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The Emergence and Rising of an Academic Discipline: The Adventure of HRM in Turkey

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Abstract What does an academic field mean, and how does it emerge? Obviously these questions are highly stimulating. Answering these questions there is a requirement to begin with an ‘emergence of an academic field’ idea. However, this idea forces us to explore the nature of ‘knowledge or science – power relation’. The main purpose of this paper is not to focus on this relation but an adventure of HRM field in Turkey. In that paper, I intent to trace of personnel management area as an academic field in industrialised countries. And the main focus of the paper will be on Turkey. So, I intend also to trace of the area in Turkey or in universities of Turkey. Several different academic traditions appropriate the ‘employee relations’ issues in current university system in Turkey: Industrial relations, business management, human resource management and partly public administration. In that paper, I suggest a ‘multi-disciplinary’ approach to employee relations and explain two main bases for HRM area, one of them is industrial relations and the other is business management.

My key reason that lay under that suggestion is that: Looking at a certain point from different perspective produces a strong explanation.

1. Introduction

Modern social sciences have appeared in modern age. The development of social sciences has followed ‘natural sciences’. Because natural sciences have completely stand on ‘reason’ that is the basis of modernity. This basis of modernity pawed the way to a ‘meta narrative’ or a ‘grand scientific tendency’: positivism. The first generation of social sciences was strictly attracted by this tendency (positivism). So, when they think that it should be some universal rules to examine society and try to find a name for these scientific initiatives they, firstly, thought a name derived from the natural science area: social psychic (for details see Maus 2001). Social psychic then turned ‘sociology’ (a new scientific area that had intentions to examine society to find its fundamental rules).

So, the aim of this scientific area was to reach the universal rules that direct society. Sociology field, as several other fields like political science and economics, had been shaped at 19th century. All these disciplines had similar motivation: to construct a kind of social science on a positivist ground, just like natural sciences. But with the development of capitalism and modernity, the great fragmentations occurred in the scientific area. With the developments of the real world (e.g. in economic field) new fields or sub-fields were born. At the end of the 19th century the organized capitalism showed a great development and the production figures and the number of employee in manufacturing sector (and also in services) were getting growing. So, the companies needed to construct new department to dealing with the personal issues.

In the following sections of the paper I intend to present a brief historical background of the scientific areas that examines the employment relations or personnel issues. Doing that, we will see a clear difference on that area between the two sides of Atlantic Ocean. The second section of the paper will be on the developments of labour relations area in Turkey.

2. Labour relations area: Industrial relations, personnel management and human resource management

As Kaufman (2007: 20) stated ‘the first visible roots of the HRM function as practiced today in modern business organizations appeared in the late nineteenth century more or less contemporaneously in England, France, Germany and the United States.’ But there was no need to having a formal HRM department for personal issues at that time. At the nineteen century the functions of HRM (e.g. hiring, training, compensation and discipline) were performed in alternative ways. Some functions, like pay rates or motivation for hard work (through the treat of termination and unemployment) were held by labour markets while the others were done by the owner of plant managers or foremen (Kaufman 2007: 20).

There were some developments to get modern HRM departments. One of them was about the paternalistic tendency (or industrial welfare work). In Britain and North America increasing numbers of employers were accepting responsibility for the general welfare of their workers in the 1890s. In Britain, a number of philanthropic employers began to develop a paternalistic care and concern for their employees (Bratton and Gold, 1999: 6). One of the most known example of these
initiatives was ‘Ford’s sociology department’. Although the main aim of the department was to create an ‘Americanisation’ tendency among the workers for high commitment, there was a welfare intention under the establishment of the department (Hooker, 1997). According to Kaufman (2007: 20), new staff position was created to administer these activities, called a ‘welfare secretary’ and women or social workers were often appointed.

In practice, the transformation of personnel issues department from ‘primitive’ to complicated one was affected most by wars. Both World War I and World War II have great effect on the development of the area in practice. The expansion of capacity during the war was achieved largely by longer hours of labour and more intensive work, better equipment, better management and better workshop organization. The development of complex new payment systems meant that large organizations had to create a centralized wages department which further boosted the role of personnel management (Bratton and Gold, 1999: 7).

The road to modern HRM as a practical and academic field could be divided several stages to understand it well. In this section I will try to track the names that have arisen from employment relations.

As stated above, the first development in making of modern HRM was the emergence of welfare work at the late nineteen century. During the first quarter of twentieth century the term ‘industrial relations’ (IR) came into common use in Britain and North America. Then it has been joined by personnel management (PM) (Edwards, 2003: 1). Of course mentioning IR and HRM in the same context is not a thing that has a wide consensus. In fact, it’s generally accepted that IR is a field that trying to keep a looking for labour relations from the employees’ perspectives while the HRM field looks the matter trough the employer’s perspective (for core propositions of HRM see Thompson and Harley, 2007). This acceptance is not superfluous. Looking at the first writings on business management is supplying substantial narratives that confirm this acceptance. Moreover, the professions of the first generation writers of classics on the field tell more: Not just F. W. Taylor but its predecessors were also engineers. Similarly, a writer of classics from the continental Europe (France), Henry Fayol, was an engineer.

As technologies developed and markets expanded, the labour issues become one of the most important factors for firms. To control labour and get financial gains, organizations designed works and workplaces and developed labour control system (Gospel, 2009). All these initiatives were about labour management. Frederick Winslow Taylor, the father of scientific management, dedicated his life to develop a new way for production that will depend on high productivity. According to Taylor, American way of doing jobs was not scientific and productive. To change this useless way he tried a new way: scientific management. He conduct many experiments / or research in the workplace on the way of doing jobs and employees. After long-term test, he achieved the ‘principles of scientific management’: He split the works into small pieces, arranged fixed times for each work and made a clear distinction between manual works and head works (Taylor, 2011). Human resource was an emotion-free component in Taylor’s system. It was seen just such as other sources by Taylor and his followers.

The developments between two wars and after the World War II paved the way to high industrial conflicts and then the importance of some industrial relations instruments become popular in practice. According to Kaufman these developments had some positive effects, beside negatives one:

‘On the positive side, the rapid spread of collective bargaining actually worked to the advantage of HRM in several ways. For example, in an effort to avoid unionization many companies quickly established or strengthened their personnel programs. Also, once the companies were unionized they needed to add personnel and labour relations staff to conduct collective negotiations with the union and administer the contracts. And, finally, unions pushed for wage standardization, job classification systems, formal grievance systems, and written employment rules, all of which required personnel / labour relations staff to develop and administer. The new government labour and social insurance law (in USA New Deal Programme, F.M.) had much the same effect’ (Kaufman 2007: 27).

As Kaufman (2007: 29) stated ‘1950s saw the high water mark in union density and collective bargaining. The most popular title for the corporate HRM function in large companies, particularly in the union sector, was industrial relations’. According to Kaufman, the industrial relations department was typically divided, in turn, into the labour relations (collective bargaining) section and personnel (employment) section.

Industrial relations area was a multi-disciplinary field that covered four core courses according to a curriculum survey (Estay 1960 quoted in Kaufman 2007: 32): labour economics, collective bargaining, personnel management (and human relations) and labour law. As an academic field in university employment relations area has been witnessed the attractions of several different social sciences fields. Around the mid-century HRM (personnel management) was a sub-field of industrial relations (IR). These days the field was not so popular and did not attract the students in USA
universities. The following years IR more narrowly focused on unions and labour-management relations and HRM on the functional parts of employee management. This tendency replaced the academics from business management area with economists (Kaufman 2007: 32-5).

As a last point for that section, during the second half of the twentieth century, especially in the last quarter, a divorce has occurred between personnel management and industrial relations areas. The second field become a part of business schools and increasingly the preserve of scholars from management and behavioural science (Kaufman 2007: 33). The HRM area, during the 1980s and 1990s become one of the most popular field in USA universities and then in the rest of the world.

During the twentieth century, the road of personnel management has followed different areas and has been shaped in different ways. As stated above, personnel management issues were analysed in different academic fields like economics, industrial relations, business management and industrial psychology. But as an independent field, it has been emerged in the last several decades. Of course, the debates on the nature of the field have not been finished yet. Especially in higher education system of Turkey the scene is highly fragmented. The personnel management issues have taken part in several different schools' and departments' curriculum. Until recently the human resource management issues have supplied by 'Business Administration Departments' and 'Labour Economics and Industrial Relations Departments' in Business Schools and Schools of Economics and Administrative Sciences. But during the last decade the HRM Departments have emerged separately firstly as associate degree and then as undergraduate programmes. This short introduction supplies some important clues about the development of the area in Turkey. In the following section I will present a depiction of two different streams that constitute the HRM field in Turkey, business management and labour economics and industrial relation fields respectively.

**Business Management Field as a Vein that Constitutes HRM**

Before telling the development of business management (BM) as an academic field, we need to supply a brief explanation of capitalist production in Turkey. Because the BM or HRM field has a close relation with the development of capitalism. Of course the development level of capitalism for Ottoman Empire in nineteenth century was not so advanced. Nevertheless The Ottoman manufacturing sector was in a meaningful position (Quataert, 2002) and has a limited potential to struggle with the Western manufacturer. The number of big-size producers was so small. Shortly, the Ottoman Country was not occupying the core position in the modern world system (for details see Wallerstein; 2011) although the availability of manufacturing business. But the aim of public administrators in Ottoman Empire (and then in Modern Republic) always has been carrying country to Modern Western World, or getting western political culture, production system etc. After the foundation of the republic these tendencies went on. Industrialization was a sign that symbolize the modernization and westernization. Free market economy was intended in the first decade of the new republic by the founders but there was not a strong capitalist class to carrying the country into capitalist world. Thus, in the early 1930s ‘etatism’ become a key principle of new republic. 1930s were important for another point: The university reform that shaped the higher education in Turkey occurred at 1933. But the history of business management in schools goes back the earlier years.

Following Üsdiken’s (2004) analysis, we can divide this history in three parts. Each part can be identify with an effect of a country: France, Germany and USA. Turkey-France relations have a long and deep history. After the Ottoman authorities decided to modernize the country, they began to observe ‘the modern Europe’ and modelled it1. France was one of the most important countries that had effect on modernization of Turkey until recently. Public administration and hence education institutions was re-formed under the French style. So, getting inspired from Grandes Ecoles in France, the first business education institution, Higher Trade School (Yüksek Ticaret Okulu) was established in 1882 (Sargut, 2009).

The first half of the twentieth century witnessed the German effects on Turkey. As it’s known, Ottoman Empire allied to Germany. But the origins of German effects on higher education did not base on that war alliance but the coming of Nazis to power in Germany in 1930s and their attitudes to the Jewish community. Many Jewish academics who tried to run away from the Nazis' treats come to Turkey and contributed to re-shape the new higher education system in Turkey. Of course these emigrant German academics were not the only source of the development of German style business

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1 There is a large literature on ‘westernisation or modernisation of Turkey’. For some prominent explanations, see Mardin 2000, Ahmad 1993, Zürcher 2004.
education. Some people who got their education in Germany had an important role to develop this kind of education in Turkey (Üsdiken 2003: 125).

"With the founding of the Faculty of Economics in 1936 at the University of Istanbul, BWL (betriebswirtschaftslehre – business economics – işletme iktisadi F.M.) was allocated a separate chair (taken up by an emigrant German professor –Alfred Isaac) and three courses (out of 28) in the program. When doctoral studies began in 1941, BWL was accepted as one of the areas of specialization, though seminar work had to include economics and one other area as well" (quoted by Üsdiken 2004: 11, from Fındıkolu).

After the World War II, Turkey got into the influence of USA. For detailed reasons that steams from internal and external world Turkey become a very important ally for the western world especially for the USA that was a main side of the cold war. After the WW II, political structure of Turkey also went on transformation from the single-party regime to multi-party one. This transformation and the American efforts that try to reconstruct Europe against the communist pole were coincided. At the beginning of this term, with the financial and academic support of Ford Foundation and Harvard Business School, as a separate academic unit in Istanbul University, Business Economics Institution was founded at 1954 (İİE 2012). This institution has been a basis for the Business School that was going to found at 1968. This detail is significant to understand the development of HRM. Because the other vein to shape HRM area has been arisen from the Faculty of Economics that was also the home of Business Economics Institution initially.

The Americanisation process in higher education or in business education in Turkey has been speeded up and cleared with the foundation or development some higher education institution such as Middle East Technical University (in Ankara, 1956) and Robert College (then Bosphorus University -1971-, in Istanbul). These new generation universities have launched a new tendency in higher education that raised the USA effect. These institutions’ course language has been English. With rise of English language and Americanization, the German and French languages have weakened in education system in Turkey. After 1980, higher education in Turkey was put in a highly formal structure and the Americanisation process has still gone on. This means most of the curriculums are similar and the focus of courses in Business Schools is mostly on market. In another word, the curriculums have been designed to train appropriate candidates for business markets. In comparing American HRM tradition with the European tradition, this point is highly important. The other path that affects HRM area in Turkey is from social policy and industrial relations origins. The next section will be on that detail.

3. Industrial Relations Field as the Second Path that Paved the Way to HRM

Unlike personnel management studies in Business School, labour relations studies have been generally located at faculties of economics or at different formation such as the most famous example in USA, Cornell University School of Industrial and Labor Relations. The key components that have shaped the industrial relation tradition in Turkey are various. The current situation of the departments in universities (labour economics and industrial relations departments) that focus on labour relations and social policy has shaped since 1980. But the history of labour relations and social policy studies in universities of Turkey dated back 1930s.

The Jewish academics immigration from Germany (because of the Nazi regime) shaped also this second path to HRM. Or saying that the coinciding of this immigration with the university reform of 1933 in Turkey fostered the formation of some academic field is more correct statement. The history of labour relations area in universities of Turkey goes back to the foundation of Economic and Society Institution in the Law Faculty of Istanbul University. The most important person in the foundation of that institution was one of these immigrants, Gerhard Kessler (more details for Kessler’s role see Hanlein 2006). After the foundation of the Faculty of Economics in 1936 the Economics and Society Institution was attached that faculty. Kessler and the institution established a social policy and labour relation tradition in universities in Turkey.

The other important contribution to the field was made by Cahit Talas in Ankara University Faculty of Political Science (Uçkan 2010). Of course Kessler and Talas were not the only academics who studied the social policy and industrial relation area but they were the pioneers. Their followers or students continued to establish the tradition of social policy and labour relations.

After the military coup of 1980 in Turkey, the higher education underwent a crucial transformation that has still been shaping the university system. With a legal regulation a new era has begun for higher education as well as social policy and labour relation units / institution in universities. According to the new arrangement these units has been organized as departments with the name of ‘labour economics and industrial relations’ (LEIR). These departments supply a multi-
disciplinarian.

The curriculum of these departments is including a range of knowledge field such as labour economics, industrial relations, human resource management, organizational behaviour, sociology of work, social policy and labour and social security law. Today all LEIR departments meet in ‘annual labour relations congresses’ and continue to reproduce the tradition2. One of the most controversial subjects that raise enthusiasm debates in these meeting the future of the departments and the challenge with HRM area. Comparing with the departments in the same faculty (generally faculty of economics and administrative science) such as business management, public finance, political science and economics department LEIR departments are not so popular among students who take the nation-wide central university entrance exam. This situation is one of the reasons of debates among the academics from LEIR community. Some academics are suggesting changing the name of the departments (for example as ‘labour relations and human resource management’) while the others are emphasising the tradition of the field (for a debate see Yıldırım 2007; Makal 2008). The formers refer the global tendency in university: Recently most of the academic units in worldwide that focus on personnel management or labour relations issues changed their name or close to HRM area. While the latter group say that there is no need to make such a change because this tradition has potential to adjust itself to global development in the area.

4. Conclusion: HRM as a Combination of LEIR and Business Management?

Is it possible to talking about a combination of business management and LEIR in creating HRM area? At first sight, it will be seen to too many scholars as combining two poles in one point. In another word both LEIR and business management are different paradigms and for anybody who is at one of these paradigm it difficult to image such combination. As Kuhn implied, the paradigms confined scholars inside to see the other paradigms’ perspectives. But confined in a paradigm prevent to analysis an issue in a wide context that is needed to understand it closely. In another words confined in a paradigm reminds Bauman and May’s arguments, familiarization. They offer sociological thinking to overcome with the familiarization. Sociological thinking will generate defamiliarization (Bauman and May, 2001: 10): “Most importantly, it may open up new and previously unsuspected possibilities of living one’s life with others with more self-awareness, more comprehension of our surroundings in terms of greater self and social knowledge and perhaps also with more freedom and control.”

Looking at academic debates on the meaning of HRM, it can be said that the paradigms’ wall is obviously thick and visible. On the one side there is a long LEIR tradition that located itself largely in labour side on employee-employer relations while there is business management tradition that has reached an overwhelming size in Turkish universities and in market oriented. The LEIR tradition was born in social policy origins and thus it emphasises the labour rights more than employer’s interests. While the key aims of business management traditions is to educate the students for organizations which operating under the ‘rational’ rules in markets. But we need to state that there is no homogeneity in LEIR curriculums. There are 21 LEIR departments2 in Turkish universities and some of them have HRM area as one of the main fields while the others have HRM just as course in their curriculum. Yet, the general tendency to HRM for the academics in LEIR departments is unfavourable or mostly these academics have critical approach to HRM because of its business-oriented character.

On the other hand, the business management area is highly popular among the universities in Turkey and the students. 117 of Turkish universities have business management that is actively teaching the curriculum. One of the most important teaching areas in those departments is HRM. But content of HRM in Turkish universities is generally highly narrow: It’s generally limited with the HRM functions. The nature of employment relations and its sociological bases are generally neglected.

Recently there has been an effective development in universities of Turkey: the foundation of separate HRM departments. At the moment there are associate degree programmes (two-year programme) in HRM in fourteen universities while for now just one active undergraduate programme (four-year programme) in HRM. The only undergraduate HRM programme in Sakarya University was founded by academics from LEIR field with an intention of constructing a HRM department which will approach HRM in a broad sense. But this approach has raised debates.

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2 Every year a different university hosts the meeting. The 14th meeting is going to be held by Istanbul University in May 2012.
3 All the figures about the number of departments have been taken from the following web site: http://www.tabanpuanlar.net/ accession date: 27/02/2012. The numbers has been taken from the statistics of the university entrance exam result of 2011.
intensively in both academics from business management field and LEIR fields. It can be said that the main reason of the debates is the restrictive character of the paradigm which they are in. In a close future the number of HRM undergraduate programme will rise and it seems that these new departments will be established by business management paradigm.

As a last point, I would say that confined by a strict paradigm prevents to see the issues or research subjects in a wider context. To reach such a context we need to analysis the issues in a sociological thinking or as Gulbenkian Commission (1996) suggests in a multi-disciplinary approach. A multi-disciplinary approach will take us from a restricted area into a wide field that is fed by many different academic disciplines such as economics, sociology, business management, politics, social policy, industrial relations, labour economics etc. A HRM in multi-disciplinary approach will be more powerful to close the nature of labour relations / employment relations.

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Sport and Society

Dr. Alketa Çaushi
Prof. Dr. Albert Karriqi

Abstract: Sport can improve many aspects like personal health, lifestyle and national pride. In the context of development of European Sport, and particularly the Olympic card, the goals of our federation aim particularly at the development of youth groups that could be ready for several attempts on lifestyle in general and improvement of quality of health. Meanwhile, another objective of Sport Federation for all is participation in all events for reviewing and re-formulating laws for sport, making possible the overall reviewing of the platform in general that gives solutions on problems of sports for all.

Understanding or actual understanding of sport for all

As part of youth politics in the second and third generation in Albania, FSA has seen the integration of sport and values of Albanian culture as one of the primary tendencies for promoting new mentalities and best models to be applied for building tradition of active participation of people in sport activities (national and regional levels up to international events). As a systematic social activity, Sport for all aims at expanding in all social categories, including age groups, in order to attain general values. Up to now, the important educative events for developing and relaxation in sports have not been at the center of attention of relevant institutions, and particularly of the central government, so that they could be managed, motivated, become massive and their values continuously promoted. The attention of the central government of sports has been observational and little has been done for constructing public sport facilities. The wish and acknowledgement of people that face some basic need for recreational, sportive environments, even thought in our country we generally don’t have such options, people check for rented place and the first to participate in this new tendency were the middle age groups and the second generation (40-60 years old).

Actual situation of development of sport for all

Everywhere, the beginning of century is presented with many characteristics, were information and life-globalization have changed the mentalities and lifestyle of people. Today, indicators of well-being tend to shift to growth of spending (wealth) and free-time, where people spend high amounts of money for leisure time, while its importance now is even bigger than any other historical period. Also, the sport movement in the developed world has taken very big proportions, whereas the culture of people inside makes individuals more active than other popular movement. Through a wide offer for sport events, the sports movement is giving a big contribution in health-care, social development of friendship, cooperation, unity, national pride etc. Health problems today have become more concerning, because automatic actions, stressful life, long-term jobs, non-healthy style of eating, has brought many health problems starting from children up to the elderly. This makes physical activity and sports easily understood by taking an important social values. All national organizations of non-governmental sport institutions such as the Olympic committee of Albania, National federations of winter sports and summer sports have prioritized their objectives in spreading sports for health and lifestyle as an important philosophy that affects people’s culture and solves many social problems that concern the government today like drugs, prostitution, smoking, alcohol, murders, obesity, stress, heart problems, diabetes, osteoporosis etc.

Socio-demographic analysis

Today in Albania live around 4 million people. Around 1 million, over the last twenty years, have emigrated. Meanwhile, we can analyze some data taken from studies of sports science institute, Instat and MASH for year 2010. The data we have are: total number of licenced athletes over federations equaling 11,781 from young age groups to adults, the number of students in school levels in Albania (according to MASH 2009) are:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>School cycle</th>
<th>Public</th>
<th>Private</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>9 yr elementary</td>
<td>586,826</td>
<td>4,382</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Medium (high)</td>
<td>131,234</td>
<td>1,587</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>University</td>
<td>69,867</td>
<td>18,465</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ALL</td>
<td>787,927</td>
<td>24,465</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TOTAL</td>
<td>811,392</td>
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</table>
The total is 811,392 for students and pupils. This can be compared with the number of athletes that are licensed in social networks or private companies, thus having an index approximately 1.5% of the total number of pupils and students. If we compare our number with developed states (evaluation strategies of sport symposium, stiintic international, Bucarest, 196), we should note a significant difference. From 1.5% that practice tracking and fields sports, over 15% that do qualitative sport in the Balkan States, with highest percentage are the Scandinavian States, but also Western States, with over 22%, meaning we have a sensitive change related to some factors. These factors are:

1. Parent concepts, but also those of the teacher, especially of Natural Sciences, that check the child participation or their students with sport as an obstacle to well-going of classes.
2. Incapability of teachers in physical education, Methodists and trainers to treat with professional competence and conceptualized intelligence or moving intelligence. In order to explain this connection we could say that intelligence builds knowledge of each field of thought, for different people in different areas of movement. With the evolution of human intelligence, being 2 concepts associated with the moving sensor and intelligence, differentiated from each other, starting from a common root, conceptual intelligence is build along side the development of sportive soul in all fields of thought. Moving intelligence is spread and surpasses the sensory-motor activity for body-building in many fields of movement (athletics, fast-track, swimming, games, specific exercises etc). Activity in movement doesn’t merge with intellectual properties, and neither can be confused with it, but instead it finds its root in building moving structures and coordination of other activities. In other words, the techniques are the ones that are considered as solutions from moving intelligence of solving problems caused by the environment that can be renewed in a continuous manner out of the theoretical teaching. Sometimes the environment is enriched with the presence of a teacher or a trainer, whose role is to help the subject to build or find the solutions. After receiving the grade of efficiency and stability that characterizes every scale of achievement, these techniques form knowledge that is incorporated with each other and not on the ontogenetic plane or the biogenetic one. Also, it is important to study them like perfect models, for understanding of building mechanisms. Today there are many questions but most importantly is the one that relates moving intelligence, how much the affect each other, how are the relationships of dependence and causes between them. One of the fields affecting such reciprocity interests the forming of teachers and trainers, that can be thought as a pedagogic activity in different circumstances, systemized in a conscious way for interpretation of senses, feelings etc. On the other hand, relationships of moving intelligence and the conceptual one is made with mechanisms out of the field of cognition.

For example: It happens that we observe during the trainings especially of physical, technical programming that can easily be observed with the way of learning techniques and easily understood by athletes or students. The reason is that we need intellectual knowledge and clean consciousness with what needs to be done or not. This happened for three main reasons:

i) Consciousness: by conveying action on sport results, cannot act immediately and causally over the mechanisms or the actions of mechanisms.

ii) Being that knowledge makes a system of reasons from past actions very personal and with self observed image, wrong and deformed, it is also necessary, to individualize way that make up the same understanding, with every idea for each one.

iii) This consciousness also take equal reports tested over the course of development of moving action, meaning that it can be done continuously in process, while sense are not an outcome of this action.

So, now we understand a little more the need for debates, descriptions, verbalizations, keeping along side what needs to be done, from intellectuals while the steady relationship with direct and indirect relationship with time, direct and indirect proportions. Nothing is build without moving, meaning that the worker also takes care of the material, simultaneously being the architect that directs the works. All this is a way that in essence has the opposite meaning with that of many teachers of sciences, especially natural sciences, and in some cases of parent too, because sport can reduce progression of learning. Doing sports increases the ability of SNQ, meaning that sports increase the absorption of knowledge for the unit time taken. This has been proven scientifically and we are obliged to understand these concepts and knowledge and make them clear to others. Remember that the 21st century has been accepted from everybody as the sports century.
3. Incomplete work of sport societies and organization for taking youth into sports. Today in our country yet hasn't been taken actions for choices and consequently selection of children. Without such actions it's hard to check sport talents, and if talents can't be picked, then we won't have evidence of how to follow their dynamic preparatory work. Expectations and lack of readiness are the 2 most harmful qualities in quality training, that unluckily are present in every sport ambient of our country.

4. Material base for race and especially for training in both aspects, special and general, that are not in their optimal level compared to minimal demands of time. It's known by everybody that in our country we have sport areas much smaller than any other Balkan state.

5. Another aspect with importance is that in our country, most of the practitioners of physical exercises, of second and third age groups, previously athletes, are not organized in sport societies. This means that some of our weaknesses lie in the organization aspect, in the direction of:

- Sport structures, central and regional (sport organizations)
- Low level of participation of sport leaders in central power and regional executive, with problems in coordination among sport institutions overall are the key element for having many deficiencies like we mentioned before.
- Lack of concept of capitalist socialization. Still we insists on mixing past experiences with Western-European
- Lack of sport environment (public)

Social and demographical level for development of sports

The climate is favorable in Albania, being a priority for the development of sport. In our country, nearly 50% of the length of the Albanian border is by sea, lake, river, meaning that from 1094km of coastal line in Albania, over 450km are made of water. Likewise, mountains are very favorable for the development of sport tourism, with appropriate organization and management for better opportunities of participation rates in sports for youth and creating sport business, as a developing condition for supporting the quality of sports. Our country has some participation of young –age groups compared to other countries. The average age of our population is below 29 years, according to the yearly statistic of Recent Demographic Developments (October 2000). Starting from the demographic indicators, the tendencies of our federation are:

*Expansion of sport activities in all schools of our country
*Creation of a situation and favorable conditions for new ways of living with sport
*Distribution of sportive activity in all our country in order for sport not to remain a monopoly of big cities.

Special politics that have to be included in a strategic project for sport, have to reflect in width and length of social age groups and demographics are in favor of the practitioners of sport by imposing:

*change in life-style
*fair play doctrine
*wide-range participation with no gender, race, economical or religious discrimination
*Increase physical indicators anthropometric and functional parameters
*Increase of culture and civil education. Sport has to be the starting point of this culture

From this modest deduction, it seems obvious that the duties of our federation are quite big, with developmental difficulties, that need to be surpassed because this is exactly our mission.

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Role and Significance of Motivation in Implementing a Successful Learning

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Abstract  Motivation is not only the cause of achievement at school and behavior of children also it is the key happy and self-fulfillment scholar years. Some children learn faster than some others. Continuing motivation of children in learning the lessons affect their education and their achievement. There are different kind of motivation and different kind of people who affects the children motivation at learning. The aim of this study besides recognizing the phenomenon of motivation and its importance in 9 -11 years old children academic performances to explore those factors that directly affect and encourage them to tend to a high quality of learning. The methodology used in this study is: a systematic noninvolvement checklist observation at 2 classrooms of fourth grade at elementary school with 30 student each, 50 questionnaires to 9 -11 years old children, 20 semi–interviews applied to teachers in 9-years system at “Adem Krasniqi”, “Sulë Misiri”, “Naim Frashëri”, “Sulë Harri”, “Luigi Gurakuqi”, “Jorgji Dilo” in the city of Elbasan. From the analysis of these instruments is shown that the motivation of 9 -11 years old children are based on rewards of teachers and parents, positive and negative reinforcement of teacher and the way of introducing the new information of teacher. It was recommended that teachers and parents should give more positive rewards to the children; teachers should create a warmer environment at classroom and should use interesting forms of teaching to improve the quality of learning of all children.

Keywords: Motivation, Performance, Academic achievement, Rewards, Reinforcement.

Introduction

Most motivation theorists assume that motivation is involved in the performance of all learned responses; that is, a learned behavior will not occur unless it is energized. According to Jere Brophy (1987), motivation to learn is a competence acquired "through general experience but stimulated most directly through modeling, communication of expectations, and direct instruction or socialization by significant others (especially parents and teachers)."

At the subject of motivation in the classroom, Sternberg (1988) suggests that there are a variety of reasons why individuals may lack in motivation and Stipek provides a list of specific behaviors associated with high academic achievement. In addition, teacher efficacy is a powerful input variable related to student achievement a it impacts a teacher’s motivation to engage students in the teaching/learning process (Proctor as cited in Huit, 2000)

Study goal

The goal of this study is to investigate factors that motivate students to learn harder and to have better academic achievement.

Study objective

1. To investigate the factors that affect student motivation
2. To see the importance of student motivation at their academic achievement
3. To show the importance fulfilling some needs of students during classes to increase their motivation for better academic achievement.

Literature review

Most motivation theorists assume that motivation is involved in the performance of all learned responses; that is, a learned behavior will not occur unless it is energized. The major question among psychologists, in general, is whether motivation is a primary or secondary influence on behavior. That is, are changes in behavior better explained by principles of environmental/ecological influences, perception, memory, cognitive development, emotion, explanatory style, or personality or are concepts unique to motivation more pertinent.

In general, explanations regarding the source(s) of motivation can be categorized as either extrinsic (outside the person)
or intrinsic (internal to the person). Action or overt behavior may be initiated by either positive or negative incentives or a combination of both.

The cognitive approaches, notice the relationship between William James’ (as cited in Huitt, 2009) formula for self-esteem (Self-esteem = Success / Pretensions) and the attribution and expectancy theories of motivation. Cognitive dissonance theory suggests that individuals will seek balance or dynamic homeostasis in one's life and will resist influences or expectations to change. How, then, does change or growth occur. One source, according to Piaget, is biological development. As human beings mature cognitively, thinking processes and organizations of knowledge

**Factors that influence student's motivation**

According to Jere Brophy (1987), motivation to learn is a competence acquired "through general experience but stimulated most directly through modeling, communication of expectations, and direct instruction or socialization by significant others (especially parents and teachers)." Children's home environment shapes the initial constellation of attitudes they develop toward learning.

Once children start school, they begin forming beliefs about their school-related successes and failures. The sources to which children attribute their successes (commonly effort, ability, luck, or level of task difficulty) and failures (often lack of ability or lack of effort) have important implications for how they approach and cope with learning situations.

The beliefs teachers themselves have about teaching and learning and the nature of the expectations they hold for students also exert a powerful influence (Raffini). As Deborah Stipek (1988) notes, "To a very large degree, students expect to learn if their teachers expect them to learn."

School wide goals, policies, and procedures also interact with classroom climate and practices to affirm or alter students' increasingly complex learning-related attitudes and beliefs.

**Motivation in the classroom**

At the subject of motivation in the classroom, Sternberg (1988) suggests that there are a variety of reasons why individuals may lack in motivation and Stipek provides a list of specific behaviors associated with high academic achievement. In addition, teacher efficacy is a powerful input variable related to student achievement and it impacts a teacher’s motivation to engage students in the teaching/learning process (Proctor as cited in Huitt, 2000).

There are a variety of specific actions that teachers can take to increase motivation on classroom tasks (Huitt, 2005).

A first step is for educators to recognize that even when students use strategies that are ultimately self-defeating (such as withholding effort, cheating, procrastination, and so forth), their goal is actually to protect their sense of self-worth (Raffini).

The process known as attribution retraining, (modeling, socialization, and practice exercises) , is sometimes used with discouraged students. The goals of attribution retraining are to help students to (1) concentrate on the tasks rather than becoming distracted by fear of failure; (2) respond to frustration by retracing their steps to find mistakes or figuring out alternative ways of approaching a problem instead of giving up; and (3) attribute their failures to insufficient effort, lack of information, or reliance on ineffective strategies rather than to lack of ability (Brophy 1986).

Other potentially useful strategies include the following: portray effort as investment rather than risk, portray skill development as incremental and domain-specific, focus on mastery (Brophy 1986). Because the potential payoff—having students who value learning for its own sake—is priceless, it is crucial for parents, teachers, and school leaders to devote themselves fully to engendering, maintaining, and rekindling students' motivation to learn.

**Methodology**

This study was carry out in 6 schools of Elbasan, Albania. The schools were selected purposively since they presented the whole city, suburb and center.

The sampling frame for this study was generated from the register used in school. It was used a random selection for
students submitted to the questionnaire. The selection of the 3rd and 4th Grades of the primary schools for the conduct of research was made because: a) The children of these Grades are able to fill in the questionnaires and express their opinion with clarity. b) The pupils now can understand the behavior of the others and of themselves and they can express it very clearly. c) This age we can work very easily and it is the age that sculpts their attitude toward the studies. d) various school experiences had an impact on pupils. These experiences usually help the pupils acquire learning abilities, perceive themselves and understand their role as pupils. More over the city of Elbasan was selected because: a) it is in the center of Albania and it has good representation. b) This schools are placed in the center and in the suburb of the city so they represent it.

The study applied observing, interview and questionnaire as the principal data collection techniques. This was driven by the need to encourage greater interaction between the researchers and target respondents, eliciting hostistic information and attitudes (Walliman, 2005).

There were used 50 questionnaires to 9 - 11 years old children, a systematic noninvolvement checklist observation at 2 classrooms of fourth grade at elementary school with 30 students each where one classroom was the experiment group (a classroom at “Adem Krasniqi” school) and the other was the control group (a classroom at “Jorgji Dilo” school); 20 semi–interviews applied to teachers in 9-years system at “Adem Krasniqi”, “Sulë Misiri”, “Naim Frashëri”, “Sulë Harri”, “Luigj Gurakuqi”, “Jorgji Dilo” in the city of Elbasan.

The questionnaire was built for this study. It had 20 questions and most of response required was “yes” or “no”. It measures the relationship between academic achievement and element of motivation which are rewards, appraisals, offensive words. Also it measures the importance between intrinsic motivation and extrinsic motivation, parent appraisal and teacher appraisal. This was administered individually like any other self-report questionnaire. It took on average one hour to administer this questionnaire with young people – this time includes not only completion of survey by youth but also instruction giving and a warm up exercise at the beginning of the process.

The semi-interview for teachers had 10 questions. Most of them were open ended. It measures the importance of motivation, the relationship between motivation and academic achievement and the elements of motivation that affect student learning.

The checklist of observed behaviors included student attention during lesson, concentration during lesson, the way that teacher presented the new information, appraisal and offensive words of teacher, appraisal and offensive words of parents, curiosity student, self-esteem, self-confident, teachers questions, a better or worse mark than they deserve and they deserve and assessment and appraisal of their classmates.

After the questionnaire and the interview the researcher tried to observe the classroom and to try to experiment the findings. Pupils at one classroom served as an experimental group where teacher was trained to use technology and animations to make the lesson more interesting, used appraisals to every single try and put a better mark to them. And at the other classroom the teacher continued just like before.

Because of three different instruments this study employed qualitative data analysis general strategy. In this analysis the data collected was sorted, categorized and tabulated using excel and SPSS. The data analysis categorized the factors affecting on learning that were at the group of motivation and the result that was a better concentration during classes and better academic achievement.

Findings

This study interviewed 50 children of 9-11 years old. Here is a table showing their academic achievement.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Academic achievement</th>
<th>Low</th>
<th>Medium</th>
<th>High</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Nr</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>9</td>
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<td>%</td>
<td>16%</td>
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<td>8</td>
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<tr>
<td>M</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>%</td>
<td>20%</td>
<td>22%</td>
<td>16%</td>
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</table>

By the interview of children resulted that 60% of them reported intrinsic motivation and 40% extrinsic motivation according to school and learning. Comparing the importance of teacher and parents affecting their motivation it resulted that 53% of them reported that teacher was more important and 47% reported for their parents. And according to using technology and animations to make the lesson more interesting by the teacher 95% said that they would study harder and said that they didn’t know what would happened and only 1% said that it had no importance to their motivation to learn. 80% of children study harder if teacher puts them a grade more than they deserve. And the same number answered that
they would study harder if their parents gave them any reward or any gift for their marks. 70% of children study harder when teacher gives rewards and appraises them for their results. 64% of children study harder when teacher uses offensive words toward them.

Correlation of academic achievement and rewards, appraisals, technology & animations and offensive words

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Academic achievement</th>
<th>Rewards</th>
<th>Appraisals</th>
<th>Technology &amp; animations</th>
<th>Offensive words</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Academic achievement</td>
<td>Pearson Correlation</td>
<td>.863**</td>
<td>.878**</td>
<td>.747**</td>
<td>.561**</td>
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<td>Sig. (2-tailed)</td>
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<tr>
<td>Rewards</td>
<td>Pearson Correlation</td>
<td>.863**</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>.751**</td>
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<tr>
<td>Sig. (2-tailed)</td>
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<tr>
<td>Appraisals</td>
<td>Pearson Correlation</td>
<td>.878**</td>
<td>.751**</td>
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<td>Sig. (2-tailed)</td>
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<tr>
<td>Technology &amp; animations</td>
<td>Pearson Correlation</td>
<td>.747**</td>
<td>.709**</td>
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<tr>
<td>Offensive words</td>
<td>Pearson Correlation</td>
<td>.561**</td>
<td>.590**</td>
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<td>.380**</td>
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<tr>
<td>Sig. (2-tailed)</td>
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</table>

All these finding from the questionnaire and the interview of teacher were observed at the classroom during their classes. During the experimental phase was observed that children were more concentrated to the lesson and they tried to answer every question the teacher made. After a month of observation and use of all those categories to motivate them, all students of that classroom had 2-3 better marks at the exam. Children with hyperactivity could stay calm and concentrated during use of technology and animation from teacher. This made them to understand better lesson and the next day they had new ideas how to develop a class session.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Low</th>
<th>Medium</th>
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Conclusions

Motivation is a very important part of human being. It has a powerful role at pupils for their academic performance. According to the findings of this study and the experiment a very important factor are the awards and gifts that parents and teacher can contribute on it. Teacher can help students’ motivation to grow with a better mark that they deserve and parents can help with a fulfillment of a desire that their children have. Another factor that affects them are teacher’s appraisals. This made them to feel confident and encouraged to have more initiative in answering to teachers’ questions. Also the way that teacher exposes the new material to them was very important. A surprising finding of this study was the effect of offensive words. They studied more if teacher used offensive words toward them. Pupils embracement from their teacher served as a trampoline for their motivation. We both know the importance of motivation. Now we have some ways to improve it, so we can help our children to have better academic achievement.

Recommendations

1. Teacher must be a very careful monitor, caregiver and a powerful source of motivation for his/her students so he/she can make them to love school and learning.
2. It was recommended that teacher must estimate, asses positively every student despite of their motivation scale. The primer goal of teacher at school should be to help the students to study hard. If he/she has a goal and help his/her students to have a goal and the process of learning is easier.
3. Teacher must collaborate with the parents of students so they can help each other with the process of learning and underlying the students’ goals.
4. Motivation and the warm sense after is stabilized if you do not take care about, it would not last. It is like a blown balloon which if you don’t tie a hitch at it nose, the air will go out again. Motivation must be a continuum process. It is not a prompting process that is repeated once a year.
5. Teacher must asses and encourages every little try of learning of his/her students. This assessment and encourage is a great force to student to move forward.
6. Teachers must create a warm atmosphere to support every initiative of students, and must use visual tools to make the lesson more interesting.
7. Teachers must use rewards for their students.

### Academic achievement

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Abstract: The aim of the research; paper is addressed to the cooperation between teachers and parents. It aims to provide a methodical approach on the structuring of this cooperation, in order to increase the effectiveness of the parental role towards the success of students in school. Also, to underline some characteristics associated with each phase of this cooperation, knowledge of which would affect the school's effective cooperation with parents. Methods: The paper is based on interviews with teachers and parents involved in the primary cycle of compulsory education. Results: Teachers appreciate the necessity of cooperation with parents, but not always results that they are success factors in the learning process. Teachers note that they are not welcomed and understood by parents about their educational action. Cooperation process is handled by teachers based on the individual experiences of teachers and not supported in a professional methodology. This means that parents do not realize their potential on the quality of cooperation in general and in particular the education service. Parents appreciate the cooperation with the school as a restricted report in terms of information exchange. The two sides emphasize that 'trust' between the parties is the most important point of the process. Conclusion: Knowledge of the stages through which the process of establishing cooperation and recognition of the characteristics of each of the stages of this process, will help teachers to turn the relationship and cooperation with parents, in a relationship that promotes the quality and effectiveness of the process teaching and learning.

Keyword: effective collaboration, cooperation phases.

Paper addresses to the cooperation of teachers and parents of first grade students. Relationship or cooperation between these actors is one of the aspects of management of educational institutions rightly regarded as among the most important, not only for quality management and school management, but for its service as a whole.

The two subjects, the schools and parents are interested to have a more effective cooperation. In all educational documents, both at central as well as at school, to address service planning and improvement of education, highlighted the importance of effective cooperation of the school with its parental community. In building this cooperation, all members of teaching staff and school leaders, although in different roles, not only included, but can and should be protagonists in this process. Thus, while school principals are involved mainly in management's view of this aspect, teachers typically are those who realize this relationship, as are those who realize the meeting and / or cooperation with parents.

The cooperation of parents with school is required in some service indicators, such as management and administration of the school, the school care for students and of course learning and student's results. The results of children are the strongest motives of the parents to cooperate with the school.

Referring to the fact that cooperation of the school with parents is requested and addressed in some areas and indicators of quality of the service, can rightly consider the cooperation as a process while structuring and effective development of which must be supported by a methodology as professional in terms of both procedural and substantive. The goal. in this context, this paper has as its general purpose, not just to submit previous experiences that schools and teachers are implementing up to now in this direction, but to provide a methodical approach to identify the phases through which passes the structuring of cooperation school / parent in terms of one of the aspects of this collaboration, the learning, or academic achievement of students.

However, as specific goals will be the evidence of characteristics that represent each of the stages of cooperation. Recognition of the respective phases and characteristics, will help the teachers and leaders in an organization, planning and support effective collaboration between them and parents.

Methods

The paper relies on interviews with principals, teachers and parents involved in the primary cycle of compulsory education. Leaders and teachers were interviewed in total 8 schools, all public schools, 4 of which in Tirana, 2 in Fier and 2 in the city of Durres. Total school leaders have been 8, of which 5 and 3 vice principals, and 15 teachers and 25
Parents. Interviews, in their structure were directed to gather information from each of the groups interviewed, according to their position and report with/to school.

**Interviews aimed to evident**

- The experience in implementing the management plan and performance indicators that they use in monitoring and evaluating the school’s cooperation with parents.
- The experience gained by teachers in the development of cooperation with parents, the support that they have from school administrations to develop this aspect.
- How sustainable and effective do the parents appreciate the cooperation and what are some of the causes that limit this cooperation?
- Does the teacher know the familiar learning conditions of the student?
- How much do the teachers recognize assessments, needs and concerns of parents for their children?
- How much do the parents know the curriculum that children develop in schools?
- How do the parents receive school observations, support and suggestions for educative action to develop in home?
- How many parents recognize their right to seek help from school?
- Are parents and teachers unified in academic expectations of students?

**Results**

School leaders consider very important the role and influence of parents on the quality of student achievement, this achievement for students with high achievements and for those that present special needs to be improved.

Managers argue that cooperation with parents in view of the achievements of students have part of their annual work planning of teaching. However, it turns out that this aspect is not supported with concrete indication of the realization of cooperation and collaboration activity is typical of periodic reporting and informing parents about the progress of achievement and child behavior. This is accomplished in scheduled meetings and/or required by parents.

Also claim that in many cases, the cooperation of parents is not in the school’s expectations, it is because teachers and parents fail to establish a stable communication and cooperation between them. The reasons and responsibilities in these cases are few and also addressed to teachers and to parents as well.

Some of the reasons outlined are that the parents and teachers do not share the same opinion regarding the needs of students and do not share the same appreciation for the quality of educational action that these two actors realize.

Executives say they lack the experience of a joint action plan with parents for correction or improvement of any index or achievements and behavior. This is mostly due to parents, because most of them/parents do not share the same opinion with the school, connected with the needs identified by the school.

Teachers evaluate as necessary the cooperation with parents, but not always results that they are success factors in the learning process. Teachers note that they are not welcomed and understood by parents about their educational action. The process of cooperation of teacher and parent is treated by teachers based on experience and individual access to teachers and does not results to be a process that is organized in a structured and supported in a professional methodology. This means that parents do not realize their potential on the quality of cooperation in general and in particular of the education service. Teachers also have limited knowledge and in many cases unrealistic about the quality of learning environment that parents create in family. In this regard, it is claimed that the parents do not provide necessary information regarding methodological and substantive nature of their pedagogical action. In all cases the teachers interviewed, shows that parents always expect the teacher assessments and findings and the needs of the student for improvement, but they do not ask them how to support or to organize their pedagogical intervention.

Parents appreciate the cooperation with the school as a restricted report regarding information sharing. Both parties stress that faith (in a professional context) between the parties, is the most important point of the process. Parents admit that they are informed by the school for the quality of achievements, but not supported and advised that “How” should organize their family educational action.

Parents do not perceive as their right, the right to seek help and support from school to organize and conduct their educational action. For cases when they are offered this support they consider as a special service that the school offers. At most, it turns out that parents do not have or have very limited knowledge of the subject programs, with their objectives and goals. It results that they have a more knowledge on textbooks. In all cases surveyed, results that they were never recognized by the school with school subjects and also, they have no support in identifying the success or lack thereof.
Also, even when the teacher / school filed a deficiency or need to be improved, they claim that lacks common plan of action between them and teachers in order to improve certain skills and competencies of the child. Parents claim that during their communication with the school there has not been a subject of discussion between them and teachers knowing their family environment.

Discussion

By highlighting the fact that managers, teachers and parents have the same attitude and appreciation for the importance of cooperation between school and parents in improving academic achievement and overall student success in school, it is concluded that the restriction or lack of recognition of teachers for parents. Aspects such as the experience of parents, their needs for support in the educational process resulting not considered and treated by teaching staff. I appreciate that this aspect should be supported by a particular methodology, which can be structured into the following phases. (see anex 1)

1. **Contact and knowledge of partners:** This stage is typical for parents of first grade students of elementary education. The importance of this stage consists in the fact that not only marks the beginning of the school's relationship with the parent, but is also the stage of the first 'impact' that the partners create, as parents and teachers. Deadlines of this phase can be elusive. The role of teachers is very important at this stage, because through communication he should get as much information regarding the nature, disposition, needs, interests and different features of character and personality of the subject. Also, he must transmit to the parents his professional profile and willingness to support and cooperate with them. To achieve this information, the teacher should take care to structure such topics with the parent that are associated with the cognitive dimension of individuality of students. Also, part of the recognition should be the parents' own individuality, interests, attitudes, experiences and particular needs that they have in this activity. The teacher must have the proper professionalism to perceive, store, respect and treat items that are identified as vulnerable or sensitive to the student. This relationship becomes more complicated to establish contacts with parents, teachers and students of lower classes of elementary education, and specifically with students with special needs in education. The importance of this stage is underlined because it represents an important moment for the establishment of trust among parents that their child will be supported professionally in the educational process.

What teachers have to consider at this stage? Parents can display uncertainty and doubts about the quality of choice they made. For this, teachers need to provide a consistent communication with parents, give them the opportunity and time to express their opinions and demands about the quality of teaching.

2. **Identification of specific aspects of cooperation:** This stage is verified after the recognition that the teacher has created for students in terms of cognitive, affective and motor. For the students of elementary grades is normal to display different needs, have certain difficulties in different abilities, etc.. These difficulties may arise in the power of reading, of writing, of listening, the ability of performing mathematical operations, etc.. Teachers should accurately evident specific need for improvement. For example; the teacher should not inform parents only with generalizations such as, - "student / child must work harder at math" or, "has difficulty in spotting", "has difficulty with speed of reading". He must determine exactly in which mathematical operations determines the difficulty, that in what letter (vowel or consonant) difficulty appears etc.. Needs that are identified at this stage should be discussed and intended to be accepted by parents. Teachers and parents should be unified in their findings and the importance of these findings. It may happen that parents do not share the same assessment with the teacher about the importance of the observed needs.

3. **Determination of the action plan and expectations:** represents the implementation phase of cooperation. The teacher should encourage the parents to not only "What kind of" must do, but also "HOW" to realize their pedagogical action, in order to improve the identified needs. Time interval, the methodology and the types of activities that will follow the parents in organizing their own educational action should also be clear to the teacher / parent and rely on pedagogical principles, aiming at building an environment that ensures effective participation of the students. Draft action plan should build upon the recognition and full consideration as educational experiences that parents may have. The rationality of expectations should also be another identified aspect accepted by the teacher as well as the parent.

4. **Monitoring of the process:** relies heavily on information that the parents will provide with regard to activities that they have realized in the family. The information should be structured so as to conduct quantitative and qualitative. Teachers should have all the information regarding the family environment, with tools, equipment and literature that support the
student and by the time the student devotes to learning at home. The capacity of parents to identify the nature of the difficulties showing by students learning at home, their ability to overcome these difficulties, the interests that the students develop in learning and the abilities to distinct the progress, should be another indication of this analysis.

5. Evaluation of cooperation, appears as the last stage of this process. This stage should continue to develop between teachers and parents. This requires that parents to be supported by teachers who recognize and respect the indicators of the success of their activities and to be trained in more objective assessment of the progress. Parents should be considered as co-evaluator of the process, for this must be created to him the opportunity to create his assessment on the progress achieved or not.

Conclusions

The managers and teachers in school should support with organization methodology, monitoring and evaluating the effectiveness of the cooperation of the school with parents. Knowing the stages through which the process of establishing cooperation and recognition of the characteristics of each of the stages of this process will help the teachers that the relationship and cooperation with parents to turn it in a relationship that promotes the quality and effectiveness of teaching and education.

Quality and performance of teachers in developing their cooperation with the parents must be perceived by school administrators as a quality indicator of their performance in service.

Through communication with parents, teachers, schools should have the information or the necessary knowledge for the educational capacity and needs of parents in this regard.

Schools must return to the main partner in supporting parents to improve and organize the action with their professional education at home.

School must do all efforts for parents to have full knowledge for the curriculum. Action plan that must be developed between teachers and parents to support the students, should be structured in concrete and observable indicators.

Annex 1

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<th>Indicators of Success features</th>
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<td><strong>1</strong> Contact and recognition</td>
<td>• Establish direct contact teacher-parent&lt;br&gt; • Communication / focused interview to collect information about the educational potential of the family (interests, access to education, training, quality of family environment ... etc.) to parents.&lt;br&gt; • Evidence of the expectations of parents for their child's education.&lt;br&gt; • Evidence of needs and demands of parents, to be supported in their action&lt;br&gt; • Evidence of perception and trust that the parent has for the school.&lt;br&gt; • The willingness of the parents to cooperate.&lt;br&gt; • The clarity of the expectations of the parents.&lt;br&gt; • The level of the trust that appears.</td>
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<td><strong>2</strong> Identification of specific aspects of cooperation:</td>
<td>• The students of elementary grades is normal to display different needs.&lt;br&gt; • Teachers should accurately evident specific need for improvement.&lt;br&gt; • Needs that are identified at this stage should be discussed and intended to be accepted by parents.&lt;br&gt; • Teachers and parents should be unified in their findings and the importance of these findings.&lt;br&gt; • It may happen that parents do not share the same assessment with the teacher about the importance of the observed needs.</td>
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<td><strong>3</strong> Determination of the action plan and expectations</td>
<td>• Draft action plan should build upon the recognition and full consideration as educational experiences that parents may have.&lt;br&gt; • The teacher should encourage the parents to not only &quot;What kind of&quot; must do, but also &quot;HOW&quot; to realize their pedagogical action.&lt;br&gt; • The rationality of expectations should also be another identified aspect accepted by the teacher as well as the parent.&lt;br&gt; • Time interval, the methodology and the types of activities that will follow.</td>
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<td>• The capacity of parents to identify the nature of the difficulties showing by students learning at home,</td>
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<td>• How accepted is the progress relating to the expectations.</td>
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Relationship Between Spirituality and Academic Leader Effectiveness

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Abstract This paper is part of a doctoral research that intends to explore and extricate the key competencies necessary for university to select academic leaders, who will be appointed to lead the institution. Academicians are trained in focused field of discipline and slack in managerial competency. These are leaders who will serve in varying hierarchy such as at course, programme, faculty and academic administrative levels. This research is conducted to help ensure organizational effectiveness of the institution by promoting competent and efficient leaders. Hence, apart from exploring the competencies required, this research intends to find out if there is relationship between spiritual capability and competency of academic leaders to ensure their effective leadership. However, this presentation explores the literature on spirituality that contributes as a variable in the relationship. This paper presents the various models found in the literature which will further strengthen the items in the instrument to be constructed and subsequently administered. The research outcome may contribute to the process of selection with the proposal to utilize the results that have been conceptualized based on the findings. In conclusion, this research hopes to indicate relationship between competencies identified and spirituality with regards to leadership effectiveness that promotes continuous improvement both for the leaders as well as the institutions.

Keywords: spirituality, competency, effective leadership, relationship, institution

Introduction

This research is conducted to help ensure organizational effectiveness of the institution by promoting competent and efficient leaders. Hence, apart from exploring the competencies required, this research intends to find out if there is relationship between spiritual capability and competency of academic leaders to ensure their effective leadership. Nevertheless, for this presentation the researchers wish to expand on the literature on spirituality that contributes as the crucial element in the study. Zohar and Marshall (2004) may have claimed that spiritual capital is a new paradigm which requires a radical change in the mind-set of the philosophical foundations and the practice of business. However, it is not anti-capitalist, although it does require the addition of moral and social dimensions to capitalism. Furthermore, they also suggest that spiritual capital itself is not monetary wealth. Yet, it argues more in the possibility of making profits by conducting business in a wider context of meaning with value, ethics, moral and piety to the Divine Creator. Much ado about the concern vis-a-vis this paper presents the various spirituality-based models found in the literature which will further strengthen the items in the instrument to be constructed and subsequently administered for the current research.
Spiritual Capability

The beginning of the 21st Century sees new realities in the world of leadership studies that lead to organisational effectiveness. A decade before its entrance, Davis and Davidson (1991) mentioned that the future tends to shift from movement on arms race to a commercial technology rivalry. The term ‘shift’ carries the impetus of dynamic movement in the form of changes that of glory-seeking to goodness-sharing (Marques et al., 2007). The changes have become so rapid that in a decade there have been new terms like information economy, k-economy, economic globalization, green technology and green economy. Thereafter, the shift moved on from that of wealth creation to creating and generating the human resource that are productive and creative. In this development, a major transformation sees the organisation making room for spiritual dimension that embodies the search for meaning, purpose and interconnectedness (Ary, 2009; Karakas 2010) within its realm.

Additionally, it is only very recently that literature on spirituality is in much discussion. This has been due to the rise of moral consciousness that has effects on business and organisational sustainability (Aburdeen, 2010). In the management field there used to be only three kinds of capital of which are financial capital, intellectual capital, and social capital. Hence, with the rise in such consciousness, spiritual capital is a crucial element to sustain both for the human capital and the organisation (Ary, 2009, Zohar, 2004). Ashar and Lane-Maher (2004) reiterated that spirituality and the notion of success are linked together in the business and suggested that this relationship be explored further.

From Karakas (2010) there are more than 70 definitions of spirituality coming from work of several authors like Markow and Klenke (2005), Guillory (2000), Barnett et al., (2000) and Laabs (1995). Although Karakas has distinctly separated spirituality from religion, for this current study, the researchers have included the comprehensive Islamic spirituality encompassing the same notion proposed by Karakas, but in more specific terms namely of Islam, Iman and Ehsan (Ary, 2005 and Salahuddin, 2010).

Scientific explanation of spiritual quotient (SQ) as the element of spirituality came during the late 1990s, when neurological research suggested that the brain has a whole third kind of intelligence. This is the intelligence with which we have access to deep meaning, fundamental values, and a sense of abiding purpose in our lives, and the role that this meaning, values, and purpose play in our lives. Moreover, spiritual quotient is believed to contribute to the level of motivation. This is because inside the core of spiritual quotient lays an issue about self-awareness such as: Why was I born? What is the meaning of my life? Why am I devoting my life to this job? What am I really trying to achieve with this project or with my life? Although these questions may not have any relationship with employee’s motivation in work, the performance level of the employee may be boosted up beyond expectation, if he or she has positive answers to the questions as stated by Zohar and Marshall (2004).

Spirituality and institutional effectiveness

In recent years too, application of religious awareness, knowledge, and commitment has begun to find its place in organisation that strives to sustain, remain excellent, build committed leaders and enhance effective human capital. Therefore, with the updated emphasis of human resource development terms like knowledge worker aims to improve performance, productivity, competitive edge and product quality level. This is reiterated by Ary (2009) that the critical factor for success has its foundation in spirituality. Hence, spiritual capability is an ability to lend meaning to one’s way of thinking and behaving, as a way of performing God’s characteristics and the service to God (Ary, 2009). He then further emphasised the significance of spirituality at work when he quoted Hendrick and Ludeman (2002) that “Lately, the concern of the big corporation toward ethical, and even spiritual aspect of their employee has grown rapidly – in the global market in the future …” (p.14). This indicates that there is giant step made by corporations towards spirituality in their human resource development.

This is a phenomenon elaborated further by Covey (2004) when he states, “Spiritual intelligence is the central and most fundamental of all the intelligence, because it becomes the source of guidance of the other three intelligences.” The strong belief that spirituality acts as the front of defence from any leadership disadvantage serves well for an organisation, in particular, institution of higher education as it is the training platform for human capital development and generation. In creating and generating human resources, it is also only in recent years that published work on spirituality takes on a serious note in journals. In his comprehensive review on Spirituality and Performance in Organization, Fahri Karakas (2010) who reviewed 140 articles on the said issue, seems to agree on the fact that spirituality improves performance and organizational effectiveness, of which he verified the relevance that spirituality provides in enhancing work performance. The current research takes it as an essential variable as it is to be proven having both direct effect on leadership effectiveness.
Karakas (2010), who further emphasized on work done by Bierly et al., 2000; Korac-Kakabadse and Korac-Kakabadse, 1997; reported that there is a positive relationship between spirituality at work and organizational productivity and performance. However, he admitted that as much as there have been reservation on spirituality effects on organization, other research have proven that spirituality in-house practices have positive returns for the organizations. This diagram depicts the aims of the review by integrating three different perspectives on how spirituality enables or leads to organizational performance:

**Figure 1: Three perspectives of spirituality and performance**

In this work, Karakas (2010) introduced three perspectives on how spirituality benefits the organization as an individual and as a unit by itself. He listed that spirituality has its impact on the following by the fact that it:

1. enhances employee well-being and quality of life
2. provides employees a sense of purpose and meaning at work
3. provides employees a sense of interconnectedness and community.

This current research has included spirituality, a contribution to the body of knowledge, as the independent variable. Various academic theories and research have provided the support of the relationship between spirituality and leadership (Fry, 2003). Spiritual beliefs and practices have been a factor that is linked to the forming and fostering of servant leaders, however, historically spirituality and leadership theories are said to be world apart. It is quite recent that Reave (2005) has reiterated that nowadays an increasing body of evidence has indicated that these two fields are related.

Freeman (2001) in his paper quoted Fry (2005) stated that spirituality in relation to work has been receiving increased attention and hence, has resulted in a fast growing area of new research and inquiry in relation to leadership theory, research and practice. Therefore, this current study, based on literature and observation of the population of research in which majority of them are Muslims, attempts to identify the relationship of the IV, that is spirituality cause more effect on the academic leadership effectiveness.

Freeman (2001) has also included the proposition of leadership construct with measurable variables via the following empirical approach, which are:

(a) Spiritual beliefs, an independent variable measure which is measurable by a subset of Fetzer’s *Brief Multidimensional Measure of Religiousness/Spirituality* (BMMRS);
(b) Servant leadership behaviour, a mediating variable measured by Liden et al.’s (2008) named *Servant Leadership Scale*;
(c) Leadership effectiveness, an outcome variable which is measured by the modified version of Denison, Hooijberg and Quinn’s (1995) named *Leadership Effectiveness Survey*;
(d) Spiritual practices which is a moderating variable that is measured by the items on the BMMRS with specification on Spiritual Practices domain.
Based on the review, this current research attempts to capture the common items in constructing the questions for the questionnaire to test the hypothesized relationships of the variables which are discussed in the study. Historically, taking examples from the Malay Archipelago, the movement of spirituality is to be found in the work task and performance. This section of the literature will present several cases to indicate that spirituality plays a link within its relationships as the independent variable with regards to the dependent variable.

**Spirituality-based Models for Leadership Effectiveness**

In this study, spirituality has been included in the conceptual framework as it is a crucial element in developing human capital that spells (1) effectiveness, (2) excellence, (3) knowledgeable, (4) discipline and (5) visionary (Siti Akmar et al., 2011). With the rise of conscious market-driven community, many have concluded that to achieve the highest stake in business is to simultaneously reconstruct the moral consciousness. Spiritual capability here is referred to as the intelligence that defines the essence or values, the intelligence that places a person’s actions and lives into a wider and richer meaning. This is found in the way actions, tasks, duties or jobs are executed at institutional level. Hence, this study will contribute to filling in the gap of the present knowledge.

**Sembuk Model**

Additionally, Sembuk et al., (1999) put forth a triangular holistic curriculum that fits in developing human capital of all fields. The proposed model attempts to create wholesome and rounded workers who are not only (1) knowledgeable, (2) skilful and (3) possess professional ability, but also (4) possess strong spiritual, (5) are ethical and (6) have social awareness in conducting his duties.

![Figure 2: A Holistic Model of Manpower Creation of Knowledge and Skills](image)

**ESQ Model**

The ESQ Model does not separate the rest of the other quotients namely (1) intellectual, (2) emotional and (3) spiritual. In fact these quotients are integratively functioned to create an integral and transcendental unity. These quotients are equally important substances which in togetherness sustain the individual to strive efficiently and effectively. With the combination of these quotients at work, it creates energies that form dependable method to seek fundamental knowledge.
This is the model developed by the Selangor State Government, Malaysia under the auspices of the Executive Council Member for Education, Higher Education and Human Capital Development headed by the Chairperson, Dr. Hajah Halimah Ali in which its mission is to produce excellent human being and community holistically encompassing five primary capability domains namely spiritual, physical, intellect, emotional and social.

**Spiritual capital** is the foundational element that ensures personality effectiveness on the physical, emotional and intellectual. A spiritually-driven individual understands himself and his self-potential as he knows the meaning of life and the value system through his relationship with God. In his belief, there is love of God, he loves himself and other beings that have relationship with God. This unity becomes the foundation for integration and love for one another and amongst others.

Meanwhile **physical capital** requires intellect development, strength within oneself to face the challenges and pressures as well as self-wellness to undertake whatever actions that will benefit oneself, family and the community.
Intellectual capital does not only refer to the thinking ability of an individual, but also it needs to be evaluated on the direction and the objective of the thoughts. Having high level of creativity does not justify the aims or the effects on others, either beneficial or otherwise are indications of weakness of the thinking ability. Nonetheless, the idea promoted to resolve certain issue by an individual is not considered wise if the resolution is at the advantage of oneself, and disadvantaged others. This indicates that his self-intellectual potential is compromised. Intellectual capital is influenced directly by emotion and value system. Hence, the primary principle is that vision and aim is based upon value, collaborative, proactive and creative thinking and lifelong learning.

Emotional capital is the individual’s wisdom in creating awareness and controlling emotion and the effects on oneself and on others. The guiding principles of empathy, motivation, influence, compassion, the skills of positive and negative actions are essential.

Finally, it is the social capital which refers to the individual’s ability to react with wisdom in the interpersonal communication. Goleman (2006) elaborated that social quotient does not only depends on the cognitive aspect of social skills, but also on the non-cognitive aspects which include empathy, altruism and care. This indicates that the individual acts collaboratively or a win-win social communication be it formal or non-formal.

INCIEF Model

In the Malaysian perspective, human capital development model is not merely affected by financial capital, intellectual capital and social capital. As a country with multiethnic people, Malaysia has developed a rich value in religion, culture, and ethic. That being said, Malaysia has already possessed the additional and yet important capital that plays the same important role with the other capitals. This model presented in Figure 5 is what INCIEF (2008) emphasised as the best model to develop human capital in Malaysia.

Figure 5: A Model of Well-Balanced Worker Proposed by INCIEF

The model comprises the fundamental information as represented by the Islamic values. Based on the fundamental knowledge (Fard ‘Ain), the items comprise (1) Tawhid, (2) Islam, (3) Iman, (4) Ehsan and (5) Ethics. The current research attempts to determine the relationship of spirituality element of Islam with regards to effective academic leadership in institution of higher education.
Discussion and Conclusion

Based on the presentation above, the models presented displayed some very common terms. Previous research that involved the studies on religion and spirituality are beginning to successfully define the items in spirituality (Muller et al., 2004). Furthermore, previous studies have also indicated that belief in prayer is associated with higher levels of well-being (Francis and Kaldor, 2002). The above models are to be found pertinent in providing the dimensions to define that the true character of human capital exists with values, integrity and ethics. The main limitation is that the study has proposed causal relationships but has used cross-sectional methodology. While the notion that the spiritual organisation can provide an alternative social institution to work as an avenue for accessing latent benefits is an interesting proposition, longitudinal data are required to tease out the roles played by the latent and manifest benefits of employment and spirituality. Despite these shortcomings, there are some important findings from the study for unemployed people, including that: (1) access to latent and manifest benefits of employment is associated with positive psychological well-being; (2) reporting a spiritual orientation is associated with better well-being; (3) reporting higher spirituality is associated with better access to the latent benefits of employment; and (4) spirituality mediates the relationship of the latent benefits of employment and well-being.

One of the aims of this doctoral research is to examine the relationship between spirituality and leadership effectiveness. The rationale was to investigate whether spirituality would provide access to the latent benefits of what it takes to be an effective leader; as opposed to other previous research which indicated that other factors would be beneficial. And that spirituality would have a positive effect on leadership effectiveness. At the same time, the study is currently detailing on the competencies of what an academic leader should be equipped with, in order to execute duties for the institutions effectively. Based on the present scenario and taking on from Nadler’s proposition, leadership development also takes a centre stage in preparing academicians to hold leadership position. In addition, with the advent of dynamic literature, relevance and significance of spirituality in performance, this current research embarks on the last variable as the mediator in order to verify the direct and indirect effects on the outcome of the study. Therefore, this will be the contribution of the current doctoral study to the body of knowledge.

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Relationships Among Scientific and Methodological Skills in Teachers’ Performance

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Abstract The relationships between teachers’ scientific and methodological skills in their performance has intrigued the author of this research recently. Results of data analyzed show that the relationship between teachers’ scientific and methodological skills is a significant and important one. Teachers that show high results on scientific skills may show high results on methodological skills as well. Influence of scientific skills independent variable on the variance of methodological skills dependent variable is fewer than the median, but the correlation between two variables is linear positive.

1. Introduction

Scientific and methodological skills’ command or demonstration in the teachers’ work reflects directly on the quality of learning. Teachers in general show the same of the different performance on command and demonstration of these skills. Thus there are teachers that show high performance on scientific and methodological skills, as well as there are teachers that show high performance on scientific skills and low performance on methodological ones, or vice versa.

Formal teachers’ professional development is mainly focused on methodological skills development, meanwhile scientific skills development is made at teachers’ faculties. Managerial educational institutions include: (1) programmes for methods and techniques of teaching, (2) programmes for command of specific competences such as ICT, (3) programmes for command of new competences related to curriculum changes or educational managerial or teaching structures changes in their teachers’ professional development programmes.

Teachers’ scientific skills development that consider directly obligation of university teachers’ faculties, generally support by schools only in the staff training forms, or by personal initiatives of teachers themselves that may involve in the process of self-training or self-updating of knowledge. Teachers’ achievements in scientific and methodological skills is verified or measured at teachers’ professional qualification examinations that manage by regional and central educational institutions that are responsible for teachers’ professional qualification management.

In our practice of teachers’ professional development, command of scientific and methodological skills by them, reflect directly in qualification grade achievements acquirement, because these two skills are two main parts of final assessment for teachers’ professional qualification grades acquirement.

Aim of research was to find out the relationship among scientific and methodological skills in teachers’ performance. Main research’s question is to find out if there is any relationship among two main variables: (1) scientific skills, (2) methodological skills, as well as if there is any influence by scientific skills on methodological ones, or the other variables in the relationship: (1) portfolio and bonuses, (2) documentation, (3) programme.

Research focus was to find out the relationship among two main variables, as well as to find out the influence of the other ones. Alternative hypothesis of the research was: The level of scientific skills’ command influences on the level of methodological skills’ command, meanwhile the null hypothesis denies this assumption.

The main variables analyzed in the research for the relationship among them, as well as for the influence, level of association, and the direction of relationship are structured as below: (1) methodological skills was dependent variable, and (2) scientific skills was independent variable.

Research on relationships among scientific and methodological skills as two main variables in teachers’ professional configuration is a precious contribution for the institutions that manage teachers’ professional development, starting from school level, regional educational departments, and that finish to central level with Ministry of Education and Science, as well as Institute of Education Development. Research’ conclusions are also precious for university teachers’ faculties that may use the conclusions to examine the balance among scientific and methodological skills to reflect them in the report between scientific and methodological curriculums.
2. Methodology of Research

Methods used in the research on relationships among scientific and methodological skills on teachers' performance are mainly quantitative that mean all of statistical analysis as cross tabulation, correlation, regression, compared means, but involved also qualitative method that was used to generate alternative findings, as well as to contrast generated findings from quantitative analysis to them generated by qualitative analysis.

Qualitative analysis was concentrated on two well known instruments for qualitative method: (1) interviews applied with regional educational departments respondents that are responsible in local level for teachers' professional development, (2) focus group with stratify respondents starting from kindergarten teachers, primary school teachers, low secondary education, and high secondary education, National Inspectorate, Institute of Educational Development, Ministry of Education and Science. Findings from interviews and from focus group was contrasted to findings generated by quantitative analysis that was used to verify research hypothesis.

There were two kinds of instruments on the research. Main instrument used to verify research hypothesis was 2010 teachers' qualification database. The data derived from database was used to apply statistical analysis. The second instruments used in the research was interviews and focus group. Generated data was based on the same dimensions applied on quantitative instrument, as well as on qualitative ones.

Respondents for quantitative analysis was selected by teachers' population that were part of 2010 qualification, that was a stratify and probabiluty sample, and a lot of representatives for some reasons: (1) The sample is compounded by all of the teachers' profile, starting from kindergarten teachers, primary school teachers, low secondary education, high secondary education, (2) the sample was compounded by teachers with different professional experiences that varied from 5, 10, 20 teaching years experience, respectively 3rd grade, 2nd grade, 1st grade, (3) teachers selected in the sample came from all of the counties of Albania.

We selected respondents for qualitative analysis the most updated specialists from regional educational departments. Meanwhile focus group respondents were selected by experienced teachers that represent kindergarten, primary school, low secondary school, high secondary school, National Inspectorate specialists, Institute of Educational Development specialists, Ministry of Education and Science specialists.

Research based on hypothesis level of scientific skills command influences on level of methodological skills of teachers’ performance, did not design to research teachers’ professional development in all in all. Teachers’ professional development is a broad and complex structure, and is compounded by a lot of variables that influence on each other, as result from literature review, but the research study two variables only: scientific skills and methodological skills and the relationships among them. Research to measure the relationships among scientific skills and methodological skills variables, was not designed to measure the influence of other variables that are not included in the study.

Research did not analyze the influence of teachers’ initial training at university faculties on the relationships of variables in the study. Research did not analyze the influence of other variables that are not part of this study on methodological skills that was selected to be dependent variable in conventional way.

3. Findings

Comparing generated data of variables’ value frequencies, result that : (1) number of teachers that achieve low level in scientific skills is 1.7% fewer than the number of teachers that achieve low level in methodological skills; (2) number of teachers that achieve medium level in scientific skills is 5.2% greater than the number of teachers that achieve medium level in methodological skills; (3) number of teachers that achieve high level in scientific skills is 3.5% fewer than the number of teachers that achieve high level in methodological skills.

In other words the sample of teachers in the study in low and in medium level has a more positive tendency in scientific skills, and has a light descent of this tendency in the high level. Although we must say that there are relatively closely differences and varies from 1.7% up to 5.2%.

Table 18: Summaries of variables values

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>Low level</th>
<th>Medium level</th>
<th>High level</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Scientific skills</td>
<td>3%</td>
<td>43.30%</td>
<td>53.60%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Methodological skills</td>
<td>4.7%</td>
<td>38.10%</td>
<td>57.10%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Derived results from cross tabulations, indicate that significance statistical value generated by analysis made for “Pearson Chi Square” and for “Phi and Cramer’s V” is .000. This means that there are 100% of possibilities that the relationships among scientific and methodological skills are statistically significant, and there are 0% of possibilities that the relationships among scientific and methodological skills come by chance.

Based on data generated by cross tabulations among scientific and methodological skills variables result that 1302 teachers, or 55.2% of them has achieved the same assessment level on two variables, meanwhile 1056 teachers or 44.8% of them has achieved different assessment. As a conclusion we may say that the relationship between two variables is strong; teachers that achieve an assessment level on one variable keep the same level on other variable as well.

Table 2: Data summaries of crosstabulation

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Scientific</th>
<th>Methodological</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>1.00</td>
<td>1.00</td>
<td>2.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1.00</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>27</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>9.8%</td>
<td>9.8%</td>
<td>66.1%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>5.0%</td>
<td>5.0%</td>
<td>50.4%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>1.0%</td>
<td>1.0%</td>
<td>36.8%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>2.00</td>
<td>2.00</td>
<td>3.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>45</td>
<td>45</td>
<td>453</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>45%</td>
<td>50.4%</td>
<td>44.6%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>13</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>496</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>50.0%</td>
<td>50.0%</td>
<td>44.6%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>1.0%</td>
<td>1.0%</td>
<td>36.8%</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>3.00</td>
<td>3.00</td>
<td>3.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>13</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>496</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>50.0%</td>
<td>50.0%</td>
<td>44.6%</td>
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<td>1.0%</td>
<td>1.0%</td>
<td>36.8%</td>
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<td></td>
<td>Total</td>
<td>Total</td>
<td>Total</td>
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<tr>
<td>1.00</td>
<td>69</td>
<td>69</td>
<td>1023</td>
</tr>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.00</td>
<td>1266</td>
<td>1266</td>
<td>2358</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Pearson correlation value for scientific and methodological skills .237 generated from correlation analysis, indicates that there is an under medium level correlation among scientific and methodological skills variables. Direction of correlation is linear positive that means that increasing of values of one variable influences on increasing of values of the other variable.

Thus, if the teachers show or demonstrate high level of scientific skills show or demonstrate high level of methodological skills and vice versa. But the indication mass is not considerable, even is under medium level. This means that although main tendency of linear positive correlation, teachers that achieve high level on scientific skills may not achieve high level on methodological, and vice versa.

Generated results from bivariate regressive analysis among scientific skills and methodological skills variables indicates that statistical significance value is .000. This means again that that there are 100% of possibilities to be a statistical significant relationship among two variables or that the relationships among them do not come by chance.
“R Square” generated value .056, indicates that around 5.6% of variance on methodological skills dependent variable is caused by scientific skills independent variable; the other variance is caused by hidden or unknown variables that are not part of this study.

Through multivariate analysis was confirming the same value of statistical significance as in all of the other statistical analysis. In this analysis we included except scientific and methodological skills variables the other variables in the configuration as portfolio and bonuses, documentation, programme, to find out their influence on the variance of methodological skills dependent variable.

“R Square” generated value .103, indicates that around 10.3% of variance on methodological skills dependent variable is caused by scientific skills independent variable + the other variables added in the analysis portfolio and bonuses, documentation, programme; meanwhile 89.7% of variance is caused by hidden or unknown variables that are not part of this study.

At the end compared means analysis confirm that statistical significance value is .000, that is unchanged in all of statistical analysis, as well as positive linearity of the relationship among two variables in the study.

About 90% of interviews and focus group respondents answered that scientific skills are primary compared to methodological ones. In other word teachers that show or demonstrate high scientific level may show or demonstrate high methodological level, but not in all of the cases because there are teachers that show or demonstrate high scientific level and low methodological level. Adding achievements by quantitative analysis, result that scientific skills are primary on teachers’ professional formation, methodological skills is been influenced in a certain mass by scientific skills, but they develop in a great mass independently.

About 100% of respondents reported that a teacher that show or demonstrate low scientific level is not possible to show or demonstrate high methodological skills. Teachers that do not show or demonstrate scientific skills of the subject do not show or demonstrate interactive methods or techniques in teaching. They talk themselves only, they do not allow discussion or alternative opinions by pupils, they characterized by a conducted pedagogy and at the end they apply a teaching with teacher in the center.

This conclusion reinforce the abovementioned idea that scientific skills are primary on teachers’ professional development; we cannot say that methodological skills are the function of scientific skills, but they are depended in a certain mass from them. The vice versa option based on quantitative and qualitative data is not possible; methodological skills cannot be primary and cannot influence scientific skills.

Teachers, especially inexperienced ones need to develop professionally on two fields as in scientific skills as well as in methodological ones. Of course, the fields where teachers need more include inexperienced ones are methodological ones, but based on data of last years where new teachers have scientific incompetence’s, need to develop scientific skills as well.

About 90% of respondents answered that teachers’ professional qualification structure as a part of teachers’ professional development is a comprehensive one; need to change some elements saving structural report through current elements. Credits involve as a possibility to acquire qualification grades would urge teachers to take part in training activities that would indicate in their professional competence development.

4. Conclusions

- The relationship among two skills, as two components that determine structural configuration and contentual of the teachers, is significant. This means that two skills are related, sustain each other, influence each other, and complete each other. We cannot understand a teacher that during his or her performance show or demonstrate in a certain level scientific skills without show or demonstrate at the same level or in closely levels methodological skills as well, and vice versa. Thus, two skills in the study cannot exist without each other that altogether and with other variables complete teachers’ professional configuration.
- More than 50% of teachers have professional achievements more than mean. Thus more than half of teachers in primary and secondary schools show or demonstrate scientific and methodological skills on medium level.
- Majority of teachers have achieved relatively more points at high level and relatively fewer ones at low level. Group of teachers that show or demonstrate high level on scientific skills and on methodological ones is bigger than group of teachers that show or demonstrate low level on two skills.
- In the two skills, with a small superiority of methodological skills, about 70% of teachers have achievements from the medium to maximum that indicate that majority of teachers show or demonstrate scientific and
methodological skills between medium and high level.

- In low level teachers’ achievements in scientific skills have a small positive difference compared to their achievements in methodological skills.

- In medium level teachers’ achievements in scientific skills have a bigger positive difference compared to their achievements in methodological skills, as well as compared to low level of achievements.

- In high level teachers’ achievements in methodological skills have a small difference compared to their achievements in scientific skills. In the three levels of showing or demonstrating of scientific and methodological skills, there are very small differences that indicate that relationship among two variables is significant.

- On the majority of teachers the level of showing and demonstrating of scientific skills influence on the level of methodological skills; this indicates that on the majority of teachers is verified research hypothesis.

- Teachers with low level on methodological skills cannot have high level on scientific skills; this verifies again research hypothesis that scientific skills are primary and influence on methodological skills.

- Teachers with high achievements on scientific skills may not show the same level on methodological skills.

- Teachers with high achievements on methodological skills may not show the same level on scientific skills.

- Variance on methodological skills is influenced on a little mass by scientific skills; the other part is developed independently.

- Portfolio and bonuses, documentation, and programme have a little influence on the variance of methodological skills.

- Methodological skills as an important component of teachers’ professional development, since they are related, cannot influence scientific skills.

- Teachers’ professional development is a structure that means development of teachers in two main directions: scientific and methodological, as well as development of additional competences of professional configuration.

5. Recommendations

- Development of scientific and methodological skills must be applied perceiving them as two main components of the same common structure, that represents teachers’ professionalism.

- There is a need to develop teachers not only in methodological skills, but in scientific skills as well.

- Managerial educational institutions that are responsible for teachers’ professional development, local and central ones, must compile short- term, medium- term, and long- term programmes for teachers’ professional development include scientific and methodological skills, as well as based on their needs.

- Central educational institutions must announce primarily new teachers’ competences, as part of scientific and methodological skills of their fields or subjects.

- Central educational institutions that manage teachers’ professional qualification must include credits in this structure; this would orientate teachers toward participation in different training programmes, a process that would bring a continual teachers’ professional development.

- Teachers’ university faculties must assess curriculum report of teacher initial training of teachers’ scientific and methodological skills to apply a harmonically report between them, that would support increasing of quality on teachers’ initial formation.

References


Training in Mediation: An Educational Mechanism for new Professional Profiles

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Abstract The need for Lifelong Education and Training has become a politically defined requirement and not just an intrinsic relevance to human beings. In this context, new training proposals arise, which are associated with young professionals in an emerging field that is known as Adult Education and Training. In this sense, over the last decade Portugal and France have embraced new challenges in this field with the establishment in France of the process of Validation des Acquis de l’Expérience (VAE) and in Portugal of the process of Recognition, Validation and Certification of Skills (RVCC) and of courses for the Education and Training of Adults (EFA Courses). From these innovations in the field of education new pedagogical requirements and new professionals have also emerged: namely, the Diagnosis and Referral Technicians and the RVC Professionals in the RVCC process, the EFA Mediators and the Professionals of VAE. Some of the objectives of this study are to get to know about and question the features of the profiles of the new professional and to identify their training needs. The data resulting from the predominantly qualitative multi-case study conducted in Portugal and France, namely, the analysis of semi-directive interviews and autobiographical narratives, points to the need for these new professionals to attend regular professional training in the areas of Adult Education and Training and Mediation and these are the results that will be questioned and discussed in this text.

Keywords Lifelong Learning Education; Adult Education; Training needs

1. Introduction

These days the concept of training is inserted into our daily lives almost without asking permission. Cruz (1998) reports that there has been an increase in formal training within organizations; namely, training organized in a formal program of learning, which is implemented in a particular place.

In turn, one of the most focused on aspects currently is training within the work context. In fact, several authors theorize about these issues. Ferry (1991) and Lesne (1984), in particular, refer to theoretical models in which training is based, especially, in work situations and on practices and experiences of subjects in a professional context and Canário (1997) also points out the training potential of working contexts. It is in this line of thought that Correia (1997) perceives the emergence of processes directed at a fusion between training and work, which is strengthened by the acquisition of concepts such as continuing education and retraining.

However, the relationship between training and work situations was not always peaceful. Initially, education and work were seen as two dichotomous realities. With the development of the capitalist system, there was a transformation of this dichotomy in temporal separation i.e. education preceded work in a sequential manner. Education - promoter of cultural mechanisms and socialization - took the form of education for work and in the latter the notion of skilled labor resulting from training was introduced.

Nevertheless, the crisis at work and in education, especially from the 1970s onwards, led to this relational sequence starting to be questioned, as the relationship between educational provision and labor supply began to be shaken up.

Presently, it appears that education has stopped being prior to the working sphere and is concurrent with it (Silva, 2005), due to the accelerated transformations of production processes. In turn, the instability of the world of employment has led to the acknowledgement that training cannot be limited to preparation for a steady job for life. Thus, the concepts of comprehensive training and re-training appear to be associated with a conception of work that, unlike a few decades ago, is marked by uncertainty and relative (but growing) instability (Correia, 1996). Consequently, training in work situations has become an important and significant commitment, as underlined by Canário
48

(2000: 7), when he points out that it becomes necessary to “think the professional activity and the training activity in a perspective integrated on the one hand (the two spheres are not separable today) and, on the other hand, in a diachronic perspective, i.e. inserted in the arrow of time, while unique phenomena and endowed with irreversibility.”

As pointed out by Correia (1996), the field of training has been meddling increasingly in the world of work, which is meant to be a potential instance for training. It follows, therefore, that the relationship between training and work has become narrower and the first is no longer superior to the second but they are now dynamically and mutually interactive (Silva, 2005, 2072).

Canário (2000: 12) - in this context - stressed that “education basically reinvents new forms of professional socialization, which calls for the establishment and development in the work contexts of a dynamic both formative and of identity construction that makes this reinvention possible.”

Thus, “spaces and times of high density training” (Correia, 1996: 104) may arise, among others, from work and “the understanding of the dynamics of work situations may contribute to the understanding of the dynamics of training situations, if one does not confuse the real performance of work with the prescribed work and if one takes into account the systems of human relations in which these situations are inscribed” (Ibidem).

In fact, an emphasis on the valuing of professional practices, which are inseparable from work and contribute to (re)construction of the identity (Matos, 1999: 247-248) can be highlighted.

It is in this context that continuing education, especially that related to professional situations, has become increasingly important, particularly when one is facing - at first hand - the bulwark of Lifelong Learning and, second, when one is confronted with the demands of the present day job market. This framework can lead to the question of whether or not adults seek training, specifically, in their work context.

As Malglaive (1995: 244) mentions, “it seems clear that any training can be an “object” likely to become the target of the motivation of a human being who can find there a way to establish the relationships required for an optimal expression of their functional capabilities.”

Training is often required when it allows the solving of practical problems in the lives of individuals, particularly, in professional situations, which is one of the main motivations for its frequency.

Thus, with training, subjects may realize that this may present itself as a privileged way of personal fulfillment that encapsulates their needs.

How do the professionals that participated in this study see the need for training? How do they relate their motivation with the specific situations that they experience in their everyday context of action?

The data that allow an answer to these questions is part of a larger research project, whose theme is “Figures of Mediation in Adult Education: A Multi-case Study from the experience in Portugal and France.” This is a study focusing on Mediation in the context of Adult Education and Training in Portugal and France, which is an emerging area included in the wider field of Mediation, which has been under ever widening investigation given its alternate character with regard to resolution and prevention of conflicts.

2. Methodology

This research presents mixed instruments with regard to the use of qualitative and quantitative methodologies and it focuses on a phenomenological and constructivist perspective, which seeks to analyze and understand the meaning individuals give to their actions.

With this end in mind a comparative Multi-case Study of two Portuguese educational models - the Courses for the Education and Training of Adults (EFA Courses) and the Recognition, Validation and Certification of Competences (RVCC) - and a French system - the Validation des Acquis de l’Expérience (VAE) - was developed. Autobiographical narratives (six), semi-directive interviews (nine) and direct observations were carried out and the data was analyzed using the NVivo Software, version 9.0.

Surveys were also applied to the trainees on four Courses for the Education and Training of Adults in order to obtain their perceptions about the work done by the Mediators responsible for their respective Courses.

Finally, in order to expand the study, surveys of the Mediators of Courses for the Education and Training of Adults (EFA Mediators), Diagnosis and Referral Technicians (TDR), Professionals concerned with the Recognition and Validation of Competences (PRVC) in Portugal and Professionals related to VAE in France were also carried out. The quantitative data from the surveys was processed using SPSS Software, version 18.0 and open questions were analyzed using content analysis.

