January to 28 December 1904, 3 January to 28 December 1905, 5 January to 29 December 1908, 3 January to -29 December 1909, 5 January to 31 December 1910, and 8 January to 28 December 1911.

2.4. Findings

We used 182 divorces recorded in the *Newspaper of the Government of the Principality of Samos*:

From 22 June to 31 December 1902: 14 divorces

From 9 January to 9 August 1903: 6 divorces

From 2 January to 28 December 1904: 19 divorces

From 3 January to 28 December 1905: 23 divorces

From 5 January to 29 December 1908: 21 divorces

From 3 January to 29 December 1909: 26 divorces

From 5 January to 31 December 1910: 37 divorces

From 8 January to 28 December 1911: 36 divorces

All of these divorces were analyzed together for the years 1902 to 1911. However, from 1904 to 1911 (the last eight years of our research), the number of divorces per year was almost doubled. The number was 19 in 1904 and became 36 in 1911.

2.4. Results

According to Table 1 and Graph 1, of the total of 182 requests for divorces examined during 1902–1911, husbands represented 56,04%, while wives represented 43,96%. The main reasons for male requests for divorces (Table 2 and Graph 3) are “overnight accommodation of a wife away from her family house without consent from her husband” (45,7%) and the separation of spouses for five years due to the wife’s responsibility, which was the second most important reason (16,4%) among husbands. Abandonment of the family home was the most common reason (62,1%) for husbands’ requests for divorces. According to Table 2, men requested divorces for reasons of adultery at a significant percentage (24,3 %), while for women, this reason is mentioned only for 4,3% of the requests for divorces.

The differences in reasons for both genders are clear. For wives, the main reason is abandonment by the husband in combination with indifference to caring for the wife (45,7%). Estrangement of the wife for five years represented 28,4%, seven years of abandonment without covering the living needs of the wife represented 7,8%, and a failure to support the wife represented 9,5%. Maltreatment seems to be extremely important for 33,6% of wives, (injuries: 25%; attempt on life: 8,6%). In contrast, men’s maltreatment represented only 2,1%. According to the Table 2 and the Graph 2, the main reasons for both genders are abandonment of the family home (50,4 %), maltreatment (16,4 %) and adultery (15,3%).

We investigated the residence of the spouse petitioning for divorce according to gender (Table 3 and Graph 4), which showed that 67,6% of both genders asking for a divorce were living in Samos, and only 32,4% lived outside of the Principality, (mainly Asia Minor, North America, Greece, and Egypt. Interestingly, 1,1% lived in Orthodox monasteries. For husbands asking for a divorce, 77,5% lived in Samos, 11,8% were in North America, and 4,9% were in Asia Minor. For wives, 55% lived in Samos, 15 % were in Asia Minor, a 7,5% were in Greece, 6,3% in North America, and 6,3% were in Egypt. It is clear that for men, the North America is the main place of residence after Samos, while for women it is Asia Minor and Greece.

According to Table 4 and Graphs 5, for both genders, 46,2% of husbands lived in a different residence, while 53,8% of the spouses petitioning for divorce lived in the same place. However, husbands living away from their wives seems to be more important for asking for a divorce (51% of requests) rather than wives living away, which represent only 40% of the requests. Wives seem to be more familiar with the idea of living away from their husbands. We estimate that migration occurred for the financial reasons of men in that period. They would have worked away and sent money to maintain their families. Another important social fact is the massive migration of this decade (Orfanou, 2012).

According to Table 5, Graph 6 and 7, for husbands, adultery seems to have greater importance (27,1%) when their wives live in a different place, with less importance when she lives in the same place (21,4%). In contrast, overnight accommodation away from the family home seems to be less important as a reason for divorce when there are different residences for both spouses (40%), while it has major importance (51,4%) when both spouses live in the same place. Maltreatment is more important for 41,1% of wives (injuries 28,8% and attempt on life 12,3%) when both spouses live in the same place and less important for 20,9% of wives (injuries 18,6% and attempt on life 2,3%) when there are different residences. Estrangement for five years (32,6%) along with seven years of abandonment and not covering living needs (14%) are more important reasons for divorce when the husband is in another country, but they are a less frequent cause of divorce when the spouses live in the same place (estranged for five years: 26%; seven years of abandonment and not covering living needs: 4,1%). Not covering living needs is a most common reason for divorce when residences are the same (11%) and less frequent when there are different residences (7%). For the wives, adultery has major importance when the husband lives away (mistresses: 9,3%) and less important when the husband lives in the same place (mistresses: 1,4%).

According to Table 6 and Graph 8, the place of residence influences the percentages of the reasons for divorce requests for both genders. With the same place of residence, maltreatment represents 23,1% (injuries: 16,1%; attempt on life: 7%). For different residences, maltreatment represents 8% (injuries: 7,1%; attempt on life: 0,9%). Adultery represents 10,5% for the same place of residence and seems to have greater importance (16,8%) when the place of residence is different.

3. Discussion

In the last decade of the Principality of Samos, the requests for divorces augmented substantially. From 1902 to 1911, the divorces examined showed a slight preponderance of requests by husbands instead of wives requests. The main reason is “the overnight accommodation of a wives away from her family house without consent from her husband.”The separation of spouses for five years due to the wife’s responsibility was the second most important reason for divorce for husbands. Abandonment of the family home by the wife was the main reason (62,1%) for husbands' requests.

For 62,1% of divorces, the husbands were judged as not being responsible for the divorce and retained the economic benefits provided by the contract of marriage as a result. The obligation of husbands to pay alimony to their wives ceased when they forsook their household and refused to return without legal reason. At the same time, the Civil Code of Samos of 1899 provided that the spouse judged by the court to be responsible for the divorce loses the financial benefits of the marriage (the wife in this case).

The abandonment of the family home by the wife was relatively common in the Principality (62,1%). This fact requires interpretation. A model of the Eiffel Tower was constructed in the main square of the capital of the Principality between 1895 and 1900 (*Orfanou, 2012, pp. 533-534*), and the Esperanto language was made compulsory in the Principality's schools from 1910 to 1912 (*Orfanou, 2012, pp. 240-251*). In relation to this, we hypothesized that the women in Samos in the first decade of the twentieth century were more emancipated in comparison with the women of the Orthodox Communities of the Ottoman Empire (in the period of 1647–1923), where “abandonment” of the husband by the wife represented a reason for only 16% of husbands' requests for divorces (Iliadou-Tachou & Orfanou, 2014). Importantly, marriage annulment was possible in 1905 if it was celebrated under psychological or corporal violence exercised on the wife, in order to accept the marriage.

From the data, we could assume that the reasons for men seeking a divorce clearly differ from those of women (Table 2). For husbands, the main reasons for seeking divorce for almost half of the requests are overnight accommodation away from the family home, which is related to the attempt at dominance over the wife by the husband. For wives, the main reason for almost half of the requests is abandonment by the husband in combination with indifference to the care for the wife, which is related to the social role of a husband to financially support his wife.

Another important difference is also that men use the social construction of gender when requesting divorces and claim management of the sexuality of women while denouncing adultery (24%). On the other hand, for women, adultery by the husband was almost unimportant (4,3%).

Another important difference that is important for the use of physical force by men in the marriage is that for wives, maltreatment seems to be extremely important, representing 33,6% of requests for divorce (injuries: 25%; attempt on life: 8,6%). However, men's maltreatment represented only 2,1%.

Finally, for all divorces among both genders (Table 2), the main reason was abandonment of the family home (50,4%), followed by maltreatment (16,4%) and adultery (15,3%).

Almost 70% of the divorce petitioners lived in Samos, while almost 30% lived abroad (mainly Asia Minor, North America, Greece, and Egypt).

However, there are differences in the residences of the petitioning spouses between men and women. For husbands, 77,5% lived in Samos, 11,8% lived in North America, and 4,9% lived in Asia Minor. It is clear that North America is the main place of residence after Samos, followed by Asia Minor. For women, the most common after Samos was Asia Minor, followed by almost the same percentages in Greece, North America, and Egypt (55% in Samos, 15% in Asia Minor, 7,5% in Greece, 6,3% in North America, and 6,3% in Egypt). It could be assumed that for almost 30% of the petitioners, immigration was a reason for divorce, or perhaps, an unlucky marriage was a reason for immigration. Whatever the reason, immigration for men asking for divorce was concentrated in distance places (North America), while women were concentrated in places near the Mediterranean Sea, including Samos.

According to Table 4, for both genders overall, the distance of residence between the spouses seems to be unimportant in determining a divorce (53,8% same residence and 46,2% different residence). However, there are differences between

sexes. For husbands, living away from the wife seems to be more important in asking for a divorce (51% of the total requests of husbands), while for wives, living away from their husbands represents only 40% of the total requests by wives. Wives seem to be more familiar with the idea of living away from their husband. For financial reasons in that period, men would have worked away and sent money for family maintenance. Another important social fact is the massive migration of this decade (see Orfanou, 2012).

From Table 5 and Graph 6, we realized that for husbands, adultery seems to be of greater importance when their wives live in a different place and less important when they live in the same place. In contrast, overnight accommodation away from the family home seems to be less important as a reason for divorce when residences are different for both spouses, and it is of major importance when both spouses live in the same place.

According to Table 5 and Graph 7, we saw that for wives, maltreatment is more important when both spouses live in the same place and less important otherwise. Estrangement for five years along with seven years of abandonment and not covering living needs are more important reasons for divorce when the husband lives in another country. Not covering living needs is the most common reason for divorce when the residence is the same. For the wives, adultery is highly important when the husband lives away and less important otherwise.

According to Table 6 and Graph 8, the place of residence influences the percentages of reasons for divorce requests for both genders. For the spouses who live in the same place, maltreatment is much more important. Adultery is less important when the spouses live in the same place of residence and more important in the case of immigration.

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Tables

Table 1. Requests for divorces

Requests for divorce among husbands and wives		
Husbands	102	56,04 %
Wives	80	43,96 %
Total requests	182	100 %

Graph 1. Requests for divorce among husbands and wives

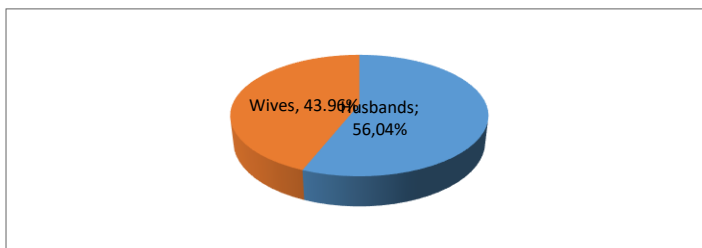
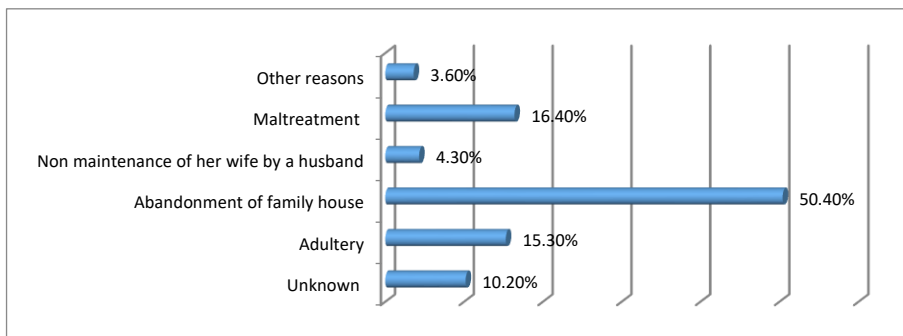


Table 2. Reasons for requesting divorces according to gender

Reasons for requests	Percentage				Reasons for requests grouped in general categories
	Husband	Wife	Total	Total	
Unknown	10,7 %	9,5 %	10,2 %	10,2 %	Unknown
Adultery	24,3 %	0,0 %	13,3 %	15,3 %	
Mistress	0,0 %	4,3 %	2 %		
Overnight accommodation away from the family house	45,7 %	0,0 %	25 %	50,4 %	Abandonment of family

Estrangement for five years	16,4 %	28,4 %	21,9 %		house
Seven years abandonment without covering the living needs of the wife	0,0 %	7,8 %	3,5 %		
Non maintenance of the wife by the husband	0,0 %	9,5 %	4,3 %	4,3 %	non maintenance of her wife by a husband
Injuries	1,4 %	25 %	12,1 %	16,4 %	Maltreatment
Attempt on life	0,7 %	8,6 %	4,3 %		
Felony penalty of a spouse	0,0 %	2,6 %	1,2 %	1,2 %	Felony penalty of a spouse
Acquittal of the wife to a complaint of her husband for adultery	0,0 %	1,7 %	0,8 %	0,8 %	Acquittal of the wife to a complaint of her husband for adultery
Elephantiasis	0,7 %	1,7 %	1,2 %	1,2 %	Elephantiasis
Annulment of a marriage because it was celebrated under psychological and corporal violence exercised on the wife in order to accept the marriage.	0,0 %	0,9 %	0,4 %	0,4 %	Annulment of a marriage because it was celebrated under psychological or corporal violence exercised on the wife
Total	100 %	100 %	100 %	100 %	Total

Graph 2. Reasons for requests for divorces for both genders



Graph 3. Reasons for requests for divorces for husbands and wives

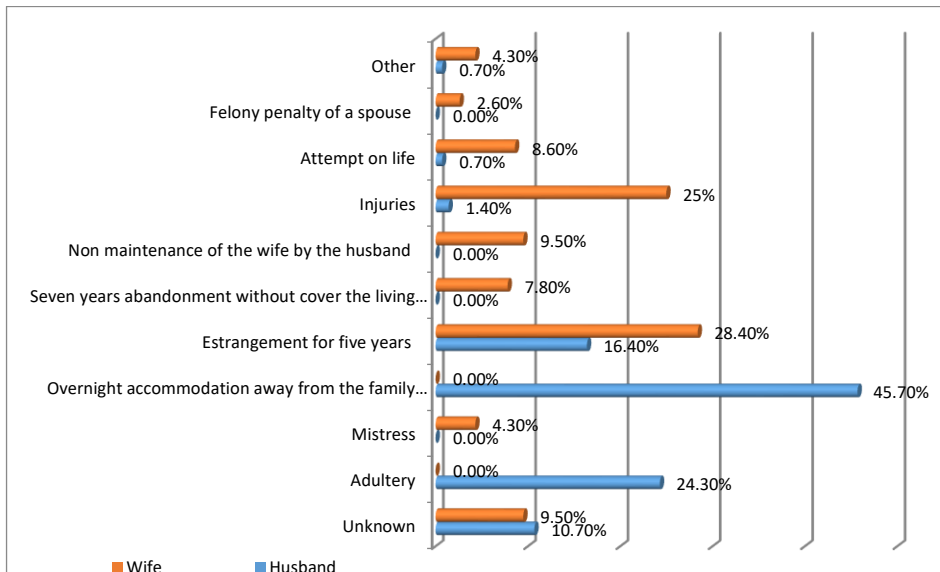


Table 3. Residence of the spouse petitioning for divorce according to gender

Residence of the spouse petitioning for divorce	Percentage		
	Husband	Wife	Total
Samos	77,5 %	55,0 %	67,6%
Asia Minor	4,9 %	15,0 %	9,3 %
America	11,8 %	6,3 %	9,3 %
Greece	1,0 %	7,5 %	3,8 %
Egypt	2,0 %	6,3 %	3,8 %
Unknown residence	1,0 %	7,5 %	3,8 %
Istanbul	0,0 %	2,5 %	1,1 %
Christian Orthodox Monasteries	2,0 %	0,0 %	1,1 %
Total	100 %	100 %	100 %

Graph 4. Residence of the spouse petitioning for divorce according to gender

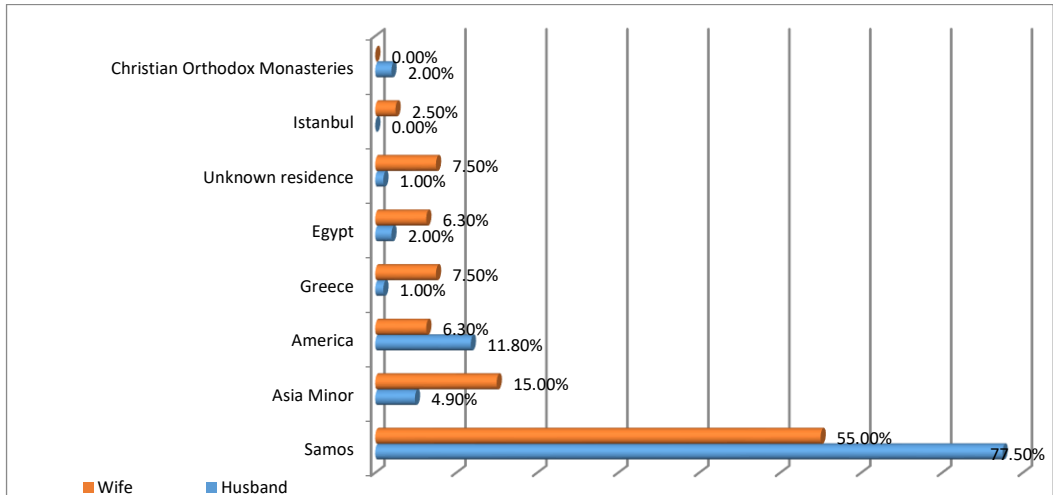


Table 4. Place of residence and gender of the petitioning spouse

Place of residence	Gender		Total
	Husband	Wife	
Same place	49,0 %	60,0 %	53,8 %
Different place	51,0 %	40,0 %	46,2 %
Total	100,0 %	100,0 %	100,0 %

Graphs 5. Place of residence and gender of the petitioning spouse

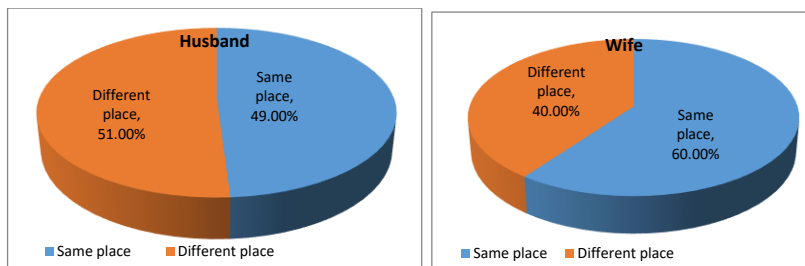
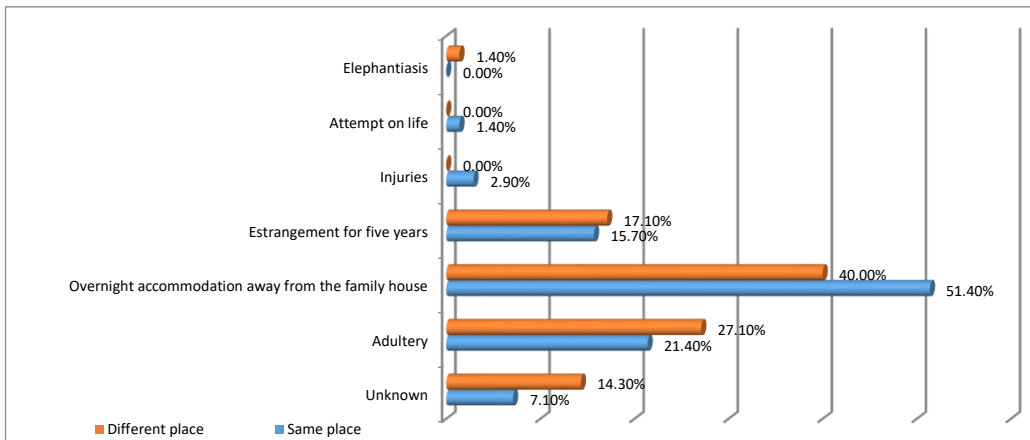


Table 5. Distance of residence and reason for divorce according to gender of the petitioning spouse

Reasons of requests	Residence	
	Same place	Different place
Husband		
Unknown	7,1 %	14,3 %
Adultery	21,4 %	27,1 %
Overnight accommodation away from the family house	51,4 %	40,0 %
Estrangement for five years	15,7 %	17,1 %
Injuries	2,9 %	0,0 %
Attempt on life	1,4 %	0,0 %
Elephantiasis	0,0 %	1,4 %
Total	100 %	100 %

Wife	Same place	Different place
Unknown	11,0 %	7,0 %
Injuries	28,8 %	18,6 %
Attempt on life	12,3 %	2,3 %
Estrangement for five years	26,0 %	32,6 %
Seven years abandonment without cover the living needs of the wife	4,1 %	14,0 %
Non maintenance of her wife by a husband	11,0 %	7,0 %
Mistress	1,4 %	9,3 %
Felony penalty of a spouse	2,7 %	2,3 %
Acquittal of the wife to a complaint of her husband for adultery	2,7 %	0,0 %
Elephantiasis	0,0 %	4,7 %
Annulment of a marriage because it was celebrated under psychological and corporal violence.	0,0 %	2,3 %
Total	100 %	100 %

Graph 6. Reasons for husbands' requests according to the place of residence



Graph 7. Reasons for wives' requests according to the place of residence

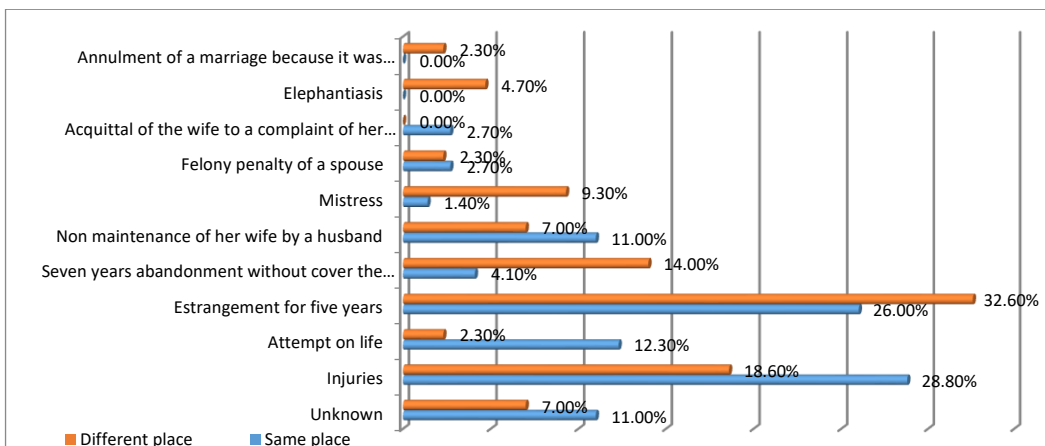
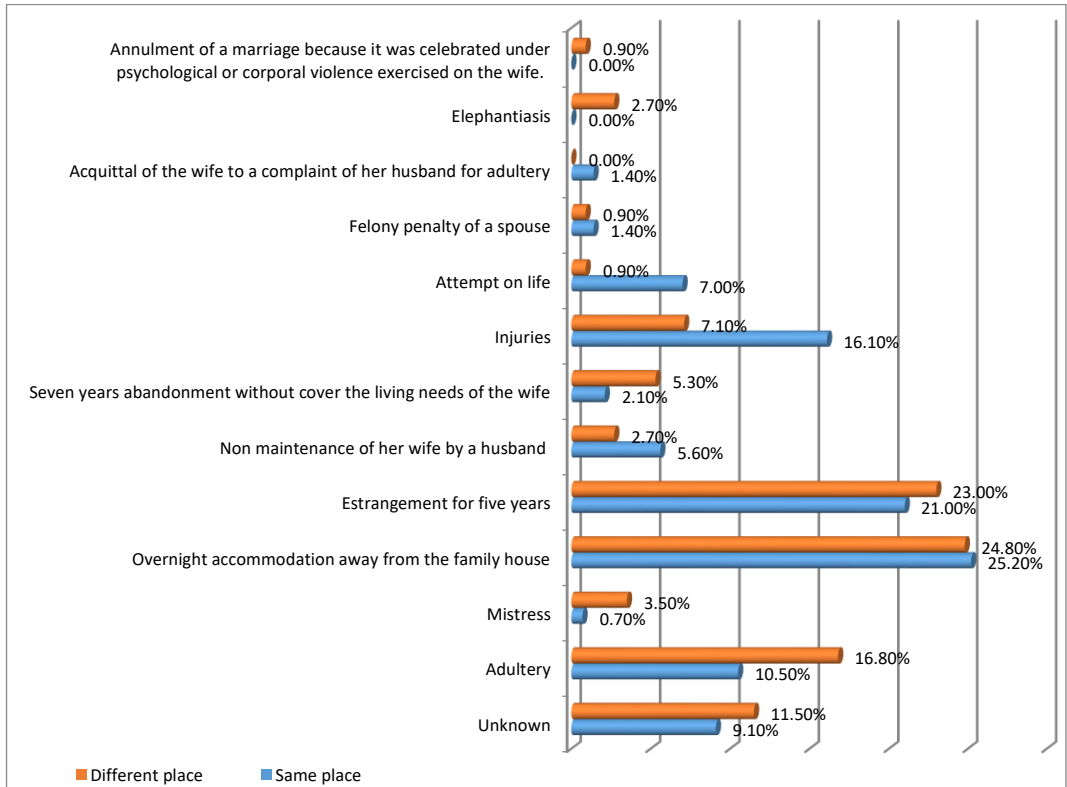


Table 6. Place of residence and reason for asking for divorce for both genders

Reasons of requests	Residence	
	Same place of residence	Different place of residence
Unknown	9,1 %	11,5 %
Adultery	10,5 %	16,8 %
Mistress	0,7 %	3,5 %
Overnight accommodation away from the family house	25,2 %	24,8 %
Estrangement for five years	21,0 %	23,0 %
Non maintenance of her wife by a husband	5,6 %	2,7 %
Seven years abandonment without cover the living needs of the wife	2,1 %	5,3 %
Injuries	16,1 %	7,1 %
Attempt on life	7,0 %	0,9 %
Felony penalty of a spouse	1,4 %	0,9 %
Acquittal of the wife to a complaint of her husband for adultery	1,4 %	0,0 %
Elephantiasis	0,0 %	2,7 %
Annulment of a marriage because it was celebrated under psychological or corporal violence exercised on the wife.	0,0 %	0,9 %
Total	100 %	100 %

Graph 6. Place of residence and reason for asking for divorce for both genders



The Role of Iceland in the International System as a Small State and the Issue of European Union Membership

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Abstract

This study discusses the role of Iceland -which declared its independence from Denmark in 1944- in the international system and the causes that led the country to withdraw its European Union candidacy in 2015. This country, considered as one of the Scandinavian countries, has in fact its own unique structure. This unique structure has its roots in Iceland's history, its determination about protecting the elements of national identity, geographical-climatic characteristics and economic factors such as the fishing industry. Iceland, which is the only NATO member without an army, has been through Cod Fish crisis' with England, and the Ice-Save crisis with England and the Netherlands. The country, which had an important economic crisis in 2008, has shown a more positive attitude about EU as the government has also changed, however with the end of the crisis and another change of government, it has once again opted for a self-sufficient strategy. The country, which became member of the European Economic Area (EEA) in 1994 and of European Free Trade Area (EFTA) in 1970, aims to conduct political and economic relations through territorialisation or bilateral relations instead of participating to a big integration model or developing multilateral relations. Iceland's primary foreign policy objectives throughout the new century seem to secure full control over its territory (land and waters), improve market access for its fisheries products and guarantee its defense. Although the governments varied from time to time, all political parties subscribed to the same goals though they differ on how to achieve them. Arctic issue seems to gain importance also for this country in 2010s.

Keywords: Iceland, European Union, Small power, Small state, Arctic

Introduction

The late independence of Iceland, which remained under Danish sovereignty until 1944, has affected negatively the participation of the country to international organizations, especially concerning the European Union or its integration to Europe because Iceland has aimed, first of all, to become a strong, self-sufficient country in the matter of national sovereignty. Iceland has joined the European Free Trade Association in 1970 and has joined the European Economic Area in 1994. The coming into force of the Schengen Agreement in 2001 has developed the relations of Iceland with the member states of the EU. Furthermore, the economic crisis of 2008 has changed the structure of national politics and has led to a considerable back down on the cautious politics against the union. The country, with the influence of the economic crisis, has officially applied for membership in 2009. For Iceland, which is at least as sensitive as Norway, especially about fishing policies, this step has been taken as a result of the international conjuncture. The country, while desiring to be a part of the integration, has never been really enthusiastic about membership. The economic crisis in Europe in 2009 and the austerity measures that came with, have greatly affected Iceland and the confidence on EU membership has been shaken. Iceland, which put on hold the membership negotiations after the general elections of 2013, has officially withdrawn the EU membership application in March 2015. One of the main reasons of this decision is the various political parties that came to power in the country. The landscape of EU membership has changed after the Independence Party and the Progressive Party from the right wing have built a coalition and have come to power in the 2013 general elections.

Access to new transport routes in the north and the discovery of previously unknown natural resources and oil and gas reserves due to the melting of the glaciers in the Arctic; caused by the global warming, has increased Iceland's geostrategic importance once again. Furthermore, the country is an important trade partner for Europe in the economic area as well. In

this study, which will focus especially on the issue of Iceland's EU membership, at the same time, the country's foreign policy priorities, crisis' and its role in the international system will also be addressed. Thus, the importance of Iceland in the system as a small state, which is generally known for its hot springs and fishing policies, will be analyzed.

Iceland at a Glance

Iceland, a small island country of approximately 103.000 km², located in the north of the Atlantic Ocean, seems at first glance, to be very different from the other European countries due to its geographic situation and climate, and also seems to stay apart from them on identity and cultural matters. This observation is in fact not completely incorrect. The country, whose closest neighbor is Greenland, has close historical ties with Norway and Denmark. However, it has many differences even with these two Scandinavian countries. Iceland, generally speaking, is a one of its kind, "unique" state.

The island discovered in 9th century by Norwegians, has first been settled by Vikings coming from the same country. Althingi, which is also the actual name of the parliament, has been founded during the Viking era and has been the oldest and highest institution in the country up to the present day. The parliament founded in 10th century, though it was different from the political institutions of present day, is an important demonstration of Iceland's efforts for being a democratic country, even in that era. The island lost its independence in 13th century and remained under the domination of Norway, its neighbor located 1050km away. When Norway formed the Kalmar Union with Denmark, it has come under Danish reign. The Kalmar Union also covered Sweden, the Faroe Islands, the Orkney Islands and the Shetland Islands and continued to exist until the first quarter of 16th century.¹

The dependence on the Kingdom of Denmark has continued after the 1st World War; the country has declared its independence only in 1944. The declaration of independence has been accepted without a violent reaction by Denmark, which was under Nazi occupation. Iceland, which has not been through great and bloody wars in its past has also managed to protect itself from armed conflicts during the 2nd World War. "There is a tendency to ignore the international environment which triggered various steps which led to full independence. The independence struggle is seen by many Icelanders as having been won by national unity built on Icelandic culture and uniqueness ably led by distinguished national heroes."² Although the independence process has heroes like Jon Arason, Jon Sigurosson, Iceland is not a country where the "big leader" concept is in the showcase. For example, Iceland's history does not have a hero, warrior or savior such as Gengis Khan who is a legend in Mongolia and also in the world.

The late independence is in fact directly related to the withdrawal of the European Union candidacy of Iceland, which is the subject of the present study. There are obviously multiple reasons for the withdrawal of the candidacy and they will be discussed in the study, however the first and foremost reason is the late independence of Iceland. Dependence on a foreign entity or participating to a great integration model has always been considered as plan B by this country where the national identity and sovereignty notions are very strong. The country has usually tried to build its foreign policy on bilateral relations and has not made any compromise in subjects that bear vital importance for itself, like the fishing industry. As it will be discussed later, even economic crisis' or changing governments have not affected said policies. This attitude can be subject to criticism in an international system where cooperation gains more and more importance, however the behavior of a small island state that chose to determine its own destiny, to be self-sufficient, can also be seen as a successful strategy. Iceland occupied a geopolitically strategic position during the Cold War. Iceland has a special security experience and it is related to the important location of Iceland in the middle of the GIUK-gap (Greenland, Iceland, UK) in the Cold War.³ The country which, during the Cold War had an important place especially for NATO, has lost its significance in 1990's. However the melting of the glaciers in the Arctic caused by the global warming and the discovery of previously unknown natural resources, oil and gas reserves, access to new transport routes show that the country can become geopolitically significant once again.⁴ "The scramble for the Arctic has revived the Northern dimension – Icelandic Arctic discourses now play on the

¹ Baldur Thorhallsson, "Iceland's contested European Policy: The Footprint of the Past – A Small and Insular Society", *Jean Monnet Occasional Papers*, No.1, Malta, Institute for European Studies, 2013, p.5.

² *ibid.*

³ Baldur Thorhallsson, "The Distinctive Domestic Characteristics of Iceland and the Rejection of Membership of the European Union", *European Integration*, Vol.23, 2001, p.276.

⁴ Selin Güler, Azra Ayata, "İzlanda'nın Avrupa Birliği'ne Üyelik Sorunsalı", 31 July 2014, p.1.

<http://www.bilgesam.org/incele/1727-izlanda%E2%80%99nin-avrupa-birligi%E2%80%99ne-uyelik-sorunsali/>

prospects of a renewed strategic relevance in a future Great Game, wrought by the impact of climate change in the region.”¹

A Special Case of Small State

Small states, which mean states that have a small land area, can seem in the first glance to be in disadvantage and weaker compared to great powers. While the extension of the state borders brings endless advantages to countries in terms of power, it can also cause never-ending problems. Small states may have strategic importance especially on a regional scale, even though they cover a small area. A small state can also be a much stronger decision maker compared to other countries possessing larger lands.

In the international relations discipline, the definition of small state and which countries can be considered as small states is open to discussion. Notions like small state, small power became an important study subject among theoreticians especially after 1990's and many different views have been formulated. Europe, where Iceland is located, is rich in countries that can be considered small states. From Benelux to Baltic countries, including Balkans and Switzerland, many European States are accepted as small states. Iceland is one of the small states in Europe as well. To further deepen the subject within the discipline, Iceland can even be considered as a small island state.

One of the most important theoreticians about small states is Peter Katzenstein. Katzenstein had greatly contributed to the literature about small states theories with his book named "Small States in the World Markets"² written in 1985. His work still serves as reference to numerous studies. Katzenstein has taken as basis 7 countries while naming the main characteristics of small states; Sweden, Norway, Denmark, the Netherlands, Belgium, Austria and Switzerland. As his work has been adapted to various countries by theoreticians, it has also been applied to Iceland. "The question is: how well does the theoretical framework of SSWM travel? Does it still apply a quarter of a century after its inception? In his own revisit of SSWM in 2003, Katzenstein recognized that while he had carefully delimited his investigation to seven early industrializers of the Western core nations (Sweden, Norway, Denmark, the Netherlands, Belgium, Austria, Switzerland), his conclusions could be potentially fruitfully applied and tested in other contexts: "analysis could have pushed further by investigating, in addition, the strategies of other small states situated differently in the world economy"³

According to Katzenstein, Iceland, which can be considered as one of the Scandinavian five, is in fact different from the other countries of the region due to many of its characteristics. Iceland is accepted as a special case in its relations with the EU. In Katzenstein's *Small States in World Markets*, "it maintained that the choices of seven small European states are conditioned by two sets of interlinked forces, that is historically shaped domestic structures and the constraints of the international economy. This is also evident in the case of Iceland – our test case. Past decisions and reliance on international trade still have a profound influence on present political and economic choices."⁴ However, according to Katzenstein, Iceland which has close ties especially with Norway and Denmark among Scandinavian countries, differs from these in 3 ways: Economic openness, corporatist structure and political party systems. In addition to these factors affecting the integration process with EU, Iceland's special security experience, special characteristics of the Iceland administration should also be discussed in relation with the membership problematic.⁵ Before discussing these points, it is also necessary to see how much of a "small state" Iceland considers itself.

In the actual Iceland's political life, the political discourse has not been characterized by a notion of the "little Iceland" contrary of the Danish discourse of the "lille Danmark" (little Denmark). Rather, policy leaders have picked up or dropped the language of smallness according to context. By the late 20th century, it seems that Iceland preferred to define itself as a small vulnerable community. The reason behind this was the political view of that period, according to which in case

(accessed August 2016)

¹ Valur Ingimundarson, "Iceland's Post-American Security Policy, Russian Geopolitics and the Arctic Question", *the RUSI Journal*, Vol. 154, No.4, 2009, p.1.

² Peter J. Katzenstein, *Small States in World Markets – Industrial Policy in Europe*, Cornell University Press, 1985.

³ Vytautas Kuokštis, "Baltic States in World Markets: Does Katzenstein's Framework still hold?", *Journal of Baltic Studies*, Vol.46, No.2, June 2015, pp.109-110.

⁴ Baldur Thorhallsson, "The Corporatist Model and its value in understanding small European States in the neo-liberal world of the twenty-first century: the case of Iceland", *European Consortium for Political Research*, No.9, 2010, p.375.

⁵ Baldur Thorhallsson, "The Distinctive Domestic...", *op.cit*, p.257.

Iceland joined the UN Security Council or the EU, it would not have much of a say in this supranational structure. The opinion that it would not have much political influence in the supranational structures as a small state, has created a negative view in the public opinion and caused that in that period in Iceland, being a “small” state became an “unfamiliar” and even “unwelcome” notion. In other words, Icelanders, because of these arguments formulated in politics, have felt themselves stuck in the portrait of an ineffective country on what concerns the system. However, in 2000’s, despite the economic crisis of 2008, this view has changed once again, and Iceland has underlined in politics that, despite being a small state it is a powerful state in many areas. This has been realized in accordance with Iceland’s nature and needs.¹ The fact that it withdrew its candidacy in 2015 from a supranational structure like the EU shows indeed that Iceland considers itself important and powerful from the international system point of view, despite being a small state.

In order to understand Iceland’s relations with Europe and why at the end it withdrew its candidacy, it is necessary to examine the various factors important to country’s domestic and foreign policies. These factors will be examined under the headlines of country’s foreign policy and defense priorities, economic drawbacks and political system, in the same order.

General Foreign Policy and Defence Priorities

Iceland’s foreign policy and defense strategies can be classified under four main groups which are; NATO membership and defense agreement with the USA, joining the European Free Trade Area (EFTA), joining European Economic Area (EEA) and the “wait and see”² approach concerning the EU. The relations with the USA can be defined as the Atlantic pillar and reflect this country’s main security-defense plan. “The functional solution that Iceland has found for its defense is a direct defense agreement with the USA, signed in 1951, combined with Iceland’s membership of the North Atlantic Treaty Organization. The US forces stationed at the Keflavik base in south-western Iceland, which form the Iceland Defense Force, are seen as guaranteeing the necessary deterrent and (initial) response capacities for Iceland’s protection in a crisis, while in peacetime they provide air defense cover. Iceland has, of course, its own police force, coastguard and emergency rescue services, but it depends a good deal in practice on the US assets at Keflavik even for the function of air–sea rescue. While all the Nordic states have some degree of acknowledged or existential dependence on US military power, Iceland thus represents an extreme case of an ‘Atlantic’ choice in terms of defense identity and an exceptionally clear rejection of the ‘European’ choice in terms of joining the integration process.”³ The relations with the USA are in fact established on the basis of defense and security and until USA closed the military base in Keflavik in 2006, the security mechanisms that EU membership would bring were not needed. NATO membership and the agreement signed with the USA in 1951 were considered to be sufficient as defense strategy for the only European country without its own army. It’s clear that the special relationship between Iceland and USA influences the process of integration to the EU. As long as Iceland has this relationship with the USA, it need not look to European Integration to strengthen its security.⁴ However after 2006, “...Atlantic pillar has however become less important than before, giving more weight to the European cooperation in foreign and security policy matters”⁵

Iceland’s quest to position itself within Europe “came first on the agenda by the end of 1957 when leaders in Western Europe were preparing to create a joint forum for the six states in the European Economic Community (EEC) and the other members of the Organization for European Economic Co-operation (OEEC), of which Iceland was a member. After talks broke down in 1959 the UK government lead a group of seven states establishing the European Free Trade Association (EFTA) in 1960 – as an intergovernmental counterweight to the supra national characteristics of the EEC. Iceland’s main interests in foreign trade were to insure access for its fish products into European markets – of which the UK was vital. As EFTA was mainly formed around free trade with industrial goods Iceland did not join the association in the beginning. After

¹ Alyson JK Bailes, Baldur Thorhallsson, “Small States: A Theme in Iceland Political Science and Politics”, *Nordiques*, No.27, 2014, pp.123-124.

² Kristinsson argues that the cautious approach to European union is “wait and see attitude”
G.H. Kristinsson, “Iceland and the European Union: Non-decision on Membership”, in Miles (ed), *The European and the Nordic Countries*, London, Harvester Wheatsheaf, 1996, p.150.

³ Alyson JK Bailes, Baldur Thorhallsson, “Iceland and the European Security and Defence Policy”, in Alyson Bailes, Gunilla Herolf og Bengt Sundelius (ed.) *The Nordic Countries and the European Security and Defence Policy*, SIPRE – Oxford University Press, 2006, p.328-329.

⁴ Baldur Thorhallsson, “The Distinctive Domestic...”, *op.cit.*, p.262.

⁵ Eirikur Bergmann, *Iceland and the EEA 1994-2011 Rapport*, Europautredningen, 2011, p.8.

the UK applied for membership in the EEC in 1961 the newly formed progressive coalition (SDP and IP) seriously contemplated applying for membership in EEC rather than joining EFTA). The Icelandic government only abandoned the plan of seeking membership in the EEC after the French leader Charles de Gaulle had vetoed the UK's application. Consequently, Iceland applied for membership in EFTA in 1968 and joined in 1970 – accompanying rapid industrialization in the Icelandic economy.”¹ After the industrialization and the EFTA membership that granted easy access to the fish market, a fishing industry crisis with England, named “Cod Wars” took place. This subject will be treated in the economic drawbacks section.

In the beginning of the 1990's EFTA countries and the members of the European Economic Community accelerated the efforts to build the European Economic Area. The advantages and disadvantages of this subject have been widely discussed in the Icelandic parliament. All interest groups composed of the public opinion, syndicates and workers' groups took an active role in government's EEA membership. As a result, Iceland has joined the EEA in 1994. Iceland's EEA membership meant the harmonization of 80% of its national legislation with the EU legislation and it brought along the application of the free circulation of persons, capital, services and goods under the four freedoms headline, within the limits established by the Icelandic Foreign Affairs Ministry. Despite the fact that in 1994 Social Democrats (Alþýðuflokkurinn) had a positive attitude about the EU membership in their electoral campaign, in 1996 the coalition including the Independence Party (Sjálfstæðisflokkurinn) has openly been against EU membership. Nevertheless, Iceland has signed the Schengen Treaties in 1996, due to which border controls with European countries have been terminated. This subject has been a great cause of debate in 2000-2001 in the parliament.²

“Entering into the EEA has resulted in active Europeanization of the Icelandic society and weaving Iceland ever more closely into the European internal market. The EEA agreement has clearly and greatly influenced the development of the Icelandic society. Its impact is not only measured through the legal acts Iceland has had to adopt but also through increased and more informal trans-border cooperation which has followed. The EEA opened up the closed off Icelandic society and provided for a mere transformation in the economy which became much more diversified and increasingly internationalized.”³

The final foreign policy axis to be discussed following Iceland's NATO, EFTA and EEA memberships, is the EU membership process. The process gained momentum with Iceland's full membership application in 2009. The 2008 crisis, which will be discussed in detail in the following section, is a key point for Iceland's application for full membership of EU. A crisis on a scale that was never seen before in Iceland, the collapse of the entire financial sector in one night, had an important role in changing the negative attitude about the EU membership. Additionally, the fact that the coalition, in which the Independence Party suspicious about EU membership, was the biggest partner, lost the elections in April 2009 and that it has been replaced by the coalition government constituted Social Democrats and Left-Green Movement (Social Democratic Alliance - Samfylkingin-Jafnaðarmannaflokkur Íslands) had an important impact on EU membership process. Other political parties that had strong prerequisites about the fishing and farming industries have also supported the EU membership because of the influence of the crisis.⁴ The behavior of these parties will be examined in detail in the final section.

In 2010, the European Commission has expressed a positive opinion about Iceland's EU membership, and the same year, the Council of Ministers has decided to start the membership negotiations. Iceland having a great performance in the negotiations, has successfully concluded 11 of the 27 chapters. The 6 chapters that caused great conflict between Iceland and the EU namely fishing, agriculture and rural development, food safety, veterinary and plant health, settling right and freedom of service, free movement of capital have never been opened to negotiation. Iceland, which in fact advanced very quickly in the process has suspended the relations with the EU in 2013 and temporarily closed the 16 chapters. In Iceland, which froze the EU membership negotiations in 21 May 2013 in accordance with the decision of the coalition government, the anti-EU attitude has been visible in the parliamentary elections as well. The votes of the Social Democratic Alliance fell under 25%, Independence Party and Progressive Party (Framsóknarflokkurinn) which both wanted to conduct the bilateral

¹ *ibid*, p.8.

² Altuğ Günar, “Avrupa Birliği-İzlanda İlişkileri”, in Ercüment Tezcan, et.all (eds), *Avrupa Birliği'nin Doğu Avrupa ve Balkanlar Genişlemesi*, Bursa, Sentez yayınları, 2015, pp.695-706.

³ Eirikur Bergmann, *op.cit*, p.10.

⁴ Selin Güler, Azra Ayata, *op.cit*, p.2.

relations within the scope of the EFTA agreement and which were distant to EU earned the majority of the votes.¹ This new anti EU attitude seen in the public opinion and in the parliament can mainly be explained by the fact that by 2011 Iceland has overcome the 2008 crisis. The country that became relatively confident in the economic area has focused on founding its policy on bilateral or regional relations again and has taken its distances from the idea of being member of a supranational structure. The negotiations that were suspended in 2013 gave way to the full withdrawal of the candidacy in March 2015. “Iceland’s interests are better served outside the European Union,” the minister wrote on his website. Iceland has said it wants to maintain “close ties and cooperation” with the EU, and indeed already benefits from such links.”²

Economic Issues

Katzstein’s studies about Small States says that these countries are specialized in their exports. Furthermore, in common with the other small states, due to the small scale of its economy, Iceland is heavily dependent on the import of other goods. Membership of the EEA also contributes to the openness of the economy. Exports in Iceland are concentrated on two big markets European Union and USA. Political parties have been very reluctant to open up the economy because major interest groups have campaigned against it, especially the fisheries and the farmers were the pressure groups.³

It has already been said that Iceland believes its relations with EFTA and EEA to be sufficient, and therefore does not need a supranational structure like the EU. The country, no matter who is in the government, is known for applying very strong policies and not having compromises especially on what concerns the fishing and agriculture industries. Such that, fishing has become a national identity element for Iceland and together with Norway it became one of the two most discussed countries in the system concerning this subject.

Iceland did not only have a hard time in the EU negotiations concerning the fishing, but has gone through crisis’ with the United Kingdom as well. 3 different crisis named “Cod Wars” took place between 1961-1975 between these two countries. These 3 crisis’ which were based on economic disagreements have been seen as an independence war in Iceland.⁴ “Iceland managed to extend its fisheries zone on a number of occasions, eventually to 200 miles, despite heavy protests from powerful neighbors. This is particularly interesting because of its more limited capabilities compared to Britain, its main opponent. These ‘victories’ no doubt reinforced Icelandic politicians’ view that Iceland could be successful on its own without having to negotiate and make compromises within multilateral international forums. This is not to say that the international environment did not contribute to Iceland’s success. On the contrary, the development of the law of the sea was in Iceland’s favor and the country’s strategic military position played a key role in British decisions to give in on the fishing-zone issue following pressure from the US and other NATO allies”.⁵ The main reason England accepted the sea mile limits dictated by Iceland at the end of these crisis, is that it realized the prolongation of the crisis could damage USA’s military interests in the island. As a result of the crisis, Iceland has been able to fish in a larger area due to its strategic location during the Cold War, and the level of prosperity in the country has risen.⁶ Iceland’s success in the Cod Wars is still considered as legendary in the country. The fact that a small country obtained such a victory against “big states” concerning an industry that was made into a national identity symbol, is one of the greatest sources of pride of the country in foreign policy and shows once again the importance of said industry. “From the Icelandic perspective, the Cod Wars were also about nationalism, Western integration, historical memory and domestic party politics.”⁷

The fishing subject has caused many problems in the relations with the EU as well. The industry has been essential since the foundation of Iceland; the surrounding waters which are fed by the gulf waters coming from south create a suitable environment for fish to feed and breed. This industry is important for marine research as well. The fishing industry constitutes the 6% of Iceland’s GNP, the country realizes the 5% of the total global fish export. European Union’s Common

¹ Altuğ Günar, *op.cit.*, p.697.

² <https://www.theguardian.com/world/2015/mar/12/iceland-drops-european-union-membership-bid> (accessed August 2016)

³ Baldur Thorhallsson, “The Distinctive Domestic...”, *op.cit.*, p.264.

⁴ Selin Güler, Azra Ayata, *op.cit.*, p.2.

⁵ Baldur Thorhallsson, “Iceland’s contested..”, *op.cit.*, p.9.

⁶ Selin Güler, Azra Ayata, *op.cit.*, p.2.

⁷ Valur Ingimundarson, “Fighting the Cod Wars in the Cold War: Iceland’s challenge to the Western Alliance in the 1970s”, *the RUSI journal*, June 2003, p.90.

Fishery Policy was not in accordance with Iceland's requirements. Also because of the Relative Stability, according to Iceland, the quantity fished in the past should remain the same; the special and traditional structure should continue to exist. Additionally, the country had discords with the EU during the candidacy process, about the quota-hopping, i.e. determining the fishing quotas. A crisis has also taken place between EU and Iceland in 2010, concerning the situation of mackerel fish.¹ Finally, Iceland continues whaling for commercial and scientific reasons and this situation is subject to great protests of environmentalists.²

Like fishing, agriculture is also a controversial negotiation chapter for the Icelandic political elites. During the negotiations, Iceland has claimed that Icelandic farmers should benefit from some exemptions like their Finnish counterparts do, because the country is located way up in the north and farmers are exposed to difficult environmental conditions. Iceland's claims have made the progress under the Agriculture negotiation chapter difficult. If Iceland had become EU member, it would have benefited from the possibilities provided by the Common Agricultural Policy and the rural areas in need would have developed. The farmers could even have directly benefited from the incentives and EU structural funds could have been provided to the rural areas in need. However, from this point of view, the withdrawal of the candidacy has been detrimental to Iceland.

In order to establish a direct relation between Iceland's economy and the European Union candidacy process, it is necessary to discuss the 2008 financial crisis. As a result of this crisis during which the country lived a great economic depression, the EU candidacy process has sped up. The neo-liberal policies introduced by the government since mid 80's, the fast privatization of public properties and the participation of the country to EEA pushed the Icelandic financial sector into a fast growth trend. Because of the fast and uncontrolled growth of the financial sector, the global economic crisis starting in 2008 has caused bigger damages in Iceland compared to other countries. The devaluation of the Icelandic krona has greatly increased the debt of individuals and of private business' which were engaged in loans in foreign currency. Inflation and unemployment have reached unseen levels and the financial sector has collapsed in one night.³ "During this crisis the three largest banks (Glitnir, Kaupthing, and Landsbanki) all collapsed and many other smaller banks and companies went bankrupt in the aftermath of the crisis with severe consequences for the economy and the people. Prior to the crisis, Iceland, a high income OECD economy, had experienced strong growth rates and unprecedented expansion in overseas investment and activities, especially in the financial sector. (...) The collapse of the Icelandic banks in October 2008 was a shock to the Icelandic nation as well as internationally. In fact, it can be said that this was the first time that financial events in a tiny country like Iceland sent shockwaves through the international financial markets."⁴ The never-seen-before financial crisis in Iceland has caused a change in the political decision makers' negative attitude towards EU membership.