Discussion regarding this paper will be based on the analysis of the autobiographical narratives and semi-directive interviews conducted during the exploratory phase of the investigation with seven Professionals working in the field of
Mediation in the context of the Education and Training of Adults, under the Courses for the Education and Training of Adults (two EFA Mediators), the Recognition, Validation and Certification of Competences (one TDR and three PRVC) and VAE (one Professional from VAE).

3. Presentation of the main results

While in the 1960s initial training was seen as sufficient to discharge the duties of a given profession, continuous training is currently present in discourses and professional practices (Ribeiro, 2009). In fact, in this field of study the PRVC are clear, when they indicate that initial training, although it is a sine qua non condition for the exercise of their functions, is not enough and they mention the need to attend specific training. In this regard, it is possible to identify some of their significant statements:

Then, I think there should be specific training for Professionals and Trainers of RVCC. There are people who work in the RVCC and they don’t even know what a Recognition of Competences is, they will learn on the job and until they realize the logic, they also will not be able to explain the logic to the adults (…) we have to know well the subject, the concepts to succeed in realizing the dimension of it all (Excerpts from the Interview with PRVC 1)

Now, that I think that the Professionals of Recognition should have specific training. I do, because there is some, there is some inherent responsibility to what we do and there is a need to take things seriously and with rigor, there, there is a need to understand what we are doing and why we are doing it. I had training when I came in, specifically, for Professionals of Recognition, anyway, I think a contextualization of Adult Education is an important feature, therefore, training, in this context, to me is more important or crucial or central than the initial training, because it has direct consequences in what we do (Excerpts from the Interview with PRVC 2)

Thus, it appears that training and its relationship to the world of work is seen as a process that goes beyond the period of schooling of the individuals. In fact, in the process of identity reconfiguration, “training occupies a prominent status, insofar as it facilitates the visibility of the specific knowledge of the profession and reflects the process of questioning the professional practices that are fundamental to the social and scientific demarcation of the profession” (Abreu, 1997: 149). The Professionals that participated in this study admit logically the need to articulate training and work, being in the first instance “an indispensable condition for the realization of work and for their own personal and professional achievement” (Silva, 2005: 2078). Their interest in attending training is evident, as can be read in their statements:

I would like [to attend training] (Excerpt from the Interview with Mediator 1)

Yes, yes, always [frequency of training] (Excerpt from the Interview with TDR)

I think, I increasingly feel that need for training for my loyalty to the procedures and ways of working, effectively, at all Centers (…) and what happens is that a person that is simply of the area of Social Sciences can be a Professional and sometimes without a specific training and I think the responsibility of our work is too big to be done this way (Extract from the Interview with PRVC 1)

I would like to attend training (Excerpt from the Narrative of PRVC 2)

This is a hypothesis that arises in the future … but not a too distant future (Excerpt from the Narrative of PRVC 3)

In turn, this willingness to seek training is not recent, as they referred to the importance of past opportunities to attend training that enabled them to develop professionally, which leads one to reflect on the real importance attached to these training processes that relate to their work context:

… and to the exercise of the profession I also did, at the time I was sharing the role with a colleague (…) even because she was doing it for longer than me, deep down, I also had some internal training (…) a lot of internal training with that person (Excerpt from the Interview with TDR)

Then, recently, I attended training (Excerpt from the Interview with Mediator 2)
She [the Coordinator] invited me to participate in any type of training that may be beneficial to my ownership of the job (Excerpt from the Interview with Professional of VAE)

Now I will attend training in online training management. I think this training will help me greatly in my job performance (Excerpt from the Narrative of Mediator 1)

In terms of areas of training, the Professionals point out the need to increase knowledge in their current field of action, including: Training Management, Interpersonal Relationship, Time Management, Education and Training of Adults, Social Education, Referential of Key Competences of the High School Level; Mediation, Human Resources, Educational Policies. In terms of procedures, they referred to the desire to share experiences with peers in order to adjust content, understand practices and adapt procedures as is reflected in these statements:

Yes, it would be good. (...) To do some training with Mediators of other institutions to see how they work elsewhere and try to improve, perhaps, a task that is not being so well developed (Excerpt from the Interview with Mediator 1)

Look, I got it, I was invited to participate in a (...) that involved the share of experiences about EFA’s and it was an interesting experience, (...) each one reported how their groups were and how they managed their situations

Eventually, it was a very enriching training, in terms of what we learned, all of our surroundings in terms of experience, there was a big share (...) It was interesting (Excerpts from the Interview with Mediator 2)

... and I felt the need to talk, to exchange views in the sense even (...) to help me (Excerpt from the Interview with TDR)

I would like it to be here at the Academy (...) we make our self-training, we have weekly meetings, (...) and we discuss often these things but maybe it was important for someone to come from outside also to show us where we are wrong, because maybe we are not correct in everything (Excerpt from the Interview with PRVC 1)

Thus, it was noticed that the Professionals see training as a need and a demand both personally and in terms of organization i.e. as a form of updating knowledge, improving their practices and helping to maintain their job. Therefore, “the quality of work, being a decisive factor of competition, is also a condition of keeping employed and, therefore, there is shown the convergence of interests between the demands of production and the need for qualification i.e. training” (Matos, 1999: 240).

4. Analysis and discussion of the results presented

The data presented indicated the necessity for the Professionals to develop training in the broader perspective of their professional context, in particular. The subjects revealed interest in attending training that enabled them to exchange experiences in order to improve their working mechanisms and, here, it is possible to highlight the reference to sharing groups, which alerts one to their need to share knowledge with their peers, which is essential for improving their professional performance.

Furthermore, this aspect leads one to reflect on the fact that training is seen not as a temporary space for learning but as a permanent activity, which allows the evolution of the individuals and acquires a significant expression in real work settings. As Silva (2003: 91) points out, “training (...) favors this construction of meaning as an enhancer of reflection, understanding and participation of the subjects as actors and authors in the social processes,” thus stressing the importance of training and spaces for reflection about professional practices. In fact, the Professionals related training with work situations in order to seek the know-how that allows them to address problems presented to them in the workplace.

Their reflection on practice must, therefore, be present in the training context of the subjects, because “reflection awakens a critical sense, revealing the reality and integrating the personal and professional thinking” (Valente and Viana, 2009: 4). Consequently, the Professionals seek to develop an anticipatory reflection of change in their action, which involves an exercise of thinking about their acts and the assimilation of new knowledge, because “learning through reflection is, essentially, a process of enlightenment, enrichment and emancipation” (Meneses, 1996: 30-31). Since it “is in the action that the pedagogical knowledge is produced” (Valente and Viana, 2009: 4) by reflecting and understanding
their practice, the authors construct new representations of their context of action, thus responding with a new perspective to the situations/problems that arise in their daily lives.

As regards Lieury (1999: 279), “learning by doing will be more relevant and faster because it is closer to professional reality,” hence the importance of discussion groups, the sharing of learning and analysis of real and practical cases. In consequence, the Professionals are looking for training that focuses on “the interiority of the subjects, on their professional experience and on the ability to communicate inter-subjectively” (Silva, 2000: 105), thus it is a training that articulates theory and practice, experience and reflection.

Here one is facing experiential learning, where experiences are processed to produce knowledge (Kolb, 1984) and they acquire, in this sense, a formative character, where one finds a link between knowledge and know-how, which is mediated by a reflective component. The Professionals seek, therefore, to play an active role in the transformation of their work situations by engaging themselves with training mechanisms, which refer to their actual work and the (re)building of skills. By examining their practices, they feel involved and committed to their educational process.

In terms of motivations to attend training, these emerge from the personal and professional demands of the subjects i.e. on the one hand, they feel happy to cultivate themselves, to deepen knowledge, to acquire new skills and to seek to exchange experiences; on the other hand, they want to improve their competences in order to produce a better job performance, which will help them to manage their career. As is realized, the motivation to attend training comes from a relationship between external demands and internal aspirations (Dubar, 1995: 93) and this aspect validates the importance and the impact that the concept of Lifelong Learning has in the construction of the identities of the Professionals.

5. Conclusion

As pointed out by Dubar (1997), companies are increasingly being “forced” to invest in training and in this sense they put pressure on their employees by calling for their participation and attendance in educational contexts. On the other hand, training may arise as a means of promotion, as a strategy to find a job or a more satisfying and ambitious job in terms of individual expectations. Therefore, the rule of professionalism and progress/success based on the completion of training prevails, as it is related to issues of mobility and qualification, which generate, therefore, training for progression.

Present day society requires individuals to develop a movement of constant adaptation to their professional situations (Fabre, 1994: 27), so one can recognize the need to complete or deepen training, to re-cycle knowledge, to improve techniques and to acquire new skills.

In the specific circumstances of this study, the Professionals revealed a strong desire to invest in their training for progression or to update knowledge and acquire skills in areas as diverse and demanding as Adult Education and Training and Mediation, which is related to the characteristics of their duties that are framed in new occupations for which there is little specific training.

Therefore, in conclusion, it can be stated that the subjects conceive their professional life as a system in permanent evolution, during which “they will never finish learning and in which they will have to forge an identity open to all possible progressions” (Dubar, 1997: 217) by establishing a positive (and necessary) relationship between training and work contexts.

References


How the Czech Educational System has Failed the Roma Children
and why it Keeps Failing them

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Abstract: Recently the Czech Republic has been widely criticised for segregating Roma children in schools for mentally handicapped children. Originally the main problem was in the special schools where Roma children were disproportionally placed on the basis of light mental disabilities they were supposed to suffer from. In 2005 these special schools were abolished by law, however, in reality these schools have not been closed and only change occurred in fact in their name – thus being named ‘practical schools’ instead. On the other hand, it would be unfair to claim that the representatives of Czech educational system haven’t done anything that can be seen as an attempt for integrating Roma children as well as children with different special educational needs. In this paper we will show what has been done in order to bring some improvement to educational outcomes of children with special needs and at the same time we will try to analyze why the results aren’t as good as it would have been expected. This analysis will be based on our long-lasting interest in the topic of education of Roma children and on 10 semi-structured interviews with the teachers from the school in Brno, where Roma children are the absolute majority of the pupils. In spite of this school not being labelled ‘practical’, we will find some unexpected similarities, even though at first glance it can be perceived as any other ‘ordinary’ school.

Key words: Roma children, segregation, ‘Roma schools’, educational specifics

1. Introduction

Roma minority is, according to the qualified estimates, the largest minority in the Czech Republic, however, minority rights of Roma people are difficult to claim, because officially only a very small part of this group declared themselves to be Roma. On this basis of informality, Roma people have been constantly discriminated in many spheres of their lives – one of them has been the education of Roma children, which is widely criticised by non-governmental organisations or European official authorities. Main reason for this lays in the importance of education for their prospective higher education opportunities and employability. In this paper we will examine how the Czech educational system just cannot cope with the otherness of Roma children and is punishing them for that by placing them into the lowest-achieving schools. This study aims to explore the ways Roma children have been educated in the Czech Republic and to analyse the underlying causes of constant underachievement of Roma children despite the various efforts on the side of official authorities, law adjustments and pedagogical workers to support these children and intervene positively in their educational outcomes.

2. Specifics of Roma children education and their current position in the Czech educational system

The situation of the Roma in Czech society is characterised by two main features: a) social disadvantage, exclusion and poverty and b) fact of being ethnic and linguistic minority, members of which are visibly different from the non-Roma population. These two features are crucial for the position of Roma children in the Czech educational system and largely influence their educational outcomes.

Poverty, social exclusion\(^1\) and unemployment are dramatically connected with low educational outcomes of children coming from this environment. Herein few reasons can be just briefly mentioned why and how this is becoming true in lives of poor and excluded Roma families. Research undertaken by Ringold (2000) clearly shows that poverty of the Roma population is different from the poverty in the majority: ‘Roma poverty’ is multidimensional, has deep historical roots and it is constantly being enhanced by the vicious cycle of isolation and stigmatisation. In accordance to this finding, concept of poverty is nowadays almost replaced with the concept of social exclusion which is better describing not only

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\(^1\) As a process of excluding individuals or groups of the mainstream society and hindering in an access to basic services, goods and institutions, which are widely available to all those in the main stream (see for example Walker, 1995 or Young, 1999, 2003 etc.).
vertical, but also horizontal inequalities in societies. Despite of these conceptual differences, living conditions in both situations are very similar. According to the most thorough analysis (Gabal Analysis Consulting [GAC], 2006) of social exclusion of Roma that have been conducted in the Czech Republic, about half of the Roma population lives in socially excluded areas, which usually means that they are living at the edge of poverty – few generations of one family in one- or two-rooms flat, sometimes without direct access to hot water or toilet – with similarly disadvantaged people living in a close neighbourhood. It is clear that under these conditions, especially when parents have more than three children and older children have to take care of the smaller ones, it is not easy to fulfill the obligations of school attendance and home preparation.

Children from poor families can be also more often sick and therefore unable to attend the school regularly. At the same time they usually have worse access to institutions that could help them to eliminate their social disadvantage and therefore they are often starting their school life in special education school instead of mainstream schools. Biro, Smederevac and Tovilović (2009) revealed that poverty also significantly influences the results of these children in intelligence tests (not only the educational outcomes), which are significantly lower than the outcomes of the middle-class children. The main problem, however, lays not only in insufficient cognitive stimuli, but also in the inability of parents to help their children. On the one hand, they don’t know how to help, because they usually have at best finished basic or special schools. On the other hand, in the environment of poverty education never played a crucial role in the story of life success.

Exclusion adds to this problem another dimension: Roma people after being excluded to abandoned neighbourhoods lose almost all the contacts with the Czech majority. This fact enhances stereotypes and prejudices at both sides. Roma exclusion is then supported by different institutional hidden or direct discriminating practices in many areas of their everyday life (Man in need, 2007). The Roma then understand their situation as unchangeable and abandon any values which are dominant in the mainstream society. Říčan states that therefore the Roma developed identity of victims and misunderstood people, identity of being hurt and identity of majority confrontation (2003, p. 84). Schools lead and inhabited predominantly with non-Roma is then understood only as another way of control: ‘For the majority of Roma school is still the synonym for the key repressive element, the synonym of hostile, false and non-understandable environment that has one and only aim of assimilation and forced re-education’ (Ševčíková, 2003, p. 116). All above-mentioned factors lead to poor educational outcomes and to the fact that many of the Roma children either start or at one point of their educational path continue in special schools or ‘Roma schools’. Both types are unable to provide equal education to the mainstream schools or develop children’s individual potential in a way that would make them able to succeed in the labour market competition (Hůle, 2007). Interesting is that at both types of schools teachers and directors are convinced that this type of the education is the best what can be offered to the Roma children.

Poverty and social exclusion contribute to Roma children’s school failure only partly, another quite a big part of the problem is caused by the attributes, which are perceived in scientific discourse as specifically belonging to the Roma as a part of their ethnic heritage. The upbringing in the Roma family is slightly different from the upbringing in family of non-Roma. Smith (1997) found out that there is predominance of the community upbringing that is happening somehow unintentionally while doing all the everyday activities. Roma children are taught only what they need to know in their closest environment, that means community. However, nowadays in the Czech Republic traditional Roma communities have been loosen and therefore the Roma today are not as much a subject of the strong social control that used to be present all the time in villages, where they used to live before moving to Czech towns (Sekyt, 2004). Moreover, children in Roma community have a very important position and are not obliged to any duties as long as there is not any younger sibling to be taken care of. Smékáš (2003), in addition to this, claims that the Roma mothers are not goal-oriented and therefore are not expecting this orientation from their children, too. On the other hand, schools are focused on achievement and therefore Roma children are then again disadvantaged.

Another and probably the most serious educational disadvantage of Roma children stems from the language barrier. According to observations, Roma mothers do not talk directly to their children when they are very small as non-Roma mothers do. Říčan (1998) explains this with firmer bonding of mother and child and with their ability to understand each other without verbal communication. In addition to this, almost any Roma in the Czech Republic are not teaching their children Romani language, because they don’t want them to feel excluded. Then they are trying to teach them the Czech language, but the Czech they know is the language of the working class mixed with Roma phonetics, pronunciation and grammatical models (Hübschmannová, 1998). The result of this is that Roma child first coming to school (meaning often

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2 However, we know that these attributes cannot be automatically connected to all the Roma people.
first close encounter with non-Roma environment) is not able to speak neither Czech, nor Romani, because nobody has talked to them since they were babies. The problem of Roma children is not bilingualism or not knowing the dominant language, but the fact that they do not know any language they can be taught in. In the past, life in their community was accompanied by telling stories and tales, through which children could easily enrich their vocabulary at least in their mother tongue, however, this opportunity has slowly disappeared.

To one of the stereotypically repeated characteristics of the Roma people belongs low importance of education for them. The supposed explanations are various. Firstly, for example, Jakoubek (2009) states that there are three typical signs of Roma family that are in direct conflict with the ability to achieve individual success, therefore individual effort put into higher education is perceived as useless and fruitless. These signs are the absence of privacy, the absence of individualism and the absence of private property. Individual success is viewed as endangering for family solidarity and because of that family is providing almost any support to those trying to get out of the exclusion. The lack of privacy is only strengthening this low value of individual and for a child of school age it means that she/he will never have the adequate conditions for meaningful home preparation. The lack of private property means that every income that one gains is shared among the broad family and the efforts put into education or work are then not adequate to the gains one gets in the end (Steiner 2004).

Secondly, the low importance of education is often ascribed to Roma attitude of living for now. Sekyt (2004) or Hübschmannová (1998) interpret this as a relict of their past nomadic life, when the only important thing was what one could take with himself and making plans for the future was pointless. Attitude of living for the present is also one of the characteristics of ‘culture of poverty’ (Lewis, 1966), when the poor prefer immediate pleasure to postponing it to an insecure future. It is clear, though, that living for now cannot allow any effort to be put into education.

Low importance of education is seen as a main cause of frequent absences of Roma children from school: 41 % of polled directors claimed it to be the main reason (GAC, 2009). Parents often leave the child at home only when he/she doesn’t want to go to school or when they need him/her to take care of younger siblings. In addition to this, if the child is the only one in the family, who has to get up in the morning and leave the house, parents will not try to ensure that the child will really leave and come to school (Kaleja, 2009; GAC 2007). Some schools reacted to this in severer rules about accepting excuses from parents; even then were the parents able to get the official excuse from a doctor. It doesn’t matter if these absences are excused or unexcused, the important is that any absence makes the learning for the Roma child even more difficult.

As we can see, the position of a Roma child in the Czech educational system is not easy. Originally, Roma children were almost entirely educated out of the mainstream schools or classes. Nowadays the situation is slightly better, but the problem of segregation persists with its full consequences. In the 90’s the estimates of Roma children educated in special schools were on about 70-80 % of all Roma children. Balabánová (1999) argued that the main reason therefore lays in the fact that education in this time and during the socialist era was characteristic with the idea of the standard school, which is predominantly inhabited with ‘average pupils’ and Roma children have never fitted this model. Basic schools have counted with children that had mastered dominant language before entering the school, children that had developed their willing abilities and that had the supportive home environment at their disposal. All the children that could not fit this model have been to some extent disadvantaged, many were even shifted to schools with lower requirements on knowledge and good manners.

At present about half of the Roma children are educated in the mainstream education. About 28 % of them is educated in practical schools and the rest of about 25 % is educated in schools were Roma are the majority. Even those who are the in mainstream education are relatively unsuccessful in comparison to their Czech school-mates: according to the research of GAC (2009, p. 22), only half of the Roma children that started their education in the mainstream school will finish their compulsory school attendance with the same classmates they started it. The rest will either be transferred to special schools, or will repeat one or more school years. This research, however, wasn’t taking into account children that were transferred to other ordinary schools, which in this context could have been ‘Roma schools’, therefore the final number of Roma children leaving their original class to ‘worse’ may be even higher. Moreover, the probability that Roma child will start his/her educational path in special school (and then probably never comes to contact with the mainstream education) is six times higher than is this probability for a non-Roma child (GAC, 2009, p. 32).

3 Lazarová and Pol (2002, p. 11) estimated that Roma child coming to school possess the vocabulary of 400-800 Czech words, while at the same time Czech child possess the vocabulary of 2000-3500 words. If we considered the fact that Roma parents are not talking to the children much, we cannot expect their Romani vocabulary to be much richer.

4 The same applies only for one of ten non-Roma children.
As we have mentioned in the beginning, there was some effort put to tackling the Roma education gap in schools by Ministry of Education, Youth and Sports. Firstly, even these special schools and community ‘Roma schools’ were meant as alleviation for Roma children and their parents. Secondly, special stress has been put upon the preschool education, therefore the last year of kindergarten is free of charge by law and schools with certain share of socially disadvantaged children could have opened preparatory or zero classes for children who are not yet ready to attend the primary school. Thirdly, the function of the teacher’s assistant has been established. Their task is mainly to help children that are not able to follow the regular class work on their own. Probably the biggest and most significant change came with the introduction of Framework educational programs for all the types of education. These programs are at present the only given documents teachers and schools in general have to accept, when preparing their lectures and lessons. In accordance with the framework program, schools and teachers are creating their own school educational programs, while following the general framework given. We will get to all of these compensation methods and their advantages and drawbacks later, but now we will look at the specifics of ‘Roma schools’, which are in general very little reflected not only in the scientific discourse, but also by the non-governmental organisations.

3. ‘Roma schools’ or ‘practical schools’? What’s the difference?

Before we turn the attention of the reader to the characteristics of the ‘Roma schools’, we should have a look at what is so special about the ‘special (nowadays ‘practical’) schools’. On the one hand, these special schools were meant to help the children to experience at least to some extent the feeling of success, because the curriculum there was abridged and with small number of children in one class it was easier for a teacher to pay individual attention to each child. At the same time, this kind of schools was also preferred by the parents of Roma children, because in these schools they were only little taken as responsible for their child’s education and home preparation, or they themselves could also have their experience with this school (Klima, 1997). However, both of these statements can be held true also for majority of ‘Roma schools’. Special schools (until 2005, when they were replaced with ‘practical schools’) were not acknowledged as finished primary education, therefore the possibilities of subsequent education for their school leavers were very limited. Practical schools are now by law understood as equivalent and fully acknowledged type of the primary education – this theoretically means that any school leaver can enter any secondary school, not only the vocational training like from the special schools. This, however, really works only on theoretical level and it applies in a similar way to ‘Roma schools’ as well, because children are often repeating grades and leaving schools even before completing the school or have at best ambitions for the vocational training, because their knowledge in the ninth grade equals to the knowledge of the pupils in the sixth or seventh grade of the ordinary primary school or even lower. The basis of the program in practical schools is not in knowledge, theory or curriculum. This program is oriented on activity in the classes and practical use of acquired knowledge in everyday life. At the same time, successful school leaver should have basic general knowledge, he should be able to express himself clearly in a written as well as in a spoken way and he should be enough manually skilled (Krupa, 1997). At this place we need to stress that special or practical schools are designed as schools for children with light mental disabilities, therefore the expectations from them are so basic.

‘Roma schools’, however, are designed for perfectly able children, who are just accidently coming from socially disadvantaged environment and are predominantly of Roma ethnic origin. Interesting is that according to our research, the expectations of teachers in the ‘Roma schools’ are at similarly basic level, too. The reason for this may be that teachers understand specifics of Roma children represented by socially-disadvantaged origin, small interest in education and gaining new knowledge and language barrier, as unchangeable and ever-lasting. Therefore their idea of success in educating these children lies in e.g. children respecting at least basic rules such as changing shoes for slippers, when they come to school; when teachers despite all the bad experiences with children still like to go to work; when ‘weak pupils’ know how to read, write and count at least a little, while the better students know something more, or even try to follow the primary education with some vocational training; when they can take group of children to public and they know how to behave, etc. On the one hand, this definition of success is probably necessary for these teachers in order to feel successful, on the other hand, it forms their expectations and directly influences the way they are teaching the children.

Majority of the contemporary ‘Roma schools’ started like any other ordinary basic school, the only problem was that they were located in the area with the majority of Roma inhabitants and when the share of Roma children reached about 40 %5 of the pupils’ population, school experienced ‘white flight’ as we know it from the American experience in

5 This number was often mentioned not only by interviewed teachers, but also from teachers and directors from other Roma schools.
connection to African-American neighbourhoods (Kahlenberg, 2001; Schwab, 1992). It means that only those who can afford to commute with their children to a further place from home or can afford to move out from the neighbourhood completely can leave unsatisfactory school. The rest just has to put up with the changes and try to survive till the child’s compulsory education ends. On the one hand, teachers in ‘Roma schools’ are complaining about non-Roma children leaving, which is according to them deteriorating the overall quality of the education. On the other hand, they alone claim that they would never put their own child to this school and even when they have the Roma assistants at school they have put their children to other basic school. This means that teachers are aware of the poor quality of education they are offering to Roma children, but still feel that it is not in their power to change it.

‘Roma schools’ are not only similar to practical schools, they are also similar to so called ‘high-poverty schools’ (Donovan, Cross 2002; Kahlenberg, 2001) This type of school is ‘marked by students that have less motivation and are often subjects of negative peer influences; parents who are generally less active, exert less clout in school affairs, and garner fewer financial resources for the school; and teachers who tend to be less qualified, to have lower expectations, and to teach watered-down curriculum’ (Kahlenberg, 2001, p. 47). All these can be held true also for the ‘Roma schools’ in the Czech Republic. The socioeconomic makeup of schools directly influences the dynamics of the educational process and the goals that teachers set for themselves and for the pupils. According to our research, even that part about under-qualified teachers is happening in the ‘Roma schools’ — majority of teachers started to teach at this school subjects they were not trained for; for example one teacher had been trained to teach geography, but the vacancy was only for the teacher of physics, so she started to teach physics. Nowadays, she is teaching geography, but in the beginning she was really struggling with physics.

However, there is one major difference between ‘high-poverty schools’ and ‘Roma schools’: the problem with lack of finances is not so visible, because ‘Roma schools’ are usually very well materially and personally equipped — they are using the maximum of possible projects from Ministry of Education, European Social Fund or municipalities (GAC, 2009). Many of these projects are labelled as if they were supporting inclusion and inclusive schools; unfortunately, in reality there is really only little of inclusion in this type of schools. Usually the money received are used not for supporting inclusion, but for employing more teachers, for providing better psychological counselling and reducing the number of children in the classroom. This all may be improving the performance of Roma children at schools, but still has nothing to do with inclusion (at least until the expectations and curriculum will not equalize with those in the mainstream schools). In the Czech Republic there is the campaign called Fair schools organized by the League of human rights. Each year they are rewarding primary schools that are including children with special needs with the certificate of Fair school. However, this campaign may be working well for physically handicapped children, but still has its glitches for socially deprived children. On the one side, they are teaching regular curriculum in the classroom and they are also adjusting it a little for the children with special needs. On the other side, Roma children from these schools (if they are there only for first four years) are usually continuing their educational track in ‘Roma schools’, probably because mainstream schools are not inclusive enough and unable to cope with children’s differences.

The study of Roma child’s educational trajectory (GAC, 2009) states that Roma children in ‘Roma schools’ tend to repeat the grade less often than Roma children in the mainstream schools and it explains this with higher motivation of the teachers to work with this kind of children: they want to devote their time and effort to these children, cooperate with non-governmental organisations and support the activities which are eliminating their handicaps. Some teachers in our research also felt that the education of Roma children is some kind of a mission in their lives, but at the same time they argued that the grades the children are getting in their school are better than they would get for the same educational achievement in the mainstream school (because teachers are satisfied, when children know less than is usually expected of children of the same age). They are not looking for the ways of eliminating social handicap, but instead of this they are downsizing taught curriculum and own expectations according to supposed children’s abilities. This is probably the cause, why children are repeating the grades less often in ‘Roma schools’ than in the mainstream schools.

Teachers in ‘Roma schools’ are convinced that they are providing the Roma children with the accepting environment that is allowing them to experience the feeling of success and being majority for a change. In addition to this, events supporting and strengthening the Roma culture, such as dance and singing performances are more frequently organised in ‘Roma schools’ than in the mainstream schools. Teachers are often to some extent providing the parents with basic social guidance. Despite this, the self-perception of the Roma children, feeling of their own importance and meaningfulness of gained knowledge would have been strengthened, if they had a chance to get to know something more about their origin or even learn the Romani language. According to Mann (1992), Roma children are at school taught about alien history, alien writers and alien cultural norms and values and therefore they cannot be interested in what they are learning. Now, when we have shown where lies the main problem with educating Roma children in ‘Roma
schools' we can get back to general level of education in the Czech Republic and try to understand, why we are still not able to provide Roma children with a decent education.

4. Why the Czech educational system cannot ensure success for Roma children?

The main problem in educating Roma children probably lies in the wider setting of the educational system. As Balabánová (1999) states the mainstream Czech schools are expecting ‘average children’ and everyone who is deviating to any side of this average is understood as disadvantaged. This does not necessarily mean that the talented children will face some serious difficulties in the mainstream school, even though it can happen that they will be bored and punished for any disturbances they cause; for sure it means that their potential will not be fully developed, unless they meet a teacher, who is willing to prepare special tasks for them. The truth is that every child with special needs needs some kind of a special care, which can be provided for example by the assistant, or a second teacher in a classroom, if one teacher is not capable of preparing two or three types of lectures.

Many teachers, who are taking part in the forum about Framework educational programs\(^6\), are persuaded that inclusion can be beneficial for those who were segregated, but there are not suitable conditions to take any action in the direction of inclusion. Most often mentioned challenge is the lack of money for the special teaching materials and lack of qualified teachers and assistants. Under current circumstances teachers are convinced that the inclusion would be of no good not only for included children, but also for average pupils. Teachers claim that if they had another teacher or perhaps an assistant to help them, fewer children in one class and the support of the school management and parents, the inclusion of children with special needs would be possible. However, parents of non-Roma children do not feel very relaxed, if their children should attend the same class for instance with Roma children. Kahlenberg (2001), on the other hand, found out that parents of the ‘average children’ are more willing to integrate among their children disadvantaged children on basis of social deprivation than on the basis of race, therefore it is quite complicated, when it comes to the inclusion of the visibly different Roma children.

A big part of the Roma educational failure plays also social construction of the school failure: Roma children, especially those coming from socially disadvantaged environment, are in general perceived as uneducable similarly to African-American children in the USA (Clark, 1965). Many researchers (Donovan, Cross 2002; Kahlenberg 2001; Paige, Witty 2009) are also convinced that social construction of school failure is stemming especially from the teacher’s expectations. According to McDermott, ‘we have organized an elaborate apparatus for pinpointing the failures of our children, when we could have put all that energy into organizing more learning’ (1987, p. 363). In this point of view the solution to the educational inequality is easy to find: stop to organize failure and start to organize learning instead. Paige and Witty (2009) showed in their study that it is enough for a failing child to meet a teacher that is not supporting his failure and has high expectations and then the child can be a successful student. As we have shown, the teachers in the ‘Roma schools’ rather lower their expectations and by that indirectly lower their children’s achievements.

On the national level, theoretical and official basis of inclusive education is nicely elaborated. We have the National Action Plan for Inclusive Education and all those Framework educational programs are offering solid basis for the integration. However, segregation is faced only officially and somehow it is not possible to fight it for real. The first part of the problem probably is that we have not defined properly what we mean by inclusive education; therefore ‘Roma schools’ can gain a lot from the projects supporting inclusion. Can we speak of inclusion when Roma children are attending the same school, but separate classroom? Can we speak of inclusion if the minority children are not attending the same school like majority at all? Or is the important part that the ‘Roma school’ is not practical and that is enough to be included in mainstream education? It is possible that Roma children could even benefit from solely Roma environment, but only to some extent and definitely not if there are only poor and excluded children attending.

Another major issue is that Roma children are not offered the same conditions like non-Roma children in terms of the educational content – they are never taught anything about Roma history, culture, writers, therefore this kind of education is not offering them anything interesting and of value. In addition to this, when we take into account the language barrier they are facing when attending the school for the first time, it gives them really only almost impassable obstruction in successful learning. All the systematic efforts we undertake such as compensatory preschool education, teachers’ assistants, early check-ups at psychological counselling centres etc. are just falling short to minimize the achievement

\(^6\) Their ideas and opinions can be found at http://diskuze.rvp.cz/viewtopic.php?f=367&t=12573 \(\text{(in Czech only); retrieved September 4, 2011.}\)
gap between Roma and non-Roma children. Psychological counselling is doing more harm than good, because these tests are only labelling the children as lightly mentally disabled and not helping to eliminate causes of these poor results at all. Even culturally neutral tests should not be considered as the pure truth, but only as some kind of advisory mechanism that can help us to identify areas where the child needs more help and special attention. Preschool education and preparatory classes are definitely facilitating the start of the compulsory school attendance. The serious insufficiency, however, lies in a fact that only of about 40 % of all Roma children are attending preschool education and preparatory classes are usually established in Roma or practical schools which means that even if children improved their skills and were able to enter a mainstream school without serious difficulties, they continue at the same school where they were attending preparatory class. GAC (2009) shows that preparatory classes are advantageous for their pupils only in the two first years of the school attendance and their achievements are slowly equalizing with children, who did not attend preparatory classes. This may well be due to the fact that children in the first class of Roma or practical school are coming from three different environments and backgrounds – family, preschool education and preparatory classes. It is quite understandable that the most of the teacher’s attention will be aimed at children coming directly from the families and whole classroom slowly gets to one level – the lowest one. I will finish with the position of teacher’s assistant: originally the idea was the one of a Roma assistant, who would facilitate the transition from Roma environment to the non-Roma school environment and will help the child mainly to overcome the language barrier. Gradually, however, the schools were facing problems finding qualified Roma assistants who would have good position in local Roma community as well. Because of that, there are now more non-Roma assistants than the Roma assistants in the schools and they are not functioning the way they were originally meant to – as a good example of someone who succeeded and is coming from the same environment like the children.

It is clear that in connection to the education of Roma children we are facing many challenges, but to no doubt they have to be tackled and the sooner, the better. Otherwise the position of the Roma in the Czech society will only deteriorate and their confidence in possibilities offered by education will be slowly vanishing.

5. Concluding remarks or what can be done?

We have shown where the most serious difficulties in educating Roma children come from. It is for certain, that the part of the educational failure lies in the small importance of education for Roma in general, however, the bigger part of this issue is dependent on the Czech educational system and the opportunities that Czech society offers to Roma as a whole. A lot can be improved with uncompromising approach to segregation of any kind, especially the segregation in ‘Roma schools’ which is in general considered as not harmful. As we tried to stress, the ‘Roma schools’ are not offering any better opportunities in next professional carrier than the special or practical schools. It would definitely be helpful if Roma children had the opportunity to be educated in their own language or at least had a real chance to improve their Czech to the level so that they can be educated in it. Firstly, to be able to exercise any changes, we have to stop constructing the educational failure of Roma children and try to understand the way they feel in our schools which for them are usually completely strange and new environment. Secondly, there should be some respect for their cultural specifics not only in what they are taught, but especially in how they are taught. Thirdly, if we are not able to change the Roma and practical schools into inclusive schools we should at least stop to expect less from these children, because the majority of them is able to learn as much as the non-Roma children, maybe they need only little more time or different teaching methods. Finally, individual approach to each child and his family as a whole is probably key to success, because then we can concentrate on any specifics that are needed to be resolved and educate the child in a responsible and a meaningful manner.

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The Impact of Parental Partnership in School Evaluation as a Base for Diagnosis and Improvement – An Experience from Durres High Schools Contexts

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Abstract: Parental participation in school has become a demand of both national and international policies. Different studies show that despite the efforts of education policies for reformation, democratisation and opening the school to function as a open centre the parent’s partnership in education in general and school evaluation in particular is low in Albania. The aim of this paper is to discuss parents’ considerations on parental partnership in school evaluation. It tries to answer questions such as: What is the parental partnership? How much feel involved parents in school evaluation? Which parents feel more involved? Why? How can be encouraged parents’ involvement in school evaluation? The paper is attentive to the psychological factors, while recognizes also the importance of the sociological factors that contribute to involvement of parents at school evaluation. The arguments are based on empirical evidences coming from three public high schools of Durres city. The intervention programs aiming to strengthen the partnership with parents in school evaluation should consider time, resources and the capacities in the specific contexts.

Keywords: open high school, parental partnership, instruction staff, school evaluation, specific context

Introduction

The school evaluation is a thoughtful assessment of the all-inclusive school work. It is intended to be a collaborative process involving: instruction staff, school administration, parents and pupils (Harold Hislop 2010). Researchers substantially agree that parental contribution in school life influences positively on school climate, parents’ attitudes towards the school, parents’ support for the school, and pupils’ educational attainment (Bushi. B, 2011; Pop. D. 2009; Webster-Stratton, C., 2004; Corcoran, J., 2006; Kratochwill, T. R., 2004; McDonald, L., 2006), and based on the particular contexts the entities are required to find appropriate ways to boost the parental partnership.

The parent-school partnership is a long-term relationship which perceives with equal powers both parents and school staff, and allows them to share the risks and benefits. Interdepending on each other can be prevented problems and found solutions for the emerged education problems as a part of everyday routine or during organized evaluations. Theoretically all parents can be involved in ways that make a difference to their children and to the work of the school, and receive appropriate support and encouragement in doing so.

Under the decentralized system, Albanian schools are required to take increased responsibility for planning and managing the development of the services they deliver along with the associated quality improvement procedures (Albania Education Strategy 2004-2015). The schools vary particularly on contexts and how they reach education targets and assess the followed tactics. Students’ necessities and abilities are inconsistent, while schools have the duty to adapt and advance, for addressing the emerged education difficulties and maintaining and advancing students’ success. Since the Albania Government wants to develop the country up to the point that will enable them to move into the EU and engage with other neighboring countries, there is an urgent need to involve and reflect stakeholders’ views on education. Some recent studies have revealed that especially in the case of parents, this is far from being a tangible reality (Bushi. B, 2011; Pop. D. 2009; Musai, B. 2009; Boce, E. 2010) with a paper-based existence.

The objective of the study

Based on public high school contexts experience from Durres city the survey aimed to bring to the focus parents’ views and attitudes on how they feel and could be further involved in the public school evaluation.

Methodology

We studied the literature on parents’ involvement and referring on them created a questionnaire that contained 64 questions. Were targeted three high schools located in the center area of Durres city, for gathering empirical evidences
from parents of public high school students. In each school were randomly selected two parallels from respectively the 10th, 11th and 12th grades. Within the class were randomly selected equal numbers of male and female students set on benches of different rows. The parents of which were invited to complete the instrument in their family environment.

To develop a knowledge regarding the partnership created between parents and schools the assessment solicited answers from parents who have children in the Gjergj Kastrioti, Leonik Tomeo and Naim Frasheri high schools. In February 2012 were distributed a total of one hundred eighty questionnaires, but only 81,1% were returned within the week. More parents of female children (58,9%) compared to the male peers (41,1%) have replied. Table 1 shows the percentage breakdown of participants with which the questionnaire is completed as a function of the total.

Table 1. Percentages breakdown of parents by high school and grade of student.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Hight school name</th>
<th>% of parents within</th>
<th>Grade no</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>X</td>
<td>XI</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gjergj Kastrioti</td>
<td>school</td>
<td>34,5%</td>
<td>32,8%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>grade of child</td>
<td>43,5%</td>
<td>39,6%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Leonik Tomeo</td>
<td>school</td>
<td>37,5%</td>
<td>22,5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>grade of child</td>
<td>32,6%</td>
<td>18,8%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Naim Frasheri</td>
<td>school</td>
<td>22,9%</td>
<td>41,7%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>grade of child</td>
<td>23,9%</td>
<td>41,7%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>school</td>
<td>31,5%</td>
<td>32,9%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>grade of child</td>
<td>100,0%</td>
<td>100,0%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Their experiences were valuable for assessing the reality in the respective school contexts and gathering ideas on how effective and targeted measures can be designed and implemented on the road of ensuring for schools to build real partnership with all the parents.

Results

Based on the data gathered from the questionnaires in 60,3% of the cases have replied the mothers, in 37,7% the fathers and only 2,1% reported to be other people such as sisters and grandmothers. Except of one parent which reported to be of the Egyptian ethnicity, the others were all Albanians. In 95,9% of the cases parents reported to be married, but there are also isolate cases of divorced (1,4%) and widow (2,7%) parents. In terms of education level, the majority of parents who participated had a high school education (63,7%) and university degree (29,5%). When asked for their employment status 70,5% of parents said that were employed or self-employed, 28,1% that were unemployed and 1,3% reported that were retired. Among respondents, the majority looks adapted in Durres city, as they have lived in this area from more than a decade (specifically 35,6% are living from eleven to twenty years and 41,8% from more than twenty years). Almost 6,2% report that have lived in Durres from less than five years, whereas 16,4% reported that have from six to ten years in this city.

Almost all the parents on the focus reported that they feel welcomed in the school (90,5%), but as Figure 1. indicated they gave a mixed picture about the frequency with which they have contacted with the school and demonstrated that the reality is far from consistent communications between family and school.

Figure 1. Frequency of parents contacting the school during the school year
Parents can be directly concerned for the school in general and the students’ advancement and attainment in particular especially if their child is having adaptation difficulties when passing from the secondary school to the high school, if child’s behaviour or achievements are not as required for successfully finalising the studies or if university studies are seen as an option for the students’ future (Bushi, B., 2011; Dervishi, Z., 2002). The Albanian university system creates opportunities for admission in the university to those who are interested and fulfill some criteria, and in this climate almost all parents in the study (95.9%) unanimously agreed for their child to continue the university studies. This approach can be explained with the necessity of the diploma for obtaining a meaningful and well-paid job, but even as a fullfilling of a dream that some parents couldn’t achieve for themselves (Dervishi, Z., 2002).

When asked which had generally initiated the contacts with the school for following up the child, about 45.9% of parents in the survey attributed to the school the first step for requesting a meeting, 41.8% said that have initiated the meetings themselves, while 12.3% reported a mixture of both school and their own decisions. Only 0.7% of parents reported that none has informed them. This significant parental “avoidance” to contact the school on their own initiative, can be partially attributed to the fact that they feel not comfortable to return to a place that blames and reminds them of their own failures (Bushi. B., 2011; LaBahn. J. 1995; Brink. C, 1993; Smith. C.1991). In addition the values of independence and individuality, limited resources together with the unclear expectations on what they as parents can crystalize impeding psychosis (Dervishi, 2002). Partially parents agreed that the school conveyed to them understandable (84.2%), believable (78.7) and clear (80.2%) information, which makes evident that simply receiving information does not necessarily help.

We observed that the majority of respondents shared the view that the school communicated with all the parents despite their background (73.3%). The nature of the family structure is restless causing confusion and insecurity. The parents of high school students may be doing the very best that they can, but they are unable to find enough time to complete everything especially if the family has been affected by migration, a decrease in the family incomes, divorce or death in the family (LaBahn. J. 1995; Duncan, 1992; Lewis, 1992; Wanat, 1992). The school, results to be sensitive to parents engagements only for 58.9% of the participants on the focus of this survey.

Most of participants (86.3%) confirmed that they have sufficient knowledge about child’s school while 73.3% thought that the high school is in harmony with the education reform. A considerable share of parents believed that the high school has an effective administration (73.3%), well prepared and qualified instruction staff (86.3%), that adopts the instruction to the child (71.9%) and supports high achievements (69.2%). About 78.1% identified that the school curricula gives to the child the required knowledges and 54.1% affirmed that the material resources supported learning, but 55.5% believed in the transparency during the evaluation. With regard to the activities that organizes the school, participants reported that were well organized (66.4%), but when planning for such activities only 58.9% thought that the school considered parents’ engagements and agenda. In general, were found high levels of consensus between respondents about the development of childs’ skills in the chool (88.3%) and the good disciplining standard (65.1%). When asked, 41.1% of all the respondents reported that the school infrastructure was adequate while 48.6% agreed that the school was secure. Is marginal the rate of parents that believed that school accomplished students’ specific needs (38.4%), treated equally (44.5%) and evaluated in an unbiased level (43.8%). About 47.3% of all the respondents agreed that the school was interested on the childs’ career and half of this rate was believing that the doctor and the psychological services in the school were efective.

We fonud that in most cases parents were informed on the school not directly but via the instruction staff (41.5%), the child (30.8%) or by both (9.5%) they, might have a vague idea of what really happens in the school world. Especially if they don’t have a great deal of education, can feel that what they may have to offer to the school is unimportant and unappreciated (LaBahn, J. 1995; Dixon, 1992; Vandergrift. J. 1992) or can fear the "storm" of refutation and analyzing from the others (Bushi, 2011). The school policies and staff experiences or approaches for informing parents on various issues, are selective and fit only to some of parents (Pop. D., 2009). All the above can explain why about two third of all the parents reported that they openly speak in the school for the different issues that are object of discussion relating to education.

Was higher the rate of the participants who believed that the school helped them to support the child (77.4%), oriented for childs’ career (73.3%), organized extrascoolar activities which were congruent with childs’ talents (66.5%) comparing to those who affirmed that the school reflected childs’ view (46.5%). Via school staff, peer assistance and school activities parents can better understand and find more appropriate approaches for supporting childs’ development, and also be signalised on his/her skills or talents. About 72.0% of respondents supported the idea that the school pays attention to the difficult cases, while is lower the rate of those who agreed that the school is based on parents’ expertise, is open for improvements on the decision taken and prevents education problems. This data point out us that decisions in the high schools must be conveyed based on a developmental perspective and according to a continuous coherent
approach, which respects specific contexts, cultures and is builded on mutual trust and shared values of parents, students and school staff.

The Law on the preuniversitary education no. 7952, dated 06.21.1995 gives priority to the family-school partnership, while the Dispositions of Instructions on public schools approved on 2002, mentioned the rights of parents in the educative process in Albania, but doesent specify the participation aspects. The aquis communitaire significantly influenced changes on the policies and procedures in the educative institutions. Is evident that parent aren’t well informed about reforms, because when asked whether they knew the school the policies and procedures only 57,6% reported knowing them. Further, when examined if the policies and procedures in the school were sustainable and harmonized with each other, participants indicated similar results (respectively 57,5% and 55,5%). The practice of parental involvement in establishing and changing policies and procedures in the school is admitted by only 29,5% of participants, while only 38,3% deny to have been involved in establishing or changing the school policies and procedures. Only 37,0% of all parents confirmed that the school involved them in establishing objectives linked with the education, but according to their perceptions the objectives set were less clear (74,6) than realistic (76,0%).

School evaluations are required by law. They provide an assessment of the quality and standards of education in schools, and check whether pupils are achieving as much as they can. As Figure 2 shows respondents were asked to specify their knowledge regarding the school evaluations, and there isn’t any significant distinction between the share of parents who reported to be informed about the annual school self-evaluation or the evaluation undertaken from the inspectors.

**Figure 2. Parents’ satisfaction in relation with the school evaluations**

More mothers (21,2%) versus fathers (16,5%) reported to be informed on the school self-evaluation report, in contrast more fathers (23,1%) than mothers (16,5%) reported to be informed on the inspectors evaluation report. Married parents and those having daughters were the most informed in both cases. Parents rate in the case of those reporting to be informed on the high school self-evaluation reports decreased with the increase of the grade of the student (respectively 15,1%, 12,4% and 11,6%), while in the case of the school evaluation undertaken from the inspectors was shifted (11,7% in the 10th, 8,2% in the 11th and 10,9% in the 12th grade). The most supporting on both evaluation reports were the employed parents, compared with their unemployed peers, but in both cases, as presented in Figure 3, dominated those with a hight school diploma, followed by those with the university and secondary school school degree diploma. The low rate parental participation is also reflected in another survey undertaken with the school principals of eastern europe, where principals of Albania considered parents councils or school boards as bodies which confuse issues of authority and accountability in the school (Pop. D., 2009).

**Figure 3. Parent’s information in terms of school evaluations with regard to the education level**

More mothers (21,2%) versus fathers (16,5%) reported to be informed on the school self-evaluation report, in contrast more fathers (23,1%) than mothers (16,5%) reported to be informed on the inspectors evaluation report. Married parents and those having daughters were the most informed in both cases. Parents rate in the case of those reporting to be informed on the high school self-evaluation reports decreased with the increase of the grade of the student (respectively 15,1%, 12,4% and 11,6%), while in the case of the school evaluation undertaken from the inspectors was shifted (11,7% in the 10th, 8,2% in the 11th and 10,9% in the 12th grade). The most supporting on both evaluation reports were the employed parents, compared with their unemployed peers, but in both cases, as presented in Figure 3, dominated those with a hight school diploma, followed by those with the university and secondary school school degree diploma. The low rate parental participation is also reflected in another survey undertaken with the school principals of eastern europe, where principals of Albania considered parents councils or school boards as bodies which confuse issues of authority and accountability in the school (Pop. D., 2009).
With regard to the time from which parents were inhabiting in Durres, the less informed on the school self evaluation and inspectors evaluation, resulted to be those who were living in this city from up to 5 years (respectively 2,1% and 1,4%). While the rate progressively increased from 6 to 10 years (respectively 4,8% and 4,1%), to 11-20 years (respectively 13,7% and 8,9%) and reached ist peak with the parents who were living in Durres from over 20 years (respectively 18,5% and 16,4%). Even though in the case of the school self-evaluation the values were higher compared to the inspectors’ evaluation. Among participants 36,3% responded that their thoughts and expectations were reflected in the school evaluation, 34,3% negated that this has happened, while 29,5% are ranked in between those two bipolar opposite terms. More mothers (20,5%) than fathers (15,0%) reported influence of their ideas and expectations. Perceptions varied a little according to grade level (13,7% in the 10th, 10,3% in the 11th and 12,4% in the 12th grade). Similar to the case of school self-evaluation the married parents, and those with high school education were the most well informed within the civil status and education level categories. There wasn’t any significant gap between parents of female (19,9%) and male (16,5%) high school students. The most influential seem to be the parents which are living in Durres city from over 20 years (17,8%), while the less the newcomers up to 5 years (2,1%). The lack of trust, experience and knowledge can impede the creation of meaningful communication and collaboration with all the parents with regard to school evaluation.

Local and central agencies and institutions are another pillar which are expected to support the school, but only 52,1% of the parents believed that this is the case of their child’s school. About 34,3% of participants sustained the idea that the recommendations for improvement are shared with the policy makers in the local and central level, while only 23,9% reported that the school is supported from organizations or businesses for improving the current situation which results complex, relatively adequate in some aspects, but needs immediate interventions in some others.

Parents of high school students have potentials, and are one of the most directly concerned stakeholders about the quality of education in general and the students’ advancement and attainment in particular. They are not immune of the challenges which inhibit them to have a stable status quo, but when were asked how they could be more involved in the school dominated those who said that the school should explicitly request more parental involvement, and create premises for equal treatment and reflection of their opinions.

Conclusions and recommendation

Is clear that different school contexts have differences in the way in which the school collaborates with the parents, but didn’t reveal to be in the partnership level. Parents were a valuable source which pointed out that the school realities provide lower standards than they expect. The parents’ involvement in school evaluation has found critical voices from a significant share of parents, which reported to be uninformed or not considered. Is significant the rate of those who reported that the schools doesn’t pay attention parents engagements, expertise and opinions when establishes policies and procedures, or when plans, implements and evaluates interventions regarding his child, the class, the school or larger contexts. All above makes visible that the school is not oriented as required for sharing the power and responsibilities, but still the potentials are promising and persuasive.

In this aspect, the gradual enlarged involvement of parents and education stakeholders in high school evaluation will help to take better decisions, generate support and increase the satisfaction from the school. Improved policies and procedures with the inclusion of all actors and accompanied by adequate financial resources and time devotion are required. Attracting and building capacities of different stakeholders is also imperative for understanding and approaching differently to what is traditionally implemented with regard to parent involvement in high school evaluations. Parents experiences, strengths and necessities are different, as are the tools to make them real partners in the school evaluation. That’s why is important for high schools to have a variety of options and opportunities from which parents could choose their level and type of engagement. Frequent events should be planned and carried out for galvanizing hearing, informing and active involvement of stakeholders for building on existing strengths and adapting to diminish limitations. Should be build an open high school in which parents via attending specific subject hours or meetings as observers, can have direct experiences with the school which help them to modify existing assumptions and approaches.

This paper cannot escape to some of the limitations inherent in the applied nonsystematic and non-comprehensive methodology, and that’s why we caution you to take the results as preliminary and indicative, rather than definitive the descriptive data generated, emphasizing on the need for further systemic data collection in the area. Notwithstanding the limitations this survey is a good source of information that through parents’ experiences might shed light on understanding how the school partners with them. Being aware of the parental alienation in regard to the school evaluation (even though not the real dimensions) is important for increasing the quality of education in the high schools and for not pointing the finger towards the other, but understanding that things can change only if we can see the “we” in our thoughts and more importantly in our actions.
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The Anxiety in Student Teacher During Training in Teaching Practice

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Abstract Teaching practice is one of the important components in the program of study: Elementary Teacher Education at the Faculty of Education, University: “Xhuvani, A.”, Elbasan, Albania. The student teaching experience in teaching practice is a culmination of years of preparation. The goal of the teaching practice is to help student teacher to advance their professional knowledge. Professional training in teaching practice is planned through the continuous structured phases. Practice teaching is filled with difficulties, dilemmas and challenges. For many students teaching experiences are very hard to provoking anxiety in them. The purpose of this study was to determine how the training affected the level of anxiety in students, during the stages of training as a teacher in teaching practice. Experienced students the same level of anxiety during the phases of training as a teacher in teaching practice? TCHA (Parson, 1973) was the scale used to measure teaching anxiety. Measurements were made in the two phases of development of teaching practice. This study found that anxiety in the student teachers changed during training. Training had positive impact to the reduction of anxiety in the student teachers.

Keywords: teaching practice, student teacher, teaching anxiety and training.

1. Introduction

Teaching practice (or more popularly known as the practicum) is recognized as one of the most important aspects of a teacher education (Farrell, 2008). It is considered by student teachers (from the Netherlands and Israel) as the most valuable part in professional training as teachers (Smith & Lev-Ari, 2005). Teaching practices for student teachers is a starting point in the real world of school. It helps these students to integrate in the work environment at school (Ryan, Toohey & Hughes, 1996, p. 373). Student teachers implement into teaching practice theoretical knowledge and practical skills that they have gained during their course. But, the transformation of theoretical knowledge in practice has always been a challenge - learning to learn is a complex process (Solomon, Worthy & Carter as quoted in Farrell, 2002). Many researchers agree that student teachers around the world are concerned about the pedagogical practice (Ngidi & Sibaya, 2003).

Groundwater-Smith (1993:137) noted that the practicum experience is one fraught with difficulties, dilemmas and challenges as the student attempts to negotiate his or her way along a hazardous path of competing professional policies and practices. Researchers emphasize that students pass through different stages in their development as a teacher (Maynard and Furlong, 1993). Fuller (1969) identified three stages of concern through which teachers pass in their development: self concerns, task concerns, impact concerns. He has conceptualized the concerns of teachers as a progressive development.

It has been long recognize that many pre-service student teachers experience high levels of anxiety about their teaching practicum (Clement, 1999; Enz, 1997; Sanderson, 2003; Tibble, 1959). Several studies have also looked at the nature of student teacher anxieties related to practice teaching. Some studies indicate that student teachers experience moderate levels of anxiety (Hart, 1987; Wendt & Bain, 1989; Behets, 1990; Capel, 1997; Morton, Vesco, Williams & Awender, 1997) while others show that student teachers report high anxiety levels (Thompson,1963; Erickson & Russ, 1967; Singh, 1972; Bradley, 1984; Kazu, 2001). However, it has also been noted that anxiety will decrease as knowledge and skills develop during teacher training (Parsons, 1973).

Student teachers (Sinclair & Nicoli, 1981) were interviewed in an attempt to identify common sources of teacher anxiety in classroom situations and the nature of any anxiety that was experienced. High levels of anxiety while teaching were found to be a common occurrence and such anxiety was found to be particularly associated with classroom control problems, with being evaluated by supervisors, with forming relationships with pupils and the cooperating teachers, and with achieving lesson goals.
1.1 Observe, evaluate by Supervisor/Teacher

This is a major issue which causes discomfort to student teachers also called “evaluation anxiety”. This refers to anxiety induced by being observed by one’s lecturer or teacher of school acting as supervisor. This fear can be greatly exacerbated during field experience where it has been shown that the majority of student teachers are most concerned about evaluation (Capel, 1997; Morton, Vesco, Williams, & Awender, 1997).

A study of Capel, (1997) which included using Hart’s questionnaire with a group of students in south of England reported that main cause of anxiety for student teacher was to being observed, evaluated and assessed. Student teachers often complain that they forgot the content matter and feel nervous when teacher sits at the end of classroom and observes. Pressure of doing things correctly and managing classroom activities properly make them tense and apprehensive while teaching. Some of the student’s teachers are able to overcome this with a day or two but for others it acts as a barrier to gain full confidence.

1.2 Discipline and classroom management

Ngidi and Sibaya (2003:18) assert that empirical findings support the view that a high level of anxiety among student teachers may be tied to a variety of negative consequences such as class control problems and classroom disruptions. It is believed that problems with regard to controlling a class can be a huge source of anxiety for both student teachers and teachers alike. Preece (1979:18) found a correlation between student teacher anxiety and class control problems. Hart (1987:16) also reported a positive correlation between student teacher anxiety and classroom disruptions.

1.3 Preparation for teaching, Teaching & Effectiveness

Thompson (1963) found that student teachers are most anxious about mastery of subject, devising lesson plans, pupil response, teacher standards, and inability to answer questions.

1.4 Teaching as a profession

The practicum experiences are a “reality shock” for many student teachers as they become aware of the discrepancy between their preconceived ideas about teaching and the reality of the profession (Brouwer & Korthagen, 2005; Clifton et al., 1994; Russell et al., 2001). In the literature (Brouwer & Korthagen, 2005; Murray-Harvey et al., 2000) noted that student teachers’ career anxiety is related to their practicum experiences. The preliminary transition into real classrooms through a practicum is probably anxiety-provoking because teaching is, by nature, unpredictable and complex work (Radford, Cashion, & Latchford, 1993).

1.5 Confidence & competencies in teaching

Caires and Almeida (2005) conducted a study of 224 Portuguese student teachers in five areas of experience: professional and institutional socialization, learning and professional development, socio-emotional aspects, support/resources/supervision, and vocational aspects. These dimensions, especially the acquisition of professional competency and vocational features, deal with the confidence of the student teachers to some extent. They established that the higher level of confidence exhibited by the student teachers in their ‘vocation’ as teachers at the end of the teaching practice is statistically significant. The student teachers also indicated that they felt they were more professionally competent at the conclusion of the teaching practice.

This study was conducted to identify how the training affected the level of anxiety in students, during the stages of training as a teacher in teaching practice. The following research question was addressed: Experienced students the same level of anxiety during the phases of training as a teacher in teaching practice?

2. Method

2.1 Sample

The participants in this study were students of the Faculty Education, “Xhuvani, A.” University, Elbasan, Albania. The students registered in the program of study: “Primary Teacher Education” and “Preschool Teacher”. Students were from
age 19 to 25 years, mean 22 years. From these 84.6% were female and 15.4% male. Registered in the program of study: “Primary Teacher Education” was 48.7% students and 51.3% students were registered in the program of study: “Preschool Teacher”. Students participated voluntarily participated in this study, thus defining the model of random selection of the sample.

2.2 Instrument

The Teacher Anxiety Scale (TCHA) was developed to measure anxiety associated with teaching. The TCHA developed by Parsons (1973) and with their focus on particular aspects of teaching, may be of use with pre-service and in service teachers by helping to identity potential problem areas associated with anxiety. It contains 29 items about ½ of the item is defined negatively.

2.3 Procedures

Measurements were made in the two phases of development of teaching practice. The first phase is the period when the teacher students registered in the program of study: “Primary Teacher Education” and “Preschool Teacher” exercised in teaching practice once a week, 4 hours/day. The second phase is the period when the teacher students are full-intensity exercised in the process of teaching, during teaching practice block, which developed in the sixth semester, every day for 8 weeks.

3. Data Analysis

Descriptive statistical analysis was used for data processing based on the most important numerical indicator of localization data, mean. For this analysis, each of following item of TCHA was coded according to a five-point scale: never (1), rarely (2), occasionally (3), often (4), always (5).

Item were grouped into 6 categories.

<p>| Table 1. The level of anxiety before and after the development of 8-week intensive practice |
|---------------------------------|-------------------------------|-------------------------------|-------------------|</p>
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Six categories</th>
<th>Before practice</th>
<th>After practice</th>
<th>The difference before and after practice</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Observe, evaluate by</td>
<td>3.66</td>
<td>3.52</td>
<td>0.14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Supervisor/Teacher</td>
<td>18.46</td>
<td>15.5</td>
<td>0.14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Discipline &amp; classroom</td>
<td>3.36</td>
<td>3.19</td>
<td>0.17</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>management</td>
<td>15.34</td>
<td>13.07</td>
<td>2.27</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Preparation for teaching</td>
<td>3.35</td>
<td>3.19</td>
<td>0.16</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Teaching as a profession</td>
<td>3.22</td>
<td>3.08</td>
<td>0.14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. Teaching &amp; Effectiveness</td>
<td>3.24</td>
<td>3.05</td>
<td>0.19</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. Confidence &amp; competencies</td>
<td>3.15</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>0.15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>in teaching</td>
<td>21.26</td>
<td>15.93</td>
<td>5.33</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>3.33</td>
<td>3.17</td>
<td>0.16</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>18.44</td>
<td>14.65</td>
<td>3.79</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Data regarding the level of teaching anxiety in to student teacher (table 1), based on the mean before and after practice indicated a difference for 0.16. Besides the mean was used and t-test which showed a significant differences between the mean ratings of before and after practice (t = 3.79). The data showed that the level of anxiety was lower after intensive practice 8-week.

Following, each of the 6 categories of teaching anxiety in student teacher are examined individually by presenting mean. The categories are listed (table 2-7) based on mean of data from those causing more anxiety in the least.

The first category corresponds to the Observe, evaluate by Supervisor/Teacher (Table 2). The survey by Supervisor/Teacher/parents was one factor which causes a high level of anxiety in student teacher. In the three items on mean is: 3.5. Noted that after intensive practice, have a mean decrease with 0.14.
Table 2. Observe, evaluate by Supervisor/Teacher
The level of anxiety before and after the development of 8-week intensive practice

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Item</th>
<th>Before practice Mean</th>
<th>After practice Mean</th>
<th>The difference before and after practice</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>• I feel nervous when I am being observed by my college supervisor.</td>
<td>3.80</td>
<td>3.62</td>
<td>0.18</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• I would feel anxious if principal informed me he was coming to my class to observe.</td>
<td>3.88</td>
<td>3.52</td>
<td>0.16</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• I would feel calm and collected if a student’s parent observed in my classroom.</td>
<td>3.52</td>
<td>3.42</td>
<td>0.10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td>3.66</td>
<td>3.52</td>
<td><strong>0.14</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Another source of anxiety to student teachers was discipline and classroom management. Lack of relationship with students, lack of safety to student teachers whether they would be able to make the difference between students or to hold classroom control were a source of anxiety to student teachers. By referring means before and after practice for the item relating to the discipline and management in the classroom (Table 3), was found that mean decrease with 0.13.

Table 3. Discipline & classroom management
The level of anxiety before and after the development of 8-week intensive practice

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Item</th>
<th>Before practice Mean</th>
<th>After practice Mean</th>
<th>The difference before and after practice</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>• Lack of rapport with my student (will be) is one of my biggest worries.</td>
<td>3.64</td>
<td>3.48</td>
<td><strong>0.16</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• I’m uncertain whether I (will be able to) can tell the difference between really seriously disturbed students and those who are merely “goofing off” in class</td>
<td>3.38</td>
<td>3.24</td>
<td><strong>0.14</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• I feel secure with regard to my ability to keep a class under control.</td>
<td>3.22</td>
<td>3.12</td>
<td><strong>0.10</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• I feel students will follow my instructions.</td>
<td>3.20</td>
<td>3.08</td>
<td><strong>0.12</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td>3.36</td>
<td>3.23</td>
<td><strong>0.13</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The preparation for teaching was another area that requires dedication to student teachers. They must plan teaching activities that should realize the results of learning for each student. The decision about how will be presented information in classroom, make the student teacher to experience high levels of anxiety (mean 3.38). Attitudes of student teachers regarding the reparation for teaching (Table 4) after 8-week intensive practice indicate a difference of 0.16.

Table 4. The preparation for teaching
The level of anxiety before and after the development of 8-week intensive practice

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Item</th>
<th>Before practice Mean</th>
<th>After practice Mean</th>
<th>The difference before and after practice</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>• Deciding how to present information in classroom (would make) makes me feel uncertain.</td>
<td>3.38</td>
<td>3.24</td>
<td><strong>0.14</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• I (would feel) feel calm (if I were) when I am preparing lessons.</td>
<td>3.32</td>
<td>3.14</td>
<td><strong>0.18</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td>3.35</td>
<td>3.19</td>
<td><strong>0.16</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Attitudes of student teachers on the choice of teaching as a profession based on the mean (3.22) showed that students experience anxiety (tablea5). Item: "I am less happy teaching, than I thought I’d be” creates more anxiety in student teacher (mean 3.52). The average difference was 0.13 after practice.
Table 5. Teaching as a profession
The level of anxiety before and after the development of 8-week intensive practice

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Item</th>
<th>Before practice Mean</th>
<th>After practice Mean</th>
<th>The difference before and after practice</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>• I am less happy teaching, than I thought I’d be</td>
<td>3,52</td>
<td>3,36</td>
<td>0,16</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• I am worried whether I can be a good teacher</td>
<td>3,42</td>
<td>3,28</td>
<td>0,14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• I feel anxious because I don’t know yet whether I really want to be teacher</td>
<td>3,00</td>
<td>2,88</td>
<td>0,12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• I feel sure I will find teaching a satisfying profession</td>
<td>2,96</td>
<td>2,82</td>
<td>0,14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td>3,22</td>
<td>3,08</td>
<td>0,13</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Teaching is a complex process. Students teachers during the teaching not only worry about how to face with teaching situations (answers to the questions of students, information that will give students), but also for the learning of students (using the test to show how effectively students are learning, how able is to keep the students interested). Attitudes of student teachers about teaching and effectiveness showed that the level of anxiety after 8-week intensive practice changes (Table 6) and the tendency was decreasing.

Table 6. Teaching & Effectiveness
The level of anxiety before and after the development of 8-week intensive practice

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Item</th>
<th>Before practice Mean</th>
<th>After practice Mean</th>
<th>The difference before and after practice</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>• I (would feel) feel panicky when a student asks me a question I (couldn’t) can’t answer.</td>
<td>3,76</td>
<td>3,54</td>
<td>0,22</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• I (would find) it easy to admit to class that I don’t know the answer to a question a student ask.</td>
<td>3,5</td>
<td>3,28</td>
<td>0,22</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• I’m concerned about how to use my testing of student as a useful indication of how effectively I’m teaching them.</td>
<td>3,32</td>
<td>3,1</td>
<td>0,22</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• If I am trouble answering a student’s question I (will find) find difficult to concentrate on questions that follow.</td>
<td>3,32</td>
<td>3,08</td>
<td>0,24</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• I worry about being able to keep the student interested in what I (will teach) teach them.</td>
<td>3,3</td>
<td>3,14</td>
<td>0,16</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• I am certain that my own personal “hangs-ups” (will not)do not hinder my teaching effectiveness</td>
<td>3,08</td>
<td>2,94</td>
<td>0,14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• I’m worried</td>
<td>2,96</td>
<td>2,8</td>
<td>0,16</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• I feel I will have good recall of the things I know when I am in front of the class.</td>
<td>2,74</td>
<td>2,58</td>
<td>0,16</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td>3,24</td>
<td>3,05</td>
<td>0,19</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Confidence and competencies in teaching had a direct impact on the achievement of teaching goals. The fact that the student teacher will speak to teachers/parents/staff, affects the experience of anxiety to them. Based on the item relating to the teaching competencies (Table 7), notice that their means are higher (3.68 to 3.34) than the means of item related to confidence (3.24 to 2.66). Average reference before and after practice for the item related to confidence and competencies in teaching can be seen that there is a difference which is 0.15.

Table 7. Confidence &competencies in teaching
The level of anxiety before and after the development of 8-week intensive practice

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Item</th>
<th>Before practice Mean</th>
<th>After practice Mean</th>
<th>The difference before and after practice</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>• I feel calm and collected when I think about holding parent-teacher conference</td>
<td>3,68</td>
<td>3,6</td>
<td>0,08</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• I (would find) find it easy to speak up in the staff room</td>
<td>3,36</td>
<td>3,22</td>
<td>0,14</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
4. Conclusions

This study aimed to examine how impacted training the level of anxiety to students, during the phases of training as a teacher in teaching practice. Results indicate that students experience anxiety during the teaching practice. Observe, evaluate by Supervisor/Teacher; Discipline & classroom management; Preparation for teaching; Teaching as a profession; Teaching & Effectiveness; Confidence & competencies in teaching were factors affecting the birth of anxiety to teacher students. These found support in studies conducted by Sinclair & Nicoli, 1981; Hart, 1987; Morton LL, Vesco R, Williams N.H. & Awender M.A, 1997.

Supervision of teaching was one of the sources that caused more anxiety to student teachers. After 8-week intensive practice, the level of anxiety triggered by supervision of teaching was high. Anxiety incurred by supervision of teaching and the choice of teaching as profession was factors that changing with the smallest difference before and after practice. Teaching and effectiveness was the factor that had greater difference before and after practice changing. The level of anxiety to student teachers decreased after exercise in 8-week practice. Anxiety decreased as a result of the development of knowledge and skills during training as a teacher (Parsons, 1973). Training had positive impact to the reduction of anxiety in the student teachers. Although the level of anxiety was reduced after training should be noted that anxiety existed after teaching practice on student teacher.

5. Further Research

In this study it was found that anxiety levels decreased as a result of teaching practice but again it exists to students. Studies should be conducted through interviews and observations with student teachers to determine strategies that help reduce the anxiety of teaching during teaching practice.

Since supervision of teaching trigger high levels of anxiety to student teacher, should be made studies how supervisor/teacher / school principals / help with their support in reducing level of the anxiety to student teachers.

References


The Curriculum Reform in Universities– European University of Tirana Model

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Abstract The curriculum reform constitutes one of the main conditions to ensure the quality in the Education system. The focus of this paper is to identify the factors, components and their relationships, which are the object of curriculum reform in the higher education system. This study is conducted in cooperation with the researchers of the European University of Tirana. This research has found a successful implementation of the curricula in this university. A structural element of this new model is the term/form “typology”. So the organization of the subjects is realized not only respecting their classification in categories but also in the typology. The product of the reform is the creation of the three typologies, which are known in EUT as the subject group of Typology 1, the subject group of Typology 2 and the subject group of Typology 3. This is reflected in the regulatory documentation of the European University of Tirana along with the clear definition of the criteria, modalities for the organization manner of the lecture’s hour in the classroom, together with the different training sessions with all academic personnel, guarantee the success of this new initiative. This reformation has had an effect in the review of all study programs, syllabuses and all documents related to those. This study brings logical and qualitative arguments on the productivity of this model. This model is a new one for all Albanian universities. From this point of view, this is not only an experience which should be shared among the universities in Albania, but also a model to be followed from them.

Keywords: reform of universities, curricula, typology, category, method, methodology.

The curriculum reform with the aim of its updating and modernization constitutes one of the main conditions to ensure the quality in the Education system. Among 10 priorities planned by Bologna Process, the fifth one addresses exactly to the “curriculum reform”.

The focus of this paper is to identify the factors, components and their relationships, which are the object of curriculum reform in the higher education system. The study introduces a theoretical presentation of the curriculum conceptualization and the issues which guide its drafting and reforming process, and also an applicable model of this conceptualization in actual conditions of the European University of Tirana—EUT.

According to Ulrich Teichler, the functions of higher education in present days are:

- To convey the meaning of academic theories, methods and knowledge;
- To guarantee the cultural growth and student’s personality development;
- To prepare students for future jobs by equipping them with “tools” and “rules” of the conventional professional job;
- To prepare students to be critical of professional job’s “rules” and “tools”, by being skeptical and critical, by coping with vague tasks of the job and by attempting to be innovative (Teichler 2008)

Nevertheless, today in the world there is still a lack of distinction between “demand”, which derives from Labour Market, and “requirements” which come as criteria and standards of Higher Education Institutions. This vagueness is expressed in some aspects, i.e. (Teichler 2008):

- The employers’ point of view with regard to concrete abilities and “extra-functional” abilities, are mainly short-term and unilateral.
- “Credentials”, in the sense of credibility/reputation of the institution etc.
- Financial income margin in various professions is imposed mainly by socio-political factors (not by academic ability), but also by other factors which are not always obvious.
- Labour Market for the graduates changes rapidly.
- International standards and models are very often controversial, or they are not fully harmonized with local/national requirements. This tendency de-valorizes the latter.

Although the international factor is increasing its influence on national context through globalizing processes, still, the
“majority of the universities operate mainly within their national span and context, and they are part of their country’s education system”. (Maringe, F. and Fosket, N (eds). (2010)

- It occurs that the graduates do not apprehend the role and the benefit of abstract general academic knowledge when they encounter the concrete reality of the Labour Market and its demands. It is noticed what is considered as “The paradox of qualification”, which means that the graduates are required to be over- and at the same time under-educated.

- Higher education tends to prepare the students to be rational, have critical thinking, and to surmount difficulties they may encounter when employed, difficulties which are not quite palpable even to academic staff, and furthermore is it to students. Higher education also prepares the students to be innovative, something which is seldom required by employers.

- Often on students, the academic and labor reality create scenarios of student’s own future, which mismatch with each other.

Actually in world-wide debates there are determined two dilemmas (an ambivalence) on the attitude toward the Higher Education and Labour Market. On one hand the expansions of higher education seems to bring benefits on the country’s development, but on the other hand this “expansions” decreases the possibilities for the graduate to get employed.

With the significance of functional ambivalence, on one side, it is noticed the need for a more direct connection between professional qualification and the curriculum of the study programmes, or so called “employability”, and on the other side it is worrying to notice a tendency to consider less the academic learning, comprehensive education, profits beyond and despite the labor market, dependency on employer etc. (Teichler 2008)

Recent international studies have show that changes i curriculum have happened as much for academic reasons as for economic ones, or even because of an increase of student’s demands. Nevertheless in these studies it is concluded tha the academic personnel has not only been positive toward changes in curriculum, but also considers them successful. (Gruba et al, 2004) Another group of scholars share the opinion that the reformation of curriculums and their design is a process which is affected as much by the inner philosophy of the universities, their objective and vision as by government structures, legal framework, and by local or regional cultures, which are considered to be of the same importance in the academic planning process and in the academic make-up of the study programmes. (Lattuca and Stark 2009)

Since mid-80‘ education reforms in literature often have been focused on the ambiguous term “curriculum”. In fact this word has been modified continuously.

What is an “University curriculum”?

Thinking in this direction is processed by academics, administrators, students and also by other scholars of Higher Education. This has brought a kind of sophistication in defining the curriculum. However many people in their efforts to come up with a definition for the curriculum include at least one of the following elements:

- The objective or the mission of an university, or a collective utterance of what is considered to be important for the students to study;
- A set of experiences that some authorities believe that the students must have;
- A set of courses which are offered to students;
- Courses that the students chose among those offered;
- The content of a particular discipline;
- Time and credits in which an university ensures the education; (Lattuca and Stark 2009)

Some researchers think that the most usual form of changing the curricula concerns their structure, like in the case of changing the order of subjects in a study programme, the compilation of university calendars, or change of the number of necessary credits to obtain a diploma.

Regardless of the debates concerning the university curricular reform and the focus mostly on the structural dimension by most of the researchers, it seems that lawmakers, policy makers and the public speak of “curricula improvement”, but in fact they have something more than simply the structural changes in their minds. For them, the changes in the curricula must contain essential changes with the process and the contents of students’ learning/studying and the universities need to be capable of reflecting this improvement in the process and contents of learning/studying.
Currently the requirements for higher responsibility and quality demand a rather consensual understanding of what is understood as “curriculum” and “curricular reform”. Likewise, if the curriculum is generally understood as “academic plan”, the process, if its intensive planning, can be considered as “curriculum development”. The practical conceptualisation of the curriculum as a plan helps us identify its structure, or the points/rubrics it consists of, which could individually become object to continuous revision and change. Lattuca and Stark recommend 8 elements a curriculum consists of:(Lattuca and Stark 2009)

- Purpose – programme objectives
- Content – programme themes
- Sequence – Contents organisation extended in time
- Students – characteristics, qualities and skills of the students to attend this programme
- Resources – literature, academics and technological materials
- Processes – conducting classes and teaching activities
- Evaluation – assessment of students’ and teacher’s results
- Adjustment/revision – in the sense of improving not only the plan but the planning process as well

In general, the purpose of education is to make the world a better place for everyone. The students must be taught to understand that they play and have to play a (more) important role in this respect. Nevertheless, curricula remain the most essential factor, and it needs to be built in a way to teach the students to adapt themselves to a changing society and intervene wherever it is possible. In this sense the curricula must be considered as a changing academic plan. The change with the curricula needs to reflect the contemporary social developments. E.g. in the 1970-s the American universities responded to the curricula changes concerning women rights as well as other civil rights. These movements started out of the academic field, but when the students and the academic staffs joined these causes, this led to curricula changes. Presently the study programmes on women and ethnic studies are part of many universities, some of which are genuine study programmes.

A new study programme or the revision of an existing programme may require the involvement into this process of many higher education institution sectors, like marketing research, business plans (short-term, mid-term, and long-term), processes of an academic discussion, like the ones concerning discussions within group-subject/s, within the department, in the faculty council, etc., review of existing regulatory legal frame, as well as formal processes of reviewing and approving that can involve the Academic Senate, or Working Boards, until the programme is being promoted with the students through guides, books, advertisements, brochures, etc.

The factors that influence changes with the higher education curricula are multiple. A group of well-known experts in the field of university curricula have made serious attempts at identifying these factors. According to them the most important factors are:

- Influential individuals, or well-known personalities in the university field, or a certain group of disciplines;
- Financial influences or requirements, including the cases when the financial situation does not allow such a thing, as well as cases when they are not favourable;
- The quality, capacity and teaching loads of the academic staff as well as the assisting and administrative staff;
- Job market approaches or influences;
- Requirements of present or future students;
- Students’ skills, level and limitations of the students due the transition from one cycle to another.
- Pedagogical argumentation and teaching methodology;
- University requirements, or existing legal obligations;
- Needs for professional and institutional accreditation, or the structure, criteria and standards set by the university for the study programmes and programmes of subjects it is constituted of;
- The academic “Moda”/trend, or the desire/need/ambition to be in step with other home or foreign institutions.

They are joined by some other researchers according to whom curricula reformation and planning are not only influenced by the inner universities’ philosophy, or their purposes and visions, but also the governmental structures and the culture of the respective countries. (Lattuca and Stark 2009)

The European University of Tirana – EUT has conceptualised the curricula revision and reformation from a broader perspective than the abovementioned factors. This process was part of the reformation and management of the entire
University.

It must be accepted that management concept is relatively new to the universities (not only in Albania -TT) and quite often it has been treated with doubt (Hatakenaka, S. and Thompson, Q. 2006). Several times this concept is connected with a broadly used concept in the literature of higher education which is related to entrepreneurial university, a concept attached to the literature during the 80' (Williams, G. and Kitaev, I. 2005). While in Albania it was considered as a possible model to be implemented only in years 2000. Nevertheless, there is not an open debate about this concept yet. The public debate is mostly on problems faced by the public universities, such as their autonomy, requests for more spaces, better infrastructure, logistics, or issues concerning their management and financing. But there is little comment made concerning the private universities’ inner structure, the model of their management, or the way these universities are adapting themselves in the new context of higher education in Albania.

The current EUT management has brought important changes with the leadership, management and its structure. At the bases of these changes was placed the approach of the corporation’s management, “leadership at all levels”, which adapted to the academic context, allowed EUT to identify the necessary changes to be made. What factors influenced on EUT to undertake this project? To Williams and Kitaev the five factors that influence university changes are: ideology, expansion, “knowledge society”, globalisation and financial scrutiny (Williams, G. and Kitaev, I. 2005)

These factors involved UET-in in its inner transformation and the new management model. The educational system in Albania is getting more and more competitive. Like in many eastern European countries, the higher education institutions, the public and private universities in Albania find themselves competing with one another, mostly for students. The competition among private universities is fierce and according to Williams and Kitaev some of them need to strengthen their governance and make a more “aggressive” marketing of the study programmes they provide (Williams, G. and Kitaev, I. 2005)

The new model was conceptualized as a decentralized model which empowers the employees and stimulates competition among them in order to increase the quality of the university and at the same time to generate efficiency and (efficacy). However, we point out that there are not “good” or “bad” management models but there are different management ways which vary from one context to another.

The new management model of EUT is still based on the philosophy that the teaching and scientific research are the two main pillars of the activity of our university. In this point of view, it was necessary to make a more specific and clear definition of each of the pillars and of their relation as well. Certainly, there were a lot of debates and discussion in this regard. The obtained conclusion was sanctioned in clearly defying the vision, the mission and the strategic objectives to guide its work.

The current vision of EUT is: To be a leading university in the development of knowledge of the Albanian society, a centre of excellence for the academic training of our students, a centre of expertise specialized in the social-political, economic and legal studies in the country, influencing our region and beyond, as well as a research centre of excellence in the specific domains of our expertise.

The mission: to give students a quality education that conveys the results of a valid scientific research, to serve the knowledge of the Albanian society through teaching, creativity, the use of best scientific achievements and through the labour market partnerships and the international ones.

The EUT governing body of delegates its own authority and responsibility toward the institutional management through distributed leadership and by building a clear relationship of responsibility and accountability.

Levels of hierarchy are created for: the strategy formulation, distributed leadership (top-down perspective), exercise of the leadership (bottom-up) and preservation of the quality management principles (top-down and parallel (across).

The core of this mechanism consists of the departments, which are defined as organized units of experts who share their dedication to a special methodological and substantive approach on the knowledge and who are guided by a system of common standards and criteria for quality. The departments manage: the teaching and learning activity, scientific research activity and human resources.

An assessment of the perception of the new model and its results on EUT is undertaken through two surveys with the lecturers and the students. The EUT professoriate of assessed the new management model with the average grade of 8.7, whereas the students with the average grade of 8.5. However, both surveys produced valid inputs to make possible the necessary improvements of this project as well as the quality standards of EUT.

It is believed that the successful implementation of this project which affects the leadership, the management, structure and certainly the university curricula, will increase its quality by improving the competition in the complex market of the higher education in Albania.

Specifically with regard to the curricula, the EUT novelty consists of the increase of the compatibility between
diplomas and profession, a challenge to the entire higher educational system in Albania.

A structural element of the new model is the term/form/way “typology”. The argumentation on the typology deepens the analysis and the organization of the subjects (the classes) not only respecting their categorization as required by the current legal frame, but also on typology basis.

Product of the curricula reformation is the creation of three typologies which are already known at EUT as 1) the subject group of Typology 1, 2) the subject group of Typology 2 and 3) the subject group of Typology 3. This is reflected in the regulatory documentation of the European University of Tirana along with the clear definition of the criteria, modalities for the organization manner of the lecture’s hour in the classroom, together with the different training sessions with all academic personnel, guarantee the success of this new initiative.

This reformation has had its impact on the review of each studying program, each subject program, on the definition of the form of the lectures prepared and given to the auditor, in the pedagogical method that each lecturer should apply in accordance with the typology, bibliography and literature made available to the students, and in the way of controlling students knowledge.

This reformation is a novelty with all Albanian universities. From this point of view, this is not only an experience which should be shared among Albanian universities, but also a model to be followed by them.

In fact, what are these typologies and under which criterion is made the division of subjects based on typology?

According to the regulation of the institution, based on the method of organizing courses and the ways of controlling student’s knowledge:

- **Typology 1** includes general theoretical subjects. These subjects are organized in lectures and colloquies and are conducted by senior lecturers holding academic degrees.
- **Typology 2** includes professional education subjects. These subjects are organized in an interactive way, consisting of lectures, seminars and laboratory classes, conducted by lecturers holding at least the doctor degree and specialized in the respective field.
- **Typology 3** includes practical/applicative subjects. These subjects consist of seminars and laboratory classes and are held by assistant lecturers or PhD-s.

The classes are held on lectures, colloquies, lecture/seminars or group seminar/laboratory basis. The subjects of Typology I are organized in lecture hours for large groups of 200-250 students, (3 classes/per week) and colloquies in groups of 60 students (3 colloquies x 3 classes per trimester). The subjects of Typology 3 are organized in lecture/seminars in groups of 50-60 students (3 classes/per week). The subjects of Typology 3 are organized in lecture/seminars or laboratory classes, (3 or 4 classes / per week). The groups shall not exceed 30 students.

The evaluation/assessment of the academic preparation of the student relies on the principle of continuous control. The final grade is the resultant of the combination of the following elements:

- **Typology 1 subjects**: Final exam (70% of 3 colloquies x 10% = 30%)
- **Typology 2 subjects**: Final exam (40%) Midterm Exam (30%), Assignments 20% and level of participation in seminars 10%
- **Typology 3 subjects**: 5 practical assignments x 20% = 100%

The classes consist of lectures, seminars, lecture/seminar, colloquies, laboratory practice, practical assignment, assignments, midterm exams, final exams, professional practice and (thesis preparation).

It remains a priority for the European University of Tirana the draft, the review and the reformulation of the curricula at all study levels. The organization of this process is initiated from the top level and should be conducted from bottom to up levels/parallel level. The process involves all the interested actors and factors (students, lecturers, group-subjects, departments and The Labour Market Boards). The final decision is entitled to the highest levels of the organigramme of the university: to the Council of Faculty, and definitely to the Academic Senate of the University.

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Evaluation of the Effectiveness of the Education System in Poland

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Abstract It has been shown in the article that the system of education in Poland up to the secondary level is very efficient in comparison to other countries, however, thus developed human capital is not properly directed by the system of higher education. One of the main problems is lack of consistency between the system of higher education and national economy, which generates lack of correlation between the structure of the graduates and the labor market. In measuring the effectiveness of the education system four dimensions have been taken into account: 1- Economic dimension, the performance (service efficiency of a school), which is expressed by comparing the production contribution and economic effect (graduates). 2- Professional dimension, the effectiveness of education, which measures the ability to improve knowledge and skills of the student. 3- Personal dimension, satisfaction of the student, pupil and parent understood as quality (subjective) of teaching and the resulting probability of employment. 4- Synthetic (social) dimension, bringing up of the student to an approach free from selfishness, which can serve the public. It is compatible with the mission of any educational institution (the search for truth, a synthesis of knowledge and service to man). The evaluation should have an impact on the discovery of the quality of services, especially to increase their efficiency and effectiveness, and thus increased prosperity of the whole population.

Keywords: effectiveness, education system.

1. Introduction

Human capital is understood as knowledge, health and capabilities of a person, which help to increase their production capacity. It is a form of capital, because it is the source of current and future income or future satisfaction. By investing in the biological and intellectual potential of a person it is possible to create conditions to raise revenue (benefits) in the future. Thus, every person in society, either directly or indirectly is interested in the quality of education, in particular the effectiveness and efficiency. Effectiveness and coherence of the whole process of learning provide a basis for economic development.

Poland is facing a serious problem, on the one hand the country should significantly reduce public debt, on the other improve efficiency and quality of social services which in addition to effects on growth of human capital are important for social welfare.

Quality in education is very important because mistakes committed in its course are difficult to repair, and can have great negative consequences (in this case one may apply the rule by Juran: 80% of the causes corresponds to 20% of defects). Hence the need for evaluation, which should have an impact on revealing the quality of education, and especially in improving its efficiency and productivity.

2. Quantitative description of the structure of the education system in Poland

Among schools covered by the educational system there are: 6-year primary schools 2 and 3-year lower secondary schools, where education is compulsory; next, upper secondary schools, i.e. 2 and 3-year basic vocational schools, 3-year general secondary schools and specialized secondary schools, and 4-year technical secondary schools. At the next level of education are 5-year universities, broken down by three-year undergraduate studies [Bachelor’s degree studies] and two-year “magisterskie” studies [Master’s degree studies].