Finally, the crisis that needs to be treated under the economy headline is the "Ice-Save Crisis". Iceland has gone through this crisis together with England and Holland in parallel with the 2008 economic crisis. Landsbanki's declaration of bankruptcy due to the economic crisis has prevented the Dutch and English citizens who had accounts in the bank, from having access to their accounts. The payment of the damages caused by this situation has been requested, while the Icelandic parliament voted in favor of the compensation law, the people of Iceland have rejected it in a referendum. The case has been brought to EFTA Court and the Court has reached a decision in favor of Iceland in January 2013. The tension with two countries in addition to the economic crisis has created a negative attitude towards EU in the public opinion. "Ice-save" killed the attraction of the EU accession for a big part of Icelanders as ordinary citizens lost their faith in the European legal order"⁵

¹ Altuğ Günar, *op.cit.*, pp.708-710.

² Selin Güler, Azra Ayata, *op.cit.*, p.2.

³ Baldur Thorhallsson, Rainer Kattel, "Neo-Liberal Small States and Economic Crisis: Lessons for Democratic Corporatism", *Journal of Baltic Studies*, Vol.44, No.1, p.12.

⁴ Hilmar Þór Hilmarsson, "Small States and big banks – the case of Iceland", *Baltic Journal of Economics*, Vol.13, No.1, 2013, pp.31-36.

⁵ Elvira Méndez-Pinedo, "Iceland and the EU: Bitter Lessons after the Bank Collapse and the Ice-Save Dispute", *Contemporary Legal and Economic Issues*, Vol.3, 2011, p.1.

The Policy-Making Process and the Party System in Iceland

In order to understand Iceland's role in the international system and the EU process, it is important to briefly discuss the country's specific political system structure and the views of the political parties.

Icelandic governments historically have built their closest relations with the Scandinavian countries. The historic and cultural ties with Denmark and Norway are quite numerous and in fact the country considers the Scandinavian region as a role model. However, the most important difference between said region and Iceland is the corporatist structure in policy-making in Scandinavian countries, compared to the structure based on cooperation in Iceland. Katzeinstein argues that the corporatism of small states is one the most fundamental characteristics of these states comparing to the larger states. Katzeinstein's small state application is not valid for the Iceland case. The fact that the economy of Iceland is concentrated in one sector (fishery) has not made easier for opponents to reach a compromise and consensus. Inside, there is a conflict-oriented relationship between employers and employees' organizations and the government in Iceland. And the labor market organizations have not been willing to form alliances with each other in order to solve particular problems, thus their relationship is characterized by conflict. The intervention of the state and the political parties in cooperation process between employers and employees are more limited in Iceland than in the other Nordic countries. Conflicts between political parties have added to the lack of consensus in the labor market in Iceland but the EEA agreement has increased cooperation and consultation between different groups. This non-corporatist structure of Iceland did not possess the framework where the issue of EU membership can be discussed.¹

Historically, all political parties have opposed in general to the membership of the EU with the exception of the Social Democratic Party in the period 1994-1999 and the Social Democratic Alliance from 2002. In 2009, the traditionally internationalist and increasingly pro- European Social Democrat party had found themselves in a strong position after their election victory the same year, which for the first time opened the prospect of a majority in parliament for opening EU talks. Indeed, the SDA went so far as to make an EU application a precondition for maintaining its coalition government with the conservative Independence Party after the banking crisis of late 2008, and then for creating a new majority government with the Left Green Movement after the spring elections.²

"The economic crash, which started with the fall of the Icelandic krona in March 2008, clearly stimulated the ongoing EU debate and led to a swift change of attitude towards the vulnerability of the economy and its small currency. The SDA's economic plan for recovery was based on EU membership, emphasizing the benefits for consumers and enterprises of lower prices of goods, the adoption of the Euro within the EU as a bulwark for Iceland's shattered finance system, and opportunities for aid for rural areas, agriculture and the tourist industry from the EU's Structural Funds. The Social Democrats may have captured the opportunity to apply for membership, based on their interpretation of Iceland's economic interests, but despite the shock of the economic crash, other parties have not followed them in their pro-European approach. The Left Green Movement remains steadfast in its opposition to EU membership. It reluctantly became prepared to go along with an EU application in 2009 in order to form a government and have an open, democratic EU debate in the country at large. (...) From mid-2010, two procedural issues have dominated the EU debate. First, Parliamentarians from all parties, except the SDA, have now submitted several motions calling for a referendum on whether the EU negotiations should even be continued, or more simply, for the immediate withdrawal of Iceland's application. So far no action has been taken on these proposals in parliament, showing that the majority there and the government still stand by the continuation of negotiations. The second issue has arisen over the alleged EU pressure on Iceland to 'adapt' its laws and practices to EU norms even before the treaty of accession has been concluded or ratified. The government has had to recognize Left Green concerns on this by promising there will be as little 'adaptation' as possible until a final decision on membership has been taken by a popular vote."³ After the crisis has been overcome in 2011, the process ended with the suspension in 2013 and complete withdrawal of the candidacy in 2015. Historically, Icelandic political elites have adopted the idea of belonging to a supranational structure like EU for a short period. However, it is important to underline that even though the people of Iceland have been more pro-EU than the political elites, most of the time they had doubts also about EU membership.

¹ Baldur Thorhallsson, "The Distinctive Domestic...", *op.cit.*, pp. 267-269.

² Graham Avery, Alyson JK Bailes, Baldur Thorhallsson, "Iceland's Application for European Union Membership", *Studia Diplomatica*, 2011, pp.95-96.

³ *ibid.*

Finally, the fact that in case of EU membership Iceland would be under represented and that its election system gives more representation right to rural areas with low population density can give an idea about why EU membership negotiations have been suspended. Not being represented in EU institutions in the decision making stage despite being a member of EEA and the Schengen Zone and Iceland being bound by the decisions made by EU institutions concerning the common market and the Schengen Zone has strengthened the position of EU supporters. However, on the other hand in the public opinion it has created a negative attitude about the candidacy. In addition to this, according to the country's election system, the citizens from rural areas and having agricultural occupations are more representation right and the high representative ratio in these areas where fishing-agriculture topics are vital has triggered the suspicions about EU since many years. These populations have mostly voted for anti-EU parties.¹ "The electoral system is characterized by an unequal distribution of seats in favor of the rural areas and to the detriment of the capital, Reykjavik. (...) Parliamentarians from the rural areas are therefore less likely to challenge the status quo and support EU application."²

Conclusion

Even though Iceland, which is a part of the Scandinavian five, has been considered as a distant small island state because of its geographic situation, in various periods it had important roles on a regional basis in the international system. Despite the fact that the role of small states is considered to be invisible in the system, Iceland is one of the countries that prove they can be a strong actor in a regional scale. Iceland, which started the EU candidacy process in 2009, had a positive view about the candidacy because of the economic crisis and the changing governments. However, the "wait and see" policy resulted in the complete suspension of the process in 2015. The study has aimed to focus on why the candidacy process has been stopped and on Iceland's role in the system and in the Scandinavian region as a small state.

Today, the interruption of the EU candidacy process is explained by international relations experts by various factors and the international behavior of Iceland can be explained also by an exceptional combination of domestic and international factors. Economic factors; especially disagreements with EU concerning the fishing and agriculture sectors, party policies and the representation issue, lack of corporatism, newly founded independence and together with this, developing national sovereignty and identity elements, special relationship with USA about the defense and security politics, are important variables concerning the end of the candidacy process. The most important of these is without doubt the suspicious approach to the membership of supranational structures in the light of the developing identity topic and national sovereignty caused by the late independence. In fact, being a part of supranational structures like EU always seems advantageous for small countries in theory, however the question has always been a dilemma for Iceland. Icelandic governments usually have a less willing attitude about multilateralism. Iceland believes bilateral relations are sufficient for having a place in the system and is not keen on having economic and political elements managed in a large scale by a supranational institution. The country, which is a member of EFTA, NATO and EEA, considers its ties with said institutions to be sufficient.

In fact, the country cleverly using the advantages generated by 1-2 sectors in which it is powerful, is the proof that small states can have a say in the system by the good use of national factors. Even if it also related on the international conjuncture, Iceland's success in Cod Wars or Ice-Save crisis shows that small states can also be in an advantageous position against larger states. As a matter of fact, today Iceland desires to take things further by establishing a regional structure including the United Kingdom that decided to leave the EU in accordance with the referendum results. "When Britain leaves the EU, we will see a triangle that covers a large part of the globe: Greenland, Iceland, the Faroe Islands, Norway - and now the United Kingdom," Iceland's President Olafur Ragnar Grimsson said in an [interview to Iceland Monitor](#). "It is about trade, diplomacy, commodities and several other fields," Grimsson said, stressing that the Arctic, or the far north, would become more important not only in a European, but in a global context as well."³ We can conclude from these words that the country has shut its doors to EU definitely and wishes to pursue new structures. However, it is important to remember that Iceland which had a favorable opinion about EU after the 2008 crisis, is not entirely safe from the possibility of a future crisis. In addition to this, the future of the defense-security relations with the USA is open to discussion. The country has started to gain geopolitical importance once again because of the melting glaciers in the Arctic region,

¹ Selin Güler, Azra Ayata, *op.cit*, p.4.

² Baldur Thorhallsson, "The Distinctive Domestic...", *op.cit*, p.270.

³ <https://www.rt.com/business/349008-iceland-uk-northern-union/> (accessed August 2016)

however only time will show if it will be able to use this situation in its advantage. Finally, what we cannot deny about Iceland, is that we are talking about a country which has its own personality.

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The Impact of Age on the Perception of Cognitive Abilities and Decision-Making Skills

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Abstract

Nowadays organizations are operating in a dynamic and turbulent environment. In these conditions, the situations are very complex and the problems are unstructured. So, to make good decisions the organizations are moving toward group decision-making. The advantages of such processes are numerous when compared to individual decision-making. The main goal of the current research focuses on the perception of cognitive and decision-making abilities, trying to understand if there is a relationship between them and age and how such perceptions may influence the attitudes toward group decision-making process. This study focuses on the banking institutions in Albania, as the most developed segment of the financial system and the entire Albanian economy and as a sector where group decision-making processes are widely used. It is generally thought that adults are less productive, less motivated, more adverse to innovation and less skilled in learning. With the age, the individual undergoes substantial changes regarding the information processing speed, memory, reasoning, concentration and executive functions. It has been shown that these changes move in the opposite direction with respect to age. Then what to do, avoid that adults make decisions? The relationship between age, cognitive and decision-making abilities is very complex. Cognitive limits orient adults to the adoption of compensatory decision-making strategies. In these circumstances, the question that arises is whether the group decision-making process can be an effective tool to balance these skills. On the basis of the responses offered by 247 participants and adopting the quantitative methodology, the current research tries to answer this question.

Keywords: age, cognitive abilities, decision-making skills, group decision-making

Introduction

The effect of age on the decision-making process is not unilateral¹, but it can also affect the quality of the decisions taken. The question that arises is whether really there are differences in the capabilities and quality of decisions related to age. According to different empirical evidences adults adopt different strategies for information elaboration, but the decision-making skills do not decrease. Other studies have concluded that adults tend to avoid the decision-making and search less information, but there isn't a decline in the decision-making skills as we age, although may occur the use of different cognitive processes.

It is considered important the understanding of age impact on the quality of both problem-solving and decision-making. Some studies on problem-solving are focused in highlighting how the individual perceives the problem, which depends mainly on how the individual perceives the causes and consequences. The required capabilities in order to define the problem and identify possible alternatives have also been studied. On the other hand, studies related to decision-making refer to the evaluation methods of the alternatives and the choice strategies. For both these macrophases the results are contradictory.

In the attempt to offer an explanation to the age-related differences regarding the decision-making process we must take into consideration the changes over time on the cognitive processes. Most of the empirical evidences suggest that cognitive capacities worsen with age. However, this can not be said with certainty since some evidences reported the contrary. Apparently, the relationship between age and cognitive abilities is very complex. Cognitive limits orient adults to adopt

¹ The age does not affect only the attitudes toward risk.

compensatory decision-making strategies. In these circumstances, another question that arises is whether the group decision-making process can be an effective tool to balance these skills.

Aim of the study and research questions

When talking about the decline of cognitive and decision-making abilities the age may be an important variable. But is there really a relationship between age and quality of decisions?

The main goal of the current research focuses on the perception of cognitive and decision-making abilities, trying to understand if there is a relationship between them and age and how such perceptions may influence the attitudes toward group decision-making process. This study focuses on the banking institutions in Albania, as the most developed segment of the financial system and the entire Albanian economy. A further motivation for concentrating in this sector is that within the banking institution group decision-making processes are widely used (Osmani, 2016).

To support the main purpose, the research questions are as follows:

1. Are there important differences in the perceptions of cognitive abilities between adults and young people?
2. Does the age affect the perceptions of the decision-making skills?
3. Is the preference for group decision-making process influenced by the age or by the cognitive and decision-making perceptions?

In consistency with the main goal and the research questions the hypotheses to be tested are formulated as below:

H₁: Adults believe more than young people that the deterioration of the cognitive abilities leads to bad decision-making skills;

H₂: Adults believe more than young people that as we age the cognitive abilities deteriorate;

H₃: Adults don't think that their information processing speed and memory are worse compared to young people;

H₄: As we age the decision-making skills improve;

H₅: Adults believe more than young people that group decision-making processes can compensate limited cognitive and decision-making skills;

H₆: Adults prefer group processes for making a decision more than young people.

Methodology

For the current research was adopted the quantitative methodology and the data collection was made through the questionnaire using the Likert scale 1-5. This tool was useful in gathering opinions, motivations and perceptions regarding the cognitive abilities and decision-making skills and thus understanding whether such variables affect group decision-making propensity.

The data processing is done through SPSS. To test the hypotheses of the research is used the correlation coefficient that is useful to find out if between two variables exist a relationship. So, first is calculated Pearson correlation coefficient for understanding if between the variables there is a linear relationship and then is calculated the correlation coefficient of Spearman to assess if the relationship is positive or negative. The confidence interval used is 95%, reporting however important relationships between the variables for confidence intervals 90% and 99%.

For the current research is chosen the non-probability sampling technique, mainly in the form of purposive sampling. So, the units of analysis are chosen for belonging to different age intervals, allowing a good exploration of the research questions. In some cases, in addition to the purposive sampling, it was also used the snowball technique.

A total of 350 questionnaires were distributed and 247 collected, with a response rate of 70.6%. The research is focused on the banking institutions and their branches in Tirana and Durres, as the two main cities of Albania. Following, Table 1 reports the distribution of participants for different age intervals.

Table 1: Participants distribution for age intervals

Age interval	Nr.	%
20-29	112	45.3%
30-39	87	35.2%
40-49	32	13%
50-60	16	6.5%
Total	247	100%

Age, cognitive abilities and decision-making skills: Theoretical approach

In the attempt to offer an explanation for age-related differences regarding the decision-making process we can refer to two approaches: the psycho-physiological approach and the cognitive approach (Sproten, Diener, Fiebach and Schwieren, 2010).

According to the psycho-physiological approach, over time the individual undergoes changes at the physiological, morphological, molecular and functional level. The changes that occur to the brain level are different. There are some regions of the brain involved in the decision-making and with the age in different individuals change different regions. In this regard, it might be of interest the dorsolateral prefrontal theory. MacPherson, Phillips and Della Sala (2002) argue that the decrease of the decision-making performance in adults is a result of the dysfunction of the dorsolateral part of the frontal lobe which increases over time. The changes that this part of the brain undergoes influence especially the executive functions and memory.

Referring to the second approach, with the age the cognitive, emotional and information elaboration processes worsen in variable ways from individual to individual. With the increasing complexity of the decision, because of the decline of cognitive abilities, adults are not able to make a good decision (Finucane, Mertz, Slovic and Schmidt, 2005). On the other hand, Mata, Schooler and Rieskamp (2007) argue that adults search less information, need more time and use simpler decision-making strategies than younger people, but there are no differences in the quality of decisions. The cognitive changes during the life cycle are complex: many cognitive abilities change during life, while others do not. Some of the cognitive changes are detrimental for the decision-making process, others have no impact and others can improve decision-making (Healey and Hasher, 2009, p.17).

One of the elements influenced by age is memory. In this regard it may be important to report the dynamics of information recovery from the memory and the influence it can have on the generation of alternatives and choice. Lechuga, Gómez-Ariza, Iglesias-Parro and Pelegrina (2012) found no differences between adults and young people about memory accessibility. It was also showed that although there are no differences, the adults are able to make better decisions. This could be explained by the fact that adults are more oriented to the use of decision-making strategies that require minor cognitive abilities. Some authors believe that there is a connection between memory and the ability to estimate the probabilities of the different alternatives, which could be a consequence of the fact that the decision-maker tends to automatically store the common information (Zacks and Hasher, 2002). Whereas adults during their lives have been in contact with more information than younger people, a decline in working memory might not be harmful to the decision-making process.

Some memory elements such as crystallized knowledge, the general level of information, the understanding of different semantics and the use of long-term memory, usually do not suffer a decline due to age and sometimes can also improve, but with the age may worsen the episodic memory (Healey and Hasher, 2009).

D'Zurilla, Maydeu-Olivares and Kant (1998) concluded that decision-makers of 40-55 years old have a more constructive and optimistic vision of the problems and their decision-making skills than other intervals of age. In addition, compared to young people, this age group showed a less negative and dysfunctional orientation about the problems, tends less to postpone and avoid this process, or to engage in a careless and impulsive attitude. The authors explain the result compared with the first group (17-20 years) as a consequence of a higher experience, while for the second group (60-80 years) they believe that the difference depends more on the diversity of the problems than on the decline of the capacities and basic skills.

It is also interesting the discussion on numerative capacities. Often, the decision-maker has to decide based on the interpretation of numerical information. He must have the ability to select, analyze and manipulate the information through calculations and comparisons. It seems that over time these abilities get worse (Mather, 2006). The decision-makers with less numerative capacities perceive the situations as more risky (Dieckmann, Slovic and Peters, 2009).

As time goes by, the working memory is reduced and for the adults become difficult keeping in mind different information and making comparisons (Mather, 2006). Consequently, the adults search less information to make a choice. Streufert, Pogash, Piasecki and Post (1990) found that tactical managers in the group of adults requested less additional information than the group of young tactical managers. However, the conclusions can not be generalized. So, Johnson (1997) didn't found differences even when to the adults was given an external memory support and so they have not to memorize all the information. Mather, Knight and McCaffrey (2005) believe that adults search less information in the context in which most of the information available is negative. They have concluded that for making a choice the adults rely more on the positive outcomes than in negative ones compared to young people.

In the attempt to explain the differences in the decision-making process between young people and adults, we must consider that in the various stages of life individuals may have different reasons to use their cognitive abilities (Erber, 2013). Thus, in the acquisition phase that relates to childhood and adolescence, the individual will engage in accumulating knowledge and skills that will be used later. During the phase of achievement that relates to youth, the individual will engage on finding how to use the acquired knowledge in order to achieve long-term goals that relate in particular to the career. Instead, in the execution phase which refers to middle age, the individual tries to take leadership roles, while in the re-integration phase, the individual becomes more selective about cognitive commitment. At this stage he is less motivated in acquiring new information in quantity and does not want to waste time on activities that are not considered important. It is not clear if the selection process is a result of biological or neurological changes that limit the cognitive functioning, or is a reaction to the fact that the responsibilities diminish and increases the awareness that the future is less distant (Erber, 2013, p.202).

When talking about the impact of age on the decision-making skills and quality of decisions it might be interesting to consider the link between age and wisdom. Defining wisdom is not easy. For most individuals, wisdom refers to the intelligence and ability to understand complex issues and relationships and increases following a broad spectrum of positive and negative experiences (Glück and Bluck, 2011). In this regard, one might conclude that adult people are wiser, which means that they are able to understand better the complex situations and thus make more effective decisions.

It is considered important the understanding of age impact on the quality of both problem-solving and decision-making. In some empirical evidences it has been found that individuals of 40 years old were able to identify more alternatives than other age groups (Denney and Palmer, 1981; Denney and Pearce, 1989). Artisticco, Cervone and Pezzuti (2003) found no differences between young and adult people, who showed a high level of performance for problems and situations they considered particularly important. Referring to decision-making, Thornton and Dumke (2005) concluded that with age the decision-making skills deteriorate and as a result the quality of the decisions decreases.

We can adopt two approaches to improve problem-solving (Marsiske and Margrett, 2006). The first approach refers to the formation and training processes, while the second considers important the cooperation and participation. According to Pezzuti, Artisticco, Tramutolo, Cervone and Black (2009) the training processes can increase the capacity of adults regarding the problem-solving. The authors through empirical studies have proved that the training processes less elaborate and more pragmatic are the best. Also, when to the participants were offered during the training procedures, more information so as to overcome the problem space, it was noted that they were able to identify more possible solutions. Moreover, the adults in the experimental group showed higher levels of self-efficacy that converged with the improved performance after training. To explain this we can refer to the theory of self-perception of the abilities (Cervone, Artisticco and Berry, 2006). When a particular decision is placed in a context that is relatively familiar to the decision-maker, is preferred personal knowledge that contributes to higher valuations of self-efficacy. In contrast, unfamiliar contexts may lead the decision-maker to think that does not have the necessary capacity to decide effectively. Thus, referring to this approach may increase the propensity for group decision-making processes, in order to preserve the quality of decisions.

With the age, the individual undergoes substantial changes regarding the processing speed, memory, reasoning, concentration and executive functions (Mienaltowski, 2011, p.75). It has been shown that these changes move in the

opposite direction with respect to age. But then the question that arises is what to do, avoid that adults make decisions? We must not forget that wisdom increases, and they have accumulated more experience, which helps them to make good decisions. However, we have to consider that as we age decreases the number of the identified alternatives, but increases the number of effective alternatives (Mienaltowski, 2011).

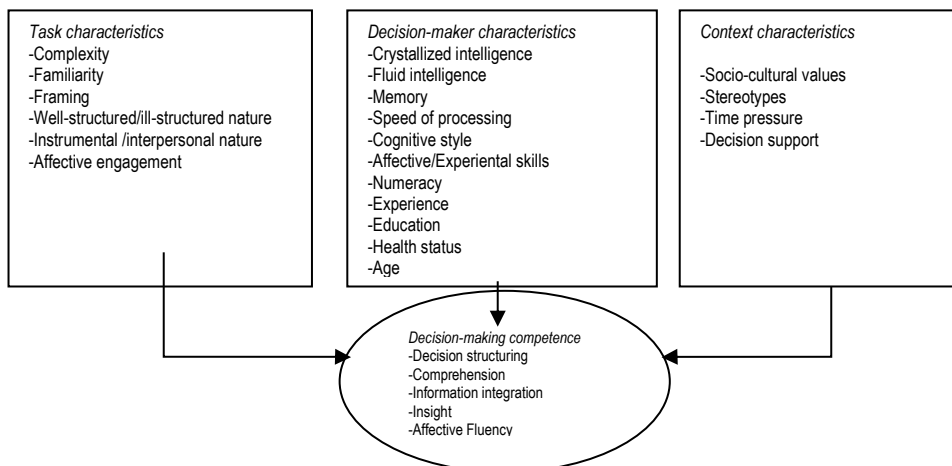
Is not easy the understanding of the relationship between age and problem-solving effectiveness, which depends on what we mean by effectiveness. If for effective problem-solving we mean to identify more possible solutions then young people do better, but if for effectiveness we refer to higher quality solutions then adults do better.

Cornelius and Caspi (1987) define the effectiveness of problem-solving based on the level in which the identified solutions converge with those given by a panel of experts. The authors asked participants between 20 and 78 years to consider 48 hypothetical problems defined incorrectly and belonging to different domains. In addition, it was asked to what extent they could use one of the four specific strategies in the attempt to solve the problem: the intentional action (taking individual action to remedy the problem), the cognitive analysis (designing the action and reflect on the situation for a better understanding), the dependent behavior (not doing anything to change the situation or rely on others), and avoid thinking and deny (distract attention from the problem, avoid responsibilities and deny the emotions). After that, the identified strategies by participants were compared to those of the experts. It was found a positive correlation between age and effective strategy. Contrary to young people, the adults had identified strategies that converged with those recommended by the experts.

Adults perform worse than young people in decisions that require a quick response and a variability of behaviors (Okun, 1976; Salthouse, 1985). For Reese and Rodeheaver (1985) this is typical for adults, and is called caution. In this respect, studies are contradictory. There are empirical evidences which show no relationship between age and caution (Baron and Le Breck, 1987; Baron and Surdy, 1990). According to Johnson (1990), young people are able to analyze more alternatives in the same interval of time than adults, making so more good decisions. It has been shown that the decisions of adults in the financial field are of lesser quality than the financial decisions of young people (Henninger, Madden and Huettel, 2010). On the other hand, Mather, Gorlick and Lighthall (2009) believe that adults perform better than young people and need less time to make a decision, but the opposite happens when they have to perform and decide under stress conditions. Of particular interest are the conclusions of Roalf, Mitchell, Harbaugh and Janowsky (2011). They concluded that as the decision-maker ages, he becomes less impulsive, more risk-averse and is looking for more sensations than younger people.

The decision-making skills are influenced by a multiplicity of factors as also shown in Figure 1. These variables refer to the degree of problem structuring, the understanding of relevant information, the integration of different information, to the understanding of the own capacities limits (Finucane and Lees, 2005). So, to evaluate the decision-making skills is necessary to consider the characteristics of the decision-maker, of the problem and of the context (Finucane, Mertz, Slovic and Schmidt, 2005; Finucane and Gullion, 2010).

Figure 1: Variables that influence decision-making skills



(Source: Finucane and Lees, 2005, p. 9)

The problem structuring can be considered crucial because by this time depends the effectiveness of the whole decision-making process. It's a step in the process which refers to the definition of the problem, the understanding of its causes, the possible solutions and the respective outcomes and also the assessment of probabilities for each alternative. The structuring of the problem depends on the individual characteristics of the decision-maker. Also the information understanding is important and requires a deep analysis of the documents, tables and charts. Afterwards are required the capabilities of information manipulation and integration. This step is important, because if the same information is integrated in different ways it can lead to different decisions. But why the problem structuring depends on the characteristics of the decision-maker? All the above activities are influenced by fluid intelligence, memory, and processing speed that undergo changes over time. The decline of memory and processing speed and a greater use of simple strategies make adults more inconsistent than young people regarding the decision-making process, through the different views of the information statistically equivalent (Finucane and Gullion, 2010, p.273).

From the above discussion, most of the empirical evidences conclude that cognitive and decision-making capacities worsen with age. However, this can not be said with certainty since some evidences reported the contrary. Apparently, the relationship age-cognitive abilities is very complex. Cognitive limits orient adults to adopt compensatory decision-making strategies. In these circumstances, the question that arises is whether the group decision-making process can be an effective tool to balance these skills.

Empirical evidences about the preference of adults for group decision-making processes are contradictory. There are cases where adults are not aware of the lower decision-making skills and prefer individual decision-making processes (Berg, Strough, Cauldron, Samson and Weir, 1998), as there are others where the age does not affect at all the preference for group decision-making (Berg, Johnson, Meegan and Strough, 2003). Previously, the studies of Denney and Palmer (1981) have confirmed that adults prefer group processes more than young people.

Results and discussion

The current research focuses on the perception of cognitive and decision-making abilities within the banking institutions taken into analysis, trying to understand if there is a relationship between them and age and how such perceptions may influence the attitudes toward group decision-making process. Following are reported the results obtained and the discussion on some aspects considered important.

The first hypothesis to be tested is:

H1: Adults believe more than young people that the deterioration of the cognitive abilities leads to bad decision-making skills

Table 2: The impact of cognitive abilities on decision-making skills

			Age	1. The deterioration of cognitive abilities leads to bad decision-making skills
Spearman's rho	Age	Correlation Coefficient	1.000	.029
		Sig. (2-tailed)	.	.645
		N	247	247
1.The deterioration of cognitive abilities leads to bad decision-making skills		Correlation Coefficient	.029	1.000
		Sig. (2-tailed)	.645	.
		N	247	247

As noted in the Table 2 there isn't a relationship statistically significant between age and the tendency to consider the deterioration of cognitive abilities as a cause for decision-making skills less good (Sig.=p=0.645>0.01). Spearman correlation coefficient is positive ($r_s=0.029$). So, the adults have such perception more than young people, but this can't be generalized for the entire population.

So, there are no differences between adults and young people in the perception of the fact that the deterioration of cognitive abilities leads to decision-making skills less good. It should be remembered that in the various stages of life, the individuals may have different reasons to use their cognitive abilities. Although, the cognitive abilities may worsen over time, the right choice of the decision-making strategy can make possible that such deficits do not affect decision-making skills.

The second hypothesis to be tested is:

H₂: Adults believe more than young people that as we age the cognitive abilities deteriorate

Table 3: The impact of age on cognitive abilities

			Age	2. As we age the cognitive skills deteriorate
Spearman's rho	Age	Correlation Coefficient	1.000	-.070
		Sig. (2-tailed)	.	.274
2. As we age the cognitive skills deteriorate		N	247	247
		Correlation Coefficient	-.070	1.000
		Sig. (2-tailed)	.274	.
		N	247	247

Referring to Table 3 above, we can conclude that there is not a relationship statistically important between age and its perception as a variable that influences negatively the cognitive abilities (Sig.=p=0.274>0.05). Spearman correlation coefficient indicates a negative relationship ($r_s=-0.070$), but is not statistically significant for the entire population.

It is usual thinking that over time some of the cognitive processes worsen. However, also in this case the empirical evidences do not offer definitive conclusions. Thus, it has been found that with the increase of the decision complexity, because of the decline of cognitive abilities the adults are not able to make good decisions (Finucane, Mertz, Slovic and Schmidt, 2005). The results obtained from the current research show that there are no differences statistically significant between adults and young people in their perceptions regarding the influence of age on the cognitive abilities.

Another hypothesis to be tested is formulated as follows:

H₃: Adults don't think that their information processing speed and memory are worse compared to young people

As in Table 4 below, between age and the perception of information processing speed and memory, there is a relationship statistically significant, even for $\alpha = 0.01$ (Sig.=p=0<0.01<0.05). Spearman correlation coefficient indicates a negative dependency ($r_s=-0.247$). So, adults do not believe that their memory and information processing speed are worse compared to those of young people.

Table 4: Age impact on processing speed and memory

			Age	3. The information processing speed and memory of young people are better
Spearman's rho	Age	Correlation Coefficient	1.000	-.247(**)
		Sig. (2-tailed)	.	.000
		N	247	247

3. The information processing speed and memory of young people are better	Correlation Coefficient	-0.247(**)	1.000
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.
	N	247	247

** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed)

The fourth hypothesis is formulated as follows:

H4: As we age the decision-making skills improve

Table 5: The impact of age on decision-making skills

		Age	4. Over time, decision-making capabilities improve
Spearman's rho	Age	1.000	.092
	Correlation Coefficient	.	.150
	Sig. (2-tailed)	247	247
4. Over time, decision-making capabilities improve	Correlation Coefficient	.092	1.000
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.150	.
	N	247	247

Referring to Table 5 above, we can conclude that there is not a relationship statistically important between age and its perception as a variable that influences positively the decision-making skills (Sig.=p=0.15>0.05). Spearman correlation coefficient indicate a positive relationship ($r_s=0.092$), but is not statistically significant for the entire population.

D'Zurilla, Maydeu-Olivares and Kant (1998) concluded that adults have a more constructive and optimistic view of the problems and their decision-making skills than younger people, as a consequence of more experience. Contrary to this, we didn't found a relationship between age and the fact that the decision-making skills improve over time. This maybe because the adults tend more to think that the decisions to be taken are new, so they do not overestimate their experiences. The conclusion of the current research is consistent with that of Artistico, Cervone and Pezzuti (2003). They didn't found differences between young people and adults, who showed a high level in performance when it came to problems and situations that they considered particularly important. Therefore, the use of decision-making skills does not depend on age, but on the degree of the importance of the decisions.

The fifth hypothesis is:

H5: Adults believe more than young people that group decision-making processes can compensate limited cognitive and decision-making skills

Table 6: The perception of group decision-making process

		Age	5. I believe that group decision-making processes are the best way to compensate limited cognitive and decision-making skills
Spearman's rho	Age	1.000	.102
	Correlation Coefficient	.	.110
	Sig. (2-tailed)		

5. I believe that group decision-making processes are the best way to compensate limited cognitive and decision-making skills	N	247	247
	Correlation Coefficient	.102	1.000
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.100	.
	N	247	247

Referring to Table 6 above we can conclude that there is a relationship statistically significant between age and the perception of the group as a useful tool for balancing possible cognitive and decision-making deficits (Sig.=p=0.1). Spearman correlation coefficient is positive ($r_s=0.102$). So, adults believe more than young people that group decision-making processes are the best way to compensate personal cognitive and decision-making limits.

The sixth hypothesis is:

H₆: Adults prefer group processes for making a decision more than young people

As can be noticed in the Table 7 below, the results indicate a relationship statistically important between age and the propensity for group decision-making (Sig.=p=0.002<0.01). Referring to Spearman correlation coefficient, this relationship is positive. The adults prefer group decision-making processes more than young people ($r_s=0.199$).

Table 7: Age and group decision-making propensity

			Age	6. Generally, I prefer to make a decision the group decision-making processes
Spearman's rho	Age	Correlation Coefficient	1.000	.199(**)
		Sig. (2-tailed)	.	.002
		N	247	247
6. Generally, I prefer group processes for making a decision		Correlation Coefficient	.199(**)	1.000
		Sig. (2-tailed)	.002	.
		N	247	247

** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed)

The experience helps the development of knowledge and automated processes that facilitate the decision-making (Finucane and Gullion, 2010). So, why adults do not prefer deciding alone, but are more propense to group decision-making processes? Perhaps because they believe organizations have to face more with new decisions and situations, never met in the past and so, the risk is higher.

Conclusions

The current research was focused on the impact of age in the perception of cognitive and decision-making skills and in understanding whether these perceptions influence the propensity for group decision-making. The self-confidence is an important variable for the decision- making performance.

So, there are no differences between adults and young people regarding the relationship between cognitive abilities and decision-making skills. They do not believe that the deterioration of cognitive abilities leads to bad decision-making skills. Also, there were not found differences referring to the negative impact of age on the cognitive abilities and and its perception as a variable that influences positively the decision-making skills. However, there is an important correlation between age and the perception of information processing speed and memory. The adults do not believe that their memory and information processing speed are worse compared to those of young people.

Furthermore, on the basis of the results obtained we can conclude that there is a significant relationship between age and the perception of the group as a useful tool for balancing possible cognitive and decision-making deficits. So, adults believe more than young people that group decision-making processes are the best way to compensate personal cognitive and decision-making limits.

Interesting is the fact that with the age increases the collaborative spirit and the adults feels better as member of a group. The current research found that age affects positively the group decision-making propensity. So, regardless the perceptions of cognitive and decision-making capacities, the adults have a higher propensity for group decision-making processes compared to young people.

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The Influence of Willing– Motivations Characteristics of Students on Their School Achievements

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Abstract

The research on relationship between school achievements and intelligence show that only 50 % success in school achievement can be explained by intelectual development, whereas other 50% variance has been determined by non intelectual factors (social and emotional development, degree of motivation for learning, specific characterics, personal traits, social and financial status, cultural and educational status of the family) etc. The main objective of the research is to establish whats the structure of need, motives which students want to satisfy education in high school, their position and importance, that are characteristic for this social environment in present time, so that they are understood better and directed, so as to contribute to school achievements. The research was carried out in Montenegro. The sample consisted of the students from grammar and vocational schools in Budva, Podgorica and Niksic. Regarding content and methodology, interdisciplinary approach was used. It has been established that there is influence some willing – motivations characteristics on success in high school. There is a statistically significant corellation componente “Realiation goals as a source of satisfifaction” and academic success. The students of grammar schools have more persistence in achieving their goals.

Keywords: school, student, motivation, school achievement.

Introduction

Education aimed at obtaining all the necessary skills for engaging in a certain profession is a long process which prepares young people for performing their vocation of choice. Vocation shapes personality, gives a sense and value to life, and determines our attitudes, perception and our conception.

Even back then, Terman emphasised that the non-intellectual factors play the main role in determining success of the very proficient people. Intellect and success are far from being in a perfect relationship. (B. Rakić, 1970).

Allport's opinion on the deeper relationship between the aforementioned variables is very encouraging. “The problem of motivation is the central problem in terms of psychological study of personality “(Allport, 1969, p.254).

Despite numerous reforms of school system, there is great gap between the fast-paced and big technological development on the one hand, and small alterations in the very process of education, which results in poor motivation of the youth in terms of acquisition of knowledge and studying for the profession of their choice.

Willing (conative) personality characteristics

Numerous researches aimed at studying the success in schools have shown that cognitive abilities are not the only ones the students' achievements rely on. Influence of the complete personality can reflect on the success in school because capabilities cannot be efficiently put to purpose if the person is not emotionally stable, socially adjusted and integrated.

The term willing (conative) characteristics (traits) marks an entire collection of traits a person's relationship towards oneself, others and the society in general, as well as the characteristic models of social behaviour is dependent on. This term covers a part of psychosomatic area which was earlier marked by expressions such as personality or a personal trait. At the

beginning, the expression “conative “was only used (Eysenck) for character personality traits, while the affective traits belonged to a separate category. However, affective personality traits are expressed in social contexts, which makes them inseparable from the so called “character “traits.

Bloom (Bloom B., 1976) emphasises the importance of the affective personality traits in terms of achievements at school. They are fit for changes, less “resistant “than the intellectual traits. His theory of successful school learning (mastery learning) is based on that possibility.

Motivational personality characteristics

Even though psychologists differ in terms of their understanding of the nature of human motivation, they all accept opinion that the adults set a very great range of different goals. Supporters of the concept that the human behaviour can be explained by a limited number of intrinsic motives think that people always set these various goals in order to satisfy a limited number of intrinsic motives. Supporters of the notion that an adult has a large number of motives think that the acquired motives become autonomous, that they become independent forces of behaviour. An adult strives towards fulfilling them for their own sake, and not for the sake of satisfying some other intrinsic motives.

Besides the primary biological motives, from the fifties onward, primary cognitive motives have also been a topic of discussion, through which the number of basic motives of human activity has been undoubtedly increasing. Terms: “intrinsic motivation”, “development motives,” “creative motivation”, etc. are used for marking the latter notions.

Motivation in school learning

The proportion of motivation in explaining the achievements in school, in certain condition, is significantly greater than the proportion of the high-developed general or specific capabilities. That means that positive motivation, in synergy with other factors that contribute to successful learning, (highly developed capabilities, having certain personality traits, using a form of studying which is adapted to capabilities and traits of the students' personalities, taking care of the particularity of socio-economic conditions of development, etc.) can contribute to achieving excellent results in school work and studying. An everyday experience shows that, despite their good capabilities, many students do not achieve corresponding success in school learning, and that is mostly due to poor motivation to work. Just the same, some students who do not have such great capabilities, but who have strong motivation, show noteworthy results.

The motives which have a particularly important role in school learning are: curiosity motive, motive of manipulation and exploration, achievement motive and motive of self-actualisation.

Motives of curiosity, manipulation and exploration

Many researches in the area of psychology of motivation indicate that the motives of curiosity, manipulation and exploration (investigation) are present all the way since the earliest childhood. Their essence reflects in the person's need to be active, to seek for new things, explore and inspect the unknown, etc. Manifestation of the motives of curiosity, manipulation and exploration is very important for general development of personality, and especially for forming an active and creative relationship during the process of acquiring knowledge and learning. Emergence and directing the development of these motives is conditioned by the quality of family and situation in school, both of which significantly influence their incitement or hampering. Results of various researches show that the motives of curiosity, manipulation and exploration particularly emerge in situations when there are frequent changes, which are also characterised by ambiguity and incongruity of facts and data, and which often have some unforeseen and unexpected outcomes. In the process of teaching, those can be situations when, along with the designed pedagogical guidance, the students solve the set problems and tasks on their own in cases when they are given incomplete data and information, among which they have to make certain connections and relationships, or when they are brought into situation which demands them to apply the acquired knowledge and experience in a new and different way. Namely, creating such pedagogical conditions stimulates students to actively react to the new and unknown information, to express their desire for seeking and becoming more acquainted with the environment, to use the given facts and data as means of acquiring new experiences, as well as to adapt their behaviour to the factors which demand a different approach in perceiving and solving certain problems.

The motive of achievement

“According to Mc. Clelland, and the majority of his associates later on “the motive of achievement is a general tendency of an individual to compete with the standards of success he or she deems noteworthy and socially important (Mc. Clelland,1976.). The goals which are being set as the ones towards which we are striving in our pursuit of satisfying the motives of achievement are primarily material goals, whether we conceptualise them as a better economic position or greater social reputation. In essence, the motive of achievement is an acquired motive which can be developed to a different extent in all individuals, members of the same society and according to which members of different societies can be differentiated. According to Mc. Clelland, the source of this motive lies in certain actions towards children, i.e. it depends on the overall system of education and values that are set and cherished in a certain society.

The fact that the motive of achievement can be influenced by the designed influences in family and school indicates the possibility to shape it, i.e. the possibility to systematically and pedagogically act on its manifestation and development.

Measuring achievement motive

The most commonly used instruments for measuring in the area of motivation are questionnaires in the form of personality inventory, i.e. in the area of motivation for achievement GAM (General Achievement Motivation test). GAM is a revision of Hermans' PMT test from 1967, and it was standardised by Havelka and Lazarević (1980, 1981, 1982). This instrument was used in this research as well, thus its detailed description may be found in the following paragraphs.

The instrument is in the form of personality inventory and it measures:

- degree of prominence of the motive of achievement;
- degree of positive emotional engagement and emotional self-control in situations of achievement;
- degree of negative emotional engagement or emotional inhibition in situations of achievement;

School system is one of the most organised systems of actions through which the society influences development of the desirable personality traits. We can see the motive of achievement as a personality trait which is important for success of an individual in education, work and realisation of their potentials. Being present in the individuals to the high extent, the motive of achievement indicates that the actions and success of an individual are results of their personal efforts, interests and devotion. People who have higher motive of achievement strive towards being more self-confident, they love personal responsibility, value knowledge and results of their work.

Intrinsic and extrinsic motivation also influence the development of motive of achievement, as an important personality trait in terms of success of an individual in education, work and realisation of one's potential.

Motive of self-actualisation

An important characteristic of the human nature is the need for activity, creating and creativity, i.e. tendency towards actualisation and self-actualisation of one's potential capabilities.

In fact, self-actualisation relates to a person's need to activate his or her latent possibilities and to express what they potentially are through their own activities (K. Petrović, 1985).

Maslow (A. Maslow, 1982) thinks that people are motivated to realise their biological – psychological potentials, i.e. to become everything they can be.

Forming a socially positive and personally satisfied individual also highly depends on the nature of the relationship that individual has created in family, work, school or some other social environment.

Development of intrinsic motivation in teaching

Berlyne illustrates the possibility of introducing cognitive conflict in different teaching contents (courses) by means of surprise, doubt, perplexity, etc.

Piaget (Piaget, J. 1959, p. 47) also emphasises existence of cognitive conflict as the basic condition for an intrinsically motivated activity. Piaget thinks that students should be incited to think independently and to express their opinion freely. As it can also be read in the works of Constance Kamii (C. Kamii, 1970/1971), the role of the teacher would be to design the teaching situation so that it serves for causing a cognitive conflict in students, as well as for stimulating students to think and express their own opinions freely.

This also implies certain tolerance of the teacher towards the students' mistakes which can occur in the process of learning, through which the students are provided with information that greater significance is attributed to the very process of learning, i.e. thinking, than to the uniformly adopted correct answer.

According to Allport (Allport, 1969, p. 143), in order for one activity to be intrinsically motivated it demands more than mental and motoric engagement, it demands the deepest engagement of the "central" parts of personality or ego – engagement. According to Allport (Allport 1960), intrinsically motivated activities, enter the core, i.e. central areas of the "I" system.

Relationship between extrinsic and intrinsic motivation in teaching

When speaking about motivation of human activity, and school teaching as one form of that activity, that generally, have two types of motivation are mentioned and they differ in the ways they affect behaviour of an individual, especially in terms of learning: extrinsic and intrinsic motivation. The basic characteristic of extrinsic motivation reflects in the fact that the actions which are taken in order to achieve the wanted goal are seen as means, and not as a goal which serves as its own purpose (Petrović K. 1985).

In school work, that is the case when a student is learning a particular subject not because he or she loves it and finds pleasure in studying it, but primarily for a good grade, a promised award, or something similar. When it comes to intrinsic motivation, the activities performed are not only a means for reaching a certain goal, but their accomplishment brings intrinsic satisfaction, so thus, with time, performing these activities becomes the basic and principal goal.

In school practice, this means that a student does not only learn because an award is expected (a grade, praise, etc.) from someone else, but the very process of learning, i.e. acquiring knowledge is perceived as an award (goal) and it stimulates the student to engage in similar areas.

It is indubitable that intrinsic motivation in school work has more importance than the extrinsic motivation.

Bruner (1962) states that the feeling of pleasure cannot be experienced beyond the very act of learning, nor can it be found in praises, harsh words or teacher's grades. The use of external control, as he deems, turns learning into a means of obtaining an award (a praise, good grade), and not a goal which is valuable on its own.

Deci (Deci, E. L.1975.) states that extrinsic stimulation makes a person take up an activity he or she would not normally do, and then, while performing the activity, the person becomes aware of the intrinsic motivation towards the very activity.

Interests for certain subjects belong to the area of motivation, and thus they can be an important factor for achieving success in school. We can increase the degree or level of the interest in learning through pedagogical or other types of influence and thus improve success of the students in certain school subjects.

If we additionally assume that physical capabilities are relatively unchangeable, then a significant correlation between interest in certain school subjects and the indicative success achieved in the same subjects should be expected (T. Đurić, 1979).

Method

The goal of this research is to determine the structure of needs, i.e. motives which the students want to satisfy through their education in high school, as well as the specific structure of impacts they have on success in high school, their position and significance in education.

Based on the knowledge about the structure of motivation, the higher goal can be practical – it should be regularly analysed and the structure of motivation for achievement in school and professional development of the school youth should be kept track of. Also, they should be analysed from the aspect of reality and we should influence the change of relevant factors.

The goal of this research is to determine whether there is and what is the quality of connection between the motive of achievement and interest, as well as with success in school. This will allow us to establish whether interest in the existing education program in high school is simulative for realisation of the motives of achievement.

Hypotheses

1. Students from different high schools which offer various fields of study differ in terms of willing - motivational characteristics.

Understanding the structure of intrinsic and extrinsic motivation among young boys and girls in high schools specialised in different fields of study will enable us to take actions aimed at developing motivation, as well as at eliminating the reasons which hinder the development of intrinsic and extrinsic motivation, analysing the reality and influencing a change of the relevant factors.

2. There is a connection between willing - motivational characteristics and success at school.

We are going to determine the connection between the development of the motives of achievement among students and the achieved success at school, i.e. whether the students who have better GPAs (excellent or very good) have a greater motive of achievement than the students with lowers GPAs (good, insufficient and sufficient).

Sample and the research method

Sample of students systematically included one class from each grade of grammar school and tourism technicians in Budva, Podgorica and Nikšić. For the purpose of this research, we decided to include students from the coastal, central and north area of Montenegro so we would ensure representativeness of the research. Students from I, II, III and IV grade of high schools in Budva, Podgorica and Nikšić, who chose

grammar school or the department for tourism technicians, were included in the research. The schools that participated in the research were: Secondary combined high school "Danilo Kiš" from Budva, Grammar School "Slobodan Škerović" and Secondary Vocational School "Sergej Stanić" from Podgorica, as well as Grammar School "Slobodan Cerović" and Secondary School of Economics and Tourism from Nikšić.

The sample included 775 students, 15-19 years of age and there were 398 grammar school students, and 378 tourism technicians. The number of examinees from Budva was 258, from Nikšić 262, and from Podgorica 254. In terms of the sex, 305 examinees were male, while 470 were female. The significant discrepancy in terms of sex of the examinees, which goes in favour of the female examinees (39,4 % : 60,6 %) is not a consequence of this particular case, but it reflects the real condition in the surveyed schools.

The research was done in April and May, just before the end of the school year in high schools. All the surveys were carried out during the regular classes, because our previous experience in conducting research has shown that motivation and responsibility of the examinees is greater in this period than during their spare time. The survey was done in groups, and the size of groups was identical to the size of a class in school.

Instruments

We used the instrument: Test of General Achievement Motive - GAM

Motive of achievement will be measured by a new, modified version of the scale – MOP 2002, which is comprised of 55 items, and which was created by Mirjana Frančesko, Vladimir Mihić and Gustav Bala. During the process of making this new instrument for measuring the motive of general achievement, these authors started from the standpoint that the motive of achievement, as a primarily cognitive motivational factor, has a certain stability and that, as such, it can be seen as a personality trait. That additionally means that people can have mutual differences in terms of degree of development of this tendency. While creating and defining the items, their starting point was Mc Clelland's definitions of the motive of achievement, according to which two components of this motive stand out: making an effort to achieve what is deemed valuable and what will enable them to stand out among the others.

Instrument has the form of the Likert's five point scale.

GAM 2002 scale has a very high degree of reliability. This instrument belongs to the category of measurement instruments which have the highest degree of representativeness.

Also, through relative size of the variance of the first main component of the items transformed into the image forms the scale has the satisfactory degree of homogeneity. Based on the Scree criterion on the first level of factor analysis (the first main component) four factors which explain 36.80% of variation of the items were separated.

Table 2: Structure of the first factor

RB	ITEMS	R
10.	Being the best is a good life motto.	0.665
6.	I strive to be better than the others in everything.	0.662
25.	If someone is better than me, I want to reach their level.	0.641
21.	I strive to be the best in everything I do	0.637
9.	Competing with others represents the greatest stimulant to me.	0.632
30.	I have the need to show the others how successful I am.	0.632
31.	I put a lot of energy into standing out in front of other people.	0.588
24.	It is important to me that I stand out in what I do.	0.587
3.	It is important to me that I stand out with my success.	0.575
29.	I must achieve success in activities I do, at all costs.	0.542
8.	Success comes first in life.	0.532
53.	It is very important that my success is talked about.	0.493
43.	I think that I have a competitive spirit.	0.469
20.	I want to achieve success in each activity I take up.	0.398
38.	It is important to me how other people evaluate my work.	0.373
28.	I usually set high goals for myself.	0.364
34.	It is important to me what other people think about my achievements.	0.356
14.	I do not understand people who are going after success.	0.344
54.	When I like a person, I do not give up until I win them over.	0.267

The first isolated factor explains 18.61% of the total variance. The structure of the first promax factor, according to intensity of concentration in certain items of the scale, is shown in the Table No. 2. This factor is defined by items which clearly indicate the tendency of an individual to stand out and be more successful than the others. That is why this factor is called – *Competing with others* -.

Table 3: Structure of the second factor

RB	ITEMS	R
32.	I always finish the things I have started.	0.668
22.	If I am doing something hard, I am usually persistent.	0.611
1.	I am always persistent in achieving my goal.	0.578
4.	Even when things are not going easy for me, I finish what I have started.	0.575
41.	Even after several failed attempts, I do not give up.	0.501
37.	I am always trying to do better than I had on previous occasions.	0.491
19.	My parole is "Leave till tomorrow what you do not have to do today".	0.471
45.	I always realise most of the things I have planned.	0.460
18.	I usually postpone doing the things that demands a lot of effort.	0.445
40.	I am ready to take the responsibility for the tasks I perform.	0.426
2.	Each task is a new challenge for me.	0.390
5.	I know what I want to achieve in life.	0.381
36.	Other people see me as a person who "who knows what they want".	0.374
49.	I am often bored.	0.273
16.	I don't get too excited if I don't finish what I have started doing.	0.210

The second isolated factor explains 8.91 % of the total variance. The items that define the second isolated factor to the highest degree are shown in Table No. 3.