Number of students at different educational levels is shown in a table below. Clearly you can see the effects of demographic decline in the schools to which attendance is mandatory. Also the number of students decreases with time.
Table 1. Pupils and students in thousands by level of education

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Schools:</th>
<th>2005/06</th>
<th>2009/10</th>
<th>2010/11</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>primary</td>
<td>2602,0</td>
<td>2234,9</td>
<td>2190,6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>lower secondary</td>
<td>1596,8</td>
<td>1322,1</td>
<td>1260,6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>higher secondary</td>
<td>1719,7</td>
<td>1519,5</td>
<td>1464,9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>post secondary</td>
<td>313,5</td>
<td>284,8</td>
<td>298,8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>universities</td>
<td>1953,8</td>
<td>1900,0</td>
<td>1841,3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>students on every 10 thousand</td>
<td>509,4</td>
<td>493,4</td>
<td>476,4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>women in overall % of students</td>
<td>56,5</td>
<td>58,2</td>
<td>58,8</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Polish Statistical Yearbook, GUS

Recently in Poland there have appeared non-public schools, whose fees are high, for Polish conditions. They are characterized by a large number of diverse extra-curricular activities that allow children to develop hobbies, and small classes (as opposed to public schools in large cities), so the teacher can talk with each child. Below in Table 2 one can compare the range of private schools to the public in Polish system of education.

Table 2. Schools and pupils, broken down by public and private in 2009/2010

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Schools</th>
<th>Public</th>
<th>Non-public</th>
<th>Public</th>
<th>Non-public</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>primary</td>
<td>13033</td>
<td>936</td>
<td>2171,5</td>
<td>63,4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>lower secondary</td>
<td>6519</td>
<td>725</td>
<td>1270,1</td>
<td>52,1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>higher secondary</td>
<td>6802</td>
<td>832</td>
<td>1453,8</td>
<td>65,8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>post secondary</td>
<td>839</td>
<td>2371</td>
<td>284,8</td>
<td>208,9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>universities</td>
<td>131</td>
<td>330</td>
<td>1266,9</td>
<td>633,1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Polish Statistical Yearbook, GUS

Note the upward trend in the number of non-public schools and universities at a constant number of public schools and universities. However, it seems that with the increasing number of non-public schools and universities there has been no increase in the quality of education. Higher education has developed rapidly in number. In the year 1990/91 the number of students in Poland amounted to 404 thousand, in 2000/2001 it has reached 1685 thousand, and in 2009/2010: 1900 thousand. At the same time, infrastructure and the number of teachers increased at a much weaker pace. Hence, naturally appeared tendency of multi-jobbing of academics and, unfortunately, the quality of education has ceased to be the main goal of education.

3. The four dimensions of quality evaluation of school activities

The proposed evaluation of schools activities was made in four dimensions:

1. **Professional dimension**, the effectiveness of education, which measures the ability to improve knowledge and skills of pupils or students.
2. **Economic dimension**, the performance (service efficiency of a school), which is expressed by comparing the production contribution and economic effect (graduates).
3. **Personal dimension**, satisfaction of the student, pupil and parent understood as quality (subjective) of teaching and the resulting probability of employment.
4. **Social dimension**, bringing up of the student to an approach free from selfishness, which can serve the public through work for the development of economy and national culture.
3.1 Effectiveness

Effectiveness of education, or the ability of educational institutions to improve knowledge and skills of a pupil or a student is very difficult to measure. Various parties interested in economic activities can define the efficiency (effectiveness) in various ways. The terms of such comparisons can be as presented below:

- Various alternatives of activities’ realization / ex post evaluation and the associated relative effectiveness. Such an assessment is of interest for parents who want to choose the right school for their children, or local authorities that wish to strengthen the weakest schools to increase the average human capital. One such measure is the Educational Value-Added assessment created by Aitkin and Longford. The econometric model that they proposed is known as the variance components model - VC or the error component model. Coefficients of the model are estimated using maximum likelihood [e.g. Aitkin, Longford (1986)] or generalized least squares method [e.g. Baltagi (2005)]. Value-added method takes into account the diversity of schools because it concerns the resources at the entrance. In the case of higher secondary schools the best available method of measuring resources at the entrance are pupils’ results in lower secondary school final exam, and at the output - results of the “matura” examination (end of study examination at higher secondary level). Both exams are checked by external examiners and have the same task descriptions in entire Poland. This model will be presented on the calculating the efficiency of teaching in high schools in Wroclaw. The following indications have been used: LO + a Roman numeral – denotes a high school whose number is given by the Roman numeral; LO SA – denotes the Private Salesian High School; LO SU – denotes the Ursuline High School.

Fig. 1. The results obtained in Mathematics /Value-added method (EWD) – 95% - confidence intervals

![Mathematics 2010](source)

Source: Own calculations based on the Regional Examination Commission in Wroclaw

Fig. 2. The results obtained in Mathematics /Value-added method (EWD)/

![Mathematics 2010 and 2011](source)

Source: Own calculations based on the Regional Examination Commission in Wroclaw
- **Objective achievements** (as a realization of stated objectives); In this approach, the efficiency is defined as the ratio between the actual and expected outcome. The result should be described quantitatively, for example, as a score (points) from a final exam. In order to compare with the expected result one should analyze the results from the same examination among other students. An example of such analysis is the international PISA study on a group of 17-year-olds:

**Table 3. International comparison of average educational attainment of 17 - year-olds**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Country</th>
<th>2003</th>
<th>2006</th>
<th>2007</th>
<th>2009</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>U.S.</td>
<td>483</td>
<td>490</td>
<td>481</td>
<td>500</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Germany</td>
<td>503</td>
<td>499</td>
<td>505</td>
<td>497</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Italy</td>
<td>466</td>
<td>476</td>
<td>469</td>
<td>486</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Poland</td>
<td>490</td>
<td>495</td>
<td>500</td>
<td>500</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: OECD PISA

The above table presents a high level of progress visible in average results of educational outcome among Polish high school students.

3.2 **Efficiency**

In a "production system," which a school undoubtedly is, financial outlays in the form of teachers' salaries, cost of technical equipment, operating costs and operating fees (in schools and private institutions, and public evening and extramural), are transformed into certain number of graduates, Bachelors and Masters.

In education, the economic effect is sufficiently high state of knowledge and skills of the graduate (student, pupil). In the measurement of school performance it is often assumed that the effect is the number of graduates, and the contributions are expenses of the state budget and budgets of local governments on education plus tuition.

In table 4. we compare educational expenditure in Poland (divided into levels) to spending in other selected countries.

**Table 4. International comparison of annual expenditure per pupil at different levels (PPP USD 2007)**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Primary</th>
<th>Secondary</th>
<th>Higher</th>
<th>Average</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>USA</td>
<td>10229</td>
<td>11301</td>
<td>27010</td>
<td>14269</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Germany</td>
<td>5548</td>
<td>7841</td>
<td>13823</td>
<td>8270</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Italy</td>
<td>7383</td>
<td>8004</td>
<td>8673</td>
<td>7948</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Poland</td>
<td>4063</td>
<td>3590</td>
<td>5576</td>
<td>4134</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>OECD Average</td>
<td>6741</td>
<td>8267</td>
<td>12907</td>
<td>8216</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: OECD in Figures 2007 Edition

For a full picture of the effectiveness of education in Poland in Table 5. an international comparison is made:

**Table 5. International comparison of efficiency**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>A</th>
<th>B</th>
<th>C</th>
<th>D</th>
<th>D/B w %</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>USA</td>
<td>24074</td>
<td>40088</td>
<td>39</td>
<td>490</td>
<td>1,22</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Canada</td>
<td>19992</td>
<td>19994</td>
<td>31</td>
<td>526</td>
<td>2,63</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>France</td>
<td>10704</td>
<td>33548</td>
<td>53</td>
<td>506</td>
<td>1,50</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
where: A - annual expenditure per student in USD according to PPP  
B - Annual salary of a school teacher with 15-year experience in USD according to PPP  
C - wage per hour of teaching, the same teacher  
D - average rate of knowledge and skills of 15-year-olds, D / B - reflects the function of the quality of education thanks to which we can say that our educational system is at the forefront when it comes to the effectiveness of training of the average high school student.

3.3. **Personal Dimension**

Satisfaction of a pupil, student and parent, which should be the subject of the area of market education and should measure the level of satisfaction with the result of education, teaching service and opportunities available to improve knowledge. Satisfaction Survey allows you to specify how the service offered by the school meets the expectations of students, better understand their preferences and their subjectively perceived learning outcomes. Example of measuring satisfaction through a survey is given below. Students of two majors (Economic Sciences and Finance Management), at the same university were asked the following questions: 1. Does the teacher teach clearly? 2. Is s/he enthusiastic about teaching? 3. Does s/he promote active participation in the classroom? 4. Is s/he late? 5. Overall assessment. Results of the survey for question 1 and the overall assessment is given below.

**Figure 2 a. Box graph presenting distribution of student responses for question 1.**

**Figure 2 b. Box graph presenting the distribution of the overall assessment**

Source: own research
3.4. The social dimension.

When dealing with the effectiveness of training you need to look also for the preparation of personnel for the national economy and culture, and education of adults who can distinguish truth from falsehood and form their own judgment about the objective state of things. Consistency of training with the needs of national economy, optimization of human capital can be measured by a force of relationship between education and economic growth or unemployment rates of graduates.

The empirical studies [Dougherty] That shows the share of human capital in the growth of GDP, depending on the countries and periods, ranges from 5% to 20%. Empirical verification of models of growth [Griliches, 1997, Mankiw et al, 1992] Particular in GDP per capita, show interesting conclusions for the economies regarding human capital. It turns out, for example, that countries with lower GDP per capita may be at a higher rate of growth than technologically advanced countries, provided that, they have a high level of human capital. Another interesting finding is the relationship between human capital and investment expenditures.

Figure 3. Dependence of average student achievement from per capita education spending; divided into developed and developing countries

![Figure 3: Dependence of average student achievement from per capita education spending.](image)

Source: Human Development Report 2009

Figure 4. Relation of GDP per capita to the average outcome of student' the average result of a student's achievements.

![Figure 4: Relation of GDP per capita to the average outcome of student.](image)

Source: Human Development Report 2009
Figures 3 and 4 present the fact that, in spite of good results at the secondary level of education, there can be observed the lack of consistency between the system of higher education and the economy. Lack of such consistency also leads to high unemployment rate among university graduates. According to GUS (Central Statistical Office of Poland) data, even every fifth Polish student receiving a Master's degree cannot find a job, and during the last year (of economic crisis) as compared to the previous year the number of unemployed university graduates increased by 40%. Unfortunately, the problem of high unemployment of university graduates is a problem present throughout entire Europe.

4. Conclusion

Comparing the international results of the effectiveness of education systems one can state that the education system in Poland including upper secondary level is effective and efficient. According to the latest ranking of the OECD PISA Poland is in 15th place. As for performance, we are also at the forefront of the world. Unfortunately, the state authorities and specifically local authorities are planning for the next year to close about 300 schools, 120 of which in rural areas. This will mean extending time needed to get to school, and the deteriorating conditions of learning (large classes). Unfortunately, when it comes to Polish universities, in international rankings they are far, the best of Polish universities the Jagiellonian University took around 300th place in the ranking. When it comes to state spending on research and development, it known that for this purpose we devote (in % of GDP), two times less than Estonia and Italy, three times less than the EU average. To conclude it should be stated that Poland does not use its human capital optimally, particularly at the higher education institutions and does not ensure consistency with the national economy. This is probably related to an unstable labor market.

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Student’s Internship and the Labor Market – The Case of the University of Prishtina

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Abstract The University of Prishtina until recently was the only public university in Kosovo. With a total of 17 faculties of various field and around 50 thousand students, it is one of the biggest universities in the region. Because of the large number of students, one of the main problems faced by its faculties is providing internships for students. This paperwork deals with the analysis of the integration of internship into curriculum’s of the three faculties: Faculty of Economics, Faculty of Electrical and Computer Engineering and Faculty of Education. The paperwork will identify types of internships that these faculties offer as well as their readiness to provide internships for all students. It also presents the analysis of the students' needs for internship, importance of internship to improve students’ employability skills and the difficulties they face in finding an internship. The study uses survey data generated from 300 students of third year students from the Faculty of Economics, Faculty of Electrical and Computer Engineering, Faculty of Education and from administration of these three faculties. The findings of the research have shown the difficulties that economics and electrical - computer engineering students have in finding an internship because their faculties don’t provide it for them whereas it’s difficult to find it alone. But, Faculty of Education has better organised internship programs.

Keywords: Internship, Students, Faculties, Curriculum

Introduction

Higher Education is crucial important in the life of youth. Its importance relies not only in the theoretical preparation and knowledge gaining but also in the developing and building their professional competences in order to make them better prepared for the labor market. One of the main goals of higher education (HE) is to prepare students for a future career (Santiago, 2009). Successful design and implementation of the internship program requires the cooperative efforts of two key personnel: a faculty instructor/coordinator and an agency internship coordinator. (Etkins, 2002)

Youth’s education consists in their professional preparation which they gain in pre university education and in the higher education. Internship is considered a crucial part of studies for every young man and woman. This strengthens even more their professionalism and makes them more competent in a given fields. Internships are not important to students only. Internships are important to University and to the Labor market. Interaction between the University and Labor market should be closed and tight one. They should be partners that assist and supplement one-another in developing and improving quality of work in preparing the youth for the labor market. Through the feedback received from interns and organizational supervisors, curriculum development can be enhanced as faculty examine the degree to which what is being taught in the classroom matches what is expected professionally of students in the actual work situation (Blasé & Fixsen, 1981; McCaffery, 1979). Professional preparation of the youth should be done in interaction with the labor market demands. University must follow carefully trends and the needs of economic development. In the same direction of development faculties should invest in students in order so they can gain all the necessary skills and knowledge needed for job. For this purpose the curriculums in the University should be prepared based upon the labor market needs. Perhaps they should be prepared in a joint cooperation between University and the Labour market. In this way both factors would compliment one another like fitting a puzzle which can be clearly viewed only after is complete. In this way the cooperation between University and the Labor market can provide a better professional fulfillment.

In one way the University will prepare students towards the labor market needs and on the other hand the labor market will involve them as interns during their studies by which they can improve their knowledge, experience and professionalism. If they are succesful during their internship period they can become potential employers when they graduate.

This would satisfy both sides and would ensure that students that are going through their studies gain theoretical and practical knowledge and experience for their brighter future.

Being competent is necessity in current trends of professional development. This determines the level of
professional development for each individual. Those competences the youth mostly gain during their studies when they need to make a connection between the theory and practical work or internship. Taylor (1988) hypothesizes that internships mediate the difficult transition between school and work in at least three ways: (a) facilitating crystallization of vocational self-concept and work values, (b) decreasing the reality shock of the first job, and (c) providing students with better employment opportunities.

Background of the study

University of Prishtina is the largest public University. It consists of 17 faculties and has around 50,000 active students in all levels of studies. Within the University of Prishtina functions Career Development Centre aiming to prepare students for internships, practical work engagement during their studies or future employment possibilities and serves as a liaison between students and labor market. CDC also helps the University of Prishtina's Alumni's by providing additional trainings in order to help them increase the chances of employment.

University of Prishtina has no strategy or an administrative regulation which makes the internship at different companies and/or organisations as a mandatory for each student. Therefore University through its Career Development Center, attempts to help students in terms of finding internships. CDC has initiated several MOU agreements with different public or private institutions, international or domestic to help students getting internship possibilities and develop their professional career.

Methodology

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this study is to provide information about the presence and challenges of internship programs for students at three faculties of the University of Prishtina: the Faculty of Economics, Faculty of Electrical and Computer Engineering and Faculty of Education. Another purpose of this paper is to identify and present the problems that students’ face, their difficulties in finding an internship and to emphasize the importance of internship in bringing students and the labour market in a closer and supplementing to one and other.

General Background of Research

The survey was conducted during the first semester of school year 2011/2012. To analyse the integration of internship into faculty curriculum’s we chosen three largest faculties in University of Prishtina: Faculty of Economics, Faculty of Electrical and Computer Engineering and Faculty of Education.

The main hypotheses upon which the research was built were:

H1: Internship is not integrated into curriculums of all UP faculties.
H2: Due to the lack of specific program of the internship in UP, students are required to ensure internship by themselves or through a third party outside the faculty.
H3: Students that haven’t finished any internship think that they will be employed more slowly than those who finished an internship.

Sample of Research

The survey was conducted on a sample of 300 participants, 100 students of Faculty of Electrical and Computer Engineering, 100 students of Faculty of Economics and 100 students of Faculty of Education. In each faculty, questionnaires were distributed to students of four departments. Twenty five students in each department fulfilled the questionnaire. All respondents are students of third year. Also, the questionnaires were distributed to three administrators of these three faculties.

Instrument and Procedures

Qualitative method is used for collecting the data. Questionnaire for the administrators and students, done by the
researchers, has open and closed questions. Research was conducted by means of an anonymous questionnaire. The student questionnaire consists of 16 questions. This questionnaire included 5 open and 11 closed questions, while the questionnaire for administrators included 10 questions, 4 open and 6 closed questions.

Data Analysis

Descriptive statistics were used in order to analyze the data collected. The descriptive statistics includes the use of frequency tables, percentages, means, and standard deviations.

Results of Research

Since, for each faculty is surveyed 100 students, the number frequency is same with percentage of respondents. Initially, respondents were asked what kind of internships their faculty offers for them. Most of the FE (Faculty of Education) students (84%), 40% of electrical and computer engineering students and only 2% of economics students indicated that in their faculty internship is obligatory and it must be performed in institutions determined by faculty. The majority of the Faculty of Electrical and Computer Engineering (FECE) students (45%) stated that the internship is obligatory but they have to ensure it by themselves, while the same answers have given 13% of FE students and 6% of economics students. Seventy-eight percent of economics students affirmed that the internship is not obligatory in their faculty and that students find internships by their own initiative, while also 11% of FE students and 2% of FECE students have given the same answer. Only 3% of FECE students, 5% of economics students and 1% of FE students answered that their faculty offers case studies, while only 1% of FECE students and 3% of economics students stated that their faculty offers company visits. Six percent of economics students answered that their faculty don’t offers any of the mentioned types of internships. The surveyed administrator of FECE and administrator of Faculty of Education answered that internship is obligatory and it must be performed in institutions determined by their faculty, while the surveyed administrator of Faculty of Economics answered that internship is not obligatory in their faculty and that students find internships by their own initiative.

Figure 1: Numbers/percentages of respondents by answer given to this question “Is internship integrated in your faculty curriculum?”

Figure 1 presents the results concerning the question if internship is integrated in the faculty curriculum. As can be seen on this figure, most of the FE students (93%) and FECE students (47%) answered that internship is integrated in their faculty curriculum, while the majority of economics students (65%) answered that internship isn't integrated in curriculum of their faculty. Twenty-six percent of FECE students, 21% of economics students and 5% of FE students answered that they don't know if internship is integrated or not. The surveyed administrator of FECE and administrator of FE answered that internship is integrated in their faculty curriculum, while the surveyed administrator of Faculty of Economics answered that in their faculty it isn't.

Regarding time frame of internships, most of the FECE students answered that internships last 8 weeks, most of the
economics students (93%) haven’t answered to this question while most of the FE students (64%) stated that internship lasts 6 weeks. The FECE administrator answered that an internship lasts 2 weeks, while most of their students say 8 weeks. The Faculty of Education administrator answered that an internship lasts 6 weeks per year. The Faculty of Economics administrator hasn’t answered to this question because the internship isn’t obligatory in this faculty.

On the fourth question how many ECTS credits they receive for internship, most of the FECE students (76%) answered that they receive 6 credits for internship, 84% of FE students and all of economics students answered that they don’t know.

As can be seen on Figure 2, 88% of FECE students and 77% of economics students haven’t done any practical work even they are on third year of study, while most of the FE students have done (94%).

**Figure 2: Numbers/percentages of respondents by answer given to this question “Have you done any internship?”**

Surveyed students were also asked if they prepare any report after the internship. Most of the FE students (80%) and FECE students (69%) answered that they prepare a report after the internship, while most of economics students (87%) answered that they don’t. Also, the surveyed administrator of FECE and administrator Faculty of Education answered that students prepare a report after finishing the internship, while the surveyed administrator of Faculty of Economics answered “no” on this question.

On the question regarding how much practical work had contributed to students’ professional development; answer is given only by students that have finished the internship (12% of FECE students, 23% of economics students and 94% of FE students). However, most of the FE students say that practical work has contributed to their professional development a lot (79%), a little (13%) and not at all (2%). Eight (from 12 FECE students that have finished the internship) and nineteen economics students (from 23 that have finished the internship) say that practical work has contributed a lot to their professional development, while 4 FECE students and 3 economics students chose the option “a little”.

Students that have finished the internship were asked if they think that they will be employed more quickly than those without practical experience. Most of the FE students (45%) think that yes, 20% answered “no”, while 29% stated that they don’t know. Eight (from 12 FECE students that have finished the internship) answered “yes” to a question, one answered no while three students answered that they don’t know. Ten economics students (from 23 that have finished the internship) answered “yes” to a question, 2 students answered “no” while 11 students say that they don’t know.

Students that haven’t finished any practical work where asked why did it happen. Forty-nine economics students (from 77 students that haven’t finished any internship), 26 FECE students (from 88 students) and 3 FE students (from 6 students) answered that they haven’t finished yet any internship because it was hard to find it alone. Thirteen FECE students and ten economics students say they didn’t finish internship yet due to high criteria of companies. Most of FECE students that haven’t finish any internship (44 students) say that it happen because internship haven’t been required yet by the faculty. The same answer is given by 6 economics students and one FE student. Five FECE students, 12 economics students and 2 FE students answered “I don’t know” on this question.

When they were asked if they will be employed more slowly than those who have done an internship, 40 FECE
students (from 88 students that haven’t done any internship) and 38 economics students (from 77 students) answered “Yes” on a question, while 23 FECE students and 18 economics students answered “No”. Twenty-five percent FECE students and 21 economics students say that they don’t know. (See Figure 3)

Figure 3: Numbers/percentages of respondents by answer given to this question “Do you think that you will be employed more slowly than those without practical experience?”

The results revealed that most of FECE students (83%) answered that they have to do internship on 6th semester, 10 students don’t know in which semester, while 7 students haven’t answered to this question. The majority of economics students (56%) answered they don’t have to do internship on none of semesters, 24% say they have to do the internship on 3rd and 4th semester, 11% say on 4th semester while 9% say on 3rd semester; three students answered that they don’t know. Most of the FE students (87%) answered they do internship on 2nd, 3rd and 4th year of study, 9% say they do internship every year while 4% didn’t answer on question. The surveyed administrator of FECE answered that students have to do internship on 6th semester; the Faculty of Education administrator answered that internship must be done on 4th, 5th and 8th semester while the administrator of Faculty of Economics stated that even internship isn't obligatory it is recommended to do it on 5th and 6th semester.

According to the findings, FECE and Faculty of Education have an internship coordinator, while Faculty of Economics doesn't have. Ninety-five percent of FE students and 48% of FECE students answered that their faculty has an internship coordinator, while 48% of economics students and 27% of FECE students answered “no” on this question. Forty-five percent of economics students and 18% of FECE students answered they don’t know if in their faculty exists an internship coordinator. The surveyed administrator of FECE and Faculty of Education answered that in their faculty exists an internship coordinator, while the surveyed administrator of Faculty of Economics answered that in their faculty don’t exist.

On the question if their faculties offer any additional activity outside the curriculum that can help students professional development, the majority of all students surveyed answered “No” on this question; Sixty-nine percent of FECE students, 53% of economics student’s and 59% of FE students think so. The Faculty of Education administrator answered that this faculty don’t offer any additional activity, the FECE administrator haven’t answered to this question while the Faculty of Economics administrator answered that this faculty organize some additional activities as company visits and presentation of some banks to their students.

Most of students which stated that their faculty offer additional activities outside the curriculum (13% of FECE students, 15% economics students and 15% FE students), say that faculty organize conferences and fairs, but also seminars, training and courses with payment.
Summary of Results (Findings)

- Internship is obligatory in FECE and FE, while it isn’t in Faculty of Economics.
- Internship is integrated in curriculum of Faculty of Electrical and Computer Engineering and Faculty of Education while it isn’t integrated in curriculum of Faculty of Economics.
- According to most FECE students, they have to find an internship by themselves while the administrator of this faculty say that their faculty provide internship for students; FE students and administrator answered that the internship must be performed in institutions determined by faculty while according to economics students and their administrator they find internships by their own initiative.
- Most of FECE students and economics students haven’t done yet any practical work, while most of FE students have finish an internship.
- Most of students that have finished an internship say that it had contributed a lot to their professional development.
- Most of students that have finished an internship think that they will be employed more quickly than those without practical experience.
- While, most of students that haven’t finished an internship think they will be employed more slowly than those with practical experience.
- Most of students of the Faculty of Economics say that they haven’t finish any internship because it was hard to find it alone; most of FECE students answered that they haven’t done any internship because it haven’t been required yet by the faculty.
- According to most respondents, faculties don’t offer additional activities outside the curriculum that can help student’s professional development.

Discussions

Employers have complained that higher education programs often fail to respond to one of their most basic needs: providing students with skills necessary to function effectively in a business environment (Fitt & Heverly, 1992). The student’s education should end with a capstone experience to integrate knowledge, behaviors, and professional attitudes acquired throughout the curriculum that are necessary to the practice of health information administration (CAAHEP, 2003). One response from universities has been to develop internship programs designed to provide experiences more closely tied to potential work settings (Gabris & Mitchell, 1989). Several studies have indicated and concluded that really exists a gap between the quality of graduates produced and what the market demands. According to the researchers, internships enhance the classroom course material understanding; encourage the students’ learning; and improve their problem solving abilities. According to career portal Vault.com, Fortune 500 companies may end up spending three times as much per new hire by recruiting through advertising and visiting universities versus recruiting interns (Leung, 2002).

Conclusions

One commonly heard criticism of University of Prishtina is that graduates are not well prepared for the job market. This institution must consider the integration of students into a labor market a priority. The main activity of UP must be the placement of students in a context of a curriculum internship, professional internship and/or employment. As we have presented through the research results it is obvious that Faculty of Education stands better in terms of internship. This is due to the fact that they have an organized internship from their faculty and its and mandatory during their 4th year studies and is counted with ECTS credits. Through organizing this kind of internship Faculty of Education manages to prepare its students for employment immediately after graduation.

As of the Faculty of Electronic and Computer Engineering we noticed that they tried to make the internship a mandatory part of studies but only in the last year of studies (3rd). It’s important to state here that even though the FECE has made internship as a mandatory for students of the last year of studies, the Faculty does not organize internships but students have to find an internship opportunity on their own. In the end the Faculty decides whether to include the internship in the ECTS credit value of studies or not. Also the students of the first two years of studies are completely excluded from the internship possibilities.

Unfortunately the worst situation is with the Faculty of Economics where internship is not a mandatory part of studies and even student initiated internship is not counted. This means that if a student has found a place to do his internship in the end of internship the Faculty will not take this into account or to value with ECTS credits. This has raise a discontent
and de motivation for all students and therefore they consider the internship as not needed for their labor market preparation. After the comparison of the research results of the three Faculties it was proved that the students of the Faculty of Economics are less prepared for the labor market. This certainly reflects on the country’s economic development.

**Recommendation**

- University of Prishtina should make internship as a mandatory part of studies for each student at every Faculty.
- University of Prishtina must sign more MOU agreements for internship with different companies.
- Each Faculty should motivate its students for internship and should try to find internship possibilities for them.
- Faculties should take into account student involvement in internship and value it with the ECTS credits.
- University of Prishtina should consider labor market a close and inevitable partner and to exchange as much as information of the labor market demands and improve its quality of studies toward it.
- We suggest more roundtables between UP and companies regarding building up network for internship.
- Faculty of Economics must create a concrete strategy for providing internships for students.
- Practical work must be added as compulsory in the curriculum of the Faculty of Economics.
- UP must begin a campaign for awareness of companies about the importance and mutual benefit by providing practical work for students.
- Faculty of Electrical and Computer Engineering must offer practical work also in the second year, not only at the end of the study.
- Faculty of Economics and Faculty of Electrical and Computer Engineering should offer more company visits for groups of 4-5 students and let them make a case study there.
- Faculty of Economics and Faculty of Electrical and Computer Engineering should organize company visits as external observers to gain experience from observation.

**References**


Learn and Teach: Communities of Practice as an Opportunity for Teachers' Professional Development

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Abstract: Involvement in professional development processes is characteristic of the majority of Portuguese teachers. This situation justifies the need to stir a discussion about the current models of teacher training based on the analysis of requirements and challenges related to social and professional teaching career. For this purpose, our debate focuses on the experience of a project carried out between 2010 and 2011 that confronts current models, most of them steered towards accelerated rehabilitation, with communities of practice among teachers in Portugal. The results presented aim to describe the characteristics of this approach and are based on produced documents and a questionnaire administrated to participating teachers. They also suggest that formed communities of practice pave the road for a professional development that is not individual, competitive or bureaucratic and counteract the attacks made by recent educational policies on some of the traditional pillars of teachers' professionalism.

Keywords: training of teachers, community of practice, reflective teacher.

1. Introduction: requirements and challenges for teacher training

In response to the social and political challenges posed by global interdependence and the demands of increased economic growth and employability, education takes a leading role. With the research evidence showing that student outcomes are related to the quality of teaching (e.g., Creemers, 1994), this context, not surprisingly, influences the teacher profession. Writing on the blackboard has become a small part of the teacher's work. The need for qualified professionals who can work collaboratively as well as independently, who have the ability to solve complex problems, reflect on their practice and deal with the social and technological change are some of the challenges that teachers face today (Sachs, 1997). On top of these challenges, as followers of the Global Citizenship Education (GCE) movement, we add the understanding of complex issues surrounding the processes of global interdependence, contributing to building a more just, equitable and inclusive world. This “mission” involves unfamiliar responses for teachers (Coolahan, 2002) and a set of contradictory requests (Day, 2002).

In Portugal, at a time of great complexity at teachers' work, there have been also implemented successive reforms that promote structural changes in the role of the teacher. In general terms, there are changes that have increased technical elements (Stoleroff and Pereira, 2009). According to a study by Day et al. (2007) for Portuguese teachers these changes have made “threats” to their autonomy and their commitment to moral and social purposes of the profession, the traditional pillars of professionalism of teachers.

These few images have fueled the belief that we need to promote the improvement and expansion of knowledge and skills of teachers for more effective performance of their work. The training of each teacher must be a mixture of necessity and obligation as an “answer for all the questions” (Ferry, 1983, cit. by Canário, 2000: 39). Merging between instrumental purposes is using, in most cases, the “normal” model, the one that best dominates: the “school model”. These are formative processes that do not take into account the reality in which teachers move or build a deep and critical vision of their teaching practice. Maybe that's why 42% of Portuguese teachers refer to the inadequacy of professional development opportunities when asked about that (OECD, 2009).

Recognizing the contribution of these training programs as conventional sources of explicit knowledge, it seems evident that it necessary to revise the goals and strategies for teacher's continuous education programs. Different studies indicate an important idea to consider in this context: if we want an education process that actually makes a qualitative change, it is important and necessary to adopt educational models connected to the reality of professional teachers (Wallace, 2002), emphasizing a “situated learning” (Anderson et al. 1996). Teamwork can help to face these challenges (Hargreaves, 2000). Currently, in almost all European countries, official regulations require teachers to collaborate, although cooperation between teachers takes more often the form of ideas and information exchange that forms of “progressive” cooperation (OECD, 2009). It is also recognized in the literature the impact of collaborative educational professional processes for teachers. These studies show that communities of practice improve professional learning of teachers (Louis and Marks, 1998) and are vital for the promoting an educational change in schools (Ross and Regan, 1993). However, there remains a marked lack of research on the use of these formats out of school. This article also
represents an attempt to fill this gap.

Far from a technocratic conception, this article considers the teacher as an intellectual and critical professional. Using a project in the area of GCE developed in Portugal by a civil society organization, between 2010 and 2011, we illustrate the use of a community of practice as an opportunity for professional development. We intend to analyze the deeper issues of the use of community of practice - paths and challenges, as what they mean for the participating teachers - enriching it with our own field experience and in light of the theoretical framework that we have drafted. We think that this picture of a teacher training is important for those involved - teachers and civil society organizations - and, generally, is useful for the development of training opportunities in Portugal.

A note about the project

The data presented and discussed in this paper were collected under a project developed by a Non-Governmental Development Organization (NGO). Since 2006, this NGO has strengthened the area of GCE in formal education and, in June 2010, initiated the project “Between Educators” until July 2011. The objectives were stated as follows: “to contribute to strengthening the role of teachers as key actors in GCE”. The basic assumption was that teachers, although key actors in practice of GCE in schools, do not have enough opportunities in this area, working in isolation and with low impact on the education system. On the other hand, the strategy was to foster a learning process in which knowledge and actions of teachers was building in interaction with their peers, not only improving their own professional performance, but also generating collective knowledge to feed the thinking and practice of colleagues.

With this goal in mind four working groups\(^1\) were created, composed of the total of 25 teachers, whose objectives, composition and resulting products are summarized in Table 1. We believe, for this study, all the working groups are a “community of practice” in the sense that corresponds to a space and time in which teachers collaborate and discuss what they do and how they want to do it, and learning it the main characteristic (Lave and Wenger, 1991).

### Table 1 - Characterization of the working groups

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Groups and objectives</th>
<th>Composition</th>
<th>Products</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Group for economic and social literacy</td>
<td>4 teachers</td>
<td>Book on the welfare state for teachers and other educators</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Reflect on and discuss socio-economic issues prioritized</td>
<td>2 NGO technical</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Group for disciplinary integration of GCE</td>
<td>7 teachers</td>
<td>Document linking the content and skills of geography, pre-primary and primary education for teachers</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Relate the curriculum to the issues of GCE</td>
<td>1 Education University technical</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2 NGO technical</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Group for the construction of a didactical propose</td>
<td>10 teachers</td>
<td>Resource for pre-primary and primary students about migration and development</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Design a teaching GCE resource for students</td>
<td>1 NGO technical</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>2 NGO technical</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Group for systematization of experiences</td>
<td>5 teachers</td>
<td>Book about education projects for teachers and other educations</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Put GCE practice in the center of systematic and collective reflection</td>
<td>2 NGO technical</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In general, the viability of the project was guaranteed by the fact that Citizenship Education is considered a cross-sectional area by the Ministry of Education. At an operational level, the adherence of teachers to work in different groups proposed was ensured by the fact of the “recruitment” was made among a larger group of teachers with a history of participation in projects developed by the NGO.

2. Methods of collecting and analyzing data

Because of the integration of qualitative and interpretative goal, we have chosen a model “from inside”, from the perspective of teachers and the researcher’ involvement in the process. Importantly, the researcher followed a participatory way throughout the whole process and has a personal knowledge and previous working relationship with

\(^1\) By choice, we haven’t analyzed separately the different working group’s data, although we recognize that its size and configuration are important for the internal dynamics.
those involved, resulting in a conception of the issue that cannot be completely “off” in their way to investigate. In response, we have anticipated and accounted for some relativizing subjectivity. First, we conceptualize the object of study by reference to the theory, as suggested by literature. The categories of analysis and options of the questionnaire were based on references that are given in the article. Moreover, we expected a frank collaboration of teachers who understand the importance of scientific research in this theme, supported, in many cases, by mutual trust.

The collected results were based on a peculiar mix of techniques: documentary analysis and questionnaire administered to participating teachers. The quantitative method, in this case the questionnaire with closed questions, was used to access all of the participating teachers and identify patterns. We included different levels of information: identifying personal and professional, conceptual and methodological perspective about the project, motivation and commitment, relationship, satisfaction and dissatisfaction, the impacts of participation. The questionnaires were completed virtually in February 2012. We guaranteed the confidentiality of collected information and made a commitment to return the results: “I'd like to see the result”, teachers wrote.

The questionnaire response rate was 85%, which equates to 22 teachers from 26 participants in total. The analysis was performed using SPSS. We highlight the imbalance on the gender issue, since the vast majority (86.4%) was female, confirming data from OECD (2009) suggesting that female teachers participate more often in collaboration processes. The teachers were aged between 36 and 71 years, with most (50%) in the age group between 45 and 54 years. In this case, it seems that the variable “age” has divergent effects concerning what happens with the population of teachers in most European countries, since the participation in training activities tends to decrease with increasing age (OECD, 2009). This may be related to greater job security that experienced teachers have - there is no participant with less than 13 years of service and only one teacher has an unstable contractual relationship - which ensures a willingness to invest in this kind of education and training. Furthermore, the data show that this group of teachers has invested in their continuing professional development, since 59% have more advanced studies than those required for teaching.

Qualitative methodology was applied to document analysis. From the numerous documents produced by the working groups, fifteen were selected for analysis, i.e. three/four documents per group. The selected documents refer to memories of meetings and describe activities, decisions and sometimes the evaluation of the participants. Again, in order to reduce the subjectivity of the researcher, we turn to a content analysis assisted by software “Tropes”. Content analysis allowed us to make an analysis of events, but also make inferences about the strategic level of intervention.

3. Analysis and discussion of results

The findings raise a number of important issues that deserve discussion. Here we consider it important to develop five key elements, relating theoretical and empirical data, in a community of practice as an opportunity for teacher training.

Shared commitment, but attention to the pluralism of conceptions

It seems imperative that teachers share beliefs. In this community, all teachers emphasize their belief in the importance of GCE as what moved them to take part in this community (47%). “I've always been very interested in social justice and really believe it is important to educate our youth about these issues”, said one teacher. This shared commitment of teachers reinforces the identification with this community and as a consequence, their motivation and commitment in participation. Hargreaves (1994) confirms these data, however, warns that projects that promote collaboration of teachers have good learning results only when their educational conceptions are compatible. Do teachers aspire to the same kind of education? In this case: do teachers aspire to the same type of GCE? Freire (1996) emphasized that the way to understand the world affects the way in which it can be changed.

Most teachers had some previous experience of ECG and it was assumed that this would ensure shared values and understandings, consensus regarding the fundamental meaning of their collective action. But the data show otherwise. A large percentage of teachers (44.4%) view the ECG as “a form to the rights and responsibilities”, rather than a perspective related to the integration of a global dimension in the educational processes. It is also relevant considering the disparity of responses observed in Graph 1.

2 The specific question of characterization in a small universe known by the investigator would not ensure anonymity. However, once after completing the questionnaire all teachers spontaneously sent an e-mail, confirming their participation in the study, we believe that there was no intention on the part of teachers to hide the answers.
Graph 1 – Teachers' conception regarding the role of GCE

GCE means changes: changes of behavior and of the way we understand the world. Because of that, it is imperative to know closely the beliefs, values and attitudes internalized, learned over the personal and professional history, influencing and sustaining teachers' conceptions of the discussed topics. Just recognizing the organic nature of knowledge - acquiring new meanings through understandings - we can promote a sustainable and meaningful change in these conceptions. If we neglect this dimension, we may end up addressing complex issues only at a superficial level, teachers becoming attached to their initial interpretations, making the achievement of more ambitious goals of this intervention difficult.

There is also the danger of asking too much in a short time, without sufficient attention to the extent of the changes concerned. As one participant noted, "even after a long period of time, one does not know enough about these issues". The complex nature and constant changing means that results need to be update, and that the confidence of teachers to discuss these issues should not be underestimated. As indicated by some studies, more self-confident teachers tend to be more open to new ideas and methods. In the area of citizenship, Salema et al. (2003) found that teachers who know more than the subject are usually the most interested and able to incorporate its principles in the teaching. This result is consistent with the fact that most teachers who promote actions such activities with students (24.3%) and dissemination and sharing of materials and activities with colleagues (24.3%), and the "organization of debates", "material production" or "interconnection the curriculum with GCE" - actions that require greater ownership of content - have small percentages.

Active trust based only on a balance of power

The challenges associated with the strategies established to accomplish a mutual and sustainable partnership are also noteworthy in that they contribute to the construction of autonomy and responsibility as a desirable result of this community. According to the model of Guskey and Huberman (1995), this community can be understood as an open collective cycle because it is a group that comes from different places and schools, sharing a conviction. But instead of this theoretical model, the cycle is not as managed by the group as managed by the NGO technicians. This structural feature is particularly useful because the central position occupied by the technicians tend to be associated with more power and influence.

Despite the democratic dynamics, the process described here is not born from a real need of teachers. This is visible in the flow of information and knowledge not due to a synergistic action of all actors, but to a proactive action by the NGO technicians. It is they who "create" the needs of knowledge and activity. The document analysis also allowed us to verify that the issues of GCE, the organization of work in the group (distribution of tasks) and the issues of education and teaching stand out in the strategy outlined at the expense of factors such as choices, motivations and needs that are less salient (Graph 2).
This situation means that teachers internalize less the proposed objectives and do not feel so responsible for their development, are less concerned with, for example, collecting new information and knowledge and may stifle the sustainability of the community. On the other hand, some teachers in informal conversations spoke about fluctuations in the level of autonomy, due to the leadership style of the NGO worker. When this movement was towards the diminution of autonomy, situations of obvious malaise were evident in the responses, especially in the type of group identification, the characterization of the relationship between members and continuity in the process: “To tell the truth I do not know why (I’m still in the group), but I’m seriously thinking about leaving”, one teacher said.

Writing about education networks, Day and Hadfield (2004: 583) note that “trust is the glue that holds partnerships”. It is necessary skip a “pseudo-collaboration”, where teachers seem to “make decisions that had already been made” (Corrie, 1995: 94) for a truly active collaboration based on active trust. Active trust is not blind faith in other people, but a process of training in negotiation. For Giddens et al. (1994: 127) trust involves a “positive spiral”: “trust in others leads to solidarity and shared responsibility”. These are processes that cannot happen suddenly. They are slow and progressive. On the one hand, it is important for teachers to raise their level of involvement, which requires a commitment and energy sometimes not compatible with the heavy workload in schools. In the case of project analysis, institutional impediments, are added on top of this, and make it not always possible to design the foundations of communities with everybody involved. Nevertheless, all the elements of a community should be transparent - administrative and financial aspects, conceptual as all as practical ones - to allow teachers to have a clear vision of goals and the type of collaboration that is sought.

Dialogue learning

Teachers felt they benefited from the participatory nature of learning done in this community. Most teachers saw the community as a space for sharing experiences (42.8%), followed by “opportunity for professional development” (25%). Participants place a strong emphasis on the collective process also when asked about the characteristics that define the methodology used within: from eleven options given, the teachers chose only “pluralism of opinions” (52.4%) and “collective responsibility” (28.6%). In assessing the meetings described in the documents, expressions such as “learning with colleagues” and “sharing with colleagues” are common and the word “sharing” is always associated with the words “ideas”, “experience” and “learning” as shown in Graph 3. Feeling they had benefited from the sharing of experiences as well one teacher confided: “One of the most interesting things of this participation is that you hear what the most silent person has to say”.

**Graph 2 - Distribution of thematic occurrences in the speech of the documents analyzed**
Graph 3 - Analysis “Tropes” - words related to "sharing"

This community of practice was a place and time in which teachers were able to share concerns, knowledge, experience and methodologies. It is assumed, based on some motivational theories (e.g., Slavin, 1995) that communicative action inherent in these processes results on cognitive and non-cognitive learnings. It is dialogue learning. The dialogic learning is then coming from the contributions of pairs produced in an equal dialogue. The dynamics adopted is to allow the interaction of individual knowledge to become a democratic knowledge. The contribution of others in reflection makes it unique in that it gives the participants the feeling of a group, in each part of the other activity. Each comment becomes a contribution to the dialogue process and all contributions should also be heard and considered. The opinion of the NGO technical is only as valid as the teachers’ opinions and contributions are assessed according to the validity of the arguments. The movement to be formed moves apart from each member. As Nóvoa (cit. by Canário, 2000: 5) says: “Training is a process that cannot be easily controlled. It happens more often when there’s hope that when it is scheduled”. This dynamic gives strength to withstand adversity, providing another way to work, which is not individual. This community of practice has become a community of affection (McLaughlin, 1993), where collaboration creates opportunities for emotional support especially for teachers working in a more isolated way in their schools. This relationship based on solidarity is well expressed in a conversation: “We must support each other”. Only like that can we promote feelings of self-efficacy and reduce feelings of uncertainty in the face of new content and methodologies. But participating as reflective practitioner also requires learning, reflection and discussion as to work in a group means talking and listening, and being exposed. The idea of gain, and not loss, is essential for the teacher who feels that sharing compensates for the loss of some autonomy: moving from an idea of “self” that produces for an idea of “we”.

Climate of relationship create space for cognitive conflict
The climate does not produce visible products, but is the soul of the process. It mitigates the professional isolation of many teachers, bringing the “world news”, becoming a motivating factor as well as professional dimension, contributing to the promotion of learning. In general, the teachers strongly felt as members of the group they belonged in (81.8%). However, the relationship between peers has meant different things to different teachers. For some, it was interpreted as a relationship of “mutual respect” (52.3%) and “trust” (28.6%), for others it was defined as “friendship” (19%), while in two cases it was defined as a relationship of “anxiety” and “tension”.

In a case where the collective work is the result of contributions from individual experience of everyone who come from diverse backgrounds, different stories and a variety of perspectives, disagreements are inevitable. The cognitive conflict may have beneficial effects in collaborative processes. The challenge is to find positive ways to deal with this conflict, rather than deny its existence or artificially underestimate its importance (Lima, 2001). The result of this avoidance may have negative consequences, it may even have led to the “disappearance” of the need to increase the shared understanding on GCE. It is even possible that this course of action may have had negative impacts on the quality of interpersonal relationships within the community. Research in this area has shown that while cognitive conflict increases productivity, affective conflicts affect negatively the community. Isolated actors with little or no relationships are called “outsiders” whose skills, experience and perspectives “are not used effectively” (Cross and Parker, 2004: 79). This was the case of two teachers who did not identify “really” with group members for whom the experience had little influence on their professional development.

When well-managed, cognitive conflict releases tension and opens new avenues for collaboration. De Dreu (1997) distinguished three levels at which the effect of cognitive conflict on performance can be felt: the individual level, the promotion and encouraging of individual creativity and independent thinking; the group level, the quality of the results
of a joint negotiation, on the acceptance and quality of group decision, and the creation of contexts in which the development of thinking is divergent; the organizational level, an increase of personal commitment, enhancing communication. This is less likely to engage in friendship, than with some of the teachers. Friends are more likely to be similar in ideas and behavior, and are less likely to differ from each other. In many cases, the ties of friendship may even be a hindrance, may discourage the acquisition of new information.

Reflect, but with experimentation

This community refused to be reduced to a frenetic activism without depth or capacity and therefore is blind to the understanding and analysis of the processes involved. But this result in a intervention guided by the equation-reflection-sharing collective construction, lacking in action. Teachers were critical about that, saying that the lasted liked was their “intervention in social change” (24.2%) and “intervention in school” (15.1%). It is interesting to note that participation in this community promoted a greater activism in this area, teachers want to work more directly in schools in order to promote GCE.

Reflecting on the practice, questioning it, distinguishing difficulties is important, but not enough. The experience in the classroom is what gives meaning to a reflexive formation. It's like an invisible thread that binds but is consistent with what the teacher thinks and does in the classroom and with what the class does and thinks during the process of dialogic learning. Investigations in the field of educational psychology (Lave and Wenger, 1991) have shown that for most people, learning is not immediately transformed into practice that could be easily transferred to other contexts. This means that learning is essentially located in a specific context.

We also point out that the agreement among participants on the importance of incorporating a global perspective in formal education has difficult implications with regard to the curriculum. This confirms some informal conversations in which teachers emphasized the significance imprecise and subject to multiple interpretations of the concepts used. Teachers need to be “convinced” that they can be successful and only the practice of taking advantage of, mobilize and organize the knowledge in order to apply it in a practical way in real life settings. When they try different approaches to the practice, teachers become more confident and willing to articulate GCE with its educational reality in a coherent and systematic way. When your practice in the classroom differs from the current thought in personal goals, teachers may feel they need to be more informed and updated.

Of course, if these teachers are not central actors in their own schools, the project risks to assume a potential change that may not actually exist. But such was not the case: 11 out of 22 teachers hold the office of “Project Coordinator” at school and nine play roles of director of group that is preferably one who teaches the area “Civics” and who defines the project with colleagues of the curriculum for a class.

4. Conclusion

Identifying the relevant elements for analysis of a community of practice as an opportunity for professional development for teachers, it is worth making a few final notes. Firstly, all training models help to develop a type of thinking and acting, a certain vision of the world and the development of communities of practice is a new understanding of the teaching profession, although atypical in most education systems. The project presented in this article it is an initiative challenging the established conceptions on teacher training - to pave the way for a professional development that is not individual, competitive and bureaucratic, and to counteract the attacks made by recent educational policies one some of the traditional pillars of teachers' professionalism.

Secondly, all components that are basis for analysis and discussion are organic, influencing each other. For example, higher teachers' collaboration gives more opportunities to internalize the goals of the community. In turn, collaboration between teachers and greater involvement of teachers in decision-making processes relate positively. Further, more teachers feel participants in a dialogic learning environment are more encouraged to reflect on their beliefs and values, to find a consensual conception of GCE. The dialogic learning promotes cognitive conflicts and influences, sometimes negatively, commitment and motivation of teachers. Experimentation and action are powerful predictor of teachers' conception in this area.

Thirdly, it was revealed as interesting that the participation of teachers in this community of practice, also gave greater professional motivation, indicating that these processes have the potential to revive the life and the practice of teachers in school. In some way, this participation allowed them to meet the desired professional identity and increased the “possibility of social intervention” (although in practice just a little) at the expense of possible professional identity, which is defined according to the limitations and obstacles of everyday work. The possibility of evolving opportunities for professional development is to a large extent, the capacity for change, rather, through this process of emancipation in
which teachers are no longer a backward step in the process, participating in what is essentially proposed by others, to be a step forward, enhancing the development of their interests.

To convert the aspirations of this model of learning in reality is a challenge, it takes time and effort, it requires significant changes. Moreover, the socio-economic circumstances and political-institutional framework in Portugal determine conditions that are extremely unfavorable to the development of this type of training model. We have no concrete proposals to this problem. We feel, however, the obligation to contribute to knowledge and recognition, and to identify at the outset the need to deepen the scientific knowledge on this subject from other experiences in other areas, with other organizations.

References


Enhancing the Intercultural Dimension of Teaching and Research Through an Interdisciplinary Approach

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Abstract As world becomes more intercultural and emphasis on interdisciplinary approaches increases, the university teachers and researchers need to reflect such changes in their daily work. This paper identifies a need for inclusion of interdisciplinary teaching and research in the Albanian higher education curricula and research. In order to demonstrate not only the importance of such enterprise, but also the advantages that such an approach offers, we focus on two disciplines: anthropology and fiction. Observation, description and creative writing are elements that we encounter in both disciplines. In this paper, we examine how each of these components presents itself in each of the targeted disciplines from the ancient world until today, identifying the stylized writing as an important intersection of anthropology and fiction. It is precisely this intersection placed in specific social, cultural and historic contexts, we argue, that helps students better understand and enjoy either literary or anthropological work. Thus, we identify and scrutinize passages from the Maghrebian and Albanian works that could be used in the classroom to demonstrate how cultural anthropological aspects are intertwined.

Key words: Ethnology, fiction, interdisciplinary education, intercultural dimension, etc

L’interculturalité à travers l’éducation interdisciplinaire

« Le fait d’opérer un croisement entre littérature et ethnologie, ne conduit pas seulement à s’interroger sur la scientifcité de nos pratiques intellectuelles, il permet aussi de nouer des combinaisons utiles, d’esquisser de nouvelles problématiques, d’en repérer les lieux et d’ouvrir des pistes de recherches »
Gérard TOFFIN

Dans le cadre de l’amélioration et de l’harmonisation des nouveaux curricula dans notre nouveau système universitaire avec ceux européens, l’équipe académique de la Faculté des Langues Étrangères, de l’Université de Tirana, en Albanie, tente d’expérimenter sur l’interdisciplinarité, qui est l’un des priorités de l’enseignement universitaire aujourd’hui. Notre cas d’étude sera la littérature et l’anthropologie, deux disciplines qui nous paraissent riches et chargés d’histoire culturelle. Cette communication essayera de rendre conscients les étudiants sur une ouverture possible des frontières et de leur offrir la possibilité d’un dialogue entre les deux disciplines mentionnées ci-haut à travers un survol modeste de croisement des disciplines dès leurs origines jusqu’à nos jours, à travers la présentation de leurs ressemblances et leurs différences, le rôle de la description et du processus de l’écriture dans chaque discipline. La communication a pour objectif de ressusciter interrogations et dialogues entre les deux disciplines ayant chacune ses propres spécificités et méthodes de travail, en stimulant des échanges, des croisements, ainsi que l’enseignement interculturel à travers des fragments de textes, triés par l’équipe académique universitaire.

Dans son livre La description ethnographique François Laplantine souligne que, la spécificité de l’anthropologie n’est liée ni à la nature des sociétés étudiées (sociétés traditionnelles que l’on pourrait opposer aux sociétés modernes), ni à des objets particuliers (la religion, l’économie, la politique, la ville...), ni aux théories utilisées (marxisme, structuralisme, fonctionnalisme…..) mais à un projet : l’étude de l’homme entier, c’est-à-dire dans toutes les sociétés, sous toutes les latitudes, dans tous ses états et à toutes les époques » (Laplantine. F, 2002, p 7)

Ainsi, lorsque l’anthropologie accentue le relativisme culturel des sociétés, exprime les différences et analyse les diverses formes des activités sociales et culturelles, y compris les singularités humaines, la littérature, de son côté,
parle-t-elle aussi de l’homme en général ou en particulier, même si le mot qui revient sans cesse le caractérise, « c’est le pittoresque, soit la corruption de la réalité par un souci de séduction » (Dehaene V, 2010, p 114).

Il faut faire comprendre aux étudiants que les écrivains sont des ethnographes pour la simple raison qu’ils écrivent des histoires sur les hommes et leurs sentiments, sur des lieux, des événements ou des contextes en question. L’ethnographe participe en direct dans la vie quotidienne d’une communauté en observant, interviewant et accumulant des données qui sous-entendent les sujets observés. Dans la littérature l’écrivain vit une partie de ses personnages et ouvre une perspective où à son tour le lecteur en profite pour connaître les données socioculturelles des communautés particulières. Comme les anthropologues, même les romanciers sont curieux du quotidien. Les romanciers peuvent découvrir des suppositions culturelles en regardant eux-mêmes, ainsi que les autres. Ils sont intéressés aux connaissances culturelles indispensables pour l’anthropologue, parce qu’ils vivent totalement dans la culture, qui sert de source pour leurs écritures. Ils partagent ensemble la langue, l’histoire, les valeurs, etc. De l’autre côté les anthropologues doivent reconstruire la compréhension des normes et des valeurs par les données extérieures, l’observation des attitudes ordinaires et l’action dans une culture étrangère.

On voit qu’il existe un terrain commun entre les deux disciplines en question : L’ethnographie est ainsi bordée par la littérature, sans qu’on puisse tracer entre l’une et l’autre une vraie frontière. L’anthropologie fouillant dans les textes littéraires, s’illumine sur l’esprit, les comportements de l’homme. Elle voit ce que les œuvres font apparaître comme questions sur l’homme, et s’intéresse aussi à des questions trouvées dans la littérature, comme la question de l’Autre, les traditions, les coutumes, le contact humain etc. En effet, « il ne s’agit pas seulement de deux domaines contigus : les deux disciplines sont organiquement solidaires », (Van Delft, L, 1993, p 2). Parce que chacune d’elles, est pour l’une l’autre, source d’information et parfois modèle, vu le fait qu’elles ne manquent pas de s’observer, de s’emprunter des informations ou d’échanger des procédures. En effet, la littérature est le lieu d’une communication qui nous implique tous, le territoire des échanges entre les hommes. Là se rencontrent les personnes idéales, les situations types, les émotions, les talents et les sentiments qui constituent notre perception des êtres et de nous-mêmes, ainsi que l’interprétation des comportements.


Bref, l’essentiel pour lui, c’est ce qu’il appelait « l’arrière boutique » (Montaigne, 1965, p 32), « c’est-à-dire par delà les vaines apparences et les agitations « tumultuaires », le moi profond » (Lagarde & Michard, 1985, p 194). Dès son premier essai, il constate la complexité fuyante, le caractère insaisissable de l’humain, son évanescence qui est en même temps la signature de son authenticité : « Certes, c’est un sujet merveilleusement vain, divers et ondoyant que l’homme ». (Montaigne, 1965, p 55). Étant donné que les Essais accordent bien à un moi polymorphe, métamorphe, changeant, la seule forme dans laquelle Montaigne se reconnaît est celle de son livre « Je n’ai pas plus fait mon livre, que mon livre m’a fait, livre consubstantiel à son auteur » (Montaigne, 1965, p 426).


Pendant tout le XIX e siècle, la littérature entretient les meilleurs rapports avec l’histoire. Un grand nombre d’écrivains, veulent expérimenter avec le roman en le voyant non plus comme un plaisir ou amusement, mais une observation de la réalité. On peut se rappeler des personnalités de Balzac ou de Zola comme révélateurs de l’état existant de la société, de la multiplication des travaux de socio-critique, etc. Ces écrivains réalisistes et naturalistes du
XIXe siècle voient dans le réalisme la représentation minutieuse et fidèle de la société et vont pour une écriture de l'observation en enregistrant les faits et les détails.

Il serait très intéressant de présenter aux étudiants cette frontière entre littérature et l'anthropologie qui est parfois très petite, vu l'inversion des rôles d'un anthropologue qui écrit des récits et un écrivain qui fait un travail anthropologique. Zola, Flaubert et autres sont des observateurs de la société dans laquelle ils vivent et cela se voit dans leurs œuvres, qui présentent une tendance ethnologique, en esquissant le portrait d'une communauté. En effet, un auteur littéraire qui aime utiliser l'anthropologie a deux possibilités : soit d'atteindre l'abstraction, soit de se retrouver devant une anthropologie de terrain. Zola par exemple a adopté des méthodes scientifiques d'enquête pour ses Carnets qui sont une mine d'information sur la vie du XIXe siècle et qui ont servi à l'écriture de Rougon Macquart.

Il est arrivé aussi que, certains ethnologues aient souvent voulu créer en s'inspirant et s'influence de leurs collectes, c'est le cas des frères Grimm, Claude Seignolle avec Diable en sabots, de Claude Lévi-Strauss avec Tristes Tropiques, de Leiris avec Afrique Fantôme, où on remarque la profession d'un ethnologue, ainsi que celui du littéraire. Ces deux derniers œuvres parlent d'un statut ambigu, et sont réellement entre les deux disciplines, parce qu'ils sont à la fois un travail scientifique et une création littéraire, et qui nous font rappeler la citation de Rolland Barthes qui considère que : « De tous les discours savants, c'est l'ethnologue qui apparaît le plus proche d'une fiction. (L'Homme nr 111-112, Juillet-décembre 1989, p 34-49)

Entre le texte ethnographique et le discours romanesque, il existe des rapprochements particuliers et complexes. L'intérêt du roman pour le détail nous rappelle le processus de l'anthropologue qui pratique une observation patiente et minutieuse à la fois. Une narration ou récit a toujours besoin d'avoir en arrière plan une description minimale du monde dans lequel se passe l'action et se construit l'intrigue. Analyssant la fonction et les nuances du phénomène de la description, on arrive à faire l'opposition de cette littérature qui utilise le langage le plus soluble, c'est que qu'au sujet une personne peut éprouver en tant que sujet, l'anthropologie, elle, vise l'homme lui-même, la précision et désignation tout en évitant la voix personnelle et analyse ce qu'une personne peut éprouver en tant que partie prenante d'une communauté. La différence nous est bien démontrée par F. Laplantine quand il compare Griaule avec Dieu d'eau et Leiris avec Afrique Fantôme : « Les deux auteurs sont les deux sur le terrain, font les mêmes observations, mais Griaule concentre son regard et son écoute sur les Dogons, alors qu'il s'efface lui-même, laissant la parole au sage Ogotemmeli, et Leiris, lui s'interroge sur son rapport personnel à l'occident colonisateur et quitte progressivement le champ de l'ethnologie pour celui de la littérature » (Laplantine F. 2002, p 48). Le fait que la littérature privilégie la fonction poétique du langage ou autrement dit l'accent mis sur le message pour son propre compte, cela ne signifie pas qu'une description littéraire ne s'intéresse pas à la réalité, mais bien plutôt « à une exploration latérale et non pas littérale » (Laplantine F. 2002, p 53).

Il est bien évident qu'un littéraire ne s'arrête et ne s'occupe pas seulement de l'observation, de la description, de l'imagination, mais à l'aide des analyses et interprétations, il essaye de tirer des conclusions, d'expliquer le comportement des gens. Ainsi, le détail devient significatif et par conséquent la littérature peut faire preuve d'un terrain recherché par l'ethnologue. L'exemple par excellence est l'œuvre de Balzac qui pour comprendre et analyser une personne, il finit par décrire minutieusement son ambiance. En effet, les descriptions des auteurs comme Zola, Balzac et plus tard ceux du Nouveau Roman sont très proches de quelques chemins anthropologiques. Même, dans les littératures d'aujourd'hui, on croise de plus en plus des plans, des photos, des schémas, des dessins, non plus pour illustrer, mais à titre de documentation. Dans la Maison des Écrivains, la rencontre entre trois auteurs contemporains : Jean-Loup Trassard, Gérard Macé et Philippe le Gaillou témoigne bien des apparentements divers de l’anthropologie avec la littérature : « Trassard par son insertion profonde dans le terroir mayennais, dont il scrute passionnément les objets, les paysages et les mots pour en faire la substance d’une œuvre exigeante ; G. Macé par l’étendue d’une culture et une curiosité critique qui le conduisent à parler de Griaule ou de la Chine avec autant de bonheur que de Nerval; Philippe le Gaillou par une imagination au long cours qui ne cesse de naviguer entre le monde moderne et la celtitude ancestrale » (Eurasie, 2005, p 17).

La culture aussi peut être vue par l’ethnologue comme un ensemble de textes à interpréter. Yves Vadé nous rappelle les échos sous la plume de Jean Paul Colley dans le numéro 680-681 de Critique en janvier-février, 2004 : « Les sciences humaines demeurent en partie solides des Lettres, car une problématique commune liée à l’écriture unit tous les parcours du social, qu’ils soient écrivains, philosophes, historiens, sociologues ou anthropologues….. » (Eurasie, 2005, p 12-13). Un exemple particulièrement visible d’un anthropologue qui a un intérêt pour l’écriture du texte ethnographique et pour l’ethnographie comme texte est Clifford Geertz qui aime utiliser les figures de style et spécialement la métaphore de la « culture comme texte » et qui a montré qu’il est possible d’être à la fois savant et écrivain.

Dans notre travail d’enseignant, cette brève présentation théorique sur l’intérêt de l’interdisciplinarité constituerait un appui et une base théorique pour nos étudiants lors de l’analyse d’un texte littéraire, afin de comprendre les techniques de la recherche, de l’analyse et de l’interprétation des éléments culturels perspicaces, qui peuvent nous venir en aide dans le traitement de l’interculturalité. Vivant dans un monde de globalisation et des échanges permanents entre diverses communautés, il serait recommandable de se rendre conscients des pièges des stéréotypes, des clichés, afin de créer un climat d’empathie de neutralité, de respect et de bonne entente avec l’Autre.

Dans ce contexte, on inviterait nos collègues d’utiliser des extraits de textes qui traitent des phénomènes typiques anthropologiques comme le relativisme culturel, la diversité culturelle, le métissage ou les aspects interculturels tant recherchés par nos enseignants. Ainsi pour atteindre le mieux possible l’interculturel, il faut s’intéresser et procéder aussi par une approche anthropologique du texte littéraire. Le texte littéraire est un des modes d’accès à la compréhension du monde. Étant un des moyens d’investigation, une écriture du monde, le texte littéraire peut être vu comme un témoignage de la vie quotidienne, comme un document analysant divers problèmes et dans une perspective interculturelle. Certes, miroir déformant par l’imagination, il est un des instruments pour coder et décoder le monde. La littérature permet ainsi de connaître des archétypes, des traditions, l’expérience de l’altérité et de l’étrangeté. Le texte littéraire peut faire l’objet d’un outil d’apprentissage, parce qu’il se révèle riche en représentations et histoires. « Ce lieu émblématique de l’interculturel » (Porcher L & Abdallah Preteceille, 1996, p 162) suppose le démantèlement des frontières ou l’ouverture vers une perspective internationale. La lecture anthropologique que nous conseillons, permet à l’enseignant non seulement d’assurer aux étudiants une compréhension aussi complète du texte littéraire, mais aussi une compréhension de la complexité d’un fait culturel, en découvrant ses traits distincts et en construisant peu à peu un savoir sur ce phénomène culturel. Une telle démarche amène l’étudiant à distinguer sa propre culture par rapport au système culturel découvert.

Dans nos pratiques quotidiennes de l’enseignement, il serait très intéressant, d’étudier des extraits de la littérature maghrébine d’expression française, plus précisément les œuvres d’Assia Djebar où règnent des pensées, des réflexions ou des sentiments nés du contact du monde oriental et européen. La femme, est le mot clé de ses romans. Dans son roman Ombre sultane, l’auteur tente une stratégie pour sauver les personnes opprimées et leur offrir la possibilité de recréation dans le contexte de réorganisation des relations intersexuelles. L’essentiel réside dans la mise en exergue des causes politiques, sociales, historiques, psychologiques et de l’oppression féminine, qui sont toutes liées avec la question du désir et de la sexualité. Ainsi, le roman fait une radiographie de l’imaginaire social et de la psychologie, en libérant la force originelle féminine, son désir sexual et en l’invitant ainsi à avoir voix dans le chapitre.

En faisant une analyse sur la culture arabe, sur l’identité et l’éducation des enfants, là où (comme dit Nessima dans le roman Alouettes naïves) on a tout mélangé : la morale, l’islam, les critères politiques, les convenances bourgeoises, le fond culturel, social et religieux aiderait l’étudiant à comprendre bien la culture en question et à ne pas tomber dans le piège des préjugées.

Le thème de la découverte du corps (tabou, dans le monde arabe) se fait d’une manière très charnelle et très sensuelle. On peut transmettre aux étudiants les sensations ressenties par Dalilia, la jeune étudiante du roman Les impatients :

« Transpercée du froid de la terre, je me suis abandonnée à la somnolence, les yeux demi-fermés. (…) Bientôt le soleil sauta au-dessus de ma tête. Les yeux fermés, élébouie, j’enlevai le boléro de ma robe qui volait mes épaules. Le soleil tapa sur ma peau avec délice, je le lassai me mordre. Pour la première fois de ma vie, je dormais seule, ainsi en pleine nature. J’allaïs penser que c’était imprudent. Pendant 18 ans on m’avait empêché d’aider le soleil rouge, le ciel plein et rouge comme une coupe fraîche…… (…) Comment expliquer la brûlure du soleil sur ma peau nue, la première fois ? » (Déjeux J, 1970, p 223)

Le récit Les yeux baissés de l’auteur Tahar Ben Jelloun est un exemple très enrichissant concernant nos exigences sur l’interculturalité. La question réside sur le devenir d’une génération condamnée, celle dite de « Beur », marginalisée...
par la société française. L’écrivain essaye de faire le psychologue en étudiant les phases de la vie de la narratrice, qui à dix ans, l’âge où elle a touché pour la première fois la terre française, et quand elle a été surprise et émue par la splendeur de Paris. À trente ans, lorsqu'elle atteint la maturité, Paris lui offre l’autre côté de la médaille. Elle découvre la voiture, la pluie de la ville, les livres, la langue française, l’enthousiasme, la générosité, mais aussi l’humiliation, le racisme, l’intolérance et. Cette première partie de sa vie plie de nouveautés ou cette "deuxième naissance", parle aussi d’un déracinement, qui emmènera la fille dans la confusion d’un nouveau terrain, neutre qui n’est ni son pays natal ni le pays d’adoption. On peut ainsi, faire plonger les étudiants dans la dimension interculturelle à travers des thèmes tels que : le déracinement, l’exil, le contact et le déchirement entre les deux cultures, la question des femmes aux « yeux baissés », le phénomène de déculturation ou de l’acculturation etc.

Pour mieux comprendre et utiliser le phénomène de l’interculturel dans les descriptifs de nos curricula, on peut inviter les étudiants, (vu qu’ils connaissent bien les auteurs albaniens) à la lecture des œuvres d’Ismail Kadaré traduit et publiés en France. Ce dernier c’est un auteur qui aime travailler et fouiller dans l’arsenal culturel, mythologique, voire ethnologique et traditionnel albaniens. On peut faire référence à son œuvre fameux L’Avril Brisé, où l’auteur à travers son personnage clé Gjorg, essaye de faire comprendre le cercle vicieux de la vendetta du Nord de l’Albanie. Un extrait type qui dévoile aux yeux des étudiants les lois de Kanun (le fameux Coutumier ou Code de Lekë Dukagjin), qui régissaient la vie des habitants du Nord, serait le moment après la reprise du sang où le meurtrier (le gjaks) est obligé par Kanun de se venger et de porter respect à la famille et victime à la fois.

« Le gjaks (le meurtrier), bien que jeune s’était comporté dignement au cours de l’enterrement de son ennemie comme durant le repas mortuaire. A coup sur, les Kryeqyqe lui accorderait la trêve de trente jours…… (….). Le village, tout comme il accordait ce type de trêve, pouvait la rendre si le gjak, profitant de la faveur temporaire qui lui était faite, se mettait en tête de courir le pays en se vantant de son geste. » (Kadaré I., 1996, p 159)

Le côté paradoxal du Kanun nous est présenté aussi dans les rites de mariage respectés dans tout le territoire albaniens.

« On ne barre pas la route aux krouchks (les proches de la mariée ou mari), même s’il y a un mort à la maison». … « En cas de mort dans la famille, les krouchks n’en vont pas moins chercher la mariée. La mariée entre d’un côté, le mort sort de l’autre. D’un côté on pleure, de l’autre on chante » (Kadaré I., 1996, p 168).

Dans son roman Kadaré évoque aussi la fameuse « cartouche bénie » que, selon le Coutumier, la famille de la mariée remettait à l’époux, afin qu’il emploie contre sa femme si elle venait à le tromper, en lui disant même : « Bénie soit ta main ! » (Kadaré I., 1996, p 216).

L’auteur ne se limite pas à l’énumération des rites albaniens comme éléments secondaires de son œuvre littéraire, mais il vise la mise en évidence d’un tableau ethnologique complet du fonctionnement des communautés en question. A la différence de beaucoup de peuples qui ont réservé les montagnes aux divinités, les montagnards albaniens, du fait qu’ils y vivaient eux-mêmes, se sont vus contraints de les adapter de façon à pouvoir cohabiter avec elles. C’est ainsi que l’explique la création de semi-divinités, comme « l’Hôte ».

« Dès lors que, le voyageur le plus humble (….), frappe à ta porte et s’en remet à toi comme ton hôte, il se mue à l’instant même en personnage hors du commun, en souverain inviolable, législateur et flambeau du monde. (…..). De quelques coups frappés à une porte peut dépendre la survie ou l’extension de génération entière. (…..) C’est pour cela, qu’une atteinte à l’hôte liée par la Bessa est pour l’Albanais le plus grand des malheurs, une sorte de fin du monde » (Kadaré I., 1996)

En conclusion, on pourrait affirmer que dans le cadre de la recommandation de l’interdisciplinarité dans notre nouveau système universitaire, on pourrait bien inviter l’équipe académique de la Faculté des Langues étrangères de l’Université de Tirana, d’étudier deux disciplines comme celle de l’anthropologie et de la littérature qui nous parviennent denses et riches en informations culturelles, qui semblent être très proches et source d’information ou modèle pour l’une l’autre. Elles n’arrêtent pas de s’observer, de se croiser, ou d’échanger des procédures, même si leurs objectifs ou méthodes de travail en sont différentes. Les enseignants peuvent travailler sur l’aspect interculturel (à travers des fragments de textes suggérés plus haut) et insister à expliquer que la lecture d’un texte comme artefact culturel est une manière de participer aux recherches sociales. L’étudiant ne doit pas se souffrir de l’identification des thèmes ou des idées directrices, et de voir les textes comportant des thèmes sociaux, politiques et historiques comme des artefacts isolés, mais en revanche, il doit les considérer comme partie d’un entier système culturel. En somme, ce grand désir de déterminer la littérature comme un artefact culturel ou discussion sociale, continue d’animer le débat sur les mérites de l’interdisciplinarité dans notre système universitaire.
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Determining the Preferred Learning Styles Modes of the Prospective Preschool Teachers through LSS in Turkish Context

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Abstract: In recent years, it has been postulated that every individual has a different learning style by Educational researchers. It is important for instructors to know their learners’ preferred learning styles as it will help them to plan their lessons to match or adapt their teaching and to provide the most appropriate activities to suit the learners from different learning styles. The purpose of this descriptive study was to determine the preferred learning styles of the prospective preschool teachers using Learning Styles (LSQ) questionnaire. This study was conducted at A.K. Faculty of Education and Vocational High School of Health Services of Selcuk University. LSQ was administered to 263 (144 from faculty of education and 119 from Vocational High School of Health Services) prospective preschool teachers to determine and compare their preferred mode of learning. Learning Style (LSQ) Questionnaire displays that students were divided into four plus multimodal groups including analyst, philosopher, organizer, reflector and multimodal learners. The Unimodality preference was 74.6% and multimodality was 25.4%. Among 263 participants, 33.4% were analyst, 19.0% were philosopher, 15.5% were organizer, 6.4% reflector and 25.4% were multimodal learners in general. Some arithmetic and statistical difference were determined between the learners attending different schools in question. If the instructors in the University know how their prospective preschool teachers internalize and process the knowledge and information they will develop and adapt appropriate teaching and learning approaches to make the teacher training education more productive.

Keywords: Learning styles, preschool teachers, multimodal, unimodal, Turkish context, analyzer, philosopher, reflector

Introduction

Nowadays, educational researchers have studied on how an individual learn and internalize the knowledge in a productive way. To attain their aim, they have focused on individualized learning and learning styles of individuals in education. Despite the amount of related research regarding learning styles, teaching styles, and personality styles of the teachers in general, preservice pre-school education professionals may be unable to fully utilize the results because preservice preschool education teachers were not included in the sample of the previous research much. In this way, most of the educationalists believe that every individual is special and has a special way of learning moods. They may either prefer only one dimension of the same learning styles as unimodal learners or more than one dimension of the same learning styles as multimodal learners. A teacher could meet students having different mode of learning as the number of the students in the same classroom. At this point, academicians, educationalists and teachers should take this situation into consideration while making plan, designing syllabus, preparing curriculum, and proposing educational policies.

Literature Review

It is clear that people learn differently at different paces due to their biological and psychological differences (Reiff 1992). In addition to this, Keefe & Monk, (1986) defines learning styles as the predominant and preferred manner in which individuals retain take-in, process, and recall information. These differences in learning naturally abound in any settings where students come from different cultural and educational backgrounds. Clearly, learning styles include not only the cognitive domain, but also the affective and physiological domains (Oxford, Hollaway, Horton-Murillo 1992). Literature abounds learning styles of the learners. Chapelle (1995) talked about field-independence (FI)/ field dependence (FD) and how people perceive and memorize information in these fields. Dunn and Dunn (1972) developed an instrument to measure learning styles that included elements related to environment, emotion, and sociology. According to Williams (1983) learners who prefer left-hemisphere approaches to processing information excel at analytical tasks and master abstract, factual, and impersonal material easily, while students who are right-hemisphere learners like to work collaboratively to achieve a common goal. Gorham (1986) identified three broad categories of ‘learning style’: (a) ‘instructional preferences’: learners ‘comfort and fit’ with particular instructional methods such as independent study,
lecture, ‘games’, discussion, etc. (Renzulli & Smith, 1978), including those preferences measured by inventories such as the Grasha-Reichmann Learning Styles Questionnaire (Reichmann & Grasha, 1974); (b) ‘information processing style’ such as Kolb’s (1984) model of the experiential learning cycle and the associated learning styles (converger, diverger, accommodator, assimilator) or the related learning styles suggested by Honey and Mumford (1992) (activist style, reflector style, theorist style and pragmatist style); (c) ‘cognitive personality elements’ such as field dependence and independence (Witkin et al., 1977). One may add to this the intuitive-analytical dimension (Allinson & Hayes, 1996) and the hemisphericity, and (c) impulsive versus reflective behaviors (Thies, 1979, 1999-2000). Rahal (2010) and Zhang (2008) further added that learning style based education is a roadmap to promote students’ learning, but, it is not for everyone or all the time, and it is not a free ticket to success. Additionally, researchers have also reported that identification of student learning style can be used to support and guide learning (Pennell, 1985; Pheiffer at all., 2005). Therefore, the use of different learning styles should be taken into account while teaching in the classroom (Saemah at all. 2011). It is suggested by Raven (1992) that teachers who are aware of their learning style as well as the styles of their students, are better able to make sure that any differences between their learning styles will not impede learning.

**Kolb Learning Styles**

Kolb (1984) put forward that learning is the process whereby knowledge is created through the transformation of experience and knowledge results from the combination of grasping experience and transforming it. Kolb also states that learning involves the acquisition of abstract concepts that can be applied flexibly in a range of situations. In Kolb’s theory, the impetus for the development of new concepts is provided by new experiences (McLeod, 2010). David Kolb (1981, 1984) statistically proposed that four combinations of perceiving and processing determine four learning styles that make up a learning cycle. According to Kolb (1981, 1984) the learning cycle involves four processes that must be present for learning to occur: **Diversers** (concrete, reflective) emphasize the innovative and imaginative approach to doing things and view concrete situations from many perspectives and adapt by observation rather than by action. They are interested in people and tend to be feeling-oriented and like such activities as cooperative groups and brainstorming. **Assimilators** (abstract, reflective) pull a number of different observations and thoughts into an integrated whole and they like to reason inductively and create models and theories and to design projects and experiments. **Convergers** (abstract, active) emphasize the practical application of ideas and solving problems and like decision-making, problem-solving, and the practicable application of ideas. They prefer technical problems over interpersonal issues. **Accommodators** (concrete, active) use trial and error rather than thought and reflection. They are good at adapting to changing circumstances; solving problems in an intuitive, trial-and-error manner, such as discovery learning. Also they tend to be at ease with people.

Having been inspired by Kolb Honey and Mumford directly derived the model called Learning Styles Questionnaire (LSQ). Honey and Mumford (2000) gave the people a questionnaire that probes general behavioral tendencies rather than asking people directly how they learn, as Kolb’s LSI does. They substitute the terms "reflector" for diversers (reflective observation), "theorist" for assimilators (abstract conceptualization), "pragmatist" for convergers (concrete experience), and "activist" for accommodators (active experimentation). In addition, the new labels have slightly different meanings (Coffield at all, 2004). It is also postulated that people prefer different methods of learning, depending upon the situation and their experience level, thus they move between the four modes of learning, rather than being dominantly locked into one mode. Reflector prefers to learn from activities that allow them to watch, think, and review. Theorist prefers to think problems through in a step-by-step manner. Pragmatist prefers to apply new learning to actual practice to see if they work. Activist prefers the challenges of new experiences, involvement with others, assimilations and role-playing (Honey & Mumford, 2000).
Aim of the research

The purpose of this descriptive study was to determine the preferred learning styles of the Turkish prospective preschool teachers by using Learning Styles Survey (LSS) regarding their school types.

Method

This survey was designed as a learning tool for learners in training programs such as learning-to-learn (meta-learning) besides leadership development. To achieve this goal, we designed a descriptive study, a study that attempted to reveal patterns associated with a specific group without an emphasis on pre-specified hypotheses. The rational for this descriptive study was to help us design a teaching approach that addressed various domains of all the preservice preschool teachers (Lujan & DiCarlo, 2005).

Sample

The population for this descriptive study was preservice teachers majoring in teacher education at Faculty of Education and Vocational High School of Health Services of Selçuk University. The sample was 263 (144 from faculty of education and 119 from Vocational School of Health Services) preservice teachers enrolled in a methods of teaching preschool courses during 2011.

Instrument

Learning Style Survey (LSS) is based on Honey and Mumford's model (Honey & Mumford, 2000), and Kolb's model (1981, 1984), which has been a source of inspiration for many researchers developing different learning styles (Dede, 2009). This survey is designed to help the learners gain an understanding of their learning styles so that they can incorporate the various learning styles in their daily learning activities. It is a tool for learning-to-learn (metacognition) in order to increase self-awareness about their strengths and weaknesses as learners so that they will try the various means of learning, rather than sticking with their preferred methods (http://www.nwlink.com).

Learning Style Survey (LSS) is two-dimensional, which indicates the two basic components of the learning process. The first of them is the perception of knowledge; the second is the processing of knowledge. At this point, individuals perceive knowledge by feeling or thinking and process it by watching or doing. While knowledge perception presents clues as to how we think, knowledge processing attempts to explain how we do it (Dede, 2009). Learning Style Survey (LSS) displays that learning styles of the learners can be categorized under four learning types, which is the mixture of Kolb's (1981, 1984) and Honey & Mamfurd (2000) models:

- **Reflector** prefers to learn from activities that allow watching, feeling, and to review what has happened, such as brainstorming and cooperative groups, and to view situations from many perspectives. Additionally, they like innovative and imaginative approaches to doing things and tend to be feeling-oriented.

- **Philosopher** prefers to learn from activities that allow watching and thinking and to pull a number of different observations and thoughts into an integrated whole in a step-by-step manner and to reason logically and design models, theories, and projects. They also like lectures, analogies, systems, and case studies, but, talking with experts is normally not helpful.

- **Analyzer** prefers to learn from activities that allow doing and thinking and prefers the practical application of ideas, solving problems, feedback, and decision-making, technical problems over interpersonal issues, new learnings to actual practice to see if they work. In addition to these, they like laboratories, field work, observations, and coaching.

- **Organizer** prefers to learn from activities that allow doing and feeling, and the challenges of new experiences, involvement with others, assimilation, and role-playing. Additionally, they tend to be at ease with people, like anything new, problem solving, and small group discussions, furthermore, they are good at adapting to changing circumstances and solves problems in an intuitive, trial-and-error manner, such as discovery learning (http://www.nwlink.com).
The translated version of the Learning Style Survey (LSS), which is derived from Honey and Mumford's model (Honey & Mumford, 2000), and Kolb’s model (1981, 1984), was conducted to the participants in question above to determine their preferred modes of information processing. They were required to mark the best choice(s) of the survey, which fit(s) them best. Data handled were analyzed by using SPSS version 14.0. The following are internet links to the LSS homepage http://www.nwlink.com/~Donclark/hrd/styles/learn_style_survey.html

Data Collection

The translated version of the Learning Style Survey (LSS), which is derived from Honey and Mumford's model (Honey & Mumford, 2000), and Kolb’s model (1981, 1984), was conducted to the participants in question above to determine their preferred modes of information processing. They were required to mark the best choice(s) of the survey, which fit(s) them best. Data handled were analyzed by using SPSS version 14.0. The following are internet links to the LSS homepage http://www.nwlink.com/~Donclark/hrd/styles/learn_style_survey.html

Results and Discussion

Figure 1 shows the distribution preferred learning styles of the faculty participants. Of the study group, 41 % of the students preferred a multimodal learning style while 69 % of the students preferred a unimodal mode of learning style. In multimodal mode of learning styles the participants generally prefer any two combinations of out of four learning style modes including analyzer, philosopher, organizer, and reflector. Of the students who preferred unimodal information processing, 27% (39 students) of the participants were analyzer, 11% (16 students) of the students were philosopher, 13% (19 students) of the students were organizer, and 8.0% (11 students) of the students were reflector.
Figure 2 displays the distribution of preferred learning styles of the Vocational School of Health Services (VSHS) participants. Of the study group, 7.0% (8 students) of the participants preferred a multimodal learning style while 93% (111 students) of the participants preferred a unimodal mode of learning style. In multimodal mode of learning styles the participants generally prefer any two or three combinations of out of four learning style modes including analyzer, philosopher, organizer, and reflector. Of the students who preferred unimodal information processing, 41% (49 students) of the participants were analyzer, 29% (34 students) of the participants were philosopher, 18% (22 students) of the participants were organizer, and 5.0% (6 students) of the participants were reflector.

Figure 3 shows the comparison of the learning style modes the faculty and V.S.H.S. participants preferred.

Table 1. Chi-square test of the learning styles of the faculty and V.S.H.S. participants

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>School</th>
<th>Analyzer</th>
<th>Philosopher</th>
<th>Organizer</th>
<th>Reflector</th>
<th>Multimodal</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Faculty</td>
<td>N 39</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>59</td>
<td>144</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>% 27.1</td>
<td>11.1</td>
<td>13.2</td>
<td>7.6</td>
<td>41.0</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>V.S.H.S.</td>
<td>N 49</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>119</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>% 41.2</td>
<td>28.6</td>
<td>18.5</td>
<td>5.0</td>
<td>6.7</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>N 88</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>41</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>67</td>
<td>263</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>% 33.5</td>
<td>19.0</td>
<td>15.6</td>
<td>6.5</td>
<td>25.5</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

$X^2 = 46.17$  \hspace{1cm} df=4  \hspace{1cm} p= .01
The Chi-Square test results displayed the results whether there is a difference or relation between the schools the participants are attending. When the table 1. is examined, the proportion of the V.S.H.S. participants who preferred “Analyzer” mode of learning style is up to % 41.2 while it is % 27.1 for the faculty participants. It is heightened to % 28.6 for the V.S.H.S. participants while the proportion of the faculty participants who preferred “Phylosopher” mode of learning style is % 11.1. As for the “Multimodal” mode of learning styles of the participants, the proportion of the V.S.H.S. participants who preferred “Multimodal” mode of learning style is % 6.7 while it is heightened to % 41.0 for the faculty participants.

The fact that the faculty participants prefer “Multimodal” mode of learning style on the proportion of % 41.0 and the V.S.H.S. participants prefer “Analyzer” mode of learning style on the proportion of % 41.2 show that the difference between the participants attending different schools is significant \(X^2= 46.17 \text{ df}=4 \text{ p}<.05\). In other words, there is a significant relation regarding their views and the different schools the participants attending.

Conclusion

The research on preservice preschool teachers’ preferred learning styles is important to help maximize the quality of their instruction. It is clear that academicians who better understand the preferred learning styles of their students can tailor the course information to the styles that are most effective for their students. Regardless of the specific teaching style(s) that academicians choose to use when teaching, however, teachers-to be that understand their own learning style preferences can organize course information into the style that is most suited. Based on this, the results of this study indicate that the faculty and Vocational School of Health Service participants chose different mode of learning styles and inevitably that those with different learning style preferences could perform differently at schools.

Although the participants were not given any question to self-assess their preferred multimodal learning style and there were no choices corresponding to a multimodal preference. % 25.4 participants put forward that they preferred fifth dimensions of learning style, which is multimodal learning style. The results of this investigation contribute to the growing body of evidence showing that their learning style preferences may give birth to another learning style mode of learning, which is multimodal one. While % 75 of the participants preferred a specific mode of learning strategy, % 25 of them preferred at least double, triple or quadruple mode of learning strategy. In other words, both faculty and V.S.H.S. participants would prefer eclectic mode of learning strategies, which is the mixture of two, three or more learning strategies besides the unimodal learning styles including analyzer, philosopher, reflector and organizer. As to those students in this study that would have indicated a multimodal preference if they had had the choice, it is likely to think that at least some of those students had a dominant learning style preference and if they had available to adequately choose double, triple or quadruple preferences.

Future studies in this area should use a different, and preferably a statistically validated, method for assessing learning style preferences and should include whether their mode of learning styles impact on their success or not. With regard to future research, several questions regarding learning styles emerged from this study. For example, do multimodal-mode of learners perform better in the classroom than unimodal-mode of learners? From the instructor perspective, should one mode be used more than another? How well do grades correlate with their learning styles for specific classes, e.g., do analyzers perform better in preschool classes and do philosophers perform better in preschool teaching practicum? How do the academicians accommodate both those who prefer only one style and those who prefer many? All of these questions lead to further research.