Content analysis of the items which define the second isolated factor indicates persistence as one personality trait.

This factor is called - *Perseverance in reaching a goal* - .

Third isolated factor explains 5.32 % of the total variance. The items that define the third promax factor to the greatest extent are shown in Table No. 4.

Considering the fact that the majority of the mentioned items are related to the tendency towards setting the goals the achievement of which is seen as an award, the third factor is called

-*Achieving goals as a source of satisfaction*-.

Table 4: Structure of the third factor

RB	ITEMS	R
42.	I appreciate people who are perseverant in achieving their goals.	0.624
12.	A job successfully done is the greatest award for me.	0.598
17.	I feel the best when I achieve good results.	0.587
13.	Perseverance is a trait I value greatly.	0.576
50.	The very thought of achieving a goal brings the positive feelings in me.	0.568
48.	Success cannot be achieved over night, but rather by meticulous planning and hard work.	0.527
44.	I feel great pleasure when I complete my daily plan.	0.494
26.	One should always have a clearly defined goal.	0.484
15.	I always learn lessons from my mistakes for the future.	0.472
23.	I always have a set goal which I want to achieve.	0.463
7.	I admire successful people.	0.459
46.	Once I achieve a goal, I find another one immediately because that makes me feel complete.	0.385
51.	In future, I see myself as a successful person.	0.344

The fourth factor explains 3.95 % of the variance. The items by which this factor is determined are shown in Table No. 5.

Table 5: Structure of the fourth factor

RB	ITEMS	R
33.	I plan each of my activities.	0.782
11.	I plan everything in advance in order to achieve better results.	0.719
35.	I plan my activities for the upcoming day.	0.705
27.	Each activity should be well planned in advance.	0.689
39.	When I do not have my day planned out I feel strange.	0.491
55.	I prefer being spontaneous to planning it all in advance.	0.490
47.	I think it makes no sense to plan many things in advance.	0.463
52.	My motto is "one should live from today until tomorrow, without any major plans".	0.397

The fourth factor is determined with items which indicate the tendency of a person to plan activities in order to achieve a certain goal. This factor is thus called

Orientation towards planning.

Among the isolated factors, there is a statistically significant correlation on the level 0.01. All the obtained correlation coefficients are positive, which indicates that the isolated factors have the same direction of "action".

Factor analysis of the second order has enabled us to separate a factor which explains 51.96 % of the total variance. Correlations of this factor with the primary factors are shown in Table No.7.

Table 7: Correlation coefficients factors of the first and second order

R.no.	PRIMARY FACTORS (first order)	General second order factor
3.	Achieving goal as a source of satisfaction	0.836
4.	Orientation towards planning	0.755
2.	Perseverance in achieving a goal	0.736
1.	Competing with other people	0.518

All factors of the first order are in a high positive correlation with the second order factors, which indicates that the MOP 2002 scale has a unique focus of measurement. Correlations between the first order factors, as well as coefficients of connection of the first and second order factors, indicate that four components are not independent in size and that together they make the motive of general achievement. The motive of achievement is a complex motivational disposition, which consists of the following components: competing with other people, perseverance in achieving a goal, achieving a goal as a source of satisfaction and orientation towards planning.

The obtained results confirm Mc Clelland's attitude towards two components of the motive of achievement: putting effort in achieving the things which are deemed valuable (setting goals) and which will allow them to stand out among the others (competing with others). Based on the content analysis of the other two components, the conclusion is made that these are instrumental traits and patterns of behaviours. Namely, a person who has tendencies towards competing and setting goals, develops traits such as perseverance and orientation towards planning, in order to be successful in competing with other people and/or in achieving their goals.

Information about the existence of one factor defined by the means of four mutually connected components which "act" in the same direction, indicates the conclusion that the individual differences in the motive of achievement can be primarily sought for in the degree prominence of this motivational disposition. In that way, it is possible to differentiate people whose motive of achievement is on a: low, moderate, high and very high level of development.

Starting from the obtained results, motive of achievement can be determined (according to M. Frančesko, V. Mihić, G. Bala) as a striving towards achieving success, whether that success is defined by achieving personal goals and/or standing out in front other people.

Results of the psychometric analysis have shown that the MOP 2002 scale is a good instrument for measuring the motive of achievement, and thus it was used in our research. Considering the fact that MOP 2002 is comprised of four factors, it cannot be treated as a unique result, but it will help us measure the development of some components of the internal motivation, i.e. the motive of achievement.

Statistic data processing

When it comes to the method of descriptive statistics the following actions were taken:

1. Illustration of frequency distribution, i.e. frequencies and percentages which relate to certain categoric variables (nominal level).
2. Illustration of average value, standard deviation and median in terms of scalar values which are assumed to be at the interval level of measurement.
3. Review of the value of average rankings.

The methods of inferential statistics were used:

- 1.1. Index of curvature, flatness index, their standard errors for testing normality.
- 1.2 Kolmogorov-Smirnov's Z-value for analysis of the normality of the breakdown.
- 1.3 Hi-square when differences among breakdowns of the frequencies according to certain categories of nominal variables with two, three or more categories as the values were tested (e.g. male and female).
- 1.4. Analysis of variance when the significance of differences, in terms of the values on scales which are assumed to potentially have the interval character, among two or more groups were tested
- 1.5 Leven's test which is used for testing the assumption of equality of variance within groups or variance of mistake within the subgroups.
- 1.6. Box's test of equality of the elements of the variance-covariance matrix for ANOVA (variance analysis).
- 1.7. Mann-Witney's U-test or the difference test for ranges between two sub-groups.
- 1.8. Kruskal-Wallis' difference test for ranges between three or more sub-groups.
- 1.9 Logistic regression where to test the correlation and power dichotomised dependent variables of school success based predictors which may be either continuous or dihotimni came in the case of this study.
- 1.10 Point-biserial correlation coefficient was used in situations when dichotomous variable correlated with one of the continuous variables.

Results

Analysing differences among students studying at different specialised high schools in terms of values on certain components of motivation for achievement (MOP).

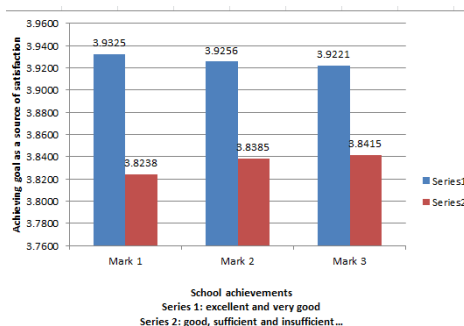


Chart 1. Average values of students on the variables “Achieving goals as a source of satisfaction” in three situations of evaluating success in school, on the basis of three situations of evaluating the success in school.

In terms of all three evaluations of school success, three evaluations of success in school, and as it can be seen from the chart, students who have better grades in school also have higher value on the component “Achieving goals as a source of satisfaction” and these differences are statistically different in all three situations. Considering the fact that there were no significant differences in the other three components, the H2 was thus only partially confirmed.

Conclusion

Bearing in mind the obtained results of the data analysis in the research that was conducted within the scopes of this paper, we can make certain conclusions.

1. Our hypothesis that *the students from different specialised schools differ in terms of willing - motivational characteristics is only confirmed in some components.*

Differences among students from different specialised schools have been determined only for some components of the motivation for achievement. It can be said that the grammar school students have a significantly more prominent component of motivation for achievement “Perseverance in achieving goals” when compared to the students studying at the department for tourism technician.

2. Our hypothesis that *there is connection between willing - motivational characteristic and school success* has been confirmed.

A significant difference among students who have different GPA's has been noted in only one component of motivation for achievement, and that is “Achieving goals as a source of satisfaction”.

In average, the greater the values are on this component, the better the evaluation of school achievement is. Considering the fact that motivation for achievement also represents a reflection of certain conative personality factors of the examinee, we can derive the conclusion that these results favour the confirmation of the impact of the conative traits on the school success. These findings mostly confirm this hypothesis.

The more prominent factor “Perseverance in achieving goals”, when it comes to the grammar school students, indicates perseverance as a personality trait. It is in positive correlation with the factor “Competing with other people” which indicated the tendency of a person to stand out and be more successful than the others.

There is a connection between some willing - motivational characteristics and success in school.

There is a statistically important connection between the component “Achieving goals as a source of satisfaction” and school success. In average, the greater the values are on this component, the better the evaluation of school success is.

It is necessary to develop and strengthen self-respect, i.e. the need for a lasting, solid, high grade-esteem of oneself and appreciation from the part of the others, which can be achieved by motivating students to be active in school and the society, to set higher goals, and by developing belief in their own abilities, and optimism.

For the purpose of strengthening the motivation of achievement, it is necessary to also use extrinsic motivation, which means that the following steps should be taken:

- 1) The students should be enabled to recognise their results. They should constantly and timely be informed about the achieved results, which will serve as a strong stimulating force for their further prosperity.
- 2) Competitions in comprehending and learning the lessons should be organised and conducted, which represents a form of motivation for self-affirmation and a strong stimulant for achieving success.
- 3) Students should be enabled to achieve success in order to avoid the feeling of failure, since success is the motive which motivates to work and raises the level of aspiration, while failure impedes progress and lowers the aspiration level.

4) Use praise and reproach which represent strong stimulants for achieving success, since praise causes satisfaction and pleasure, while reproach causes indignation and frustration.

In the end, apart from the important intrinsic and extrinsic factors, developing affiliative motive, i.e. the need to contact and cooperate with other people should also be incorporated into the programme for practicing the affiliative motive, which can also be an initiator of the activities for achieving success.

Singling out and strengthening the motive for acquisition depends on the extent to which acquiring knowledge is considered a significant area of competence in a certain environment, as well as on the nature of experience of the actual individual when it comes to the fact that knowledge and the process of acquiring knowledge enables experiencing the feeling of competency. Both the very activation (inclusion) of the capacities, skills and previous knowledge of the students in the process of school learning and all those conditions (contents and methods of work) which contribute to their improvement will have a motivational influence.

Independence and self-initiative of the students should be provoked, instead of orienting them towards the teacher as the central figure of the teaching process (as the only source of the demands, the only criterion of the truth, etc.). The students should be motivated to seek for intellectual challenges and overcome them on their own, and not the stand down when faced with a challenge, but the engage in overcoming it. This hypothesis about competence and self-determination suggests that, in cases when different reasons prevent students from becoming involved in solving important matters in the process of learning, the students should at least be provided with a clarification and explanation of the meaning of learning, so they could accept it as their "own", i.e. so they could get the feeling of self-determination from it. One of the pre-requisites for experiencing the feeling of competence in the process of learning is individualisation, primarily in terms of the degree of demands which are set before the students. However, that does not mean that the students should get tasks which too easy to solve, on the contrary, they should be given tasks in which they will be objectively successful, but also experience difficulties, mistakes and effort.

Thus, introducing individualised forms of pedagogic-education work in certain specialised high schools for should be considered, the forms that would create conditions for stimulating and directing the existing capacities of the students, and thus conditions for developing the motive of achievement.

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GAM

Name and surname _____

Please read carefully and answer to all questions.

Answer should be written in Answer sheet. There are no true or false answers. Sincere answers are the best ones. Results should be used only in scientific purposes.

CLAIMS
I am always persistent in achieving my goal.
Each task is a new challenge for me.
It is important to me that I stand out with my success
Even when things are not going easy for me, I finish what I have started.
I know what I want to achieve in life.
I strive to be better than the others in everything.
I admire successful people.
Success comes first in life.
Competing with others represents the greatest stimulant to me.
Being the best is a good life motto.
I plan everything in advance in order to achieve better results
A job successfully done is the greatest award for me.
Perseverance is a trait I value greatly.
14. I do not understand people who are going after success.
15. I always learn lessons from my mistakes for the future.
16. I don't get too excited if I don't finish what I have started doing.
17. I feel the best when I achieve good results.
18. I usually postpone doing the things that demands a lot of effort.
19. My parole is "Leave till tomorrow what you do not have to do today".
20. I think that I have a competitive spirit.
21. I strive to be the best in everything I do.
22. If I am doing something hard, I am usually persistent.
23. I always have a set goal which I want to achieve.
24. It is important to me that I stand out in what I do.
25. If someone is better than me, I want to reach their level.
26. One should always have a clearly defined goal.
27. Each activity should be well planned in advance.
28. I usually set high goals for myself.
29. I must achieve success in activities I do, at all costs
30. I have the need to show the others how successful I am.
31. I put a lot of energy into standing out in front of other people.
32. I always finish the things I have started.
33. I plan each of my activities.
34. It is important to me what other people think about my achievements.
35. I plan my activities for the upcoming day.
36. Other people see me as a person who "who knows what they want".
37. I am always trying to do better than I had on previous occasions.
38. It is important to me how other people evaluate my work.
39. When I do not have my day planned out I feel strange.
40. I am ready to take the responsibility for the tasks I perform.
41. Even after several failed attempts, I do not give up.

42. I appreciate people who are perseverant in achieving their goals.
43. I think that I have a competitive spirit.
44. I feel great pleasure when I complete my daily plan.
45. I always realise most of the things I have planned.
46. Once I achieve a goal, I find another one immediately because that makes me feel complete.
47. I think it makes no sense to plan many things in advance.
48. Success cannot be achieved over night, but rather by meticulous planning and hard work.
49. I am often bored.
50. The very thought of achieving a goal brings the positive feelings in me.
51. In future, I see myself as a successful person.
52. My motto is "one should live from today until tomorrow, without any major plans".
53. It is very important that my success is talked about.
54. When I like a person, I do not give up until I win them over.
55. I prefer being spontaneous to planning it all in advance.

Please make sure You answer every question!

Thank You for your cooperation

ANSWER SHEET

Name and surname _____

Gender: M F

Age: _____

Your school: _____

Your mother' s education: Your father' s education:

- a) primary school a) primary school
- b) secondary school b) secondary school
- c) college / university c) college / university
- d) master s and doctoral degree d) master s and doctoral degree

Instructions for filling in the questionnaire:

You have to answe to what extent these statements refer to you::

1. If the statement **refers to You completely** circle **totally correct (5)**.
2. If the statement **refers to You, but not completely**, circle **mostly correct (4)**.
3. If **You are not sure the statement refers to You**, circle **not sure (3)**.
4. If the statement refers **to You to a small extent**, circle **mostly incorrect (2)**.
5. If the statement **does not refer to You**, circle **totally incorrect (1)**.

Question No	Totally incorrect	Mostly incorrect	Not sure	Mostly correct	Totally correct
1.	1	2	3	4	5
2.	1	2	3	4	5
3.	1	2	3	4	5
4.	1	2	3	4	5
5.	1	2	3	4	5
6.	1	2	3	4	5
7.	1	2	3	4	5
8.	1	2	3	4	5
9.	1	2	3	4	5
10.	1	2	3	4	5
11.	1	2	3	4	5
12.	1	2	3	4	5

13.	1	2	3	4	5
14.	1	2	3	4	5
15.	1	2	3	4	5
16.	1	2	3	4	5
17.	1	2	3	4	5
18.	1	2	3	4	5
19.	1	2	3	4	5
20.	1	2	3	4	5
21.	1	2	3	4	5
22.	1	2	3	4	5
23.	1	2	3	4	5
24.	1	2	3	4	5
25.	1	2	3	4	5
26.	1	2	3	4	5
27.	1	2	3	4	5
28.	1	2	3	4	5
29.	1	2	3	4	5
30.	1	2	3	4	5
31.	1	2	3	4	5
32.	1	2	3	4	5
33.	1	2	3	4	5
34.	1	2	3	4	5
35.	1	2	3	4	5
36.	1	2	3	4	5
37.	1	2	3	4	5
38.	1	2	3	4	5
39.	1	2	3	4	5
40.	1	2	3	4	5
41.	1	2	3	4	5
42.	1	2	3	4	5
43.	1	2	3	4	5
44.	1	2	3	4	5
45.	1	2	3	4	5
46.	1	2	3	4	5
47.	1	2	3	4	5
48.	1	2	3	4	5
49.	1	2	3	4	5
50.	1	2	3	4	5
51.	1	2	3	4	5
52.	1	2	3	4	5
53.	1	2	3	4	5
54.	1	2	3	4	5
55.	1	2	3	4	5

Policymaking in a Multiethnic State, the Legal Changes, Practice of Macedonia

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Abstract

In contemporary terms and conditions, in addition to economic and social factors, political processes are one of the basic components of the proper functioning of a multi-ethnic state. Examples of proper practices of multiethnic states which operate in conformity with international standards, within the EU structures abound. This is in a group of countries which have previously significantly overcome the problems of transition and reform of the political system and have managed to establish standard which are inaccessible and levels of genuine democracy. The paper has aspirations to take into consideration the comparative aspects which can serve as a good example of the changes and development of the country towards Euro-Atlantic structures. That it happens with Western Balkan countries. The situation becomes even more difficult, especially in those cases where states and societies of the population is heterogeneous structure; Case of Macedonia, being convinced that has to do with a diverse population, the country still today fails to cross the barriers of the past from the old system. Institutions and decision-making bodies, now more than ever need to change policymaking process, prevention of discrimination and compliance values of the political, economic and social conformity with European standards.¹

Keywords: Policymaking, law, multi-ethnicity, reform institutions, bodies.

"The practice has shown that in most cases the parts of the Western Balkan, countries that comprise it, today are still under the influence of an experience that has served system of the past." B.K.

This sentence verify nowadays experiences of Macedonia as a country with one notable symbolic existence as an independent state were there needs more tendencies and work to achieve up to minimum standards of a position at least for this phase should possess as an independent state.

Period after the 2001 conflict was not an easy process but also as well as extended as it can and as much as more there are seeing consequences every day more in shoulders of citizens in Macedonia.

First impression that comes in consideration, if we look forward at the current political situation in Macedonia with the latest technology known as "**Political drone**" will detect some problems that will make us to understand the real situation and our experience, does not differ much from turmoil that have gripped international politics today. It differs in the way of its manifestation and the genesis of the problem which can be another plan. If we pretend to do a study of a deeper nature of this issue then, we see that while the political actors in the whole world would try to find solutions of problems; Macedonia and political situation even more stretched its political actors. The difference is noted at the outset. Although, the European continent - Western Balkans occupies a space approximately, 550,000, per square meter, the latter's problems in every part are separate model. What happens with political experience in Macedonia? In international political opinion experience as ours much more is influenced from domestic circumstances; there is no doubt understood that the consequences of a one-party system felt in nowadays conditions. Although since political pluralism, Macedonia has been occasionally

¹ For more details about the EU establishment and case of Macedonia till the status candidate, there are more details that confirm the notes and important dates during this process; http://ec.europa.eu/enlargement/countries/detailed-country-information/fyrom/index_en.htm

ratification actor and approval of many international acts and those in local dimension and size of other lower, again we are witnessing flagrant violation of these rights by the own state institutions.

Multiethnic character of society within which is part Macedonia's experience as a state in the Balkan, however that was the impression that the international community, from the conflict in 2001 reduced tensions with the signing of a joint political entities bilateral at that time, the current situation proves otherwise.¹

Not only does it solve the problem of inequality between ethnic groups that make up Macedonia, but despite that, the situation is even tenser. Today, no citizen or in other words few people whom you do not staged a particular case where the protagonist in the role of perpetrator always comes Albanian or other case or scenario mounted, the outcome of which is not known and never finished in Albanians favor.

From the viewpoint of an ordinary citizen, every one of us in situations like this and the way reasoning showed that, of course, that the charges directed by state power, this device provide violence appeared increasingly driven by Albanians unilaterally. It is now clear, whenever that come are honored powers or governments, charges for their failures and failures, eyes always directed towards Albanians. Whenever problems not generate crisis and find a solution, open armed conflict, as was the case last time, in the Kumanovo, indicating the crisis who are factor that ask only ones who through weapons want to realize the solution of the problems and the goals of society. Being the leader of policies such nationalist political parties' Macedonian doing, they forged that generate the political chaos not only to the political parties of the Albanians but also to themselves and as a result the situation gets out of control even greater proportions involving again the international political factor.

Experiences such political processes already convincingly make us clear that citizens feel trampled, governed in the form of chaotic model that exercised violence and tyranny, abuses by institutions and legitimacy of the policy, which is what we understood from interceptions last; They are one more argument to believe that this regime does not cause anything other than the destruction of the fundamental values of democracy and the collapse of a system that is in exoneration. Before situations and experiences of these are living proof of the violation of human dignity, many of the political figures of the time and other stakeholders as members of the National Liberation Army of 2001, government at all costs tried to overshadowed image of these structures created the experience of the Albanian political bloc in order to achieve the aspirations which were contrary to every aspect and with the concept of good governance. In this regard, they used unfair mounted who prove that we who urge problems are the ones who do not have representatives devoted political and many accusations without basis which is a concept and not very enviable international factor.

Evidence suggests that this political un-standardized format in Macedonia experience for a system like this that speaks of democracy but the facts lead to totalitarianism, that political entities that make up the multi-ethnicity and ethnicities in Macedonia who participate in power but do not imply political processes, political actors who sign the Stabilization and Association Agreement, but generated largely instability; guaranteeing the rights to use the language; education and the use of symbols of Albanians but never respected. It remains to be mentioned that the formal representation, just as the number but not increase effective impact role key decision-making by ethnic Albanians ... it seems elusive for an opinion wider, but this scene speaks clearly for a reality as elusive as the paradoxical to; based on the reality of the time in which we live. Typically, therefore I will also continue while image of people who are considered to have an impact on political life tends to fade, giving space more those whom you serve tendencies political protect the image of a political servile which leads towards inculcating interest which tried to create for years, be a multiethnic society that would worthily represented the country at the relevant institutions, thus giving more space and peaceful way of conflict resolution that were in defense of common interests.

We, as citizens, members of the state feel themselves without influence not only in the structures of the State but also by a significant number of people who remain faithful to this structure that governs which day by day undermines our families, evoke fear mass wide, not undertake any decision to improve economic status, political and social society in general. Misuse of counterfeiters have become part of the experience of certain services of the state that There is no doubt that this thing goes in favor tendencies criminal generated by state services of that country and more using people from among

¹ <http://www.ucd.ie/ibis/filestore/Ohrid%20Framework%20Agreement.pdf>

Albanians only to be in favor of a destructive policy that harms our image as an important factor in political life and decision-making process.

These situations and discontent will last as long as the structures of the Albanian political bloc will this policy to actual premier and while stay sitting under power chairs. Where there is given an opening voices of citizens should not be said that there is democracy ... where government imposed by force, it lacks legitimacy ... where religious principles used for certain aspects of the ideas of manipulation of the masses, there is no morality ... where socially, political deviated hardly find the balance ... now s' remains nothing, except that in this labyrinth culprits end there you have the land, to hope that criminals will get what they deserve, because before the fact bow angels.

The international community has played a very constructive role in easing inter-ethnic relations and creating a mild climate between the two majority ethnic groups that make up Macedonia.

In this case, the Ohrid Agreement was one of the acts created with the mediation of the United States of America and European policy actors.

As a result, even today, after almost 15 years, cannot be concluded with certainty to complement this country has fulfilled obligations not only to the international community, but first even to its citizens.

This disappointment can verify through consecutive facts argued by periodic reports addressed to Macedonia, as a candidate country by the European Commission.

Notice given principally in the area of justice, failure to state of law, public administration overwhelmed, at a time when the European Union requires sitting of employees in administration to be limited, domination economy darker, market dysfunctional then remarks are focused in three dimensions Copenhagen criteria addressed to the Western Balkan countries which are closely related to the eligibility criteria, political and economic.

All three of these conditions, in the case of Macedonia still today are a realistic suspicion!?

In the field of cooperation from the international politics of defense and security, it should be noted that there were some training in cooperation with the OSCE, but after that, there are a number of elements which come and create obligatory for countries that are strongly in process development.

The training activities of OSCE are not only confined with basic police training. Additionally, professional training programs, requested and approved by the role and they are an integral part of the PDU's exit strategy:

- Instructor development training - a comprehensive training programs designed for national police instructors.
- Reform training - programs for all existing uniformed officers to ensure that they receive training consistent with what was delivered to the newly-graduated police cadets. Police officers receive additional training in human rights, policing in a democracy, gender awareness, trafficking in human beings, domestic violence, officer safety and drug identification.
- Specialized training programs - specialized and advanced training programs for selected officers are provided in topic areas such as: trafficking in human beings, road safety, border, human rights and democratic policing and election security.
- In-service training programs - a forum seeking to prepare the recently graduated, probationary police to successfully pass the State Examination and receive executive authority.¹

With the help of the OSCE, the interior ministry has assumed full responsibility for the border police and in 2005 the newly formed Border Police completed its transfer from the Ministry of Defense to the Ministry of Interior. This critical step means that the entire territory is under the administration of the police, as in other European countries. The military no longer has

¹ Introducing Multi-Ethnic Policing in Macedonia1: The Role of the OSCE, Ali DİKİCİ
Web Page, <http://www.osce.org/skopje/pdu>, (accessed 09 April 2004).article
Uluslararası Hukuk ve Politika Cilt 3, No:10 ss.129-146, 2007©

security obligations within the country. In 2006 the border police established regional training coordinators and the Mission began training internal trainers who will assume the task of further developing their colleagues' policing skills.¹

Recomenadations

Full transparency of institutions in the country;

Proper functioning of the legal system, which currently has a bitter experience of distortion of law;

Effective public policy on defense and security in the country, if it is very necessary, especially in countries as part of the Western Balkans where post-conflict, the need for public safety is increasingly necessary.