References


Opportunities and Challenges in Addressing Child Abuse in the Albanian School Setting

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Abstract: This research aims to explore the opportunities and obstacles of the school social worker, as part of the multidisciplinary team, in addressing child abuse and to make evident the Albanian practice of treatment and prevention of child abuse in the school setting. The study uses a multidisciplinary approach in addressing the problem, where the role of the school social worker is seen as interrelated with those of the other actors of the multidisciplinary team. The qualitative method is used, including secondary data review, such as existing literature on international practices and secondary data on Albania, and also primary data gathering, through semi-structured interviews of the employees of the existing school service and the focus group interview, conducted with professionals of nongovernmental organisations which work on child protection issues, in collaboration with the school system. The main findings inform the field professionals of the opportunities and challenges of the school social worker, in addressing child abuse, the potential of the specialist of child protection in the school and the limitations of this position in the present.

Keywords: child abuse, school social work, educational multidisciplinary team, child protection worker, child protection system

Introduction

By various authors and professionals, the school has been considered the logical locus of the services that target the problematic of child abuse (Blyth & Huxtable, 2002, p.6). Studies have also shown that the multidisciplinary educational team (composed of teachers, heads of schools, and the other professionals that offer services for the children, such as the school social workers, the school doctor/nurse, the school psychologist) is a vital link in the intervention process. As a result of constant contact with the children, this professionals are more likely to discover abuse, to offer valuable input during the treatment process and to participate in prevention programs for adults and children (Crosson-Tower, 2005, p.69). Other studies show that home conditions influence the ability of the child to benefit from school. Most of studies in this field have been correlational and retrospective (Leiter dhe Johnsen, 1997). According to Allen-Meares et al., 2000, social work services that target ecology and especially the family environment, can alter the academic results for these children (p.6). In Albania, the findings of the two latest studies (Save the Children, 2007; UNICEF, 2006b) which confirm the obvious existence of teacher child abuse, besides parental child abuse, make the school a place of double importance in offering protection services. Also, in many countries in transition, such as Albania, it is noticed that as reaction to the high level of school violence, school discontent, and authoritarian models of teachers, these countries are oriented towards the development of school social services (Blythe & Huxtable, 2002, p.330). As a result, there is a need to study school services according to a multidisciplinary approach, which includes the school social worker as part of the team.

There are only a few existing studies on child abuse and relevant services in Albania, so far. Studies on school services are especially lacking, besides an evaluation of the existing school services, initiated by the Ministry of Education (Tamo, A., Kamani, V., Tahsini, I, Agolli, I, 2007), which remains an internal one. Even the last evaluation of the system of child protection in Albania, is not focused on the progress of the existing school service, in relation to prevention and treatment of child abuse, according a multidisciplinary approach (Malgajlic, R. & Muça, M. 2007). This service, new to Albania, started five years ago, with a narrow psychological focus on learning disorders and lately the first steps are taken for it to become a link in the child protection system.

Child protection services in Albania and schools

One of the main concerns raised by UNICEF, in the report “The state of the world’s children” (2006c) is that millions of children, especially in the developing countries, will continue to be disregarded, even if the millennium development goals will be fulfilled. The abused children are included in the four main categories of children in need. This sad picture of the children’s situation doesn’t get any easier for Albania. The report with the same focus, prepared for Albania, emphasizes
that children suffer from social exclusion, not necessarily because of poverty, but among others, because of abuse (UNICEF, 2006a).

Earlier data on the existence of all forms of child abuse in Albania (Refleksione, 1997; QTMPKF, 2000) were supported more strongly by two later studies (Save the Children, 2007; UNICEF, 2006b). The studies reinforce the fact that almost nothing has change in the culture of violence in our society, along more than a decade. The culture of violence is widely accepted in the society, also physical and psychological abuse continue to be main tools to ensure discipline at home and school. These two studies got for the first time the attention of professionals and policy-makers in front of a long neglected truth, because of other more ‘immediate’ problems of family and school. Even though the first report on the state of children’s rights in Albania should have been prepared and presented by the Albanian government in 1994, in the Committee on the Rights of the Child, Geneva, it actually happened only in 2004. Meanwhile, based on the Albanian Constitution, the child enjoys equal legal rights, as every citizen. Also, the ratification of various international documents puts the state in front of the responsibility to translate the ratified rights in relevant legislation on child protection, and further on, in policies, strategies and services. Even though the Albanian government has worked in the last years on the creation of the legislation on child rights, there has been a long standing vacuum, especially related to child abuse at home. This vacuum wasn’t filled by the new Family Code, (2003), and not even by the Law ‘on measures toward violence in family relations’ (2006). Even though this law creates a definition of violence and domestic violence (which includes child abuse) and enables the creation of a network of services on domestic violence, it is not a specific law on children. This happened only a year ago, with the approval of the Framework Law ‘For the protection of the rights of the child’ (2010). The law defines the mechanism for the protection of children at local, regional and national level, however, it should be emphasized that the law is not yet completed with the necessarily sublegal acts which will ensure the implementation of the mechanism in practice. In addition, the Ministry of Education is recently discussing the new law on preuniversity education. The law has several provisions on the aspect of child protection in schools, where school psychologists will serve as a focal point for identification and support to cases2.

The long legal vacuum has brought also a lack of addressing the issue on the existing policies. Also, at local level, there is still a lack of state mechanisms to apply the existing obligations of the policies. Still, an important step at this direction is the opening of child protection units at local level, which started at 2005. The model is supported by different organizations and is considered as a “grassroot” model where the NGO’s have supported the establishment of the CPU as part of social services at the municipality and commune level. After several years of piloting, the model was considered as a positive model by the Government of Albania and recently it was adopted and integrated within the Law on Child Rights. The law specifically mentions that each municipality and commune will open a Child Protection Service as part of social services departments. Now, as per 2012, there are in total 27 Child Protection Units in municipalities and communes, which are supported by the state and a group of nonprofit organisations working in the area of child protection.

This presentation of the situation makes clear that the state social services on child protection are few and still not well coordinated. Even the services offered by nonprofit organisations lack coordination, standardized definitions, procedures and protocols and full legal package to exercise their influence in prevention and treatment of child abuse. Another challenge is the geographic coverage with specialized social services and with the child protection units. From 365 administrative units, there are only 27 Child Protection units or around 12% of the territory is covered. In conclusion, even today, if a child is abused, the government of Albania is not able to fulfill its obligations to offer meaningful support and remove the child from this situation.

Another step that could help the creation of a needed link in these services was the creation of the psychological school service at preuniversity levels, since 2004 from the Ministry of Education, by a minister order (2004). The service was piloted for 4 years and it became permanent in 2008, by another minister order (2008). In reality, until then, child protection was almost out of focus for this service. Only recently, there are some first concrete steps, for a more active involvement in child protection issues, as a result of the cooperation of the Ministry of Education with a nonprofit organisation (Terres des Hommes, Albania), aiming to created a new position in the schools, of the child protection specialist at school. This process is at is beginning, but in its longterm vision for the services, the Ministry pretends to aims gradually toward a multidisciplinary approach and a psycho-social service on child protection, though this is not

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1 Sheshi, E. member of Committee for Equal Opportunities, Albania, personal interview, December 2007.

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reflected in any written documents so far.³

In this context, this research focuses on the field of child protection, to explore how the schools services can contribute to it, through a multidisciplinary approach, based on best models of practice, according to which, the social worker is considered as a vital part of the team; also based on the experience of the existing professionals in schools and on that of the workers of partner organisations in this field.

Goal of study and research questions

This research aims to highlight the Albanian practice of prevention and treatment of child abuse in schools (obligatory education level) and to explore the barriers and opportunities of the school social worker, as part of the multidisciplinary team, in this direction. The research questions are:

1. Which are the models of multidisciplinary practice in schools in facing the phenomena of child abuse? Which is the existing Albanian model? Which are the roles and advantages of the school social worker as part of the team?
2. Which are the attitudes, knowledge and behaviors of the professionals of the existing school service in addressing the phenomena?
3. Which are the barriers and advantages of the existing school service in addressing the phenomena?

Definition of key terms and their use

Child abuse is closely linked with historical values and perspectives. This concept has been defined and redefined through history. The society is gradually developing from considering children as property, to at least, the acceptance of the fact that they may have their own rights. Each historical, political period and each culture has a concept of how to treat children. Besides variations from country to country, most definitions include eight aspects of abuse (Kirst-Ashman & Zastrow, 2003). Similarly, The Practical Guide on Child Protection (2009), prepared especially for Albania, emphasizes that it is difficult to define child abuse as a world phenomena, because of the wide cultural, religious, social/political, legal and economic differences experienced by children. What may seem abusive in a state, can be acceptable in another one. Most of studies on child abuse have been conducted by developed countries, so it is not clear how valuable they are also for these children, whose lives are very different. To summarize, it can be said that child abuse definitions may vary according to author, legislation and context of use.

In Albania, the existing definitions used by workers at each link of the child protection system, legal or theoretical, are firstly lacking, and secondly, there is no agreement on use of terms. For these reasons, even The Practical Guide on Child Protection, for Albania (2009), decides to refer to the definition of WHO (1999) of child abuse. This definition treats all the abovementioned aspect, but the difference seems to be on the not-so-detailed definition of each type of abuse. For these reasons, this research will refer to WHO’s definition of child abuse.

The child protection team at micro level (at school level) is named as the educational team and it is composed of pupil service professionals, such as the school social worker, the school doctor/nurse, the school psychologist, etc, and also teachers and heads of school (Crosson-Tower, 2005, p.69). In the Albanian schools (obligatory level), the only service which currently tries to address child abuse is the psychological school service, which will be refered, for the purposes of this study as ‘the existing school service’, or ‘the existing service’. There are various definitions of school social work, which change according to the country, the locus of the school social worker, the directing authorities, etc. School social work can be implemented inside or outside the school area, depending on several elements which define its locus, in a community, or in a specific country (Blyth & Huxtable, 2002, p.236-238). As a consequence, for the purposes of this study, it will be agreed that the school social worker is the professional which performs several roles in child protection, such a identification, treatment and referral, reporting and documentation, and prevention, when its directing authority is the school or other organisations outside it (such as the municipality, government agencies, nonprofit organisations with state funding or mixed funding). Also, on regard the the school psychologist, we will use the term ‘existing school service professional’ or ‘professional’, which refers to all the workers currently employed by the Ministry of Education, in the psychological school service in Albania.

Toseland, Palmer-Ganeles, & Chapman (1986) define the multidisciplinary team in the school context as a group of members of the school community, where each of them owns specific knowledge and skills, that come together to share expertise, for a common goal. A similar term, which aims to focus on cooperation and interaction of members, is that of the interdisciplinary team, according to Alexander (1993) dhe Johnson (1993). The team can include professionals which are employed inside and outside the school. For the purposes of this research, in the term ‘multidisciplinary team’ will be included each cooperation between the existing professional inside the school and other professionals, inside and outside of it, in relation to child abuse. Also, the term ‘professionals of partner organisations’ will be used, which will include the professional of Albanian organisations which cooperate with schools in addressing the issue of child abuse.

Methodology

The methods use are the analysis of secondary data and the qualitative method of data collection. The analysis of secondary data was based on existing local and international literature, including studies, reports, evaluations, laws and strategies. This method was considered the most appropriate to answer to the first research question and partly to the two others, since currently there are no multidisciplinary teams in schools in Albania, no school social work service and there are few cooperations with outside services, in relation to child protection. The qualitative method of primary data gathering was used to answer to the two other research questions. It was based on informations coming partially from the professionals of the psychological service, since currently it is the only service inside schools in Albania. Other data were obtained from the experience of the the professionals of the partner organisations. The study was conducted during 2008-2009 and the primary data were collected in the first year.

The target population is that of the professionals at school services which address the child abuse issue and of the professionals of the organisations outside school which cooperate with them. As a result, the sample of the study is composed by the professionals of the existing school service and those of the partner organisations. Since this is an exploratory research, the purposive sample was the most appropriate to achieve its goal.

At the time of the study, there were 140 professionals of the psychological school services in all the areas covered by this service, 40 of them working in the 4 main cities of Albania. 22 of these professionals work in obligatory education level and they were the interviewees which composed the sample of the study. All the professionals working outside the capital city (Tirana), besides one, didn’t have a relevant degree, in psychology or social work. The subjects were selected through a categorization Tirana-other cities, in order to interview professionals with and without the relevant degrees, and the other cities, Shkodra, Vlora and Korca, were selected in order to explore potential variations in different geographic areas. The other part of the sample was composed by professionals in partner organisations with the schools. Since there are not many of them in Albania, a focusgroup with 9 participants was sufficient to include all the relevant professionals in nonprofit organisations, whose main focus is child protection and which have created the network of organisations piloting the child protection units and cooperating with the existing school service.

The individual interview consisted of three main axes of questions on attitudes, knowledge and behavior of the professionals of the existing service on the child abuse issue in their working environment. Both interview guides were semi-structured and they were piloted through interviewing three subjects. The individual interviews were conducted face to face and lasted 50-60 minutes. The focusgroup interview lasted 105 minutes and was supported by a co-facilitator. The collected data were manually coded and the codes were grouped in: 16 categories for the individual interviews, such as: concept clarity, case identification, teamwork, etc; 6 categories for the focusgroup, such as: unclear job description, confidentiality issues, etc. The categories were analysed through the method of constant comparison. There were also overlaps between categories. Peer checking and member checking strategies were used to ensure credibility of data.

Findings and Discussion

Based on worldwide experience, the work practice of the helping services linked with the school is characterized by an emphasis in interdisciplinary practice (AACD, ASCA, NASP, NASW, 1990). The school is being accepted more and
more as the logical locus to offer social work services to the children in need and school social work is developing continuously (Constable, R., Flynn, J.P., McDonald, Sh., 2000, p. 133). Its main contributions in the education area are related to the ecosystemic paradigm of the profession, the traditional role in the improvement of school attendance and working with families, the connection with the community and community organisations, and the appreciation of the strengths model from many other disciplines (Blyth & Huxtable, 2002, p.10; Openshaw, 2007). the school social worker is considered a vital part of the educational team in prevention and treatment of child abuse.

Definitions and knowledge on child abuse

In Albania, based on the findings of this study, the existing school service professionals can identify most types of abuse, but not those related to neglect. there is an unclarity of definitions and some confusion of neglect with other types of abuse, which is much higher : in the professionals without the relevant degrees; when they are requested to give a theoretical definition (it seems easier for them to clarify types of abuse by examples). This unclarity seems related to the professional skills of the interviewees, but also to the need for discussion and clarification of definitions by the professionals of the field.

The existing school service professionals consider their existing level of knowledge on child abuse as a barrier to the success of their work. In the case of professionals with relevant degrees, this expresses a need for trainings on the job, adapted to their specific requirements, but also a lack of work experience.

The need for on the job training and the lack of necessary qualifications

The existing school service professionals identify the need for learning and developing many important abilities and skills in prevention and treatment of child abuse. The need for continuous education is high and there have been few opportunities for further qualifications. Besides lack of relevant degrees and of a plan of the responsible authorities of this service for continuous education of the personnel, there are also lesser opportunities for trainings in the cities outside of the capital. The existing qualifications are mostly linked with the individual motivations, interests and attempts of the interviewees.

Lack of relevant degrees for many professionals and lack of sufficient experience/training for working in the school environment, are barriers identified also from the professionals of partner organisations.

Perception of child abuse as a concerning phenomena and an issue of public interest

All existing school service professionals consider child abuse a disturbing phenomena, since they are exposed to the phenomena at schools in many dimensions, such as parent-child, teacher-child, child to child, and also because they notice an accepting attitude towards violence in parents, teachers and children themselves. They also report that children show a ‘double standard’ toward physical abuse, by considering it as such when it comes from the teachers, but not from parents.

Overall, the professionals consider the issue of child abuse and a society matter, but it is noticed also a tendency to attribute to the family most of ‘the guilt’, part of a model which tries to find someone to blame, more that to look for solutions. Further more, a part of the interviewees consider child abuse a problem of the society, because they are concerned with the consequences of this abuse for the future of the society (abused children can become problematic citizens). It seems that the needs and the suffering of the individual child in the present, are not a sufficient argument for the society, according to them.

It is also noticed an ambivalent attitude towards child abuse. This is reflected in the attempts of the professionals to justify less ‘serious’ or ‘non frequent’ forms of abuse. This attempt is noticed more in the professionals without the relevant degrees, because they also try to justify situations of abuse from parents or teachers, while the others seem more aware of their own internal conflict over this issue, which seems also to be linked with their limited opportunities to influence the situation.

Identification of child abuse cases

All professionals confirm the existence of all types of abuse, and their exposure to them, while working at schools. Psychological abuse by teachers is shown, besides yelling and insults, through misuse of marks/pupil evaluation, or through inappropriate requests, such as obliging children to make various informal payments to the school (for school
furniture or activities, etc), or to follow private courses conducted by the teachers themselves. On the other hand, this type of abuse is very hidden, so it is very difficult to identify. The Ministry of Education, due to lack of coordinated attempts to minimize child abuse by teachers, has undertaken some measures which are considered arbitrary and nonefficient by professionals of partner organisations, such as a hotline where children can complain for teachers, which are then immediately penalized extremely by the Ministry authorities.

Child age increase is connected with the change of the type of abuse by teachers, but not with its existence. The professionals report more cases physical abuse in primary schools, when children are younger, and later on there are more cases of emotional abuse. So, the most fragile and vulnerable children are those who are even more maltreated, while this change is only and simply related to the hesitation of teachers to confront physically stronger children.

The professionals use various forms of identification, but their effectiveness seems limited because of several barriers, such as: lack of identification skills, acceptance of abuse, hiding of abuse from parents, teachers and children, and the limited time each professional can spend in each particular school (1-1 ½ day per week). Even for the professionals of partner organisations, the time restrictions are considered a fundamental barrier for the effectiveness of any intervention.

Individual casework and barriers in the process

The child abuse casework of the professional consists in collecting information, a few individual meetings with the child, attempts to work with the abusive parent, or with the cooperating parent and with the school administration, also few referrals in other organisations, outside the school. There is a lack of common procedures for case treatment. Also, it seems that, due to lack of functioning of the links of the child protection system, the professional goes beyond the limits of its position, in terms of time, professional and administrative competencies to treat the case. Cases of neglect are perceived as even more difficult to treat, and they are considered even more overlooked.

The professionals identify various barriers to treatment, such as: the resistance of children to cooperate, because they fear their parent's reaction, if he learns of their contact with the professional; the resistance of the parents to cooperate, which lowers the opportunities for treatment, because the general rule of asking for parental permission to contact the professional, becomes a paradox, when the parent is abusive; the tendency of heads of schools to 'solve internally' the cases, in order to preserve the school reputation, even when cases need to be reported. The 'easier to treat' cases, in terms of cooperation of all parties, are the most successful, while those of heavy and persistent abuse, have less opportunities for treatment, in absence of regulations which give the obligation to act to the school personnel (teachers, heads of school), and which enable the professionals to follow up the case till it is closed, or to report in case of refusal to cooperate.

Another added barrier is the fact that the existing professionals are not oriented (or trained) to work outside the schools, so working with families becomes more of a challenge, which is also complicated by logistical difficulties.

Confidentiality issues and case documentation

Some professionals of partner organisations confirm the existence of a basis of trust in the relationship child-school service professional, in cases of child abuse, which varies from one professional to another, but is seems higher, compared to teachers. On the other hand, they express a common concern about perserving confidentiality, for several reasons: the existence of a cultural tendency not to preserve confidentiality, lack of regulations which clarify confidentiality and penalties for lack of it, and also lack of an ethical code (and the relevant body/professional organisation) for these school professionals. The partner organisations professionals express extreme resistance to the idea of the case being discussed between professionals, because of the implied risk. In this context, it becomes very important to clarify and make official regulations of confidentiality and penalties for lack of it and also to ensure child safety after identification of abuse and abuser.

The existing school service professionals report of a model of case documentation, which is mainly individual and self-made. There are not recommended and common forms, to facilitate communication between colleagues and internal supervision of cases, besides of an initiative of the tirana group. Also, there are no regulations about confidentiality of documents and forms. Overall, documentation is not addressed well, as a tool for assessment, monitoring and supervision of case treatment. The first steps in this direction started in 2010, with the approval of the Manual for Child Protection, (prepared by Terre des Hommes, Albania), by the Ministry of Education.
Also, even though the standards of casework, based on the service regulations of the Ministry of Education and also, in international models of practice, consider very important the component of case supervision, the professionals report that this is implemented only through occasional meetings with the colleagues of the same city, with a similar level of knowledge and experience.

Prevention work

The existing school service professionals report that prevention work exists mainly at an informative level, and only through group discussions with children, parents and teachers. Their formal yearly ‘workplan’ is mainly a summary of informative activities or reactions to emergency situations, and not a strategic plan. Other limitations identified by the professionals are: the limited time they can spend at each school, lack of interest from parents and teachers and lack of necessary skills for the professionals without a relevant degree. Though not well-organized and well-extended, the preventive strategies are considered the most successful and possible, given the strong limitations of this service.

Barriers in working with the other important parties inside the school and in the profile of the school professional

The advancement of the work of existing school service professionals, related to child abuse, according to them, is not only linked to, but depending on good relationships with the head of school, especially because of their lack of ‘status’. Another difficulty in the cooperation with important parties in the school is lack of interest from teachers/parents. These factors seem connected, because the lack of status to ask for cooperation, makes it possible only on a ‘friendly basis. In this context, there is some resistance from the professionals to report to the head of school child abuse by teachers, because this would put at risk their relationship with the teacher.

The partner organisations professionals consider also an important barrier the fact that the school service professional is administratively dependent on a authority, such as the head of school, and on the other hand, he needs to monitor some of the aspects of his work, related to child abuse. This is not possible in a relationship of disbalanced power. To summarize, the most important barrier for all professionals is the lack of necessary regulations, which give to the school professional the power to act. These makes the professionals feel ‘not acknowledged’ by the school system, which means by other parties inside school. Due do this lack, the professional is ‘at mercy’ of their willingness to cooperate, and consequently, his potential for success is low where there this will is absent.

A combination of various factors, such as lack of other helping professions inside school such as social workers, or of supporting services outside schools, the high number of schools that each professional works with (3-4 schools for each professional) and the difficult problematics of each school, make the existing ratio professional : child very high. The suggested balance in terms of status (used by the Ministry of Education to create the positions for the professionals), between teachers and professionals, is complicated by the fact that they work longer hours than the teachers and they are also paid differently between colleagues, depending on the school they work in (obligatory vs. high school).

Another factor which heavily influences the quality of work and also the professionals’ motivation, is lack of offices. At the beginning of this service this was a fact for each professional, while today, in the best of the cases, they share a common room with the school doctor, nurse, etc. This lowers the level of access to the professional for children, especially in cases of abuse.

Also, these professionals consider all the difficulties of this position, combined with a low and demotivating salary for them, as very professionally disappointing for anyone who wants to work in this field. Therefore, it is likely that these position doesn’t attract very qualified candidates, or ones who would like to stay there for long. On the other hand, they also perceive some job insecurity, because of the frequent changes of heads of school, whenever a new political party comes to power in Albania. It seems that for the moment, the professional is in a ‘Cinderella/stepchild’ role, where a lot is asked from him, but care and rewards are very low.

Cooperation between workers with a social work and a psychology background, barriers and opportunites

The professionals with relevant degrees consider very valuable and desirable the cooperation between social workers and teamwork, which have been informally possible only in Tirana (because there are professionals with social work and psychology in degrees, but no formal social work positions). Cooperation between colleagues results to be lethargic. The professionals work in isolations and there is a strong lack of communication between different cities. Inside the same city, they can be supported only by each-other, but still there is a very weak group identity, constrained by distance, school distribution, isolated work and lack of relevant degrees.
The partner organisations professional consider the school social work position as very important, and more appropriate than then school psychologist, especially in child protection cases, while their vision of a better service, is that of working in a multidisciplinary team, composed by a social worker and a psychologist, including productive relationships with teachers; also, formal networks and teams which include professionals outside the schools, such as the child protection worker in the municipalities.

The handicaps of the professionals without relevant degrees are deep and multifaceted. They express severe lack of knowledge, problematic attitudes, and therefore problematic behaviors. This situation can be solved only by removing these professionals by the service. The same conclusion, which was reached in the internal evaluation of the Ministry of Education, and supported by a regulation in 2008, seems very difficult to be applied. Meanwhile, this regulation clearly cut the potential of the service to be transformed to a psycho-social one. This step is clearly in conflict with the views of the current school service professionals (with a psychology degree, a social work degree, or without a relevant degree) and also with the views of the partner organisation professionals, in terms of the school service in general, and of the protection issues in particular.

A vision of the service in the future

The vision of these employees includes changing the responsible authority for the services, combined with an autonomy of the service, similarly to international best practice models, where these services seems to be more effective outside the school, in countries where the professions are new and not well-accepted. They contest strongly the existing hierarchy of the existing service and developed the idea of creating a decentralized service, close to the local structures, where professional supervision can be offered by professionals in the field.

Concluding remarks

Worldwide, the school is being accepted more and more as the logical locus of the services which target the problematics of child abuse. The use of a multidisciplinary approach inside the school is considered very succesful in prevention and treatment of child abuse. In Albania, the position of the child protection worker/specialist inside the school is still being shaped and for the moment it is held by school psychologists, part of a service with an intial other focus, and already overloaded. There are still challenges, due to unclear regulations, unappropriate responsible authority for the service, gaps in the referral system, gaps in knowledge and skills of the existing school service professionals themselves, and also in case supervision, time limitations, etc, which make it difficult to follow up abuse cases and treat them successfully. Use of a multidisciplinary approach inside schools, and the presence of school social workers in the educational team are considered as very valuable by the existing school professionals and also professionals of partner organisations in the field of child protection. Recent legal developments and the support of nonprofit organisations in this field are important, but a more coordinated response, supported by the government is needed, in order to ensure timely solutions for every child and for the school to become an integrated part of the child protection system both at local and national level.

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Foreign Language Learning and Dyslexia

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Abstract This article presents English language learning pupils with the opportunity to communicate with speaking peers on equal terms: to use the gift of communication to promote a common understanding and share visions and plans for the future. It is not simply an ideological educational theory designed to gain acceptance of a common curriculum for schools. However if we are to promote the idea of foreign language learning for all, we must question if it is really possible to give all our young people access to this area of the curriculum and if we can make the experience a worthwhile one which results in effective learning. If we can answer, “Yes” to this question, then the next question will inevitably be “How”? Inclusion in the modern languages classroom is about much more than having a presence and being exposed to another language. It is about feeling accepted and involved in a worthwhile learning experience whatever the level that can be achieved. One dilemma faced is whether we should present all young people with a common modern language curriculum irrespective of any additional support needs which they may have, or deprive pupils of what may prove to be a worthwhile and satisfactory learning experience. Early research into the learning of another language suggested that because dyslexic pupils normally manage to cope with the spoken and listening aspects of their own language, there was no reason why they would not cope with a foreign language.

Why should dyslexic pupils learn another language?

For dyslexic pupils who have struggled to learn their own language, and who may still be coming to terms with the finer points of reading and writing, we must ensure we are not imposing an unbearable burden that could result in further failure, de-motivation and subsequent behavior problems. True inclusion in the modern languages classroom is about much more than having a presence and being exposed to another language. It is about feeling accepted and involved in a worthwhile learning experience whatever the level that can be achieved.

The benefits of learning another language are fairly clear: an extended range of employment and recreational opportunities as well as the less tangible benefits of achieving a closer understanding of others by communicating in the other language instead of just their own. By depriving any pupils of such opportunities, we may create the anxiety we seek to avoid.

Should all dyslexic pupils study another language?

One dilemma which we face is whether we should present all young pupils with a common modern language curriculum irrespective of any additional support needs which they may have, or deprive pupils of what may prove to be a worthwhile and satisfactory learning experience. The difficulty in solving the dilemma is one that permeates educational practice. All pupils are not the same, and all dyslexic pupils are not the same. Because one dyslexic pupil succeeds does not mean every dyslexic pupil will. What works for one may not work for another. Early research into the learning of another language suggested that because dyslexic pupils normally manage to cope with the spoken and listening aspects of their own language, there was no reason why they would not cope with a foreign language (Crombie, 1995; 1997; 2003). The environment in which dyslexic pupils learn their own language is generally quite different from the classroom conditions which most pupils experience in the teaching and learning situation. Total immersion which exists for pupils learning English in schools, does not exist in many classrooms, and it is only when pupils attend specific language schools or go to live in another country that they have a chance of reaching anywhere near the level of immersion which they had for their first language. The age at which immersion takes place too may be a critical factor in producing the most favorable climate for learning. There are few schools which teach foreign languages to pupils under the age of eight.

Trying to anticipate learning abilities

The level of a pupil’s difficulties in mother language may give an indication of the likely difficulties in foreign language
learning, but it is certainly not the only indicator. Motivation, attitude, learning style, self esteem and determination are as always crucial to learning. If we can convince pupils to believe in themselves, we may make the difference between success and failure. Even when all the motivational and attitudinal conditions are right, there is still the possibility that we may not succeed in achieving the learning we hoped.

Because of the phonological difficulties which the vast majority of dyslexic pupils exhibit, they are likely to have problems with the phonology or the new language. Auditory discrimination may be problematic. There are other reasons too why dyslexic pupils differ in their learning abilities. Processing time is a crucial factor. The fact that dyslexic pupils often take more time to process language information is one which has been confirmed by research (Ackerman & Dykman, 1996). We cannot therefore expect dyslexic pupils to absorb information at the same rate as their peers. Slowing the rate at which we expect dyslexic pupils to speak or listen in the foreign language may not be exactly natural but it does give the dyslexic pupil time to process during the initial stages of learning.

Working memory and short-term memory difficulties that affect dyslexic pupils' learning could be expected to affect foreign language learning. If a pupil has difficulty in accessing a word such as "hospital" and instead says, "hospitial", this muddling of polysyllabic words which is not unexpected in dyslexic people generally is likely to overlap into the new language.

Short-term memory difficulties make it likely that learning vocabulary too will pose problems for the dyslexic pupil. Combined with the extra time required to access words from memory, the pupil may have problems in maintaining concentration for sufficient time to decode, comprehend and respond. This factor of requiring extra time may remain until the pupil reaches the stage of being able to think in the other language. Pupils, who have mild difficulties in learning to read, write and master the phonology of their own language, may find some difficulty in tackling whatever foreign language they choose, but will probably reach a reasonable standard if they persist.

At the early stages of learning the new language progress may be quite acceptable. However, as the demands rise, memory may become overloaded, and if the pupils do not understand the necessary strategies and techniques to employ, what was initially a pleasurable experience can become extremely stressful, with the possibility of breakdown not just in learning but also in motivation and self-esteem.

For the person with dyslexia, the process of learning to read can break down with reading mechanics or comprehension, and at any of the specific skill levels. It is important to note that pupils with dyslexia do not always acquire skills in the normal developmental sequence. If an individual does not develop adequate phonemic awareness during the pre-reading period, effective decoding may not be possible, which influences the development of fluent reading and comprehension skills. Also, pupils with dyslexia often come to the reading task with oral language comprehension problems. When assessing and planning for instruction, consideration of these oral language comprehension problems may facilitate acquisition of reading comprehension. No single reading method will be effective for all pupils with dyslexia. Most individuals with dyslexia will benefit from the application of a variety of methods.

The Challenges for teachers

For teachers, the challenge is to find the most effective methods of teaching foreign languages to dyslexic pupils as well as all the others in the class. Research which emphasizes a systematic structured approach to a multisensory nature, suggests that this is the most effective method for poor language pupils. This Multisensory Structured Language (MSL) approach is described by Ganschow, Sparks & Schneider (1995) in the International Dyslexia Journal.

Teachers should be able to appropriately and systematically modify or combine methods, and utilize them in order to meet an individual's changing needs. Selecting the appropriate program to apply to the pupil is not a simple matter, and requires a careful assessment of where the pupil is in the developmental process. It is not uncommon, for example, to observe an individual with all the pre-reading skills, numerous comprehension skills, and simple decoding skills acquired during the pupil's progression through mechanical reading instruction. Because there may be a lack of understanding of the sophisticated decoding skills needed, reading with fluency suffers. Pupils with dyslexia should be provided with sound strategic approaches that empower them as readers, rather than be allowed to learn and internalize incorrect practices.

Methods

A significant part of selecting appropriate instructional approaches is: understanding the learning profile of an individual. A diagnostic program is necessary to identify pupils with dyslexia. A cognitive profile is also necessary to determine precisely what pupils' needs are, their strengths and weaknesses, whether they have difficulty with working memory, if they have inadequate language skills, etc. Pupils with dyslexia need to be taught strategic approaches explicitly. They
need to have ideas made conspicuously clear to them.

Pupils with dyslexia who need to work on reading mechanics frequently respond to explicitly taught code-emphasis developmental reading methods such as phonic, linguistic, or multisensory approaches. Some of the most popular approaches are briefly described below.

The *MSL (Multisensory Structured Language)* approach is based on the work of Gillingham and Stillman (1960) and is not unlike the type of approach recommended for teaching first language skills to dyslexic pupils. Grammar, syntax, and language phonology require to be taught through a program that emphasizes hearing, seeing, speaking and writing the language. A major challenge to teachers is of course to determine how these methods can be employed in a busy modern languages classroom. One answer is to use the techniques with a whole group of pupils so that in addition to the direct teaching being given, pupils can also practice among themselves to give the over learning necessary for retention between written aspects and the sounds they make. This method assumes that some pupils learn best when content is presented in several modalities. Multisensory approaches that employ tracing, hearing, writing, and seeing are often referred to as VAKT (visual, auditory, kinesthetic, and tactile) methods. Multisensory techniques can be used with both phonics and linguistic approaches.

*Phonics approach.* The phonics approach teaches word recognition through learning grapheme-phoneme (letter-sound) associations. The pupil learns vowels, consonants, and blends, and learns to sound out words by combining sounds and blending them into words. By associating speech sounds with letters the pupil learns to recognize new and unfamiliar words.

*Linguistic method.* This method uses a "whole word" approach. Words are taught in word families, or similar spelling patterns, and only as whole words. The pupil is not directly taught the relationship between letters and sounds, but learns them through minimal word differences. As the pupil progresses, words that have irregular spellings are introduced as sight words.

*Neurological Impress Technique.* This is a rapid-reading technique. The teacher reads a passage at a fairly rapid rate, with the teacher's voice directed into the pupil's ear. The teacher begins as the dominant reading voice, but gradually the pupil spends more time leading these sessions. Pupils who have learned mechanics without adequately learning reading fluency frequently benefit from this, as do pupils who read slowly or who hesitate over a number of words but are able to identify most of the words in a sentence. A pupil is directed to read a passage without errors. This method functions most effectively when it is practiced for short periods every day.

*Language experience approach.* The language experience approach uses pupil's spoken language to develop material for reading. This approach utilizes each pupil's oral language level and personal experiences. Material is written by the pupil and teacher for reading using each pupil's experience. This can be done in small groups and individually. Familiarity with the content and the vocabulary facilitate reading these stories. Each pupil can develop a book to be read and re-read. This approach helps pupils know what reading is and that ideas and experiences can be conveyed in print.

*Reading comprehension support.* Dyslexic pupils who need work on reading comprehension often respond to explicitly taught strategies which aid comprehension such as skimming, scanning and studying techniques. These techniques aid in acquiring the gist, and then focus is turned to the details of the text through use of the cloze procedures. The cloze procedure builds upon a pupil's impulse to fill in missing elements. With this method, every fifth to eighth word in a passage is randomly eliminated. The pupil is then required to fill in the missing words. This technique develops reading skills and an understanding not only of word meaning but also of the structure of the language itself.

*Modeling* involves someone in acting as a model while the pupils follow. Reading along with the teacher helps the pupil gain confidence, paired or peer tutoring, taping of a passage which the pupil can take away and follow at home, etc.

*Learning Styles* takes account of how a pupil learns best – small group, individually, seating position, light sensitivity, motivational factors etc.

**Strategies**

The following strategies are likely to be helpful to many pupils, not just those with dyslexia:

- Adopting a meta-cognitive approach
- Thinking about and understanding the language structure.
- Understanding the way in which they learn.
- Analogous reading
The notion of onset and rime can be extended to languages other than English though is clearly not suitable for all languages. Make use of words which fit into families to minimize the need for new learning: e.g. bright, sight, might, light in English.

What's best?

Having considered a number of issues and the options, there is still no easy answer to the initial questions. We cannot generalize from one dyslexic pupil to another. Language learning is unlikely to be easy for any dyslexic pupil but few areas of school learning are for most. Appropriate teaching will undoubtedly make an enormous difference. Clearly structured teaching of the type generally recommended for teaching native language skills may make language learning very much more comprehensible to the dyslexic pupil. It seems the message therefore is that while all dyslexic pupils are at risk of encountering difficulties in the foreign language classroom, close monitoring will ensure that these difficulties are minimized. For most dyslexic pupils there should be some success. If however, the learning situation becomes intolerable and pupils find themselves totally unable to master even the most elementary aspects of a foreign language, then alternatives may need to be considered. Finding a more appropriate alternative within the curriculum, could cause major problems for timetabling and supervision, but is very necessary if the stress and frustration felt by an otherwise capable pupil is not to be allowed to adversely affect behavior and self-image. With imagination and persistence the right alternative can be found and many difficulties can overcome.

When the decision is made to proceed with foreign language learning, this will have to be kept under regular review. It is desirable that dyslexic pupils be given awareness of the culture of the country whose language they have been studying. The early stages of language teaching will introduce cultural aspects as well as the language. Some dyslexic pupils will go on to enjoy their language learning albeit they may struggle at times to keep up with their peer groups. Others will be unable to maintain the program. It is important for these pupils that we are ready to find alternatives before any lasting damage is done to overall motivation and self-esteem. The importance of language specialists and additional support for learning staff understanding the likely difficulties which dyslexic pupils may experience is vital if dyslexic pupils are to reach their potential in all languages, including their own. Considerable collaboration will be required to reach a fuller understanding of the most appropriate methodologies for dyslexic pupils. Further research into foreign language learning will be required if we are to be assured of the most appropriate and best solutions. It looks as though we are already discovering that methods which are best for dyslexic pupils work for most if not all others. Dyslexic pupils however are likely to need more of them for a longer time to reach success. Variety is one key if we are to prevent dyslexic pupils from reaching the point of boredom.

Conclusions

Pupils with dyslexia will typically require a variety of instructional approaches in order to make their educational experiences more productive. There is no one best approach to teach reading to pupils with dyslexia. There are many reading methods available with ongoing debate about which one is preferable. It is critical that teachers understand both the pupil and the various reading methods available if the pupil is to have the best possible learning experience. The importance of a comprehensive evaluation that will result in prescription for intervention cannot be over-emphasized. The notion that teachers must have the ability to effectively and systematically alter various methods to meet the needs of individual pupils with dyslexia is of the same importance. Language teachers are recognizing that explicit teaching of linguistic structures is needed to correct the defects of the communicative approach and to facilitate clear and skilful communication. Teachers may therefore find it profitable to give more attention to the phonological aspect of language that is the interface between the spoken and the written word. I have suggested that such an approach will help pupils of all abilities to relate the manifestations of the language in the four skill areas and thereby significantly improve their ability all-round. As vocabulary topic areas become less central to the conception of language enshrined, textbooks will no doubt give greater space to explicit analysis and practice of phonological structures. Nowhere would this be more beneficial than in a course book that drew upon the research available on dyslexia.
References


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The Home Work– An Independent Work, Where is Evidenced the Teacher Ability as a Learning Trainer

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Abstract
The homework is an important aspect of the learning intervention. What impact has the homework? How does it affect students' achievements? Which is the mechanism of this impact? How do students react towards? Does homework express teacher's competencies to manage independent homework? How much affects homework on teacher's performance as a learning trainer? The paper is based on the research of techniques, models and variations of students' homework in the primary school level. Through observing teachers notebooks were evidenced the practices of different teachers. The teachers that worked in a more categorized way according to levels, and that apply homework aiming to promote the education of the long-term learning abilities had higher results. The teachers that applied homework with a research character, mainly with project nature, demonstrated a collaborating spirit with students and implemented more creative works in class activities. The homework that requested even the involvement of third parties affected in the family-school affinity. Through teachers notes, communications with parents, and opinions get through the questionnaires with students, teachers and parents are evidenced the techniques and the elements of the teacher as a learning trainer.

Key words: homework, tutor teacher, near area, learning conditions, long term learning abilities, stakeholders, project, research.

Introduction
Teacher’s basic competencies are connected with his/her perception as a trainer concerning independent learning. Teacher’s first task is to create the awareness of the need for life-long dedication to the learning process. (EU. 2003) During observations of teacher’s performance as a trainer, the homework notebooks were observed and teachers were interviewed by means of a survey. Teacher’s positioning as a trainer, gives him/her the attributes of the facilitator of the process and increases the attention to individual and whole class learning progress. The type of homework clearly demonstrates the teacher’s techniques in promoting students’ independent learning. Between the teacher and the students is created a strong reciprocal relationship during the learning process. (Ash & Levitt, 2003). This relationship must be reflected in concrete activities. Teacher’s role as a trainer prevails in his/her high interactivity, in the relationship with learners as well as in the management of their learning through facilitating techniques and interventions. The learning process is a process that requires efforts and faces dilemmas of different natures. The psychosocial characteristics of students, the learning environment, experiences, expectations, the level of partnerships, as well as the capacity and performance of the teacher have an impact in the commitment of students to achieve good results. The trainer aims at supplying the subject with habits, for this reason he/she leads the students by acquainting them with the objective of the learning unit and constantly prompting and motivating subjects during the process of cooperation and decision-making as a group. Feedback and reflection over what has been done, both are very essential elements.

In his/her daily preparation, the teacher focuses on the text and not on the students (Sina.Z 2011). According to this practice, the teacher observes and assesses only those changes that the student reflects in relation to knowledge and patterns found in the text. Under the pressure of assessment conducted by the teacher, even the parents seem to rely on the text rather than on student’s behavior. Based on the experience of successful teachers, it results that students learn by working. Active learning makes possible a steady and authentic acquisition of the learning material. They support the idea that student’s autonomy starts in class. The teacher prompts the learner to think, to compare, to assess and arrange his ideas even when they challenge teacher’s ideas. Textbooks are not the only source of information or the best model to provide learning. For this reason, the student should investigate and collect reliable information and use it creatively during the process of learning. Curiosity is a distinctive feature for young school children. The child himself/herself is curious to discover inner relations, to give meaning to unique features and manipulate them.

The teacher as a trainer has prepared the learner before he comes to class. Preliminary tasks, parental involvement, community resources, the identification of problems to be solved make students as busy as bees and when they arrive in class, under the teacher’s guidance they work on the material and give the product. As we said, work does not start in class and does not end there; it goes beyond the limits of the class. Homework, as a form...
of individual work, expresses this extension and identifies the ways in which the teacher involves parents, relatives or other actors from the community.

Methodology

The problem investigated in this study relates to these issues: How does the homework reflect the model of the teacher as a trainer of learning and how does the Albanian teacher play this role? If the teacher in his interactive relation with the student acts as a tutor of learning, what are the conditions and factors that influence this role and which is their impact?

In order to analyze and explore the answers to these questions, observations were carried out in 280 homework notebooks in 3rd and 5th grades of elementary education and were surveyed 93 teachers and 120 parents of these classes in Tirana, Durres, Kukës. Meanwhile, five teachers were trained and the teaching process was supervised in three 3rd grade classes and two 5th grade classes, where these teachers gave lessons. They were acquainted with their role as trainers, the techniques for the organization of the lesson and the elaboration of teaching practices that lead students towards independent work and authentic learning. At the end, students’ results and the identified changes were compared with the characteristics of students where observations were carried out.

Homework observation was concentrated on language and mathematics homework. The data were collected according to a preset format. The indicators of the data were about type, quantity, adaptation and homework control, correction and evaluation.

The survey was about the meaning of homework, teacher’s attitude, the relationship with course material and the way it is used during the teaching process. The survey implicitly revealed the features of a teacher who facilitated learning. The quantitative and qualitative data were processed by using statistical methods.

Results of the study

Teachers of elementary education unlike those of the secondary education are less focused on the text, 2.9% of them admit following step by step the pages of text, because their creativity takes most of the space during the teaching process. According to Petersen, in interactive classes the ratio between teacher’s talk and student’s talk should be balanced. The questionnaires reveal the following data: 41.2% of teachers admit that their talk takes 40% of the class time, 20% of them say they share the class time 50% to 50%, 21% think that their talk takes 60% of the lesson time, 5.8% admit that teacher’s talk takes 80% of the lesson and 11.8% declare they talk only 20% of the time because they leave most of the time (80%) to their students.

The highest frequency is included in the interval between 40 - 60% and this fact indicates that, at least verbally, the teachers know the time limits in which a skilled trainer organizes interactive sessions. Teachers express their interactivity throughout the questionnaire questions. In this way the teacher does not follow classic instruction lines, but constructs the situation and learning environment based on students’ experience and the nature of their learning styles. Another element that comes out during the teacher’s performance as a trainer is his effort to strengthen students’ team spirit by using group work, creative projects etc. 32.4% of the teachers admit that learners who are more correct than others with their assignments, have an inquisitive and creative character. They also have an impact in the lesson and become objects of assessment.

Homework has historically been a questionable topic ranging from becoming a myth to being completely ignored. (Conrath, 1992) During the academic year, children receive their assignments and parents are engaged with them by copying or facilitating these assignments as much as they can. Parents are very sensitive to homework, because it enables them to keep in touch with the process of education of their child. The qualitative data collected by parents in relation to homework, indicate that they want responses on the following questions:

How can individual features of children be harmonized with the requirements and lesson objectives determined by the teacher?
In what way are independent assignments adapted with children’s age and level?
How to structure and manage more efficiently home assignments?
How and in what way are they as parents, engaged in helping their children with homework?

The questionnaire indicates that 90% of parents that were surveyed admit that they help and follow day after day the progress of their children at school including here home assignments during the years of elementary education. This fact makes parents a very important factor in achieving the objectives of assigning homework. If the teacher takes on the role
of the trainer, this role focuses not only on the student, but also on training parents to play the role of facilitator in homework completion. Based on the analysis of this relationship and also affected by CORNO’s study (CORN0, 1996) regarding five misconceptions about homework, we found out no compliance between teachers’ attitudes and parents’ attitudes. Whereas teachers know the general principles upon which homework is assigned and managed, parents express the same conceptual errors mentioned by Corno.

From parents’ point of view, good teachers give assignments regularly, correct and assess them on a regular basis. Actually, the best teachers give assignments that comply with lesson objectives, teaching style and methodology and learning conditions. From the observation it was noticed that the quantity of homework is not a variable that influences students’ achievements. The amount of homework that lacks variety of forms or types and includes an excessive number of exercises, exhaust students and reduce their desire to learn. The teacher in the role of trainer gives the right amount of homework. A given task, is demonstrated, controlled, assessed and used in the process of learning. It is not simply a procedure. Most of the teachers share this same attitude, despite the observation which indicates that the homework assigned is far from what teachers declare. Teachers estimate that they give the right amount of homework in compliance with the standards provided by Cooper (Cooper, 1989, a, b).

However, according to the survey, parents want their children to have a considerable amount of home assignments, as they think homework can build work habits. Most of the parents surveyed are concerned when their child has few or no home assignments at all. It is important to highlight that in most of the cases parents consider homework as an element of forging long-term habits in education rather than as an element that has an influence in the reinforcement of knowledge obtained in class. On one hand, we have parents of pupils in the 5th grade (in 67% of cases), who want their child to work at home until he/she completes the homework assigned and on the other hand there is the teacher who controls the amount and level of homework. This element strengthens teacher-parent communication. 75% of parents ask for a weekly report from the teacher and 25% of them prefer communication notebooks. None of the parents prefer communication by phone or being notified by the child.

The teacher in these reports informs parents about the weekly progress of the class, group and individual assignments, their roles and fields of involvement and invites parents in taking their responsibility. For this reason, the teacher plays the role of the leader and is responsible for time management at home.

According to teachers’ statements (47% of the respondents), they give homework after previously discussing with students and are convinced that home assignments support what is learned in class. Teachers maintain that giving more homework does not affect positively learning reorganization and reinforcement, as too much homework is demotivating and discharges the burden to the parents or elder sisters and brothers. However the most important thing for teachers remains the quality of homework. The observation of homework notebooks revealed that the amount of homework, especially in the ABC-book is beyond psychological and pedagogical reasoning. Parents say that their children get tired and make up numerous justifications for not finishing their homework. In many cases, prompted by compassion, parents do the homework themselves.

Another finding is related to the fact that homework is a routine activity, as mathematics and language teachers assign exercises that are at the last part of the lesson, since it is evident that exercises in the text are ranked based on their level of difficulty. The question raised here is: “What is the acquisition level of materials in different students? The homework notebooks of mathematics and language in the same class have definitely the same exercises. Yet, as Cooper (Cooper 1094) and Bruce and Singh (Bruce & Singh, 1996) maintain, qualitative management of homework affects positively learning results, and more specifically pupils’ grades on tests. This is demonstrated even by parents’ orientation towards courses or private teachers chosen by parents in order to assist their children’s learning. Whereas teachers admit that assigning homework aims at reinforcing the knowledge of learners in class, parents emphasize the fact that homework strengthens discipline and children’s personal responsibility, therefore teachers should always assign homework. The analysis of this paradigm shows that parents should receive information about the proper techniques needed to be involved in homework completion. They should know what happens in class and what the cognitive reason for assigning this homework is. Parents should be trained for the education of social skills through academic work and should take their role in this process. What is the teacher’s role in training parents to support their children with homework completion? According to a study on teacher-parent meetings (KKP. 2011) it results that teachers meet with parents only to give them their children’s grades and to report on their school progress. Very rarely the teacher takes the responsibility of parents’ training.

Homework is related to students’ independent work, when he/she is learning and applying the knowledge acquired during the lesson. Good teachers consider homework as a coordination of planned activities about learning objectives. Many researchers regard homework not only as a routine process that should keep students busy after school, by not allowing them to be involved in harmful actions, but also as a strategy focused on strengthening the level
of understanding and deepening their thinking of cognitive concepts. The teacher as a trainer must assess the connections between these environments, starting with the recognition of the aims for assigning homework in accordance with lesson’s objectives and the level of learners. Of course, teachers should be able to answer questions like: How much time will be needed to complete the homework? During which time interval will the pupil be working? Who will help him to complete the homework? To what degree are teachers able to provide a strong relationship between the level of understanding of what happens in class and the long-term memorization of concepts, knowledge and skills required? To what degree do the selected practical activities affect habit formation?

The teacher as trainer focuses on the learner, the educational level of the class and the conditions in which learning occurs. Reflection on homework changes with age. According to Cooper's study "the impact of homework on the increase of expected results depends on class level. (Cooper, 1989)". While first grade pupils of elementary education receive homework in order to create the habits of work, in students of higher grades, homework affects their qualitative growth. Therefore, in this age students must be involved in home assignments of inquisitive character that include habits of high level thinking. Such activities are: the projects, problem-solving tasks, tasks that require constant observation, collection of data, facts various objects, etc.

The teacher trainer will provide appropriate tasks for different levels of students in order to confront pupils’ skills with positive consequences of homework completion (Rademacher, Deshler, Schumacher, & Lenz, 1998; Rosenberg, 1989). Assigning homework in one format, one type of exercise or level does not indicate that the teacher is based on learners’ individuality in achieving objectives.

Students must receive feedback for their homework. Student achievement may differ in accordance with the type of feedback provided by the teacher. (Waberg, 1999). From the observation of notebooks it was found that teachers in 87% of the cases have corrected one in four or five notebooks, as this was the directive issued by the school principal. The teacher makes these kinds of notes: "seen", a tick, a grade, "You have not done the homework": "bad", "good" etc. As long as homework reflects class work, the teacher should assess this process and check each homework.

Assigning homework to students of elementary education classes aims at developing work habits, whereas in secondary school classrooms it is done to reinforce the material taken and to improve qualitatively their performance in periodic tests. Regardless of the age and type of task, homework is an important element in student’s education and formation. The teacher should recognize its effects in this process. The influence of homework has rapid academic impacts, long-term learning effects, and long-term effects on social skills and other non-academic skills. Immediate effects are expressed through reinforcement and memorization of theoretical knowledge, facts, algorithms, grammatical categories, etc. By practising through independent work, but mainly by prompting students to engage in assignments that require the use of high level thinking, improves critical thinking, deepens understanding and enables students to analyze and process information and enrich learning material with new information.

Long-term academic effects from homework are expressed through students’ commitment to learn even when they are not at school. Helping students develop the skills of learning independently is best reflected in homework. Being an active student and presenting the product of one’s learning to the class, the student improves his attitude towards school by increasing diligence and motivation to learn.

Along with mastering academic competencies, by means of homework, the student empowers qualities such as self-management of time and discipline, increases their zeal and curiosity to discover hidden connections in different situations and phenomena. The learner is trained to solve problems and gains the independence to make right decision. Knowing these effects, the teacher trainer knows how to mould in students the diligence that, on its part, is related to self-discipline, correctness and a correct management of working time.

The data of this study indicate that when homework is not planned as an integral part of the lesson and is not treated effectively, it affects negatively students’ behavior and attitudes. Based on the comparison of effects in experimental classrooms with teachers of other classes, we notice that from the homework we can distinguish between teachers who structure their work with standards and teachers who work with intuition. In teachers who do not plan or adapt homework to students’ characteristics are noticed negative consequences. Excessive amount of homework, aiming to train and making perfect, causes fatigue, weakens trust and reduces the desire to learn. The pupils of elementary education classes are still children and the game is an important activity of their life. Deprivation of game time affects the child’s emotional world. At first he/she may be subdued because of his/her fragility, but with the passing of time he/she will start to revolt. It is already known that adolescents’ attitude towards school deteriorated compared with attitudes at the elementary education classes.
Recommendations

Based on the findings shown in this paper, we can address some recommendations to teachers and parent.

For the teacher:

• The teacher in role of the trainer should be aware that learning is not a product of his hard work, but of all the factors that affect learning. Among these factors, students’ diligence is crucial.

• When the teacher plans and designs the development of the lesson, he/she should provide some alternative exercises that match the conditions and opportunities for students.

• Teachers should encourage the active involvement of students through their experiences and perceptions.

• The teacher should create the idea that learning extends beyond the class. Teaching material is not the only source of learning, therefore teachers should encourage students to look for, find and bring to class materials, information, facts and objects before the lesson starts. After the lesson, students provide feedback on what they have achieved constructively during the lesson.

• The teacher should give appropriate amount of homework, without taking children’s time for games or family activities. The weekend must be considered as free time, without homework. However, for students who know how to use different sources of information, television programs, diaries on activities, albums, herbaria, collections or projects are indicators of independent learning effects.

• The parent is an important factor in child education; therefore, the teacher should predict and design his /her commitment as an observer, supporter and information provider even outside class.

For parents:

• Despite parent’s experience, culture or certain stereotypes, he/she should be recruited into the teacher’s project. Homework must be evaluated and restructured under the teacher’s guidance. He/she is a professional in guarantying homework positive effects.

• The parent should be involved in training, consulting and instructing sessions, in order to help the child with homework. Parent’s interventions often affect negatively the formation of the child, as they may convey misconceptions or cause disorientation.

• Helping in the completion of homework is a task for the whole family, therefore, the same way parents declaim their daily activity, the child should present his impressions on the school day in general and on homework in particular. If the child demonstrates difficulties, the parent helps in homework completion and the next day communicates with the teacher concerning what is happening with the child.

• Parental pressure influences teachers’ performance, as a result, parents should make good use of this performance in view of the effectiveness of the process and children’ progress in learning. Cooperation with the teacher is a key element of the child successful performance at school.

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European Education and Training Programs

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Abstract European Union is an international entity with a multidimensional character. It has many institutions and politics connected with different aspects of the citizens' life in the member states of the European Union. Education and training are activities which are also incorporated in the main policies of the European Union. So, the main goal of this paper will be to examine the current situation in the field of training and education in the European Union, by making a retrospection of the programs in the past, analyzing the current programs and predicting the future steps in these areas. This goal will be achieved by using descriptive, comparative and analytical methods.

1. Introduction

The European Union is an international entity which is constituted with the Maastricht Treaty – 1993, and the European Community is established few years after the Second World war with the Treaty establishing a European coal and steel community, Paris, 1951, Treaty establishing a European economic community, Rome, 1957, and Treaty establishing a European atomic agency, Rome, 1957.

There are many institutions in the European Union which conduct, implement and control the various activities in different areas and fields. Some of them are: European Council, Council of the European Union (Council of ministers), European Commission, European Parliament, European Court of justice, European Court of auditors, etc.

EU also has many policies, programmes and projects which reflect the interests of the “European” citizens in different areas of their daily life. One of these policies is education, training and youth in the European Union and its member states. This policy generates many programmes, projects and operative activities which will be mentioned, examined and analyzed in this paper.

2. General information on education, training and youth in the European Union

Top-quality education and training are vital if EU is to develop as a knowledge society and compete effectively in the globalising world economy. Education policy as such is decided by each EU country, but together they set common goals and share best practices. In addition, the EU funds numerous programmes allowing its citizens to make the most of their personal development and the EU’s economic potential by studying, training or doing voluntary work in other countries. Students, teachers and educational establishments from other countries, particularly those bordering the EU or planning to join the Union, are eligible to take part in many of the programmes in this area, which are launched by the European Union. Through other programmes and cooperation agreements, EU also promotes exchanges and courses in European integration with some 80 countries around the world, from Mongolia to Mexico and Algeria to Australia.

3. History of the education and training programmes in the European Union

Education is now recognised at the highest EU level as an area for cooperation between member states and programmes such as Erasmus are some of the most high profile and well-known of all community actions. But, it was not always like this, because the framework for action on education and training has taken 30 years to develop.

Education was absent in the early years of European integration between 1948 and 1968, with the focus on building up economies in the aftermath of World War II. The founding fathers of the European Community felt that the Council of Europe, an intergovernmental body established in 1949, was the right forum to discuss cooperation in education and culture between member states and this remained the case in the following decades.

However, the Treaty of Rome, which established the European Economic Community in 1957, did contain the seeds of future cooperation in education and training, laying down several principles for dealing with issues such as on-the-job training and the recognition of qualifications across borders.

Towards the end of the 1960s, the situation gradually changed, as the vision of the European Community widened.
However, there was no consensus on how action should be organised, and over the course of several years, it became clear that a new basis for cooperation would be needed. It was not until 1976 that the principles of cooperation were adopted by education ministers under the first Community action plan on education. This non-binding Resolution identified six priorities for actions: educating the children of migrant workers, closer relations between education systems in Europe, the compilation of documentation and statistics, higher education, the teaching of foreign languages and equal opportunities. School education was also taken on board.

Community actions started with pilot projects, study visits and exchanges of information, which initially focused on the transition of young people to working life; cooperation and exchanges between universities, through joint study programmes and that was the precursor of the Erasmus programme; the education of children of migrant workers; and the exchange of information.

Cooperation was difficult in these early years due to the lack of a legal basis at the Community level and limited resources. Action was blocked completely between 1978 and 1980, but took off again in the early 1980s. However, these years created the essential conditions for more significant progress later on and carved out a totally new way of cooperating within the European Community. These can be seen as the first application of the subsidiary principle that now underpins EU laws. The principle means that member states cooperate while respecting the diversity of national situations and the power of member states' governments.

The second half of the 1980s saw the launch of a number of diversified and increasing large scale projects. Comett (1986) was the first, followed by Erasmus (1987), Petra (1987), Youth for Europe (1988), Lingua (1989), Eurotechnet (1989), Force (1990), and Tempus (1990). The adoption of these programmes was not easy on the political level, with national governments wary of interference. However, on the ground they were received well and proved to be major successes from the start.

Cooperation accelerated with the implementation of these programmes, with budgets far larger than those for the first action programme. For comparison, between 1990 and 1994 funding for all the programmes accounted for € 1 billion, compared with 10 years earlier, when € 14 million had been earmarked for the first action programme between 1980 and 1984.

The expansion and higher profile of Community cooperation on education and training boosted the recognition and status of these areas within the European Commission. The Maastricht Treaty in 1992 gave education legal status in the newly established European Union, and made the European Parliament and Council jointly responsible for cooperation in education and training. Action entered a new phase, especially with the rise of globalisation and the information society increasingly underlining the importance of education and training. The concepts of 'knowledge-based society' and 'lifelong learning' were coined and became increasingly well-known.

By 1995 a separate Directorate General of the European Commission was set up for education and culture. Programmes were consolidated in two stages. From 1995 to 1999 the six programmes were merged into two – Socrates for education and Leonardo da Vinci for vocational training. New measures were created such as Comenius for schools which now came under Community jurisdiction. The period from 2000 to 2006 saw further transformations, but it was only with the fourth and current generation of programmes (2007-2013) that more significant changes could be made.1

In this context, we should also mention the Sorbonna Declaration (25 may 1998), which is common document of the Ministers of education of France, Germany, Italy and Great Britain. This Declaration is entitled as “Common Declaration of harmonisation of the architecture of the European system on higher education”. As Kekenovski and Masevski (2003) are saying, the main point of this Declaration is to help EU and its member states to create a framework for mutual recognising of qualifications, acquired in different countries, but also to improve the student mobility and possibilities for employment of the youth.

The Bologna Declaration (19 June 1999) is also known as “The space of the European higher education”. It is signed by the ministers of education in 29 countries. This Declaration is focused on several goals: the cycles in higher education, the establishment of the ECTS (European credit transfer system), promotion of mobility of students, professors and academic staff, improvement of the quality in higher education and creation of unified working methodologies, cooperation of the appropriate institutions in different countries, etc.

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1 http://europa.eu/pol/educ/index_en.htm
4. Current situation in the area of education and training in the European Union and current programmes and activities

The launching of the Lisbon strategy in 2000, laying out the economic, social and environmental strategy for the EU up to 2010, brought education and training further to the forefront in its aim of achieving a ‘Europe of knowledge’. The strategy brought about the greatest changes to cooperation in the area and has made education and training of key importance to EU. For the first time, a single integrated framework was adopted by the European Council and a single programme devoted to lifelong learning, but also a new ‘Youth in action’ programme launched. Again, the funds allocated to education and training increased dramatically. In the 2007-2013 period the total should exceed over 1% of the Community budget, compared to only 0.1% in 1986.

After the Lisbon strategy was adopted, a new basis for policy cooperation was established, under the ‘Education and training 2010 work programme’. This established the basis for all subsequent education and training actions, set five overriding benchmarks and applies a new working method – ‘the open method for coordination’. Meanwhile, other developments have been happening in parallel. The Bologna process was launched in 1999 by 30 countries to create convergence between higher education systems and achieve a ‘European higher education area’, by 2010. The Copenhagen Process, signed in 2002, enhanced cooperation in vocational education and training across Europe. The decision to continue successful cooperation at EU – level under the open method of coordination was taken in may 2009, when the Education Council adopted the follow-up to the 2010 programme, the ‘Strategic framework for European cooperation in education and training (ET 2020)’.

The EU has introduced Europass documents, which present qualifications in a standard format. This make it easier for both workers and employers to understand and recognise qualifications from other countries, and thereby easier to work abroad. The Europass documents include the: Europass CV; Europass language passport; Europass mobility (recording time spent abroad for learning). The EU is not only facilitating the recognition of qualifications via the Europass documents, but also by making national education systems more comparable. This will not be done by a harmonisation of educational systems but rather through a common European Qualifications Framework (EQF) for lifelong learning. By 2012, every new qualification issued in the EU will have a reference to one of the eight EQF reference levels.

The EQF is the result of work in the so-called Copenhagen process. Thirty-two countries, including EU member states, discuss vocational education and training (VET) issues in this forum. They are also working on a European credit system for vocational education and training, as well as on a European network of quality assurance for VET. In higher education, EU is working with 19 other countries through the ‘Bologna process’ to create a European higher education area (EHEA) by 2010. The EHEA process promotes mutual recognition of periods of study, comparable qualifications and uniform quality standards.

The European Institute of innovation and technology is a new flagship body for pan European excellence in higher education, research and innovation. It will benefit from EU funding of €309 million for the period 2008-2013. The Institute will focus on translating research results into commercial applications by creating ‘knowledge and innovation communities’. This is a new model of partnership involving universities, research organisations, companies, foundations and other entities. Initial priorities will include climate change, renewable sources of energy and the next generation of information and communication technologies.

Policies for young people are not restricted to education. A European Youth Pact establishes common principles on opportunities for young people. It recognises their right to equal opportunities for participation in all aspects of society: high-quality education and training; job search facilities; jobs appropriate to their skills; social security entitlements and housing. The Youth in action programme promotes active involvement in the community and supports projects giving young people a greater sense of EU citizenship. For example, the EU enables individuals to work as a volunteer in other countries via the European Voluntary Service. The EU is investing a total of €900 million in these activities between 2007 and 2013.

The European Commission has integrated its various educational and training initiatives under a single umbrella, the Lifelong Learning Programme. With a significant budget of nearly €7 billion for the period 2007-2013, the new programme replaces previous education, vocational training and e-learning programmes, which ended in 2006. The programme enables individuals at all stages of their lives to pursue stimulating learning opportunities across Europe. There are four sub-programmes focusing on different stages of education and training and continuing previous programmes: Comenius for schools; Erasmus for higher education; Leonardo da Vinci for vocational education and training; Grundtvig for adult education.
4.1. Comenius

The Comenius programme focuses on the first phase of education, from pre-school and primary to secondary schools. It is relevant for all members of the education community: pupils, teachers, local authorities, parents’ associations, non-government organisations, teaching training institutes, universities and all other educational staff. Part of the Lifelong Learning Programme, Comenius seeks to develop knowledge and understanding among young people and educational staff of the diversity of European cultures, languages and values. It helps young people acquire the basic life skills and competences necessary for their personal development, for future employment and for active citizenship. The programme addresses issues strongly related to current discussions and developments in school policy.

Comenius has the following goals: to improve and increase the mobility of pupils and educational staff in different member states; to enhance and increase partnerships between schools in different member states, with at least 3 million pupils taking part in joint educational activities in 2010; to encourage language learning, innovative ICT-based content, services and better teaching techniques and practices; to enhance the quality and European dimension of teacher training; to improve pedagogical approaches and school management. This programme focuses on the following priority areas: motivation for learning and learning-to-learn skills; key competences – improving language learning, greater literacy, making science more attractive, supporting entrepreneurship, and reinforcing creativity and innovation; digital educational content and services; school management; addressing socio-economic disadvantages and reducing early school leaving; participation in sports; teaching diverse groups of pupils; early and pre-primary learning.

4.2. Erasmus

Erasmus is the EU’s flagship education and training programme, enabling more than 180 000 students to study and work abroad each year, as well as supporting cooperation actions between higher education institutions across Europe. It caters not only for students, but also for professors and business staff who want to teach abroad and for university staff who wants to be trained abroad. The Programme is named after the humanist and theologian Desiderius Erasmus of Roterdam (1465-1536) whose travels for work and study took in the era’s great centres of learning, including Paris, Leuven and Cambridge. Like the man, the Erasmus programme places great importance on mobility and furthering career prospects through learning. By leaving his fortune to the University of Basel, he became a pioneer of the mobility grants which now bear his name.

Studies show that a period spent abroad not only enriches student’s lives in the academic filed, but also in the acquisition of intercultural skills and self-reliance. Staff exchanges have similar beneficial effects, both for the people participating and for the home and host institutions. In addition to mobility actions, the Programme supports higher education institutions to work together through intensive programmes, networks and multilateral projects.

Around 90% of European universities take part in Erasmus and 2 million students have participated since it started in 1987. The annual budget is in excess of € 440 million, more than 4 000 higher education institutions in 31 countries participate, and even more are waiting to join.

Erasmus has become a driver in the modernisation of higher education in Europe and inspired the establishment of the Bologna Process. The general aim of the Programme is to create a ‘European Higher Education Area’ and foster innovation throughout Europe. Erasmus became part of the EU’s Lifelong Learning Programme in 2007 and expanded to cover new areas such as student placements in enterprises (transferred from the Leonardo da Vinci Programme), university staff training and teaching for enterprise staff. The Programme seeks to expand its mobility actions even further in coming years, with the target of 3 million Erasmus students by 2012. Actions include support for: students – studying abroad, doing a traineeship abroad, linguistic preparation; universities/higher education institution staff – teaching abroad, receiving training abroad; universities/higher education institutions – intensive programmes, academic and structural networks, multilateral projects; enterprises – hosting students’ placements, teaching abroad, participating in university cooperation projects.

Higher education institutions which want to participate in Erasmus actions must have an Erasmus University Charter. The Charter aims to guarantee a high level of quality in mobility and cooperation by setting out fundamental principles for all Erasmus actions that participating institutions must follow. The European Commission is responsible for the Erasmus programme’s overall implementation and its different actions. So-called ‘decentralised actions’ regarding individual mobility are run by national agencies in the 31 participating countries. Centralised actions such as networks, multilateral projects and the award of the Erasmus University Charter are managed by the Executive Agency for Education, Audiovisual and Culture, based in Brussels.
4.3. Leonardo da Vinci

The Leonardo da Vinci programme links policy to practice in the field of vocational education and training (VET). Projects range from those giving individuals the chance to improve their competences, knowledge and skills through a period abroad, to Europe-wide-cooperation between training organisations. Part of the European Commission’s Lifelong Learning Programme, the programme funds a wide range of actions, notably cross-border mobility initiatives; cooperation projects to develop and spread innovation; and thematic frameworks. The potential beneficiaries are similarly wide – from trainees in initial vocational training, to people already in the labour market, as well as VET professionals and private or public organisations active in this field.

Leonardo da Vinci enables VET organisations to work with European partners, exchange best practices, increasing the expertise of their staff and respond to the teaching and learning needs of people. It therefore supports efforts to make vocational education more attractive to young people. By helping European citizens to acquire new skills, knowledge and qualifications, the programme also aims to bolster the competitiveness of the European labour market.

Innovation projects have always been at the core of the Leonardo da Vinci programme. They aim to improve the quality of training systems through the development and transfer of innovative policies, contents, methods and procedures within vocational education and training.

4.4. Grundtvig

Launched in 2000 and now part of the general Lifelong Learning Programme, Grundtvig aims to provide adults with ways to improve their knowledge and skills, keeping them mentally fit and potentially more employable. It not only covers learners in adult education, but also the teachers, trainers, education staff and facilities that provide these services. These include relevant associations, counselling organisations, information services, policy-making bodies and others involved in lifelong learning and adult education at local, regional and national levels, such as NGO’s, enterprises, voluntary groups and research centres. There are also actions supporting adult learner mobility, such as exchanges and, now in the 2007-2013 period programme, so-called ‘European Assistantships’.

Specific aims of this Programme, are to: increase the number of people in adult education to 25 000 by 2013, and improve the quality for their experience, whether at home or abroad; improve conditions for mobility so that at least 7 000 people per year by 2013 can benefit from adult education abroad; improve the quality and amount of cooperation between adult education organisations; develop innovative adult education and management practices and encourage widespread application; ensure that people on the margins of society have access to adult education, especially older people and those who left education without basic qualifications; support innovative ICT-based educational content, services and practices.

Actions include support for: mobility, including visits, placements, ‘assistantships’, adult education exchanges (i.e. staff training and professional development) and the preparations needed to plan the exchanges; Grundtvig Learning Partnerships focusing on themes with mutual interest to participating organisations; multilateral projects for improving adult education systems through the development and transfer of innovation and good practice; Grundtvig networks of experts and organisations working on development of the adult education, spreading good practices and supporting partnerships. At least 55% of the total funding for Grundtvig should go towards mobility and partnership activities.

4.5. Macedonia and European education and training programmes

Macedonia, as a candidate country for membership in the European Union, but also before the acquirement of this status, is included in the education and training programmes of the European Union. The first instrument of EU related to education which was used by Macedonia, was the PHARE programme which incorporated many areas, and one of them was education, training and research. This programme was established for the period 1995-1999 and included financial help of € 6.7 billion.

The second instrument CARDS also comprised the segment of education, training and research in its framework. Macedonia was also actively included in the usage of the finances of this instrument, which were about € 4.65 billion for the period 2000-2006.

The current financial instrument for pre-accession – IPA, also incorporates the segment of education and training, and Macedonia is using these finances was or is active participant, and used/uses the privileges which come out of them.
Table No.1  Student mobility 1987-2008 *

Source: Power point presentation by Mag.Robert Marinshek, Ljubljana, 14.04.2010

5. Conclusion

According to the presented information in the paper, the only logical conclusion we can draw is that the education and training programmes in the European Union are continually developing, updating and growing. The financial support given to these programmes is rapidly increasing, the number of states involved in them is constantly going up. This means that the quantity and quality of the programmes at the same time, are having rectilinear movement through the history.

Still, a lot has to be done for improvement of the concrete implementation of the programmes for training and education in the European Union, because there is always some discrepancy between the normative and financial structure of the programmes and their operative implementation.

These programmes are a great opportunity not only for the member states in the European Union, but also for the states which are candidates or potential candidates for membership, because they give many opportunities for studying abroad, academic and professional exchanges, getting new experiences, etc.

At the end, we can note that investing in these programmes is very useful, although sometimes is hazardous. However, the final results which outcome from the education and training programmes in the European Union are always bigger than the incomes in them.

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Relationships Between Interaction in Class and Pupils' Achievements

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Abstract Teaching as a process where we gain knowledge, we develop abilities and form attitudes do not understand without teacher-pupil and pupil-pupil interaction in class, that reflects directly on pupils' achievements. According to teachers and pupils research has concluded that in primary schools predominates high level of teacher-pupil and pupil-pupil interaction in class, and that has a positive influence on pupils academic, and non academic achievements. The relationship between teacher-pupil and pupil-pupil interaction in class and pupils academic achievements and non academic or social achievements variables is a significant and important relationship.

1. Introduction

It is assumed that teacher-pupil and pupil-pupil interaction in class reflects on pupils achievements. The level of teacher-pupil and pupil-pupil interaction in class is related undisputedly with strategies, methods and techniques that different teachers choose to make his or her teaching. What is the meaning of interaction in class? Interaction as a process is been developed between two pairs, between the teacher and the pupils, but also between the pupils themselves. Interaction means active participation of pupils in construction of knowledge, active participation in working pairs, active participation in working groups, active and effective participation in compilation and applying of teaching modules, curricular projects, and different teaching activities. Interaction means questioning as an effective teaching method that we may find in a class climate interaction, means discussion in class for different teaching issues that help pupils to develop critical thinking abilities, problem solving abilities, analysis, synthesis, and assessment abilities. Interaction means measurement of pupil's achievements and assessment of them using advanced techniques for knowledge and ability assessment, but means also self-assessment of pupils that help them to develop self-assessment abilities of them. This dilemma of the relationships between level of teacher-pupil and pupil-pupil interaction and pupils' achievements is the premise of this research.

2. Methodology of Research

Main methods used in research on relationships between teacher-pupil and pupil-pupil interaction in class with pupils' academic and non academic or social achievements are quantitative, but we have used qualitative as well. In this research we have studied variables on their directly relationships with data generated by instruments implementation that are structured questionnaire for pupils and for teachers. Although to increase reliability of our research, we have used qualitative method that are semi structured interview applied with specialists of regional educational departments.

2.1 Instruments

The main instrument of research, on base of that we made statistical quantitative analysis, was structured questionnaire. We used two questionnaires to gain data: a structured questionnaire with pupils and a structured questionnaire with teachers. There were five dimensions on teacher structured questionnaire: (1) class climate, (2) teacher-pupil and pupil-pupil interaction in class and pupils' non academic or social achievements, (3) teacher-pupil and pupil-pupil interaction in class with pupil's academic achievements, (4) teacher professional development, (5) curriculum.

2.2 Quantitative analysis

Since the research for relationships between teacher-pupil and pupil-pupil interaction in class with pupil's academic and non academic or social achievements was mainly quantitative, statistical quantitative analysis was primary. In advance of other statistical analysis we derived frequencies of variables, so we determined statistical constants: mean, median, mode, standard deviation, variance, minimum and maximum, as well as detailed data related to derived values in
numerical and in percentage form. To find out the value of statistical significance, or with other word to verify if the relationship between teacher-pupil and pupil-pupil interaction in class with pupils’ academic and non academic or social achievements is significant or non significant we used cross tabulation through chi square test, where with “Pearson Chi Square” and “Phi and Cramer’s V” constant values we argued the relationship between variables in study. We used correlation to find out the strength and the direction of relationship between two main variables, through Pearson coefficient value. To confirm also the strength and the direction of relationship or the level of association between two main variables, we used bivariate regression. From this analysis, as well as confirmation of statistical significance value for relationship between two main variables, we derived another important indicator, “R Square”. To deepen analysis, based on “R Square” value derived from bivariate regression, we applied multivariate regression as well. The aim to use multivariate regression analysis was to verify the effect of other variables on dependent variable’s variance: (1) class climate, (2) teacher professional development, and (3) curriculum.

2.3 Qualitative analysis

To apply qualitative method we used semi structured interviews from which derived qualitative data. We used typology to evaluate the answers of the interviews. We used a systemic analysis to evaluate interviews’s data that served to support study work.

3. Findings

The main source of data, that served as a base for quantitative statistical analysis there were structured questionnaires with pupils and teachers, that we used on the population of pupils and teachers in six counties in the country.

3.1 Frequencies of main variables’ values

Interaction in class means a class where pupils involve in teaching process and where they sustain each others and that supposed to influence positively on pupils’ academic and non academic or social achievements; or a class where pupils work individually that supposed to influence negatively on pupils’ academic and non academic or social achievements. Below there is distribution of interaction in class with impact on pupils’ social achievements variable values - experimental group.

Table 1: Distribution of interaction in class with impact on pupil’s social achievements variable values - experimental group.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>No</th>
<th>Distribution of interaction in class with impact on pupils social achievements</th>
<th>Frequencies</th>
<th>%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Never</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>10.60</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Sometimes</td>
<td>126</td>
<td>40.60</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Frequently</td>
<td>85</td>
<td>27.40</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Always</td>
<td>66</td>
<td>21.30</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td></td>
<td>310</td>
<td>100.00</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Chart 1: Distribution of interaction in class with impact on pupil’s social achievements variable values - experimental group in %. 

150
Almost 49% of respondents- pupils of IV, V, VI grades, of primary schools- experimental group, report that there is high level of interaction in class with impact on pupils' social achievements in their classes frequently or always. Meanwhile about 51% of them report that there is high level of interaction in class with impact on pupils' social achievements in their classes never or sometimes. Almost 30% of respondents’ pupils of IV, V, VI grades, of primary schools- control group, report that there is high level of interaction in class with impact on pupils’ social achievements in their classes frequently or always. Meanwhile about 70% of them report that there is high level of interaction in class with impact on pupils’ social achievements in their classes never or sometimes. Although we see a big difference in distribution of interaction in class with impact on pupils social achievements variable values for experimental group 49% versus 51%, compared to control group 30% versus 70%, again we see the same tendency of values distribution. Predominates positivist, constructivist climate in IV, V, VI grades, as well as existence of instructive, passive climate that in control group reports to be in higher figures. In the majority of IV, V, VI grades of primary schools predominates teacher’s individualism work versus inclusion of them, versus cooperation and collaboration between pupils that influences negatively on social formation of pupils. Below there is distribution of interaction in class with impact on pupils’ academic achievements variable values - experimental group.

Table 2: Distribution of interaction in class with impact on pupil’s academic achievements variable values - experimental group.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>No</th>
<th>Interaction in class with impact on pupils academic achievements</th>
<th>Frequencies</th>
<th>%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Never</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>5.20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Sometimes</td>
<td>54</td>
<td>17.40</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Frequently</td>
<td>110</td>
<td>35.50</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Always</td>
<td>130</td>
<td>41.90</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>310</strong></td>
<td>100.00</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Almost 77% of respondents’ pupils of IV, V, VI grades, of primary schools- experimental group, report that there is high level of interaction with impact on academic achievements in their classes frequently or always. Meanwhile about 23% of them report that there is high level of interaction with impact on academic achievements in their classes never or sometimes. Almost 84% of respondents’ pupils of IV, V, VI grades, of primary schools- control group, report that there is high level of interaction with impact on academic achievements in their classes frequently or always. Meanwhile about 16% of them report that there is high level of interaction with impact on academic achievements in their classes never or sometimes. Although we see a difference in distribution of interaction in class with impact on pupils’ academic achievements variable values for experimental group 77% versus 23%, compared to control group 84% versus 16%, again we see the same tendency of values distribution. Predominates positivist, constructivist climate in IV, V, VI grades, as well as existence of instructive, passive climate that in control group reports to be in higher figures. In IV, V, VI grades of primary schools predominates high level of teacher- pupil and pupil- pupil interaction that influences positively on their academic achievements, as well as the presence of low level of teacher- pupil and pupil- pupil interaction that influences
negatively on their academic achievements. Comparing distribution of interaction in class with impact on pupils’ social achievements variable values generated by two groups of teachers experimental and control, result that we have almost the same tendency and the same reported figures. So, 87% of teachers’ experimental group and 82% of teachers’ control group state that high level of interaction with directly impact on social achievements of pupils repeats frequently or always; meanwhile 13% of teachers’ experimental group and 18% of teachers’ control group state that high level of interaction with directly impact on social achievements in their classes repeats never or sometimes.

3.2 Cross tabulation, Chi square test

Based on chi square test results, statistical significance value derived from analysis made for “Pearson Chi Square” and for “Phi and Cramer’s V” is .006. Value .006, that is to say 0,006 means that 0,006% is the possibility that the relationship between two variables to be by chance. With other words the relationship between two variables teacher- pupil and pupil- pupil interaction with pupils achievements is 94% significant, and is 6% probable that this relationship to be by chance. Another result we took on cross tabulation through teacher- pupil and pupil- pupil interaction with pupils’ social achievements for pupils’ experimental group. On this case statistical significance value is .001. This means that in this case the relationship between two variables: teacher- pupil and pupil- pupil interaction with pupils’ social achievements is 99.9% significant and 0.1% probable that this relationship to be by chance. Concluding we may say that the relationship between level of interaction in class and pupils’ academic achievements variables is a significant relationship, strong one and with reciprocal influence. The relationship between level of interaction in class and pupils’ social achievements variables is a significant relationship, strong one and with reciprocal influence too.

3.3 Correlation analysis

Generated data from correlation analysis for pupils’ experimental group gave us Pearson correlation coefficient value equally 0.041. This value means that there is a correlation between teacher- pupil and pupil- pupil interaction with pupils’ academic achievements variables near minimum value. This means also that there is a weak relationship between two variables in the study. Direction of correlation is positive linear. This means that increasing of values of one variable would result in increasing of values of the other variable as well. But the amount of influence is not considerable, even is near minimum value. As a conclusion we may say that although main tendency of positive linear correlation, the level of teacher- pupil and pupil- pupil interaction do not have considerable indication in pupils’ achievements. If we refer data generated by correlation analyses for pupils’ control group, based on Pearson Test, we would get Pearson correlation coefficient value equally 0.090. This value, apart from value differences compared to experimental group, means that there is a correlation between teacher- pupil and pupil- pupil interaction with pupils’ academic achievements variables near minimum value too. What about the value and direction of correlation between teacher- pupil and pupil- pupil interaction with pupil’s social achievements variables? If we refer data generated by correlation analysis for pupils’ experimental group, based on Pearson Test, we would get Pearson correlation coefficient value equally 0.105. This value, apart from value differences compared to correlation between teacher- pupil and pupil- pupil interaction with pupils academic achievements variables, means that there is a correlation near minimum value between teacher- pupil and pupil- pupil interaction with pupil’s social achievements variables. This means that there is a weak relationship between two variables in the study. Direction of correlation is positive linear in this case too. The value of Pearson correlation coefficient is 0.031 in the control group too, that indicates the tendency of relationships between variables. As a conclusion we may say that correlation between level of interaction in class and academic and pupil social achievements variables is a minimum correlation. Thus, the level of interaction in class has a minimum influence on pupils’ academic and social achievements.

3.4 Regression analysis

To explore the relationship between teacher- pupil and pupil- pupil interaction with pupils’ academic and social achievements, we used regression analysis in two forms: (1) bivariate regression, and (2) multivariate regression. Data generated from regressive analysis for the relationship between teacher- pupil and pupil- pupil interaction with pupils’ academic achievements variables for pupils’ experimental group gave us “R Square” value .000, that means that about 0% of variance on pupils’ academic achievements dependent variable is caused by teacher- pupil and pupil- pupil interaction independent variable. Meantime, data generated from regressive analysis for the relationship between teacher- pupil and pupil- pupil interaction with pupils academic achievements variables for pupils’ control group gave us
4. Conclusions

We involved in multivariate analyses except teacher-pupil and pupil-pupil interaction with pupils academic achievements variables, three other variables to find out their indication on dependent variable: (1) class climate, (2) interaction in class with impact on social achievements, (3) interaction in class with impact on academic achievements. Based on coefficients analysis result that “R Square” is .093, that means that only 9.3% of variance on pupils’ academic achievements is caused by by teacher-pupil and pupil-pupil interaction independent variable, meanwhile the other part of variance is caused by other unknown or hidden variables. Generally in IV, V, VI grades of primary schools predominates high level of teacher-pupil and pupil-pupil interaction that indicates negatively on their academic achievements. Meanwhile for pupils’ control group gave us “R Square “ value .031, that means that only 3.1% of variance on pupils’ social achievements dependent variable is caused by by teacher-pupil and pupil-pupil interaction independent variable, meanwhile the other part of variance is caused by other unknown or hidden variables. Comparing results from qualitative analysis with results from qualitative analysis, we may say that although indication of level of interaction in class variable on academic and social achievements variable is low, this is according to correlation analysis, based on regressive analyses result that 0.8% of variance on pupils’ academic and social achievements is caused by interaction in class variable. Meantime percentage of variance on social achievements that is caused by level of interaction in class varies from 1.1-3.1%.

Comparing results from qualitative analysis with results from qualitative analysis, we may say that qualitative instruments' findings support quantitative ones.

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a significant and important relation, and there is very few possibilities that this relationship come by chance.

- The relation between teacher- pupil and pupil- pupil interaction in class with pupils’ non academic or social achievements is a significant and important relation, and there are fewer possibilities that this relationship come by chance.
- The correlation between teacher- pupil and pupil- pupil interaction in class with pupils’ academic and non academic or social achievements variables is a minimum correlation, that means that the level of interaction in class has a minimum influence on pupils’ academic and non academic or social achievements.
- The generated data by bivariate regressive analysis for the variance on the pupil’s academic and non academic or social achievements caused by teacher- pupil and pupil- pupil interaction in class variable indicates that there is a low caused variance.
- Percentage of variance caused by indication of independent variables: (1) class climate, (2) interaction in class with impact on social achievements, (3) interaction in class with impact on academic achievements there is also a low value.

5. Recommendations

- The teachers must create in their teaching a cooperation, collaboration, and inclusive climate of pupils in class that would increase pupil’s participation in the learning process and would also support their achievements.
- The teachers must design a teacher- pupil and pupil- pupil interactive environment in their teaching, that would influence on pupils’ working groups education, cooperation, coo participation, and responsibilities’ sharing.
- The teachers must design a teacher- pupil and pupil- pupil interactive environment in their teaching that would influence on pupils’ academic achievements.
- The teachers must design a teacher- pupil and pupil- pupil interactive environment in their teaching that would influence on pupils’ non academic or social achievements.
- Responsible educational institutions for professional development of teachers, central and local, would compile and use long- term, median- term, and short- term programmes for professional development of teachers, including class climate and interaction in class programmes.
- University teachers’ faculties must assess the report knowledge- ability in the curriculum of initial training of teachers meaning usage of a harmonically report through them including knowledge and ability for class climate, and teacher- pupil and pupil- pupil interaction in class that would influence on the quality increasing of teacher initial training.

References


Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety - A Classroom Perspective

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Abstract: This paper reports on Foreign Language Anxiety (FLA), a topic that has long been a focus of second language researchers. This is an important affective factor that influences the process and the outcome of foreign language learning. The first part of the paper deals with the most important FLA definitions. A detailed analysis of the FLA research conducted at the Faculty of Philosophy in Nikšić, University of Montenegro, is offered in the second part of the paper. Participants of the study included students who are learning two foreign languages at the Department of English Language and Literature. The research was carried out on a sample of 190 university students studying French, German, Italian, Russian and Spanish as a second foreign language in a regular university setting. The participants completed the Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety Scale questionnaire (FLCAS) developed by Horwitz (1983). The primary goal of this research was to determine the level of FLA reported by the students. The obtained results indicate that the anxiety from the second foreign language (Spanish, Italian, French and German) appears among the first year students, and, generally speaking, it increases in intensity with the acquisition of greater foreign language knowledge during the two years of studies. The results indicate that there is foreign language anxiety, and that it is still present with the increase of the years of studying, except among the first and third year Russian language students at the English Language and Literature Department.

Key words: Anxiety, Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety, Anxiety Scale

1. Introduction

In almost all European countries, learning at least one foreign language is compulsory. Today students learn two or sometimes even three foreign languages simultaneously as compulsory subjects of a curriculum. The knowledge of a second foreign language has become the imperative in the modern world. But, to achieve this goal, sometimes, can be very hard and almost impossible. In recent years there has been extensive research into aspects of differences in learning the second language. Some dimensions of learner differences are generally acknowledged such as age, aptitude, motivation, cognitive style, anxiety, attitude and learning strategies. In this paper we attempt to review and discuss one of them: anxiety. Anxiety is one of the psychological phenomena. Anxiety was defined by Freud as "something felt," an emotional state that included feelings of apprehension, tension, nervousness, and worry accompanied by physiological arousal. FLA recognized as an affective factor in foreign language learning and normally discussed alongside other individual learner differences (Gardner & MacIntyre, 1993), is still considered to be a relatively new and developing area within foreign language research. Many students find foreign language learning in classroom situations stressful. Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety (FLCA) is considered to be a situational anxiety experienced in the well-defined situation of the foreign language classroom (Maclntyre & Gardner, 1994). As such, Horwitz, Horwitz and Cope (1991) view FLCA as “a distinct complex of self-perceptions, beliefs, feelings, and behaviors related to classroom language learning arising from the uniqueness of the language learning process” (in Horwitz & Young, 1991: 31). According to Horwitz (1986), there are three main factors in the foreign language classroom anxiety experience: communication apprehension or fear about real or anticipated communication with other people, test anxiety or fear of failing in test situations and fear of negative evaluation.

2. Research in the Field of Foreign Language Anxiety

Although the results of scholarly research are sometimes contradictory, it is useful to know what the research in the field of language anxiety has shown. These findings are important from both the theoretical and practical aspect. On one hand, they can contribute significantly to the understanding of the foreign language learning process, and, on the other hand, they can help students understand why they feel the fear, become aware of the fact that other students feel it as well, and find suitable strategies to fight it.

The variety of the research results indicates that it is a rather complex phenomenon, and its influence on the success in foreign language learning is neither insignificant nor straightforward. Numerous studies show that there is a significant
tendency towards the development of apprehension in the process of learning a foreign language (MacIntyre and Gardner, 1989). Campbell and Ortiz (Campbell and Ortiz in Horwitz and Young, 1991) also believe that more than half of the students of foreign languages feel different degrees of anxiety of learning a foreign language.

The results of most studies show a negative correlation between anxiety and success in learning. This means that the higher the apprehension, the less successful the learning. Young (Young in Mihaljević Djigunović, 2002:13) established that respondents who felt higher apprehension achieved poorer results in oral exam. The study that was carried out by Trylong (Trylong in Mihaljević Djigunović, 2002: 13) showed that the respondents with higher apprehension were less successful on their oral exams, written tests, and had lower final marks in foreign language. Gardner et al. (1987) established a negative correlation between the apprehension that the respondents felt in French class and the listening test, reading comprehension, active vocabulary use, and even the self-assessment of their knowledge of French.

Interestingly, some studies have shown how language anxiety is connected with only some aspects of language knowledge and skills. Thus, Swain and Burnaby (Swain and Burnaby, 1976: 115-128) indicated a significant negative correlation with only one aspect of language competence in French language among children, but not with other examined aspects. Gardner et al. (1987) established that there is a significant connection between anxiety and active use of vocabulary, but not between anxiety and the quality of language use. Ely (Ely, 1986: 437-446) indicates with his results that students who feel great uneasiness during their language class are not willing to take risks, but he did not establish the correlation between anxiety and the level of class participation.

A group of scholars obtained contradictory results: a statistically significant negative correlation between anxiety and success in one language or in one group of respondents, and an opposite statistically significant positive correlation between language anxiety and success in other language or in another group of respondents. It is difficult to determine reliably the connection between language anxiety and success in foreign language learning.

It is believed that there are two essential reasons for different results in scholarly research. “Firstly, foreign language learning […] is a very complex process which is influenced by a number of variables (attitudes, motivation, talent, intelligence, learning strategies, etc.), and it is, hence, difficult to determine the importance of a single variable: it is possible that anxiety affects learning only in the case of weak learning abilities. Secondly, researchers measure language anxiety in different ways, as there still is not a generally accepted instrument for measuring this phenomenon.” (Mihaljević Djigunović, 2000: 14).

Researchers believe that language anxiety is an acquired emotional reaction, and that at the beginning a student experiences a form of apprehension that is connected with a certain situation during the learning process. When these feeling begin to repeat, the student gradually starts to identify the apprehension with the foreign language learning. The intensity of foreign language anxiety can become rather strong as time passes, and can, thus, have a crucial influence on learning.

Horwitz (Horwitz 1983) developed the Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety Scale by linking the foreign language classroom anxiety with the apprehension of communication, testing and social evaluation. She believes that communication apprehension is a reaction on real or expected act of speaking, which sometimes we feel in our mother tongue communication. Furthermore, she points out that the apprehension of social evaluation appears due to the social nature of language use: communication in a foreign language is, also, self-representation, but in a language for which we are only partially competent. Test anxiety is a consequence of the academic nature of the formal context of second-language learning. The author thinks that language anxiety is a combination of beliefs, feelings, self-experience, and behaving which appear during foreign language learning in a formal environment and which are specific for the foreign language learning process. The scale or instrument which was developed by Horwitz is used for measuring foreign language classroom anxiety (FLCAS-Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety Scale). Because of its high quality and reliability, it has been used for numerous world languages and cultures, and it has found its application, i.e. it has been used in this research, as well.

3. Research in Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety

3.1. Research Goals

The goal of this research is to determine the foreign language anxiety level in students experience in different foreign languages, the presence of a low, medium or high apprehension among them, and if there is a connection between language anxiety and the number of years they have been studying the second foreign language.
3.2. Instrument

For this research, we used an already existing instrument, the Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety Scale (FLCAS), which was developed by Horwitz. The scale consists of a general part and 33 claims which test apprehension from: communication, assessment and negative social classroom evaluation, and the degree of agreeing with the claims. The claims under these numbers: 2, 5, 8, 11, 14, 18, 22, 28 and 32 are recoded. The absolute results span is 33 - 165 points, and a bigger scale result indicates a higher level of foreign language anxiety. A Likert-type rating scale was used with the span 1 – 5 (1 - strongly disagreeing with the statement, 2 – mostly disagreeing with the statement, 4 – mostly agreeing with the statement, 5 – completely agreeing with the statement, and 3 – neutral/indecisive attitude towards the statement). The analysis of the obtained data gives an insight into the level of foreign language anxiety in a formal surrounding: low, medium or high. The obtained data was quantitatively analyzed.

3.3. Sample Group

The research was carried out at the Faculty of Philosophy in Nikšić, at the English Language and Literature Department among the students of the first (N 110), and third (N 80) year of undergraduate studies. The research involved the overall number of 190 participants who study German, French, Italian, Russian and Spanish as a second foreign language. At all philological study programs at the Faculty of Philosophy in Nikšić, the second foreign language is studied for six semesters, with the class load of four classes per week. Students choose the second foreign language that they prefer to study at their undergraduate studies.

3.4. Research Procedure

A questionnaire was carried out during foreign language classes without the students being previously informed about the research. It was applied anonymously in order to get as honest answers to the questions as possible.

4. Research Results and Discussion

After the analysis of the questionnaire, the results showed that the first year students at the English Language and Literature Department have a low language anxiety level. It is worth noting that a low apprehension is mostly present for the language that students learn for the first time, i.e. for the language which they hadn't learned in secondary and primary school. Furthermore, when Russian, which they had studied previously, is concerned, the apprehension is very low. With this, it should be noted that 16 or 88.89% of students, who had previously been studying this language from 5 to 10 years, chose to attend the course of Russian as a second foreign language at the English Language and Literature Department, while 2 (11.11%) of students did not write the number of years they had been studying the language.

Since Gardner et al. (1977) established that with the increase of language competence increases the number of positive experiences in the use of foreign language and decreases language anxiety, we compared the obtained results from the first year students with the results obtained from the third year students and came to the conclusion that at this department with the increase of language knowledge, language anxiety does not decrease. Gardner (1979) claims that with the increase of language knowledge, decreases language anxiety. This research does not confirm his theory, since the obtained results are quite the opposite. Namely, after two years of learning and attending second language classes, as a compulsory course at the undergraduate studies, second foreign language anxiety increased with all the mentioned languages, except Russian.

The research showed that 51.81% of participants decided in their first year to enroll on the second language course which they had not studied in secondary and primary school. All students did not fill in the information in the questionnaire regarding the number of years they had been studying the second foreign language, and with this 11.11% are the students of Russian language, 16.67% of Italian, and 10.52% of German.

It is possible that the reason for the low apprehension among the first year students is their insufficient familiarity with the fact whether that language is difficult or not, their rash decision and desire to learn and acquire a larger number of foreign languages, or the attraction of a challenge. However, when language anxiety appears with a relatively low intensity, as is the case with the first year students, it can have a motivational effect as it encourages them to put an effort into it, to face the unknown, to face a new task, in other words, to struggle. Bailey (Bailey, 1983) emphasizes this motivating effect of the low intensity of apprehension. Likewise, Gardner (Gardner in Mihaljević Djigunović, 2000) claims that the positive effect of language anxiety, or low apprehension, can be attributed to the influence of motivation.
After two years of studying a second foreign language, there is still a higher degree of apprehension among the students, except for those studying Russian. It is hard to say whether it is the case that with the increase of years of studying a foreign language, students gradually become demotivated for learning, more aware of the difficulties and requirements involved in learning a foreign language, if they do not have enough time to dedicate to learn a foreign language, and if these are the only reasons why a low apprehension was not maintained, or decreased, but, on the contrary slightly increased among all the participants, except Russian language students. We did not expect this result, since we believed that with the increase of foreign language knowledge, language anxiety decreases. The result which was obtained from the answers of the first and third year Russian language students indicates that there is no second language anxiety among them. It would be good to research if the reasons for this were a good previous knowledge, a good teacher, a quality and adequate study program and textbook which was used, classroom environment or something else. The obtained results would help us understand how to decrease the classroom anxiety with the increase of the years of studying the language. We must not neglect the results which indicate the absence of apprehension, as an affective factor, in the Russian language classroom at the English Language Department. We believe that it would be useful to carry out a new research to find out the impact of apprehension on second foreign language learning, which would contribute to the awareness of the (non-)existence of second foreign language apprehension, and would point out to a solution to this problem.

In her research, Horwitz links foreign language classroom anxiety to the communication apprehension, testing apprehension and social evaluation apprehension. We were, also, interested to know the intensity of these fears in the classroom. We examined the intensity of apprehension by these categories separately, and contrasted the obtained results between the first and third year of studies.

**a) Classroom Communication Apprehension**

Communicologists point out that communication apprehension appears because of reticence, shyness, lack of willingness to communicate, and it is connected with academic success, traits of personality, choice of profession, self-respect, nonverbal behavior, and peer perception (Mihaljević Djigunović, 2002: 23-25). A person having problems with communicating in general will have difficulties with speaking in the classroom environment, as well. Since classroom communication, especially during foreign language classes, is out of student’s control, and his participation in activities and communication is followed and evaluated, he will have difficulties in speaking and understanding.

The highest low communication apprehension intensity was found among the students of the Russian as a second foreign language, or, rather, it could be said that it does not exist, since 88.89% of participants answered that they have a low apprehension. We can take this result as a model and wish for the percentage of an apprehension as low as this one to be found in the classrooms of other foreign languages, as well. Since our goal was pointing out to the presence or absence of classroom communication apprehension, we will not compare it with other foreign languages that were covered with this research, but only point out to its presence or absence with desire to indicate to what extent its presence may obstruct the second foreign language acquisition. The low type of apprehension of 44.4% is found in the case of Spanish as the second foreign language, for which 92.5% of respondents answered that they had not studied it before. French had not been studied by 47.6% in previous schooling, and yet a low apprehension in classroom communication is felt by 40.9%. The highest level of medium apprehension and stronger intensity is found among the Italian language students. The medium apprehension is present with twice as high an intensity than the other two types, and with this the high apprehension intensity (medium + high type) is found three times more than the low one. Possible reason for this is that 30% of students did not study this language before the enrollment in the first year of studies.

It is well-known that children have a very positive opinion about their foreign language learning abilities, but with growing up that self-evaluation becomes more realistic and, often, less positive, as is the case with the third year students when their classroom communication apprehension is concerned. Now we have a different image, i.e. classroom communication apprehension increased and low intensity apprehension is of the lowest intensity.

We, once again, find the low apprehension among the Russian language students (92.85%), but, among the students of all the other languages, the high classroom communication apprehension dominates. It is interesting that after two years of studying a language, language anxiety increased significantly and this among the languages where we have the highest percentage of students who study them for the first time in the first year of studies. Thus, it should not be neglected the result obtained from the Spanish language participants where the high fear is found among 14.81% of respondents, and even 60.90% in the third year. It is a similar case with the French language where high apprehension in the first year appears among 22.72% of participants, and in the third year 53.40%. Likewise, when German is concerned, the high apprehension intensity is 36.84% in the first year, and 75% among the participants from the third year of studies.
It is obvious that students with high apprehension are afraid to communicate in foreign language in classroom. Oxford (Oxford, 1990) indicates that apprehension reinforces inhibitions among students, decreases their readiness to take risks, and, with that, the desire to communicate in a foreign language. Krashen (Krashen, 1981) indicates that forceful participation in communication can increase communication apprehension among students, cause their withdrawal and decrease the motivation for learning. All of this can lead to bad results in foreign language learning.

We will try to establish to a certain degree in the continuation of this paper whether this classroom communication apprehension is caused by the already mentioned factors, the expected grading, or negative social evaluation.

b) Test Anxiety

Test anxiety is the consequence of the academic nature of the formal context of learning a foreign language. It is believed that language anxiety is a combination of beliefs, feelings, self-experience and behaving which appear during foreign language learning in a formal environment and which are specific for the foreign language learning process. Students are afraid of making mistakes during the communication, afraid that they might not understand well their interlocutors, afraid of the teachers’ reaction while being aware that everything is going on under their watchful eye, and that they will evaluate their knowledge, i.e. grade them, based on that. Thus, by learning a foreign language we can feel the direct threat of a bad mark. (Mihaljević Djigunović, 2002).

Ely (Ely, 1986) indicates with the obtained research results that students who feel great uneasiness in the foreign language class are not risk-takers, and it is well-known that without this willingness there is no quality learning, and, hence, there are no good grades.

Test anxiety research indicates that individuals with lower apprehension are more successful than those with a higher one (Holmes, 1972). We believe that this shows their desire to get a good mark and their concern for success or that this apprehension comes from the fear of failure. This result may be regarded as predictable since it is expected that the first year students desire to prove themselves, they are ambitious and wish good marks.

The results of the test anxiety research among the third year students indicate that there was a decrease in the intensity of the mentioned anxiety. It is possible that our research confirmed the hypothesis of Alpert and Haber (Alpert and Haber, 1960), that test anxiety may have a motivational effect on students. Apparently, our result indicates that high test anxiety which they had in the first year motivated and encouraged them to work harder and, hence, the anxiety decreased.

There is no high test anxiety among the first and third year students who study Russian as the second foreign language. We did not expect this result and believe that the apprehension that is, in a small degree, present among these students motivates them to work harder and this leads to the positive result of the absence of higher grading apprehension. This, unfortunately, is not a common result. Namely, high apprehension appears both among 50% of the first year French language students and 66.66% of the third year students, and 50% of the first year German language students, and 60% of the third year students. We can clearly see here that there is an increase in high level of apprehension with the increase of the years of studying these languages. It is interesting to note the results which show a decrease in high apprehension among 13.04% of the third year Spanish language students in relation to 55.55% of the first year students who experience it.

c) Fear of Negative Evaluation

Fear of negative evaluation apprehension appears because of the social nature of language use: the communication in a foreign language is at the same time self-representation, but in a language in which we are partially competent. Students are not only exposed to the teacher’s assessment of their knowledge in a classroom, but also of other students as well, which can increase the apprehension.

Numerous studies in language anxiety showed that fear of being ridiculed, which is very strong, influences the verbal behavior and may cause avoidance of active participation during the lessons or even total withdrawal from or giving up studying altogether.

The research results obtained from the first year students show a low level of negative social evaluation apprehension. At the same time, there is a decrease in low and increase in medium and high apprehension among the third year students, with the exception of the Russian language students where in the first and third year there is only a low level of apprehension.

Obviously, the low negative social evaluation apprehension among the first year students increases as they become more familiar with the environment. This apprehension refers to the fear of the evaluation of others. Students are
concerned about how they will look in the eyes of others, about losing their “image”, being ridiculed, about being corrected by other students when they make mistakes, etc. After studying the second foreign language for two years, they get to know their peers better, and, unfortunately, the intensity of medium and high level of apprehension increases, which was not expected with this research.

4. Conclusion

With this research, we tried to establish to which degree the anxiety from different foreign languages is present among the first and third year students at the English Language and Literature Department. The obtained results indicate that the anxiety from the second foreign language (Spanish, Italian, French and German) appears among the first year students, and, generally speaking, it increases in intensity with the acquisition of greater foreign language knowledge during the two years of studies, familiarization with the classroom environment and regular assessment. This does not confirm the theory that “with the increase of language competence increases the number of positive experiences in the use of foreign language and decreases language anxiety” (Gardner et al., 1977). However, we established that there is no foreign language anxiety among the first and third year Russian language students. We emphasize that, when Russian is concerned, 88.89% have been studying this language in the period from 5 to 10 years. We wonder if the years of studying and being exposed to the language in the environment of formal teaching were one of the reasons for the absence of the second foreign language anxiety among the students.

Communication apprehension appears at the beginning, but, after two years of studying it, decreases and becomes low. Among the Russian language students, 88.89% opted for the low type of communication apprehension. As for the test anxiety, it is more intense among the first year students, but it gradually decreases afterwards. The high type of test anxiety among the Russian language students is absent both in the first and third year. Fear of negative evaluation apprehension is of a low intensity among the first year students only to increase in time and become the so-called medium one. The results indicate that there is foreign language anxiety, and that it is still present with the increase of the years of studying, except among the first and third year Russian language students at the English Language and Literature Department.

References


Teacher Motivation: A Factor for Classroom Effectiveness and School Improvement

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Abstract Teachers are the most important factor in determining the quality of education that children receive. Teacher motivation could therefore be referred to as those factors that operate within the school system which if not made available to the teacher could hamper performance, cause stress, discontentment and frustration all of which would subsequently reduce classroom effectiveness and student quality output. A great number of different changes which happen in Albanian society have direct influence in educational development effecting principal actor, teachers. Motivation and demotivation are strongly connected with their performance. The purpose of this study is to contribute on knowing the phenomenon of motivation and its importance in teachers and to find out if teacher motivation would subsequently be translated to classroom effectiveness and school improvement.

Key word: School, Teacher, Motivation, Effectiveness school, Classroom

Introduction

School is the institution where the new generation is educated. They learn the difficulties they will face in the future. The main subject that deals with them in this institution is the teacher whom vision in the future will serve like a model for the children. Due to this, we must understand that work is the example that teacher gives in the classroom and school is very important for the pupils. Teachers as main actors have to complete a huge work; they should be motivated and helpful for the pupils in order to increase their abilities and the level of education process. As a result of important changes that our country has faced, such as: political aspect and economical, school has also its own changes due this evolution. Schools in Albania have been through had the development and their construction but again we can observe lack of process of education and infrastructure. The environment in schools contain old objects or furniture, there are no labs that are very important in the process of education, there is no heating system that creates difficulties, even we must have confrontation between colleagues. Together with the physical changes in schools, the concept of the teacher and school has changed. An important element that influences in the development and professional growth is the motivation. Thus this is the exact factor, that encourages all the knowledge taken over the years, stimulate the teachers to be more sociable and the most important thing is the increase of quality in teachers' daily job. Teachers' motivation is an important concept in every institution, specifically in school. If teachers are motivated, their productivity in the process of education will be in a higher level influencing directly in the job’s effectiveness of the teachers in the classroom with the pupils and their competition with other schools. The motivation includes itself three processes that are psychological: arousal, direction and intensity. Schools are the most vital social institution in any advanced society. How well they work is a concern for teacher, parents, manager, employers and most of all pupils. Teachers are arguably the most important group of professionals for our nation’s future. Therefore, it is disturbing to find that many of today’s teachers are dissatisfied with their jobs. School as an educational institution takes a special place in the formation of citizen values of pupils, their preparation to confront the obstacles, skills to work, to live in a multicultural society, to be active and responsible in life and society. Teachers play an important role in the process of learning whose in the major cases try to be the copy of their teachers. They are the main base in the development of a country after they have created strong knowledge to young people that stimulate continuous success. Meanwhile they are one of the most important professional groups for the future of our country we should keep in mind that most of the teachers are not pleased with their work. As a result of major changes that has face our country in the political aspect; school has its own changes due to this evolution. Together with the physical differences the concepts of teacher, its status, or the school concept has
changed. An important element that influences the development and professional growth is the motivation. Motivation is a psychological concept, very important in academic life, and has a big importance into qualitative work. Teachers’ motivation is very important nevertheless nowadays it is thought that together with the technological development, the performance of work will be increased, it should be emphasised that the most important thing in education is the frequent work of teachers. The continuous motivation is necessary for the continuous growth of qualitative educational system in all over the world and specifically in Albania. Teacher motivation is an essential factor for classroom effectiveness and school improvement. This motivation has to do with teachers’ desire to participate in the education process. The motivation increases when the main needs are completed. If needs such as: insurance, evaluation, physical education, professional aspect etc. are complete the motivation will be higher. If teachers needs are not taken in consideration, but are taken in advance, without existing then the motivation for the work will be low and the quality in work and the positive results will not be present. Motivation in a broad sense, according to Ramalingam (2006) refers to: a process of including the activeness of an organism and determining its orientation. It is something that propels action, originating from within the person to achieve a goal that energizes and/or maintains behaviour. Tolman (1958) referred to it as “an intervening variable” which Kerlinger (1973) identified as an internal and psychological processes that were not directly observable but which in turn accounted for behaviour. According to Cole (1986) motivation is a term used to describe those processes both initiative and rational by which people seek to satisfy the basic drivers, perceived needs and personal goals, which trigger off human behaviour. In other words, motivation is a management function that stimulates individuals to accomplish institutional goals. Effectiveness is the "what of change" while improvement is the "how of change" (Stoll and Fink 1996). Therefore teacher motivation is anything done to make teachers happy, satisfied, positive and committed in such a way that they bring out their best in their places of work so that both students, parents and the society will greatly benefit from their services Efficacy has to do with how a teacher feels about his or her ability to do their job. Gordon (2001) says that, “Teacher efficacy is sometimes considered to be an indicator or prediction of teaching effectiveness” (p. 5). A more contemporary word for efficacy could be confidence. Teacher who have highly efficacious do their tasks with a great degree of optimism are very confident in their ability to do that job well. Motivation and efficiency are connected to each another. Being motivated means being efficient in our job. If the teachers are motivated in their job, then they will be efficient in their work in class with the pupils and if the teacher is unmotivated then he/she will be non – efficient in his job. According to Brophy (1983), the most important reason for a lack of success in schools is low motivation among teachers and pupils. Studies have proved the importance of the motivation factor into the effectiveness and the performance of teacher’s job with pupils. During the job process in education to enrich aims and objectives it is obvious that the level of stress and demotivation between teachers is higher compared with other jobs (Jesus and Conboy 2001). This situation can be explained from the relation between satisfaction and the teachers’ motivation. According to Reyes (1990) there is a positive relationship between teachers’ motivation and satisfaction in work. Supporting this idea her research including a study of 375 teachers in Connecticut in which Anderson and Iwanicki (1984) determined a significant correlation between motivational factors such as autonomy, job security and the burnout levels. In a study made from Handerson-Sparks (1995) with 135 schools in California the factors that influence in the decrease of teachers performance and in the effectiveness are: the lack of motivation, tiredness and personal troubles. If we are focused in educational system dealing with 9-years school is found there are a large number of factors that influence the teachers’ performance in school. These factors may be related with the educational system, background, sex, years in a job, qualification, conditions in work, etc. This study is focused to all the complete needs or lack that directly influence to the teachers performance and in the effectiveness of the classroom. Teachers are aware that reformers of education may establish new schools, effect changes in structure and curriculum, recommend and prescribe teaching methods and aids, in the end the teacher will be solely responsible for applying them.

Unfortunately, despite the obvious leading role teachers’ play in school towards attaining educational objectives several authors including Ndu (1998), Ala-Adeyemi and Afolabi (1990) and the International Labour Organization (ILO, 1990) report lamented that the motivation of teachers had reached an intolerable low point. Rosa Mafia Torres, the Senior Education Adviser in UNICEF, declared that the condition of teachers had for too long become the most critical "Achilles heels" of educational development in our area. Another study that shows clearly the importance of teacher’s motivation in his efficiency and performance in his job was that done in Nigeria. In this study participated 772 (10%) public primary and secondary school teachers selected through strategic random sampling technique from the south eastern part of the country participated in the study. Data was collected using a survey instrument designed by the researcher. Analysis of data revealed that the participating teachers almost unanimously agreed that teacher motivation is a vital factor for classroom effectiveness and school improvement. In this study was noticed that the teachers were unhappy, frustrated, uninspired and unmotivated. The elements that affected in their demotivation were: the school environment is dotted with dilapidated buildings equipped with outdated laboratory facilities and equipment, teachers at times have to work under the
most unsafe and unhealthy conditions. All these affected the teachers showing a low level in their work performance. The study addressed the issue of teacher motivation as an essential factor for classroom effectiveness and school improvement. Teacher motivation has to do with teachers’ desire to participate in the education process. It was therefore recommended that teachers need to be adequately motivated (salaries must be paid as at when due and teaching facilities made available) for an effective viable school system.

**The aim of** this study is to contribute in the aspect of knowledge and to explore if teachers’ motivation influences to the effectiveness in classroom and the improvement of school level. To emphasize the factors that enrich the effectiveness and the increase of educative process and the identify the factors that influence in the demotivation and the decrease of the effectiveness in their job.

**The objectives of this study are:**

- To emphasize the role that the motivation has into the jobs’ effectiveness of the teachers’.
- To show the factors that influence to the teachers’ job.
- To show the importance that effectiveness has to increase the quality of education process to the pupils.
- To show the importance that motivation has to the effectiveness and jobs’ performance of teachers.
- To show the importance that effective job has and the establishment of specific conditions in the job environment and the importance to their job.

**Methodology**

The importance of this chapter is to describe the used methodology in this study. In this part will be presented in details the plan of study and the chosen criteria. The study was focused in three public schools in Elbasan “Qamil Gurajaku”, “Sami Frasheri”, and “Bardhyl Popa”. Teachers of elementary and secondary school have been part of this study. The average age of teachers is 30-55 years old.

- “Qamil Gurajaku” school has 35 teachers, where 29 are females and 6 males. Their age varies from (35-55 years old). In this school there are 717 pupils, 24 classrooms where 14 classrooms of elementary and 10 classrooms of secondary school.
- “Sami Frasheri” school has 32 teacher where 30 are females and 2 males. Their age varies from (30-55 years old). This school has 965 pupils. There are 35 classrooms in total where 17 classrooms of elementary and 17 classrooms of secondary school.
- “Bardhyl Popa” school has 37 teachers where 30 are females and 3 males. Their age varies from 39-46 years old. There are 596 pupils. In total are 29 classrooms where 11 classrooms of elementary school and 17 classrooms of secondary school.

There are 104 teachers in these schools, in general 100 teachers took part in this study and 4 teachers did not accept to take part. All the teachers have the right university degree.

**Instruments:** The measurable instruments used are interviews and questionnaires. In the selection of this study there are 104 teachers of different subject. In this study took part 100 teachers where 4 of them didn’t accept. The questionnaires are divided in three sections. This questionnaire has questions with opening, ending and closing endings.

The objective of first section is to collect demographic information such: qualification and teachers experience etc. The objective of the second section is to collect information related to motivation and its importance in job, classroom effectiveness and to increase the quality of education in schools. This section lead by teachers has questions with closing ending where is used Likert’s step. The third section has been requested by teachers to put in order the motivation factors that influence to teachers and their effectiveness in classrooms and the improvement of quality in schools. Interviews are middle structured, they contain twelve questionnaires made to 15 teachers, selected casually.

**Selective criteria:** The selection of sampling is made casually.

**Approval:** After the approval of education principal of Elbasan, the school principal and teachers the questionnaire and interviews have started to be completed. This questionnaire was explained to every subject. After the confirmation it has started to be completed. This questionnaire is based in foreign literature and other sources and previous researches with their aim to improve teaching.
The questions of research:

- How does the motivation influence in teachers’ job?
- Which are the factors that influence to teachers’ effectiveness?
- How is the influence of effectiveness in the development of pupils’ education?
- How much related are these factors motivation, effectiveness, performance?
- How influential is the school’s atmosphere to the effectiveness of teachers’ job?
- What effect does teacher efficacy have on academic achievement of Elbasan pupils?

The result of the study

This section consists to present the answers of the teachers from the questionnaire and interview. The aim of these instruments is to show the importance that teacher’s motivation has into the effectiveness of the classroom and their performance. The interview has 12 questions which tent to show the factors that influence in their motivation and how important are these factors in their performance. To the question “What are the factors that influence in your motivation”. Most of them admitted: personal factor, social-economic, climate of school, relation with the staff (colleagues, principal, pupils), wage, evaluation of the principal, the importance of trainings.

To the question ‘being effective in classroom’ 13 of teachers answered: friendly exchanges between teacher and pupils; positive feelings about learning and school; the ability to cultivate positive pupil behaviors; persistence with difficult circumstances; high expectations for all students; patience in dealing with students; positive, friendly e trust for teachers and pupils. To the questions “How influenced motivation into the effectiveness of the classroom and their performance”, nearly 12 teachers answered that motivation due to these factors influences directly in their job to make them to feel good with big desire but if they are not motivated then the job is not effective.

The largest information was taken from the questionnaire with 25 questions divided in 3 sections. Each section contains questions based on Likert step with 5 alternatives that are (totally agree, agree, neutral, disagree, and totally disagree). This questionnaire seeks to show the factors that influence in the motivation of teachers, in their effectiveness in the classroom with pupils and the factors that positively affect in their work.

In first section, the questions are constructed to take information related to the influence that the aim needs such as; job’s condition, the atmosphere in classroom, the relation with the colleagues, etc. to their motivation made from 11 questions. To the questions that: Does the school realise the conditions through seasons of the year especially in winter? the interview answered, 54% disagree, 18% totally disagree, 15% neutral, 10% totally agree, 3% agree. To the question “Classrooms are completed with teaching tool that helps education to be stimulating.” 33% i agree, 13% neutral, 37% disagree, 17% totally disagree. The questions need to tell the level of insurance in school. These needs completed or not are evidenced through these sentences: Respect for the rights of teachers by pupils, the existence of policies and guidelines that protect the right of teachers and pupils. To the questions “How influenced motivation into the effectiveness of the classroom and their performance”, nearly 12 teachers answered that motivation due to these factors influences directly in their job to make them to feel good with big desire but if they are not motivated then the job is not effective.

The second section intends to collect data regarding the importance of teacher motivation in the work and the influence on the effectiveness in the classroom and in the performance of teachers. This section consists of 9 questions. To the question “how much does the effectiveness effect classroom motivation and their performance at work was” noticed that 87% teachers claimed that they totally agreed 9%, agree and 4% were neutral. According to their work, motivation and desire to promote job satisfaction according to them a teacher is not only influenced by the motivation for maintaining discipline and order in the classroom and it wasn’t obvious only in interview but also in questionnaire with the question “Motivation brings satisfaction to teachers to control and educate students”: where 42% totally agreed, 42% disagreed, 11% agreed and 6% totally disagree. When analyzing the questionnaire was seen that teachers claimed that they encourage motivation to make the lesson interesting, meaningful and organized, the question” Motivation encourages teachers to make a lesson interesting and meaningful”; about 62% stated that they totally agreed, 28%
agreed, and 10% disagreed. Teachers claimed that a teacher should wait effectiveness not always be motivated to bring effective strategies in the classroom because it is the duty of teachers to work and to educate the younger generation and it was obvious by the answers given to the question. “Motivation of teachers encourages them to use strategies which aim is to motivate students to learn” 22% totally agreed, 19% agreed, 38% disagree, and 20% totally disagreed and 1% were neutral. Teachers were convinced that their motivation at work is related to school conditions, wages, royalties etc. And this make them feel happy, appreciated with their work in class and increase the quality of teaching. To the question “Motivating teachers can bring quality and high standard in teaching” about 74% totally agreed, 18% agreed 7% disagree and 1% were neutral. So in conclusion of the first section, it depends on the basic needs and in this case the school physical needs are not completed, they feel insecure at their work and the factor of motivation is seen completed at their relation with their colleagues. In conclusion of this section has a great importance in their efficiency in class, which gives them satisfaction at work, in relation with the pupils and encourages them to be as creative as possible and organizing their work with their pupils.

The third section has its aim to take information to the importance of motivation and its factors. This section requires emphasizes the factors with importance that influence in their motivation. This section consists in 7 questions. The analysis of data revealed that free education for children, leadership style and public image of teachers were rated low while regular payment of salary was rated highest among the equally positive motivational factors. The teachers see as an important part of their job the work conditions (67% totally agree, 28% agree and 5% disagree), as was noticed in the interview where the classes had a lack of didactic devices or their size was not suitable for the students’ number, making their work and the teaching quality harder, an important role plays the salary they receive (57% totally agree, 22% agree, 12% disagree and 1% neutral) which according to them has a great social – economic importance. These factors had a higher percentage (%) than the other factors even if this difference was not that big, where the good will to be qualified and trained was present (45% totally agree to be qualified, 25% agree, 15% disagree and 15% totally disagree).

**Discussion of result**

The result of the study confirmed the assumption that teacher motivation has a great importance on their performance at work. An effective teacher at work affects the effectiveness of classroom and improves the learning process. The data revealed that teacher motivation would improve schools with regard to standard and quality of the school system, discipline and control of pupils. A large part of the research from other schools has discovered that when teachers were given the right to choose individually, for example, allowed to select instructional materials and programs, their teaching is greatly enriched and increased their motivation and performance at work (Kaiser 1981). On the other hand, poorly planned schedules, inadequate teaching materials, inadequate working conditions and a large number of applications influence their performance and this could result in job dissatisfaction (Rowley 1996). Teachers would be adequately motivated if they have proper working conditions, a satisfactory salary, collaboration with Teaching and Learning staff as a consequence their teaching would be more productive. Great importance should be given to trainings for their qualifications as teachers do not lack desire. Having such a desire to quantify and a proper environment then they will bring a higher quality in teaching. The high percentage responses suggest that teacher motivation is a viable factor for the growth and development of education in Elbasan. The results show that with the motivation of teachers, pedagogical and management roles would be enhanced and subsequently translate into effective attainment of educational objectives. In this study during the interview and the questionnaire have emerged uncertainty factors that affect in the work of teachers, in the educational process and in the physical conditions, lack of didactic, laboratory, lack of a salary and bonuses unsatisfactory impact on a level not good motivation to work in a very low quality performance in teaching by bringing inefficiency in class. If teachers’ motivation and desire fade then fades their desire to work. Most of the teachers in this study confirmed that motivation brings them pleasure to work and this leads them to disclose students learning with quality and well organized. According to the answers was noted that motivation and demotivation affects the educational process and the effectiveness of the class in general. Satisfaction in a work environment means to be motivated and brings a better performance at work and in this case we increase the quality of teaching and effectiveness in the classroom with students.

**Conclusion**

Motivation is a combination of many different aspects that comprise a part of teachers’ pedagogical knowledge. Teachers must realize that to maintain and be successful with all of the techniques at all times is impossible. Teachers provide an extremely important product: the future. If we are going to maintain quality in that product, it will require the use of all the
potential effectiveness within each individual teacher. Learning and achievement of pupils is a aim of school education. Teaching is the main way of achieving this. Teaching and learning are most important for the capacity of young people to contribute to contemporary societies. Teachers are the backbone of the educational institutes. For a teacher to be efficient in his job he/she must feel motivated. Being motivated means being satisfied and completed in every aspect. Satisfaction seemed to be more associated with personal factors, the influence of environmental factors cannot be ruled out. Classroom climate is important in teacher motivation. If a teacher experiences the classroom as a safe, healthy, happy place with supportive resources and facilities for teaching for optimal learning, he/she tends to participate more than expected in the process of management, administration, and the overall improvement of the school. Based on the study you can notice that the motivation has a great importance in the teachers’ job. During the interviews and the questionnaires fill the teachers highlighted the importance of motivation and the factors that affect on it, showing the completion and non – completion of their basic needs, affecting directly their efficiency in class. According to them feeling motivated means positive, friendly exchanges between teacher and students, classroom climate, trust for teachers and students, positive feelings about learning and school etc. All these are achieved if the factors affecting their motivation are completed, so their basic needs such as work conditions (physical conditions and physical needs where are included the school and classes physical factors, and to be more precise: the work conditions such as class space, the suitable number of the students for an interactive and comprehensive teaching, the hygienic conditions ) , that had a high percentage (%), the salary, the relationship with their colleagues, where all these affected on their satisfaction. The satisfaction at work, so being completed in the basic needs, makes a teacher be effective in his job at class. According to them being effective means to deal with a well organized teaching, makes learning more interesting and encourage the students to learn, and all these lead to an affective work in class and teaching increase. If the teachers have sufficient knowledge and abilities regarding the management of the performance and motivation the students’ performance will get better and better and this will help the student be self – motivated. The teachers that are not motivated will show difficulties in motivating their students too. In this context, it is important to develop training programs, where the main focus is the completion of the main motivation factors that affect directly the teaching goal at school. Effective classroom management is supported by having clear rituals and routines, providing adequate student motivation, and organizing the classroom effectively where the main actor is the teacher who is encouraged by the completion of the basic needs to be effective in the class and to educate a generation and to be able at work in the years ongoing. Motivation is a consistent factor that can be used across professions and other job situations. It would be useful for all of us that would be effectiveness and efficiency at work. This study shows the role of teacher motivation in ensuring classroom effectiveness and school improvement. Therefore a teacher needs not only adjustment and regular payment of salary and allowance but right technology and facilities for effective classroom management and school improvement. The effective motivation of the students leads to the efficiency in class and their performance at work. If teacher are effective at their work and in class with the students, the educational level will always increase.

Recommendations

- Completion of the basic conditions at school
- Frequent meetings and discussions of the teachers with their supervisors to know the teachers’ frustrations and finding a way to solve them
- Teachers’ job security protection in work place should be guaranteed
- Teachers should be respected, loved and consulted indecision marking by the shool authority.
- The realization of frequent trainings for the teachers, that have as their basis a way of teaching with modern methods
- The school principals should endeavour to make necessary instructional materials available to teachers when need.
- Teacher motivation should be included as part of working resources in the education system.
- There should be regular and rapid promotion of teachers so that can teach with complete may be developed and demovations.
- Goverment and education systems need to recognise the fundamental importance of teaching and learning and be designed to create effective learning environments for all learners.
- Majority of teachers are directly appointed and have little experience of classroom management, school , discipline standards, marking and grading and co-curricular. In this connections teachers may be provided specific training before are they appointed to the job of teaching
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Aspects of Building Schools’ Capacity as Learning Communities in the Case of 9-Year School in Durres District

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**Abstract:** Knowledge has historically associated humanity, giving human race strength and survival, especially facing the hardships or ups and downs that human society has passed and will pass through. The key to knowledge is the need to know more. At the moment the individual, society, or even nations see this as internal need, it takes them forward. Lack of emergence or awareness to go towards knowledge society debuts in its opposite; to the detriment of the process or even worse to the product itself aimed to be achieved. Field of study in this article relates to the conception of organization/educational institutions as living systems, where learning should primarily focus on its main actors themselves, i.e. school leaders and teachers. Nowadays, school’s field is not sustainable, as result of multiple contingencies that educational institutions face, so schools should be open through continuously learning. The purpose of this study relates to strategic management, focused on organizational learning preceding the changes, and above all, on finding out more efficient and affective solutions by increasing the potential of schools, as well as quality service, which naturally contribute towards a knowledge society.

**Key words:** strategic management, learning organizational, development capacity, belief and value, organizative culture

1 Introduction

Since the early 90’ our educational system has gone through reformation. The reforms have followed each other, bringing some improvement of the system and in many cases returning it back. Education is considered a very important sector, as providers of individual social and economic benefits. Education makes great contribution in individual and social aspects, providing opportunities for individual personal and career development. Referring to the World Bank Education Strategy that “At the individual level, while a diploma may open doors to employment, it is a worker’s skills that determine his or her productivity and ability to adapt to new technologies and opportunities.”(World Bank Education Strategy, 2020-April 2011, p.vii.), could claim that our schools should be a learning organization. This is related to a new model of thinking, whereby school should be an open system, not a closed one.

For Senge (1990), real learning allows people and organizations to recreate themselves. For a learning organization, it is not enough to survive. Senge agreed that survival learning, or adaptive learning, is important, but for a learning organization, "adaptive learning must be joined by ‘generative learning,’ learning that enhances our capacity to create". Systems thinking is the fifth discipline because it integrates the other disciplines of a shared vision, mental models, team learning, and personal mastery, and fuses them into a coherent body of theory and practice. In systems thinking, the whole can exceed the sum of its parts. A vision without systems thinking lacks the deep understanding of the forces necessary to move forward.

On the other hand, Fullan(2000) claims two key features, professional learning communities and programme coherence. The former refers to the ‘social capital’, the importance of developing relationships among the staff in order to realise the skills of individuals. The latter refers to the ability of the schools to ‘take on the most innovations, but … are able to integrate, align and coordinate [these] with their own focused programmes’. Our schools still maintain the culture of being closed. Meanwhile today’s dynamic contexts and dynamic integration require educational institutions, where capacity building through continuous learning makes school organizations and flexible and responsible to the challenges and time constraints.

I think this paper is of interest not only for school directors of 9-year schools and the Department of Education in this district, but also on a broader level, which extends the range of applicability of the reforms. Therefore, through this paper, I am interested in a somewhat more practical context of the process. This is because the ideas, despite being very good, can not come automatically, as "Reform does not mean, simply put the most recent policy implementation. Reform means to change the culture of classrooms, schools, districts, universities, and so on "(Fullan).
2 Methodology

3 Project objective

Through this paper, it is aimed on one side to emphasize the important role that changes bring in general and also those in education field in particular for the social life and the development of the country. On the other hand I would argue that unexpected changes, not adopted accordingly to the reality, or sometimes imposed, provoke the opposite of the initial goal, or intent of the changes.

The overall objective of the paper is to analyze the process of strategic management in 9-year schools in the district of Durres, focusing on organizational learning, and to identify main factors affecting quality and productivity of educational process. This objective is attached to some more specific objectives:
- to identify school improvement in an Albanian context, through building the schools’ capacity as learning communities, based on common purpose, respect, cohesion, trust, optimism, and mutual support
- To identify the government policy on undergraduate education, determining their impact on educational institutions
- To identify new management practices, which converge in achievements and productivity

4 Methods

The scope of the paper is divided into two segments:
- The first one has the objective of assessment of the 9-year schools in the district of Durres, building capacity and learning communities of their school administrators.
- The second one has the objective of data analysis, interviews with school administrators, and a broader perception through focus groups, and a case study. In this paper is used a qualitative method. For the completion of the paper were used assessment instruments such as: documents’ research, interviews, focus groups, and a case study

5. Random sampling

For the purpose of this paper, casual sampling has been used, where representatives were headteachers and teachers of 9-year schools in the district of Durres. We have interviewed people, not only from the center area, but from the surroundings as well. It has been respected a fair proportion, based on statistics obtained from the Departament of Education in Durres, so that sampling could really be casual, in order to gather opinions from different directors in relation to their work. The survey is fulfilled for a period of more than 4-months.

6. Interviews

The interviews were conducted with 30 headteachers. Durres district has four municipalities and six local municipalities, whereby the educational services are offered by 60 schools. Interviews were conducted with 10 leaders of Durres Municipality, and 20 other leaders of the 9-year schools, municipalities in Shijak, Manxë and Sukth, as well as local surrounding municipalities, respectively; Gjepalaj, Ishêm, Katund i Rë, Maminas, Rrashbull, Xhafzotaj. The unstructured interview was designed, including general and specific questions related to process management, level of participation of staff, internal training, and evaluation of teachers.

7. Focus groups

Data were also collected from two focus groups with 10 teachers, including a group of teachers of Durres Municipality, and the other one from local municipalities. The theme was on the scale of qualifications, cooperation with each other, support from school authorities, the demand for innovation and application in educational context

8. Case Study

As a case study is the 'Democracy' school, especially the partnership between that school with “Fjärdingsskolan” in Boras of Sweden, whereby the present situation of 9-year schools in Durres district is analysed with the aim of exploring the possibility of building the capacity for improvement, thus creating a professional learning community, to enhance learning.
9. Analysis

From the interviews with school headteachers is noticed that 30% of them say that staff are less involved in school management. 23% say that staff have lost interest, 31% say that they find support at teaching staff and 16% say that their relations with the staff are not good. Referring to the relationship between director and the staff, 54% of respondents say they prefer to have the authority of the director, using distant communication, 30% try to merge the director with the colleague, while 16% base the relationship on the law. Regarding the evaluation system 30% of executives use the format required by DAR, 38% use different forms and formats of control, 22% based on the outcome of teachers labor (department tests, students' achievements, or test results), 10% connect everything with the performance of teachers, including their participation in activities of various projects or school promotions.

The executives express that they plan model classes to qualify the staff, whereby 63% of executives say that everything goes very well and teachers have no criticism about that, 20% say that older teachers do not accept criticism, feeling themselves in a bad position, even prejudices situations. while 17% argued that all teachers welcome the different opinions from each other, learning more through debating and sharing their thoughts and new ideas.

 Leaders has an interesting perception of wrong-right technique, as well as about initiatives and projects in the school. Referring to the first, 74% of executives say that the staff learn through mistakes. 20% say that in these cases they give advice and instructions to improve the situations, while only 8% of executives say that they document the errors to evaluate tacher’s work. The view seems quite different in terms of the second question. 85% of executives say they do not like to take initiatives or projects that have risk, arguing that they can not accept failure in their work, as they feel confident when initiatives or projects are clear and successful. Whereas only 15% undertake new projects, despite the risk, as a new headteacher stated: "The failure of an initiative could be a success, because we learn more how to do better in other initiatives and projects in the future".

Nevertheless, the teachers say that they work harder when their work is highly-appreciated. "We want our voice to be heard". They say that working in education is tedious, and sometimes things are required in an imposing way. Teachers should be asked more, because they are the right people to implement the policies. Curricula often undergo changes, and the texts need to improve, for they cause confusion instead. Furthermore, when the director transmits personal values, professional and managerial skills, then things become easier, and teacher job satisfaction comes in: there is more participation and collaboration, bringing different experiences.

Meanwhile the partnership of “Democracy” school with the “Fjärdingsskolan” in Boras of Sweden is a good example in Durres district, by sharing experience and schools policy. This is a case, where states and cultures have the opportunity to approach each other. Recently, by this partnership “Democracy” school has learned more about democratization of school, and “Fjärdingsskolan” in Boras is interested in about math’s curriculum and methods.

10 Results and discussion

Education policies play a central role in the development of education and the development of the country life. Plans are best estimates of what will happen in the future, but must be modified on an ongoing basis to take account of what actually happens during implementation. Implementation should thus be seen as a continuous learning process whereby experience gained is reviewed and feedback into ongoing planning. Meanwhile, Senge (1990) stated that learning organizations are places “where people continually expand their capacity to create the results they truly desire, where new and expansive patterns of thinking are nurtured, where collective aspiration is set free, and where people are continually learning to see the whole together”(p 8). If the members of an organization work as a group, they will direct their efforts toward a shared goal or vision.

But, for countries which for years have been indoctrinated is not an easy path, since the system imposed a closing culture in the mental model to the individual. Our schools still maintain the culture of being closed. Values and behaviors from directors should include a high degree of respect and care to individuals at the school, as well as a strong sense of fairness, integrity, and honesty in their relationship with other people. Trust is the necessary agent for sound relationships and knowledge sharing. The leader plays a vital role in the implementation of change.

A successful headteacher is someone who focuses on building the capacities and commitments of staff in the school and in the interests of students . Organizational orientation helps the teacher to become acquainted with the objectives,

\[^{1}\text{Aid Delivery Methods. Project Cycle Management. European Commission, volume 1, pp.41.}\]
vision, organizational culture, its history, philosophy and procedures. Successful orientation reduces stress, uncertainty, and above all increases the possibilities of a much higher performance and fit with the culture of the institution. On the other hand, educational organizations themselves become more dynamic by sharing ideas, as well.

Creating the right climate by the school leader, following the practice of cooperation and involvement, not only minimizes the undesirable conflicts in the organization, but above all, to strengthen school potential. From the results the interviews and focus groups is noticed that few headteachers are transformational leaders.

However in District of Durres there are positive examples of successful leaders, who include several styles of management, being a good motivator, collaborator, catalyst or crisis manager. Referring to similar contexts, they use various forms of organizational learning, making school a dynamic and open system, where teachers willingly collaborate by sharing ideas, new teachers are welcome and appreciated being involved in different activities and projects. On the other hand, teachers with long experienced teachers find it easier to apply IT by collaborating with young teachers, thus creating their own school culture. It is not only a privilege of schools in the city, but also in rural areas in which positive examples are observed. These factors make a good contribution in the strengthening our school, and it is time that the environments in our school should be a place where there is a constant learning.

11. Conclusions

In order to correct some crucial aspects of undergraduate education system, we would claim:
- Organizational learning becomes more dynamic and successful when it is based on initiatives and school projects, by sharing thoughts and ideas.
- Educational institutions learn better when people in cohesive teams trust each other enough to expose the assumptions they are making and then to scrutinize and share them with their colleagues.
- Asking for greater responsibility of school administrators for student achievements through; successful functioning of school system, school goals and objectives.
- Changes in education should be integrated with positive change in the culture of educational institutions.
- School administrators should be the real decision-making instance with regard to selection of teaching and support staff, proceeding on the basis of standards, merits and periodically measuring the competence of staff.
- Involvement in decision-making of all stakeholders, such as students, staff, parents, governmental and nongovernmental organizations, etc.

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Reintegration of the Children of the Returnee Emigrants in the Albanian Educational System

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Abstract. Apparently a poor country with many problems, the origin of millions of immigrants, the Albania of the 2000s is experiencing a phenomenon that recalls old images. Many immigrants are returning home. But while there is a national strategy for protection and reintegration of the children whom are victims of trafficking, there is one in terms of re-education and social integration as well of children of returnee emigrants. While has been created the sufficient conditions for the education of Albanian immigrants (Priority Greece and Italy) and are established standard curricula for teaching in the Albanian language the children of the emigrants in the world, there are no such conditions in Albanian schools, which day by day are becoming the host of the children of returnee immigrants. The purpose of this study is to present an analysis of the work done by children of returnee emigrants in our educational system, focusing on their reintegration. This study will consider the first and the second generation of children (children of emigrants born in Albania and children of emigrants born in the host countries), the phenomenon of returnee emigrants, their situation in Albania after the return (in terms of their adaptation to Albanian school system) and concrete contribution to education by the state institutions and society to re-integrate children of emigrants of different categories.

Key words: children of emigrants, reintegration, educational programs, Albanian language.

1. Historical Background

At present the Albanian emigrants compose about 27.5% of the general population and 35% of the active population of the world (UNDP, Human Development Report 2009). Greece and Italy have been identified as primary countries of destination, followed by United Kingdom, Germany, Canada, United States of America, etc.

During the years it has been generated another phenomenon within Albanian migration called the migration of return, caused from different reasons that are mostly related with reasons of emigration itself, with the situation of the people who have emigrated or the familiar context. These factors often have influenced the volunteer return. On the other hand, the experiences of return may come from negative experiences such as, failing on receiving the regular status in the destination countries, the forced return as the result of illegal stay in the destination countries, the forced return as the result of illegal stay in the destination countries according to the determinations/conditions in Admission Agreements or other practices of return in the origin countries.

The Albanian emigrants with the illegal status in EU, especially those who live in Italy and Greece, have been more exposed to the forced return than the emigrants with the regular status returned willingly. According to the official statistics of the Interior Ministry, during 2009 there have been registered 64,625 returned cases or 47,239 returned Albanian citizens, from whom 38,412 are cases who have been caught in the borderline or close to it and 26,213 cases have been caught in deepness of the territory of the origin countries. The reason of emigration in 99.99% of cases has been the lack of employment. Regardless of ways of return, forced return or the volunteer ones, the people who are returned can be classified as eventual investors, qualified emigrants or without any profession.

The integration of the Albanian citizens who return in native land (country) is the focus of the five-year National Strategy “The reintegration of the Albanian citizens returned in country” that has just started its implementation. This Strategy determines furthermore the valuable devices addressed to the Albanian citizens who return willingly. The purpose of the policy for the returned Albanians is the assurance of a stable return for them through the facilities of the process of reintegration, aiming the decreasing of the costs of the migration, the increasing of the advantages and the stimulation of the contribution of the emigrants for the economic growth in the country. The mechanism of the support for their reintegration begin to work from the moment of the arrival of the returnees in Albania. According to the Admission Agreements or other forms of forced returns, the returned Albanians come under the procedure of the identification and interviewing in the Crossing Border Stop by the Boundary and Migration Police.

2. The National Policies and the Legal Frame

The National Action Plan of Migration (NAPM) that is an integral part of the National Strategy for Migration, foresees the measures of the Albanian Government for the management of the afflux of the emigration and the compilation of a whole
policy for emigration. This plan includes measures that handles both types of returnees, the forced and the volunteer ones, through the implementation of the Admittion Agreements.

(Measure no. 5 and measure no. 10 determine respectively “The implementation of the Admittion Agreements” and “The implementation of the Admittion Agreements including EU/Albania as well as the citizens of the third countries”)

There are certain approved strategies, a few of them in the process of implementation, from the Albanian Government with the aiming of providing social protection for the people in need, including the returned Albanians from the emigration, part of these groups in need.


The offices of Migration, already active, give the information about the regular ways for emigration as well as the opportunities of reintegration after the return. These offices manage also the register for the Albanian citizens returned from the emigration, including the accepted ones too. Whatever, it has been noticed that the offices of the Migration has to become stronger in offering better services, through trainings and the technical support (including the running connection of internet, the updating of the information, etc) Moreover, it is noticed that in general there is a little to no information about the services of reintegration for the Albanian citizens offered from the offices of Migration, the regional and local Offices of Employment, no matter of the promotional activities through leaflets, display advertising, etc. As a result of it the register of emigrants has less data recorded compare to the real number of the returned people in the country.

The number of the registered people is very low. Another reason of it is the lack of linking the registration with a certain service of reintegration. Neither the law doesn’t include this link for the returnees. Based only on a self-declaration the returnee might have the probability to get registered for more than one time, thus there is a gap to not prove his real status. As a result of it, the law is not dispensed limiting evidently the probability of a well-defined package for the reintegration of the returned Albanian citizens according to their specific needs. This would help in orienting the offices of Migration for a fair reference to actual services.

The new Strategy is conceived to be realized in two phases and it goes along with an Action Plan that has comprised 42 measures. The Strategy for reintegration of the returned Albanian citizens is part of the national policies for migration. It’s as an enlargement of the vision of the National Strategy for migration related to the reintegration of the returned Albanian emigrants, although it doesn’t address wholly the issues of reintegration. Its vision is the assurance of a stable return for the emigrants through the support of the reintegration, despite the way of return. (The Strategy for reintegration pg 3) From the legal aspect, the execution of the Law no. 9668 date 18.12.2006 for “The emigration of the Albanian citizens with the reason of employment” where is foreseen the services of reintegration in country, has faced the problematic of their implementation as well as recommendations for the situation improvement. The report will include also data analysis of the situation about the offering of the supportive services for reintegration of the returned citizens. The technical secretaries will draw the methodology of data recording according a standardised format. The progress of the strategy will be measured based on certain indicators, which are:

- The number of adapted curriculums of the professional public preparing
The Rule of the Regional Directories of Education approved with the appropriate definitions for the returned Albanian citizens.

The Special Curriculum for the supplemental lessons of the Albanian language drafted from the Ministry of Education and the Science through the Institute of the Education Development

The number of children / students who have profited educational service in the summer schools that will be attended even by this category of children, for the supplemental lessons of the Albanian language

The number of children / students who have been assisted from the psychological treatment of the educational system

One of the objectives of “The Strategy for the reintegration of the returned Albanian citizens” is,

- The enlargement of the activity and the treated problematics in the annual seminar of the teachers, aiming the growing of abilities for a long-term plan for the reintegration of the children of the returned emigrants.

Concerning the support of reintegration of the returned Albanian citizens in Albania in the General Education System as well as that Professional through informing and offering of services (articles 29, 30, 31, 32, 33 of the Action Plan) there have determined these objectives:

- Determining the tasks in the Operating Rule of the regional Directories of Education and Educational Offices for reintegration of the returned Albanian citizens as well as manners of collaboration with all the local institutions that operate to support these citizens.

- Drafting of special curriculums for supplemental lesson of Albanian language from the Ministry of Education and Science through the Institute of Education Development.

During this process will be considered the possible differences of the schools in the main countries of destination where the Albanian emigrants are located in comparison with the programmes offered by Albanian educational system.

- Organizing the summer schools attended from this category of the children as well

- Including in the annual plan of the regional Directories of Education these duties:
  a) The Section of Statistics will identify and report periodically in the Ministry of Education and Science about the coming and setting up the children of the returned emigrants in the institutions of pre-university education.
  b) The Section of Curriculums and Quality will have available programs in helping these children after identifying all their needs according to the age groups.
  c) The Section of Curriculums and Quality will collaborate with the Institute of Education Development as well as non profit specialized NGO-s that are offering training programs for this special category of children.

- The National Agency of Education and Professional Forming in collaboration with specialized institutions in and out of country has to make the adaptation of the policies of curriculums with the needs of returnees for their education and professional forming.

Although the National Action Plan has determined a specific support for the children of the returned emigrants, currently there doesn’t exist neither one special program nor special classes for this category.

4. Conclusions

Evaluating the measures of reintegration of the National Action Plan for Migration is identified that these don’t address completely the needs for reintegration of the returned emigrants and especially of their children. The reason is that it doesn’t exist an well-determined mechanism of information related to the public services in country and ways to be referred constantly to these services. Moreover these measures are general and their range is focused only in the services of vocational preparation and employment whiles the needs of the returned emigrants are more than those. For a special vulnerable category such as victims of trafficking and minors without accompanying, there is made all the legal and institutional mechanism related to the referral mechanism in the entry borders. Unfortunately there are not such as mechanisms that will determine and supervise the work for the reintegration of the children of the returned emigrants in the Albanian education system.

Therefore, the law hasn’t been executed limiting evidently the possibility of determining a clear package of reintegration for the returned emigrants according to their specific needs, which will lead in referring to existing services. The identified needs in improving the services of reintegration in country are:

- Strengthening the institutional mechanism for informing and referring the returned emigrant to the public services. Is is necessary a frequent communication between institutions that play a key role in presentation
and facilitation of the process of returning and reintegration. They have to exchange continually information, expertise and resources for clarifying their position in the process of reintegration and the limitations of their inclusion in this process.

- Improving the Legal bases for enabling the functioning of the mechanism of referal in continuity and for creating more space for the groups in need among of the returned emigrants.
- Identifying the existing possibilities for vocational forming for the returned emigrants
- Urging the collaboration with the civil society for implementation of the common projects in helping the reintegration
- Aiming the making of facilities for children of the reaccepted Albanian citizens it has foreseen the inclusion in the Directive of the Ministry of Education and Science “For Starting the Academic New Year” of modalities and actions such as; registration for the first time in the education sistem of the children born out of the country, the continuity of the studies out of country and the equivalence of diplomas and notes. Even so, in reality this doesn’t help in solving the problems that these children face daily in Albanian education sistem.

The Albanian Government is committed to support the social, economical and cultural integration of emigrants in hostile countries with keeping and making the Albanian cultural inheritance (the National Strategy for Migration and National Action Plan for Migration). What about the integration of these emigrants and especially of their children in Albania? Emigration has been treated mainly in the framework of the measures against trafficking and managing of the borderlines (the Albanian Strategy against trafficking of human beings, 2001, the Strategy of Integrated Management of Borderlines, 2003). What about the social and educational measures?

The current situation of integration and reintegration of the children of emigrants in the Albanian education system, unfortunately it’s not as we would wish to be. There is a lack of adapted programmes for them, of well-trained teachers for these special cases and of course, of psychological service in the schools that will help in the transition period in the lives of this category of children.

Considering this issue as one of the priorities of the Albanian Government with the objectives that are expected to be realized in 2015, possibly soon we will see the concrete changes in the educational integration of this returned vulnerable category in the Albanian society.

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The Teacher’s Role in the Implementation of New Preschool Curriculum in Albania

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Abstract
Childhood education is a very important period, in which are made a lot of studies and researches for many years. The contribute of researchers and educational specialists has its important influence on increasing of the quality of teaching of 3-6 years old children, in making a good and reflective curriculum, based on in the children interest and their ability for creativity and exploring the world, on methods and learning strategies, on the preparation of the teachers in pre service system, in the University, and their professional development in service system. If we refer the official data of Albania Ministry of education and Science, 2011, about 61% of children in the first class have been in preschool education, even though, in Albania the preschool years are not part of obligatory system of education. “The preschool teacher’s standards” is an important document which has influenced on the quality of teaching and learning on preschool education. Learning in this stage has a lot of contradictions, because the dynamism is alternate with calm and rest time, the work with whole class should be alternated with the group work and individual work. This is not easy in the cases of classes with more than 30-35 children, or in the mix group, in which are children from 3-6 years old. This presentation will give answer these important questions: How much the Albanian teachers know how preschool children develop and learn; how much they are able to plan and to implement new curriculum in a multicultural environment; how well they choose the right methods and learning strategies; are they enable to balance child-initiated learning and teacher-directed learning; are they well prepared to use technology in the classroom, to manage new and unexpected situations, to collaborate with other teachers, parents etc.

Key words: Teacher, standards, early childhood, preschool/kindergarten education, curriculum.

Childhood education is a very important period, in which are made a lot of studies and researches for many years. The contribute of international researchers and educational specialists has its important influence on increasing of the quality of teaching of 3-6 years old children, on making a good and reflective curriculum, based on in the children interest and their ability for creativity and exploring the world, on methods and learning strategies, on the preparation of the teachers in pre service system, in the University, and their professional development in service system.

In Albania, the preschool education is not part of obligatory system of education at the pre university system. Even though, if we refer the official data of Albanian Ministry of Education and Science, 2011, about 61% of children in the first class have been in preschool education.

During the last 10 years, are made very important changes and reforms on the Albanian preschool curriculum. So far, the content standards have been developed (2002), standards of achievement (2004) and the programs of pre-school education for 3-4, 4-5, 5-6 age groups, were developed in 2007. The review of educational strategy (2006) aiming to include the preschool education in the preuniversity educational system as the first ring in the chain, and to involve all children of age 5-6 in the preparatory year aged (2009). Since 2009, near the schools of basic education are opened about 400 preparatory classes, on urban and rural areas.

At 2009, the Institute of Training and Curriculum, (Today Is Institute of Education Development), prepared the standards of preschool teachers. The standards include the characteristics, knowledge and professional skills that every preschool teacher should have. They direct the planning of curriculum by the teachers, teaching and learning strategies, active methods and daily practices in preschool education.

Each standard describe its competencies and indicators. They indicate the preparation of student-teacher at the University, professional development in service system and the profesional growth and carrier. These standards are:
- Teacher Professional development;
- Understanding the nature of growth, development and the styles of learning of preschoolers;
- Planning and implementation of curriculum;
- Diversity and learning environment;
- Safety and healthy development of children;
- Teaching, technology and active learning methods;
- Assessment;
- Collaboration with other teachers, parents and community members.
All of standards are much related with each other. Each of them is very important because take on consideration one aspect of life and activity of preschool education. The third teacher’s standard is “Planning and implementation of curriculum”. The teacher should:

- Know the goals of preschool curriculum;
- Know the content of core areas of preschool programs for children from 3-6 years old;
- Plan a curriculum related with the age development, psychologist, interest and need of preschoolers;
- Know the concepts, ideas, terms and the key competencies that the prescholer should master;
- Develop with the children project, thematic lessons, integrated within them each content area;
- Support children enthusiasm, curiosity, the desire to know the environment;
- Plan the educative and instructional activity based on integrated curriculum approach;
- Accept the fact that the children learn and construct their meaning by using multiply intelligences.

But, what is curriculum?

Curriculum is a framework for organizing our approach to teaching and learning, the goals that we have toward preschoolers. The new Curriculum encompasses the state priorities, the direction for children learning, development and behavior, the resources and materials that teachers select on teaching and the continuous assessment of children’s progress.

The Curriculum of our preschool education has clear aims, goals, objectives and learning results. It is focused on the content of that the young children has to profit by the attending the school and on the things that they will be able to do from age 3-6. It takes on the consideration the citizenship values, communication and relationships in a multicultural society and the children rights for a quality education.

The aim of our curriculum is to provide a strong foundation from which children grow and become active participants in life-long learning. It is age-appropriate and compatible with learners’ development level. By participating in the preschool program, children develop confidence in themselves and their ability to learn, demonstrate curiosity, make simple researches in their environment, acquire a level of communicative competence, acquire social skills and abilities which enable them to relate to other children and to adults, to develop their own potentials.

The curriculum emphasizes developmentally appropriate practice for young children. It is organized through an integrated approach. Our curriculum has six core content learning areas: Language development, Mathematic development, Scientific development, Social sciences, Creative and visual arts, Physical and health development. Each of them has the some sub-areas, which help the development of children and the achievement of core competencies for this educational level including literacy, numeracy, early learning, life skills, health and hygiene practices.

The implementation of curriculum is depended from the professional experiences of the teachers. A curriculum can be well written, but its results are related from the quality of implementation. The teacher’s role on the planned and implemented curriculum is very important. They should know the elements of the curriculum content, such as: learning objectives, learning content, teaching methods, materials and resources, assessments etc.

Learning objectives identify the knowledge, attitudes and skills that will be developed through educational activities to promote the cognitive, social, emotional and physical development of preschool children. Learning content refers to subject or development areas such as Language, Math, Science, Social studies, Arts, Physical and health education.

Teaching methods refer to the strategy and approach chosen for, and used in, the presentation of learning content to encourage the acquisition of knowledge and skills in all preschool learners. Didactic and instructional materials refer to workbooks, literature, toys, albums, supplementary study materials, equipment, and other teaching and learning materials.

Assessment refers to the measurement of what has been learned in the form of knowledge, attitudes and skills from the learning content covered.

All these elements are reflected on the year-long curriculum plans, monthly, weekly and daily curriculum plans. The planned curriculum and spontaneous curriculum is very much like our lives. The two kinds of curriculum planned and spontaneous, can comfortably work together in the way we teach the children.

Every year the albanian teachers plan different themes, such as: the school, friendship, family, all about me, farm, zoo, dinosaurs, birds, insect, fish, animals, plants, community, professions, food, our country, seasons, sports, vacancies, the right of children, transport, my body etc.

During the implementation of the theme the teacher integrates the knowledge and skills from six core content learning areas. After that the teacher organizes an interactive and participatory teaching, ensuring that all children are involved in it. Young children learn through play. Their learning is based on active play and interaction, to build skills and
relationships with peers, teachers and other adults. Such activities engage children in the learning process and promote their development. Every day, the children may involve in group work, peer or individual work, project work, role play, using of manipulative materials, construction play, hands on experiential play; making observation, playing drama, coloring modeling and application activities, writing, reading, telling stories or describing events, indoor and outdoor games, videos watching.

The teachers design experiences, instruction and learning processes to meet the developmental needs of all children, including those with disabilities, by promoting inclusiveness and reducing barriers to learning. They should also provide opportunities for children to acquire the knowledge, processes, skills, abilities and values. So, teaching methods should be appropriate to the age, developmental level, language, culture, capacities of children and their community.

Lastly we can say that new curriculum and responsible teachers make possible that preschool children are healthy developed on socio-emotional area, on physical and intellectual area. They are able to:
- Recognize and feel satisfied that their participation and contribution to classroom activities is valuable from the others;
- Engage in various activities with initiative and confidence;
- Be sensitive to the feelings and rights of others;
- Begin to accept responsibility for their behavior;
- Be aware of their emotions and try to solve their problems when such exist;
- Develop logical thinking skills;
- Participate in activities which will increase understanding of sensory stimuli;
- Participate in activities which encourage the care of and respect for their bodies;
- Participate in activities designed to improve motor skills;
- Develop a positive attitude toward learning;
- Express interest in future learning experiences;
- Build upon previous experiences in such a way as to broaden their understanding of a particular concept or to acquire a new one;
- Develop the ability to listen in order to understand the meaning and intent of others;
- Use language to bring meaning to what they observe, feel, think, hear, taste and smell;
- Participate in activities which encourage self-expression;
- Develop awareness that print and symbols in their environment convey meaning;
- Show an interest in participating in the exploration of the patterns, sounds and rhymes of language during listening, singing and speaking activities;
- Invent fantasy worlds through contact with manipulative and tactile materials.

Conclusion

To be a good teacher is very difficult. For every one is a long way. But the most important mission of teacher is to support the continuous growth and learning of young children by:

- Encouraging them to learn about themselves and their world through the various senses.
- Encouraging them to make choices and take decisions based upon the available materials, good activities and time. So, the children understand the purpose of learning and grow into independent learners.
- Accepting and respecting different ideas from theirs.
- Developing activities based on their interest and needs.
- Participating in different kinds of plays for the purpose of extending them.
- Teaching them to respect support and encourage each other.
- Teaching them how to be lifelong learners.
- Helping them to discover the world, the complex environment and their community.

Within the planned curriculum, the teacher can seize the moment to introduce the curriculum emerged from the children interest or curiosity, or from an interesting event that happen on the class.
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Gender Differences in Education Attainment (Enrollments and Graduations) in Albania. 
Main Issues and Challenges

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Abstract The education level is a highly important indicator that tells about the women and girls status in the Albanian society. Statistical data show that in Albania, girls are more successful than boys in all levels of education. Although girls represent the largest number of enrollments and graduations in all levels of education, as well as give a very significant contribution to the education domain, their social and economic status leaves a lot to be desired. The big surprise of the past few decades has been women’s huge advance into tertiary education. Crucially, women’s lead at first-degree level does not so far seem to have translated into better job opportunities. There are certainly other factors affecting here apart from the education, like the economic and cultural level, mentality, tradition, media stereotypes, division of power on gender basis, legislation, geographical location, place of residence, etc. This paper focuses on gender differences in educational achievements as well as gender differences in the educational system, based on the fact that education is known worldwide as a significant indicator of a society’s social and economic development. Literature review and statistical data analyzed have been main methods used in preparing this paper. The universal argument that women’s and girls’ education reduces poverty’s transmitting from a generation to the next is very important, because it enhances their capacity aiming the socialization of the coming generation, as well as increases their potentials to contribute in social, economic and political aspects of the national development, augments the need for conducting research in this field.

Introduction

Education is society’s leading instrument through which to achieve social change. Education it is not related solely with ensuring sufficient schools, textbooks, and qualified teachers. It is related to a certain social context, which should be seen as a right of everyone, whereby individuals have the possibility to improve their social and economic well-being and take part in public life.

Statistical data indicate that girls are more successful than boys at all levels of education in Albania (INSTAT, 2010). Although girls make up for the largest part of enrolments and graduations at all levels of schooling, as well as make a significant contribution to the area of education, their social and economic status leaves much to be desired. Certainly, this is affected also by other factors, aside from education, such as the economic and cultural level, mentality, tradition, the media, stereotypes, gender division of work, legislation, geographical area, residence, etc.

Women’s education is particularly important if we take into consideration their social reproductive role (Gender Alliance for Development Center, 2004). “Educated women” have smaller families, with fewer infants dying during birth, and surviving infants being healthier and better educated. Furthermore, educated women are better prepared to enter into the labor market.

By means of education, a society can minimize inequalities between men and women as well as between other social groups. In reality, there are considerable gender inequalities in the education sector. These inequalities are based not only on indicators such as illiteracy, school attendance, academic achievement in school, but also on other aspects of education that have to do with gender equality and justice, for instance, the content and reform of education curricula and teacher-student interaction (Dhamo. M., Sinani. M., Gjermeni. E., Sulstarova. A., Sinani. J., & Dauti. M., 2005). Furthermore, recent research on gender and education have concluded that in many countries, Albania included, education and its numerous aspects such as classroom interaction, programs, curricular framework, academic achievements in school, teacher attendance and training, institutional environment, etc., play a significant role in preserving or conveying gender inequalities (Gender Alliance for Development Center, 2006).

Gender mainstreaming in education importance

Arguments related to justice (Neimanis. A., 2004): The process of gender mainstreaming in education is important also as part of the obligations of the Albanian state, in the context of ratified national and international documents; here we may mention: Constitution of Albania, Law on Gender Equality in the Society, National Strategy on Gender Equality,
Millennium Development Goals, Beijing Platform for Action, Convention for the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination Against Women (CEDAW), the United Nations Conference Beijing + 10, etc. Numerous international instruments and agreements oblige states that have ratified them to ensure gender equality in general and in the area of education in particular. Article 10 of the CEDAW Convention specifically emphasizes, “State Parties should ensure quality between females and males at all levels of education.” The fundamental human rights principles are very clearly noted with regard to universal rights to education as a basic right for every individual. Every government should be responsible for ensuring sustainable development and social justice for all individuals that are part of the society they live in.

Various research studies indicate that “gender inequality has a negative impact on a country’s economic development.” This is due to the fact that if women and men do not have the same level of education in a society, then the state itself is not able to capitalize on the entire human potential and productivity, thus leaving this process deficient and one-sided. Besides, sexual division or gender differences in education lead inevitably to gender differences in employment. The integration of both sexes in all aspects of development creates the opportunity to make use of all human resources, skills, contributions, and values they carry, thus ensuring an efficient, complete, and sustainable development for the entire society.

The chain reaction argument (Neimanis. A., 2004). There is an intrinsic correlation between gender division in the labor market and the one in the area of education. One example that illustrates this fact is that most of the girls study in areas such as: teaching, social sciences, economics, nursing, etc. These are areas in which professions are paid less than those for which boys study. Likewise, we may mention the least paid sectors that are dominated by females, such as education, health, or social services. The same fact may be used for women heads of families, who have lower levels of income than men heads of families. Should we want to narrow gender inequalities in the labor market, change should start from the educational system and its levels. Gender stereotypes and traditional gender roles are inherited from generation to generation, but often these are not considered an obstacle in creating a society where gender equity prevails. Such stereotypes may limit human capital considerably with regard to expectations that women or men have for themselves or the expectations the society has for them. Due to the consequences produced by gender stereotypes, addressing them in the educational system as early as possible and in a sustainable form may help break this cycle. Gender sensitive data may be practical tools for gender mainstreaming in education, because information that may be obtained through them may be used to encourage initiatives undertaken in order to achieve gender equality and women’s empowerment.

Gender Approach to Situation of Education in Albania

Education is the area that has seen good achievements in terms of access for women and is a value that traditionally has been highly esteemed by the Albanian society. The high educational level of Albanian women and girls demonstrates quite well that they are successful and that education to them is key to achieving a better status in the family and the society. Statistical data according to INSTAT publication “Females and Males in Albania” and the official data of the Ministry of Education and Science, indicate that at all levels of education, girls are more successful than boys. According to education statistics, at the end of every school year, female pupils and students are more than males, although at the start of every school year, more boys are enrolled than girls. In 2010, 49,766 pupils completed and graduated from 9-year education, of which 49% girls and 51% boys. In tertiary education, the number of females, 54%, remains higher than that of males, which is at 46%. In vocational tertiary education, males dominate with 69% of those enrolled.

Graphic 1: Graduation in tertiary education, by type of education (general and vocational) in percentages

Source: Ministry of Education 2011
If we were to look at data by type of high school (general and vocational), the gender gap in the number of graduates is in favor of women and remains unchanged through the years by about 7%. The situation is quite the reverse in vocational school graduations, with a gender gap in favor of males by about 5%; however, there is a growing trend in the number of female graduates through the years in this type of education. Trends through the years in the number of enrolment and graduation in tertiary education indicate that more boys enroll, but there is a greater tendency of girls graduating, mainly in general tertiary education.

Females in higher education make up for 56.4% of the total number of full time students in academic year 2007-2008 (INSTAT, 2010). In various faculties, the ratio female-male varies. If we look at the structure according to 8 broader study themes in full time education, we notice that females are more inclined to pursue studies in social sciences. In this area, females makeup for 73% of students in the area of education, 68% of students in the area of health, and 61% of students in the humanities and arts. Males take up the largest share of students in the area of engineering, with 70% as well as the natural sciences, with priorities changing compared to the previous year in that they represented the majority of students also in agriculture. In 2008, full time higher education female graduates represented 67%.

For the academic year 2009-2010, females in higher education represented 58% of the general number of full time students. Females make up for 78% of students in education, 71% of students in health, 65% of students in the humanities and social sciences, business, and law. Males continue to represent the majority of students in the area of engineering, with 74%, in agriculture and veterinary studies, with 66%, and in the area of services with 63%.

In the academic year 2009-2010, in full time higher education, females represented 66% of graduates in the I-st cycle (Bachelor), 59% in the II-nd cycle (Master and Second Level Diploma). In the Professional Master diploma, 1,501 females or 77% of the total number graduated 243 females, or 64% of the total number graduated in the Second Level Master.

Albanian women and girls make a major contribution in the area of education. Women's representation in the pre-university system (pre-school, 9-year, and secondary) is considerable. Female teachers represent 68% of the teaching staff in 9-year education; the percentage is at 61% in the private education sector. In public and private tertiary education, female teachers make up 62% of the teaching staff. In higher public education, the percentage of female teachers' increases every year, making up for 50.04% compared to 47.2 previously. In private higher education, female lecturers, with and without scientific titles, make up for 27.4% of the teaching staff.

Although the number of women and girls graduating from higher education is larger than that of men and boys, and academic personnel has a higher percentage of women and girls, men dominate leading positions and academic titles. For academic year 2009-2010, public higher education had 26.61% females with the “Associate Professor” title compared to 73.39% males; there were only 26.16% women compared to 73.84% men with the title “Professor.”

In leading positions in the public higher education, there are 10 male rectors and no females; there are 10 male deputy rectors and 3 females; there are 29 male deans and 11 female; there are 105 male department heads and 47 female (Ministry of Education, 2011).

As in other areas of decision making, there are a series of factors that influence the drop in the number of female senior officials in universities compared to males. Again, gender division of work, family responsibilities, mentality, socialization methods, opportunity to obtain information, qualifications, low self-esteem, etc., are directly linked with this phenomenon.

School dropout rates. While the graduation of girls from schools is at considerable levels, gender phenomena such as concrete dropouts or secret dropouts are present. We notice an abandonment of school by females both in absolute terms, and in percentages (Graphic 2). Other research by non-government organizations, although not national but focusing on certain regions, highlighted more problematic figures. Worn-out or inexistent infrastructure that leads to insecurity of travel, lack of safe sanitary facilities (toilets) and lack of drinkable water, are some of the factors leading girls to abandon school, or parents to remove girls from school. School abandonment is particularly evident in rural areas, where difficult economic conditions force children to abandon school in order to help their families with agricultural work. Besides, large-scale migration from rural areas to the cities has created problems with the availability of teaching staff (particularly in remote areas), and in overburdening schools in the cities and closing of schools in the rural areas.
Graphic 2: Percentage of dropout rates

Source: Ministry of Education (2011)

Dropout levels through the years indicates a lessening of the phenomenon; meanwhile, in the last academic year only, there is a narrowing of the gender gap, which will require further observation of it.

There are no studies indicating achievements by girls in basic writing and reading skills, or more, but reports by non-profit and community organizations indicate that the number of girls at risk of illiteracy is high (MOLSAEO, 2011-2015).

The former National Agency for the Evaluation of Pupils, now called National Agency of Tests, at the end of final state examinations, drafts and publishes every year: “Report of results of exit exams” and “Report of results of the state Matura.” Data from the survey measuring the living standards (2008) notes that for the age group under 54 years, the illiteracy rate is generally higher among males than among females. On the other hand, there is concern in noticing that the lower the age, the higher illiteracy. Thus, while for the 45-54 age group illiteracy is at 1% and 0.5% for males and females respectively, for the 15-24 age group, figures rise to 1.8% and 1% respectively; for the 25-34 age group, the figures are even higher. A real challenge to school attendance are the “informal” costs of education, which impose on poor families a financial burden that may be related to children’s not going to school, particularly in the country’s rural and poorest areas. Furthermore, social and cultural reality upholds the conclusion that girls abandon school more often and earlier than boys to contribute to the family’s economy, or to marry at a very young age.

Pursuant to the implementation of the strategy 2007-2010, public education has managed to take steps toward the institutionalization of gender equality (MOLSAEO, 2011-2015). The Curricular Framework of Pre-University Education has been reviewed from a gender standpoint, teaching standards have been reviewed from a gender standpoint, the gender equality criterion has been declared as one of the criteria for the selection of textbooks. The Curricular Framework of Pre-University Education and teaching standards combine education engagements for gender equality with other curricular elements, thus enabling the use of interactive methodologies in teaching. Interventions through manuals on gender equality have been introduced to the system of training on the job for teachers of elementary, 9-year, and high school education; training courses have been organized for their use with teachers and pupils respectively. Public universities that train teachers have also played their role. The contribution of NPOs as collaborators in this sector is considerable.

Interventions for gender mainstreaming in education enhanced the cooperative potential among structures inside the education system. Research, training programs, and curricula review were conducted by actors inside the pre-university and university education system, with support by strategic donors. For interventions in the curricula and the criteria for the approval of school textbooks, Ministry of Education, the Institute of Curricula and Training (currently the Education Development Institute), and the Board for the Approval of Pre-University Education Textbooks (BOMIT) worked with the assistance of UNDP and other donors. In public universities, mainly in programs for the training of teachers, school psychologists, sociologists, and social workers, gender research and analyses, reflections and interventions into university curricula were conducted in cooperation with internal resources and international donors. UNDP and foreign expertise supported the introduction of the “Master of Gender Studies” program at the University of Tirana, Faculty of Social Sciences. In all public universities for the training of teachers, there were investments and interventions on gender issues through the network of gender trainers and civic and democratic education centers near them. Replicable models of the engagement of professional education in gender equality issues are being created in general and vocational high school education. Research data have encouraged new curricula products in schools.

In spite of achievements, challenges remain in the low representation of women in leading administrative positions in
education; the application of special measures to encourage the enrollment of girls in vocational high school education; creation of policies to include girls with disabilities, from rural areas, special linguistic and ethnic communities mainly Roma; training of teachers and gender experts in the area of education.

Although women and girls represent the largest number of graduates from higher education, their economic status leaves much to be desired. The participation of women in the labor force has decreased steadily (INSTAT, 2010). Women’s level of participation in the labor force in 2009 was 51.8%, compared to 56.2% in 2007. Women in Albania have less access than men to start a job and therefore unemployment rates among them area higher. The employment rate for the 15-64 years population for 2009 was 53.4%. This indicator was 64.3% for males and 43.6% for females. The employment rate for women has been decreasing since 2007 when it was 49.3%. The level of unemployment among women in 2009 was 15.9%, compared to 12.2% for males in the same year; in 2007, women’s unemployment rate was at 12.2%. Indicators of long-term unemployment (according to the standard definition, longer unemployed persons are persons unemployed for one year or more) indicate that women have higher probability to remain unemployed for a long time compared to men. The difference is considerable, respectively 10.6% to 7.8%. This gap has widened through the years. From 2007, long-term unemployment for women and girls has increased: from 8.8% to 10.6%. Also, among the discouraged unemployed, women make up for 70%, which means that these women and girls no longer seek to enter the labor market. Oftentimes, discouragement is the result of the lack of social care services for children and the elderly. Employment by sector also indicates differences in gender indexes. In the state sector, there are 54.3% males and 45.7% females employed; in the private sector, there are 70.3% males and 29.7% females, and in the agricultural sector, there are 43.3% males and 56.7% females. Data on the unemployed in the state sector indicate that women make up the highest percentage of employment in professions such as specialists or ordinary employees, which are less paid compared professions such as lawmakers, senior employees and officials, policymakers, which are mainly occupied by men. Comparing the rates of employment for both levels, at the central and local ones, data indicate that women take up a higher percentage of employment at the central level. Thus, in local government institutions, 43% of those employed are female, while the figure drops to 30% in the local administrations.

Challenges to education in Albania

- Creating a clear quantitative overview of the roles and levels of gender mainstreaming at various levels and areas of the education system, using separate data for both sexes;
- Gender equalities existing at all levels of education; (enrolment, graduation, structural inequalities in the teaching profession and in educational institutions);
- Assessment of specific education needs, both immediate and practical as well as long-term and strategic, for boys and girls, women and men, and the specific planning to address these needs;
- Strong gender stereotypes in programs, school textbooks of all levels;
- Different career orientation for boys and girls;
- Professional training not related to existing labor market opportunities;
- Ensuring an equal division of women and men in the drafting, planning, decision making, management, administration, and income generation for men and women, boys and girls in terms of access, participation, and the distribution of education resources.

Gender mainstreaming in education is more than just equal number of women and men, girls and boys in the education system. It also entails changes in policies and changes in institutions, so that these are in support of gender equality. That is how gender mainstreaming would produce new dimensions in the education system, which, by all odds, will require changes in the philosophy of education programs, management style, and operational strategies at the local level (UNDP, 2005).

While development has been seen as an attempt to increase equality of life of all people, gender in the context of development, works toward making sure that the special needs of women vis-à-vis those of men, are fulfilled in this process.

Some important elements of gender mainstreaming in education, which could be addressed by all national goals, objectives, and priorities, should aim at:

- making clear the significance of gender with regard to factors such as race/ethnicity, geographic area, class/caste, which are of special importance in the education process;
ensuring gender equality in access in general and in particular with regard to research that lead to better opportunities for career and employment;

• overcoming structural obstacles, which may be legal, economic, political, or cultural, and which may affect the access and/or participation of girls and boys, women and men in opportunities offered for education;

• increasing awareness about the active role that women and girls could and should play in development; and

• increase women’s participation in decision making with regard to education management and leadership.

Gender mainstreaming in education has been considered a tool to achieve gender equality. The realization of this initiative in practice requires awareness and maximal engagement of all government structures, all education system actors, as well as all organizations and persons who are experts in this regard, in order to coordinate their actions and all together enable its accomplishment.

The final goal of gender mainstreaming is to ensure that women and men, boys and girls benefit equally. Gender mainstreaming requires that all decisions and interventions related to the development process be gender sensitive.