The creation of conditions in the country for accession to the Euro-Atlantic structures;

Arranging a mild climate between ethnic groups, Albanian / Macedonian or proper function of a multi-ethnic society;

Respect for fundamental democratic values;

Functioning of a democratic system that would function in the general interest of citizens;

Creation of proper policies of social welfare;

Political stability, economic and social development in general.

And the most important, building bridges of peace among people with different religions and without prejudices society.

These are some of the basic elements which in the case of Macedonia have a handicap, but have a willingness genuine stakeholder relevant to policy to receive the appropriate measures in cooperation with the international community to give a permanent contribution to rebuild genuine values of states developing, where it is part of Macedonia.

Based on those wrong experiences which are non-sense for one state as Macedonia is, in process of integration, now state, it will be faced with new elections on December 2016.

Hopefully, in this contest, state will choose the best way to attach as a strategic program for one better future for their citizens without any ethnic background.

¹ OSCE Annual Report 2006, p. 46

Child and the Work of Art

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Abstract

The pupils are allowed, through structured observation and reception of works of art, to develop and improve their perception and intellect, as well as their moral and aesthetic attitudes. Learning to perceive, enjoy and evaluate works of art provides opportunities for creating ideas and thinking on different levels. The subject of this research are the reactions of third- and fourth-grade pupils to the art of Gustav Klimt. The research sample consisted of 282 pupils, of which 142 were female and 140 males. The results indicate high levels of perception, acceptance and interpretation of Klimt's art.

Keywords: Gustav Klimt, visual arts education, work of art, creative process, methods

Introduction

Visual arts are becoming more and more indispensable in modern education, as well as contemporary educational concepts, because of their role in the development of skills such as communication and evaluation, as well as creative and cognitive development of children and youth. Grade-school art classes are useful on many levels because teaching art does not revolve only around learning, but also around the tangible experience of perception, acknowledging and accepting the world of art that stems from the history of humans. Since prehistoric times, humans have been discovering the possibility of thought expression through visual media. That process led to the discovery of using pictorial symbols as a cypher of meaning and ideas. Visual works of art have become impressive forms that accumulate cognitive values of different historical eras, which makes them crucial for studying human culture. Warburg (Biatostocki, 1986) claims that visual works of art cannot be limited only to their visual aspect, but must be understood through anthropology, psychoanalysis and history, as well as philosophy, religion, ideology and the totality of their historical, political and social background. Even if we are observing specific situations in which an individual's thought and hands made a particular piece, it needs to be projected onto a universal perspective of everyone. As the philosophers of human culture believe, the firm background of cultural events is necessary for understanding any work of art. This leads us to the conclusion that a work of art possesses a cause-and-effect relationship with the time, place and culture in which it was created, serving as a visual story of historical turmoil, social and artistic interests of specific eras. It does carry a certain spirit of that era in itself, but it also goes beyond space and time it was created in, enriching the development of human aesthetic and cultural sensibility. Unlike other products of human work, whose shapes are mostly tied to their practical use, works of art can serve their purpose in their independent configurations of symbols. Because of its universally understood manifestations, visual arts have had many specific functions in different cultures besides the aesthetic value. Telling dramatic, picturesque human and life stories visually has always been the task of art, as well as providing a way to help understand the essence of human truth. This is why visual artistic content stays relevant in educating young generations.

Visual works art, as part of a whole world rich with visual content, are a constant dialogue between the creator and the recipient. Zovko (2009) expresses the need to understand works of art as autonomous persons waiting for someone (the recipient) to talk to, which leads to a degree of understanding, explaining and experience dependent on the quality of work in question and its hermeneutical interviewer. Hauser has a similar view: "A true work of art is not just an expression, but an announcement, and in that sense is not just a monologue, but a dialogue as well." (Hauser, 1986:4) Artistic production and reception are intertwined and mutually dependent on communication and evoking response, emotional factors and social function, as well as cultural constellation.

From these facts we conclude that our relationship to culture is conditioned, and we could even say that our relationship with culture is formed by learning. That is the reason Baković (1985) sees that works of art are not static nor a closed fact, but an open, dynamic reality with its own continuity and identity. The openness of a work of art seeks its recipient/interpreter, and it is a subject of communication that flows both ways, so the pupils need to learn skills that make that communication possible. The works of art were not made primarily for them, so they require perception and reception – otherwise, they do not serve their purpose.

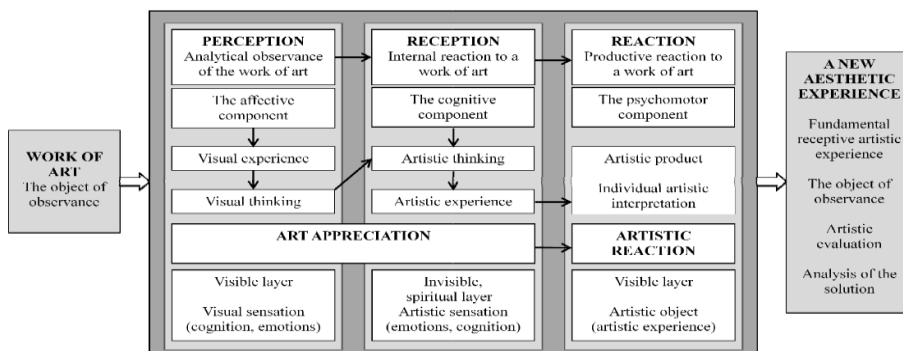
A work of art in visual arts teaching represents an adequate visual stimulation through which the pupils should understand an assignment better, and it can aid the development of a child's experience of the world with its multilayeredness and acceptance. When amplified in such a way, that experience improves the intellectual, moral and aesthetic development of children. For them to understand art that was not primarily intended for them, they need to be led through the layers of the work of art, and within that process develop their visual, cultural and aesthetic sensibility. The reception of visual works of art is a challenging task for pupils. They need to understand the differences of certain styles, learn the language of visual arts, perceive completely opposite eras – which can be difficult and needs to be done gradually, which is one of the goals of visual arts education. Encountering a work of art should be adequately actualized in all degrees of education, so that the ability to aesthetically evaluate develops with the pupils' cognitive and emotional abilities.

The aesthetic transfer method

The aesthetic transfer method in visual arts classes enables not only transfer of information, but also the aesthetic components of a work of art. In applying this method, the presentation of chosen works of art must allow interaction between the observer (child, pupil) and the work of art, as the sensory input is linked to memories, experiences and associations. As interaction is a personal process very different from one child to another, it is very important to generate conditions within a group that allow the children to express their opinions. Children can react on the emotional level, the associative level and the formal intellectual level. These three types of reactions vary and differ, as they depend on the observer and the artwork. The experienced artwork can lead to an artistic reaction, which will be the individual solution of each child and will represent a new aesthetic experience. The fundamental rule relates to the reproduction of works of art. These have to be realistic and of high quality, so that not much original information is lost in the reproduction. To lead to a new aesthetic experience, the method of aesthetic transfer must adhere to principles of quality.

To enjoy the works of art and be able to enjoy artistic expressions, the children and pupils must first notice them. It is crucial that the children involved in artistic activities to adopt techniques of viewing aesthetic objects with regard to their visible qualities. In the method of aesthetic transfer, those processes are expanded to elicit a practical artistic and creative reaction. The method of aesthetic transfer has three phases:

- Perception: perception of a work of art with all senses
- Reception: putting the images into words
- Reaction: activity, productive reaction to a work of art



Picture 1: Diagram of the method of aesthetic transfer (Duh, Zupancič, 2011)

Perception and reception of works of art are the first two phases of the aesthetic transfer method. The former is directed towards children/pupils who get a clear perception of a work of art, and is necessary for triggering the appropriate aesthetic experience. The latter is directed towards the perception outcomes expressed verbally, which makes them planned and internalized. The combination of art work perception and receptive capabilities of children and pupils is called artistic appreciation. Aesthetic transfer method thus stems from artistic appreciation, which is also the basis for a deep emotional reaction. (Duh, Zupančič, 2011).

3. Methodological research aspect

3.1. The problem and objective of the research

The research on the subject of children's reaction to visual works of art is a longitudinal research, one of many that the authors have executed in grades 1 through 4 (primary school), and they include observation of children's reactions to the works of the most famous artists and art movements of the 20th century.

The problem of the research was establishing reactions of third- and fourth-grade pupils (primary school) to the art of Gustav Klimt. Assuming that most of the pupils have not previously encountered the artist, the goal was also to question how ready they are to accept new information and content related to visual arts.

The cognitive objective of the research is establishing whether there are any differences in reactions to the art of Gustav Klimt between third- and fourth-grade pupils, and the possible differences in accepting new content and knowledge.

The pragmatic objective relates to creating new knowledge in visual arts and improvement of visual arts classes. This research highlights the importance of quality visual arts teaching and offers guidelines for a more successful organizing of the teaching process. (Bubić, 2012/13).

The objectives of this research are recording children's reactions to the art of Gustav Klimt and establishing whether there is a difference in their attitudes relating to their age and grade. It is also of importance to establish how the pupils would approach the process of creating Klimt-inspired art of their own.

The variables of the research are independent (sex and grade) and dependent (pupils' experience and thoughts) of Gustav Klimt's art.

3.2. Sampling frame and field phase

Table 1: Sex

Answers:	<i>f</i>	%
Boy	140	49,6
Girl	142	50,4
Total	282	100

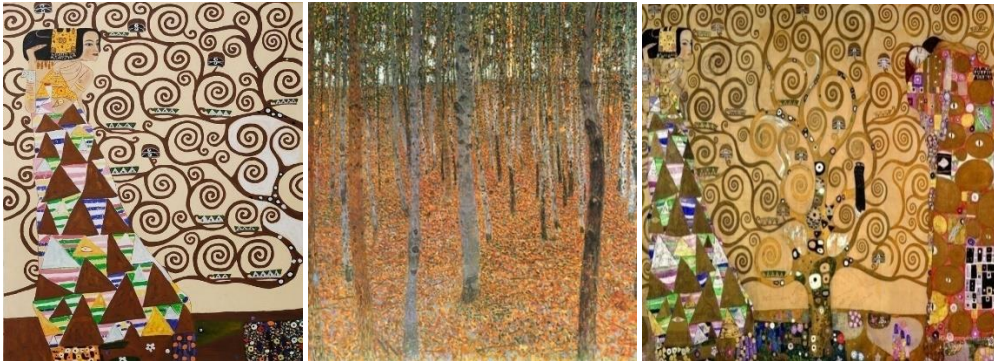
The participants of this research were third- and fourth-grade pupils (primary school), of which 160 were in third, and 122 in fourth grade.

Table 2: Grade

Answers:	<i>f</i>	%
Third	160	56,7
Fourth	122	43,3
Total	282	100

The research was carried out during the end of May and beginning of June 2014 and it included three schools in Split and the surrounding area.

The research method used was questionnaire. Considering the young age of the pupils, and assuming most of them have not encountered Gustav Klimt's work before, they were introduced to the artist's biography and opus prior to the questioning. They were showed five works of art that continued to serve for the questionnaire and further creative work. The works shown were *Expectation*, *Beech Forest I*, *Tree of Life*, *The Stocklet Frieze* and *The Kiss*.



Picture 2: *Expectation*, 1905 **Picture 3:** *Beech Forest I*, 1902 **Picture 4:** *Tree of Life*, 1905



Picture 5: *The Stocklet Frieze*, 1905 **Picture 6:** *The Kiss*, 1907-1908

The research tool was a questionnaire, designed exclusively for the research in question and the pupils' age. The questions were close-ended, and the last one about the art works shown was multiple-choice. The rest of the questions were dichotomous.

3.3. Hypothetical research context

The following hypotheses were formulated:

- Hg: It is expected that the students would perceive the art of Gustav Klimt and his manner of painting differently.
- H1: There is a correlation between the pupils' grade and preference for the artist.
- H2: There is a correlation between the pupils' grade and perception of the artist's paintings.

- H3: There is a correlation between the pupils' grade and preference for individual paintings.

3.4. Results and argument

At the end of questioning and data collection it was noted that no questionnaire was invalid. After the data collection, all data was entered to be processed into the SPSS – program for statistical analysis. In this part, the results of the analysis are presented.

The first question was about whether the pupils found Klimt's manner of painting interesting or not.

Table 3: Grade / You consider the manner of Gustav Klimt's painting:

		You consider the manner of Gustav Klimt's painting:		Total
		Interesting	Not interesting	
Grade	Third	152	8	160
	Fourth	106	16	122
Total		258	24	282

Klimt's manner of painting is considered interesting by 258 pupils, and 24 consider it not interesting.

Hypothesis H2: There is a correlation between the pupils' grade and perception of the artist's paintings.

Table 4: Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	,854(b)	1	,116
Continuity Correction(a)	,858	1	,128
Likelihood Ratio	,828	1	,116
Fisher's Exact Test			
N of Valid Cases	282		

$$\chi^2 = 0,854 \quad \chi^2_{\text{tab}} [\alpha=5\%, df=1] = 3,84$$

Validity of $\chi^2 < \chi^2_{\text{tab}} \rightarrow H_0$ indicates that the initial assumption of a correlation between the pupils' grade and perception of the artist's paintings may be accepted with a significance of 5%.

Table 5: Pearson's contingency coefficient for testing the independence of two nominal characteristics with chi-squared test

	Value	Approx. Sig.
Nominal by Contingency Coefficient	,143	,116
N of Valid Cases	282	

a Not assuming the null hypothesis.

b Using the asymptotic standard error assuming the null hypothesis.

$$C = \sqrt{\frac{\chi^2}{\chi^2 + n}} = 0,143$$

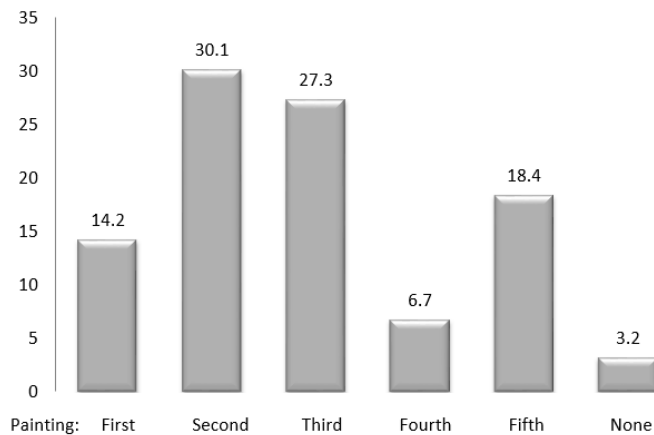
Pearson's contingency coefficient is

The empirical significance of $\alpha^* = 0,116 = 11,6\% \Rightarrow \alpha^* > 5\%$ confirms that the coefficient is not significant.

This confirms H2: There is a correlation between the pupils' grade and perception of the artist's paintings, while also confirming Hg, the main hypothesis. The third-grade pupils have expressed a higher preference for the art of Gustav Klimt through this question also, with 95% considering them interesting. A negative answer was given by 5% of the third-grade pupils. Of the fourth-grade pupils, 86% expressed an interest and 14 % did not.

The second question had the pupils choose their favorite among the paintings they observed. They took more time than for the other questions, studying the details closely.

Picture 7: Of the works of Gustav Klimt shown, I prefer:



The questionnaire results indicate that most pupils liked the second painting (30.1%). The third was chosen by 27.3%, the fifth by 18.4%, the first by 14.2%, while the fourth was chosen by 6.7%. Only 3.2% did not like any of the paintings presented.

Hypothesis H3: There is a correlation between the pupils' grade and preference for individual paintings.

Table 6: Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	8,216(a)	5	,145
Likelihood Ratio	8,332	5	,139

Linear-by-Linear Association	,222	1	,638
N of Valid Cases	282		

$$\chi^2 = 8,216 \chi^2_{\text{tab}} [\alpha=5\%, df=5] = 11,07$$

$\chi^2 < \chi^2_{\text{tab}} \rightarrow H_0$ is valid, meaning that the initial assumption of correlation between grade and preference for individual paintings may be accepted with a significance of 5%.

Table 7: Pearson's contingency coefficient for testing the independence of two nominal characteristics with chi-squared test

	Value	Approx. Sig.
Nominal by Contingency Coefficient	,168	,145
N of Valid Cases	287	

a Not assuming the null hypothesis.

b Using the asymptotic standard error assuming the null hypothesis.

$$C = \sqrt{\frac{\chi^2}{\chi^2 + n}} = 0,168$$

Pearson's contingency coefficient is

Empirical significance of $\alpha^* = 0,145 = 14,5\% \Rightarrow \alpha^* > 5\%$ confirms that the coefficient is not significant.

Table 8: Grade / Of Gustav Klimt's paintings I have seen, I prefer:

		Of Gustav Klimt's paintings I have seen, I prefer:						Total
		First painting	Second painting	Third painting	Fourth painting	Fifth painting	None	
Grade	Third	24	51	38	11	34	2	160
	Fourth	16	34	39	8	18	7	122
Total		40	85	77	19	52	9	282

The third-grade pupils preferred the second painting (51 pupils), while the fourth-grade pupils preferred the third one (39 pupils). In the third grade the third painting was chosen by 38 pupils, the fifth by 34 and the first by 24. In the fourth grade the second painting was chosen by 34 pupils, the fifth by 18 and the first one by 16 pupils. Pupils of third and fourth grades both liked the fourth painting the least. The painting in question was chosen by 11 third-grade pupils and 8 fourth-grade pupils. Two pupils in the third grade and seven in the fourth grade did not like any of the paintings shown.

Table 9: Grade / I can understand the meaning of Gustav Klimt's art:

I can understand the meaning of Gustav Klimt's art.	Total
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		YES	NO	
Grade	Third	113	47	160
	Fourth	60	62	122
Total		173	109	282

Most pupils questioned, 61.3% of them, expressed understanding of what Gustav Klimt's art represents, while 38.7% think they are unable to understand what his art represents.

By comparing the answers to this question to the answers about the preference among Klimt's paintings, we observe that 92% of the pupils questioned prefer his work and 61% perceives to understand them. We may draw a conclusion that a certain percentage likes the art in question, but is unable to understand it. This may be solved by quality content development in the future teaching process.

The statement "I believe I could paint in the manner of Gustav Klimt." was confirmed by only 21.3% of pupils questioned, a total of 60 pupils, and 78.7% was self-critical and gave a negative answer.

Table 10: Grade / "I believe I could paint in the manner of Gustav Klimt."

		I believe I could paint in the manner of Gustav Klimt.		Total
		YES	NO	
Grade	Third	33	127	160
	Fourth	27	95	122
Total		60	222	282

Only 21.3% of pupils (60 in all) agreed with the claim "I believe I could paint in the manner of Gustav Klimt.", while 78.7% disagreed.

There are differences between third- and fourth-grade pupils. Of fourth-grade pupils, 22% believe they could paint in Klimt's manner, while the same is true for 20% of third-grade pupils.

The eighth question investigates the pupil's wish to try painting like Klimt. Most of them accepted the challenge (85.8%), but a part (14.2%) rejected it.

Table 11: Grade / I would like to try to paint like Gustav Klimt.

		I would like to try to paint like Gustav Klimt.		Total
		YES	NO	
Grade	Third	138	22	160
	Fourth	104	18	122
Ukupno		242	40	282

The majority, 86% of third-grade pupils and 85% of fourth-grade pupils, would like to try to paint like Gustav Klimt.

Table 12: Grade / This is my first contact with Gustav Klimt.

		This is my first contact with Gustav Klimt.		
		YES	NO	Total
Grade	Third	106	54	160
	Fourth	97	25	122
Total		203	79	282

The last question in the questionnaire was related to prior knowledge of Gustav Klimt's opus. Prior to this research, 72% of the pupils have not had any contact with Klimt's art, while 28% have had some contact.

If we observe the third and the fourth grade, we can conclude that 66% of third-grade pupils have had their first contact with Klimt's work during this research, compared to 79% of fourth-grade pupils.

Pupils' art work

The art work was created by the pupils in the third stage of the aesthetic transfer method, the realization phase, and they showed an excellent reaction to the visual stimulus and perceived Klimt's expression as a creative impulse for their own art.



Picture 8: Expectation Picture 9: Expectation Picture 10: Expectation



Picture 11: Beech Forest | Picture 12: Beech Forest | Picture 13: Beech Forest | Picture 14: Beech Forest |



Picture 15: Beech Forest | Picture 16: Beech Forest | Picture 17: Tree of Life



Picture 17: Tree of Life Picture 18: Tree of Life Picture 19: Tree of Life



Picture 20: The Stocklet Frieze

Picture 21: The Stocklet Frieze Picture 22: The Stocklet Frieze



Picture 23: The Stocklet Frieze

Picture 24: The Kiss

Picture 25: The Kiss

Final observations

The objective of this research was to introduce pupils to the opus of Gustav Klimt, establish their reactions to his art and develop flexibility to accept new content.

Assuming that the pupils would react differently to Klimt's opus, the following hypotheses were formulated:

- Hg: It is expected that the students would perceive the art of Gustav Klimt and his manner of painting differently.
- H1: There is a correlation between the pupils' grade and preference for the artist.
- H2: There is a correlation between the pupils' grade and perception of the artist's paintings.
- H3: There is a correlation between the pupils' grade and preference for individual paintings.

The research has shown a high preference for the artist's opus, which has also proved the readiness to accept new content.

The first hypothesis was confirmed because the results have indicated that the third-grade pupils have a stronger preference for the art of Gustav Klimt. The difference in percentage, although minor, exists.

The second hypothesis was also confirmed because there was a larger percentage of positive answers by third-grade pupils than those in fourth grade. We expected that the difference will be seen relative to the children's age, but it is surprising that the younger pupils expressed a higher preference.

A part of the questionnaire pertaining to the understanding of Gustav Klimt's art resulted in mostly positive answers. Most of the pupils expressed an ability to understand the artist's work (61.3%), while some (38.7%) expressed a lack of understanding. Even if the difference between those who like and those who perceive to understand the art is minor, it exists and should be dealt with. This may be achieved through increasing the quality of teaching content and the enrichment of the pupils' artistic opus, and should not be limited to those who like the work of art, but every single pupil participating in the visual art classes.

The third hypothesis was also confirmed because the third-grade pupils expressed a better understanding of the art of Gustav Klimt. It was surprising to see the younger pupils expressing a higher degree of perceived understanding, but it is consistent with the previous results, which indicate a higher preference for the artist.

Through parts of the questionnaire relating to the pupils' evaluation of a possibility of painting in the manner of Klimt, their evaluation was mostly negative, but they did express the wish to paint like him.

These results are not surprising because the pupils understand their skill levels, but the positive attitude towards new challenges prevail.

The last question shows that a large percentage of pupils have never before heard of Klimt's opus.

The most valuable asset for this research were the results of the pupils' artistic process, their own paintings inspired by Klimt's works of art of their own choosing. They were highly motivated, and very satisfied and proud after their task was done. It is crucial to emphasize that the reception of works of art does not have replication for its goal, instead it should strive to aesthetic development and strengthening positive attitudes towards art and artistic expression in children.

The pupils are allowed to develop their intellectual, moral and aesthetic values through artistic reception, which is a way of multilevel thinking. Learning through visual arts not only includes receiving knowledge of works of art, but their strategical understanding, as well as an ability to build a cultural heritage for the young. The task of visual arts in education is helping pupils understand themselves and others using visual works of art as a guide. These components help develop a child's personality by raising awareness of themselves, which is essential for any pupil's intellectual progress.

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Challenging Issues Facing the Professionals of Child Protection in Estonia, Finland, Slovenia and Spain: A Comparative Study

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Abstract

Child maltreatment is a phenomenon which has a high impact on child health, causing serious disruptions in the development of the child and, in some extreme cases, their death. Thereby, cooperation and coordination among services and professionals is a crucial factor affecting the effective assistance of children who have been victims or witnesses of violence. However, the intervention in cases of child maltreatment is a complex issue that faces specific difficulties in every step of the intervention process which also may depend on each country's features and its protection system. Specifically, this paper is focused on the most challenging issues that different professionals of child protection services, such as social workers, health-care specialists and psychologists among others, face in Estonia, Finland, Slovenia and Spain, with particular emphasis in professional's training needs. A methodological triangulation, combining desk research, focus groups and questionnaires have been used to obtain a broader and deeper perspective of the objective of the study. The analysis developed in this paper has shown that coordination among professionals and system, legal procedures, attitudes, training issues and lack of resources can be understood as the main challenges that professionals have to face. As for professionals' training needs, the results have shown that they were different in each country. This fact might be related to idiosyncratic features and configuration of the child protection systems and the kind of potential users that they have.

Keywords: child protection, child maltreatment, professional's challenges, training needs

1. INTRODUCTION

¹ The findings obtained in this paper are part of the project entitled "Support services for child victims of violence in Estonia, Finland, Slovenia and Spain" (JUST/2014/RDAP/AG/ICT/7469) funded under the Rights, Equality and Citizenship Programme (REC Programme) and the Justice Programme of the European Commission.

Child maltreatment by definition encompasses various types of abuse, physical, sexual and physiological abuse, as well as neglect and exploitation of children or young people; it is a phenomenon which has a severe impact on the child's health, causing serious disruptions in the development of the child and, in some extreme cases, can lead to death. The intervention process in these cases is a complex issue that can face specific challenges depending on the type of abuse, intervention procedure, characteristics and protection system of a country. As children face difficulties when it comes to reporting violent acts committed against them, the role of professionals working in this field is crucial. Therefore, professionals working on any such case must be able to identify different kinds of child maltreatment and act according to each particular case of abuse and circumstance. In this situation, the cooperation and coordination among services and professionals, as well as their skills, are key factors affecting the prevention and the effective assistance of children who have been victims or have witnessed violence.

Given this premise, the principal aim of this paper is to identify the most challenging issues and difficulties faced by professionals involved in child protection (by professionals we refer to social workers, health-care specialists and psychologists amongst others) in Estonia, Finland, Slovenia and Spain. Specifically, particular attention has been paid to professionals training needs as a key aspect in the process of assisting and supporting children who have fallen victim to violence or who have witnessed violence. To this end, a case study in the above mentioned countries has been developed by combining desk research and existing sources of information in order to determine the training requirements that should be provided to individuals involved in child protection services.