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The Quality of Formation with Active Civilization in Schools

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Abstract: Active Civilization consists in the strategy that should be followed if we want to go on our way to civilization. To do this, it is important to grow self-consciousness in every one of us, to respect ourselves and the others, to take commitment and responsibilities to listen to every single person into further levels. In doing this research different material of education and the formation with active civilization is used. This studying is exploratory as it is based on quantitative and qualitative data, taken from interviews, questionnaires realized with teachers and students of Berat Municipality. 60 questionnaires were realized in “Gaqi Karakashi” secondary school in Kucove, 115 questionnaires were realized in “1 Maji” secondary school in Berat, interviewing teachers and students of these schools. This study is also based on the opinions taken from the focus-group organized with a group of students of civic education studying master in the “Aleksander Xhuvani” University. Elbasan. The result analyses showed that in our schools it’s not time yet for qualitative steps according to the formation with active civilization. This is for some reasons as: lack of seriousness of teachers and students in treating and evaluating this problem; lack of concern in our schools, lack of qualifying staff to teach civic education, lack of civic formation in other fields, non-coordination of all the actors that act in our schools, etc. The studying is an attempt to get access to the information, support and clear ideas of the school role in promoting active civilization.

Key words: Active civilization, participation, responsibility, commitment, actors

Introduction

The International Organization which evaluates achievement in education (IEA) has realized an international comparative studying consisting in civic education. This studying was necessary because of the changes that have happened in the world since 1971. 28 countries from the EU (European Commission) were involved in this studying and there is data about the inputs and outputs of civilization index. In this studying is emphasized that the participation in after-school activities, the participation in school clubs and newspapers is very important. These experiences help students to be close to each other, to learn and assimilate the group rules, to take into consideration different commitment speaking loudly for their school concerns.

Informal learning can be as much important as the formal one. Active civilization itself can be a teaching method through participation. Four indicators can be spotted out in the education content: learning knowledge, attitude transferring, values transferring, capacity promoting (debating, creative, social, etc.). The ones interviewed agree with the approach that in our schools students learn to understand people that have different opinions or attitudes on different issues. Understanding people with different opinions is just an aspect of tolerance. In this studying one of the options to answer the question asked to the teachers: “What should the students learn so that they become good citizens?” is “To obey the law”. It is also stated that: “The students should take part and have influence in their school” and “The participation of the students in their community is through their school”.

Four main data sources taken from active civilization are identified: Social European Survey (SES), series of Euro barometer Survey, World Values Study (WVS) and CivEd. Civic education indicators are divided into interior ones, which refer to what is explained in education (indicator of education content, indicator of culture in education); exterior indicators which refer to what has been learnt. These indicators are factors which are taken to have an impact on the active society, which is affected efficiently by civic education.

In 2001, Carnegie Corporation of New York and Information and Research Center of civic learning and commitment came together to study civic education. The report of this study titled Civic Mission of the schools has identified six methods which lead to the improving of civic education. Every school should: assure high teaching quality; incorporate and discuss events in classes; maintain among students what they have learnt, through community service; organize after-school activities; encourage students’ involvement in schools governments; encourage students in democratic process simulations. Civic commitment should help young people to earn their rights and take responsibilities that they have as citizens of their country.

“A teacher can use the new curricular material or technology without changing the teaching approach. Or, a teacher can use the material and change part of his teaching behavior, without understanding the concepts that stand on the
Teachers' training structure often serves as criteria to judge the society as a whole. In the system of training teachers democratic values should take an important part both in university system and pre-university system. Students who study to become teachers should know how and in what circumstances teaching is more efficiently. In the main principles of Bologna Declaration date 18.09.1988 is written: “University produces, examines, evaluates and transfer culture through research and teaching”. In 1998 in MASH (Albanian Ministry of Education) the opening of the branch that trains teachers of history-geography-education was presented for approval and in 1999 this started and teachers of grades 5-8 were for the first time trained. From 1999 to 2004 it was history-geography-civic education and in 2004 the branch that trains civic education teachers was approved. To fulfill the needs that this branch has for teachers, part-time system was opened.

Michael Fullan says: “If you read this book carefully, the greatest revolution that I am talking about is the teaching profession change. If you examine the main message that comes from the pro-government teaching commissions, you will come to the terms that teaching is a profession yet “too young”. It needs reform, status and rewards, remaking of the university training of the teachers and their first steps in the teaching profession, their further professional development, the standards and motives for professional work, and (maybe the most important one) changes in the everyday work conditions of the teachers. (Fullan 2001 p.395).

An important condition to install democracy is the educating moral values without which civic values can’t be cultivated. In this transitive period of great importance was the changing of civic education programs by orienting schools towards education on democratic civilization where: the individual demonstrates civic responsibility and a behavior that demonstrates civilization. We have participation and decision taking where all of them benefit by welcoming and encouraging free initiative. Every individual keeps his/her individuality and diversity.

To have a full civic formation of the students and for the school to play its educative role, the contribute that other subjects offer in this formation is important. When subjects as: history, mother language, geography, etc. play their role as it is supposed to, they help in having a more complete civic formation of the students. The process of teaching today is turned into a multiple and dynamic one where apart of limited knowledge in specific subjects today integrated knowledge among subjects is required. “The integrated curriculum is a guide for all of them who want to look beyond their classes, for all of them who want to pass the limits and break the walls built artificially, for all of them who want to encourage students’ curiosity, inspiration, fantasy, imagination and further more.....” (ISP ed., 2007 p.69).

But how can the role of a teacher actor be understood without the involvement of the students in all the activity for their civic education? The contribute of the students government is very much important in the school. As a civic life instrument it should lead and realize active civilization. The initiative to create and strengthen students voice through their government is an innovation that makes them heard and make them decision takers in the school life.

Important researches in the field of civic education are realized earlier too. We can distinguish “Civic education inside the school and outside” which among others through a deep analyses defined correctly the main elements that affect in the overall atmosphere of the school. This is what is said: The overall atmosphere of the school life gets a special importance and in its overall context these main elements should be valued more:

- The democratic style of school managing, far from centralization and leading attitude.
- The real representation of the students in the managing organs of the school, in the different organizations and commissions for different life and work aspects in the school, far from formalization.
- The right relationship between teachers and students on the mutual respect of partnership and cooperation, far from officializing, authoritarianism, dictate attitude and intolerance.
- The participation of the students in decision-taking, planning, organizing and developing of different activities in schools and out of it, that form their free initiative far from disrespectful attitudes and doubtful and skeptic arbitrary interventions.
- The democratic mutual communication among activated actors in the lesson and in the after-school activities based on understanding and tolerance, far from discriminating, arrogant and predominating attitudes, but also timidity.
- The creation of appropriate climate that fosters critical, creative and realizing thinking, that opens the way to dialogue, discussion and debate and also creates opportunities for participations in the school and community life, far from the tendency to get enclosed inside forms, schemes and stereotypical, solid or borrowed and transplanted mechanically templates. (Como etc., 2002 pp. 64 – 65).

But not in all schools and by all the students this situation is evaluated in this way. In some cases the wish is not obvious to check different problems that from the students’ point of view are encountered. It’s easy to identify the problems, but it is much more difficult to ask for changing this reality. School is still like a boat with oars that goes where the stream takes it rather than a ship that knows clearly not only where to take its passengers but also how to take them there as promised. School in Albania doesn’t have a clear contract with the clients, its passengers. They (the passengers) don’t know where they are directed to, and it (the boat)
doesn’t know where to take them. Even the repairing we do to our school very rarely is a capital reconditioning of the engine. They are mainly efforts to have it at a better outside look at the quay next to the seafront. (Sinani etc., 2004 p. 101).

The aim of this study was to point out objective conclusions concerning the identifying of the different problems that schools encounter in upbringing of active citizens. In spite of all to be taken in consideration the opportunity to improve our future work in civic education and formation of the students. It’s time for a qualitative point of view of civic education, to make people speak about their rights. To do this and have successful practice, communal strategies are required. School has to be the place for initiatives and taking responsibilities from all, to realize the goals in the field of civic education from “civic learning” to “civic education” up to “education for civilization”. The students learn the education for the civic right, but making conclusions in how to create partnership with all the actors, to improve the quality in this direction is the most important thing. The spirit of this partnership is the best way to face the actual challenges for civic education all around the world.

Materials and Methods

Exploratory methods of qualitative and quantitative research are used in this study so that we have a rich material and realize qualitative analyses of the problem being studied. From the subjects taken in this study about 54.9% belong to feminine gender and 45.1% to masculin gender. 60 questionnaires were done in “Gaqi Karakashi” secondary school in Kucove and 115 questionnaires were realized in “1 Maji” secondary school in Berat. Teachers and students of these schools were interviewed to explore further more the problem. It was realized a focus-group with the students of civic education studying master in “Aleksander Xhuvani” University in Elbasan. The questionnaire consisted in ten opinions that showed important elements of the formation with civic education in the school and five steps of participation: never, sometimes, often, very often, don’t know which were fulfilled by every student.

Results and Discussion

The realization of the focus-group with the students aimed to check the students’ evaluation for the opening of civic education branch in the “Aleksander Xhuvani” University in Elbasan, as the only one in Balkan that trains specialists of this field. As every new branch in the beginning this had difficulties like:

- There was no propaganda by different institutions for the opening of this branch. As a result students of low grades and not motivated were enrolled.
- MASH (Ministry of Education) and other factors interested in educating democratic civilization in Albania were more focused in civic training and educating of the existing teachers than in this institution which is pro-service.
- There were no criteria in selecting the teaching students of this branch, because not everyone can teach civic education.

In the opinions that the students of civic education that took part in the consult organized with them gave, for the question why they had chosen this branch of studying, their thoughts varied in:

- Just because they wanted to be teachers.
- Incapable opportunities to choose because of the low grades in high school.
- To graduate and have a diploma.
- To fulfill their parents’ desire in pursuing a career.

It was obvious that no one of the students was enthusiastic about choosing this branch, because the liked to be teachers of civic education. They said that even after graduating they would remain without a job, because they think it is difficult systemize themselves in this branch.

This study was based on the opinions of the teachers and students of the secondary school “1 Maji” Berat and “Gaqi Karakashi” Kucove as well. The realization of the interviews and the questionnaires aimed to monitor the students opinions on their participation in the school life and out of it, identifying the levels of participation in these schools, their participation and their discussions in class meetings; the participation of the students in community activities; the information of the students by the teachers and their government for the school problems; free expressions of their thoughts; realization of planned activities in the education plan, etc.

1. Meeting participation

An important aspect of active civilization is the students’ participation in class meetings. And not only this but also the
discussion about different problems there. In the secondary school “1 Maji” 70.4% of the students say that they never or rarely take part in class meetings; while 27.8% of them say that they often or very often take part in the class meetings; and 1.8% say they do not know. While in the secondary school “Gaqi Karakashi” 58.3% say they never or rarely take part in the class meetings; while 35% say that they often or very often take part; and 6.7% say they do not know. The students get informed about the meetings but most of the cases they show no interest in being present, apart of some of them with kind of a topic that they are interested about. Even in the cases that they are part of these meetings the just listen, and very rarely they discuss about different topics. It is the pedagogical staff duty to create good relationship and a warm communication with all the students. This would help them to take part in the meetings, and feel free and safe to give opinions and becoming part of the discussions.

2. Participation in activities in communities

The students that take part in the discussions have more opportunities to get involved in the participation category in and out of the school area than the students that don’t take part in the discussions. The students are very active in the different activities that the school organizes, but the fact that they take part as a decoration or they organize these all including activities by themselves is important. It is the teachers’ duty to enable the students’ active participation in all activities. This takes civic consciousness of the students into higher levels. In the secondary school “1 Maji” 56.5% of the students say that they never or very rarely take part in the activities in the community; 33.1% of them often or very often take part; while 10.4% say they don’t know. In the secondary school “Gaqi Karakashi” 45% say they never or rarely take part in the activities in the community; while 55% say that they often or very often take part.

3. The informing of the students and the teachers by their government

The students say that the members of the students government gather, discuss and make decisions without asking their opinions. In many cases it is the headmasters and teachers the ones who decide for the problems encountered and give few chances to the members of the students’ government to deal with these problems. That's why they themselves are not much informed about the different problems of the school. In the secondary school “1 Maji” 26% of the students say they never or rarely get informed by their teachers or their representatives; 66.1% say they often or very often get informed, while 7.8% say they don’t know. In the secondary school “Gaqi Karakashi” 56.7% say they never or rarely get informed by their teachers or their representatives; while 33.3% say that they often or very often get informed; while 10% say they don’t know.

4. Free expression of opinions

The ways used to get the students’ free opinion in schools were:
- The thoughts box
- The school newspaper
- Opened meetings
- Discussions
- Surveys
- Questionnaires
- Direct complaints

In the secondary school “1 Maji” 13.9% of the students never or rarely express their opinion; 85.3% of them often or very often express their opinion; while 0.88% of them say they don’t know. In the secondary school “Gaqi Karakashi” 51.7% say they never or rarely express their opinion; 45% say that they often or very often express their opinion; while 3.3% say they don’t know. During the interviews with the teachers and the students a number of factors that affect the creation of barricades for not saying their opinion freely were encountered as:
- The fact that they are students and they are teachers.
- Putting pressure through the grades.
- Giving extra homework when they do mistakes.
- When the teacher doesn’t know or doesn’t want to know the students’ problems.
- The teacher’s mentality that he is the only one who knows.
- Age difference.
Lack of experience in treating problematic cases.
Lack of trainings in this issue.
Not knowing the students level of knowledge.
Not knowing their psychological and age features
Asking too much.
The teachers’ indifferentism.
Not tolerating the students when they do mistakes. The good teacher can look beyond the outer part of the students.

Lamenna said: “All see what I see in a rough sea, but no one observes what I do”. The more favorable the school climate is for students, the more space will be given to them to express their opinions freely, as greater will the opportunity to gain attitude for active participation in the future be. The encouragement of the expression of the opinions freely by the students, takes their civic consciousness into higher levels. The children learn how to talk when it is their turn, they learn to listen and respect the other people opinions.

5. The realization of the activities of the educative plan

The activities planned in the educative plan of the teachers in schools serve for the formation of the students with active civilization in the school and out. They are an important element for the students’ participation and their all-including in the school life and in the community. In the secondary school “1 Maji” 25.2% of the students say that the activities of the educative plan are never or rarely organized; 67% of them say they are often or very often organized; while 7.8% of them say they don’t know. In the secondary school “Gaqi Karakashi” 33.3% say they are never or rarely organized; 61.7% say that they are often or very often organized; while 5% say they don’t know. The above results show that not everything planned by the teachers is realized. Today it is strongly recommended that not only they should be realized but their efficiency should be higher, through cooperation teacher-student in schools.
Conclusions

The analyses of this study came to the conclusion that in our schools qualitative steps in the formation of the students as active citizens of the future have not been taken yet. This is for some reasons as: lack of seriousness in treating and evaluating this problem by the teachers in schools; lack of graduated staff in teaching civic education, because even the ones who graduate in this branch were not given the opportunity to teach it; lack of civic formation in other subjects; The indifferentism being present in our schools by the teachers and the students, not giving the school the right place in realizing its mission in initiating active civilization; lack of participation in different activities in the community, not sufficient level of cooperation teacher-student; lack of constructive dialogue between them; not coordinating the work between all the actors that act in schools, the indifferentism of the teachers and lack of seriousness in treating and evaluating the students as active citizens of the future.

Through this study the information, support and clear ideas of the role that the school should play in initiating active civilization get access. At the same time this study is helpful in sensitizing the teachers and the students in schools to take responsibilities in solving different problems, encouraging self actions, participating in civic actions, aiming in avoiding negative phenomena that are encountered in the today society and improving the level of civilization. To improve the quality of service by the teachers, by offering qualitative and periodic training and qualification, close to their needs in preparing active citizens of the future. The creation of opportunities for schools involvements in projects and programs that are connected with civic education. Knowing and maintaining positive practice by other countries, by making it suitable for the conditions of our country, to enlarge the participation of the students in the community. Creating the contact circle for experience sharing, giving support to programs in schools, where the impact of education with active civilization find favorable circumstances. Encouraging self actions to the students, for participation in civic acts. It is obvious that the request toward the school for a qualitative civic education and formation should become stronger, where the initiating of active civilization should take an important part.

Even so, this study has not faced all the real problems, therefore further steps will be taken to be fulfilled in the future.Identifying different problems and offering them for the teaching department students, teachers and students will serve to the improvement of the existing situation and launching new visions towards the future, in upbringing a new generation with expressions to judge in an independent way the existing models and making suggestions and giving recommendations to improve the future.

References

Tamo, A. , Çomo, B. , Karaj, Th. , Civic Education in schools and out, CRS, Tiránë, 2002.
Retrospective Evaluation of Textbook “Summit 2B” for its Suitability for EFL Undergraduate Students

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Abstract: The literature of materials evaluation indicates the lack of the evaluation of the textbook “Summit 2B” for teaching purposes. This study aims to present the retrospective evaluation of this textbook for its suitability for Undergraduate University Students (UUSs). A survey using a checklist and a semi-structured interview were carried out. The data were collected from the TEFL instructors and students after one semester of using the “Summit 2B” as their textbook at Islamic Azad university, Tabriz branch, and Jahad daneshgahi in Urmia, Iran. Out of 150 participants of the study 10 were instructors and 140 were students. For the survey the checklist of Doaud and Celce-Murcia (1979) based on five criteria of subject matter, vocabulary and structure, exercise, illustration, and physical make-up was employed and distributed among the instructors and students; while, for the interview the researcher-designed questions were used for interviewing the instructors. The quantitative data obtained from the survey were analyzed using descriptive statistics and the qualitative data of the audio-recorded interview were analyzed using the descriptive interpretation of the responses given by the instructors. The results of the study, in general, revealed the suitability of the textbook for UUSs. The findings, in particular, indicated that there are some problems related to the criteria of vocabulary and structure, and physical make-up in relation to the over-loaded pages. The implications and necessary suggestions for strengthening the weak areas of the textbook are presented.

Keywords: EFL students, materials evaluation, retrospective evaluation, summit 2B, textbook

1. Introduction

Textbooks are the main sources that can convey the knowledge and information to the learners in an easy and organized way. Cunningsworth (1995), for example, identifies a textbook as a resource in presenting the materials and a source for learners to practice and do the activities. Hutchinson and Torres (1994) argue that the textbooks have a very important and positive role to play in teaching and learning. Sheldon (1988) suggests that “textbooks do not only represent the visible heart of any ELT program, but also offer considerable advantages” (p. 237). The most essential function of a textbook is to motivate students to learn (Mikk, 2000). For Dubin and Oshtain (1986) “the tangible element that gives a language course face validity to many teachers and learners is the textbook” (p. 167). With regard to the essential aim of the ELT textbooks, Byrd (2001) argues that ELT textbooks include two kinds of information which are topic content (e.g., Family, school, etc.) and linguistic content (e.g., grammar, vocabulary, skills) and that they help learners to learn the linguistic content through topic content. In fact, textbooks give learners and teachers enough confidence and security (Cunningsworth, 1995). It is agreed that textbooks are of great value in the processes of teaching and learning (e.g., Cunningsworth, 1995; Haycraft, 1998; O'Neill, 1982; Sheldon, 1988; Tanner, 1988). Studies which have been conducted in the area of textbook evaluation show that using textbooks is inevitable. Tyson (1997) expresses that for teachers who do not have enough time for lesson planning especially for inexperienced teachers textbooks are useful tools. For having a useful and effective textbook, evaluation is necessary. According to Robinson (1991) evaluation is the discovery of the value of something for a particular purpose. It is regarded as an interactive process (interaction between teachers, learners, and materials) which includes a profound analysis of the materials used. Evaluation in TESOL situations is a process which is used to collect, analyze, and interpret required information (Genesee, 2001). This process enables us to make informed decisions through which student achievement will increase and educational programs will be more successful. Grant (1987) states that although there is no perfect textbook, there is the best textbook that can
help teachers and learners. He points out that such a book not only matches the learners' needs, interests, and abilities but suits the teachers' needs and meets the officials' needs also.

Textbook evaluation is very important because it not only provides useful information for teachers, but also plans learning settings for students. In this regard, McDonough and Shaw (2003) believe that in two kinds of situations some degree of evaluation is needed. First, it is the situation when teachers are given the choice to adopt or develop their own materials. Second, it is when teachers are consumers and just use the products of other people. This is in line with what Cunningsworth (1995) and Ellis (1997) say that textbook evaluation helps teachers move beyond impressionistic assessments, systematic, and contextual insights into the overall nature of textbook material. They also suggest three different types of material evaluation (i.e., pre-use, in-use, and post-use). Pre-use or predictive evaluation is designed to examine the materials before they are used. In-use evaluation is intended to examine the materials which are currently being used. Post-use or retrospective evaluation is designed to examine the materials after they have been used. Mukundan (2009) points out that through retrospective evaluation teachers will be informed about the strengths and weaknesses of the textbook and involved in their own professional development. He further states that in this case teachers' knowledge will be increased and their potential for asking and investigating will be enhanced.

2. Studies on materials evaluation

Different studies have been conducted in the area of materials evaluation in the ESL and EFL situations. The use of Spectrum Series and New Interchange Series in Iran are so vast that most of the researchers’ (e.g., Darali, 2007; Iraji, 2007, Riasat & Zare, 2010; Sahragard, Rahimy, & Zaremooayedi, 2009) aim is to evaluate these Series to determine their suitability and appropriateness. Darali (2007) argues that valuable Metalinguistic information is provided by spectrum textbooks, but there is no explicit descriptions concerning suitability, paralinguistic and contextual information. Riasat and Zare (2010) using Litz's (2005) checklist evaluated Intro, Interchange 1, Interchange 2, and Interchange 3. They indicated that accessibility, teacher's guide, clear layout and design and activities of language skills are strong points of the series. However, they stated that some parts in the series do not match the learners' level and are not relevant because cultural differences in writing skills are ignored and there are not many testing exercises as well.

In this regard, Eslami, Esmaeili, Ghavaminia and Rajabi (2010) conducted an evaluation on four coursebooks “Top Notch, Interchange, Head way, and On your Mark” which are widely used in Iranian English institutes. McDoungoh and Shaw's (2003) model consisting of external and internal evaluation criteria was used in this study. In researchers' idea, “On your Mark” book is a unique and flexible series with multiple entry levels used for secondary students. “Top Notch” has a natural language that used by people with a learner-centered approach and provides students opportunity to confirm their own progress. “Head way” combines traditional methods of teaching with more recent communicative approaches which provides the L2 learners a comprehensive language. “New Interchange” is a successful book for adult and young adult learners at the beginning to intermediate levels. The researchers aimed to compare these coursebooks to find out which coursebook is better in the EFL situation of Iran. The results of their study showed “Top Notch” meets the most criteria than the other coursebooks. Ranalli (2002) also evaluated the “New Headway upper –Intermediate”, one of the coursebooks taught at the foreign language Institute of Yonsei University in Seoul, Korea, using the general guidelines proposed by Cunningsworth (1995). According to Ranalli, although there are some shortcomings related to the methodology and speaking skill, the book is in general suitable for pedagogical purposes and the grammar of speech, vocabulary systems, and language input are useful and relevant.

Cakit (2006) and Aytug (2007), in Turkey, evaluated the effectiveness of the textbooks “New Bridge to success 3” and “New Bridge to Success for 9th Grade New Beginners”, respectively. Different results were revealed in both cases. The former was not come up with the positive attitude of the teachers and students regarding the vocabulary and structure of reading passages; while, the latter was found to be effective in general.

Literature of materials evaluation shows that different textbooks or coursebooks have been evaluated in different countries including Iran (e.g., Right path to English and Graded English (Amirian, 1987); Dialogues of 3 English textbooks used in high school (Tavakoli, 1995); Spectrum series (Darali, 2007); New Interchange Series (Iraji, 2007; Riasat & Zare, 2010 ; Sahragard et al., 2009); Reading comprehension for university students (Rahimy, 2007); Reading through interaction (Karamouzian & Riazi, 2008); Four EFL text books used in high school (Jahangard, 2008); ESP textbook (Humanities) (Zanjani, 2009); ESP textbook Medical science (Razmjoo & Raissi, 2010); Comparison of Top notch, Interchange, Head way, on your mark (Eslami et al., 2010); Turkey (e.g., EAP textbook (BASE 3) (Ayman, 1997); ESP English for Law course (Kanik, 2002); English for Business Studies (Coskuner, 2002); New Bridge to success 3 (Cakit, 2006); Time for English 4 (Ozdmir, 2007); New bridges to success for 9th grade (Aytug, 2007); Spot on (Tok, 2010); Saudi-Arabia(e.g., Third- Grade secondary school (Al-Hijailan, 1999); Say it in English (Al-Yousef, 2007); Sixth grade
English language (Alamri, 2008); Korea (e.g., New Headway Upper-intermediate (Ranalli, 2002); and Canada (e.g., ESL textbooks (Hong, 2004).

The textbook “Summit 2B” which is used in some of the universities in Iran for undergraduate students is a newly introduced book and has not been evaluated in this context before. Therefore, this study aimed to determine the suitability and effectiveness of “Summit 2B” for Undergraduate University Students (UUSs) in the EFL context of Iran in terms of five criteria of subject matter, vocabulary and structure, exercise, illustration, and physical make-up). For this, the following research questions were posed:

1. Is the subject matter of “Summit 2B” suitable for UUSs?
2. Is the vocabulary and structure of “Summit 2B” suitable for UUSs?
3. Is the exercise of “Summit 2B” suitable for UUSs?
4. Is the illustration of “Summit 2B” suitable for UUSs?
5. Is the physical make-up of “Summit 2B” suitable for UUSs?

3. Methodology

3.1. Design of the study

The present study employed a survey research design and it was conducted among the instructors and undergraduate students in two universities in Iran.

3.2. Participants

The total participants who took part in this study were 150 including ten instructors (2 females, 8 males) with the teaching experience between two to twenty years and 140 students (80 females students and 60 males students). They were instructors and students in Islamic Azad University-Tabriz branch and Jehad daneshgahi in Urmia, Iran. The students' age ranged from twenty to forty one years. Their major was teaching English as a foreign language. They studied the textbook “Summit 2B”, which is for advanced level, in their Laboratory course and the time allotted for the course to cover the textbook was two hours per week for one semester.

3.3. Instruments

In this study two instruments (i.e., checklist and interview questions) were used to collect the required information quantitatively and qualitatively.

   a) **Checklist**: The checklist of Daoud and Celce-Murcia (1979) (see Appendix A) was employed. It includes the five criteria of subject matter (4 items), vocabulary and structure (9 items), exercise (5 items), illustration (3 items), and physical make-up (4 items). These items were into the form of closed questions. The participants evaluated and answered the items based on the scales (i.e., totally lacking =0, weak = 1, adequate = 2, good = 3, excellent = 4) of this Likert-scale checklist.

   b) **Semi-Structured Interview Questions**: Six open-ended questions were devised by the researchers for interviewing the instructors. These questions asked for the different parts of the textbook under question in alignment with the research questions (e.g., what do you think about different topics of the textbook? Do they cover learners’ interest and needs? Or what do you think about the clarity and comprehensibility of the pictures in the textbook? Do you have any suggestions?).

3.4. Procedure

The survey data were collected at the end of one semester of using the textbook “Summit 2B” in June 2011. This textbook, which is written for the advanced students, was covered in the laboratory course for two hours per week within the duration of 16 weeks. The quantitative data were collected through students’ and instructors’ responses to the checklist. The allocated time for answering the questions was about thirty minutes. The qualitative data were collected through interviewing the instructors. The instructors were interviewed individually and their responses were audio-recorded and then were transcribed for further analysis and interpretation.
3.5. Data Analysis

The collected data through the checklist were analyzed by SPSS 16.0. Descriptive statistics of Mean (M) and Standard Deviation (SD) were used in the analysis and interpretation of the survey data. The means more than 3 was regarded as the satisfactory response to the research questions. The means between 2 and 3 were the sign of moderate satisfaction and the means less than 2 were the indication of participants’ dissatisfaction to the related item and criterion and as a result to the suitability of the textbook “Summit 2B”. Cronbach’s alpha was used to calculate the reliability of the checklist questions and they were found reliable with the Alpha coefficient of 0.85 which indicated a high internal reliability. The interview responses were also explained based on the frequency of positive/satisfied and negative/dissatisfied responses to the interview questions and discussed qualitatively.

4. Results and Discussion

In order to answer the research questions the Means and Standard Deviations of the participants’ responses to the checklist questions were calculated. Table 1 shows the Means and Standard Deviations for the five criteria (i.e., subject matter, vocabulary and structure, exercise, illustration, and physical make-up) of the checklist and their underlying questions (25 items in total, see Appendix A).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Criteria</th>
<th>M</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>M</th>
<th>SD</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Subject matter</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Item1</td>
<td>3.30</td>
<td>.55</td>
<td>2.79</td>
<td>.59</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Item2</td>
<td>3.00</td>
<td>1.05</td>
<td>2.82</td>
<td>.75</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Item3</td>
<td>3.20</td>
<td>.78</td>
<td>2.54</td>
<td>1.04</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Item4</td>
<td>3.50</td>
<td>.52</td>
<td>3.05</td>
<td>.87</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Vocabulary and Structure</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Item5</td>
<td>3.20</td>
<td>1.13</td>
<td>2.94</td>
<td>.95</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Item6</td>
<td>2.90</td>
<td>.99</td>
<td>2.54</td>
<td>.88</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Item7</td>
<td>2.80</td>
<td>.78</td>
<td>2.56</td>
<td>1.01</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Item8</td>
<td>3.20</td>
<td>.63</td>
<td>2.64</td>
<td>1.04</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Item9</td>
<td>3.10</td>
<td>.73</td>
<td>2.43</td>
<td>1.17</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Item10</td>
<td>3.20</td>
<td>.77</td>
<td>2.60</td>
<td>.91</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Item11</td>
<td>3.40</td>
<td>.69</td>
<td>2.78</td>
<td>1.04</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Item12</td>
<td>3.30</td>
<td>.82</td>
<td>2.72</td>
<td>.87</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Item13</td>
<td>3.20</td>
<td>.78</td>
<td>2.62</td>
<td>.96</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Exercise</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Item14</td>
<td>3.30</td>
<td>1.05</td>
<td>2.86</td>
<td>.93</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Item15</td>
<td>3.30</td>
<td>.67</td>
<td>2.86</td>
<td>.86</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Item16</td>
<td>3.20</td>
<td>.78</td>
<td>2.57</td>
<td>1.02</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Item17</td>
<td>3.40</td>
<td>.69</td>
<td>2.62</td>
<td>.94</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Item18</td>
<td>3.80</td>
<td>.42</td>
<td>2.60</td>
<td>1.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Illustration</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Item19</td>
<td>3.50</td>
<td>.50</td>
<td>2.79</td>
<td>.72</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Item20</td>
<td>3.70</td>
<td>.48</td>
<td>2.74</td>
<td>.97</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Item21</td>
<td>3.60</td>
<td>.89</td>
<td>2.87</td>
<td>.97</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Physical make-up</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Item22</td>
<td>2.80</td>
<td>1.03</td>
<td>2.93</td>
<td>1.15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Item23</td>
<td>2.90</td>
<td>.99</td>
<td>2.65</td>
<td>1.23</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Item24</td>
<td>2.10</td>
<td>1.10</td>
<td>2.49</td>
<td>1.18</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Item25</td>
<td>2.90</td>
<td>1.19</td>
<td>2.69</td>
<td>1.18</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Note. M < 2 = Not Satisfied; 2 < M < 3 = Moderately Satisfied; M > 3 = Satisfied*
As the Table 1 indicates, instructors were satisfied with four criteria of Subject matter, Vocabulary and structure, Exercise, and Illustration. They were also moderately satisfied with the Physical make-up of the book. This is while, students reflected moderate satisfaction for all criteria. The results revealed that out of five criteria, the instructors showed more satisfaction with the criteria of illustration ($M = 3.53$, $SD = .50$) (They were satisfied with the clarity, simplicity, and relevance of the illustrations to the content and their favorable atmosphere for practice in reading) followed by exercise ($M = 3.40$, $SD = .49$) (They were more satisfied with item 18 that is related to the exercises that promote meaningful communication by referring to realistic activities and situations) and subject matter ($M = 3.30$, $SD = .55$) (Their high satisfaction, item 1 and item 4, indicated that the subject matter cover a variety of topics and arouse interest of the learners and that the material is accurate and up-to-date), and vocabulary and structure ($M = 3.14$, $SD = .41$) (They indicated their satisfaction more with item 11, i.e., the use of everyday language and the sentence structures that follow normal word order), respectively. They rated the criterion of physical make-up ($M = 2.67$, $SD = .74$) lower than other criteria and they were less satisfied (item 24, $M = 2.10$, $SD = 1.10$) with the size of the book. That is why Dougill (1987) argues that the physical appearance of materials should be appealing enough to motivate the learners.

The results indicated moderate satisfaction of the students with all criteria and their underlying questions. The students' higher ratings of satisfaction were related to the criteria of subject matter ($M = 2.79$, $SD = .59$) and illustration ($M = 2.79$, $SD = .72$) equally, followed by exercise ($M = 2.70$, $SD = .62$), physical make-up ($M = 2.69$, $SD = .84$), and vocabulary and structure ($M = 2.65$, $SD = .59$), respectively.

The highest satisfaction of both the instructors and the students was related to the criterion of illustration. This indicates that clarity, simplicity and appropriateness of illustrations are necessary to an effective learning and teaching situation because they increase learners' motivation (McDonough & Shaw, 1998; Tomlinson, 2001). The low satisfaction of the participants was related to the criteria of vocabulary and structure and physical make-up of the textbook. This view is supported by Griffiths (1995) who believes that interesting, attractive and well-illustrated materials are more favorable for learners.

The results of the checklist correspond with the interview results (see Table 2). Considering the criteria of subject matter, exercise, and illustration a majority of the instructors (8 and 9) had positive opinions which showed their satisfaction for each criterion in particular and the whole textbook in general. However, out of ten instructors four and three were dissatisfied with the criteria of physical make-up and vocabulary and structure, respectively.

### Table 2. Frequency of the instructors’ responses to the interview questions

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Criteria</th>
<th>Satisfied ($f$)</th>
<th>Dissatisfied ($f$)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Subject matter</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Vocabulary and structure</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Exercise</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Illustration</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Physical make-up</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

They indicated that some pages of the book are over-loaded and are boring for the students. For example, one instructor said that “I think the appearance of the textbook is not attractive and we should never ignore students' negative feeling about the loaded-pages, type size, and cover of the book. This negative feeling may demotivate students. These problems should be taken into consideration.” The other instructor explained that “as you know every book contains linguistic items which equip the learners to learn language. I think linguistic aspects in “Summit 2B” are not clear enough to help learners to understand the text. I would like to add one point more about vocabulary, vocabularies are not appropriate to the students' needs level.” One of the instructors indicated that “there are some exercises in unit eight which are not appropriate and they do not match the learners' interest. Let's be frank, some of the exercises are boring and can not motivate the learners.” Similarly, another instructor pointed out that “in my opinion neither cover nor pages of textbook "Summit 2B" are attractive. That is why students always complain about cover and loaded pages.”

Regarding the subject matter one dissatisfied instructor stated that “in my opinion, understanding all topics for students are not so easy; for example there is a topic in unit eight “Humor” is difficult for both instructors and students because of cultural differences.” In relation to the question about illustration one instructor expressed that “in my opinion the only shortcoming of "Summit 2B" is that some of the pictures used in this book are not clear and suitable for our
students' culture. I can say that on the whole, it is a useful book among all English textbooks which I have used during my teaching experience." For exercise part, one instructor stated that "during our break time when we talk about "Summit 2B" with each other we agree that some parts of this book especially exercises are boring."

The findings, in general, revealed that the illustrations, exercises, and subject matter in terms of topics and graded content in the textbook “Summit 2B” were more appealing to the students of this study and corresponded more with their needs.

5. Conclusion

The overall results of the study indicated that the textbook “Summit 2B” seems to be suitable for the undergraduate students in an EFL situation like Iran. However, the findings revealed a few shortcomings related to the criterion of vocabulary and structure in some units (e.g., unit 8, Humor) which does not meet the students’ expectations and cannot equip the learners with the ability to do their tasks because of cultural differences. Another drawback of “Summit 2B” is related to its physical make-up due to some over-loaded pages with less white space (Tomlinson, 2003). It is hoped that these shortcomings would be taken into consideration in the next edition of the textbook.

The results of this study would be useful for the syllabus designers, ELT materials developers, and teachers. It is for the EFL teachers who use “Summit 2B” in their classes to adapt or omit the problematic areas of the book as their educational and cultural settings require. The findings would also be of high importance to educational settings whose aims are to select a suitable textbook with a high amount of educational outcome which would increase students’ interest, motivation, and achievement.

Further studies needed to be conducted in the case of evaluating the use of four language skills in “Summit 2B”. In addition, a comparative study is needed among all series of Summit textbooks.

References


### Appendix A

**Checklist adopted from Daoud and Celce-Murcia (1979)**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>A. Subject matter</th>
<th>Excellent=4</th>
<th>Good=3</th>
<th>Adequate=2</th>
<th>Weak=1</th>
<th>Totally lacking=0</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Does the subject matter cover a variety of topics? Appropriate to the interests of the learners for whom the textbook is intended (urban or rural environment, child or adult learners, male and or female students)?</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

201
2. Is the ordering of materials done by topics or themes that are arranged in a logical fashion?

3. Is the content graded according to the needs of students or requirements of the existing syllabus (If there is one)?

4. Is the material accurate and up-to-date?

**B. Vocabulary and Structure**

5. Does the vocabulary load (i.e., the number of new words introduced every lesson) seem to be reasonable for the students of that level? Is the new vocabulary repeated in subsequent Lessons for reinforcement?

6. Is the new vocabulary repeated in subsequent lessons for reinforcement?

7. Are the vocabulary items controlled to ensure Systematic gradation from simple to complex?

8. Does the sentence length seem reasonable for the students Of that level?

9. Is the number of grammatical points as well as their sequence appropriate?

10. Does the sentence length seem reasonable for the students Of that level?

11. Does the structures gradually increase in complexity to suit the growing reading ability of the students?

12. Do the sentences and paragraphs follow one another in a logical sequence?

13. Are linguistic items introduced in meaningful situation to facilitate understanding assimilation consolidation?

**C. Exercise**

14. Do the exercises develop comprehension and test knowledge of main ideas, details and sequence of ideas?

15. Do the exercises involve vocabulary and structures which build up the learners' repertoire?

16. Do the exercises provide practice in different types of written work (sentence completion their spelling and dictation, guided composition)?

17. Does the book provide a pattern of review within lessons and cumulatively test new material?

18. Do the exercises promote meaningful communication by referring to realistic activities and situations?

**D. Illustrations**

19. Do illustrations create a favorable atmosphere for practice in reading and spelling by depicting realism and action?

20. Are the illustrations clear, simple, and free of unnecessary details that may confuse the learner?

21. Are the illustrations printed close enough to the text and directly related to the content to help the learner understand the printed text?

**E. Physical make-up**

22. Is the cover of the book durable enough to withstand wear?

23. Is the text attractive (i.e., cover, page appearance, binding)?

24. Does the size of the book seem convenient for the students to handle?

25. Is the type size appropriate for the intended learners?
Effectiveness of Educational Programs for Child Rehabilitation of Different Abilities

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Abstract The purpose of this study is a reflection on the effectiveness of rehabilitation programs for the psychosocial development of children with limited skills. The methods used were vertical observations, semi-structured interviews, focus groups, and structured questionnaires. Based on methods like: Teach, Holding, Ethodinamic, Floortime, DIR, PESCA, DT.T.ABA. For the period 2002-2011, the mental age of children with Down syndrome in practical educational programs rose to 6 years old on average of 6.5 months of children's mental ability. Mental age of children 3 years old without practical educational programs rose on average 1.5 months. Mental age of autistic children under rehabilitation program to 6 years old rose to 2.5 months. Autistic children's mental age free of exercise program grew on average 3 years. The average mental age of children with mental retardation increased 7 years old to 5.5 months. Mental age of children without mental training programs increased to 3.5 months. Children under exercise, performed on average 55% of the program, at a complete Likert degree level. While children without exercise programs did not realize 68% of the test sections on cognitive skills. Autistic children performed 50% of exercise training program for cognitive skills, 55% of the training program for linguistic skills. Autistic children free from training did not realize 69% of the test for cognitive ability test and 55% of language test. Children with Down syndrome under exercise completed 45% of the program on cognitive skills and 55% of the training program for linguistic skills. Untrained children with mental rehabilitation programs in the 2011 test did not realize 73% of the test on cognitive skills and 66% of test on language training. Results show that by applying modern methods of rehabilitation programs, real institutional instruments intertwined with co-parent specialist, psychosocial development of children with autism, Down syndrome, mental weakness, is difficult but not impossible.

Key words: Autism, Rehabilitation Program, Down syndrome, Mental weakness, Effectiveness.

Introduction

The study was conducted in the field of disability. Person is said to have disabilities when physical functions, intellectual abilities, or mental health, are different from those of his age, hindering or preventing in its participation in social life. The target group of children with disabilities is in growing number. In order for them to be rehabilitated and integrated legal, socio-economic and professional assistance is required in accordance with the Constitution and Albanian legislation. The study reflects on rehabilitating programs, modern methods and the latest techniques that were used for physical, emotional cognitive social integration into the community, psychosocial parameters - normal physical and social.

The purpose of this study is to reflect the effectiveness of rehabilitation programs for the psychosocial development of children with disabilities and to sensitize the public, the possibility of their development through professional programs, which are used in many developed western countries. This study raises the hypothesis; does rehabilitation affect educational programs in psychological, social and emotional progress of children with different abilities. Sample of the study were 12 children, four with autism, four with Down syndrome and four with mental condition. In each group, two children are in control group. In determining mental age, children were subjected to SONE-R test. In the first testing in 2002 each child's mental age was 2.5 years. The study was made in three phases, 2002-2005, 2005-2008 and 2008-2011. The first phase program of study includes three areas of development. This phase includes three areas of development. The second program five development areas and the third eight development areas program. During program implementation, individual plans were developed and applied five therapeutic sessions per week, according to the typology of service. Within 11 months, 220 sessions were conducted for each domain of development. The children in the control group were not trained with educational programs and stayed with their families in natural development conditions. In preserving the anonymity of children, the photos of the children in the study shown in the presentation were authorized by their parents, as well as the preservation of personal data. In order to increase the effectiveness of educational programs, sessions should be 45 minutes, implemented with no less than four relaxing sessions. A concept presentation requires no less than three very concrete didactic means. For the acquisition of an abstract concept it needs five sessions per week. At the end of each academic year, visual assessment of outcomes for each child is given, according to the spheres of development, analyzing the data records kept in the performance of programs, methods and
techniques of education. At the end of the third phase, children's performance are presented graphically and compared with the graphs of the first two stages. From the analysis results, the children under training program have visible progress of mental development compared with the children in the control group. Children's progress is possible and different for each child, based on limited parameters of the child's psychological progress.

Study Methodology

Some instruments were used for the study. Vertical observation was used in order to get more in depth with the assimilation of educational program. The focus group was established with field specialists from central institutions, civil society and homologous center personnel. The half structured interview was held with parents of the children. Through these interviews they affirm the children progress during treatment at the Center. The video and photo materials show the therapeutic sessions conducted by the specialists. The SONE-R test served as an instrument to measure and determines the mental age of the championed children and of the control group. The application of the test is done for the championed children in all stages of the study from 2002 up to 2011. For the control group children the test was held in the first stage of the study and at the end of it in 2011. Children with different skills should be educated in schools. Even though their mental and sensory abilities are limited, it is necessary to draft special educational programs. Monitoring the treatment and periodical evaluation of the needs dictated the improvement of the rehabilitating programs by expanding other areas of the development. In the second phase of the study 2005-2008, the program was enriched with two other aspects of development. The program of the third phase contains eight other development areas. The English modules are orientated for the formation of educational programs according to children needs while the Swiss indicator of teaching is another reference system for educational programs.

Self service skills program. Through this program children are skilled to serve themselves in all possible dimensions. Cognitive skills program is used to learn community concepts to write and read, to calculate and interpret poems and songs. Practice training program, intended use of oven, washing machine, ironing, to open and close the TV set and be exercised in simple computer programs.

Physical training aims, improvement of the health through aerobic and improvement of fine and global motor skills. Vocational training is done in fun sessions, of pottery, pyrography drawing-and painting sessions. Adult girls may be exercised in sewing machines and cooking.

Emotional and psychological training training, assess the level of child's mental development, emotional and clinical status, language, behavior and senses. The program accelerates cognitive development, comprehension, concentration of attention, emotional level, expressive skills, and degrees of judgment.

Through orthophonic program, mime gestures, pictures, in a non verbal and verbal language training communication can be gained.

Social skills program, aimed at rehabilitation and social skills through games, which are evaluated as one of the most relaxing, for socialization in the group.

Literature Review

Individualized program of services is and integrative instrument, which assesses the needs of the person and its active participation / family planning enables the coordination of services. (*Jean-Charles Juhel, Gutenberg 2010).

Psychology, of GESELL (1940), Piaget (1957) and Bloom (1964), shows the importance of the first years of life the child to develop cognitive, linguistic, sensory-motor and affective. Low stimulation during early childhood can lead, in the absence of irreparable, in both the affective and cognitive (**Jean-Charles Juhel, Gutenberg 2010).

Rehabilitation programs were built on the basis of assessment of the child’s needs. (Sheriff, integration Edo.Aftësim, 2004).

Women with the Down syndrome can be pregnant and give birth, while boys are often fertile. (Rogers, Coleman, 1992, Goldstein, 2004)

The results give rise to the development of logical thinking through the application of individual programs (. Renzo Vianello Silvia Elena Moalli Lanfranchi, Vianello, 2006)

Parents can intervene to improve the skills of the language communication. (Ossella SABBADINI, 2001, Rondal, 2004)
Autism is a disorder of development that occurs in the first three years of life and is regarded as a neurological disorder that affects the function of the brain. Autism is four times more prevalent among boys than girls and has no racial, ethnic or social differentiation. The limits of family income, lifestyle and level of education, do not affect the chance of Autism to occur. (American Medical Association).

**GENETICAL FACTORS**

<table>
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<th>Genetical factors</th>
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<tr>
<td>Brain Anomaly</td>
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<td>Brain Chemistry</td>
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**ENVIRONMENTAL FACTORS.**

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<th>ENVIRONMENT FACTORS</th>
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<tr>
<td>Three vaccine combination</td>
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<tr>
<td>-Tainesol</td>
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<tr>
<td>-Wheat based food or dairy</td>
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<tr>
<td>-Envn. Pollution</td>
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<tr>
<td>Post-partum issues, Parent age</td>
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<td>Drug misuse</td>
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**Autistic spectrum disorders:** Social interaction. Communication. Repetitive stereotypical behavior. Treatment is based on programs and methods that improve quality of life of the child, but do not heal autism. Methods: ABA, TEACCH, LOVAAS, GREENSPAN. (D.IR.Flooertime). PECS. Ecodinamic. Holding was used effectively.

Autistic child is not only linguistically communication defective. The acquiring information instrument often causes problems in sensitivity areas. Hearing, sight, touch, smell and taste senses are developed differently from children with normal development and do not compensate for linguistic damage. (Dhamo Milika (2008). fq.200-2020.)

Capture and treatment of autism in early youth and restriction prevents the autistic elements as wrong ways of behavior. (Saqellari, Spiro.Onufri 2011; fq.101).

Observe the evolution of the child every day and record, not only advancements, but also feedback. Tupja, Edmond. (OMBRAGVG.2009). P.7-9, 138. *When the pain promises love. Living with a child autistic.*

By a state of mental weakness, we mean pronounced reduction of intellectual functioning defined as a mental individual. Mental delay is perceived as an intellectual functioning below the average, coupled with restrictions on at least two areas of functioning adapter that may be, communication, care for yourself, housework skills, social skills, use of community resources, autonomy, health and safety, functional educational skills, leisure and mental results. Such a thing appears before age of 18 years old. (American Association on Mental delay (AAMR ).)

Mental weakness is a state, not an illness. Evaluation of mental categories.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>The degree of severity of weakness.</th>
<th>QI</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Easy</td>
<td>50-75</td>
<td>88</td>
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<tr>
<td>Average</td>
<td>50-35</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The heavy</td>
<td>35-20</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The deep</td>
<td>20-0</td>
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How widespread is mental weakness? In the world, there are 156 million people with mental retardation reported. Prevalence varies from 1-3% of the population. What are the causes? Among the known causes, three drag more attention:

1. Hereditary and genetic factors. 2. Biological malformations. 3. Psychosocial and economical factors. Such elements play an important role along with the etiology of mental weakness and would be difficult to completely break away from each other.
Study Results

Mental age of children with Down syndrome trained in rehabilitation programs.

Graphical representation of the mental age of BS
BS Child, in 2002: 2.6 years.
2006: 5.1 years.
2010: 5.8 years.

Graphical representation of mental age MZ
Child M, in 2002: 2.5 years;
2006: 4.7 years.

Graphic presentation of training for self-service, BS.
Not at all 0%
Physical Assist 0%
Verbal Assist 25%
Partial 25%
Complete 50%

Cognitive Training Graphic of MZ
Not at all 0%
Physical Assist 10%
Verbal Assist 15%
Partial 30%
Complete 55%
Autistic children treated with rehabilitation education programs.

Graphical representation of mental age M.Ç.
In the year-2002-7.4-2.5 years. 2006 years. 2010-6.3 years.

Graphical representation of mental age to MH
In the year-2002-2.5 years-0.2006-4 .2, 2010 6 years

M. Ç. Cognitive Training
Not at all. 0%. Physical Assist. 5%. Verbal Assist. 10%
Partial. 35% Complete. 50%.

M. H. linguistic training
Not at all. 0%. Physical Assist 5%. Verbal Assist 5%
Partial 35%. Complete 55%.

Children with mental retardation treated with rehabilitation education programs.

G.J.S. 2002.2.5 mental age years.
2006- 5.3 years. 2011-7.10 years

Mental age 2.5 years PR2002.
2006-4.7 years. 2011 7.1 year
Cognitive Training GJ.S.
Not at all 0%, Physical Assist 10%, Verbal Assist 20%.
Partial 25%, 45% Complete.

- 55%
- 25%
- 20%
- 10%
- 0%

PR. Linguistic training.
Not at all 0%, Physical Assist 5%, Verbal Assist 15%,
Partial 25%, Complete 55%

Control Group.
Down syndrome children not part of rehabilitation program.

Graphical representation of the mental age of AD
AD 2.5 years in 2002; -2.11 years in 2011.

Graphical representation of the child's mental age K.K.
K.K. in 2002, 2.6 years; in 2011, 3.2 years
Graphical representation of the child Cognitive Development AD
Cognitive. No training. Help 68% physical 32%

Graphical representation of self-service training for the child K.K.
No training 65%. Physical Assist35%

Autistic children without exercise rehabilitation programs.

GS. Cognitive Training.
Not at all 69%, Physical Assist 31%, Verbal Assist 0%.
Partial 0%.Complete 0%.

D.D. Linguistic training.
Not at all 55%, Physical Assist 35%, Verbal Assist 10%
Partial 0%.Complete 0%
Children with mental retardation without exercise programs.

U.A Cognitive training.
Not at all 73%, Physical Assist. 27%, Verbal Assist. 0%.
Partial. 0%, Complete 0%

R.K. Linguistic training
Not at all 66%, Physical Assist. 34%, Verbal Assist. 0%.
Partial. 0%, Complete 0%

Discussions

1. From the SONE-R test results, it can be said that the effectiveness of rehabilitation programs is proven in the difference in growth of the mental age of children. In the period 2002-2011, mental age of the Down syndrome children under the practice of educational programs, increased on average of 6 years old was 6.5 months, while the same period of the mental age of children without exercise, the average increase of a 3 year old is 1.5 months. For the period 2002-2011 mental age of autistic children under exercise rehabilitation programs, rose for a 6 year old to 2.5 months. Autistic children's mental age free of exercise program grew on average 3 years. For the period 2002-2011, the average mental age of children with mental retardation increased to 7 year old in 5.5 month. The age of autistic children without training programs rose to 3.5 months.

2. Results measured through SSPS program package, show notable difference between the achievement of children through programs and children without exercise in all spheres of development, e.g. cognitive skills. The exercised children perform on average 55% of the program completely according to a fully Likert scale. Meanwhile unexercised children 68% of the sections in the test on cognitive skills do not complete them at all. Self-service skills for Down syndrome children were completed at 50% of the program, while the other ones did not complete 65 % of the test on this matter.

Autistic children under program completed 50% of the program on cognitive skills and 55% on linguistic skills. The control group children did not complete 69 % of the test on cognitive skills and 55% on linguistic skills. Mentally conditioned children completed 45% of the program on cognitive skills and 55% on linguistic skills. The other ones did not complete 73% on cognitive skills and 66% on linguistic skills.

3. According to the structured interviews, specialists, parents, children under the program, state the positive role of such programs in the psychophysical and psychosocial development of these children.

4. The focus group is made up of the Centers specialists, specialists of the area from civil society, homologous institutional specialist and of private foundations, who state the necessity of the implementation of such program in homologous centers.

5. The vertical observation compared to the direct observation were implemented and the difference was observed among those children under the program and those of the control group.

Conclusions

Study results show:

- Effectiveness of implementation of new programs in dimensional developing abilities of many autistic, Down syndrome and mental retardation children.
- Role of modern methods and instruments in the development of effective therapies.
Concrete didactic role of the academic and linguistic skills.
- Effectiveness of partnership with parents to professionals dealing with children.
- Role of tests in evaluating the progress of psycho-social psycho-physical development of children.
- Positive role of early treatment of children with disabilities.
- Increasing mental age of children treated.
- Improving the social behavior of children by reducing the degree of aggressiveness.
- Increase communication of children to communicate freely.
- Their progress in the field of academic training. These achievements led to the conclusion:
  - The study confirmed the hypothesis that: educational programs accelerate the development process, psycho-social and psycho-physical well-autistic children, will improve and mental retardation.
- Psychosocial development of children with Down syndrome, autistic, and mental retardation rehabilitation is achieved through educational programs.
- Training and integration of children with autistic, Down syndrome and mental retardation is difficult but not impossible.

Recommendations

- Increased financial budgets to improve the quality of services.
- Factors and actors lobbying for the protection of the rights of children.
- Continuous training of staff and parents with methods of modern therapies.
- Ratifying the European Convention for Protection of Child Rights
- Strengthening the partnership between parent-specialist to work with the same service standard.
- Extending the typology of services to children.
- Implementing quality service standards, training of disabled children.

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Dhamo, Milika. Çrregullimet dhe terapitë e të folurit. (Botimet ideart, fq. 199-220.)
Parents in Front School—their Needs for Better Health Conditions for their Children

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³Ma. Irida Hoti

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²University ” Luigj Gurakuqi “, Faculty of Natural Sciences  
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Abstract
Parents and the school are the main two groups which are the most interested, who think and work for the best of the children. All of them want the children to be successful at school. Working together they can help the children to have good results at school, but on the other hand the parents are not only interested for the educational part, but they tend to be interested even for their health. They want to have optimal conditions of work not only at home, but at school too. They want comfortable conditions for them, to have in their daily activities in and out of school. It is well known that the children spend the most of their time at school where they are exposed to different factors which effects directly and indirectly on their health. Heating, lighting, the right sitting position on the desk, the hygiene and safety in school and around it, the exposition of dangerous and unhealthy food, physical and emotional violence are some of the problems that effect directly to the health, psychomotor development of the children and also to the learning process. In this study we have used a questionnaire for the parents of the children to identify the needs and the information they have about the environment where their children are being educated. The analyze of it is done with Microsoft Office Excel method. The aim of this article is to identify the real situation and to give some recommendations to improve and to change their children’s life style of living and working, because they effect directly at the school future, on the educational process and also on the reducing on morbidity.

Key words: children, health, optimal conditions, safety, school

1. Introduction

Nowadays, parents are more and more interested about the physical, psychological and social development of their children. They are also interested on their progress at school and they do not see the school only as a place where others, (teachers, headmasters and staff) to try the best for the children. The parents try to see the school not only in the educational point of view, but also as a place where their children can find help, support, care and protection, a place where they can learn not about the lessons and at the same time about their life. They want a long life learning and preparing their children to be able to their own lives. Parents are becoming very important stakeholders for the schools, by aiming to raise the objectives for a better quality of schools not only in the educational point of view, but also of better conditions, safer places, health care, good feeding, different activities and bigger possibilities for them. Recently, the school is also seen as a place where children will be part of different activities (sport, art, science, acting etc.) not only to see them as part of these activities, but also to construct their identity, their personality, their healthy life and hygienic conditions, lightening, the desks etc. So parents tend to be aware of health care, because it can affect the morbidity in the future life of their children as scoliosis, accidents, hearing problems, infection respiratory diseases, gastrointestinal infections, overweight, obesity, poor verbal communication and mental health problems. The road accidents are the main cause of mortality 5-14 year of children old in the low economics incomes countries of European region. Noise pollution effects on human health are a matter of great concern. Noise pollution can affect us in several vital organs. Noise can interrupt a good night’s sleep, and when this occurs, the person feels extremely annoyed and uncomfortable. This can considerably decrease a person’s ability to work efficiently. The air quality is connected with transport car, combustion of solid wastes and emission in environment air pollutants as: oxides of sulphur, nitrogen oxides, mono and carbon dioxide, hydrocarbons, lead, soot, dust and cancerous substances which are the main factors increasing the cases of respiratory infection. Obesity is one type of malnutrition and considered as an important risk of factor for the several chronic diseases such as cardiovascular and diabetes. Obesity is an important cause of morbidity, disability and premature death (WHO, 2004). These related to child factors, family dynamics, parenting, knowledge and beliefs, extra-familiar influences and resources and environment. (Ostrowska. L, et al. 2009. pg. 389-396).
2. Methodology

For this study is done a questionnaire with 154 parents of children who attend the public and non-public schools in the city of Shkodra (100 parents whose children attend public schools and 54 the non-public schools). These parents have given their opinions about the school conditions and they also have expressed their suggestions to improve these conditions. The aim of this questionnaire is to present the needs and the requirements of the parents for the public and non-public schools and to the Albanian system of education. The parents are selected occasionally. They have different ages, level of education and also their children follow different systems of education. All the data are analyzed by Microsoft Office Excel method.

3. Results of the study

The results of this study are presented graphically. The parents answered and gave their opinion about the school (public and non-public) conditions and their effects on their children in Shkodra city. The parents in this study were selected casually only trying to have a right proportion between public and non-public. For that reason we have chosen 4 public schools and 4 non-public schools in Shkodra city, from whom 2 are colleges (from class 1 to 9) and 2 high schools for each system of education. The parents who fulfilled the questionnaire were in the highest number from 30-40 years old, followed by 40-50 and the lowest number was 20-30 and over 50 years old. The parents were from both the city and the country (42% of the public schools and 19% from the non-public schools). That shows the interest of the parents to choose the best possibility they can effort. Females are in a higher number to be part of this study (82% of publics and 78% of the non-publics) which means that mothers are more involved in children school system.

In this study, the parents selected have different levels of education from college to Master, the highest number of them is with a university degree. (Fig. 1.). Parental education is the most used indicator of associations with socioeconomic status, followed by occupation, income and area of residence. (Cattaneo, A, et al 2009, pg. 389–398). According to the level of education the children follow, they come from the elementary school to high school. The reason of this division was to compare all the levels, the presence of differences between levels and systems. As we can see through the graphics, the highest number of the children is from the college, followed by the elementary and the high school pupils. (Fig.2.)

According to the presence of doctor in schools is shown that in the highest percentage the doctor is not part of the schools. (fig.3.). This is more evident in public schools than in non publics. In some non-public schools the doctor has necessary role meanwhile in public schools is only a nurse, whose role is neither evident,nor necessary. (fig.4.)
The first aid kit in the classrooms or in the school, is necessary to be present. Only, 10% of the parents don’t know or don’t have information about it. (Fig. 5). On the other hand, about the presence of the psychologists in schools here we can see that both systems have the information about the psychologist, 78% for the publics and 67% for the non-publics, low is the number of the non presence and only 45 of the parents who have their children in non-public schools don’t know about this presence in these schools. (Fig. 6).

In general only 13% of the parents (public and non-public schools), admit the presence of the violence in schools. (Fig. 7). They admit that this violence shows rarely and that they don’t see violence among their children, but in reality they are afraid or sometimes they don’t know the different forms of violence except the physical one. But according to the information given in official ways and on TV still are used forms of violence among the students in schools. So we can say that the parents are not informed or they don’t want to accept it. On the graphic about their children schooling time, in the highest percentage they said that the studying period in schools is before noon and the lower percentage is in the afternoon. But as we can see, some non public schools last the studying time till afternoon and about this the parents are concerned because their children are exhausted and have lots of work at home too. (Fig.8). The same problem is seen in the public schools, where because of the big number of pupils, some elementary classroom levels have their lessons in the afternoon. The children have a different time of preparation and of learning that is not good enough for them and their parents.

About the privat courses the children have after school, we see that in 72% of both systems of education (26% non public and 46% public) they are part of the privat courses, that means that the schools don’t offer the right level of teaching and the expectations they want from schools independently form the kind of system they follow. (Fig. 9). As they agree, the most necessary and important privat courses are: foreign languages (english, german), maths, chemistry,
arts (instruments as guitar or piano), painting and sports (basketball or football). These kind of courses take their free time. The children are passive, wait only these courses, but in general they are in the function of the basic subjects in school and not an entertainment, a creative or a movemental time. As a result we can say that our system of education, independently public or non-public, it has gaps about what the parents wait from them in all the fields.

Figure 10

About the accompagnement of the children, the parents accept in the highest number that they are not sure about the safety on the streets and so they try to find ways to be safe. For that reason, according to the economical possibilities they have, they use different forms to accompany their children at school. (Fig. 10.). As we can see from the figure 11, the highest number go on foot (accompained or alone), followed by them who goes by car which in general are personals and this is seen in the public and in the non-public schools, then we have children who go on school in a mini bus (6% in publics and 30% in non publics). This kind of transportation is provided by the parent themselves privately (for the public schools) or by the schools themselves (in non-public schools) also are students who go on a motorcycle or by bikes. It is important to underline that the parents try to accompany the children to school, because of traffic safety and also to evade the absences at school. Going to school on foot is considered as a positive aspect, such a physical activity for the children, and on the other side the transport of children by bike or by car is considered as a risk factor for accidents.

Figure 11

About the certainty of parents about their children’s frequentation, they are sure in 100% of them in non-public schools, because the presence of their children in school is under control by the accompagnement by their parents or teachers, because of the time of being in school and the communication with school by the parents or the school about the absences, if they are. (Fig. 12). But on the other hand we have the parents whose the children attend public schools, which even though they accept only in 6% they are not sure and in only 2% that they are not sure at all and these numbers shown maybe a part of their problem, because they don’t have enough time to control their children. Also they don’t have frequent contacts with school or teachers and no one can say the reality about their children that’s because they don’t have the time and the possibility to contact and to have information about their children. About the absences in school, the parents admit that 28% of their children who attend the studies in public schools miss at school for health problems and only 15% of non-public schools children, miss for the same problem. (Fig. 13.). As we can see, the parents accept that in general their children are not absent in schools, but about the absences they say that frequently the bad conditions especially in winter such as no heating of wet classrooms that effect in children’s health and in their absences, but on the other hand the frequent absences have dangerous behaviors behind. Cultural and societal norms frame acceptable standards for substance use as alcoholic drinks, smoking or other drugs, especially during adolescence which causes on psychopathology and influence on normal functioning. (Jenkins, R et al. 2003, pg. 654-662).
About the violence used at school on their children, the parents in non-public schools are 100% sure about the absence of the violence in front of their children. (Fig.14.). On the other hand we have the public schools, on which of them we have 20% cases which say that they accept the presence of violence, but according to them this is rare among their children. But we can say that in general, the parents don’t know the different forms of violation, they in general are known only with the physical violence as the only form of violence. The children are very sensible to violence. Beyond injuries, violence affects children psychologically and behaviourally; it may influence how they view the world and their place in it. Children can come to see the world as a dangerous and unpredictable place. This fear may thwart their exploration of the environment, which is essential to learning in childhood. Furthermore, high exposure to violence in children correlates with poorer performances in school, symptoms of anxiety and depression, and lower self-esteem. The early identification of physical, psychological or sexual abuse with children is very difficult to investigated but have serious and long consequences in their life. (Augustyn M. et al. 2003. pg. 121-122).

About the safety of school we can say that effects also the position of school from the road, the presence of school entourage, the presence of a guardian for the safety in the school, the air and noise pollution around the school. The parents who have their children in non-public schools admit that their children in 78% are in very good conditions of safety at school and only 28% in public schools, 40% say that the conditions are good in public schools and only 11% in non-public, it is enough in 22% in public schools and 11% the non-publics and only 10% of the parents in public schools see it weak. (Fig.15). As we can see, the parents generally are comfortable with the safety in school, but we have also complains from them, because in some cases they say that the school entourage is not safe or the distances from the car way is too small, the guardians don’t do their work and they think that because of this, their children can leave school or can be part of accidents (Fig.16). The trauma may have physicals and psychological consequences for a long time at the children and with the serious consequences for their health in the future. Injuries are the most common cause of death during childhood and adolescence in different countries. (Rivara, F. et. Al.  2003. pg. 257-258)). The exposure to loud sound can lead to elevated stress levels as well as stimulate violent behaviour, can interrupt a good night's sleep, at children. A constant noise in the vicinity of school can also trigger headaches, make children tense and anxious, and disturb emotional balance. The air quality in classroom and around the school must be controlled because the emission in environment of air pollutants as: mono and carbon dioxide are the main factors increasing the cases of respiratory infection.
We know that the children in schools have short breaks in public schools and long breaks or also lunch time in non-public schools. About the feeding, in 34% of children in public schools and 41% of children in non-public schools get some food prepared at home for them and the highest number (66% in public and 59% in non-public) who buy it. (Fig. 17,18.). In general they buy hamburgers, chocolates, chips and other thing which are not a real food for their age and the period of physical changes. Health and welfare of children’s are closely related with the feeding and with healthy life style. Preference for certain foods, children disliking new foods and being ‘picky eaters’ considered barriers to healthy eating. Some parents relied on ‘fast foods’ because they were concerned that their children would eat nothing else. Is very important to should start early in a child’s life the strategies to promote healthy weight and to prevent childhood overweight and obesity. (Pocock, M, al 2009. pg. 338-353). By the other hand the quality of hygienic condition of these foods is suspicious and the children are exposed to alimentation intoxication.

On the graphic about the hygiene in school environments we see that the non –public schools offer higher level of hygiene in their environments. Referring to the dates, we can say that for the non-public schools, the level of hygiene is in 67% very good and for 26% is good, but we see that this problem is higher in the public schools, they admit that in only 12% it is good, 44% is good and 34% is enough good and in 10% it is weak, so comparing the quality between two systems about the hygiene is different. (Fig. 19) We can say that the parents admit bad conditions in and around the school environments: classrooms, halls, yard, gym etc. The same problem we see also about the hygiene in toilets, the parents say that the conditions in 12% in public schools and 78% of non-public schools are very good, 28% in public and 15% in non-public say that these conditions are good, 32% in public and 4% in non-public are enough pleased with the toilets and 28 % in public schools admit that the conditions are weak according to their opinion. But we see that 4% of the parents don't know about the conditions in toilets. (Fig.20). The parents says that in the toilets is only cold water or no soap and nothing to dry the hand also they small bad fragrances in the classrooms near the toilets that make them to feel not comfortable and safe. In 22% of the schools (non-publics) , the hygienic kitchen conditions are very good and for only 7% it is good. They says that their children have almost the same menu and the food is not good in quality and quantity for their children. This is an other child’s growth problem because may cause the malnutrition and can help to influence in the acute or chronic diseases.
On the graphics, we can see that the heating system is very good in the non-public schools (81.5%) and only in 22% in public schools. It raises in the public schools in 30% it is good and 7.4% in non-publics and in only 16% weak in publics. About heating generly the parents of non-public schools are pleased with the heating systemin their children schools. (Fig. 21). They admit that they have central heating which is good for their children, but the part of them which complain about heating said that the heating is generally by gas which can cause problems in their children health, such as: headache, cough, watering, breath problems or intoxication by gas. The air quality is connected emission in environment air pollutants as: mono and carbon dioxide which are the main factors increasing the cases of respiratory diseases. (Landrigan, Ph. et al. 2003, pg. 2354-2355.) In a low percentage they say that their children use wood or electricity and the 16% said about the absence of heating in the classrooms. (Fig 21). They say that the children sometimes have different health problems also from the cold and no heating in school. Some times, especially in low temperature they prohibite their children to go to school, because of the cold, flu etc they can have from these bad conditions. About the lightening condition in classroom the parent says that is very good in the non-public school and for the public school are different opinions. As we can show in the figure 27, 85% of parents are expressed very good for non-public school and for the public school almost at the same percentual for all answers.

Parents are not concerned only about the physical conditions of the school or classroom, but they are also interested about the quality of teaching and the other activities, which influence the quality of life of their children. So the sportive activities in school are better in the non-public schools than the public ones. As we can see on the graphs, the quality and the frequency is higher in the non-public schools. (Fig. 23). They are evaluated 67% in non-publics and 10% in public schools, good in 36% in publics and 7% in non-publics; 28% enough in publics and 15% in non-publics and only 26% weak in publics and 11% in non-publics. As we can understand we see that the parents are concerned and evaluate also the presence of sportive activities. As we know the sportive activities helpt in a better physical health, fight overweight but also they are good to know differently each other out of the classroom but it is also to raise friendship and to collaborate between them. But on the other hand we have the cultural activities, such as concerts, theatre, show, etc. which influence differently in children’s education. These kinds of activities can make the children to find other parts of them which can influence the self esteem in some children or can find undiscovered parts of the child or can influence on making new friendship knowing each other and themselves too. (Fig. 24) On the graphics we can see that the parents are pleased to have their children in non-public schools where these activities are in 67% very good and only 32  % in public schools, followed by 40% in non-publics and 22 % in publics - good; 30% enough in publics and 18% in publics and 11 % in non-publics which are weak. As we can evaluate from the graphs, we can say that the non-public schools insist on producing also cultural activities for their pupil, the parents said that these activities vary according to the age, the schools or
teachers. In some cases they are not very pleased about these activities, because they see always the same pupils part of the shows or concerts and they are disappointed of the negligence or ignorance of the abilities of their children, they also complain of the variety of the activities, the places or the quality of them or in some case even the total absence of them, giving importance only to the lessons.

![Figure 25](image1)

![Figure 26](image2)

Last but not least in this study is also the kind of the home-works in computer. As we can see, (Fig. 25) the parents don’t appreciate enough these kind of homeworks. Seen this in the health plain, these kind of homeworks take a long time to the children influencing the sight, because of the long time in front of the PC, problems in the backbone as scoliosis, backache, headache, eye problems, overweight etc Also we can see that these kind of homework don’t have a long term to be prepared, are not creative and take a long time for searches. The children become passive and are not able to create or to be active, they just get the information and don’t think over about it, to learn and to use this information. By the other hand, to spent long time in PC influence in the pasivity and for sedentary life of children and may be considered as a barrier to physical activity. The parents are also concerned about the quality of chairs and desks in their children classrooms (Fig. 26). As we can understand from the graphs, in non-public schools the parents says that they are in 74% very good comparing with the 16% of the public ones; 26% good in publics with 11% of the non-publics, followed by enough good in 34% in publics and 7% in non-publics and 26% weak in publics and 7% in non-publics, we can see the quality is not as the parents wished to be. They are concerned, because in some cases they admit that their children don’t have a place where to put the bags so they put them behind and as a result they are not comfortable, they don’t have enough space to work, so they complain about backache, sometimes scoliosis or neck ache. Standing discomfort for a long time in these chairs and desks can also affect the chest cage deformations and can cause respiratory diseases during childhood and adolescence. As we can see the parents highlight lots of problems which affect them and their children too.

4. Conclusions

During the years the health care toward the children has changed, giving a priority to protection health care during school ages. This policy should be familiar to the community in order to make it effective at home or at school. On the other hand the parents are raising their expectations toward school. They are being more focused on the physical conditions as to the educational level. So they are being more conscious about improving studying conditions and being more and more seekers toward school, for better and qualitative schooling time. They are conscious about the new lifestyle, the challenges they will face, because their children will live in different conditions and they want the best for them. So, the parents want to be learnt from schools and other groups to face and to avoid the future problems. They want to know about the others experiences and to learn how to avoid unpleasant problems with / of their children. For that we recommend:

- Traumas and injuries at children’s may prevent. For the prevention of the road accidents should be promoted the health policies such as using helmets for bicycles, seat belt, resistant packaging and safe storage of foods to children to prevent poisons, playgrounds with large areas, windows and chairs appropriate to prevent falls in children, smoke detector to prevent intoxication, pedestrian skills training, water skills training, seatbelts in mini vans, bicycle helmets. (Rivara, F. et. Al. 2003. pg. 257-258). All these should be done by school programmes.
- Violence is often an avoidable part of human life, but violence can be predicted and is a preventive health problem. There are strategies for intervention at the individual level, preschool education programs, training of parents by school and community intervention.
- Childhood obesity has adverse psychological, social and health consequences in childhood and later in life.
Trying to make their children's life more lively and more creative, collaborating with school, social worker, doctors, P.E trainers and other partners included to improve health life

- Better hygienic condition at school environments such as: classrooms, halls, yard, gym, kitchens, toilets, amelioration of heating systems and air quality will directly affect the welfare of children, their health and in the educational process. All these measures appear to be fast efficient to prevent and to reduce the morbidity and to promote a healthy life of our children, all with the help of school through special programs or through law.

- The challenge to the community and society is to create norms that decrease the likelihood of adverse health outcomes for adolescents and promote and facilitate opportunities for adolescents to choose healthier and safer options for experimentation.

- Changes in the policy toward children education in and out of school to have a safe and protected life and conditions in and out of school to prevent unpredictable disliked situations for their children.

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http://www.parentquestionnair.com
Relations Between Gender Issues and Employment in Migration Areas of Durrës

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Abstract: The aim of this article is to conduct a survey in order to evaluate the problems which are related to employment and gender issues in the “former-ashes” area, the premises for the inclusion of the gender perspective in the development of community as well as giving suggestions for collaboration in the prospect of development of this area. This area still remains one of the most problematic areas of the city. Gender and employment issues still remain one of the most problematic aspects of the area and especially women-employment is one of the problems that requires special attention. The theories included as an element in this survey help to present the theoretical background as well as to present different perspectives in this issue. Meanwhile, the survey serves to give a practical solution to the problems and helps those who want to treat this issues in their future surveys. Gender problems are closely related to several other problems typical of the area which will be discussed in this article.

Key words: problems, employment, gender, survey, area.

Introduction

At a certain moment in our lives, it can happen that we become part of different groups. Sometimes we will like it and sometimes not. The human nature is made this way. Each and every one of us belongs to a certain group or caste therefore we are obliged to abide by the rules and regulations governing this group. We are challenged with many problematic and conflictual situations that require a solution in our group relationship. Each individual is different from the other in the way he or she reacts. What has drawn the society attention recently is related to the stereotypical tendencies of one or the other sex, which cannot escape from being prey of the traditions and previous generations approach. A dominant fact, in our society and those similar to it, is the gender division in many aspects of life, men seem to be more dominating that women. Women are locked in the stereotype imprisonment and much effort is needed to free them from it. The goal of this research is to identify the social problems of this part of the society by making the difference between man and woman, and in the same time projecting and creating new integrating strategies, which will help in giving a great orientation to the organizations working in this particular area, otherwise known as ex-marsh area.

The main hypothesis of this study is: Gender and its relation with the social issues in the ex-marsh area Durres.

Gender identity

Different scholars think that the biological differences define the behavior diversity between men and women. These scholars base their belief on sociological and biological arguments and sustain that in all the cultures men and women display the same behavioral aspects such as: men are more aggressive and women are more passive and mild, men are less empathetic and women are more etc. Nevertheless some other scholars are not influenced by the above mentioned arguments. They emphasize that the aggressiveness level differs from culture to culture.

In many cultures it is believed that women and their biological heritage is the main cause of their being oppressed and responsible for their status. For centuries, many societies believed that the characteristics, roles the different statuses were defined by biology, that they natural and unchangeable.

Therefore, it is necessary to clearly explain the concept of sex and gender identity. The gender identity refers to the socio-cultural definition of men and women, the way the society considers and defines their gender roles. While sex is defined biologically at the very beginning of one’s life, the social sexual role and the gender identity are developed on a
later stage. The gender identity is the psychological identification with one of the sexes, what an individual personally understands with the fact of being male or female. The gender identity normally is developed around the age of three years old, when the child gains the speech ability.

The distinction between sex and gender identity is crucial to understand that the tendency to attribute women’s inferiority to her anatomy is totally wrong. Sex is one thing and gender identity is another, totally different. The gender identities of men and women, are defined socially and psychologically, historically and by the culture. different from sex which is defined biologically. Sex never changes; it is always the same everywhere, whereas gender identity can change. It changes from time to time, from culture to culture, sometimes from one family to another.

Gender Equality

An universal principle states that all human beings, without race, sex, religion, socio-cultural level or political status distinction must have equal legal rights.

According to European Commission, gender equality means that men and women have equal conditions to meet their human rights and to contribute and benefit from the political, cultural, social and economic development. Gender equality is equal evaluation by the society of men and women similarities and differences and their roles. It considers and sustains that men and women are equal partners at home, community and society. The gender equality begins by equally evaluation of boys and girls. (Paci 2001)

Gender Integration

The reorganizing, improvement, development and the evaluation of the political processes is necessary in order to have the gender perspective reflected in all levels policies by policy-making actors. (Eurostep 2004)

The conclusions of ECOSOC emphasize the gender integration is an approach used to integrate the needs and the experiences of men and women in compiling, implementing, monitoring and evaluation of the policies and programs of all political, economic and religious spheres so men and women will benefit equally and will not experience imparity. According to UN gender integration is “....the implications evaluating process of all action plans, including the legislation, policy and programming in all levels and spheres. This is a strategy make the experiences and concerns of men and women an integral dimension of compiling, implementing, monitoring and evaluation of the policies and programs of all political, economic and social spheres so men and women will benefit equally and will not experience imparity.” (OECD 1999)

Identified social problems in the ex-marsh area

During the interviews with random interviewees or with representatives of Nongovernmental organizations operating in this area and organizations whose focus is on gender problems, we identified some specific problems related to gender issues. Some of the main problems included in the study are as follows:

The application of the Kanun rules only for women, matchmaking marriages, male supremacy upon women, lack of information on gynecologic diseases and family planning, uncertainty on the concept of marriage sexual abuse and harassment, the culture of accepting and non-reaction, the high level of unemployment and economical dependence, gender violation and imparity, family component and the religious background, house holding and the family, economic activity, woman involvement, property right, the women education in the ex-marsh area and their being exposed to human trafficking.

The relation between gender and education

It has been demonstrated that there is a strong relation between the three components which play a key role: poverty, impossibility to meet the basic needs and barriers to have access in education. Those persons that cannot have their basic needs met it is quite possible to be self-excluded from the education levels. If we refer to the education problem from a different perspective we will realize that unlearned people belong to the lowest level of the society and they cannot meet their basic needs.

Which is the part mostly affected by this relation?
All around the world, women are more discriminated than men because of the gender stereotypes created in times, which are really difficult to overcome. To allow girls to attend all the levels of education in many countries is considered as
violation of the rules and breaking the vicious circle that has been created.
What is the result then?
Who is more usually excluded from education?
The answer is very easy: women are the ones to be mainly excluded, especially the ones belonging to rural areas, low social levels and families with unlearned mothers, who serve as models.¹

According to the results issued by UNESCO, there are various factors, which influence the education impossibility of a woman, comparing to the one of a man:

- Economic factors – poverty of a woman and her economic impossibility lead to dependency and become an obstacle for reaching the established goals and objectives.
- Social – cultural factors include here the tendency to make man superior towards woman in all levels, which lead to more education possibility for men then for women.
- Stereotypes created in relation to inequalities existing between the two genders, which are transmitted also at school.

The above mentioned factors and other factors similar to these ones prohibit female achievements and affect her success. As a consequence, many organizations and governmental structures practice their activity in order to reach gender equality in all areas, especially in education, which is the main component of this activity.²

**Employment and gender identity**

In many societies, the division of work and the determination of the adult status are made considering the gender identity as a basic criteria (Nielsen, 1978) but only few statuses and the mother and father statuses are directly linked to sex. However the mother and father status have, always played an important role in the creation of gender imparity (Huber, 1976).

In the precocious societies of hunters and food collectors, mother owned a lot of tasks. Dependence and child care pertain to them, as a consequence they were obliged to stay in one place for a long period of time. Even though women use to take part in hunting, men were hunters, who part from their habitation place for many days. Some anthropologists’ discus over the idea that the biological roles allowed men to monopoly the most culturally appreciated roles, due to the fact that hunting was the main source for the provision of food in these societies (Friedl, 1975).

Regarding the Albanian labor market, after years ‘90-s of the XX-th century, there have been low levels of employment, which is a characteristic of countries under transition. Before years ‘90-s of the XX-th century, in Albania, man and women were more or less integrated in the labor market in the same level. The figures belonging to year 1985 show that the level of participation for women in the labor market as almost equal to men (Economy et al, 1999: 60). But the participation of women decreased in the following years. Different authors are of the opinion that the participation of women in the labor market makes one of the main components of their empowerment. But, so far data show that there is inequality between man and women, regarding participation in the labor market. In 2004 the level of employment was 38.3% for women and 60.1% for men. A slight increase can be seen in 2005, when the level of employment for women was 38.8% in comparison to the level of employment for men, which was 60.0%.

**Gender based violence**

The effects of gender stereotypes are shown in the way how women and girls are treated. Thus, one of the most serious problems of gender relations is male violence towards women and girls of all ages, which is present in all societies and leads to serious problems. This violence practiced is a result of male social construction, which, oftentimes, promotes the males dominance toward females. The nature and the form of violence reflect the social, cultural and economic inequalities which existed since long time ago between male and female. These acts of violence happen in different contexts: home, marriage, work and public places.³

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¹ Global Monitoring Report Summary 2007 p11, UNESCO, Gender in education
² Gender in Education Network in Asia (GENIA): A Toolkit for Promoting Gender Equality in Education
³ Summary report of the Gender Alliance for Development, on gender identity and HIV/SIDA, fq 32
Health care

The consequences of gender stereotypes are noticed in the health care towards female and male in general. Male and female are not treated equally. According to some studies conducted, it is noticed that men have more possibilities to use the resources of health care, as they are not limited by a big number of responsibilities in family as child care, elderly care. At the same time, in rural areas, where the possibility to migrate for women is lower than for men, women face low service quality or a total lack of service. The lack of transport is another aspect of the problem. It should not be forgotten the fact that in our country, the level of employment is higher for the male part of population. As a consequence, the level of Health Insurance is higher for male. Thus, can be understood who is that part of population having access to health care without payment and low quality. 4

Balance of roles and responsibilities within the family

Since the publication of Rhona and Robert Rapoport (1971) and Lynda Lytle Holmstrom (1973) writings on families with two carriers, four strategies are elaborated and are recommended to be used in families.

In the strategy that is based on division of roles, the couple organizes and shares in a rational way the activities and roles within the family. Some couples share the responsibilities of roles based on interests and talents, whereas others use a more traditional sharing of gender roles.

Another strategy, which helps in sharing the work load between the couple, is the strategy of cycling of roles. Cycling of roles is a modification of role sharing, in which the responsibilities are re-determined in a more flexible way. If a person is experiencing a high pressure at work, he or she are released from responsibilities at home. As a consequence, the wife, the husband or the other members of the family take over one additional task in family. Jeylan Mortimer suggests that couples should arrange their multiple roles, in such a way that the peak of work demand and the peak of family demand do not happen in the same time (Mortimer, 1979).

The third strategy is related to the replacement of roles, which deals with the employment of a third person to perform the functions, which are usually performed by the husband or wife. The advantage for this strategy is that it has directly to do with the problem regarding the over load of roles.

The fourth strategy for the management of stress in a family is disengagement of roles. In this strategies the husband and wife try to disengage from the roles in carrier and in family. (Rapoport 1971)

Contributions for the development of the gender roles theories.

There are a number of theories on the identity, and that belong to different directions. Each of which carries in its self a special perspective of treatment. Besides the originality we find more common points among them.

- **Psycho-dynamic theories**: Underline the fact how the experience of early childhood, starting from the initial care, model the personality of a child. These experiences touch the deep psychic structures of mind and therefore are relatively permanent. All these theories underline the identification with the parent of the same sex, but other theories underline different development dynamics. Nonetheless all of them describe the gender identity as an essential part of each ones personality. So the theory of Freud, stresses the importance of biological factor and parental identification. The male gender identity is seen stronger then the female gender identity. According to Freud, the identification with the same sex is of a critical importance for the healthy growth and the development of the male and female personality. 5

- **Social learning theory** argues that children learn the gender roles through a combination of: reward-punishment and the imitation of adults of the same gender. However, enough studies show that the reward-punishment condition explains only one part of the process. Girls like boys imitate the adults who present warmth, dominance and power, despite the gender identity of the adult. (Bandura and others, 1963b). According to the main author of this theory, Albert Bandura, behavior is studied as a result of the social impact

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4 Gender integration in policies and strategies – publication of the Gender Alliance for Development, Peci, pg 32 – 33.
and of the environment where the child is continuously interacting. What is stressed here is the main role of strengthening, through which the positive behavior may be repeated, as well as the role of modeling which consists in giving or serving currently available models. This theory underlines the importance of the environment in the gender development of a child. The child learns his or her role directly from differential treatment, rewards, punishment, as well as indirectly through learning the observational modeling. (Bland 1998)

- **Development strategies** focus their attention in the way how children think about the gender identity. In the first development stage, children discover that there are to sexes and learn how to distinguish people as males and females. At first they use the characteristics such as length of hair to distinguish male and females, whereas by age 7 their idea about gender identity becomes more sustainable and they start to identify which behavior is appropriate for each gender. However many studies have discovered few gender differences in the behavior of little children (Maccoby & Jaclin, 1974). In the second stage, children develop a sense of evaluation on their gender identity, they start to imitate individuals of the same gender and in the same time they try to be accepted as male or female. According to the theory of development, at the third stage, children develop deep emotional relations with the parent of the same gender. These relations ensure the socialization of gender roles.

- The development theory is more complete then the theory of social learning, but it does not explain the fact how children select the most appropriate behaviors for themselves, among many behaviors that are determined as appropriate for their gender. Moreover, both perspectives mentioned above, do not recognize the fact that the development of special skills for children depends from the activities they are encouraged and allowed to show. In a family there is a tendency to assign such tasks to boys and girls, which confirm the gender roles – cooking and cleaning for girls and mowing and cultivation for boys, (White & Brinkerhoff, 1981).

Parents, as well, through the status of their job offer to children models on the status and the employment they must choose for the future. Many research studies on the mobility of employment are focused only on the employment of the father in order to make a forecast for the employment of girls and boys. However other research studies show that the employment of mothers (or their unemployment), as well as the type of work they do, have an impact on the plans and the carrier of male and female children (Hoffman, 1977; Stephan & Corder, 1985).

- **Gender scheme theory**: This theory contains the future of the theory of cognitive development as well as the one of social learning and knowledge of the importance of cultural factors. In this theory, the sexual types derive, mostly, by a gender schematic process, by the child readiness to resolve and to organize the information, in accordance with the cultural definition of the gender role. By observing the differences made between male and females in their cultures, children learn the specific content for the gender role, as well as the fact that the gender and the gender differences are very important. Sexual categorizing partially comes from the assimilation of the internal concept within the gender scheme. For example, a child may notice that boys are usually described as strong, big, brave, whereas girls as good, sweet and pleasant. What this child learns is that: sexes not only have differences, but also that some qualities are more distinct for one sex then the other sex. By comparing each-ones behaviors together with the gender development scheme, everyone learns how to evaluate the sufficiency of each one as a person. In such a way, the cultural stereotypes can be self fulfilling of prophecies.6

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Abstract This paper treats the concept of attitudes toward pupils with disabilities. Positive attitudes toward the disabled pupils play a great role in the inclusive education. The paper aims to measure pupils’ attitudes toward their peers with disabilities, as when the pupils have in their class a disabled pupil, as when the pupils have not in their class a disabled pupil. The paper aims, also, to examine whether pupils’ gender and pupils’ age have impact on children’s attitudes toward their disabled peers. It is used the CATCH test (Chedoke-McMaster Attitudes Towards Children with Handicaps) for measuring children’s attitudes. Pupils of the fifth grade, sixth and seventh grade of some schools of Shkodra city have completed the CATCH test. There are also, made interviews with the teachers in order to get their opinions about pupils’ attitudes toward their disabled peers. There are given the appropriate conclusions and suggestions.

Keywords: attitudes, disability, CATCH test.

Introduction

Including and involving people with disabilities in all aspects and spheres of life is an unalienable right. Such a fact is reinforced but various essential documents like the Covenant of Human Rights, Convent of the Right of People with Disabilities and so on. Inclusion and involvement in all spheres of life is a very long and hard process which can not be completed immediately. A very important aspect which makes it possible to include and involve these people is related to the attitudes of individual towards the disabilities and towards the people who have these disabilities. A society which is open and cooperative with people with disabilities finds it easier to conduct the inclusion of disable people in life. On the other hand, a society which is stigmatizing and has negative attitudes towards people with disabilities will have a lot of difficulties to carry out this process.

Inclusion and involvement of people with disabilities makes one of big priorities of our country, as is the case with many other developed countries in the west. One of the major areas of focus in this case is the integration of pupils with disabilities into schools. To fit this purpose, we have considered it paramount to measure the attitude of the pupils towards their peers with disabilities, to conclude whether there are problems related to the attitude of the pupils towards the peers with disabilities. If so, then we need to identify these problems.

Theoretical Treatment

Combining elements from several definitions, attitudes may be viewed as learned cognitive, affective, and behavioral predispositions to respond positively or negatively to certain objects, situations, institutions, concepts, or persons (Aiken L.R. (2002) “Attitudes and Related Psychosocial Constructs, Theories, Assessment, and Research”, Sage Publications, pg.3). The most popular definition, at least if one surveys recent social psychology texts, would suggest that attitudes consist of three classes of response (affective, cognitive, and behavioral) to a stimulus, or attitude, object. This view, popularized by Milton Rosenberg and Carl Hovland in the early 1960s (Rosenberg and Hovland 1960), basically suggests that an attitude consists of how we feel, what we think, and what we are inclined to do about an attitude object (Fazio R.H., Petty R. (2008) “Attitudes, Their Structure, Function and Consequences”, New York, pg.7).

Methodology of preparation and development of this paper

Aims and objectives of this paper. The main aims and objectives are:

- Measuring the attitudes of pupils towards the affective, behavioral and cognitive components of the attitudes.
- Measuring the attitudes of pupils who have as peers pupils with disabilities and of pupils who do not have classmates with disabilities.
- Analyzing the influence of pupils gender on the attitudes of pupils toward their peers with disabilities.
Measuring the attitudes of pupils of grades five, six, and seven towards their peers or classmates with disabilities.

**Hypothesis of the study**

**Hypothesis 1.** The presence of pupils with disabilities in a classroom has an influence on the positive attitude of children towards disabilities.

**Hypothesis 2.** Female pupils appear to have more positive attitudes towards their classmates with disabilities than male pupils.

The hypotheses of my study are related to many theories about attitudes. According to many theories, such as contact theory, which asserts that positive and direct contact between different groups of people can reduce bias (Allport, 1954, Roper 1990, was built the first hypothesis of the paper. There are made some studies in the world about the gender impact on children attitudes toward disabled pupils. According to these studies, pupils' gender affects their attitudes toward their peers with disability. In general, girl pupils have more positive attitudes toward disabled pupils compared to boy pupils. The second hypothesis is built based on such studies.

For the realization of this study I have employed a combined methodology. I have used the technique of questionnaires. The measuring instrument is the CATCH questionnaire (Chedoke-McMaster Attitudes Towards Children with Handicaps). We have engaged to groups of pupils in this study. One of the groups has peers with disabilities in their class and the other group does not have peers with disabilities in their class. The study measures the attitude of pupils towards their pupils with disabilities. The measuring instrument is the standardized CATCH test. I have also employed the technique of interviewing teachers of public schools in which there are pupils with disabilities integrated into their classes and also the method of fokus-group with teachers from these schools for the purpose of obtaining their opinions related to the attitude of the pupils towards the pupils with disabilities, the inclusion and involvement of such pupils in the class and the identification of the problems that are encountered by the teachers in the process of teaching in these classes where pupils with disabilities have been integrated.

**Sampling**

The people group in this study consists of pupils and teachers from public elementary schools in the city of Shkodër. I have used statistics from the General Regional Office of Education to identify the schools which have pupils with disabilities and to identify the classes in which such pupils have been integrated. The pupils are from grades five, six and seven. This is for the reason that the CATCH test is adaptable for the age groups varying from 9 to 13 years of age. The inclusion of the subjects has been realized with respect to the ethical principles that should accompany this process, without forcing anyone into this process and having the permission of the respective authorities. The sample for the study consists of pupils without disabilities who study in public schools and of their teachers. The selection of the subjects has been carried out on a rational basis. The sampling is not casual or random, but it is a representative sample of the pupils who study in public primary schools in the city of Shkodra. The subjects who are pupils have been studied using the following variables: gender, class, and presence of pupils with disabilities in their classes.

**Inclusion criteria:**
- They had to be pupils in public schools.
- They had to be pupils in the primary level of education.
- They had to be pupils of grades five, six, or seven.
- They had to be both boys and girls.
- They were considered based on whether they had or did not have pupils with disabilities in their classes.
- We had to include pupils who do not have relative with disabilities.

**Exclusion criteria:**
- Refusal of permission from the Regional Office of Education for these pupils to be included.
- Refusal of permission from the parents for these pupils to be included.
- Refusal of permission from the respective schools for these pupils to be included.
- Refusal of the pupils themselves to be included.
- Having relatives with disabilities.
Filling in two alternatives in the questionnaire.
Default of more than 5 elements of the questionnaire.
Having a friend with disabilities, but not in their own class. Here, we are talking about pupils who study in classes where there are no pupils with disabilities.

General data related to the pupils who participated in the study

In the study, we had the participation of 120 pupils in total. 37 pupils or 30.8% of the pupils participating in the study are in grade five, 40 pupils (33.3%) are in grade six and 43 pupils or 35.8% of the pupils participating in the study are in grade seven. In the study, we had the participation of 66 pupils who are boys or 55% of the pupils participating in the study and 54 pupils who are girls 45%. 61 pupils (50.8%) of the pupils participating in the study have in their class peers pupils with disabilities, while 59 pupils (49.2%) of the pupils participating in the study do not have in their class peers pupils with disabilities. 41 pupils participating in the study have pupils with mental disability in their class, 20 pupils participating in the study have pupils with mental and visual disabilities in their class, 59 pupils do not have peers with disabilities in their classes. In this study participated 3 (three) primary public schools. 40 pupils (33.3% of the pupils participating in the study) are from “Dëshmorët e Prishtinës” school, 37 pupils (30.8%) are from “Mati Logoreci” school, 43 pupils (35.8%) are from “Skënderbeg” school. It should be specified here that 7 pupils did not fill out the questionnaire because they did not want to. Fair enough, I have respected their desire and I have not made any comments concerning their choice.

General data concerning the teachers and directors who were interviewed and have participated in the focus-group. There have been 13 interviews and one focus-group. In the focus group, which was organized in Shkodra, participated six teachers from Pashko Vasa primary school.

Apparatus / Materials. With the pupils I have employed the CATCH test to measure their attitudes towards their peers with disabilities. The CATCH test was given by one of the authors, by Rosenbaum, after he was contacted electronically or via email. A formal request was made so that he would allow me to use the CATCH test. The permission was confirmed electronically and the test was provided by the author Rosenbaum.

Content of the questionnaire. CATCH is based on the component model of attitudes proposed by Triandis (1971). According to this model, it is thought that attitudes cover or comprise three dimensions: a) the affective component, b) the implied behavioural component, and finally, c) the cognitive component (Ostrom, 1969; Triandis, 1971) (Rosenbaum P. L., Armstrong R. W., King S. M., (1986) “Children’s Attitudes Toward Disabled Peers: A Self-Report Measure”, Journal of Pediatric Psychology, Vol. 11, No. 4, page 518).

CATCH contains 36 items, 12 items in each component with an equal number of positively and negatively worded statements. The items are arranged in random order, alternating positive and negative statements. CATCH is scored on a 5-point Likert scale with values ranging from 0 (strongly disagree) to 4 (strongly agree). Negatively worded items are inversely coded. Factor and total scores are derived by summing items, dividing sums by the number of items, and multiplying by 10. A high score represents a more positive attitude (Rosenbaum P. L., Armstrong R. W., King S. M., (1986) “Children’s Attitudes Toward Disabled Peers: A Self-Report Measure”, Journal of Pediatric Psychology, Vol. 11, No. 4, page 520-521).

The method of completing the questionnaire. The questionnaires have been filled out by the pupils themselves. The questionnaires were distributed in the respective schools. The pupils filled them out in class. The administration of the questionnaires (distribution and collection) was conducted during the months of September, October, November and December.

The method of analysis. The data collected from the questionnaires was analyzed by means of the SPSS program, variant 14. I have estimated the reliability of the test and I have intervened to increase the reliability of the data collected through this process. I have carried out the coding of the variables according to the respective rules defined by the authors. I have created respective indexes according to the guidelines.

Content of the interviews and focus-group. The contents of the interviews and focus-groups was thought in a way as to collect the opinions of teachers concerning: a)attitudes of pupils towards pupils with disabilities; b)indicators fo the structure; c)indicators of the teaching and learning process. Concerning the attitude of the pupils towards pupils with
disabilities I have aimed to collect the opinion of the teachers in relation to: a) the attitude of the pupils towards pupils with disabilities; b) the affective component of the attitude of the pupils towards pupils with disabilities; c) the behavior of the pupils towards pupils with disabilities; d) the perception of the pupils towards pupils with disabilities; e) the attitude and behavior of the parents of children without disabilities towards pupils with disabilities who have been integrated into classrooms where their children learn. Concerning the indicators of structure, I have aimed to collect the opinion of the teachers in relation to: a) human resources, like: the number of pupils in the class, presence or existence of supportive teachers, inclusion of teachers in qualification processes for the integration of pupils with disabilities into their schools, the existence of other supportive personnel in schools, etc; b) structural resources, like: the existence of labs in schools for children with disabilities, the existence of necessary spaces for the effective teaching and learning process with children with disabilities, the existence of a resource center in schools, the existence of the necessary didactic materials for the work with pupils with disabilities. Concerning the indicators of teaching and learning process, I have aimed to collect the opinion of the teachers in relation to: a) the existence of an individual based educative plan for pupils with disabilities; b) the relationship of the school with other supporting institutions; c) the relationship of the school with other schools.

The piloting stage. In the beginning, the tests have been translated into Albanian by the professors of the Department of Psychology and Social Work and professors of the English Department. After concluding with a single variant, the questionnaires were printed and distributed for the pupils in “Pashko Vasa” 9th grade school with pupils from grade five, and for “Ndre Mjeda” 9th grade school with pupils of grade six. The data was put into the SPSS program variant 14. After that, I considered the internal reliability of the test. The internal reliability of the questionnaires with pupils resulted to be with coefficient Alpha Cronbach=0,531. Later, I considered it as important to review the questionnaires for the pupils. Emphasis was placed on a better and simpler adaptation into the Albanian language to make some of the elements of the questionnaire more understandable for the pupils. Redistribution was carried out for “Ndre Mjeda” 9th grade school, grade five. The questionnaires were completed by 37 pupils, 14 (37,8%) boys and 23 (62,2%) girls. The analyzed the internal reliability. The internal reliability of the questionnaires with pupils resulted to be with coefficient Alpha Cronbach 0,832. Redistribution was carried out after two weeks with the same subject to measure the test-retest reliability. Reliability resulted to be the same; 0,832. The final form of the CATCH test was printed and the questionnaire was then ready for application. In the questionnaire for the pupils the variables are: gender, class and presence of pupils with disabilities in the class. Then, I put the data in the system and estimated the reliability. The reliability of the CATCH questionnaire: Alfa Cronbach =0,53. In order for the created indexes to be most reliable, I considered it as very important to remove some of the elements of the questionnaire. I removed elements which correlated the least with each other (Corbetta, G. P. (2002) “Metodologia e tecniche della ricerca sociale”, Il Mulino, Bologna). More specifically, I have removed elements: 4, 14, 16, 18, 20, 24, 26, 28, 30. In total, the CATCH test includes 27 elements. I have paid special attention so that the number of elements for each component is equal. So, each of the components (the affective component, the behavioral component and the cognitive component) is given 9 elements. Also, I have paid special attention so that the number of elements expressed positively and negatively for each component is equal. Each of the components (the affective component, the behavioral component and the cognitive component) is given 6 elements expressed positively and 3 elements expressed negatively. Now, the reliability of the CATCH questionnaire: Alfa Cronbach =0,732.

Findings of the study

Tab.1. General data concerning the attitude of pupils towards their peers with disabilities and concerning the results of the components of attitudes

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Median</th>
<th>Mode</th>
<th>Minimum</th>
<th>Maximum</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>General attitude</td>
<td>120</td>
<td>22,31</td>
<td>22,50</td>
<td>22,96</td>
<td>10,00</td>
<td>35,19</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Affective component</td>
<td>120</td>
<td>24,34</td>
<td>25,60</td>
<td>25,56</td>
<td>6,67</td>
<td>36,67</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Behavioral component</td>
<td>120</td>
<td>25,20</td>
<td>25,60</td>
<td>26,67</td>
<td>12,22</td>
<td>40,00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cognitive component</td>
<td>120</td>
<td>17,39</td>
<td>17,80</td>
<td>18,89</td>
<td>8,89</td>
<td>30,00</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
There are 27 elements of the questionnaire and each element has a minimal evaluation of zero (0) and a maximal evaluation of four (4), after the coding has been carried out accordingly. In total, the points are calculated this way: you add the points of the elements, the sum is divided by the number of the elements and the result is multiplied by 10. Thus, the ideal number of points would be calculated this way: \( 27 \times 4 = 108 \). \( 108 / 27 = 4 \). \( 4 \times 10 = 40 \). So, the maximum number of points obtained would be 40. The general attitude of the pupils towards their peers with disabilities is good. The average points of the general attitude of the pupils towards their peers with disabilities is 22.31. The maximum number of points obtained is 35.19 and this maximum was obtained from a very low percentage of the pupils (0.8%). The minimum number of points was 10 and this was obtained from a small number of pupils (0.8%).

Concerning the affective, behavioral and cognitive components we have a situation like this. There are 9 elements for each component and each element has its minimum value of evaluation equal to zero and the maximum value of evaluation equal to 4, of course after careful coding according to the rules. In total, the points are calculated this way: you add the points of the elements, the sum is divided by the number of the elements and the result is multiplied by 10. So, the maximum ideal points obtained for the affective component of the attitude would be calculated this way: \( 9 \times 4 = 36 \). \( 36 / 9 = 4 \). \( 4 \times 10 = 40 \). Thus, the maximum ideal points obtained for each component of the attitude would be equal to 40. By analogy, it is clearly understood that the minimum points would be 0. The affective component of attitude of pupils towards their peers with disabilities is favourable. The average points of the affective component for the attitude of pupils towards their friends with disabilities is relatively good, 24.34. In the same way the mode is 25.56. The minimum of the points is 6.67 obtained from 0.8% of the pupils participating in the study, whereas the maximum points obtained was 36.67, and this was collected from 0.8% of the pupils participating in the study. The behavioral component of attitude of pupils towards their peers with disabilities is favourable. The average points of the behavioral component for the attitude of pupils towards their friends with disabilities is relatively good, 25.20. In the same way the mode is 26.67. The minimum of the points is 12.22, obtained from 2.5% of the pupils participating in the study, whereas the maximum points obtained was 40 and this was collected from 0.8% of the pupils participating in the study. The cognitive component of attitude of pupils towards their peers with disabilities is not favourable. The average points of the affective component for the attitude of pupils towards their friends with disabilities is not good, 17.38. In the same way the mode is 18.89. The minimum of the points is 8.89, obtained from 0.8% of the pupils participating in the study, whereas the maximum points obtained was 30 and this was collected from 0.8% of the pupils participating in the study.

**Comparing the average points for the presence of the disabilities in the classroom**

Concerning the general attitude of the pupils, the presence of disabilities in the classroom does not influence the general attitude of pupils towards their peers with disabilities (Sig=0.579). So, statistically speaking there is no significant change or difference in the general attitude of the pupils who have in the classes pupils with disabilities from those who do have pupils with disabilities in their classes. The average points of those who have in their classes pupils with disabilities is 22.52, whereas average points of those who have not in their classes pupils with disabilities is 22.09. Concerning the components of the attitude, there are no statistically based relationship between the presence of pupils with disabilities and these components. As for the affective component of the attitude we have Sig=0.409. Pupils who do not have peers with disabilities in their classes have a lower average of point for the affective component (23.88), whereas the children who have peers with disabilities in their classes have 22.09. Concerning the components of the attitude we have Sig=0.871. Pupils who do not have peers with disabilities in their classes have a higher average of point for the behavioral component (25.29), whereas the children who have peers with disabilities in their classes have a lower average of point for the behavioral component (25.11). As for the cognitive component of the attitude we have Sig=0.454. Pupils who have peers with disabilities in their classes have a higher average of point for the cognitive component (17.65), whereas the children who do not have peers with disabilities in their classes have a lower average of point for the cognitive component (17.11).

**Comparing the average points in relation to the gender of the pupils**

The gender of the pupils does not affect the general attitude of pupils towards their peers with disabilities (Sig=0.870). The total average point for the attitude of the boys is 22.25, whereas the average of the points for the girls is 22.38. Concerning the components of the attitude, there is no statistically based relationship between gender and these components. As for the affective component of the attitude Sig=0.948. Girl pupils have an average of points for the affective component of the attitude which is higher (24.38), whereas boy pupils have an average of points for the affective component of the attitude which is lower (24.31). As the behavioral component of the attitude Sig=0.208. Girl pupils have
an average of points for the behavioral component of the attitude which is higher (25,94), whereas boy pupils have an average of points for the behavioral component of the attitude which is lower (24,59). As for the cognitive component të qëndrimit Sig=0,140. Boy pupils have an average of points for the cognitive component which is higher (17,86), whereas girl pupils have an average of points for the cognitive component which is lower (16,81), but there is no statistically based relationship between them.

**Comparing the average points in relation to the class of the pupils**

There is no statistically significant difference in pupils of different classes or grades in relation to their attitude towards their peers with disabilities (Sig=0,696). The lowest average of points goes with grade six (21,97), and the highest goes with grade seven (22,73). There is no statistically significant difference in the points of the affective component of the attitude for different classes or grades in relation to their attitude towards their peers with disabilities (Sig=0,208). The lowest average of points goes with six grade (23,33), and the highest goes with grade seven (25,42). There is no statistically significant difference in the points of the behavioral component of the attitude for different classes or grades in relation to their attitude towards their peers with disabilities (Sig=0,248). The lowest average of points goes with grade six (23,94), and the highest goes with grades five and seven, respectively 25,85 and 25,81. There is statistically significant difference in the points of the cognitive component of the attitude for different classes or grades in relation to their attitude towards their peers with disabilities (Sig=0, 0,038). The lowest average of points goes with grade five (16,54), and the highest goes with grade six (18,63).

**Data obtained from the interviews and the focus-group developed with teachers on the issue of inclusive education.**

Concerning the indicators of structure, teachers share such opinions: The number of the pupils in the classroom where there are pupils with disabilities is almost always the same as the number of the pupils in the classes where such pupils have not been integrated. In general, teachers state that the number of the pupils in the classes where there are pupils with disabilities should be lower than in other classes. In the schools where pupils with disabilities have been integrated, in general, there are no supporting teachers. The teachers desire the presence of such teachers. The teachers highly esteem the role of the teacher in charge for a certain class. This is usually a teacher is always there for the pupils and especially for the pupils with disabilities. Teachers also value the cooperation and interaction with the teacher in charge of a certain class or grade. In general, teachers affirm that they have not been involved in qualification processes recently. They want such a thing and they consider it necessary for their qualifications to deal the pupils with disabilities. As a general rule, there are psychologists in schools. There are schools in which there is no psychologist and the teachers demand the presence of a psychologist school. They list various reasons for this as for example, bloodfeud, family problems, the presence of children with disabilities in their classes, etc. In the schools where there is a psychologist, the same helps the teachers with their work with pupils with disabilities. In schools, there is also other assisting personnel like the stomatologist and the nurse. In relation to the existence of labs for the pupils with disabilities, teachers hold that such labs do not exist. The major part of the teachers thinks that there are not enough spaces for the pupils with disabilities. Even for those teachers who think there are such spaces, they state that they are not suitable for pupils with disabilities. There is no resource center in the schools concerning disabilities. There are very few materials in the libraries concerning pupils with disabilities. The teachers also affirm that there are or special didactic material for the work with pupils with disabilities. In general, the teachers say that they prepare the material themselves with what they have at their disposal.

Concerning the indicators of the teaching and learning process, teachers share such opinions: In general, there is no individualized plan for teaching pupils with disabilities. However, there are teachers who work with an individualized plan for teaching pupils with disabilities. The relations of the schools with other institutions are good. In particular, the teachers appreciate the cooperation of the medicals concerning various problems that their pupils might have. One positive experience is that of the pupils of “Pashko Vasa” school with the Center for Development in Shkodra. The teachers and the personnel from this center cooperate very well and they contribute towards the wellbeing of the pupils with disabilities who are going to this school, even due to the proximity of these two institutions. Concerning the cooperation among the schools, the teachers say that they cooperate with teachers from other schools. They cooperate with teachers they know, but there are no institutional relations among schools. The cooperation happens in the form of experience exchange among friends and acquaintances. The teachers consider the integration of pupils with disabilities into schools as very important and necessary, because such a process makes it possible for these children to feel equal.
to the rest of the society. They also say that this process should not be hastened and that there are a lot of difficulties in the implementation of the process, and as a result many of the teachers think that it would be better to have a special school for these children and well trained and well qualified staff especially for these pupils.

Conclusions

The attitude of pupils towards their peers with disabilities is positive, but there is still a lot to be done in this aspect. The affective and behavioral components of the attitude of the pupils towards their peers with disabilities are favorable, whereas the cognitive component of the attitude of the pupils towards their peers with disabilities is not favorable. The presence of disabilities in the class does not necessarily provoke a difference in the attitude of the pupils. The gender of the pupils does not influence the general attitude of pupils towards their peers with disabilities. There are no statistically significant changes in the general attitude of the pupils from various grades or classes towards their peers with disabilities.

Concerning the components of the attitude, there are no statistically significant differences between the presence of pupils with disabilities in a class and these components, and there are no statistically significant differences between the gender of pupils and these components. There are no statistically significant differences in the points of the affective and behavioral components of the attitude in various grades concerning their peers with disabilities. There are statistically significant differences in the points of the cognitive component of the attitude in various grades concerning their peers with disabilities. The lowest average of points for the cognitive component goes for the pupils of fifth grade and the highest average goes for pupils of the sixth grade.

In the schools where these pupils have been integrated there are no supporting teachers. In general, the teachers have not been involved in qualification processes recently. There are no specialized labs for pupils with disabilities in the schools and there are not enough quality spaces for these pupils with disabilities. In the schools, there are no centers for resources concerning disabilities. The libraries are lacking in books and materials related to disabilities. There are no special didactic materials available for the teachers and for the pupils with disabilities, and in general there is no individualized plan of education for children with disabilities. The relations of the schools with other institutions are quite good. The teachers appreciate the cooperation with the psychologist concerning various problems that they encounter. There is cooperation among schools but this occurs only on the level of individual teachers and these relations are not institutional.

Recommendations

The following recommendations would be necessary:

- Promotion positive attitudes towards pupils with disability, especially improving the cognitive component of attitude.
- Involving the teachers in qualifying processes concerning disabilities.
- More detailed knowledge on the part of the teachers of the essential documents concerning the rights of the individuals with disabilities and of the legal basis in Albania concerning the education of people with disabilities.
- A further awareness of the teachers concerning the integration of the pupils with disabilities into schools as a necessary process.
- The reduction of the number of pupils in classes where pupils with disabilities have been integrated.
- The designation of supporting teachers in schools where pupils with disabilities have been integrated.
- The equipping of the schools with special labs for the pupils with disabilities.
- The provision of the necessary and suitable spaces in schools where pupils with disabilities have been integrated.
- The equipping of the schools with resource centers concerning pupils with disabilities and the equipping of the schools with special didactic materials concerning disabilities and related to the work with pupils with disabilities.
- The compilation of an individualized plan of education for pupils with disabilities.
- The improvement of the institutional relations among schools in general and especially with special school if there are any, and to aim for the improvement of the quality of the cooperation.
- The awareness of the parents in relation to the integration of the pupils with disabilities in schools, as a necessary process.
References

The Implications of Gender Differences and Choice of Coping Strategies on Levels of Self-Esteem Among Adolescents Living in Kuwait

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Abstract The literature on Arab adolescents and the interplay between their coping strategies and self esteem attainment is somewhat lacking. Previous studies suggest that there is a significant difference between males and females in terms of engagement in coping strategies and academic attainment (Lawrence, 2006). In addition, the literature reveals that gender differences do exist in coping strategies of undergraduate students and in turn may impact self-esteem (Lawrence, 2006). The current study explores the extent to which certain selected coping strategies affect self-esteem and secondly, the impact of coping strategies within gender. The comprehensive COPE questionnaire (1989) and the Rosenberg Self Esteem Inventory (1965) were administered to a random sample of adolescents, ages 13 to 18, in Kuwait. A survey methodology was used to collect the data amongst both female and male adolescent students attending various high schools across Kuwait. The sample entailed 467 students, 232 males and 235 females, attending private schools in Kuwait. We hypothesized that 1) religion will be utilized by both sexes given the collectivist and religious nature of the Kuwaiti society, 2) females will utilize seeking of social support for emotional reasons, 3) denial will be utilized by males due to societal gender role restrictions of personal expression, 4) adolescents with high self-esteem will use more assimilative coping mechanisms, and 5) accommodative coping strategies imposed by collectivist societies, such as religion and support for emotional reasons, will decrease self esteem since such coping strategies entail conformity and inhibit individuality.

Introduction

According to Piko (2001) “coping encompasses the cognitive and behavioral strategies where the individual is able to manage stressful situations and the negative emotion reactions elicited by that event”. Due to the broad definition of coping, the research on the topic is one that is wide yet lacking in light of the multitude of factors that impact the selection of coping mechanisms.

Limited studies have explored the interplay between gender differences, coping strategies, and self esteem amongst Arab adolescents. With the increasing focus on cultural diversity and the need to understand individuals within their mainstream culture, this paper aims to minimize the gap in the literature and hopes to shed light on the various coping strategies utilized by male and female adolescents living in Kuwait, and in turn how such selected strategies impact self esteem.

In order to enhance the understanding of the interplay between coping strategies, culture, and self esteem, Attila Olah’s three-A parcel theory will be utilized. The three-A parcel theory divides commonly used coping strategies into one of three domains: Assimilation, Accommodation, and Avoidance. Olah (1995) postulates that all coping strategies involve cognitive and behavioral attempts on the individual’s part to either change his/her environment (assimilative), change himself/herself as part of environmental adaptation (accommodation), or to physically and/or psychologically disconnect (avoidant) (pp. 495-496).

As for Carver’s research on coping, the aim was to develop a more comprehensive questionnaire (1989). Carver tackled three main problems in his comprehensive COPE inventory, that of “none of the preexisting measures sampled all of the specific domains that [they] felt to be of theoretical interest,” to eliminate the ambiguity or lack of clarity in some of the earlier surveys’ items, and to practically link the inventories to actual behavior rather than to theories, as was the case in the past (Carver, Scheier, & Weintraub, 1989). Carver and his colleagues developed the COPE inventory to be more reflective of coping strategies that correlate to different factors such as personality dispositions (optimism, pessimism, self-esteem, commitment, control, anxiety, etc.).

As for the Rosenberg Self-Esteem Scale (SES), the research behind this survey postulates that self esteem is affected by and affects other personality factors (Rosenberg, 1965).

The current paper will attempt to group the strategies outlined by Carver (1989,) in the COPE questionnaire, into Olah’s three-A parcels. Specifically the paper postulates that a) positive reinterpretation and growth, b) instrumental social support, c) active coping, and d) planning can be considered Assimilative coping strategies, while a) religious
coping, b) humor, c) emotional social support, d) acceptance, and e) restraint are considered Accommodative coping techniques, and finally a) mental disengagement, b) focus on and venting of emotions, c) denial, d) behavioral disengagement, e) substance abuse, and f) suppression of competing activities are grouped under the Avoidance coping strategies. These coping strategies are each defined in the methodology. The paper thus attempts to broaden conclusions regarding individual utility of coping strategies within a specific cultural setting, that of adolescents living in Kuwait.

Cultural Background

Understanding the scope and parameters of the Kuwaiti collectivist culture is essential to comprehending the interplay of selected coping strategies and self esteem. Literature is scarce with regards to Arab adolescents in the Gulf region, particularly the country of Kuwait.

Kuwait is “characterized by authoritarian and collective values rather than liberal and individualistic ones” (Dwairy, 1998, p. 326). Within collectivist societies “an individual’s self and identity are enmeshed in the collective identity” (Dwairy, 1998, p. 316). Collectivist societies are interdependent and focused on the group identity. Thus, an individual’s behavior both impacts and is impacted by nuclear and distant group members.

Kuwait is also an Islamic country, located on the coast of the Arabian Gulf. It shares its borders with Iraq and Saudi Arabia, and its population of 2.2 million consists of 85% Muslims and 15% other religions (Christian, Hindu). Nearly 60% of this population is male and 40% female and only 39.8% of Kuwait’s residents are Kuwaiti (Kuwait Government, 2005; Kuwait Government Online, 2008). Thus, it is apparent that Kuwaitis are a minority in their own country. However, despite Kuwait being impacted by certain foreign values, it is still collectivist at its core (Torstrick and Faier, 2009, p. 109). Kuwait, as a collectivist society, adheres to the tenants of group identity and interdependence.

Religion

Hence, the country is not only collectivist in nature but also religious in orientation. Religion plays a vital role in identity formation, as its political, economical and social tenants are governed by religious sanctions and doctrines. Thus “religion is not just one aspect of life but its center, affecting all activity, thought, and feeling” (Nobles & Sciara, 2000, p.184). Therefore, we hypothesize that religion will be utilized by both sexes given the collectivist and religious nature of the Kuwaiti society.

Family

In addition to religion, family plays a vital role in shaping individuals' values and beliefs. An individual's collectivist identity mainly stems from reliance on family as a source of security, support and comfort. The “survival of the individual in Arab society is almost totally contingent upon his/her relationship with the family” given that the family serves as “the source of vital economic, social and emotional support” (Dwairy & Van Sickle, 1996, p. 231). In a typical patriarchal society, such as Kuwait, men are seen as the main providers for the family, in terms of economics, while women are the ones responsible for raising the children (Encyclopedia Britannica, 2009). In their book “Culture and customs of the Arab Gulf States,” Torstrick and Faier highlight that this difference is nurtured in children from a young age as “growing up, sons often have more leisure time for play, while daughters shoulder adult responsibilities such as helping with the households chores or caring for younger siblings” (p. 112, para. 3, 2009).

Gender

The interplay of family and religion unfolds in matters such as gender roles, decision making, individuation or lack of, locus of control, and overall worldviews. In Kuwait, as in any other Muslim Arab country, men and women are expected to oblige to strictly defined gender roles. Even though, in Islam, men and women are said to be equal “in human dignity,” these gender roles “often affect women adversely impeding their self determination in areas like their socio-economic status, status within the family, health, life expectation, independence, freedom and rights” (Safra Project). As mentioned earlier, men are viewed as the “guardians” or “protectors” while women are seen as fragile creatures that need to be taken care of.

In the Arab world, the issue of homosexuality, which is currently on the rise, is a very controversial matter and not spoken about openly as men and women are expected to behave in accord with the gender role dictated by their biological sexes. In Islam men and women who do not oblige to their biological sexes are cursed (Safra Project). As a result to the clear intertwine between family and religion, and the presence of strict gender roles in Kuwait, “Kuwaiti adolescents usually define themselves according to how they relate to the Kuwaiti culture, in the aspects of religion,
gender, citizenship, and even social class” (Dinkha, Abdulhamid, and Abdelhalim, 2008). This mesh is expected to uniquely define male and female adolescents’ coping strategies. It is thus expected that females will select seeking social support for emotional reasons and that males will use denial, as a coping strategy due to societal restrictions of male personal expression.

Adolescence
Adolescence is a critical transitional developmental period, as it entails a multitude of factors that interplay and impact identity development. According to Plancherel et.al (1998), adolescence “is characterized by transitions in many areas, hormonal and physical changes accompanied by cognitive developments (beginning of abstract thinking and theorization) as well as social affective changes (sexual relationships, self esteem, locus of control and autonomy from parents). The implementation of effective coping strategies, during this phase, is essential as it has a long term impact on mental health, interpersonal relationships, and one’s self esteem. This matter is further complicated by socio-cultural factors that prescribe normative gender roles, application of coping mechanisms and manifestation of emotional and cognitive needs.

Adolescents in Kuwait
As mentioned earlier, the Kuwaiti collectivist society adheres to strict Islamic regulations, which dictate basic societal tenants and complex individual expectations. In essence, adolescents not only need to factor in biological, physical, emotional and cognitive developments but also need to adapt to such developments within a society that emphasizes religion, family, and appropriate gender role display. Previous researches have highlighted the significance of family structure and family dynamics and how they impart adolescents’ sense of autonomy, individuation, and overall self esteem (Perosa and Perosa, 1993; Constantine, Donnelly, and Myers, 2002). Perosa and Perosa (1993) indicated that there is some support for “Minuchis assertion that a balance of enmeshment and disengagement in the family is associated with the development of a stable identity and the use of positive coping strategies by young adults” (pg.485).

Identity and Self-Esteem
Many adolescents have not explored the meaning of their ethnicity. Moreover, if these young people have internalized negative societal stereotypes of their ethnic group, they are likely to experience lower self-esteem and self confidence, and they may have difficulty in finding meaning in their lives (Dinkha, Abdulhamid, and Abdelhalim 2008).

As it pertains to the current study, it is expected that the interdependent nature of the Kuwaiti family and society will likely impact adolescent development in terms of reduced autonomy, continued need for emotional support, decreased self reliance, and problematic decision making. Adolescents living in Kuwait learn that family is the source of support and also the forum in which problems are resolved. Moreover, gender roles are an imminent factor in how problems are expressed, emotions are manifested, and support is sought.

In essence, given the patriarchal nature of Kuwaiti society and the Islamic regulations regarding female social outlets, it is predicted that females will more likely utilize social support for emotional reasons. On the other hand, males will likely utilize denial as a coping mechanism to stay in accord with prescribed male gender norms and roles. This is especially the case with regards to the need to manage impressions imposed by societal and religious sanctions. Despite such predicted differences in the utility of coping mechanisms, religion is expected to be an overarching and underlying catalyst. Indeed, researchers of religious coping have found that Muslims commonly engage in religious coping when faced with challenges in their daily lives (Ali, Peterson & Huang, 2003; Eapan & Reveesz, 2003; Errihani et al., 2008). Several researchers have also reported a positive association between Islamic religiosity and well being, happiness, life satisfaction, and general mental health (Abdel-Khalek, 2006; Abdel Khalek, 2007).

Research has also suggested that adolescents with higher self-esteem take a more internal control over their surroundings and thus use more assimilative coping strategies and are more proactive when dealing with problems (Colletta, Hadler, & Gregg, 1981).

Therefore, we postulate that the working hypotheses of the current study are as follows: 1) religion will be utilized by both sexes given the collectivist and religious nature of the Kuwaiti society, 2) females will utilize seeking of social support for emotional reasons, 3) denial will be utilized by males due to societal gender role restrictions of personal expression, 4) adolescents with high self-esteem will use more assimilative coping mechanisms, and 5) accommodative coping strategies imposed by collectivist societies, such as religion and support for emotional reasons, will decrease self esteem since such coping strategies entail conformity and inhibit individuality. It is anticipated that adolescents living in Kuwait will utilize a combination of assimilative, accommodative, and avoidance coping strategies depending on the scope of established gender roles, family values, and religiosity. However, given the prevalence of uniform cultural, religious and familial values, accommodative coping strategies are predicted to be utilized more often.
Methodology

For the purposes of this research we used the full COPE questionnaire (Carver et al., 1989) and the Rosenberg Self-Esteem Scale (Rosenberg, 1965).

The COPE questionnaire is a 60-item measure designed to evaluate the different coping mechanisms people use in response to stress and includes 15 subscales: (Carver et al., 1989).

1. **Positive reinterpretation and growth**; making the best of the situation by growing from it or viewing it in a more favorable light.
2. **Instrumental social support**; seeking assistance, information, or advice about what to do.
3. **Active coping**; taking action or exerting efforts to remove or circumvent the stressor.
4. **Planning**; thinking about how to confront the stressor, planning one's active coping efforts.
5. **Religious coping**; increased engagement in religious activities.
6. **Humor**; making jokes about the stressor.
7. **Emotional social support**; getting sympathy or emotional support from someone.
8. **Acceptance**; accepting the fact that the stressful event has occurred and is real.
9. **Restraint**; coping passively by holding back one's coping attempts until they can be of use.
10. **Mental disengagement**; psychological disengagement from the goal with which the stressor is interfering, through daydreaming, sleep, or self-distraction.
11. **Focus on and venting of emotions**; an increased awareness of one's emotional distress, and a concomitant tendency to ventilate or discharge those feelings.
12. **Denial**; an attempt to reject the reality of the stressful event.
13. **Behavioral disengagement**; giving up, or withdrawing effort from, the attempt to attain the goal with which the stressor is interfering.
14. **Substance abuse**; turning to the use of alcohol and other drugs as a way of disengaging from the stressor.
15. **Suppression of competing activities**; suppressing one's attention to other activities in which one might engage in order to concentrate more completely on dealing with the stressor (Taylor, 1998)

As for the Rosenberg Self-Esteem Scale, it is a ten-item scale, with items answered on a four-point scale – ranging from strongly agree to strongly disagree.

In our current study we used the stratified random sampling method. Male and female adolescents, between the ages of 13 to 18, studying at various private schools in Kuwait, were administered the COPE comprehensive questionnaire and the Rosenberg Self-Esteem Scale. Trained American University of Kuwait (AUK) students administered the above mentioned tools to selected schools.

Results

The first set of analyses examined how coping styles differed as a function of respondents' gender and age. Each of the fifteen coping scales derived from the COPE questionnaire were independently analyzed using a 2 x 5 factorial ANOVA with gender (male, female) and age (13,14,15,16,17) as between-subjects factors. These results are depicted in Table 1.

Table 1. Factorial ANOVA of the COPE scales with gender and age as between-subjects factors

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>COPE Scale</th>
<th>Factor</th>
<th>Df</th>
<th>F</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Positive Reinterpretation</td>
<td>Gender</td>
<td>1,457</td>
<td>5.44*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Age</td>
<td>4,457</td>
<td>1.10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Gender x Age</td>
<td>4,457</td>
<td>1.30</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mental Disengagement</td>
<td>Gender</td>
<td>1,457</td>
<td>5.29*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Age</td>
<td>4,457</td>
<td>1.10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Gender x Age</td>
<td>4,457</td>
<td>0.16</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Venting of Emotions</td>
<td>Gender</td>
<td>1,457</td>
<td>8.81**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Age</td>
<td>4,457</td>
<td>1.99</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Gender x Age</td>
<td>4,457</td>
<td>2.33</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Instrumental Social Support</td>
<td>Gender</td>
<td>1,457</td>
<td>4.93*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Age</td>
<td>4,457</td>
<td>0.49</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Gender x Age</td>
<td>4,457</td>
<td>0.80</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Active Coping</td>
<td>Gender</td>
<td>1,457</td>
<td>0.63</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The results of the ANOVA indicate that five of the coping scales showed significant differences as a function of gender: Positive Reinterpretation, Mental Disengagement, Venting of Emotions, Instrumental Social Support, and Emotional Social Support. As shown in Figure 1, females scored higher than males on all five of these scales.

Two of the coping scales also showed significant age differences. As depicted in Figures 2 and 3, Substance Use declined with age, while Suppression of Competing Activities increased with age.
The next analyses examined the effects of gender and age on scores derived from the Rosenberg Self-Esteem Scale (SES). A 2 x 5 factorial ANOVA with gender (male, female) and age (13, 14, 15, 16, 17) as between-subjects factors revealed no effect of gender $F(1,456)=1.19$, $p=n.s.$, no effect of age $F(4,456)=0.67$, $p=n.s.$, and no interaction, $F(4,456)=1.51$, $p=n.s.$.

To test the hypothesis that coping mechanisms significantly predict self-esteem, simultaneous multiple regression was performed using the COPE scales as predictor variables and the Rosenberg Self-Esteem Scale as the dependent variable. This model was statistically significant $F(15,450)=16.9$, $p<.001$, Adjusted $R$ square = 0.34. As shown in Table 2, the COPE scales of Active Coping and Humor had significant positive regression weights, while Denial and Behavioral Disengagement had significant negative regression weights.

Table 2. Multiple regression analysis of SES using COPE scales as predictors.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>COPE Scale</th>
<th>B</th>
<th>t</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Positive Reinterpretation</td>
<td>.08</td>
<td>1.68</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mental Disengagement</td>
<td>-.05</td>
<td>-1.27</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Venting of Emotions</td>
<td>.01</td>
<td>.22</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Instrumental Social Supp</td>
<td>.07</td>
<td>1.43</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Active Coping</td>
<td>.10</td>
<td>2.03*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Denial</td>
<td>-.13</td>
<td>-2.75**</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Discrimination and Future Implications

The purpose of this paper was to expand the cultural diversity literature and enrich the understanding of the factors that impact selection of coping strategies among adolescents living in Kuwait. Furthermore, the paper aimed to investigate the interplay of selection of coping strategies and levels of self-esteem.

Given the dominant factors of religion, family, and gender roles, in a collectivist and religious Kuwaiti society, it was expected that adolescents will utilize coping strategies that take into account above mentioned factors as they play a significant role in their identity understanding and development. Specifically, it was anticipated that the accommodative coping strategy of religion will be utilized by both sexes given its apparent impact within culture. As predicted, results affirmed that both sexes utilized this coping strategy and that there were no significant age or gender differences. In addition, it was also anticipated that females will utilize more accommodative coping strategies, specifically seeking of emotional support, and that males will use more avoidant coping strategies specifically that of denial, given their biological make up and gender roles. Results showed that females, in general, used more of the following coping strategies: Positive Reinterpretation and Instrumental Social Support (Assimilative), and Emotional Social Support (Accommodative), and Mental Disengagement and Venting of Emotions (Avoidant) which were not only accommodative ones but also assimilative and avoidant ones. Thus, females seem to utilize more coping strategies as compared to males, and their utility of various coping strategies likely indicates their developing identity, expansion of gender roles, and adaptation to society.

Furthermore, it was predicted that adolescents who use assimilative coping strategies will have higher self-esteem. Results showed that there was a positive association between the assimilative coping strategy of active coping and the accommodative coping strategy of humor, and self-esteem. These results are likely explained by the fact that both strategies entail proactive efforts on the individual’s part to either modify his/her behavior or implement change within the environment. Our final hypothesis was that utility of accommodative coping strategies, such as religion and emotional support, will decrease self-esteem as individuals will take on a more passive role of adaptation rather than a more proactive role of development. The results did not yield any significant findings for this hypothesis but additional results showed that the utility of the avoidant coping strategies of behavioral disengagement and denial were negatively associated with self-esteem. This is likely explained by the fact that using avoidance entails an external locus of control and no active effort in dealing with stressors.

Additional results of this paper included a significant age effect for the Avoidant coping strategies of venting of emotions, substance use and suppression of competing activities. Substance use declines with age, while Suppression of competing activities increased with age, likely as a result of the stigma attached to substance use and that adolescents are developing more sophisticated ways of dealing with stressors. With regards to suppression of competing activities increasing with age, adolescents are likely experiencing identity confusion and crises due to bombardment of varying mainstream and subculture views. Finally, results also showed a significant interaction effect for venting of emotions, whereby females score higher than males, and males’ utility of it declines with age while females remain constant. In Arab cultures, men are encouraged and expected to hold back their emotions and appear calm and collected or in control of the situation as a way to display their masculinity, while women are seen as fragile and more emotional, thus expected to display their emotions in both public and private situations. This would probably also explain why venting of emotions as a coping strategy decreases with age because as individuals grow, they are expected to be presentable in public situations and are expected to be composed at all times.

Results of this paper lead to the conclusion that although Kuwaiti society’s makeup impacts individuals and their choice of coping strategies and in turn their levels of self-esteem, yet it is obvious that Kuwait is becoming more multicultural and diverse in nature. Thus, various other components likely impact adolescents, their identity development,
and their sense of self esteem. Future research should likely expand this study and compare it to adolescents in other Gulf and Middle Eastern regions as well as expand on the effects of some limitations, such as questions on surveys that are considered culturally inappropriate and likely impacted responses.

References

Understanding the Voices of Gambling Vices. Different Perspectives on Origins of Pathological and Problem Gambling

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Abstract This article summarizes the results of a qualitative content analysis of historical literature on gambling problems in different countries. This article brings attention to a combination of quantitative and different qualitative studies. The study evaluates the etiological research on pathological and problem gambling, as well as the current state of knowledge regarding the causal pathways of pathological gambling. Risk factors for and correlates of pathological gambling, including psychosocial, environmental, genetic and biological ones, are evaluated in terms of commonly accepted criteria for determining the strength of an association. A risk factor is something that has a possible role in the beginning of a mood, physical or pathological condition, as well as its progress or regress in another state. Etiological research is complex, and a number of aspects are essential to consider in undertaking it. They include the accuracy of diagnostic labels, the associations and causal relationships among potential risk factors, the uniqueness of risk factors, and age and cohort effects. Determining psychosocial and environmental risk factors for pathological and problem gambling is guided by the following question: is the risk for pathological and problem gambling associated with socio-demographic factors, or it is associated with the availability of gambling to the gambler? This article argues that to study gambling, psychosocial effects caused by it to individual gamblers and their families and to measure the costs and benefits of society is necessary to stop to their origin.

Key words: etiological studies; risk factors; gambling; origin; age

Introduction

Etiological research must also consider how the effects of age and being in a cohort (a group of people born in the same year or decade) increase or decrease one’s risk for initiating gambling or developing a gambling problem. Although these effects are infrequently considered in existing pathological and problem gambling research, Erikson’s stages of development are one explanatory model that accounts for aging effects and could potentially be applied when investigating gambling behaviors. (Erickson, 1963, 1968, 1982) Specifically, the model hypothesizes that, as people age, they move through several developmental stages that correspond to certain stage-related tasks. When applied to gambling behavior, the implication is that, at certain developmental stages, the motivation for and expectations about gambling might change. A recent review demonstrated that gambling among young people occurs on a developmental continuum of gambling involvement ranging from no gambling experimentation to gambling with serious consequences (Stinchfield and Winters, 1998). These effects pertain to how risk factors and outcomes change with age and differ among groups of people. Cohort effects pertain to specific events that affect groups of people born during the same time period (Mok and Hraba, 1991). When applied to gambling behavior, this means that increases in gambling opportunities during a certain period in history may affect a certain age group of people. For example, a cohort of same age people, who are passing through the age of risk for gambling problems when gambling opportunities are expanding, may experience greater and increasing exposure to, involvement in, and social acceptance of gambling during their lifetimes than a cohort of same age people at risk during periods of fewer gambling opportunities. In addition, circumstances can affect more than one cohort in the same way or in different ways.

Criteria to determine the strength of an association

In order to evaluate the research evidence that various risk factors are associated with pathological gambling, the committee adopted a number of general criteria, which are commonly accepted by epidemiologists throughout the world (Hill et al., 1963) for determining the strength of an association:

- The event or exposure precedes the outcome of pathological gambling;
- Finding are consistent – that is, they have been replicated in other studies, with other samples, or in other cultures;
- There is a strong association between the risk factor and pathological gambling;
The association between the risk factor and pathological gambling is biologically plausible based on scientific research finding in such areas as behavioral genetics or neurobiology;

Findings remain consistent when different study methods and designs are used;

Associations examined are specific to pathological gambling and are not generally found in other disorders as well.

To suggest that a causal association might exist between risk factors, events, or situations and pathological gambling, it would be necessary for at least one of these criteria to be met. However, satisfying one or more of the criteria would not be sufficient to positively determine if there is a casual relationship between an exposure and pathological or problem gambling. In many gambling studies, the first criterion (that a risk factor necessarily precedes the outcome of pathological or problem gambling) is unknown. Without this principal evidence, an exposure, a situation, or an event is not proven to be causal.

Furthermore, many studies reviewed by committee collected data without exploring when and to what extent subjects were exposed to potential risk factors, or the age of onset of their pathological or problem gambling. Again from etiological standpoint, these methodological limitations make it impossible to determine whether suspected risk factors might “cause” pathological or problem gambling, or whether they are only correlated or associated with these behaviors. Thus, much of the evidence presented or implied in the literature as causal to pathological and problem gambling is, by commonly accepted etiological standards, better defined merely as evidence for an association. Still, despite the generally deficient state of etiological research on pathological and problem gambling, there does exist some tangible evidence to suggest certain risk factors and associations.

Psychosocial and environmental risk factors

Determining psychosocial and environmental risk factors for pathological and problem gambling is guided by the following questions:

- Is the risk for pathological or problem gambling associated with socio-demographic factors, such as age, gender, family effects, or is it associated with the availability of gambling to gambler?

In this section, we pay special attention to studies having sufficient sample sizes to generalize findings to larger groups within the population and studies that examine:

1. Socio-demographic, family, and peer influences that are associated with initiation into gambling,
2. The risk of progression from gambling without problems to problem or pathological gambling,
3. Individual factors among multiple factors associated with pathological or problem gambling,
4. Factors that predict chronicity of symptoms of pathological gambling.

Age

Throughout much of the world, many people begin gambling as children. The literature has also weakly supported a young age of onset of pathological and problem gambling following initiation to gambling (Kellick et al., 1979; Lesieur and Klein, 1987). In a retrospective study, it was found that adult pathological gambler remembered their gambling addiction to have started when they were between ages 10 and 19.

Studies of teen indicate that young age of onset of gambling is more than an artifact of reporting bias. According to an independent study of high school students and students of universities in Albania¹, conducted, 39% of teenage respondents reported gambling before age 11; 51% began gambling between ages 11 and 15; and 10% began after age 15; 32% reported having gambled at area casinos and 68% in other areas; and 53% reported gambling at least once a week. Between 23 and 40 percent of the teenagers in this study reportedly wanted to stop gambling but could not.

Gender

Etiological studies of pathological and problem gambling have generally focused on men from Gamblers Anonymous and men from veteran’s administration hospital system. Consequently, men in the general population have been underrepresented in studies, and women are critically underrepresented as well. Many early studies that did include

¹ This study has been focused in 3 high schools and 2 universities in Durres and Tirana, in Albania, 2010
women were based on small number of women. Many studies report that men typically begin gambling earlier than women and women appear to experience the onset of problem gambling earlier than men but controlled studies are rare. (Mark and Lesieur, 1992)

The American Psychiatric Association reports that the rate of pathological gambling is twice as high among men as among women2. Some other studies have found rates that high and other studies consistently show that men gamble more and have higher rates of pathological gambling than do women, even if not at twice the rate.

Gambling is an acute social problem in Albania, but there is no study about it. Sociologists, psychologists and social workers have tried to give their opinion about gambling, but there is no proper, detailed or advanced study in this area. So, there is no data about the rate of pathological gambling among men and women.

**Different Perspectives on Origins of Pathological and Problem Gambling**

**Biology – Based Studies**

Pathological gambling, classified by the American Psychiatric Association as a disorder of impulse control, has been found to have many similarities to such addictive disorders as alcoholism and drug dependence (Lesieur, 1992). Similarities include an aroused euphoric state comparable to the high derived from cocaine or other drugs, the presence of craving, the development of tolerance and the experience of withdrawal – like symptoms when not betting or gambling (Comings et al., 1996). These similarities have caused researchers in search of the origins of pathological gambling to apply relatively new and sophisticated technologies used in other health research, including genetics, brain imaging and other biology – based strategies. Although only a few studies of pathological gambling involve these technologies, several promising avenues of investigation are emerging.

**Family Studies**

Family studies indicate that pathological gambling may be familial. These studies provide mounting evidence that children of alcoholics and of drug abusers are at increased risk for the development of alcohol and drug problems as they progress into adulthood (Goodwin, 1976; Gross and McCaul, 1991). Similar hypotheses about the familial and intergenerational influence of problem gambling on the gambling behavior of offspring have begun to be examined. Gambling was the second most prevalent behavior reported after drinking. Those who perceived that their grandparents had gambling problems were three times more likely to score as probable pathological gamblers. Those who also perceived that their grandparents had gambling problems had a 12-fold increased risk. However, people who have had gambling problems are more likely to attribute their gambling behavior to family involvement in gambling and related problems.

**Neurobiological Mechanisms**

What can we say about receptor genes and pathological gambling? There is evidence that pathological gamblers are more likely than others to carry the D2A1 allele (Comings, 1998) which has also been linked to a spectrum of other addictive and impulsive disorders (Blum et al., 1996). The implications of these findings and their relevance are explored further. Theoretically, specific human genes can be linked to biochemical reward and reinforcement mechanisms in the brain, which in turn can be associated with impulsive or addictive behaviors. For example, alcoholism, substance abuse, smoking, compulsive overeating, attention – deficit disorder, Tourette’s syndrome, and pathological gambling may be linked in the brain by cells and signal molecules that are “hard wired” together to provide pleasure and rewards from certain behaviors. If an imbalance occurs in the chemicals that participate in this reward system, the brain may substitute craving and compulsive behavior for satiation (Blum et al., 1996). Also, research has identified an association between the Taq A 1 variant of the human dopamine D2 receptor gene (DRD2) and drug addiction, some forms of severe alcoholism, and other impulsive or addictive behaviors (Comings et al., 1996). Because the impulsive and addictive disorders that are associated with this variant are also related to pathological gambling, research was conducted to determine if a similar relationship might be present with pathological gambling. Based on this premise, genetic research

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2 American Psychiatric Association; Diagnostic and Statistical Manual of Mental Disorder (DSM), (1980, 1987, 1994)
on pathological gambling theorizes that variants in the DRD2 gene, and perhaps other genes, might be associated with biochemical reward and dysfunctions of reinforcement mechanisms that effectively lead pathological gamblers to behave self-destructively.

Dopaminergic dysfunction has been at the center of genetic studies on pathological gambling. These studies provide preliminary molecular evidence suggesting a genetic pathway to pathological gambling that is similar to that for impulse control and addictive disorders. Research findings suggest a possible link between dopamine receptor genes and pathological gambling. Candidate genes for association include the dopamine D2, dopamine D1 and Dopamine D4 receptor genes (Comings, 1998; Perez de Castro et al., 1997).

A correlation was found between the number of symptoms of pathological gambling and the presence of the D2A1 allele gene type. The allele gene was present in a larger proportion of the sample that also met the criteria for a substance use disorder. In other studies, the D4 receptor gene has also been targeted as a potential marker for pathological gambling, since there is some indication that it might be associated with novelty-seeking in general, which itself is associated with pathological gambling and dependence on opiates (Kotler et al., 1997). Although controversial, this finding, like the one on the D2A1 allele gene type, suggests a genetic predisposition that affects the dopamine pathway resulting in a possible association with pathological gambling. (Malhotra et al., 1996)

The serotonergic 5-HT, neurotransmitter system, part of the system that allows impulses to travel within the central nervous system, has been found to be associated with impulsive, compulsive, mood and other disorders. These findings have led investigators to evaluate its association with pathological gambling, since these disorders often co-occur with pathological gambling. Moreno and colleagues have reported a blunted prolactin response among a small sample of gamblers, suggestive of serotonin receptor hyposensitivity (Moreno et al., 1991). DeCaria and colleagues found an enhanced prolactin response in pathological gamblers suggestive of serotonin receptor hypersensitivity (DeCaria et al., 1998).

In summary, a great deal has been learned about the neurobiology factors contributing to drug abuse. Particular attention has been paid to role of mesolimbic dopamine pathway in mediating the acute reinforcement mechanisms are involved in pathological gambling.

Personality and other psychiatric disorders

Very few studies have linked personality disorders with pathological gambling. Personality type and its dimensions such as neuroticism, aggressiveness, defensiveness and socialization have been found to be related to pathological gambling (Specker et al., 1996). The possibility that pathological gambling is a consequence and not independent of other psychiatric problems, must be considered (Crockford and el-Guebaly, 1998).

Interest in the association of antisocial personality disorder (ASPD) with pathological gambling is strong, given that both disorders may be impairing to self, family, and society and each is characterized by persistent irresponsible, socially nonconforming, and risk-taking behaviors. Because these disorders are comprised of similar behaviors, there is an assumption that ASPD is comorbid with pathological gambling. A spurious association between pathological gambling and ASPD may exist because substance use disorders, which are highly prevalent in these populations are also associated with ASPD. In addition, research shows that, although gambling usually begins early in life, gambling problems generally occur later. Yet ASPD begins relatively early in life with childhood conduct disorder. It is also true that much pathological gambling may also be illegal gambling and as such might be associated with one or more DSM criteria for a diagnosis of ASPD.

Little is known about the association of anxiety disorder and problem gambling.

Rugle and Melamed (1993) found that the groups differed on attention measures, with gamblers showing more attention deficits. Subjects had previously been screened to rule out head trauma, drug abuse, and other medical conditions that might contribute to attention problems. Further evidence for an association between childhoods ADHD (attention deficit hyperactivity disorder) and later pathological gambling comes from Specker et al., (1995), who found that pathological gamblers compared with controls were more likely to meet criteria for ADHD. These studies indicate a potential association between early attention problems and later pathological gambling.

Conclusions and recommendations

- More and better research on the etiology of pathological gambling is needed.
- The past studies have limitations; they have provided the field with a foundation and guidepost for further
development. It is now evident that the onset of gambling usually begins in the preteen or adolescent years.

- On the basis of the available evidence, we can conclude that men are more likely than women to become pathological and problem gamblers. More research is also needed to identify risk factors for initiation into and progression of problem gambling behavior.
- Research on co-occurring disorders in the field of psychiatry is also needed.
- The study of pathological gambling, in its brief development, has no institutional base to sponsor research.
- Research that controls for important socio-demographic variables in the study of risk for initiation into gambling and progression into problem gambling.
- Research among individuals and communities that examines the effect of access and availability on gambling behaviors.

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Migration and Culture: The Impact of Internal and International Migration on Women-Men Relationship

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Abstract: The purpose of this study is to analyse how internal migration and international out-migration has affected in modeling the relations between women and men in a cultural and sub-cultural plane, based on quantitative and qualitative data through fieldwork. Developments in Albania and Korça region after 1990 are characterized by profound changes in cultural field due to internal migration from rural to urban and suburban areas, as well as due to emigration phenomena. Migratory processes in Korça region have affected the dynamics of relations between subcultures, effects that reflect changes in women-men relationships, changes in woman’s status, changes in expectations towards one another, increase of the number of divorces (open and hidden), mixed marriages, etc. This paper draws on a research in three sections of Korça city, section 1, 2, and 3, which reflect a cultural environment where are intertwined trends of the cultural change, caused by migration from rural areas within the city and emigration process to neighboring Greece. This paper represents an attempt which uses conceptual structures of contemporary sociology and anthropology to throw light on several profiles of Albanian culture in general, and local culture in specific.

Key Words: internal and international migration, cultural change, women-men relationships,

1. Introduction

The study of migration effects on women-men relationship in Korca city is selected because of some main reasons:
First, it is believed that there is the necessity for more studies based on social and anthropological approach of relationship between women and men affected by the process of internal and out-international migration. The impact of migration processes on women-men relationship seems to be an attractive field for academic study. The literature and the previous researches on this field are mainly focused on issues such as:
- How gender affects and shapes migration process and the experiences of migrants and their community of both origin and destination places (United Nations Entity for Gender Equality and the Empowerment of Women, 2010)
- How spatial change and separation through migration reshapes gender and generational relations (King, R., & Vullnetari, J., 2009)

So there is a need to study and examine the cultural change due to migration processes and the impact of migration on women-men relationship, women’s statues, number of divorces, attitude changes etc.

The second reason is that Korca city has experienced a significant internal and international migration flow since 1990, which has had unique characteristics in different aspects of sub-cultural integration. There is a lack of such researches in Korca city, so this study will be a good base for an extent of these researches in the future not only in local level but also in regional and national level.

The aim of this study is to demonstrate how migration process lead to cultural transformation, in particular, in women-men relationship.
Recent research on migration and gender show distinct and disparate behaviors and practices that raise a number of questions and suggest the need for a more complete theory of migration that incorporates notions of cultural dynamics as they relate to behavior and societal outcomes.

2. Research Methodology

The purpose of this study is to analyze the impact of migration on women-men relationship as well as integration between urban and rural subculture and the subculture of people migrated to Greece.

The study was extended in three sections of Korca city; section 1, 2 and 3. These three sections reflect a cultural environment where are intertwined trends of cultural change, caused by migration from rural areas within the city and migration process to neighboring Greece.

A questionnaire was used to collect the data. It included both open-ended and closed-ended questions. For the management of the data it was adopted a qualitative and quantitative analysis for identification of the problems. The survey served these purposes:

First, it allowed to identify the subcultural features of people moved from rural to urban areas, citizens of Korca and migrants from Greece in relation to women-men relationship.

Second, it provided sufficient detail of information on impact of migration on improving the woman's status and women-men relationship.

3. Migration and culture

Migration is a permanent or semi-permanent change of residence. Migration means moving internally within countries, or internationally between countries (from sending to receiving country), maybe a move for short or long term, for economic, political or social reasons. Maybe regular (conforming to legal requirements) or irregular. The migrant may have varying degrees of choice over whether or not they move. (Jolly S, & Reeves H, 2005, p.4) Differences among peoples and among places lie at the heart of migrations.

People migrate for different reasons, economical, political, social, educational reasons etc. Individuals may migrate out of desire for a better life, or to escape poverty, or social or family pressures. There are often a combination of factors, which may play out differently for women and men.

Studies show that the main reason people migrate from rural to urban and suburban areas is the demand for better life and striving to escape the demands and pressure of their collective over the individual while the main reason of emigrating to other countries (Greece) is the improvement of socio-economic standard of living.

For example men may be expected to support the family economically, so migrate to try to earn money while their wives stay behind. Some people may migrate to escape pressure to conform to gender norms or to escape gender-specific discrimination, for example:

- Women wanting to earn more and have more economic independence rather than stay put
- Women migrating to escape sexual violence and abuse, sometimes related to a conflict situation, etc.

The demographic changes caused by internal and international out-migration have brought significant changes to social and cultural dynamics that are reflected in the relations between men and women, issue which is the focus of our study.

Moving has many and often heavy costs, including not simply financial cost of transportation itself or even the additional expenses that go with searching for new work and new homes. Among the heaviest costs of all are the severing of personal ties in familiar surroundings to face new economic and social uncertainties in a strange land.

Migration brings new perspectives and enriches cultural diversity. Cultural background affects migration process (migrants’ behavior, decision- making to migrate, who migrates, where, how), while migration effects culture patterns of the people migrating.

4. General background- Albania

Migration (internal and international one) is a phenomenon which has characterized Albanian society since 1990. The profound economic, political and social changes country experienced after 1990 brought up a shift of population from rural to urban and suburban areas as well as migration of a large number of Albanians to other countries. Within the 1991-1992 emigrant flows completely uncontrolled (about 300.000 citizens) moved to Greece, Italy and countries of West Europe.
A second wave of emigration belonged to the collapse of pyramidal schemes of 1996-1997 and the economic and political troubles that accompanied this collapse combined with factors such as unemployment, poverty and insecurity. In this period about 100,000 people emigrated. After 1998 the improvement of policies with Greece and Italy led to increase of legal out-migration and decrease of illegal out-migration. According to a census performed by INSTAT Albanian population in 2001 was 3.07 million people and, if there would be no emigration, this number would be 3.78 million. The difference between these two numbers is the estimated number of emigrants, that is 710,000 persons from which 390,000 were males and 320,000 females.

Korca region is also affected by the phenomenon of migration of people from rural and urban areas to neighboring Greece and by the mass displacement of population from rural to urban areas. Actually in Korca city there are 51,683 persons from which 25,478 are males and 26,205 are females.

5. Impacts of migration on women-men relationships

The impacts of migration for women and men depend on many factors, all of which have gender implications. These include: the type of migration (temporary, permanent, irregular, regular, labor, independent or as dependent spouse); policies and attitudes of the sending and receiving countries; cultural features of both sending and receiving counties and gender relations within the household. At the other side gender affects how migrants adapt to the new country, the extent of contact with the original country and the possibility of return and successful reintegration. Gender is one of the basic components of the social system, which includes power relations, inequalities and hierarchies among men and women. (Özdemir E, 2003, p.72)

In our view, culture is an essential component for understanding the meaning given to individuals, their actions and their relationships.

Zyhdi Dervishi says that experience shows that the features of subculture formation affect the whole system of relations between members of a certain culture. (Fuga A, & Dervishi Z, 2010, p.215)

To understand the impact of migration on cultural and sub-cultural integration, it is first necessary to understand the culture migrants take with them from their countries of origin and the culture they find to the country of destination. For example in rural areas (in Albanian society) social and cultural integrative units operate/function on the bases of extended family and kinship within an optimum which provide individuals similar types of behavior in approximate situations. (Bobi G, 1997, p.63).

A characteristic feature of rural areas is a socio-cultural system based on reciprocal relations between the social and cultural units such as family, brotherhood, tribe, village etc.

Being closely associated with mindsets, culture directly affects the models of behavior of the rural population in the city, its orientation in urban space as well as the relations between social groups with different subcultural backgrounds in such environments.

Traditional gender roles in rural areas assign women a heavily kin-based, domestic role, while young men are expected to be freer from the household.

Urban economic opportunities and the values of urban subculture make women confront with new, urban concepts of gender roles, which stress autonomy, sexuality, and consumerism in contrast with rural identities, which primarily stress obligations to family, sexual modesty, and thrift.

Albanian cultural model is characterized by a male dominant feature. Patriarchy is particularly strong in Albania (King R, Vullnetari J, 2009, p.22) But studies show that patriarchal ties loosen after migration and women gain more independence and autonomy in their decisions and actions (Özdemir E, 2003, p.71). Job opportunities in the urban areas bring women more socio-economic opportunities. Rapid urbanization in developing countries breaks down the traditional family ties, which allows women to be stronger in their social relations. Also economic modernization positively affects internal migration.

Migration influences women-men relationships, either entrenching inequalities and traditional roles, or challenging and changing them. Experience shows that migration can provide new opportunities to improve women’s lives and change oppressive gender relations – even displacement as a result of conflict can lead to shifts in gendered roles and

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1 These data were available at the website of MPCS: http://www.mpcs.gov.al
responsibilities to women’s benefit. However, migration can also entrench traditional roles and inequalities and expose women to new vulnerabilities as the result of precarious legal status, exclusion and isolation.

Gender roles shift depending on the pattern of migration and length of stay in the place of destination, whether men migrate individually and bring wives or whether migration occurs as a family:
- For migrants where the women also work, marital relations improve in the place of destination, in that there is more sharing of decision-making and cooperation.
- Non-working wives of seasonal migrants suffer because, separated from their kin, they become more dependent upon husbands in the place of destination.

The status of women becomes an inevitable issue in migration studies to be considered.

A main component to measure the status of women is the extent of interaction with the outside world and the level of autonomy in decision-making within and outside the household.

6. A brief review of the survey

Referring to the study extended in three sections of Korça city results that 20% of the respondents have moved from the rural areas to Korca city and have been living in this city for a long period of time since 1991. 17% of them have secondary education while 3% of them have higher education. All the respondents who have moved from rural areas to Korca city claim that the main reason of their movement was economic conditions and improvement of living. The data from the study indicate that 50% of the respondents have migrated to the neighboring Greece.

Figure 1- Respondents migrated to Greece and not migrated to Greece (in %)

The survey data show that family and social status of women is higher in urban areas compared with the status of women in rural areas. The factors that determine this high level of women’s relates to the quality of life, economic independence, autonomy and emancipation of society in urban areas.

Regarding this a girl of 18-24 aged-groups with higher education says:

“Women living in the city are gaining more and more rights not only in family terms but also in social and professional terms. This is evident in the increasing number of women participating in political decision-making”.

An important indicator of high status of women living in the city is family decision-making. 84% of the respondents claim that the family decisions are taken by both spouses. Women take decisions on matters related to expenses and the way of upbringing and educating the children, while men decide on matters related to the decision to emigrate or receiving bank credit, etc.

An essential component that determines the wellbeing of the status of women is of course fertility. High fertility can be seen as a tool of patriarchy and fertility decline might be used as an indicator of the improvement of women status within the household because it shows that birth becomes a common decision of spouses rather than a decision of husbands. This is reinforced by the survey data: the majority of the respondents claim that both partners take the decision on the number of children.
One feature that distinguishes urban subculture from rural subculture is the attitude toward divorce as a way of resolving a relationship. Studies show that people living in rural areas are less likely to accept divorce as a way of resolving a relationship, especially when divorce is required by the woman. While under the influence of urban subculture these attitudes appear more tolerant. So 87% of the respondents accept divorce as a way of resolving a relationship, 10% of them respond against divorce (the main reason is related to the effects of divorce on children), while 3% do not respond to this question.

“According to my opinion divorce is a very effective way of resolving a marital relationship when it is over. Divorce ends up problems between partners who are aware of the fact that their relationship does not work” (a married woman of 46-55 aged groups who has moved from the country to Korca city 20 years ago).

Data from the District Court of Korca indicate a growing number of divorces which shows a more tolerant attitude toward divorce under the influence of migration.

Table 1 – Number of divorces in Korca city from 2000-2011

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>2000</th>
<th>2001</th>
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<th>2009</th>
<th>2010</th>
<th>2011</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Number of divorces</td>
<td>151</td>
<td>141</td>
<td>201</td>
<td>209</td>
<td>196</td>
<td>191</td>
<td>223</td>
<td>224</td>
<td>227</td>
<td>282</td>
<td>237</td>
<td>295</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: District Court of Korca 2011

Most of the respondents who have migrated to Greece claim that they have noticed differences in Greek population related to women-men relationship. According to them Greek culture is characterized by tolerant and respectful women-men relationship, better communication between them, higher level of independence and decision-making of women.

Figure 2 – How much does the phenomenon of emigration influence the improvement of women’s status?

46% of the respondents who have migrated to Greece accept that their relationship has changed due to migration to Greek society. While 54% do not accept that their relationship has changed due to this fact. (They are all citizens of Korca)

This is related to the fact that the status of women in Korca city has been more estimated before the 1990s. The decline of women’s status is not deep, but it is complex, diverse and shows deformations in modeling the behavior of the Albanian from Korca. In neighboring Greece the status of women is formatted on the basis of human rights, and in such an environment, traditional attitudes cannot be displayed so often, but it can be concluded is the increase number of women employed outside home, compared with the employment rate of men, and this may lead to the assumption that
we will have an increase of women independence, increase the number of divorces, open or hidden, as will lead to higher rates of mixed marriages.

So the answers to the question “Would you accept the decision of your child to marry a partner of Greek nationality?” are: 70 % of the respondents (33% of them have migrated to Greece, 37 % of them have not migrated to Greece) agree, while 27 % disagree.

The survey found that due to migration process values and cultural perceptions are transmitted.

7. Conclusions

- Migration is a worldwide phenomenon, one that possesses both opportunities and challenges for migrants and those in receiving societies alike.
- Based on the research data we came to the conclusion that migration processes can actually challenge gender roles.
- International migration can create international people, who identify with kin, friends and fellow emigrants virtually across the world.
- Returning migrants may bring new skills and new ideas.
- Migration can provide a vital source of income for migrant women and their families, and earn them greater autonomy, self-confidence and social status.
- Migration changes the expectations of women and men to one another and lead to more tolerant and respectful women-men relationship expectations.
- The increasing number of women employed outside home leads to an increase of women independence, increase the number of divorces, higher rates of mixed marriages.
- Socio-cultural integration should be understood not only as cultural adjustment of a particular group. Integration does not mean “melting” or sticking the parts to create a greater part, but the process of creating a common framework, the establishment of the relationship between parts through which parts are completed as a whole and do not derogate.

References


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Gender and Labor Market Experiences of Albanian Immigrants in Greece

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Abstract: The fall of the communist system, along with the transition from a centrally-planned to a market-oriented economy, unleashed massive migration of people from Eastern to Western Europe. Nowhere has this been more evident than in Albania, a country which in a space of two decades has gone from having no emigration to one in which at least 20 per cent of its citizens live abroad. During four and a half decades of communist rule (1945–1990), the government of Albania imposed one of the strictest migration controls in the whole former communist bloc, and perhaps in the world. This state of ‘no migration’ would come to an end in the early 1990s, when the dictatorial regime in Albania, as elsewhere in Eastern Europe, collapsed, fostering a large-scale flight of Albanians to Western countries. In the years to come, unprecedented numbers would follow, moving in particular to Greece, where Albanians are by far the largest migrant group, and Italy, where they now constitute the second largest immigrant group after Romanians. This article examines through the gender lens the labor market adaptation of Albanian migrants in Greece. I argue that in order to understand Albanian labour market adaptation, we need to examine the economic environment of their socialist past. This, I suggest, provides a better framework within which we can fully understand labour market experiences of Albanians in Greece, although, of course, the particular structure and demands of the Greek economy also play a vital role.

Data and methodology

This paper draws on work for my doctoral thesis for which 64 in-depth interviews were conducted with Albanian immigrants who live and work in Greece. In-depth interviews have the potential of providing rich and highly illuminating material allowing the researcher the opportunity to understand and to capture the richness of the social phenomenon that is the object of inquiry (Robson 1993: 229). Two kinds of interviews were used: face-to-face and over the telephone. I conducted telephone interviews with 52 people, the majority of whom lived and worked in Athens, while the rest were based in Thessaloniki and Crete. This broadly reflects the overall geographical concentration of Albanian migrants in Greece, whereby the largest communities live in Athens and Thessaloniki in that descending order. In addition, I was assisted by a research collaborator who conducted 12 face-to-face interviews in the city of Korça with migrants living in Greece but who were on return visits. The fieldwork took place between August 2006 and August 2007.

Recruitment of interviewees was done through the use of social networks as well as through snowball referrals. The interviewees’ profiles were mixed. First, there was an equal number of women and men who participated. Second, in terms of educational level, eight participants had just primary education (eight years of school); 33 had completed secondary education (twelve years of school); ten people had university degrees; seven had postgraduate degrees; the remaining six respondents had all completed secondary education, but had also done one or more years of vocational training or university. Third, regarding their rural or urban background, the shares were 12 and 52 originating in rural and urban areas respectively. Fourth, in terms of their marital status, only three people were single, two of whom were women, and the rest (61) were married. Finally, their ages ranged from 25 to 60 years old; some 11 respondents had no personal experience of working during the communist years, either because they were still studying or they were too young. However, they too were immersed in the same environment as the others, especially through the experiences of their parents and other relatives.

Coming back to the data collection methods, some more elaboration is helpful regarding the telephone interviews, as well as my positionality as a researcher. According to Berg, although telephone interviews may lack the face-to-face interaction, they provide a very effective way of collecting data in certain situations, such as dispersed geographic locations. This is the case with immigrants from Albania who live and work in various parts of Greece. In doing telephone interviews, I had to overcome the difficulty that exists in the nature such a method, i.e. the lack of face-to-face interaction, which is important in establishing rapport and trust between the interviewee and the interviewer. This becomes even more serious in the case of Albanians, since, given the socio-political realities under which they lived, many people were for a long time afraid of the political repercussions of giving out detailed information to outsiders. This is not to be taken lightly, given that after forty years of a despotic regime, wherein torture and exile were frequently meted out on the most capricious of pretences, Albanians became naturally fearful of political reprisals.

In this process, my own social network and key informants were an invaluable help in establishing much of the trust...
needed in an interview setting like this. Without their assistance this study would have been impossible. In addition, my status as a doctoral student at an American university proved to be highly useful during the interview process. Americans, for the most part, are viewed with a combination of respect and admiration. Furthermore, any individual attending an American university, in particular a doctoral degree, is granted a high level of respect and status among Albanians; hence a reason to trust a faceless voice.

Finally, my status as a community ‘insider’ was another advantage in my work.\(^1\) I was born and raised in Albania and speak the language fluently (it being my mother tongue), both of which equip me with deep insights into Albanian culture, life and events. This further eased the process of the telephone interviews and encouraged people to be more open to tell their stories.

All interviews were conducted in Albanian and were later translated into English. Particular attention was paid to the protection of participants’ identity. Thus, in order to preserve respondents’ anonymity, all names in this paper – as in my thesis and other publications – are pseudonyms.

**Gender and Labor Market Outcomes**

Gender plays a crucial role in the labor market incorporation of immigrants. Scholarship on immigration and labor market indicates that men and women display differences in terms of labor market outcomes in the host societies, with women being at a more disadvantaged position vis-à-vis immigrant men (Logan and Drew 2011; Remennick 2007; 2005; Lewin-Epstein, Semyonov and Kogan 2003; Hagan 2004; Wright and Ellis 2000; Knocke 1999; Pedraza 1991). This is seen in various aspects, such as number of occupational concentrations, wages, rates of return on human capital levels, likelihood of being un/employed, and so on.

For example, Wright and Ellis (2000) found out that among Los Angeles’ six largest immigrant groups (Mexicans, Salvadorans, Filipinos, Guatemalans, South Koreans and Chinese), immigrant men occupied a greater number of occupational niches than did women. Similarly, Hagan’s (2004) analysis of US census data revealed that while a large number of women were concentrated primarily in domestic services, men were concentrated in a more diverse number of occupations. Knocke (1999) noticed similar trends in Sweden. Remennick (2005) in her study of Jewish immigrants from Former Soviet Union to Israel, found out that while both men and women had experienced occupational downgrading in Israel, women suffered a more dramatic occupational decline than men, despite their similar level of education and pre-migration experience.

As a result of this, women receive lower wages and experience less mobility than men (Logan and Drew 2011; Foner 1986; Foner 2005; Knocke 1999; Repak 1994; 1995; Remennick 2007a). In her study of Central American immigrants in the United States, Repak (1994; 1995) noticed that men earned higher wages and were more mobile than women, regardless of the fact that women had higher human capital levels. Foner 1986; 2005 reveals similar patterns for Jamaicans in New York and London. Knocke (1999), in her analysis of data from Sweden, revealed that immigrant women who had come to Sweden as part of labor recruitment efforts in the sixties, and were recruited to perform low-status, and physically hazardous jobs, were still doing the same jobs three decades later. Moreover, very few women were given any chance to attend training courses and to advance to better jobs. Also, Logan and Drew (2011) found out that women from Former Soviet Union who had emigrated to United States, if employed, worked in less prestigious occupations and earned much less than their male counterpart.

Some scholars have also noted the impact on women of economic restructuring that began in 1970s. A shift from manufacturing to the service economy has meant that these women have made the same move. Economic restructuring, however, has hit immigrant women the hardest, given the fact that a great number of immigrant women worked in manufacturing labor intensive industries such as garments and electronics (Morokvasic 2000: 103). And, while native women have been able to enter white collar jobs, immigrant women have moved into the lowest rung of service jobs (Morokvasic 2000; Phizacklea 1983).

In her research on the Greek-Cypriot ethnic economy, Anthias (1983) found out that women were the backbone of the clothing industry, by serving as a source of cheap labor. And whereas both males and females were exploited by their coethnic employers, males had more opportunities for social advancement (i.e., starting their own business), compared to women. Similarly, Zhou (1992) found that although Chinese immigrant women provided the major part of Chinatown’s

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\(^1\)Like me, other researchers have conducted research with their own communities. See for instance Abusharaf, (2002); Kishinevsky (2004); Remennick (2007b).
economy, they still received very low wages. Moreover, men experienced a higher return on their human capital variables, something that cannot be said for women. Gilbertson’s findings (1995) showed that enclave employment provided Dominican and Colombian women with very low wages, minimal fringe benefits, and few opportunities for social mobility.

Gender is also a crucial dimension of entrepreneurship and self-employment. For one, the motivation to start a business is different for women than for men. While men and women may share similar problems in the host society that push them toward self-employment, such as discrimination and racism in the mainstream labor market, lack of recognition of education, or lack of knowledge of the receiving society’s language, research (Anthias and Mehta 2003) found that for women, unlike men, life crises such as abusive relationships, ill health, and not being permitted to return to work after childbirth by former employers, were important factors that drove them toward self-employment. Furthermore, women who are married and have children, consider self-employment as a flexible work option which would allow them to take care of their childcare responsibilities, since women still carry their household duties themselves (Hillman 1999). In addition, escaping the conditions of a domestic servant has been found important motivation to start a business of their own (Morokvasic 1991). Finally, women have been found to be much more motivated by symbolic factors (a sense of empowerment) than the men, who are largely motivated by financial profits (Anthias and Mehta 2003).

An increasing body of scholarship has demonstrated that domestic work is the most common occupation among immigrant women in the labor market in the receiving countries (Anderson 2003; Akalin 2007; Constable 2003; Degiuli 2007; Escriva 2000; Ehrenreich and Hochschild 2003; Hondagneu-Sotelo 2000; Lutz 2007; see articles in Momsen 1999). Domestic service is characterized by low status, low wages, and in a few exceptional cases, no benefits are involved. Women in this service, in particular, live-in domestic workers, work long and unpredictable hours, performing a multitude of jobs such as cleaning, taking care of children, the elderly and so on. The multiple jobs women have to perform mean “the extension of the subordinate role of women as unpaid family workers to paid family workers” (Anthias 2000: 27). In addition to performing practical tasks, domestic works, especially in the case of children and the elderly, involves a lot of emotional labor, in that women have to give part of themselves, their emotions (Degiuli 2007; Lutz 2007). Furthermore, domestic women workers, in particular live-in ones are subject to various kinds of physical and psychological abuses, especially young, unmarried women who are easy prey to those who might take advantage of their sexuality (Hondagneu-Sotelo 1997).

Significant as this literature is in highlighting the importance of gender in migration process, I argue that it cannot fully explain experience of Albanian migrant women in Greece. A large literature on migration, gender, and labor market adaptation has focused mostly on women who for the first time have access to paid income, or regular paid employment. Albanian women, on the other hand, come from a country where, as elsewhere in former communist countries of Eastern Europe, paid employment was a norm (Einhorn 1993: 113). Equal access to education and employment of women was central to the socialist state’s social project. In fact, women’s employment was a state’s protected social right. By moving to Greece, Albanian women, like men will no longer have the opportunity of “guaranteed jobs”. Moreover, Albanian women, in particular mothers with small children, will also lose the social benefits that they had under socialist society, since being non-EU citizens, as well as being often illegal, they cannot qualify for the limited Greek childcare facilities (Lazaridis and Psimmenos. 2000: 181). These factors then make for a unique environment, which will greatly impact the experiences of Albanians in Greece.

In view of these circumstances, I argue, as Gold (1995; see also Balli 2011) has done for Russian immigrants in California, that in order to fully understand experiences of Albanian women in the Greek labour market, we need to

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2These research findings in this paper are part of the projects called “Self-employment activities of women and minorities: their success or failure in relation to social citizenship policies (SEM).” This was a European Community funded project conducted in six European countries (Sweden, UK, Denmark, Greece, Italy, Germany). For more results of this project see a collection of articles published in *International Review of Sociology* (13): 1

3Literature has offered examples where men also has worked as domestics. We should point out here research by Margolis (1994) among Brazilian immigrants in New York, where she found out that Brazilian men too did domestic work. However, as the author shows us, even in those cases when both women and men are employed in domestic service, the division of labor in these jobs is along traditional lines: the woman cleans, does the laundry, cooks and cares for children, while the man is a butler, gardener, and/or chauffeur.

4For example, Anderson (2003), citing figures from Kalayaan (a British support organization) reported that between 1996-1997, 84 percent of domestics reported psychological abuse, 34 percent physical abuse, and 10 percent sexual abuse. Additionally, 54 percent were locked in, 55 percent did not have their own beds, and 36 percent were not fed regularly (Anderson 2003: 108).

5 Remennick (2007) has also emphasized the paucity of research on experiences of migrants women from former socialist countries who have moved to the West
examine the work environment of their socialist past. Indeed, as various authors have demonstrated, migrants’ experiences in their country of origin will influence their adaptation in the host societies (Morawska 2001; Remennick 2007; Boeschoten 2007). Morawska (2001), for example, found how practices during the communist past (Soviet-style ‘beat the system/bend-the-law’) that informed the daily lives of citizens of former communist societies proved to be useful tools in coping with their life as sojourners in the West. Boeschoten’s (2007) interviews with Albanian migrant men and women living in Greece revealed how memories of their communist past have influenced the ways in which they give meanings to their gendered experiences in Greece. Along similar lines, Morawska (2003) has shown how migrants’ pre-migration background influenced migrants’ transnational practices, as well as their adaptation in the US. Remennick (2007) also revealed how past experiences of Russian Jewish women from FSU who had migrated to the US influenced their adjustment in the U.S.

Immigrants’ New Experience

To begin with, labor market insertion of immigrants who participated in this study was different for men and women. The overwhelming majority of the men were employed in construction. The rest worked in small factories, car repair services, gas stations, cleaning and building maintenance, transportation, agriculture, hospitals, stores, as gardeners, as parking attendants, while only a few were self-employed. Most of the women worked in domestic service, performing tasks such as house cleaning, cooking, child-care and taking care of the elderly. Of the rest of the women, one was working in the restaurant/taverna, one as a privately employed nurse (in Greek: an apokalistiki), one as a tailor in small family run firm, and one as a supervisor in the factory. Only two were working as professionals. Both were self-employed: one was working full time, while the other one was working part time. Three other women were not working at the time of the interview. One, who had worked in a factory, had just lost her job. Another one had quit her job at a store, because she became ill and was in the process of recovery. One was staying at home to raise her kids. It should be noted, however, that even women who were not currently working in domestic service, had (with one exception) done so for most of their employment career in Greece. The employment concentration of immigrants in my sample are consistent with results derived from surveys/census analysis on Albanians immigrant performance in Greek labor market as well as various qualitative (field studies) carried out with Albanian immigrants in Greece (Baldwin-Edwards 2004; Hatziprokiou 2006; 2003; Iosifides and King 1998; Lazaridis and Romanisyn 1998; Lazaridis, and Psimmenos 2000).

The concentration of women in these particular occupations, in particular domestic service, has placed women in a more disadvantageous position than immigrant men in several respects. To begin with, as Repak (1995) has argued the very nature of the jobs domestic workers perform carries a stigma as “degrading” work, since it involves cleaning other people’s bathrooms and kitchens and picking up after employers’ families (Repak 1995: 102). Such work is among others low status, poorly remunerated, involves long and indefinite hours, absence of formal contract, and with the exception of few cases, (as my sample clearly indicates) absence of benefits such as health insurance, paid vacation, sick leave (Repak 1995: 102; Hondagneu-Sotelo 1997: 109).

Indeed, several women who were working or had previously worked as domestic in Greece, complained of the length and unpredictability of their work hours, as well as the often unpredictability of job demands. For example, women who were working as cleaners said that they had to work long hours at the time before and right after the holidays (i.e., Christmas, Easter), often cleaning two houses in one day. In another case one woman said that in addition to taking care of the children, a job for which she was initially hired, she then started to do other jobs such as cooking for the whole family, and occasionally cleaning, in other words performing multi-tasks an experience found among women of other immigrant groups. (Cheever, 2003). The performance of a multiplicity of such domestic tasks is nothing more but an extension of women’s tasks they perform at home. As one woman told me: “Here I do everyday, what I used to do in Albania every Sunday: clean the entire house, all of it”.