This paper is divided into four main sections. The first section, the "Theoretical Framework" presents a general overview of child maltreatment in the aforementioned countries, with a special attention to the network of professionals and services that assist in situations of child abuse, and the main difficulties they face in each country. The second section "Methodological issues" describes the methodology used in this study. The "Results" section, gathers the main findings obtained in each country regarding professionals training needs. Finally, the last section provides a summary of the main conclusions and ideas reached in this paper.

2. THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

This section analyses and compares the child maltreatment phenomenon among the countries studied, paying special attention to the main available resources when dealing with these cases. Furthermore, this section offers an analysis of the main problems that professionals working in this field have to face.

2.1. An overview of child maltreatment in Estonia, Finland, Slovenia and Spain

Child maltreatment is a phenomenon which can severely impact on the child's health, causing serious disruptions in the development of the child and, in some extreme cases, their death. The intervention procedure in these cases is a complex issue due to the fact that the driven factors and prevention strategies differ depending on victim's age, the environment where such violence occurs and the relationship between the victim and the abuser (WHO, 2009). In addition, intervention faces specific difficulties in every step of the process which also may depend on each country's characteristics and protection system.

In tackling this issue, an important first step is to delimitate what we consider to be child maltreatment. Although there are several ways to classify child maltreatment, depending on several variables such as the moment, authors, kind of action and its intensity (Spanish Childhood Observatory, 2006; The Spanish Ministry of Health, Social Services and Equality, 2014), according to WHO (1999) four kinds of child abuse stand out: physical, emotional and psychological, sexual abuse and negligence. Beyond these four types of abuse, a child being witness to domestic violence has also been regarded as abuse, or considered a kind of psychological maltreatment (The Spanish Ministry of Health, Social Policy and Equality, 2011).

Although cases of child abuse can take place in various contexts, many of them occur in the family or within the home, with parents being the main aggressors (Pinheiro, 2006). This fact shows the worrying relevance of violence within the family, which has also been evidenced in the case countries in this study. For example, in Slovenia every year 300 suspicious cases of neglect and abuse are reported to the police together with around 150 cases of sexual assault against a person under 15 years old. Thus, Slovenian social work centres mainly deal with cases of domestic violence, in which children

have suffered neglect or some kind of psychological physical or sexual abuse. In Finland, due to the sociodemographic characteristics of the Finnish population, immigrant minors deserve important attention since they come from a wide range of backgrounds such as immigrant families, refugees, asylum seekers or illegal immigrants. Within this collective, maltreatment is mostly related to domestic violence or related to cultural background under the so-called harmful traditions. In Spain, according to Save the Children (2015), twelve children were killed due to domestic violence from 2013 to 2015. Studies have also shown that fathers are the main aggressors in cases of physical, psychological, and sexual abuse while mothers are the main aggressors in negligence cases (Ministry of Health, Social Services and Equality, 2014).

Despite the alarming prevalence of violence against children within families, it is considered that official statistics might only be the tip of the iceberg as a result of the difficulty in identifying the real number of child maltreatment cases. Beyond limitations such as the scarcity of available data, child maltreatment detection is particularly difficult due to several factors such as fear of reporting abuse, the difficulties that children must overcome when reporting violent acts, and the “social acceptance” of some kind of said violence (Pinheiro, 2006; Save the Children, 2015; Spanish Childhood Observatory, 2006). Along with this, some child maltreatment forms, such as psychological abuse, could be more difficult to detect (Arruabarrena, 2011; Spanish Childhood Observatory, 2006). Consequently, prevention, detection and effective assistance to children who have been victims or witnessed violence requires skilled specialists and the cooperation and coordination among services and professionals working in this field, so that integral attention to these situations can be administered timely and successfully. The following sections describe the resources available for the protection and prevention of child maltreatment situations in Estonia, Finland, Slovenia and Spain.

2.2. Resources available for the protection of children against maltreatment, and difficulties faced by the professionals involved in child protection services

As mentioned before, coordination and cooperation between professionals as well as services and resources are crucial when it comes to providing an effective integral attention to child maltreatment cases. In this section we describe the main resources available, in the studied countries, to protect children who have been victims of abuse. Special attention has been paid to the most important legal resources available, to the job of professionals working in the child protection field and the coordination among them. Furthermore, this section highlights some of the difficulties encountered in the child protection system by country.

2.2.1. Legal framework

Legal framework constitutes an essential tool in the protection and guarantee of children’s rights and helps avoid harmful disruptions to their development. Particularly, during the 20th century the protection of children has been a topic considered by public authorities. During this process, an important milestone has been the establishment of the United Nations and the Convention on the Rights of the Child in 1989, inspiring and affecting both national and international legal frameworks in this matter (Alemán, 2014). However, despite the European Union action in protecting children’s rights, national legislation in this matter in each country differs, configuring different national systems (Bartolomé, 2013).

In particular, the Slovenian legal framework is trying to build a culture of zero tolerance towards violence against children by prohibiting corporal punishment, at home or by family members. Currently, the Slovenian Criminal Code (KZ-1B, 2011) details criminal offences against the sexual integrity of children including exploitation through prostitution (Article 175) and manufacture, possession and distribution of pornographic material (Article 176). In addition, its last amendment introduced grooming as a crime in Article 173. Besides the Criminal Code (KZ-1B, 2011), the Slovenian legal framework is also made up of some rules adopted by the Slovenian Ministry of Education and Sport and the Slovenian Media Act. Hence, the rules adopted by the Slovenian Ministry of Education and Sport when dealing with domestic violence in the educational field specify ways to assist children who have been victims of abuse, and forms to cooperate with other institutions. In addition, the Slovenian Media Act tries to protect children by requiring that advertisements featuring children should not include scenes of violence, pornography or anything that could damage their health, mental or physical development. In Estonia the last Child Protection Act which entered into force in January, 1st 2016 is the main statute for the protection of children nowadays. Specifically, in section 12 of this Act the Government of the Republic is in charge of approving drafts and national strategies and ensuring enough funding. Also the Violence Prevention Strategy 2015-2010 together with the Child Protection Act must achieve set objectives in this area. In Finland, the Act on Child Custody and Right of Access (361/1983) prohibits oppressing, physically punishing or subjecting a child to any other form of abusive treatment. The Criminal Code

of Finland (39/1889) prohibits sexual abuse of and violence against children. The protection of children is defined in the Child Welfare Act (417/2007) and this Act is applied to all children in Finland regardless of their background. Furthermore, this Act establishes the kind of professionals who can work in the child protection field (Article 25) and stresses the duty to report child abuse cases to the police. Specifically, in Finland, municipalities are in charge of child welfare services and social workers are responsible for child welfare in these municipalities. Similarly, in Spain, the Spanish model for child protection is decentralised and organised through the autonomous communities. According to Article 39 of the Spanish Constitution¹, public powers must provide comprehensive protection to children. As autonomous communities have legal powers to guarantee social assistance, regional governments have developed their own laws on child protection leading to a decentralized structure in the child protection field. Thus, Organic Law 8/2015, 22nd July ²and Law 26/2015, 28th July ³modifying the child and adolescent protection system are a reference for the legislative development of the autonomous communities, guaranteeing coordination and a uniform protection over the entire territory. Furthermore, in Spain the national plans such as 2nd Strategic National Plan for Childhood Adolescence (PENIA, 2013-2016) and the Comprehensive Plan for Family Support (PIAF, 2015-2017) constitute a framework of cooperation between administrations and agents, establishing diverse strategic lines to follow, in order to achieve the wellbeing of minors and families.

2.2.2. Networking: coordination and cooperation between professionals working with child abuse victims.

Networking has a large role in the timely and effective assistance of children and their families. Generally speaking, the purpose of the network is to solve everyday problems of the person needing assistance and delimit relationships between certain people or groups. Furthermore, networking can be regarded as an opportunity to work effectively by sharing the available information to help those needing assistance in a less painful manner (Korp & Rääk, 2004). According to Haage (2015), networking is made up of two modalities: the primary and the secondary network. The first one is composed of parents, siblings, relatives, neighbours, and friends whereas the second one consists of various professionals belonging to the network through certain formalized channels.

In particular, the secondary network is especially important when the primary network shrinks back. In other words, when the parents are not able to take care of their children or there is a maltreatment situation, other institutions and professionals have to take part in the process to protect minors (Department of Social Welfare of the Government of Valencia, 2011). On the whole, this secondary network in cases of child maltreatment is made up of professionals belonging to areas such as education, health, social and police services, legal and philanthropic organizations. For example, in Estonia child protection workers, operating in administration of the Social Insurance Board or in local and county governments, play a significant role by performing diverse tasks such as raising awareness in the community, direct work with clients and case management. As mentioned before, in Finland there is a large number of professionals working together to ensure the protection of children. Within the Finnish secondary network, the police service has a crucial role in the detection of cases as, according to Article 25 of Child Welfare Act, professionals and authorities must report any suspicious case of abuse to them. However, child protection workers and social work centres are crucial actors when there is a detected case of child abuse. Similarly, in Slovenia, the secondary network is made up of several professionals and services such as the police, social work centres and centres for children and teenagers, schools, counselling centres for children, teenagers and philanthropic organizations. In particular, among this network, two good practices merit particular attention: the project called "Defender-the voice of a Child" and "TOM telefon". The former consists of a child defender network focused on making sure that children are aware of the most important information concerning their life. The latter, "TOM telefon", provides a helpline to help children and young people on issues such as Internet use, online bullying, sexting and other kinds of online abuse. Likewise, in Spain, professionals from the aforementioned areas are involved in the child protection field in order to provide an integral attention to child abuse situations by playing different roles. Consequently, while the main role of the police, health and education services is more related to the identification of maltreatment cases, social services are responsible for evaluating every situation and carrying out actions to improve the child's situation once a case

¹ Constitución Española. Boletín Oficial del Estado, 29 de diciembre de 1978, núm. 311, pp. 29313-29424.

² Ley Orgánica 8/2015, de 22 de julio, de modificación del sistema de protección a la infancia y a la adolescencia. Boletín Oficial del Estado, 23 de julio de 2015, núm. 175, pp. 61871-61889.

³ Ley 26/2015, de 28 de julio, de modificación del sistema de protección a la infancia y a la adolescencia. Boletín Oficial del Estado, 29 de julio de 2015, núm. 180, pp. 64544-64613

has been detected (Department of Social Welfare of the Government of Valencia, 2010; 2011). In order to coordinate the aforementioned services and professionals, the Spanish Ministry of Health, Social Services and Equality (2014) launched a protocol for action in cases of child maltreatment with the aim of offering general guidelines for the actions that the professionals have to carry out in these cases.

Therefore, the cooperation and coordination of professionals is fundamental since it pinpoints the role of professionals working in these cases by avoiding duplicities in services and improving the effectiveness of the net, offering a multidisciplinary solution to a complex problem. However, the main challenge in child maltreatment cases may be the coordination among professionals and system, reducing the effectiveness of the responses given.

2.3. Difficulties faced by the professionals involved in child protection services

As previously mentioned, a case of child maltreatment is a sensitive and complex matter which faces several intrinsic difficulties. In tackling with these cases, professionals have to deal with specific obstacles in every step of the process, together with some difficulties which may depend on the characteristics and legislations of each country's protection system. For example, the impact analysis of the draft Child Protection Act in Estonia and the abused child assistance system highlight the main problems within the Estonian system. First of all, the fact that there is no single organisation responsible for helping abused children in Estonia can be regarded as a factor affecting victims. In this regard, it was noted that victims could end up escaping the notice of different professionals and, consequently, not receiving the right services. In addition, the lack of central coordination and the poor communication among professionals were considered to be limiting, impacting on the potential re-victimization of children who may end up talking about their case to various specialists. Firstly, although supervision was regarded key point in this analysis, it was argued that the supervision system of child protector workers had not been consistently developed, not being available to everyone. Secondly, some challenges detected in Estonia were related to training and professional development. Thus, after Estonia regained its independence in 1990 training and teaching of social workers, also child protector workers began in Tallinn University. While many people acquired the needed education, there were many people that did the job without having the right knowledge and education for this specific job. Estonia still faces some challenges related to training and professional development. There are still child protector workers working in the social work field without having the necessary education for the job and thus, professionals may use different methods and techniques when dealing with child maltreatment cases. A big step forward to change the problem has been made in Estonia. According to Section 19 of the Child Protection Act, which came into force in 2016, a child protection worker should have professional training and higher education. Therefore, child protection workers who do not have the needed education should have it in two years. Together with this, the Estonian certification system, more focused on professional certificates and theoretical knowledge than on experiences and additional training, was considered another limitation, as real cases go further than theoretical knowledge. Thirdly, the shortage of child protection workers was noted as a constraint, making access to services more difficult. As a result, more attention may be paid to consequences rather than prevention in the intervention of child maltreatment cases. Finally, public attitude was considered as an important factor when it comes to reporting abuse cases, affecting the professional's ability to recognize and offer intervention to a possible case of child abuse (Salla, Surva, Ilves, Soo & Reinomägi, 2013). According to the aforementioned analysis, public attitudes are relevant since little attention is paid to supporting parenthood and to returning children to their biological families in the future. Further than these limitations, a study developed by Soo, Ilves and Strömpl (2009) showed that professionals had different awareness of the existence of laws, regulations and other guidelines related to providing assistance to an abused child in Estonia. Similarly, in Slovenia the lack of resources, human, economic or logistic, such as specific programs and training for professionals, seems to be an important issue. In addition, coordination among professionals and lack of recognition of modern forms of aggression as well the difference between law and practice, are considered challenges that professionals working in child protection field face in Slovenia. In this respect, in Finland, some specific difficulties are related to legal procedures and the duty to report child abuse cases to the police. Explicitly, the Child Welfare Act in Article 25 establishes that a wide range of professionals from different fields have the duty to notify the municipal body responsible for social services if they discover a case in which it is necessary to open an investigation to monitor and ensure the welfare of a child. However, more information may be needed among professionals about what cases they are obliged to report. Likewise, in Spain, some professional challenges are linked to the detection of child maltreatment cases. This is a very delicate issue, since the real number of child maltreatment cases is unknown, given that most of them are not detected (Save the Children, 2015; Spanish Childhood Observatory, 2006). According to Spanish Childhood Observatory (2006) and the Department of Social Welfare of the Government of Valencia (2010) factors such

as the lack of a clear definition of child maltreatment, the difficulty in distinguishing child maltreatment from accidental lesions, fear of reporting, poor training of professionals and the lack of confidence in the child protection system may be potential impediments when detecting child abuse cases. Beyond the detection step, the intervention process in Spain also presents several challenges. Specifically, professionals face difficulties caused by the lack of involvement of the family, the balance between interventions based on helping and controlling the family, and the various differences in ethnic and cultural lifestyles (Basells, 2006) Furthermore, lack of resources and prevention programmes needed to cope with child maltreatment cases are also highlighted as factors hindering child protection in the Spanish legislation context (Trenado, Pons-Salvador & Cerezo, 2009).

Therefore, although different challenges have been identified in each country, detection is a common sensitive issue in every place, due to some factors such as public attitudes or cultural aspects, the difficulty in identifying some kind of abuses, the fear of reporting them and the lack of knowledge or specific training. Moreover, the lack of coordination within the system, insufficient human and economic resources, as well as inadequate training of social workers can be considered common difficulties in child protection services by literature. Specifically, some of the main shared obstacles in the countries studied have clearly been poor knowledge and insufficient skills of professionals working in this field in respect to several matters. As mentioned above, effective assistance of children who have been victims or witnessed violence requires intervention by skilled professionals, who must be able to identify and deal effectively with different kinds of child maltreatment. Consequently, this paper pays particular attention to professional's training needs as a key aspect in the process of assisting and supporting children who have fallen victim to violence or who have witnessed violence, in Estonia, Finland, Slovenia and Spain, as a way of improving the ability and capacity to provide assistance to children affected, by professionals working in this field.

3. METHODOLOGICAL ISSUES

As mentioned before, the main aim of this report is to identify social workers training needs in Estonia, Finland, Slovenia and Spain. Specifically, this section describes the methodology and instruments used in each country in order to gather information about the potential training needs of the professionals working in the field of child protection.

3.1. Methodological issues in Estonia

In order to map the professional's training needs of child protection workers and psychological counsellors in Estonia, desk research and a content analysis of some relevant reports dealing with this topic was developed. Specifically, the following documents were analysed:

Table 1: Documents analysed in Estonia

Abused child assistance system, Karu (2015)
Training needs assessment analysis of child protection officials, The National Institute for Health Development (2015)
The training plan for the basic training of child protection officials, The National Institute for Health Development (2015)
The need for training and occupational counselling for psychologists providing psychological counselling services, the Ministry of Justice (2015)
Summary of the impact analysis of the draft Child Protection Act, CASS University of Tartu (2013)

3.2. Methodological issues in Finland

In Finland they used the questionnaire ¹ technique in order to find out the professional's training needs. The questionnaire was made up of 6 questions, combined with the Likert scale, to gather quantitative data, and open-ended questions to gather qualitative data. This questionnaire was handed over to specialists working in different fields at national level.

¹ More details about the questionnaire are shown in the annex

The answers received came from communal social and health-care specialists and specialists working in philanthropic organizations and private sector. The total amount of answers received was 95 (N=95). Precisely, the composition of the sample was made up of different professionals as Table 2 shows:

Table 2: Finland composition sample

77% of professionals from communal social or health-care
15% of professionals from association or organisation
4% of professionals from private sector
4% Other professionals

3.3. Methodological issues in Slovenia

In Slovenia they analysed the professional's training needs through several techniques and methods. In detail the techniques and methods applied were the following:

- Desk research: based on the analysis of web sources such as programs and portals to help child abuse victims and web sources of legislation, regulation and strategies.
- Statistical analysis: analysis of criminal acts reported to the police in Slovenia on victims under 18 years old.
- Interviews¹: 19 structured interviews with 22 questions were conducted (N=19). The interview covered the following topics: basic information; statistics; forms of help and competences. Interviewees were different specialists working on cases of children victims of violence. Specifically, these professionals belonged to fields and organizations shown in Table 3:

Table 3: Sample of Slovenian centres

Social Work Centres
Juvenile Centres and Residential Groups for Children and Youth
Human right Ombudsman-"defender-The Voice Of A Child" Project
Tom Telefon-Helpline For Children And Youth In Need
Safe Houses For Abused Women And Children
Safe.si And Spletno Oko (web eye)- Centre For Safe Use of the Internet
Police/Criminal Police Directorate- Homicide and Sexual Offences Section (child sexual abuse department)
Judges in Family Courts
Primary School-school Counsellors

3.4. Methodological issues in Spain

In order to obtain qualitative information, such as the kind of training needed by professionals working in child protection field, the "focus group" technique was applied in Spain. Specifically, the Spanish focus group was made up of eight professionals with the aim to gather several opinions about this topic. According to the criteria of homogeneity and heterogeneity (Canales & Peinado, 1995), social field professionals and philanthropic organizations were invited. In detail, the profiles of the professionals were the following:

Table 4: Spanish focus group professionals' profiles

Two social workers from municipal social services
A psychologist from family, minors, and youth Section from a local administration
A psychologist from a philanthropic organization
A social worker from a philanthropic organization

¹ The extract of the interview is shown in the annex.

A psychologist from a centre for minors
A social worker working in a hospital
A regional manager of a philanthropic organization

The session of the focus group in Spain was developed and structured according to Llopis (2004) instructions¹.

4. RESULTS FROM THE ANALYSIS

This section presents the results obtained in the countries studied regarding the professionals' training needs in Estonia, Finland, Slovenia and Spain.

In Estonia, desk research has shown that there is room for improvement in training needs among psychologists and child protector workers. Firstly, regarding psychologists, the analysis has shown that they feel the need for continuing their education in almost all areas of counselling. On the basis of the literature reviewed, the following necessary training topics have been exposed among psychologists: trauma work, complex trauma stabilization, therapy workshops, specific topics (e.g. bodily injuries, domestic violence and parents with a personality disorder, a child caught in the divorce process, the psychological self-help techniques, family violence, protracted grief, and motivation) and legislations to protect victims. Secondly, regarding the training needs of child protection workers, according to a study conducted by TAI (2015a; 2015b), 90% of them expressed the need for further training. In this study, some topics requiring additional training were mapped out. Among them, some important topics were stressed, such as recognizing an abused child and working with families, case management, child welfare assessment framework, means of primary level assessment, motivational interview, networking seminars, forms of conciliation and several aspects related to the legal framework.

The results in Finland showed three main areas in which professionals would rather have a deeper knowledge. First of all, over 80% of professionals felt that they needed more training concerning psychological information about traumas. Specifically, workers in this field stressed the necessity for information about traumas and how to reach children who have been abused or have witnessed violence, or could become victims. Secondly, almost 80% of the interviewees expressed the need for extra training regarding sexual abuse and dealing with victims of foreign backgrounds. Given that a specific group of victims are children of immigrants, 85% of the interviewees said that they would welcome more training regarding this topic, also because of the increase in number of refugees in Finland and their difficulty to understand the Finnish system of protection. Thirdly, legislation was a sensitive topic as half of the interviewees reported that they would require more training about cases in which there is a need to notify the police. Indeed, according to the results, many of the social and health-care specialists did not mention their duty to notify the police when there was a case of child maltreatment. Finally, as for the types of training, 59% of the respondents preferred face to face training to online training. Moreover, some interviewees specified that training based on group conversations would give new perspectives and ideas on how to best deal with child maltreatment cases.

In Slovenia several professional' training needs have been identified by different centres where professionals were interviewed. Although some of them varied depending on centres or the sort of services, Slovenian results have shown some common areas in which professionals have expressed the necessity of in depth knowledge. Areas identified include topics such as training on how to recognise different forms of violence, such as online violence, children's needs, how to communicate with children and how to provide help to child abuse victims.

In Spain, the content analysis of the Spanish focus group mainly discussed the type of training needed and also what kind of content it should have. As for the first aspect, the professionals showed a preference for practical training. In this regard, they stressed the need to have time for reflection in order to share proposals and experiences that may contribute to knowledge exchange. Consequently, they proposed, as a useful type of training, seminars or direct monitoring of cases by other professionals in order to offer opinion or advice. The second main point they discussed focused on addressing the potential training topics. The content analysis showed the following important subjects for consideration: the

¹ The structure of the focus group session is shown in the annex

methodology for intervention, interviewing skills and the management of emotional involvement when dealing with cases of abuse. Therefore the main conclusions reached in the Spanish focus group was the consensus of the necessity of a practical training course, based on the professional expertise of specialists, and the exchange of knowledge focused on methodological aspects related to the intervention in cases of maltreatment

The following Table 5 summarizes the main professional' needs identified in each country studied:

Table 5: Results: potential professionals' training needs by country. Summary table

Country	Results main professionals training needs
Estonia	Trauma work Complex trauma stabilization Therapy workshops Legislation Psychological self-help techniques and family violence Legislation Recognizing an abused child and work with families Case management Child welfare assessment framework Motivational interview Networking seminars Forms of conciliation
Finland	Psychological information about traumas Sexual abuse and victims of foreign background Legislation Face to face training
Slovenia	Forms of violence and, specifically, online forms of violence Training focused on providing help to child abuse victims Children' needs Communication with children
Spain	A need of a practical training course based on professional expertise and knowledge exchange related to the intervention in cases

5. CONCLUSIONS

Child maltreatment is a phenomenon which has a traumatic impact on all aspects of a child's life, causing serious disruptions to their development. Although physical, psychological, sexual abuse and neglect are the most common forms of violence against children, new forms, such as use of apps and the Internet, are starting to appear. In addition, being witness to domestic violence has also been regarded as a recognisable form of child abuse or considered as psychological maltreatment (The Spanish Ministry of Health, Social Policy and Equality, 2011). In order to provide an integral attention, professionals from different areas must work together; they should be able to share cooperation and coordination with services and other piers, as this would prove to be a crucial factor in providing effective assistance to children. Usually, specialists from the education sector, health care, civil and police services, legal and philanthropic organizations are involved in the child protection field. However, the intervention process in cases of child abuse is a sensitive issue that faces specific difficulties depending on several variables, such us the type of abuse, steps taken for intervention procedures and country's characteristics and protection system. In this situation, the cooperation and coordination among services and professionals, as well as their skills, are key factors affecting the prevention and the effective assistance of abused children. Specifically, the role played by professionals working in this field is crucial, they must be able to identify and cope with different kinds of abuse and equally diverse cases of child maltreatment.

Given this situation, the purpose of this paper has been to identify the most challenging issues and difficulties for the professional workers involved in child protection services in Estonia, Finland, Slovenia and Spain; It is known from previous literature that training of professionals is a real challenge that exists in these countries (Childhood Observatory, 2006; the Department of Social Welfare of the Government of Valencia, 2010).

In order to fully explore the professionals' training needs in these countries, a case study has been developed by combining desk research and primary sources of information. The results have shown that in each country, professionals needs have been different. These findings might be related to idiosyncratic features and configuration of the child protection system in each country and also due to the kind of potential users that they have. For example, results in Estonia have shown that the main training needs of professionals are linked to trauma work and psychological and intervention techniques, further development of skills for recognising an abused child, networking and legislation. In Finland, the results obtained have shown that particular attention should be paid to child sexual abuse victims, especially so on children of immigrants, psychological information about traumas and legislation and criminal proceedings. Thus, probably because of the demographic characteristics of the people in Finland, and the increase in refugees, multicultural aspects will require more attention in the future. Besides, legislation and criminal proceedings were also stressed among Finnish training needs. This knowledge is important as it might give the victims better access to their rights and encourage professionals to report abuse cases to the authorities. The research work developed in Slovenia has shown that recognizing forms of violence in general and, especially, new forms of abuse through online channels has been a potential topic of additional training for professionals. They also expressed a clear need of training focused on providing assistance to child abuse victims. Lack of training in this particular area might cause the reduction of direct work and counselling in cases of child abuse in some organizations such as social centres, schools, youth centres and philanthropic organizations. Finally, in Spain the results obtained through the focus group have shown that training courses usually do not take into account the challenges and difficulties professional workers face in real cases of abuse, as they are divorced from social reality. For this reason, they stressed the need of a practical training course based on professional expertise and knowledge exchange related to the intervention in cases of child maltreatment.

In conclusion, the present research paper has contributed positively in broadening and exposing awareness over the training needs of professional workers in Estonia, Finland, Slovenia and Spain, stressing the role played by professionals in cases of child maltreatment. It is considered that results reached in this study show a significant insight into the necessity to reinforce the abilities and resources available to professionals working with these sensitive cases, in an effort to increase the effective and timely assistance of children who have been victims or have witnessed violence.

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8. APPENDIXES

1.1. Slovenian extract of interview

The Slovenian extract of interview was the following:

<p>BASIC INFORMATION</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none">1. Which organization are you employed in?2. What position? <p>STATISTICS</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none">3. How many cases of child abuse has your organization proceeded in the previous year?4. How many cases of children, witnessing violence have you handled/proceeded in the previous year?5. Who most commonly reports cases of child abuse victims? How do they come in contact with you?6. What is the most common form of child abuse that you encounter?7. Do you work on cases of online violence? How many have you proceeded in the previous year?8. Which legal basis (laws, declarations, conventions) do you most often lean on when working with child abuse victims? <p>FORMS OF HELP/ HELP PROVIDED</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none">9. What programs and forms of help do you provide for child abuse victims?10. What is the procedure (from the beginning to the end)?11. How long do the proceedings usually take?12. What do you believe works well in the proceedings when working with child abuse victims?13. What do you believe are problems in the proceedings of child abuse victims?14. How good is your cooperation with other organizations that work on providing help for child abuse victims? Please rate the question on scale of 1 –5: (1) poor, (2) fair, (3) good, (4) very good and (5) excellent.15. What are the most common issues / cases / reasons that are covered through collaboration?16. Which are the organizations you most often collaborate with?17. Do you collaborate with foreign organizations? If yes, which ones? <p>COMPETENCE</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none">18. What skills and knowledge, in your opinion a person, working with child abuse victims, needs to have?19. Which professional seminars on the topic of child abuse (victims) have you attended in the previous year?20. Which topics do you believe these seminars lack?21. Which topics, in your opinion, are most important and should be obliged for professionals working in the field of child abuse (victims)?22. How would you validate professional work with child abuse victims? Please rate the question on scale of 1 –5: (1) poor, (2) fair, (3) good, (4) very good and (5) excellent
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9.2. Finland questionnaire

The questionnaire which was administrated in Finland was the following:

<ol style="list-style-type: none">1. Where do you work?2. Have you participated in trainings concerning how to be in contact with a child who has fallen victim of violence or who has witnessed violence?

3. Which helping authorities do you get in contact with when you have received information about a child who has fallen victim of violence or who has witnessed violence?
4. On a scale of 1 to 5, evaluate how necessary extra training is concerning the following areas (cases where a child has fallen victim of violence or has witnessed violence):
 - a child welfare notification
 - a notification to the police
 - general information about legislation
 - crises and traumas caused by violence
 - sensitive treatment of victims
 - sexual abuse of children
 - child victims of foreign background
5. How would you want trainings to be organised (contact or online trainings)?
6. Comment freely on how to develop trainings concerning children who have fallen victim of violence or has witnessed violence

9.3 Focus group in Spain

The session of the focus group in Spain was developed and structured according to Llopis (2004) instructions. Specifically, the session was structured as follows:

1. **INTRODUCTION**
 - a. Moderators introduction
 - b. Introduction institution
 - c. Objectives of the meeting
 - i. Topic of the meeting
 - d. Confidentiality and recording of the meeting
 - e. Rules of the meeting
 - i. Several opinions, consensus is not needed
 - ii. There is not an absolute truth
 - iii. Not to interrupt
 - iv. Honest answers
2. **INTRODUCTION OF PARTICIPANTS**
 - a. Name
 - b. Institution
 - c. Position
3. **WARM-UP DISCUSSION (Difficulties in a hypothetical case of child maltreatment)**
 - a. Detection
 - b. Notification
 - c. Intervention
 - d. Professionals coordination
4. **FREE DISCUSSION.**
 - a. Skills self-learned
5. **TOPICS TO DISCUSS**
 - a. Current training deficiencies
 - b. Description of courses taken that have been helpful
 - c. Type of future training
6. **OPINIONS TO BE CONSIDERED (“Advice to the President”)**
7. **CLOSING AND THANKS**

Professionalization, Insertion, Mobility and Professional Status. a Comparative Analysis in Populations of Doctors

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Abstract

This study is in line with the analyses of university and working career in their interaction in relation with conditioning factors, carried out by Dr. Aparicio for the past two decades with a variety of populations. The aim was to analyze the relation between working conditions and future working perspectives through social representations. There are three core variables: Professional Mobility, Professional Status and perspectives regarding the future of their careers at the personal development level and within the organizations, considering, on the one hand, insufficient Professionalization and the increasing market demands; and on the other the impact structural limits have on the identity level. The methodology used was quanti-qualitative (semi-structured questionnaires, interviews, and hierarchical evocations, out of which we will analyze one node: Labor Market). The population consisted of doctors (2005-2012) from the National University of Cuyo, in Argentina and the CNAM (France) of different courses of study. The analysis is done from a systemic sui generis perspective involving three interwoven levels (macro-meso-micro-macro), called The Theory of the Three-Dimensional Spiral of Sense (See Aparicio, 2015 c and d; also, 2005 2007a; 2007b, 2013a, 2014 b; 2015 c, 2015 d). The results show that it enters in the nucleus of such representations, which relates to the current issue of professional mobility, as regards different study courses and contexts; we can also observe the effect of professionalization on the insertion environment, and on the personal and organizational identity.

Keywords : Professional Mobility – Status Professional Careers – Professionalization – Social Representations – Labor Market

1. Brief Framework

This research work is part of the issue of Professionalization, (Lang, 1999; Bourdoncle 1993) associated to the issue of professional, personal, institutional and social identity (See. Part I. Introduction; Aparicio, 2015 c and d; 2014 b.)

This is part of a set of continuous works concerning professional performance of different populations (university graduates, drop-outs, students who take longer to complete their studies, teachers, etc.), covering 20 years of existence of different courses of study at Universidad Nacional de Cuyo (UNCuyo, Argentina).

We have worked on two core issues: Identity related to Professionalization in the field of Training and other humanistic sciences in institutions in both countries related to Professional Status / Professional Mobility / Professional Insertion and Satisfaction.

Why should we study these issues related to Professional Mobility and the Professional Status?

Doctors in Social and Humanistic Sciences, in general, are oriented towards two fields: research in scientific entities and teaching at the highest level, in Argentina but not in France, where the degree only enables them to hold a position of "Maitres de conférences", and only after 20 years of teaching practice can they reach the status of "Professeur des Universités", standing for the "*habilitation a diriger des recherches* - HDR. The latter status is reached by a small minority of practicing doctors.

The situation of scientific entities in Argentina, despite the progress and investment – is as follows:

a. On the one hand, the scientific system promotes Professionalization and Continuing Training by means of fellowship programs and exchanges overseas. However, since they are rigid national state systems – with hard regulation not always updated to the new demands and even to the same training programs offered by CONICET –, there are constraints regarding the time to be away from the country. This causes that, to mention but a case, scholarships that have been awarded for a year, due to ranking or legal reasons, should be somewhat wasted, using only 6 months within a six-year period for stays at scientific entities overseas. There is an offer of training alternatives and a time limit to make it effective. Contradiction, then, causes uncertainty and it demands greater efforts from researchers in order to make progress within short times. There is overvaluation of Professionalization, on the one hand, and a true constraint, on the other.

b. The situation worsens as the professional status reached as a researcher gets higher. In fact, Mobility does not rise easily in the hierarchical scale since the number of positions is limited (the higher the status in the scale, the fewer the positions). Once a high status is reached, to this we should add the number of demands in terms of original knowledge production, international transmission, transference to the corresponding system, among other aspects. In addition, there appear the problems of evaluations; always tinged with a possible subjectivity, despite the fact the scientific system intends to take the necessary precautions so that such evaluations can be most objective. Also, we are taking steps forward into standardization of grills which have many aspects in common with the ones used by other developed countries.

c. This higher status also demands more commitment to society in terms of training material for human resources (little demand when a researcher is placed in the lowest categories of the system due to a real impossibility). This requires extra time. Once more, the dimension “temporality” appears hampering Satisfaction or Well-being in those who research and should lead programs, projects, groups (of other researchers, professionals, and support personnel), to name but a few cases. (Aparicio, 2014 a, Fiedler, 1967; Andrews et al, 1979).

d. Back to regulations, there exists some over prescription of rules opposed to actual possibilities to come with the demands (Goffman, 1965).

Thus, there is a certain distance between what is expected – one of the issues of this work, expectations – and the actual possibilities of realization in daily occupational practice.

In general, considering the existing literature, it can be said that there is a certain tension between the area of work and the area of training, as well as between the expectations at the moment of vocational choice and the actual experience in the professional environment; also, between the “ideal” situation expected by the PhD students and the real one of the PhD graduates; between the representation of the doctors and their world experience.

Is there certain over prescription in the institutions to respond to the changes in the labor market along with under prescription in the means used to such response, as it is usually said? Within this framework, the links between the personal training experience and the professional life become a source of concern in the field of training and, especially, in the studies related to humanities and social sciences.

Besides, this issue involving institutional and even disciplinary identities, as well as the identity reconstruction processes, is accompanied, as it has just been said, by actual *insertion conditions*, duration and *professional mobility*; all of them will have an impact on professional performances (Dubar 1991, 2000 a, b and c; Sansaulieu, 1977; Silva & Aparicio, 2015 a and b).

e. Another contradiction shows up: there is social value through the media, more and more evident every day, affecting different age groups, including children. More and more we watch cartoons inviting children to become the researchers of the future. However, there is the other side of the coin: undervaluation of salaries. This even more evident and critical if we consider, on the one hand, the investment high status researchers have to make in order to keep their status and/or to try to go up the hierarchical scale. On the other hand, if we consider the natural desire regarding personal and professional achievement (particularly if they reached a high status in the scientific hierarchy)

There are many institutional efforts which have not always been accepted. In the specific field of training, the new professionals encounter various difficulties, in addition to lack of recognition. Some authors even speak of de-professionalization of those graduates on this field, and they are left behind into a process of “proletarianization” (Ozga & Lawn, 1981). There exist other problems: “semi-professional” status in a broad sense (Etzioni, 1969), the devaluation of

the graduate's image in the field of education (training) along with an ever growing weakening (burnout) (Tardiff & Lessard 1999; Maroy 2006; Aparicio, 2006a, 2006 b, 2007 a, 2007 b, 2009 a, 2009 b, 2009 c, 2013 a).

f. Finally, the higher the professional status, the more the demands in terms of not only disciplinary but also collective and social competences: management (of researchers and technicians), consensus, negotiation, leadership (Argyris & Shon, 1974, 1978, 1996a and b). The researcher who is the head of the team must try and harmonize the organizational climate, even though it may be a micro organization (Payne, 1973; Aparicio 2014 a). It does not seem easy, according to the results of our studies. In fact, the work published in the US in 2014 shows, in terms of statistics, that there is an only aspect of coincidence among those who belong to social and humanistic sciences (SHS) and to exact and natural sciences. This is, precisely, the widespread dissatisfaction/nonconformity of younger researchers regarding leadership capacities. In simpler words, there is lack of true leadership regarding innovation and keeping a climate of psychological well-being, of team high motivation. The doctors-researchers from both fields feel they are not satisfied with leadership in their teams (Fiedler, 1967; Knorr, Mittermeir, Aichholzer & Waller, 1979; Hollander, 1971; Andrews et al., 1979; Aparicio, 2002, a; 2014 a).

Our present reality poses other challenges: cultural diversity management (age, sex, ethnic group, (Dupray, 2005; Dupray & Moullet, 2005) and interculturality, a challenge for which not all of them have been prepared: competences to work with new technologies, to incorporate technology in business, to properly equip the work area (physical and psychological comfort and well-being. Excellence has a high price (Aubert & Gaulejac, 1991).

The professionalization of individuals (training on an existing field) or of the activities (construction and/or redefinition of new profiles of an existing profession) demands the implementation of new mechanisms. On the other hand, as regards this research, the conditions of professional practice in the working world have changed, and professional insertion as well as duration and promotion represent a complex problem with a variety of variables.

g. On the other hand, even though there are disciplinary and institutional differences, since these groups form “colleges invisibles”, to quote, there is also dissimilarity shown by the a “self-sustained” interplay of macro social and political (organizational) of individuals and contexts. Dr. Aparicio’s “Theory of the Three-Dimensional Spiral of Sense” (2015 c and d) clearly shows this interplay based on research on six disciplinary complementary fields during 30 years (National Council of Scientific Research (Argentina).

h. To close this brief framework, doctors in France – although they are globally better positioned than those who could not get their PhD degree –, are also aware of the degree devaluation and suffer the consequences of the so called “Queuing Theory” (Carabaña, 1987; García Rodríguez, 1993. See also Aparicio & Cros, 2015 a; Giret, 2003; Giret, Moullet, & Thomas, 2003).

To this chain of circumstances affecting doctors in relation to Mobility, professional status, expectations and effective achievement we add readiness to accept “the other” who was acquainted with rising geographical mobility – often times, as a result of the so called “delocalization”, which is more expanded in developed countries. This mobility usually entails certain individual and group tensions. Thus, we can see in our own research works that rising status not always goes together with “lived satisfaction” (called “Subjective Satisfaction”).

i. Such feeling of dissatisfaction impacts on personal/biographical and institutional identities, fragmenting them due to abrupt changes and the lack of competences to deal with them. We have found typologies of identity strategies, to which we have made reference above (Goffman, 1963, 1975).

Consequently, we find individuals who would prefer to change their occupation, to perform administrative or technological tasks within the academic system in its highest level, or in the scientific System rather than to put up with the increasing demands versus the material impossibility to comply, at least at the desired level, with the requirements for inadequate information of collective and social competences, according to what our actors’ representations. In spite of this, virtually no one denies the value of a PhD degree as a certificate, nor of a university experience.

Some are still looking for different strategies to help them support the system; finally, others feel satisfied and happy, globally speaking (those who got a PhD in Management).

Briefly, we could say, on the one hand, that the effects of "overcrowding" in higher education (Bourdoucle & Demailly, 1998) has emphasized the need to consolidate certain competences and sets of knowledge essential for professional practice and its corollary, social recognition of professional groups (Bourdoucle, 1993; Lang, 1999). The issue of Professionalization is more and more important every day in all the contexts according to the corresponding demands.

The quick changes within the professional world demand innovative transformations in training institutions and consolidation of new competences valued by the market. All that could influence on professional and institutional identity updating.

On the other hand, the achievement, in this study, reminds us of the experience in the labor market of doctors in the framework of degree devaluation (Aparicio, 2005 a, 2007 a and b, Boudon, 1973; Lévy-Garboua, 1976, 1977; Dupray, 2005; Dupray & Moullet, 2004; Calmand & Haller, 2008; Giret, 2003; Giret, Moullet, & Thomas, 2003; Mansuy, 2004; Olivier et al., 2008). We should also add, on the one hand, the market demands new competences and, therefore, new mechanisms from the institutions, as well as the effort of the individuals to support the changes. On the other, this leads to identity transformations and the implementation of identity strategies to deal with the difficulties posed by the new contexts and, related to that, there appears the need for professional recognition. This problem does not seem to be different for those who reached the highest academic level (Dubar 1991, 2000 a, b and c).

2. Methodology

2.1. Material and Methods

The quantitative-qualitative method was applied. This study refers only to the qualitative method.

2.1.1. Participants: Consisting of doctors in education at Universidad Nacional de Cuyo (National University of Cuyo) (2005-2009) and doctors in social sciences; this study is still in progress) y Cnam PhD students/doctors of courses related to Education, Management/Administration and Sociology of Work, (Conservatorio National des Arts et Métiers, Paris, France). Two research laboratories took part in this work: the Laboratorio de Investigaciones en Educación (Education Research Laboratory - Conicet/UNCuyo, Argentina) and Social Psychology Laboratory - CONICET, UNCuyo) en Argentina and three laboratories of the Cnam: Occupational Sociology Laboratory, Administration Laboratory and Center of Research on Training (CRF). It is expected to find different profiles according to the work/professional disciplinary areas in which they are situated together with the differences of the respective contexts with their strengths and weaknesses.

The samples of the groups included were significant, and also allow for a quantitative treatment of the data.

The core variables were Professional Mobility, Professional Status, Achievement *versus* Expectations, Professionalization and Identity which played an "objective" achievement conditioning role (Mobility / Status, Professional Placement level, Coutrot & Dubar, 1992), and "subjective" (Feeling of Achievement: McClelland, 1961; Lévy-Leboyer, 1971, Aparicio 2015, a, c and d), Identity Fragmentation (Goffman, 1975).

These variables, according to our sui generis systemic approach, interact within a "self-sustained" movement (feedback) (Aparicio, 2005a, 2012a, 2014c). Analysis shows, on the one hand, the gap between the training provided by educational institutions and that demanded by the market (disarticulation between the education and productive systems). On the other hand, the differentiated conditions of the individuals received by each institution (self and institutional selection processes): variables which have an influence on the professional achievement levels, as far as the results of our studies are concerned.

These studies not only add inputs and outputs but also, and fundamentally, *human processes* that appear on the base of the figures of the systems, accounting not only for the factors have a significant impact on achievement, but also for the "*underlying*" reasons that make the figures in the national and, system meaningful and, more broadly, in the international framework. It is actually an integrating and holistic approach that helps analyze the mechanisms and/or factors anticipating achievement at the psycho individual level, and at the same time going through the meso-institutional/organizational level (university, labor market). Several research works done for 30 years have led to the development of the theory, which Dr. Aparicio has called The Three Dimensional Spiral of "Sense" Theory (2015 c, 2015 d).

The original approach joins explanation and comprehension; quantitative and qualitative methodology aiming at explaining and reveal conditions of achievement. As strategies, the macro-meso-micro-macro dimensions are gathered: processes and results; transversal and quasi-longitudinal (personal experiences or life, ...); diachronically and synchronically (Aparicio, 2005a, 2007a and b, 2012a).

2.1.2. Materials

Quantitative and qualitative techniques were applied. We also used the “hierarchical evocation” (Abric, 2001) and the lexicometric analysis techniques. Doctors/PhD students were also interviewed. The findings shown by the interviews will be approached in a strict and extended way in publication currently in progress. Here, we deal with some representations which showed, particularly, certain contradictions between the “objective” factors associated to Professional Satisfaction, Status, Training and Mobility and factors which could be called symbolic. They show, probably, what it means to doctors to have been part of this training program and reached such a degree, versus what is shown by the concrete current conditions. Therefore, they say they are satisfied with the training in some disciplines but in a deeper analysis of the interview, they speak very hard words to define the core variables of the study. This reveals certain “concealed” dissatisfaction. The latter allowed to show which representations are part of the “nucleus” of a doctoral training in each of the groups, and which are their most evident differences and the ways they experience their professional practice according to their expectations.

2.2. Core questions in the research work

Which positions do doctors in the market reaches? Which professional structures are they inserted in? Have they become acquainted with Professional Mobility since they entered a PhD program? Does this Professional Mobility show differences according to different disciplinary fields and countries? Which are the aspects defining their actual insertion on terms of positioning achievement – objective/subjective – within the hierarchical scale? What are their expectations regarding their PhD training? Do they bear positive expectations for the future? Do they consider their positioning will improve as time passes by? Regarding the analysis on their work contexts, what are their representations of the work world? Are there any inter-institutional, inter-disciplinary and inter-country differences? Which are the most relevant aspects in those representations? Which aspects nowadays do they think have an impact on quality of life at work, work climate/atmosphere? What are their comments regarding their personal and professional identities? Do they feel fulfilled or do they primarily detect a gap between what they “dreamed” their professional life would be and their day-to-day reality? Which values are prioritized? Are they in search for stability, reality or the economic benefits associated to the PhD degree? How do they see their future? How do they see their role? Which are, in their own perspective, the factors prioritized by the market nowadays? Have they experienced any discrepancy between the training they received and the market requirements or not? Does hope or pessimism prevail? Do these doctors share specific “identities” or “interests”? How similar or different are these?

3. Results

They were presented in two sections: quantitative (descriptive plan, correlational and explanatory) and qualitative. Here, for the sake of brevity, we will deal more with qualitative considerations related to the aspects underlined within the theoretical framework of this issue and to the research questions.

As we could observe, differences are noticed between the different groups (disciplinary, national) In fact, there appear PhD training and its impact on labor positioning, professional promotion and mobility known by the individuals, extra-curricular development experiences which contributed to labor placement and continuity, correspondence (or lack of it) with professional expectations, the gaps between the dream world at entering a PhD training and actual everyday world, the difficulties at obtaining recognition due to the “plafond” effect, more and more evident in more developed countries (France, in our case) and in the conflict work world, in which education does not go parallel to the macro social and economic context development. This aspect to which authors warned us already in last century (Anderson, 1961; Halsey, Floud & Anderson, 1961; Coleman et al., 1969; Thurow, 1972; Boudon, 1973; Jencks, 1972; Jarousse, 1984; Lévy-Garvova, 1976, 1978; Eicher & Lévy-Garvova, 1979, just to mention some of the “founding fathers”) caused the so called “Education World Crisis”, and it became more evident as time passed by. Advances in technology come up sooner and are more abrupt every day; therefore, systems of education cannot manage to adapt to the training programs and thus prepare students to face the new demands. There exist disciplinary areas and/or problems people though were solved and surprisingly become almost

obsolete; there are many gaps to fill regarding training material which demand many competences from educational and organizational institutions (Market), for which, those who manage them (doctors, many times) do not feel are fit. On this line, however, it is necessary to point out that those who have reached the level of “cadres” (managers/higher bosses) look somewhat more satisfied (Aparicio & Cros, 2015 a; Chauvot, 1997).

The foregoing has an impact on the levels of “experiences” or “subjective” satisfaction in addition to the “extra” a rise at work may represent, causing uncertainty. Organizational well-being is affected by the impact of such changes. Besides, it also damages institutional identities and personal and professional lives. Many have very little or no future expectation at all, given the general situation in a globalized world.

Other doctors, with a more ideological view (especially those belonging to fields like Sociology), blame liberalism and capitalism for all this failure...The words found on their representations and core aspects show it very clearly: They define the node “work world” as follows: “demands”, “disadvantages”, “difficult”, “slavery”, “injustice” “production”, “uncomfortable climate” “market”, “just work”, “harsh”, “schedule”, “inflexibility”, “little flexibility”, “lack of true leadership”, “lack of compassionate bosses”, “complex world”. Also, “ideology”, “politics”, “alignment”, “individualism”, “selection with long and unfair recruitment processes”, “political game”, “internal bickering”, “power”, “crisis”, “deception”, “in egalitarian”, “demanding with no offers for training in return with respect to work hours”. Finally, “a world that focuses only of efficiency and effectiveness”, “man means nothing”, “submission”, “liberal rules”, “capital in operation”.

Those belonging to fields like Management have a more positive view even on the Work Market. They got trained to become part of it and expected more from the future, showing optimism regarding work environment, the climate or atmosphere in which they work, regarding their admission into this world (which is quite different from the admission received by those working in other studied areas). Their satisfaction is higher, globally speaking. Among the defining words we find: “Project”, “quality”, “motivation”, “important world”, “creation”, “professional journey”, “election”, “important mastering in life”, “career”, “future”.

At the *applied level*, this research provides those who have worked on it certain elements to be introduced there where there are gaps.

At the *theoretical level*, this research allowed: a) to produce knowledge regarding differences and similarities presented by the doctors recently incorporated into the professional world of different disciplinary fields and countries; b) to go deeper, from an interdisciplinary perspective, into the higher education/occupational world relationship, as well as into the professional world transformations and their impact on the level of identity. In fact, we discovered more fulfilled “identities”; others which are blocked, and others in search for transformation. Interrelations can be seen among other Core Variables: Professional Mobility, Professional Status /work placement, Satisfaction (objective and “subjective”), Expectations, Identity and Professionalization. This work reveals the interplay of macro social-contextual, organizational/work, institutional (university and continuing training programs), psychosocial and personal variables. In this research, we have intended to account for a quantitative “back movement” (conditions *versus* effects, measured statistically in the work area) and a comprehensive “forth movement” (qualitative which helps to grasp the “sense” the actors give this scenario, its core and peripheral aspects, according to the selected methodology: hierarchical evocation). This accounts for the spiral loops, in a positive or a negative sense on the base of this theory. Three levels – macro, meso and micro – interplay and are self-sustained. Only then can we go beyond the figures which indicate a diagnosis of situation but do not show the causes or the conditioning factors beneath those figures (effects of the system). The *comprehension* of the *conditions* aiming at improving micro-systems and, so in the medium term, global systems should be first added as an indicator of education systems quality and work indicators. Figures are not enough; if we want to know the problems, their basis must be revised and then, try to overcome them based on the transfer of scientific results founded on actual referents. However, business keep on considering “customer Satisfaction”, is we can call it that way, as a “subjective”.

In the end, the research showing the interplay between personal competences, institutional/organizational conditions, and the possibilities offered by the macro social context in relation with the different disciplinary areas (for example, for those graduated in education, the PhD degree represents a bonus in the labor market). Scrutinizing the shared representations is, thus, a way of going deeper into this issue, as we go beyond statistics and apart from linear analyses. There is no linear professional career. The three levels of Dr. Aparicio’s theory (Aparicio 2007 a and b, 2015 a and b, 2015 c and d) interplay in every case, and make an impact on the possibilities of fulfillment along with organizational growth.

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