The issue that immigrant women were highly concerned, however, was that of social security benefits. As noted previously, under the communist regime, work was secured and fear of losing the job was non existent. Moreover, people enjoyed various fringe benefits such as universal free health care, under which everybody was covered, paid vacation time, consultation clinics, vacation centers for workers and their families (Jacques 1995: 539). In addition, Albania’s social security system extending literally from “womb to tomb,” covered disability, old age pensions, and burial expenses (Jacques 1995: 530-540).

In my sample, however, a total of five women received work related benefit.

Of these five, only two of those who were working in domestic service, received such benefits. Instead, married women asserted that they relied for these benefits through their husband’s work. In addition, their residence permit depended on their husband’s, since he was the one who had social insurance through his work, which is one of the main
criteria to live and work in Greece.

Klodiana: “Under Enver regime, I had a job. Yes, Yes. Work was secured. I worked 10 years. I made carpets. The work was very, very hard. The wage was very, very low. In Greece, in the beginning, I took care of an old lady for three years. Then the lady died, so I left. I had to find a job cleaning the houses. So I began to clean the houses. Even now I clean the houses.

Interviewer: “How do you compare your past job with the present job?"

Klodiana: “Compared with my past job, this job is much easier. Only that I do not have social security benefits. Back then, I had a pension. When I would get old, I would retire. While now, I do not have a pension, I am not secured. They do not give you ensima in this job. Jobs with social security are in the tailor shops. But I do not know how to do that job. So I clean houses… I am secured through my husbands’ work. He has ensima. He has the green card, and I depend on my husband. I do not get a pension. Only my husband gets pension.”

Women also complained that their husband’s pension will not be enough when they retire. One immigrant said: “The pension that the Greeks give you is very little, even for the Greek themselves. I worry a lot, because my husband’s pension will not be enough for him, let alone for me. It is very expensive to live and pay the rent; you cannot live on that pension.”

Several women also mentioned the fact that while social security benefits through their husbands’ work covered visits to doctors and medicines, it did not provide women with days off in case they became sick. Fatjona said: “They do not pay me if I stay at home. The doctor cannot give me days off. All medicines are free, because I am insured through my husband. But if I get sick and I cannot work, they do not pay me.”

In addition to the lack of social security benefits, instances of which were found by other scholars of Albanian migration (Lazaridis and Koumandraki 2000) fear of losing the job was also a grave concern for women, even in those cases when the job did not provide any benefits. For example, Etina, who is single, expressed a high degree of anxiety, given she had no other means of support, and her employer did not provide any social security benefit: “What was positive for me in the past was job security. The hospitals also were free. You did not have the anxiety: ‘Now I do not have money, and I cannot go to the hospital. I can’t pay the doctor. In Albania, you would go to the doctor, and you paid nothing. There was security before… I work without IKA (social security), and I am obliged to pay in Albania some money, so that I can get a pension. But, also you do not have the energy to work. I am by myself, for example, and always worry about how I am going to pay the rent. In the past, you could get a letter from the doctor saying that were sick and you had to stay at home. If you were sick or not, if you knew somebody, you could get a letter from the doctor, and nobody would say you anything. Here, if you do not work, you do not eat. Nobody helps you. For example, I work for an older lady, and I always ask myself, ‘What if she dies. Will I be able to find another job quickly.’ I am anxious about that, because I say to myself, ‘Who is going to pay for the water and electricity and telephone? Who will pay for these things?’ If something happens to me, I will be in the middle of four roads. They can easily fire you. I am really anxious. What if I do not have energy to work any longer? Because age plays its role. Before, you had your job and it was there. Here, if you do not know somebody to find you a job, you are stuck… In Albania, the work was much harder. I worked in a factory. I could do it. Now, I can also do the job. But I am more scared, because I say, ‘What if the old woman does not want me tomorrow. What am I going to do?’ The problem is that I do not want to expect things from a husband. Why should I put up with a husband?...Only few women work with IKA. They do not give you social security. You need to work only in one house, so they can put you social security’. Now, all these years passed, and we are left with nothing.”

For those few who had access to social security through their work, the fear of losing the job loomed large, given that the loss of a job meant the loss of benefits. Blerta said, “I work in a restaurant. My husband works in construction. I have social security. My husband’s social security depends on his work. When he works a lot he has social security. Sometimes we have to buy ourselves the social security (stamps).”

Interviewer: What about a pension?

Blerta: What pension? I need to work 18 more years to get a pension. Do I have the security in this country that I will have a job? I do not have any security in my country, let alone in Greece. Today they keep you in work, tomorrow they fire you. They do not care. They do not hire you, especially when they hear you are Albanian. In the past, I remember. My parents worked, my brother worked. You were not left without a job. Now, who knows?”

One of the major issues immigrant women are faced with in immigration is that of childcare. Various researchers (Kusakabe and Pearson 2010; Foner 2005: Foner 1986; Hochschild 2003; Hondagneu-Sotelo 1997; Hondagneu-Sotelo and Ernestine Avila. 1997; Mahler 1995) including earlier research on Albanian immigrants. Lazaridis (2000) have observed these concerns in their studies as well as strategies women employed to cope with these particular situations: immigrant women often left their children behind under the care of their mothers, grandmothers, neighbors, children’s fathers, other female relatives, sometimes with paid caregivers, other times they bring relatives to come and take care for...
Child care was a major concern for Albanian women with children as well. It should be worth reiterating, however, what we have mentioned earlier. Unlike women in many parts of the world, working women hailing from former communist countries enjoyed an array of benefits, such as paid maternity leave for women, free health care, low-cost government provided-daycare and kindergarten. These benefits, while inadequate and of lower quality by Western standards, greatly facilitated mother-worker role of women, assuming that women were both expected to work and be solely responsible for the domestic realm, since Albanian men, like Russian men are famous for not assisting with household tasks, regardless of their wives’ occupational commitment (Gold 1995). In addition, like elsewhere, (see for example Foner 1986; Zhou 2000) family members, in particular grandparents often took care of grandchildren when mothers were working. In some cases too, family’s relatives assisted in child caring. In Greece, however, child-care responsibilities pose serious problem because of several factors: To begin with, for a considerable amount of time, many women and their families were working and living without papers. As such, they were not eligible for state subsidized child-care.

One woman recounted her difficulties of taking care of her newly born child, during the time she and her husband were working and living illegally in Greece. “I gave birth to my son, and I had to leave him at home after forty days. I left him with my husband and my older son. I worked all night, and during the day I would take care of my son. My husband would take care of my son during the night. When there was nobody at home, then my older son would take care of his younger brother. A child would take care of a child. Because we did not have papers. If you do not have emigration papers, they could not take the child to day care, or kindergarten. They would not take it. It was very difficult. I can’t even describe it.”

In addition, however, even in those cases when women possessed legal resident papers, but were working in domestic service under the conditions of informal employment, which meant lack of social security benefits, they were not eligible for state subsidized day-care centers. Such is the case of Afërdita, who were not able to take her newly born child to day care, even though she was residing legally in Greece, because she was working “off the books” as house cleaner: “I could not take my child to day care. According to Greek law, if a mother is employed, she needs to show a document that verifies that she is employed somewhere. I was not employed legally. I was doing “black” (illegal) work, because I was cleaning houses. When you clean the houses, you are not registered legally, because I did not have an employer. I was not employed in a job legally, so I could not get a letter from social security. I worked daily, wherever I could find work… It was too expensive to take my child to a private day care. In addition, the work schedule was inconvenient. I was on the road, from job- to- job all day. I could not manage to pick up the daughter from the day care. … So I sent my daughter back to Albania to stay with my mother. Many people have done this. This is very, very difficult…”

Not all women I interviewed, however, were lucky enough to have their relatives, taking care of their children. As a result, they pursued other alternatives, such as taking children to private day-care, though these instances were quite rare. Drita, however, who came to Greece with her husband upon finishing her university studies, decided to stay at home and raise her Greek born children, while her husband works in two jobs. She lamented the fact that she had come to Greece, considering it to be a big loss for her professional career and life in general. “Under Enver, I would be better.

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6 The communist regime, as part of socialist state’s project of emancipation of women, put a lot of efforts to provide women with equal access to education and employment opportunities as those of men. While the status in the educational and occupational sphere improved significantly for Albanian women during socialist regime, the same achievements could not be said about family sphere, even though the most extreme and traditions that had historically characterized Albanian family were also challenged and partially changed (Mai 2001), yet the patriarchal mentality was never undermined (Mai 2001: 268-269). As elsewhere in Eastern Europe, “any development of women’s roles took place within a vacuum, by dint of communist party diktat and largely without any commensurate comprehensive change in social attitudes” (Hall 1994: 88). Women had to work as hard as men at work, only to go home and start the “second shift” of cooking, washing, cleaning the house, taking care of kids. Surveys (Tarifa and Barjaba 1986, 1990 cited by Hall (1994) conducted with 450 Tirana residents in 1986 showed that “80 per cent of female workers spent more than two hours a day on housework compared to only 20 per cent of male workers. During no-working days 83 percent of female workers spent more than three hours on housework (with 30 per cent spending more than five hours), compared to 14 per cent of male workers. Moreover, when it came to the division of responsibilities for the care of children, whereas 47 per cent of women in the sample spent between 1.5 and three hours a day looking after children, only 15 per cent of men devoted this amount of time to child care. This figure ranged from 12 per cent for manual workers to 19 per cent for intellectuals (Hall 1994: 86).
Because I would finish the university, and I would find a job. Now, I have ten years in Greece, and what do I do besides raise kids? I have turned into a housewife. There at least, I would work. Do you understand me? All those years of school are gone for me. I emigrated for what? There I would have been better; not only would be better, but surely I would be much better."

The experiences of Drita, the university graduate turned stay-home mom, are found among other immigrants of similar position as Drita. For example, Ho (2006) interviewed women from Hong Kong and China, who, like Albanian women, have a strong history of high level of participation in paid work. Upon moving to Australia, the challenges of settling in a new society as well as lack of domestic support they had at home, pushed these women to devote all their energies to facilitating family’s settlement in the new country by completely withdrawing from the labor market, or limiting themselves to part-time work. Gold (2002) too found similar patterns for Israeli immigrant women in the United States.

The experiences of Albanian immigrant women can be fully understood in the context of the Greek economic and social institutions. Hondagneu-Sotelo (2003) has argued that gender is critical to the constitution of social institutions, not just family and household, but other institutions as well, labor market being one. Following this argument, we would state, as others have remarked as well (Lazaridis 1996; Lazaridis and Romaniszyn 1998) that Greek labor market, is highly gendered too, where men are clustered into “men’s job”, while women have been funneled into “women’s job”, the most common of which is that of domestic worker. Particular types of societies create particularly gendered labor markets (Hondagneu-Sotelo 2003: 8). In Greece, an ageing population; changing family structure; rising participation of women in the labor force; longer periods spent by females in full-time education; incapability of welfare state to provide adequate care for the children (i.e., limited number of kindergarten), the elderly and the sick as well as for people with special needs; continuous enlargement of housing space; the still rather limited participation of males in housework and the prestige considerations in many middle-class households to have a foreign domestic maid, creates a demand for domestic service jobs (Lazaridis 2000: 50; Fakiolas 2000: 60).

The insertion of immigrant women in these jobs, has affected women on several level: In addition to “degrading” nature of the job, low remuneration, lack of contract and unpredictable and long hours, immigrant women have lost access to various social security benefits, benefits which were taken for granted under the communist regime. Married women have secured these benefits through their husband’s work, including the right to residence, although none of them have the right to a pension upon retirement. This situation will most likely increase dependence of women on men. As one woman immigrant who had worked as domestics all her migrant life in Greece and did not have retirement benefit, told me: “If tomorrow my husband divorces me, I do not know what I am going to do.” These findings, therefore contradict the existing findings that women (in particular women who obtain access to paid employment for the first time in their life), gain from migration, while men lose. Instead, however, the findings show that women have experienced a loss, which will, in turn, in all likelihood, increase the dependence of women upon men, and therefore their subordinate status.

In sum, we could say that our study indicates that gender influenced immigrants’ experiences in profound ways. For one, the concentration of the overwhelming number of women in domestic service meant a lack of work-related benefits, such as health insurance, vacations, sick leave days, the right to a pension when they retired, all benefits which were taken for granted under the communist regime. As a result of this situation, women have had to rely on their husband's work to obtain these benefits, although none of the women had the right to a pension. This situation will further increase the dependence of women on the men. Moreover, women with children, given their lack of formal employment, were not eligible for child-care facilities. In view of these circumstances women often had to resort to other childcare methods, such as sending them to expensive private day care, leaving them under the care of their older child, or even staying at home to take care of their kids themselves. These findings are contrary to what other researchers have found, revealing that women lose, rather than gain, in immigration.

References


7 Repak (1995) found out that informal recruitment of Central Americans to serve as domestic workers and child-care providers for Washington D.C.’s government, diplomatic and professional employers, was a highly gendered process, whereby only women were hired to fill in these positions.


Outdoor Leisure Activities in the Family: Marital Satisfaction and Problem Solving Skills in the Family

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Abstract Family recreation has contributed to numerous positive family outcomes and plays a vital role in the development of family health, functioning, and strength. This study was carried out to determine the effect of couple’s marital satisfaction and problem solving skills in the family on their outdoor leisure activities. The influence of demographic characteristics, marital satisfaction and problem solving skills of couples on their outdoor leisure activities with family members was investigated. 3492 married couples (Female=1746, Male=1746) living in Karabuk city center at different socio-economic levels were chosen based on the “Simple Sampling Method”. Data were collected through a demographic information form, a questionnaire on the outdoor leisure activities shared with family members, Marital Life Scale (MLS) and Marital Problem Solving Scale (MPSS). To determine the factors affecting outdoor leisure activities shared with family members, t-test and hierarchical regression analyses were employed. The results demonstrated that the female in this study ranged from 17 to 72 years of age (M = 37.13, SD = 9.74) and the male ranged from 18 to 80 in age (M = 40.31, SD = 10.10). The average length of marriage was found to be 15.1 years. The result of hierarchical multiple regression analysis revealed that demographic characteristics, marital satisfaction and problem solving of couples was important predictors of outdoor leisure activities shared with family members (p<.05).

Keywords: leisure activities, family and leisure time, recreation, marital satisfaction, marital problem solving.

Introduction

Changing of the life conditions and technological development has made the leisure time an important part of lifetime for today’s people. Changing lifestyle of the people affects the choices of people for the types and ways of leisure activities (Oğuz ve Çakci, 2010). There are various definition of leisure time in the literature (Veal, 1992, Gökmen at al. 1985:20, Stewart, 1998 ). Leisure time is defined as “the time left apart from the working and resting time”. Leisure time is the time that a person is free from all responsibilities or connections and can make an activity by his/her own will (Tezcan,1982: 9). “Leisure time” is sometimes confused with the “free time” concept. Leisure time is the free time period after the work hours. Free time is non-working time which is used freely. Leisure time is the time a person uses for non-working activities and is a part of free time. If a person can act as they will without work related concerns and is satisfied with enjoyment and happiness, this activity is called leisure time activity (Demir & Demir, 2006). Leisure time activities are an important part of personal development, family life, social relations and the culture. It also contributes to the individual health and relations with others, as well as supporting the family life and cultural transfers (Beck & Arnold, 2009).

Family is the most fundamental and important place to give the social conscious to the individuals which is required for a society to maintain its existence (DeFrain & Asay, 2007:2, Ulu, 2003:14). For this reason, families relations are traditionally assumed as to be the most important factor to keep people together (Hojat at all, 2000: DeFrain & Asay, 2007). Leisure activities are very important for the family life (Harrington at al 1999). Participation to the leisure activities provides environment and opportunity to communication, interaction and problem solving (Nelson et al. 1995). Thus the leisure activities among the family members help them improve their relations and solve their problems (Ageta at al 2009). Leisure activities allow interaction between the changing environment and the family as well. This interaction provides the new input, energy and motivation which is required to sustain a healthy family development (Zabriskie and
McCormick, 2001). Along with improving the family relations, cohesion and treaty, leisure activities also emphasize the family values and traditions (Du Lee at al. 2006). Leisure activities are a kind of interaction that encourages and improves the positive interaction between couples, siblings, and parents and children (Orthner & Mancini, 1991; Shaw & Dawson, 2001; Agate at al. 2009; Agate at al. 2007).

Studies have also consistently found that some family recreation endeavors, such as outdoor activities and camping, are more related to quality of family life than other kinds of family leisure (Hawkes, 1991; Hill, 1988). Outdoor activities such as eating outside, going to cinema or theater, sports, watching match, camping, going to vacation etc. (Beck & Arnold, 2009) are also related and vary according to the education and income level of the family (Godbey, 1994).

For more than 60 years, researchers identified leisure and recreation activities made in family. Many researchers have investigated the relationship between the leisure activities and life satisfaction, family leisure activities and family life satisfaction. Among many investigations there are some studies on the effects of indoor and outdoor family activities on family function and strengthening the family (Zabriskie ve McCormick, 2001; Freeman ve Zabriskie, 2002; Shaw ve Dawson, 2001), communication between the parents and children (Huff at al, 2003), problem solving ability in the family (Wells, Widmer ve McCoy, 2004), relationship between the family leisure activities and family life satisfaction (Agate at al, 2009), marital satisfaction (Johnson at al, 2006), maintenance the marriage (Hill, 1988), parental satisfaction (Freysing, 1994), relationship between the family leisure activities satisfaction and family life satisfaction (Poff at al. 2010). These studies generally deal with the effects of family leisure activities on the marriage, family life, family life satisfaction, and parent-child relationship. These studies also investigated the relationship between the frequency of the shared outdoor activities with family members and the satisfaction from the outdoor leisure activities, adequacy of the income, marital satisfaction and the marital problem solving ability. In this study, the effect of marital satisfaction and marital problem solving ability on the shared outdoor leisure activities was investigated by evaluating the opinions of male and female members of the family separately.

Method

Sample

Participation of this study consisted of families which are live in Karabük city, Turkey. The population of Karabük is about 110,000 (TÜİK, 2010). Iron steel industry is the most significant factor shaping the socioeconomic structure of Karabük. Iron-Steel factory has played the main role for Karabük to become a complex and cosmopolitan industrial area in terms of socioeconomic structure. It is a developing city and includes a wide variety of different ethnic and cultural groups. Simple random sampling is the basic selection process. Each unit in the population is identified, and each unit has an equal chance of being in the sample. The authors had randomly selected 2000 family (couples) out of total 110,000 populations lived center of the Karabük city. A total of 1746 (female=1746, male=1746) interviews were conducted with an approximately 87.3 percent participation rate. The average age of the couples included to the study is 37.13(±9.74) for the females ranging from 17 to 72, and 40.31(±10.10) for the males ranging from 18 to 80. Average marital length of the couples is 15.09(±10.46) and the average number of children was two ranging from 0 to 9 in the families’. The percentages of couples having two, one and three children are 37.5%, 21.8% and 18.6% respectively. The income of the couples range from 350 to 10,000 TL, and the average income is 1828.18(±1104.51) TL (about 1010.05 $) (1 US dollar is equivalent to about 1.81 TL- March, 2012).

Instruments and Data Collection

Data collection mean has three stages.

In the first stage, demographic question were asked to the couples participating the investigation such as their age, education level, marital length, number of children, income, employment status, profession, additional income sources, how the economic decisions are made etc.

In the second phase, the questions were aimed to address the outdoor shared activities of the family members. Some of these questions were; “How often do you make the following activities with your family; eating outside, going to cinema, going on vacation, buying gifts, going to theater, sports?”, “Is your family income adequate for doing outdoor activities?” and “Are you satisfied with the frequency of your shared outdoor activities of your family?”

In the third phase, Marital Life Scale (MLS) developed by Tezer (1986) to measure the couple’s overall level of satisfaction from the marriage, and Marital Problem Solving Scale (MPSS) developed by Baugh, Avery and Sheets-
Hawoth (1986) to determine the conception of the couples on solving their marital problems were used to measure their overall satisfaction from marital relationship.

**Marital Satisfaction (MSs):** MSs was developed by Tezer (1986) to measure the overall satisfaction from the marital relationship. MLS scale includes 10 items such as; “I achieved most of my expectations from marriage” and “I think that my marital problems cannot be overcome.” Responses were given on a 5-point Likert Scale range from “1= certainly disagree” to “5=certainly agree”. The highest and lowest scores that can be taken from this scale are 50 and 10. Higher scores mean more marital satisfaction. Reliability of the scale which is determined by test-retest method is .85, and Cronbach Alfa coefficient is .88 for male group and .91 for female group. These findings show that the scale is reliable (Tezer, 1986). Factor analysis results also confirm that the scale is valid. In this study Cronbach Alfa coefficient for male and female participants were found as .83 and .88 respectively.

**Marital Problem Solving Scale (MPSS):** This is a scale with 9 item and 7-point Likert which was developed by Baugh, Avery and Sheets-Hawoth (1982) to determine the conception of married couples on their ability to solve their marital problems. There are questions in the scale like; “how much do you depend on your problem solving ability compared to the other couples?” and “how much are you satisfied with the solutions brought to the problems?” etc. Internal consistency of the scale and test-retest correlation coefficient of the original study were found as .95 and .86 respectively. The scale was adapted to the Turkish culture by Hünler and Gençöz (2002). The original 7 grades of the scale were reduced to 5 as it is easy to answer the questions. The highest and the lowest scores that can be taken from the scale are 45 and 9. Higher scores show that the person perceive himself/herself successful in solving marital problems. Cronbach Alfa coefficient was found to be .91 and the item total correlation was .63 (Hünler and Gençöz, 2002). According to the results of dependability analysis, for this study, researchers have found the Cronbach Alfa coefficient of the scale as .89 for females and .86 for males.

**Data Collection**

Questionnaires are arranged in accordance with the aim of the research. The questionnaire was pretested by applying to 25 couples (both women and men) in order to evaluate the conformity of the questionnaire. The form was rearranged through the suggestions came from this pretest group and the required corrections were made.

The Questionnaires was applied between 30.03.2011 and 15.06.2011. The couples which didn't live in Karabük, didn't accept the questionnaire interview, or were not married to each other were excluded from the study. Questionnaire was asked to be filled by both males (n=1746) and females (n=1746) in the family separately and freely, without affecting each other and only taking some assistance from the researchers in case of need. Name and address were not required to be written onto the questionnaire to obtain more sincere and actual results. The questionnaire took about 20-25 minutes to be filled.

**Data Analysis**

The analysis of the data was conducted using the “SPSS for Windows 11.5” program. Data analysis began with calculating frequencies of the sample on all variables and the graphs for these distributions were obtained. Mean and standard deviation for the scales used in the study were calculated.

Correlation analysis were performed to determine the level and direction of the relationship between the dependent and independent variables, and Hierarchical Regression Analysis was used to determine the sequence of contribution for the variables. In this approach, independent variables are put into the regression analysis in a certain sequence to determine the model that best describes the dependent variable. (Büyüköztürk, 2007:31). In this study, multiple-variable hierarchical regression analysis were performed to find out whether some variables related to family life such as; demographic variables (age, marital length, family monthly income, profession, education level, additional income sources of the family and how the economic decisions are made in the family), marital satisfaction, marital problem solving ability, adequacy of family income to perform shared outdoor leisure activities and the level of satisfaction from the frequency of outdoor shared leisure activities, have any effect on the frequency of shared outdoor leisure activities with family members or not. Also independent sampling T-Test was performed to identify if there is a meaningful difference between the couples in terms of the effect of marital satisfaction and problem solving ability on the outdoor leisure activities (Büyüköztürk, 2007:30).
Results

The finding reflected that 39.5 percent of the females and 42.1 percent of the males had high school graduate. Between the females primary school graduate was in the second stage (36.9%). For the males university graduate comes in the second stage (37.2%). Distribution of the occupations among the couples in the study was house wife (69.0%) which is more than the half, state officer (12.5%) and worker (12.0%) for females, and worker (40.1%), state officer (26.3%) and retired (13.3%) for males (Table 2).

How the manner that economic decisions are made in the family was asked both to men and women separately. According to the results of both female (47.6%) and male (44.4%) participants, the economic decisions were always made together in the family (Table 2).

Table 2 gives the mean and standard deviation values of the variables that were expected to have effect on the frequency of outdoor leisure activities shared with the family for men and women separately.

Table 3 shows the results of hierarchical multiple regression analysis for the outdoor leisure activities shared with family members and the other variables. There is a significant relationship at 0.01 level between the frequency of the outdoor leisure activities shared with family members and the adequacy of the family income for the outdoor leisure activities shared with the family members (t=-2.507, df=3490, p<.05) and the relationships between gender was statistically significant. However, the relationship between the adequacy of the family income for the outdoor leisure activities shared with the family members and the gender is statistically not important (t=0.816, df=3490 p<.05). As seen in Table 3 the significant between couples and dependent variables was examined, economic decision making (female:3.27, male: 3.14) and the satisfaction from the frequency of outdoor leisure activities shared with family members (female:3.08, male: 2.98) stem from females. On the other hand, the significant between couples and frequency of outdoor leisure activities shared with family members (female: 9.35, male: 16.73), marital satisfaction (female: 35.80, male: 38.90) and marital problem solving ability (female:35.19, male: 36.84) was caused by males (Table 3).

The Pearson's correlations among the demographic variables, marital satisfaction, marital problem solving ability, adequacy of the family income for the frequency of outdoor shared leisure activities, the satisfaction from the outdoor leisure activities shared with family members, and the frequency of outdoor leisure activities shared with family members. There are significant positive relationships for females participant, between the frequency of outdoor leisure activities shared with family members and the family income level (.47, p<.01), education level (.48, p<.01), economic decision making (.07, p<.01), marital satisfaction (.16, p<.01) and marital problem solving ability (.26, p<.01), while the age (.2, p<.01), length of marriage (-.27, p<.01), occupation (.14, p<.05), additional income sources (-.07, p<.01), the adequacy of family income for the outdoor leisure activities shared with family members (-.60, p<.01) and the satisfaction from the outdoor activities shared with family members (-.59, p<.01) has statistical significant and negative relationship at 0.01 level. For the male participants, there is a similar relationship between the level of outdoor shared leisure activities shared with family members and the other variables. There is a positive relationship at 0.01 level between the frequency of the outdoor leisure activities shared with family members and the age (.18, p<.01), length of marriage (.24, p<.01), additional income resource (.07, p<.01) the adequacy of the family income for the outdoor activities shared with family members (.58, p<.01) and the satisfaction from the frequency of the outdoor leisure activities shared with family members (.58, p<.01). On the other hand, there is a significant and negative relationship with the family income level (-.46, p<.01), education level (-.36, p<.01), economic decisions making (-.08, p<.01), marital satisfaction (-.23, p<.01), marital problem solving ability (-.17, p<.01) (Table 3). The most interesting finding of this table is that the frequency of outdoor leisure activities shared with family members and the satisfaction from the frequency of outdoor leisure activities showed negative correlation for females (-.59, p<.01) and positive (.58, p<.01) for males.

Table 3 shows the results of hierarchical multiple regression analysis for the outdoor leisure activities shared with family members. For the first stage of the Hierarchical Multiple Regression Analysis, only the demographic factors, such as age, length of marriage, monthly income of the family, occupation, education level, additional income sources of the family and the economic decisions making were included to the analysis. In the second stage, the adequacy of the income to leisure activities shared with family members and the level of satisfaction from the outdoor leisure activities shared with family members were added. At the third and last stage of the analysis, the independent variables Marital Life Scale and Marital Problem Solving Scale were added to the regression along with the demographic factors and other independent variables. The determination coefficients (R²) obtained in the end of three stages were compared and the
variables evaluated for females and males participant discretely if these variables give information about their outdoor leisure activity behaviors shared with family members.

Demographic variables explains 33% of the effect of the total variance on the frequency of outdoor leisure activities shared with family members for the females participants (R2=0.573, R2=0.329, F= 121.586, p<.05), while it 30% for males (R2=0.548, R2=0.300, F= 193.085, p<.05).

Table 3 gives the t-test results related to significance and the regression coefficient (β) standardized to test the effect of the independent variables, in the first stage of the analysis, on the outdoor leisure activity behavior shared with family members.

The findings indicated that between females participants adequacy of income for outdoor leisure activities and satisfaction from outdoor leisure activities shared with family members explained variance rate was 51 percent (R2=0.505, F= 196.426, p<.05). The added variables adequacy of income for outdoor leisure activities and satisfaction from outdoor leisure activities shared with family members, while this rate was 66 percent for the male participants of the spouses(R2=0.657, F= 331.723, p<.05). Considering also both of females and males participant standardized regression coefficient (β) and the t-test results show that the relationships between the adequacy income for outdoor leisure activities shared with family members (β=.22, p<.05; =-.28, p<.05) and the frequency of leisure activities shared with family members (β=.05, p<.05; β=.48, p<.05) was statistically important

The third stage was run by including marital satisfaction (MSs) and marital problem solving (MPSs) regression equations. The results illustrated that the stage was significant both of females (R2=0.716, R2=0.509, F=165.458, p<.05) and males (R2=0.815, R2=0.661, F=284.919, p<.05). Additionally finding indicated that among females participants the relationships between satisfaction from outdoor leisure activities shared with family members and marital satisfaction (MSs) (β=.00, p>0.05) was insignificant, while the relationships with marital problem solving (MPSs) (β=.09, p<.05) was statistically significant. For the male participants the results showed that an inverse relationship compared to females, between satisfaction from outdoor leisure activities shared with family members and marital satisfaction (MSs) (β=.20, p<.05) and marital problem solving (MPSs) (β=.06, p=.05) satisfaction level of satisfaction from the outdoor leisure activities shared with family members (Table 3.).

**Discussion**

Family leisure activities contribute to family cohesion, help the family members solve their problems and improve their relationship with each other (Agate et al. 2009). Recent studies clearly show the relationship between the family bonds and the shared leisure activities (Huff, Widmer, McCoy & Hill, 2003; Wells, Widmer & McCoy, 2004; Mactavish & Schleien, 1998; Zabriskie & McCormick, 2003). Studies on the subject deal with the effect of family leisure activities on the different variables related to marital and family life. This study, on the other hand, deals with the relationship between the outdoor family leisure activities with family members and the satisfaction from this activity, adequacy of family income, marital satisfaction and marital problem solving ability. Two different sampling were taken to investigate if there is any difference between the females (N=1746) and males (N=1746) side of the couples, as well as to determine the relationship between the frequency of outdoor leisure activities shared with family members and the variables.

It was determined that the frequency of outdoor leisure activities in family (eating out, going to cinema or theater, going on vacation, buying presents, doing sports etc.) is different for the female (9.35) and male (16.73) couples’. This finding can be assumed normal in the context of social gender roles. According to this role, man has to provide breadwinner for the family and the woman has to do housework and taking care of the children. As an extension to these roles, women have a voice in decisions related to the house, and men have the right to speak on purchasing and outside relations. Since the women pass their time at home much more than the men, they are eager to participating outdoor leisure activities. On the other hand, since the men work outside and spend their time out of the house, they might consider outdoor leisure activities boring in their point of view. Also the Pearsons’ correlation coefficients between the frequency of the outdoor shared leisure activities and the variables show that, there is a significant (0.01 level) and negative relationship, for female participants, between the adequacy of the family income for outdoor leisure activities (β=.60, p<.01) and the satisfaction from the frequency of outdoor leisure activities (β=.59, p<.01) while, for the male, there is a positive relationship with 0.01 significance level between the adequacy of the family income for the outdoor leisure activities (β=.58, p<.01) and the satisfaction from the frequency of outdoor leisure activities (β=.58, p<.01). Therefore the results obtained from Table 2 support the results of Table 3. Besides, one of the important factors affecting the shared outdoor leisure activities is the income level of the family. Income level is directly related to the health, education, social interaction, housing, leisure time an overall living style conditions along with expressing the level of meeting the needs of a family (Cilga, 1994:357). The families having a high income can easily meet their basic needs and thus reach a high
living quality. On the other hand, low income may limit the leisure time activities of a family. According to Godbey (1994), income level is more and more dominantly affects the leisure activities of the people. Because most of the outdoor leisure activities are money-dependent like cinema, theater or concert, eating out, going on vacation, doing sports, watching matches etc. According to the results of Family Structure Investigation research conducted jointly by TÜİK and Family Research Organization in 2006, 84.3% of the home population reported that they didn't go to cinema or theater, and 68.6% didn't go to eating out. The most frequent activities of people were visits to their relatives (24.9%) and secondly visit to friends/family friends (%64.9).

The third stage of the Hierarchical Multiple Regression Analysis was including MSs and MPSs to the regression equation the coefficient of determination was significantly increased among both of female participants (R=0.716, R2=0.509, F= 165.458, p<.05) and males participants (R=0.815, R2=0661, F= 284.919, p<.05). Therefore based on this findings it can be said that, the marital satisfaction and marital problem solving are significant predictors on the frequency of outdoor leisure activities shared with family members.

Hill’s (1988) findings, which demonstrated casual relationships between shared leisure time and marital stability, also reflected these trends. Family leisure involvement has also been positively correlated with family cohesion, family adaptability, and overall family functioning (Agate, Zabriskie, & Eggett, 2007; Zabriskie & McCormick, 2001; Zabriskie & Freeman, 2004). Research on leisure activities revealed that, family ties can be strengthening by participation in recreation and leisure activities (Freeman & Zabriskie, 2002; Johnson at al. 2006; Orthner & Mancini, 1991; Du Lee at al. 2006).

Zabriskie and McCormick (2003) conducted a study on 179 families to investigate the relationship between the family involvement to the leisure activities and the living satisfaction of the family. The findings of this study indicated that a positive relationship between the family involvement to the leisure activities and the living satisfaction of the family. Ageta et al. (2009), conducted a study in USA on 898 family and found that there are important determinants of shared leisure activities according to both core and the balance model. Poff et al. (2011) performed a study in Australia on 902 parents (both parents) and 810 children living with these parents and reported that the children at adolescent age tend to be affected from the quantity of the family involvement to the leisure activities. On the other hand the parents focus on the quality of the family involvement to the leisure activity probably the other family variables (family communication, family functions, family leisure time satisfaction and family living satisfaction). Contrary to these findings, Aslan (2009) found that among traditional Turkish city families to the shared leisure activities and level of enjoyment from these activities are low but, the family living satisfaction is very high. Although Zabriskie and McCormick (2003), Ageta et al (2009), Hill (1988) and Poff et al. (2011) supports the results of this study, Aslan (2009) seems to be not supporting. This situation may arise from the socio-economic and socio-cultural differences among the families.

It is possible to argue that family involved activities or having time with family is a common and important leisure time activity for all people from any culture or age. Skill, interest area, manners and behaviors gained during the family involved recreation and leisure activities in childhood or adolescent age are effective throughout the life stage of a person. Therefore, the recreation and leisure time activities in the family are very important for the development of both the person and the family.

According the results of this study, it is possible to conclude that; the women participants do not see enough the outdoor leisure activities shared with family members. Their satisfaction level for these activities is low and the outdoor leisure activities with family members should be improved. On the other hand, men participants are satisfied with the current situation of outdoor leisure activities.

Further studies may deal with social gender point of view, considering variables like socio-economic and socio-cultural situation of the family which would contribute to the development of the family. It is also necessary that the opinions of family members on the indoor and outdoor leisure activities should be investigated separately, difference among the people should be stated and this type of studies should be repeated with a time interval to identify the factors affecting the change. It would be useful for the study to include all socioeconomic classes.

Table 1. Demographic Variables of Spouses

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Female (N=1746)</th>
<th>Male (N=1746)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>F</td>
<td>%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Education Level</td>
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<td>Secondary School</td>
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<td>High School</td>
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<td>College or University</td>
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<td>Occupation</td>
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<td>Male</td>
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<tr>
<td>-----------------------------</td>
<td>--------</td>
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<td>Employee</td>
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<tr>
<td>Employer</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Self-employed</td>
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<td>1.6</td>
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<tr>
<td>Casual employee</td>
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<td>0.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Unpaid family worker</td>
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<td>0.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Retired</td>
<td>38</td>
<td>2.2</td>
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<tr>
<td>Homemaker</td>
<td>1205</td>
<td>69.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Servant</td>
<td>218</td>
<td>12.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Unemployed</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Economic Decision Making in Family

| Each time men               | 282    | 16.2 | 378  | 21.6 |     |
| Each time women             | 49     | 2.8  | 28   | 1.8  |     |
| Woman and men together      | 837    | 47.9 | 775  | 44.4 |     |
| Sometimes woman almost men  | 292    | 16.7 | 310  | 17.8 |     |
| Sometimes men almost woman  | 69     | 4.0  | 47   | 2.7  |     |
| Family members together     | 217    | 12.4 | 208  | 11.9 |     |

Table 2. Comparison of Mean Values (and Standard Deviations) of Female and Male (Spouses) and T-Test Results

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variables</th>
<th>Female</th>
<th>Male</th>
<th>DF</th>
<th>t</th>
<th>p</th>
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<tr>
<td>Economic Decision Making in Family</td>
<td>3.27</td>
<td>1.43</td>
<td>3.14</td>
<td>4.97</td>
<td>3490 2.595 .010*</td>
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<tr>
<td>Marital Satisfaction Scale (MSs)</td>
<td>35.80</td>
<td>4.26</td>
<td>38.90</td>
<td>4.97</td>
<td>3490 -18.804 .000*</td>
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<td>Marital Problem Solving Scale (MPSs)</td>
<td>35.19</td>
<td>6.36</td>
<td>36.84</td>
<td>5.48</td>
<td>3490 -8.241 .000*</td>
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<td>The adequacy of family income to outdoor leisure activities with family members</td>
<td>3.10</td>
<td>1.15</td>
<td>3.06</td>
<td>1.13</td>
<td>3490 0.816 .415**</td>
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<tr>
<td>Satisfaction of level frequency outdoor leisure activities with family members</td>
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<td>1.19</td>
<td>2.98</td>
<td>1.16</td>
<td>3490 -2.507 .012*</td>
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<tr>
<td>Frequency of outdoor leisure activities with family members</td>
<td>9.35</td>
<td>2.41</td>
<td>16.73</td>
<td>2.99</td>
<td>3490 -52.999 .000*</td>
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*p>0.05; **p<0.05

Table 3. Hierarchical Multiple Analysis Results

<table>
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<tr>
<th>Model</th>
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<th>MALE</th>
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<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Age</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Length of marriage</td>
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<td>.010</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Family Income</td>
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<td>Occupation</td>
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### References


Motivation Intensity and Language Orientation to English Language Learning at the Age 10-15

Valbona Softa
Wisdom University, Universiteti i Tiranës

Abstract This study measured the intensity of motivation and desire to learn English and found the factors which drive to language learning for a sample of 330 pupils aged from 10 to 15, studying English in a non-public foreign languages school. These attitudes were measured by four scales from the Attitude / Motivation Test Battery (AMTB). The scale of motivation and desire had a total score of 30 for the highest intensity and it resulted from the measures by the test of motivation that the pupils’ answers reached the score 18, thus it revealed that pupils’ motivation to learn English is slightly above the average score and they are moderately motivated to learn English. For the language orientation scales scored in total with a value of 70, they evaluated the integrative reasons for learning the language at a score of 51 and the instrumental reasons at a score 54. The integrative reasons included language usefulness; meeting people; culture; and social interaction; the instrumental reasons included career; education; employment; and feeling of respect. They estimated very highly education reasons 62 out of 70, usefulness of language at 58 out of 70 and employment at a score of 56 out of 70; they were little interested in a country culture or feeling respect gained from language knowledge at a score 44 and 40 out of 70, while were moderately oriented to learn English for career reasons, social interaction, and meeting people.

Introduction

Psychologists regard children as ‘innocent’ and ‘uncorrupted’ from the motivational point of view, for it seems that they have a genuine and natural curiosity towards the world and an innate desire to learn. This, is actually cited as a proof to the statement that motivation to learn, generally, and the skill to learn foreign languages is innate feature of human beings’ Dörnyei (2001: 50).

Foreign language acquisition, especially English, facilitates the integration process of Albanian students to this reality, as well as it creates the basis for introducing and exposing our national values to the international culture of various people in the world. In the last few decades, everybody is aware to the great role English language has in the world, especially for communication, research and commercialism needs. English has now become ‘lingua franca’ of the 21st century in Albania. Naturally, it is not the only language applicable in educational environments in Albania; there are other languages too, like German and French as part of school curricula. However, what seems to be a very enhancing objective in the school system and educational policies of nowadays in Albania is learning English language conform to language levels presented by The Common European Framework of Reference (CEFR) and meeting international test standards for extended post - graduation studies. Another crucial factor contributing to such education policy is the Albanian people inspiration to adhere to the European Union.

In the context of a multicultural education of our pupils and students, and in a very promoting social and political era for European integration, it is absolutely necessary to make a research about the attitudes and motivational degree of our students to learn English language. Furthermore it is claimed that: ‘Social theory of acquisition makes the difference between knowledge and performance’ Woolfolk A.,: 222).

Another crucial reason for taking the research is the compatibility of students learning trend to the newly introduced educational reforms in the country, regarding the school curricula and academic syllabuses. This is supported by the fact that students are learning English since the elementary school starting from the third class; English language is expected to become a compulsory exam for the A - levels, for the incoming school year, since it has been long argued about the necessity of making English language a national priority.

The two main orientations to language learning are integrative and instrumental orientation, which are defined as external factors to motivation. Instrumental orientation is connected to reasons of study for example, language helps the student to find a job, thus the attention is on the subject, not the language itself, the latter is considered as a means to operate by student for achieving goals. It is mainly related to a low motivation factor. The next type of orientation is integrative orientation, which occurs when students are interested to be integrated in particular societies or communities for study reasons or culture, etc. this kind of motivation is especially high for emigrants in English speaking countries.

Furthermore, for the first time in Albania, is approved by law the taking of international exams such as TOEFL, IELTS, and FCE as a must for studies in the post - graduation studies, like Doctorate or Masters (withdrawn from www.mash.gov.al)
In such a linguistic revolution, it raises as a need to discover the students expectancies and their attitudes, desire, and motivation to learn a foreign language. Motivation, which has been defined by Pintrich & Schunk, 2002 as “the process in which the attention is concentrated, urged and maintained a goal oriented activity” is considered as one of the most important factors for language learning.

Motivation factors to learn foreign languages

Motivation is the desire to achieve a goal, combined with the energy to work towards that goal. Motivation is one of the crucial elements in defining success regarding the language learning as a foreign language or a second language: it defines personal involvement in its acquisition (Oxford & Shearin, 1994). Franken 1994 added the definition of motivation by denominating it as “the drive, orientation and persistence of behavior’. Masgoret, Bernaus, and Gardner (2001) examined the attitudes and level of motivation in 499 Spanish pupils, at an age of 10-15, who studied Spanish and English. In their study, they applied a reduced version of the Attitude/Motivation Test Battery (AMTB), due to the fact that the items in the test and the mini scales of (AMTB), were rather difficult to understand, in addition, the test administration required a lot of time for administration.

Other important contributors to the language learning motivation are affective and cognitive needs, which reflect the process of learning by means of behavior and thinking. Such contributors are related to feelings of anxiety, problem solving, maintenance of affective dissonance or optimism, desire and willingness of successful performance, etc.

Psychological factors

Motivation, which is connected to the researcher interest to language learning and the need to learn it. Teachers have a great responsibility to improve and maintain in high levels their pupils motivation level.

Social and cultural factors

In some countries, the language learning is considered easy and normal, in some other countries is considered a difficult task to do. In England only a few teenagers learn foreign languages, they consider it a very difficult task, and in Netherland, most of the students are expected to learn two languages at least and most od Dutch speak perfect English,(OU,UK,2000, Teaching and learning English, A Course for teachers).

Pedagogic factors

These factors are related to teaching and learning process. The interaction between instructors and student in the class, language acquisition and teacher’s explanation skills or methodology are closely related to the overall conduct of a language class and student’s performance.

General Background of Research

The motivation is related to the attitudes and affective state of being which influence the degree of success in learning foreign languages. Motivation is a complex phenomenon which is internally or externally driven. Jeremy Harmer in his book, the practice of English Language Teaching, 1994, Longman External motivation includes instrumental orientation, reasons of study, such as language contributing to easy job finding. This means that the focus is on the subject not the language, which is actually considered an instrument to be used in the hands of the student. Integrative orientation happens when students are interested on the language because of integration reasons, such as culture, education etc. This kind of motivation is frequently spotted in immigrant students whose inspiration is to be easily integrated.

According to Pintrich & Schunk, the difference between internal and external motivation, referring to the theory of being involved in the activity just for the activity’s sake, is internal motivation, and ‘motivation for activity involvement as a means to reach the goals’, is external motivation, (2002 : 245). Brown (2000) suggests that internal and external factors can be easily identified in classrooms, where the foreign language is learnt despite teachers’ or students’ attitudes and changes in culture.

Harter in 1981 examined the factors of internal and external motivation for the study in general. 3000 pupils were tested in Connecticut, New York, Colorado, dhe California and he found that the internal motivation decreased in the third and ninth grade. Harter investigated with five subscales: the challenge, curiosity, professionalism, teachers judgement and criteria, defined as a preference to challenges compared to the drive for easy tasks.

Harter found that the pupils’ answers to the scales of measuring the challenge, curiosity, professionalism changed direction from internal to external motivation dependent on age. Another scenario occurred with the subscales of trust to
It is important to be considered the fact of group age 10-15 in the study, by reference to Piaget Theory ‘Stages of Development’, 1992, where it is explained that this group age extends in two stages, the concrete phase (11-12) and the phase of formal activity (12 and above) (http://muskingum.edu/Epsychology/psycEeb/history/piaget.htm).

Instruments and procedures

The targeted population in this research is the group age 10-15 years old pupils of secondary schools in Tirana. A sample of n = 330 pupils is taken based on the convenience technique aiming at selecting group age 10-15 year old pupils in a non public foreign languages school. The sample was taken from the general subject list of enrollment in this school and the procedure lasted for two weeks. This sample with probability was considered crucial in order to operate with the data gathered on the SPSS, which actually analyses data deriving only from such samples of research. Gender did not become a factor in the sample, thus both girls and boys were participants beyond any gender interpretation.

For a proper test conduct it was initially applied the piloting phase in a sample of 100 students so that the test was proved statistically valid and reliable. The reliability coefficient at this stage was 0.64 Alpha Cronbach, which was a very promising result. (See table 1)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Cronbach's Alpha</th>
<th>Cronbach's Alpha Based on Standardized Items</th>
<th>N of Items</th>
<th>N of scales</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>0.64</td>
<td>0.892</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The 330 participants in the study were taken from non public foreign languages school ‘Wisdom 1’ in Tirana, a selection procedure which lasted for two weeks. The test administration was facilitated by a peer group, who were previously trained for the test procedures. The official permission to school directors was asked and approved in the beginning of the study. The test time was from October to November and the pupils were tested in natural conditions, in the school environment on daily basis for each group as defined by the research agenda.

The whole study took three months time all phases included, since the sample selection, test administration, data gathering, data analysis tested in natural conditions

Test description and its validity

The measuring instrument used in this research is taken from AMTB (Attitude /Motivation Test Battery) and is applied only partly for three scales out of twelve that the full test has. The full test originates from Guilford 1954, applied by Gardner in 1985 and Gardner et. al, in 2003. The test items have six answer categories from total disagreement (at a 0 score) to full agreement (at a 70 score).

The scales selected for application were chosen to meet the study objective for measuring the intensity of motivation and the student’s orientation to the language learning. The intensity of motivation scale comprises ten items, five of which are positively keyed and five are negatively keyed. The orientation scale is measured with the items of integration and functional use of language, five positively keyed for each of them.

In order to provide a concluding result and mean value (σ) for the whole scale of motivation and orientation the full scales were turned into subscales by means of data analysis on SPSS. The negative items of the motivation scale were recoded with opposite values, so that a statistical result could be provided when calculating the data for the final result of the scale. For the next two subscales, the integrative and instrumental orientation, the data gathered from the test application was analized by computing values of positive items.

Data Analysis and Results of the research

The first subscale ‘Motivation Intensity’

The following data results for the subscale of Motivation Intensity, which is defined from test manual at a score of 30,
where the category Strongly Disagree is scored 0 and Strongly Agree is scored 30. There is no neutral value for the scale, but the scores below the category Slightly Agree are negative answers and the values above Slightly disagree are positive answers. The data was analysed and the mean value is $\sigma = 4$, which according to the answer categories corresponds to Slightly Agree and has a score of 18 out of 30 defined by the test manual. As it is noticed from the table there are 1.9 % or pupils that have answered slightly disagree, 291 or 97.3 % have answered slightly Agree and 6 pupils or 0.8 % have answered Moderately Agree. This result shows that majority of the pupils have stated that they are slightly motivated to learn English language, however in general the scale showed a moderate level of motivation.

Table 2. Data results for the Subscale ‘Motivation Intensity’

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Alternatives</th>
<th>No. of participants</th>
<th>%</th>
<th>Mean value</th>
<th>Average Scale Score</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Slightly Disagree (3)</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>1.9</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>18</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Slightly Agree (4)</td>
<td>291</td>
<td>97.3</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Moderately Agree (5)</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>0.8</td>
<td>4</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Chart 1 Score of Motivation Intensity Scale Items Out of 30

1. I try to understand all the English I hear and see 25 %
2. I keep in touch with the language by working with it on daily basis 18 %
3. Asking for help in case of language difficulties 20 %
4. I work very hard with the language 17. %
5. I am totally concentrated on the language 22 %
6. Results in class performance are not important 4 %
7. I lack willingness to go through English tasks when going back home 17 %
8. I have a great desire for postponing the English tasks 16 %
9. I give up in case I do not understand the lesson 20 %
10. Complex English structures and language aspects are not a problem 18 %
11. Average score 18 %

Figure 1 Motivational Intensity Scale
This graph shows the intensity of motivation measured by ten items, comprised in the scale of motivation intensity, scored in a total value of 30. Five items are positively keyed and five of them are negatively keyed. The five positive items that measured the desire for visual and audio comprehension of the language, daily work basis with the language, asking for help in case of language difficulties, Working hard with the language, and total concentration and devotion to home work. It results in the graph that the highest valuable item is the attempt for audio and visual language comprehension. The students showed that they made abundant attempts to understand all the English they listen and see, the score 25 out of 70. They moderately agreed with the facts that they asked for help when they encountered language difficulties and that they were totally devoted to homework, at scores 20 and 22. However they only slightly agreed that they work on daily basis and that they are totally devoted to English home work.

The negative items have lower values in the scale. The students only slightly agree that class results are unimportant, they have given the lowest value for this item 4 out of 30. They state that they slightly agree with the statement that they do not consider checking Home Work after school. They slightly agree to lack desire for HW. The students revealed that they are not very much interested in every in every language aspect. They also showed that they would consider quitting if they do not understand the lesson. The average value of the scale is 18 out of 30, which indicates that the students’ motivation is only slightly above the average score, thus reflecting a moderate level of motivation for learning English.

**Second Subscale ‘Integrative Orientation’**

This table reveals the statistical data for the integrative scale in the motivation test which has a score of 70. The scale comprises four positively items, where the category Strongly Disagree is scored 0 and Strongly Agree is scored 70. There is no neutral value for the scale, but the scores below the category Slightly Agree are negative answers and the values above Slightly disagree are positive answers. The data was analysed and the mean value is $\sigma = 4.63$ which according to the answer categories is located between Slightly Agree and Moderately Agree, though mostly weighs on the latter. The average score of this subscale is 54.2 out of 70 as defined by the test manual. As it is noticed from the table there are 256 or 77.3 % have answered moderately Agree and 74 pupils or 22.7 % have answered strongly Agree. This result shows that majority of the pupils have stated that they are moderately driven to learn the language for integration needs and 22.7 % are highly totally driven from integration reasons to learn English language.

**Table 3. Data results for the Subscale ‘Integrative Orientation’**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Alternatives</th>
<th>No. of participants</th>
<th>%</th>
<th>Mean value</th>
<th>Average Scale Score</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Moderately Agree (5)</td>
<td>256</td>
<td>77.3</td>
<td>4.73</td>
<td>51</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Strongly Agree (6)</td>
<td>74</td>
<td>22.7</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Chart 2 Values of Integrative Orientation Scale items out of 70**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>No.</th>
<th>Individual items for the Scale</th>
<th>Individual values out of 70</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Learning English is important for it makes me feel at ease when I speak to people</td>
<td>58</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Studying English is important because it will allow me to meet and converse with more and varied people.</td>
<td>52</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Studying English is important because it will enable me to better understand and appreciate the English way of life</td>
<td>41</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Studying English is important because I will be able to interact more easily with speakers of English</td>
<td>48</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>Average Score</td>
<td>51</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
This graph shows the ranking of four items in Integrative Orientation Scale, scored in total at a value of 70. The items measured the importance of English language for its usefulness, meeting people, culture reasons, and social interaction. According to the graph, the students revealed that English language is relatively highly important for its usefulness, at a value of 58 out of 70. The students stated they feel comfortable and comfortable because of being able to speak the language. They moderately agreed that English helps them for meeting people at a value 52 out 70. They only agreed that English helps for social interaction on a approximate moderate level, 48 out of 70. In a lower score students have rated culture reasons, 44 out of 70, which shows a slight agreement of students with the statements that English language helps them to know better the English culture. This graph shows an average total score of 51 for the whole scale. Thus students have stated that they learn English for integrative reasons such as meeting people, social interaction, learning about the culture of the target language and its usefulness.

**Third Scale Instrumental orientation**

This table reveals the statistical data for the instrumental scale in the motivation test which has a score of 70. The scale comprises four positively items, where the category Strongly Disagree is scored 0 and Strongly Agree is scored 70. There is no neutral value for the scale, but the scores below the category Slightly Agree are negative answers and the values above Slightly disagree are positive answers. The data was analysed and the mean value is $\sigma = 5$ which according to the answer categories is located in the fifth answer Moderately Agree. As it can be noticed the mean value $\sigma = 5$, corresponds to the score 54 out of 70. In this table is shown that there are 298 or 90.09 % pupils who have answered moderately Agree and 34 pupils or 10.01 % who have answered slightly Agree. This result shows that majority of the pupils have stated that they moderately agree with the statement of being oriented by instrumental factors and only 10.01% of them have stated they slightly agree with it.

**Table 3. Data results for the Subscale ‘Instrumental Orientation’**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Alternatives</th>
<th>No. of participants</th>
<th>%</th>
<th>Mean value</th>
<th>Average Scale Score</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Slightly Agree (4)</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>10.01</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>54</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Moderately Agree (5)</td>
<td>298</td>
<td>90.09</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Chart 2  Values of Instrumental Orientation Scale items out of 70

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>No.</th>
<th>Individual items for the Scale</th>
<th>Individual values out of 70</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Studying English is important because I will need it for my career</td>
<td>48</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Studying English is important because it will make me more educated</td>
<td>56</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Studying English is important because it will be useful to find a job</td>
<td>62</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Studying English is important because other people will respect me more if I know English</td>
<td>40</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>Average Score</td>
<td>54</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Figure 3  Instrumental Orientation Scale

This graph shows the ranking of four items in the Instrumental Orientation scale scored at a value of 70. The items measured the importance of English language for career, education, employment and feeling of respect. According to the graph, the students revealed that the English language is almost highly important for employment reasons, at a value of 62 out of 70. They moderately agreed that English helps them for education reasons. In a lower score students have rated the career reasons and the feeling of respect, which shows a slight agreement of students with the statements that English language helps them to gain respect in social contexts and that it helps to have a good career. The average score of the scale is 54, which stands for a considerable agreement to the fact that students are oriented to English language for functional reasons, such as career, education, employment and feeling of respect.

Conclusions

This study concludes that the level of motivation in English language learning is above average score, 18 out of 30, which stands for a moderate intensity of motivation. The students have stated they are partly motivated in learning English. They have agreed that they are slightly devoted to English tasks and assignments; their work to the language has a low intensity; they prefer to learn only the basics of the language mostly.

The students’ interest in learning English for integrative and instrumental reasons is at almost at equal values. They moderately agreed that they are interested to learn the language because of integrative and instrumental orientation. In these two scales, which scored with a value of 70, they have estimated the integrative reasons for learning the language at a value of 51 and the instrumental reasons at a score 54.

They have stated that:

- Their devotion to english home work is not highly intensive
- They want to learn only the basics of English
- They partly agree that English language is their main focus
- They only slightly agree that English is their only subject of interest
- They rarely address to friends for vague language constructions
They lack the interest for thorough and full English language knowledge
They consider giving up if they do not understand the language
The feeling of respect is not stimulated by being able to speak English

They have moderately estimated English language for:

- Career reasons
- Social interaction
- Meeting people
- Usefulness
- Social importance

The students have stated that language instrumental orientation is highly important for the following reasons:

- Employment
- Education reasons

References

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www.mash.gov.al, The decision No:14 of Ministry of Science and Education in Albania, on 3.28.2011
http://muskingum.edu/Epsychology/psycEeb/history/piaget.htm
Pragma-Linguistic Analysis of the New High School Curricula and Textbooks in Albania

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“Aleksander Xhuvani” University, Elbasan

Abstract
If we take a confronted induction of progressive thinking and current necessities of modern societies for children education, we note that the programs and school curricula outlined a clear defined goal: development of a citizen student, to give students with elements of civic education. By putting language and literature, as instruments of their daily exercise in this aim, then this would be explained in this subject: mastering the discursive rules and of the various forms of the occurrence of the discursive rules. To define this relationship, we must show on the report of the contemporary language, literature programs at high school, particularly modern linguistic theories text so, and improvements depending on the linguistic, schools and concepts that bring forms available in the field. In particular, they should aim to allow students to become capable, to construct precise statements, discursive ways, and texts in harmony with situations, to read full texts and to develop his own organized texts as proper structures conditioned by the discursive rules. These concepts, preceded by programs, detailed and refined in the current linguistic theories referred here to pragmatic, statement theory, text linguistic, discourse analysis, etc. Pragmatic linguistics, intended in this way to study the situation when a statement is get, and how this statement goes beyond the sentence obtained, has resulted in the achievement of grammar texts and discursive procedures grammar. The ability to take information that a text clearly brings under its sub stratification, make possible understanding of the text and the assimilation of concepts communicate by this text. The ability to get information that a text clearly brings under its semantic stratification, facilitates the understanding of the text, and so the absorption of concepts communicated by the text. This ability can be developed and perfected through teaching. Like any other practical skill, even this one should have a germ method of its development, method that is applied through the exercise of the language.

Esempi della pragmalinguistica nei testi e nei nuovi curricula delle scuole superiori (del ginnasio) in Albania

L’organizzazione degli obbiettivi secondo le finalità testuali sovrapposte semanticamente

Se prendiamo un pensiero progressista che mette a disposizione le attuali esigenze della società moderna per l’educazione dei figli, noteremo che nei programmi e i curriculum delle scuole secondarie si delinea un obbiettivo chiaro e definito: la formazione civica degli studenti e dispositivi con elementi di educazione civica.

Ponendo la lingua e la letteratura come strumenti per raggiungere nel corso della loro quotidianità tali obbiettivi, allora questo si tradurrebbe in questa materia: possesso di procedure discorsive, e varie forme di evenienza procedurali di elaborazioni discorsiv (T. Plangarica - La lingua albanese nel settore dell’istruzione albanese: questione di metodo.- Acti di conferenza, settembre 2010, Instituti albanologjik)

Per determinare questo rapporto, dobbiamo riflettere sulla relazione dei programmi di lingua e letteratura contemporanea del liceo, coincidenti teorie linguistiche e la loro inversione di concetti linguistici a seconda della situazione che portano alle scuole nuove forme nel campo linguistico. Approfondendo i programmi della lingua albanese e della letteratura liceale, (Il programma della lingua e letteratura albanese MEA (MASH) 2008-2012) notiamo che mirano: la lingua e letteratura albanese guiderà gli studenti verso l’acquisizione attiva delle informazioni, processo critico e l’interpretazione delle informazioni attraverso:
  a. **Concetti e processi**, come capacità di pensare, per distinguere, per giustificare per valutare in una varietà di contesti linguistici, personale, sociale, professionale e culturale;
  b. **Conoscenza e contenuti**, come la conoscenza sulla natura e l’uso del linguaggio; diversità delle funzioni e dei generi in cui opera. In questo contesto i testi letterari e non letterari da utilizzare devono essere, i più importanti, sia nel corpus della letteratura albanese che in quella universale.
  c. **Competenze**, interpretare e costruire (creare) le caratteristiche del testo (grammaticali, pronuncia, paragrafo…) della lingua scritta e parlata per esprimersi e comunicare.
  d. **Atteggiamenti ed effetti**, come:
     - lo sviluppo dell’interesse e il piacere nell’uso della lingua;
     - il rispetto per la potenzialità della lingua e la creazione del significato;
     - la valutazione delle loro diverse manifestazioni (spettacoli) culturali.

Specificamente, lo scopo è di consentire agli studenti di diventare esperti, costruire dichiarazioni precise, procedure discorsive e testi in conformità con situazioni specifiche dichiarate, leggere testi integrali, e sviluppare lui stesso, testi
predisposti secondo strutture appropriate che sono condizionate dalle procedure discorsive. Questi concetti, i precedenti programmi, si elaborano e si perfezionano dalle attuali teorie linguistiche, e qui ci riferiamo alla pragmatica, la teoria del racconto, la linguistica testuale, l'analisi del discorso ect.

Poniamo alcune di queste materie sull'importanza nel contesto che stiamo esaminando:

Nel discorso o procedure discorsive, intenderemo gli atti di uso della lingua, cioè, ogni atto di uso della lingua, qualsiasi pratica discorsiva della nostra capacità che si riferisce ad un prodotto specifico durante l'intervento, di scrittura o lettura. Questo metodo di capire il discorso, la padronanza del linguaggio è l'obiettivo principale dell'insegnamento della lingua nelle scuole secondarie.

Nel momento in cui l'insegnamento (in termini di esperienza globale e in quella albanese) ha superato le tre forme dello studio della grammatica (grammatica tradizionale, grammatica moderna e grammatica pragmatica - differenza tra loro), bisogna vedere come il programma si ridisegna al centro del quale proviene il criterio di integrazione di discipline, interferisce nella grammatica pragmatica mirando all'estensione dei suoi componenti nel contesto in cui si studiano le procedure discorsive.

In precedenza hanno sostenuto che la linguistica pragmatica mirando così a studiare la situazione in cui una dichiarazione si ottiene, e in che modo questa affermazione va al di là della frase ottenuta, ha portato all'acquisizione di testi grammaticali e procedure discorsive (discorsi) (T. Plangarica - La lingua albanese nel settore dell'istruzione albanese: questione di metodo.-Acti di conferenza, settembre 2010, Instituto albanologijk). Ma in che modo si presentano i testi di lingua albanese e inoltre, i metodi di insegnamento in relazione a tali esigenze?

La stratificazione semantica nei curriculum: esempi

La conoscenza nel campo della stratificazione della funzione semantica può contribuire alla formazione nelle attività di consapevolezza metalinguistica e nel concludere la stratificazione semantica rendendola più chiara e controllata. Ma a nostro avviso, è opportuno distinguere chiaramente la consapevolezza metalinguistica degli insegnanti, tra gli altri mezzi, tale conoscenza delle strategie di insegnamento e che questa consapevolezza può suggerire. La capacità di formulare e identificare facilmente semantiche delle comunicazioni stratificate nella misura in cui sia a funzione della letteratura, del significato, pararafasando, si può possedere ed esercitare senza che sia necessario conoscere le teorie linguistiche-pragmatiche (l'attuazione può rimanere tra sapere e non sapere). Quindi bisogna stimolare e sviluppare il livello didattico, diverso di quei semplici metodi d'insegnamento. Si tratta di utilizzare l'osservazione metaforica wittgensteiniana, guidare lo studente in un gioco linguistico “scopri la stratificazione semantica”. Le modalità in cui bisogna farla, sono ancora aree aperte di ricerca. La prima riflessione cercheremo di allungarlo nei nuovi programmi dei libri di testo scolastici (approvato da MASH 2008-2012), i quali si riferiscono alla stratificazione semantica cercando di determinare in linee separate l'osservazione metaforica di cui parlavamo.

In una panoramica completa degli obbiettivi soggetti della lingua e letteratura albanese che comprende i sistemi parauniversitari, i nuovi programmi orientano i testi verso la stratificazione attraverso due strategie di base:

1. **la strategia di carattere diffuso** (sulla base di una azione diffusa di insegnamento per comprendere la stratificazione semantica) in cui il comportamento dell'insegnante è incoraggiato con l'esempio e stimola l'attenzione degli studenti ogni volta che risulta positivo;

2. **Strategie di tipo osservatore**, che hanno come obiettivo di padroneggiare la capacità di comprendere la comunicazione attraverso la stratificazione semantica.

Questi due tipi si concretano nelle linee: di lettura e scrittura, tentando di distinguere simultaneamente la loro integrazione i cui obbiettivi (in molti casi) si duplicano reciprocamente. I programmi delle classi 10-11-12 si differenziano soltanto intensificando la conoscenza linguistica e le relazioni linguistiche con il significato dell'uso: migliorare la propria conoscenza della lingua, la letteratura e la comunicazione, utilizzando concetti appropriati (classe 10; 11) – **possedere una conoscenza soddisfacente della lingua albanese**, letteratura e comunicazione, utilizzando concetti appropriati (classe 12). Nello spazio tra le due strategie dei programmi attuali forniscono maggiori indicazioni al secondo del tipo di strategie organizzate nell'integrare le linee speciali separate ed etichettate:

Intendimento e integrazione – che mirano a rispettare il testo in relazione a periodi di tempo in cui è scritto (visione comparativa tra più alternative). Questo obiettivo, espende il campo della ricerca ed estende la stratificazione semantica mettendo in un rapporto specifico con la situazione in cui egli è visto come, il prodotto. La situazione include anche il livello definito del discorso (l’autore), e in questo caso riportiamo la classificazione della variazione fatte da Françoise Godet (Françoise Godet « La Variation » in Yaguello M. « Grand livre de la langue française », Paris Seuil, 2003, faqe 90-152).
Le diversificazioni secondo gli utenti:
- variazioni diaconiche: storiche (p.es. la lingua albanese del sec. XV/XVI)
- variazioni diatoniche: fisico o regionale (dialetti, lingue regionali)
- variazioni diastatiche: sociali e demografiche (giovani/anziani, contadini/cittadini, vari livelli d’istruzione, varie professioni ecc.)
Socio lettura: variazioni legate alla posizione sociale.
Tecno lettura: variazioni legate alla professione.

Variazioni attraverso l’uso:
Variazioni diafoniche: situazionale o stilistico: la stessa persona, qualunque sia la sua provenienza sociale, parla diverso a seconda della situazione di comunicazione (legato al contesto della comunicazione, l’età del divulgatore, tipo di comunicazione –scritto/idiomatico);
I registri:
registri elaborati: curato, voluto, cultivato, contenuto;
oregisti generali: più usabile, standard, non contrassegnato;
registri familiari: sciolto, spontaneo, comune;
registri semplici: volgare.

Sulla base di questa classificazione delle variazioni, quindi il testo può essere visto come una variazione in base agli utenti.

Facendo sempre riferimento alla tipologia in questione, i testi potrebbero rivelare la loro semantica osservandola come variazione attraverso gli utenti, stigmatizzata negli obbiettivi: analizzare il linguaggio figurativo di un testo, per rivelare la funzione artistica del linguaggio figurativo, utilizzato all’interno di un testo, smontare il linguaggio espressivo e testo letterario.

Considerando, in particolare, questo secondo tipo di strategia, il maestro ha la possibilità di progettare esercizi di monitoraggio collettivo, o individuale, sia orali che scritti, usando una gamma di diverse attività, di cui, però comprendono tutti i trattamenti delle sottostanti semantiche. La migliore attività, è rispondendo alle domande che richiedono o includono tutta la trasparenza delle comunicazioni semantiche stratificate.

Un altro motivo potrebbe essere, per esempio, elencare in modo chiaro per quanto possibile le informazioni diverse tra loro, comunicando con diverse, in parte, sovrapposizioni semantiche; riscrivere un breve tratto con un altro titolo; individuare le espressioni di pensieri comuni e di qualificare il relatore sulla base della loro discussione; definire i termini utilizzati in un testo sulla base delle informazioni contenute nel testo stesso semanticamente in più livelli.
Per progettare le domande che portano alla sovrapposizione semantica, è necessario innanzitutto identificare tali indicatori e la loro semantica testuale.

Al contrario, non si può fare la distinzione tra la sovrapposizione semantica e ciò che non è detto, proponendo un questionario con domande a cui il testo non risponde né anche con la stratificazione, se prima noi stessi non troviamo queste differenze e le loro ragioni. Ha già creato una linea separata nell’apparato sui libri di testo pedagogico della lingua albanese e della letteratura che accompagna lezioni proposte con sezioni speciali che (anche se i livelli sono più alti) cercava di verificare la compressione del testo o nella compressione approfondita del testo.

La questione non ti porta alla stratificazione semantica del versetto, o alla decomposizione della frase, ma soltanto in uno dei campi semantici, ma lascia campo libero sulla concentrazione degli studenti. Soltanto con questo dispositivo pedagogico non arriva a comprendere la stratificazione semantica data tra i versi. Se elenchiamo i livelli, solamente in questo intervallo, avete reciso il testo dal principio di contestualizzazione, opponendosi alla stratificazione chiara. Anche a livello letterario, il messaggio proviene interamente inconcepibile.

L’indirizzario che accompagna il testo, è in linea con la nostra visione:

Riflettere sul significato:
- come viene data la descrizione fisica del Quasimodo? Perché una tale descrizione resta impressa nel lettore?
- come si comporta la folla con Quasimodo? Come reagisce lui nei confronti della folla?
- qual’ è il ruolo di Esmeralda in questo episodio? Cosa simboleggia il suo gesto?
- riassumere il passaggio in otto versi.

Alla prima domanda e quella seconda, potete rispondere senza aver bisogno di andare a stratificare semanticamente che convogliano i frammenti. Ma ciò che a noi interessa è “la dichiarazione” chiara, ma a più livelli attraverso i tratti distintivi, partendo dalla percezione del frammento “Il Pilastro della Vergogna”. “In tutta la folla, non si poteva trovare qualcuno che sostenesse che non aveva ragione a lamentarsi del gobbo scellerato della Cattedrale di Santa Maria”. O qualcosa più verso il basso “Quasimodo era sordo, ma per vedere, vedeva molto bene...”; “In cima lui si è tenuto forte... Ma a poco a poco la sua pazienza che era ingiustificata dal flagello del giustiziare, ha incominciato a crollare e non riusciva a resistere alle punture delle zanzare...” Così anche il bue dell’Australia, che sopporta bene gli attacchi del picadores, diventa pazzo quando vede i cani e i bandieroni”; “si calmo di nuovo come una bestia che incatenandolo non è in grado di rompere la corda.”; “e infine, quando l’uomo è sgradito, non può vergognarsi di se stesso?”; “...la nuvola nera copri il volto di Quasimodo e per qualche istante, tra la nuvola ha incominciato a vedere un sorriso, ma un sorriso pieno di dolore, tristezza e disperazione profonda...”. In gran parte in queste frammentazioni, il quadro di Quasimodo (morale che piuttosto fisica) è rimasto non menzionato in queste sovrapposizioni semantiche, in loro comprese, le quali ti porterrebbero alla totalità delle cause, giustificazioni artistiche, compresse con paragoni suggestivi, creando alcuni connettori semantici. Inoltre una risposta esaustiva alla terza questione, richiederebbe recezione dell’informazione, data l’interezza del substrato del primo e secondo passaggio del frammento, il quale substrati non hanno contribuito a chiarire le questioni precedenti. Per esempio, non è stato chiesto di specificare la ragione del rapporto della folla con Quasimodo, si è stimata ciò che appare (fisico, comportamentale) si dovrebbe analizzare il perché è avvenuta questa relazione, le questioni precedenti. Per esempio, non è stato chiesto di specificare la ragione del rapporto della folla con Quasimodo.

Riflettere sull’interpretazione, a suo avviso (include in parte la denominazione) richiede allo studente esattamente di iniziare alla stratificazione semantica:
- Studiate il comportamento della folla: da che cosa si condiziona il suo comportamento; è questo lo stesso comportamento dall’inizio alla fine?
- Come comprendete la frase: “Rappresaglia pubblica”, come si indica nel linguaggio giuridico di oggi, è arrivato il turno delle mille vendette a carattere personale?

Solo per il fatto che l’autore lo chiama “folla”, ci da il diritto di pensare che le persone sono guidate dall’istinto piuttosto che la ragione?
- Come si sottintende la rabbia e la delusione di Quasimodo per aver subito dal giustiziere? Cosa predicano gli uomini di religione in questo romanzo? Pietà, vendetta, cattiveria, rammarico, il disgusto, la compassione.

I prossimi passi sono i tentativi verso la stratificazione semantica (affermando che creano sovrapposizioni di obbiettivi tra le due sezioni), mantenendo la coerenza testuale classificherebbero le informazioni per chiarire la consistenza dopo ogni paragrafo, in una bobina addizionale.

Se almeno alcune domande di senso (e non un riassunto completo o parafraasi, come richiesto in precedenza) richiedono la comunicazione chiara delle sovrapposizioni, sarebbe corretto che tali comunicazioni sovra posizionate e passaggi del testo che essi suggeriscono, non debbano mai essere tematizzate direttamente agli esercizi che si propongono agli studenti, peraltro, in caso di accumulo.

Il riassunto o la circonlocuzione sarà collegato dal testo stesso, se necessario, è previsto che questione relative all’informazione e non con la stratificazione “dormiente” tra le righe. Forse, a volte affrontare la difficoltà di comprensione ci può aiutare una domanda su tale, che cercherà di semplificare qualcosa che può sfuggire all’attenzione del lettore (come la questione sul rapporto di Quasimodo con il giustiziare) domande che guideranno alle ulteriori fonti di informazioni richieste dal testo. Forse in contesti deterministici, un esercizio diretto specificamente per chiarire le informazioni stratificate, può essere molto importante.
Passando dall’ambito di applicazione del testo narrativo, il testo informativo - esplicativo, qui può essere visto la sottoscrizione semantica, che è sempre necessario per l’intendimento delle informazioni, può giocare un ruolo importante nelle questioni relative alla comprensione e alla sintesi di testi che spesso richiedono. Per questo diamo uno sguardo al testo “Lingua e Letteratura albanese 11”, casa editrice Pegi 2010, pp 72-76. L’estratto fa riferimento al “Carattere Nazionale” di Branko Merxhani. Una parte, già introdotta nel testo esplicativo e le informazioni, sono condizionate dalle questioni che richiedono di procedere con il testo e la sua stratificazione semantica attraverso una colonna separata:

Il testo e il significato:

- La scrittura di Merxhani presenta caratteristiche come testo esplicativo, e il testo come argomentativo. Cosa sono loro nel testo?

La tipologia di analisi testuale e il rapporto dettagliato dei suoi elementi, il rapporto testo/sottotesto, contestualizzazione testuale della tipologia linguistica, dovrebbe dare un aiuto nello studio più accurato che porterà gli studenti all’informazione sottoscritta di questo tipo di comunicazione. La domanda in questione si propone di individuare due semplici definizioni contenute in un testo scientifico - informativo (pg. 71, 97), il cui scopo era di fornire il concetto, ma più dettagliato in un testo specifico, a cui scopo è l’applicazione delle conoscenze acquisite. Ma, sicuramente, per spostarsi all’evidenza concreta della stratificazione semantica, può essere ancora più duro mettere in discussione e chiarire un obbiettivo sui primi due: il testo suggerisce o sottintende qualcosa (nonostante l’apparato richieda aiuti meta linguistiche di consapevolezza). In particolare se ci riferiamo al brano: Che cosa è una nazione? Questa domanda è stata oggetto di una conferenza a Sorbona di Ernest Renan nel 1882. Il filosofo francese ha dato questa risposta: “La nazione è spirito, principio spirituale. L’uomo non è uno schiavo, né della sua razza, né del suo linguaggio, né della sua religione, né della forza del fiume, né della direzione della catena montagnosa. Un grande raduno di persone pure d’animo, che hanno un cuore caldo, creano una coscienza morale, che si chiama Nazione”. Percorrendo l’argomento, molto più che imparare il testo, mira a definire i modi per andare verso lo smantellamento e l’affermazione che sottoscrive i versi delle metafore date. Seguendo questa linea di gerarchia (gerarchica, perché verrà trasmesso per identificare il passaggio testuale passo dopo passo concetto di accesso per ogni paragrafo) viene raggiunta e data la quota delle parti del testo. Una richiesta di questo tipo può essere:

- Dato le parole chiave, il punto, identifica le caratteristiche fondamentali che presentano una nazione.

Oppure

- Estrarre le metaphore di imput al primo intervallo, puntando il loro rapporto con caratteristiche che costituiscono la nazione secondo la finalità data dall’autore.

Per rispondere a questa richiesta, lo studente deve tornare all’inizio del brano citato, capire a chi si fa riferimento precisamente a tale formulazione, eventualmente giocare sulla tradizione che ha riportato la formulazione giuridica in questione, di certo in modo dispone di uno spazio all’interpretazione, realizzando così gli obbiettivi del programma: sviluppare le capacità di pensiero critico attraverso le opportunità quotidiane per leggere, scrivere, parlare, osservare e ascoltare i testi di varie forme letterarie, non letterarie e mediatiche.

Quello che non è stato detto così evidente dal testo, ma che deve essere compreso ed è di particolare importanza, punta i riflettori sul dispositivo pedagogico e può essere realizzato attraverso diffuse strategie. Un buon esempio in questo caso richiederebbe la suddivisione del giudizio critico:

Merxhani sostiene che: “Un’altra cosa è la verità dell’essere nazionalista e l’altra cosa è la fantasia di orgoglio nazionale”. Che cosa significa questo?

L’interrogazione sull’attenzione dei lettori interessati, distribuisce l’insieme dei concetti che collegano le due affermazioni. Ponendo di fronte la verità e fantasia, dà carattere autonomo ai due nomi, che in altri contesti sono due concetti diversi. La distribuzione dell’attenzione dello studente – lettore sul concetto carattere nazionale, consente al lettore di valutare la sottoscrizione semantica, ma in maniera semplice, attraverso le azioni intellettive che porterà a rispondere alle seguenti domande: Esiste nella realtà albanese casi simili, che rinforza l’idea della nostra ebbrezza con la fantasia dell’orgoglio nazionale?

Il termine ebbrezza, ovviamente, comunica qualcosa di reale e non è concentrata solo nella stratificazione metaforica situazionale, ma come un concetto politico, sociale, che stimola l’attenzione degli ascoltatori positivamente, nel nostro caso, degli studenti.

Anche se l’esempio precedente può contribuire alla ragionevolezza degli studenti verso la conoscenza del fenomeno della comunicazione implicita, sicuramente gioca un ruolo chiave a svolgere esercitazioni linguistiche finalizzate alla formazione linguistica, che realizzano il riutilizzo del testo nelle stesse situazioni, correlate o diverse. Sotto questo punto di vista, con l’obbiettivo di un uso operativo e privo di qualsiasi nozione lo studio della sottoscrizione semantica del testo scritto può migliorare attraverso la scrittura il monitoraggio di ciò che è stato scritto. La scrittura come processo e come prodotto passa attraverso gli obbiettivi:
-da includere in tutte le frasi del processo di scrittura (prespicizione, revisione, la scrittura, archiviazione) scrivendo tutti i giorni e per lungo tempo;
-da determinare l’argomento per quale scrive;
-utilizzare diverse strategie (Brainston, scrittura libera, cluster, diagramma di Venn) per pianificare la sua scrittura;
-modificare la scrittura migliorando lo stile, visualizzare, organizzare, coerenza (flusso logico) e la chiarezza del pensiero;
-utilizzare elementi del sistema di valutazione (idea principale, sottoidee, organizzazione, ortografia, vocabolario, accuratezza grammaticale, riferimenti) per la sua stesura e quella degli altri;
-analizzare la qualità delle informazioni per un uso suo successivo scrittura;
-riflettere sulla sua scrittura;
-raccogliere informazioni da varie fonti per scopi specifici;
-utilizzare (sfruttare) l’opinioni e suggerimenti degli altri per modificare il contenuto e l’organizzazione della parte scritta.

Alcune ipotesi sull’insegnamento


Esempio 1:
Ci riferiamo al frammento riportato dal Don Chisciotte da Mance (Albas-10° anno scolastico). Poniamo la domanda: che origine hanno i nomi di Don Chisciotte e Dulcinea? Cosa dimostrano le aggiunte di Mance e Toboso?! La lingua albanese e la letteratura 10, Albas 2010, pag.144)
A nostro avviso hanno una combinazione di un concetto linguistico con elementi esterni (non linguistici) all’interno della strategia diffusa dato nel caso: procedure congiunte testuale (l’origine dei nomi) coloro che si rivolgono a noi con i nomi stratificati (restituiti al paradigma dei personaggi). 
- Mentre sarebbe completa se elencate sotto forma di una lista di (o brainstorm), l’insieme della sottoscrizione riguardo alla provenienza.

Esempio 2:
Nel testo drammatico “Macbeth” (La lingua albanese e la letteratura 10, Pegi 2010, pag. 306), sull’introduzione dell’analisi testuale, distinguiamo la sezione “la chiave per leggere la tragedia”: la chiave per leggere la tragedia è concentrato sulla modo di parole a doppio senso: formulazione non del tutto chiara e la (e quale oracolo non è ambiguo?) loro interpretazione inesatta porta Macbeth a fare uso di strumenti malvagi, volendo a tutti i costi raggiungere il trono.
In questa sezione, (casuale, fino al momento in cui non si associa a ciascun frammento analizzato) riesce a condurre l’insegnamento verso la strategia di monitoraggio dirigendo lo studente a identificare la stratificazione semantica, ma cedendo il passo alle interferenze letterali.
Troviamo opportuno ricordare che la consapevolezza metalinguistica diventa dominante.
Utilizzando una serie di attività diverse, entrambe le strategie di cui sopra uniscono il trattamento dibattimentale in sottostati semantici.
L’attività migliore, come abbiamo suggerito sopra, è rispondere alle domande che richiedono o includono in tutta chiarezza le comunicazioni con sottoscrizioni semantiche.

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Un altro motivo può essere, p.e., elencare in modo più chiaro possibile tra loro, diverse informazioni, in una comunicazione con stratificazioni semantiche in parte;

Esempio

**Il Lupo Cattivo**


Lei, senza interrompere un momento il canto e la danza, ha risposto che stava andando dalla nonna per portarle il cibo che si trovava nel cestino.

La guardai con attenzione. Mille pensieri mi ruotavano. È vero che era una bambina piccola, però...si trovava nel mio bosco, nella foresta dove avevo vissuta da una vita, nella foresta che ho mantenuto e tenuto pulita. Ho deciso di darle una lezione. Doveva capire che non doveva passeggiare nel bosco con un ridicolo vestito e senza chiedere il permesso, come se io non esistessi. La lasciai a continuare la strada, mentre io, corsi per arrivare prima a casa della nonna sulla collina. Quando ho raggiunto la nonna, le ho spiegato a lungo come stavano le cose, e lei convenne con me: bisognava istruirla, in modo che la ragazza non vagasse a vuoto per la foresta, bensì eseguire quello che le veniva detto. La nonna ha accettato. Si nascose sotto il letto e io ho indossato i suoi vestiti e mi tuffai nel suo letto. Quando la bambina è entrata, mi guardò stupita e sussurro qualcosa di poco piacevole riguardo alle mie grosse orecchie. Mi sono seccato, ma comunque le ho detto che avevo le orecchie così grandi per sentirla meglio. Poi gettò uno sguardo agli occhi e mi disse che sono troppo lacerati. Lo capite voi stessi come mi sono sentito, ma le ho detto che quei occhi così, mi aiutavano a vedermel meglio. Come se non avessi avuto abbastanza, ha emesso un altro insulto ai miei denti affilati. Molto irritato, scoppia e le disse che i miei denti servivano per mangiare lei. Ma valutiamo tutto con più calma. Nessun lupo avrebbe mai mangiato una piccola bambina. Tutti lo sanno, ma quella sciocca tonda inizio a scappare via e ad urlare. Ho cercato di calmarla. Ho tolto i vestiti della nonna, ma a quanto pare ha peggiorato la situazione. Improvisamente la porta si aprì e sulla soglia della porta apparve un cacciatore molto arrabbiato, con un’arma in mano.

Ho capito subito che ero in pericolo.

Ho visto una finestra aperta davanti a me e sono precipitato fuori. Tutto qui. Ma il personaggio della nonna, non ha mai raccontato la storia vedendola con il mio punto di vista. Il mondo intero ha deciso che io sono cattivo e brutto. Tutti hanno cominciato ad evitarmi. Non so cosa sia successo con quella bambina vestita di rosso, ma dopo quella storia io non riuscivo a essere felice.

- **Il lupo cattivo** (Pegi 11), ci confrontiamo con molti elementi semanticamente stratificate, che possono essere elencati attraverso l’orientamento delle domande:

  - le informazioni ottenute nel primo paragrafo passano su alcune affermazioni:
    - Il lupo e la foresta hanno un rapporto (qual è?)
    - La foresta e i turisti hanno la stessa valutazione (come si arriva a questa elaborazione?)
    - La descrizione della bambina assume valori simbolici (definire la totalità delle parole e distinguere una di esse che porta alla simbologia)

- per riscrivere un breve brano con un altro titolo;

**Narrativa della Nonna**

Quando la bambina entrò nella foresta, io stavo terminando di pulirla. La bambina è entrata in casa mia, perché io così chiamo la foresta, e senza salutarimi tirava i miei fiori che avevo cresciuto con molta cura. Quando ho richiamato la sua attenzione per questa azione, ho risposto che i fiori erano del bosco e non avrebbe dovuto chiedere permesso, in quanto il bosco era della sua nonna. Quando ho capito che stava andando dalla nonna, ho deciso di darle una lezione. Mi sono accordato con la nonna e ho preso il suo posto.

Ma, anche se io volevo soltanto spaventarla un po’, lei si è terrorizzata. Ha urlato appena mi ha visto. Urlò anche la nonna, pensando chissà che cosa avessi voluto farle. Quando arrivò il cacciatore, io fuggì, ma la nonna non ma la mai
perdonata e invento la storia che voi conoscete.
I paragrafi vengono sostituiti in due parti, e la stratificazione semantica della prima parte riesce ad ottenere una breve sintesi complessivamente attraverso al quale si riferisce il messaggio.

- Deve individuare le espressioni congiunte riferite e caratterizzare il relatore della discussione o fare la valutazione testuale sulla loro base;

Se vogliamo capire cosa succede in pratica quando i relatori comunicano, allora il caso di cui sopra del discorso inclinato, ci aiuterà ad arrivare all’espressione congiunta di riferimento e può caratterizzare uno specifico relatore con un eventuale.

Le espressioni co-riferite

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Il lupo cattivo</th>
<th>Invenzione della nonna</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Il bosco è casa mia</td>
<td>1. La piccola bambina è entrata a casa mia, perché io così chiamo il bosco</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nel mio bosco,</td>
<td>il bosco era della sua nonna.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. doveva capire che non doveva girare nel bosco vestita in modo buffo e senza chiedere il permesso, come se io non esistessi</td>
<td>2. la bambina è entrata a casa mia, perché io così chiamo la foresta, e senza salutarmi tirava i fiori che avevo fatto crescere con tanta attenzione.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. quando ho capito che stava andando dalla nonna, ho deciso di darle una lezione</td>
<td>3. Ho deciso di darle una lezione.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Quando arrivò il cacciatore, io fuggi, ma la nonna non mi perdonata e invento la storia che voi conoscete.</td>
<td>4. Ma il personaggio della nonna, non ha mai raccontato la storia vedendola con il mio punto di vista.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

I co-riferimenti stratificati:
1. il lupo si sente proprietario del bosco
2. il lupo si infastidisce dalla presenza della bambina
3. il lupo non ha nessuna intenzione negativa (non si menzione un attacco concreto)
4. abbiamo due versioni di storie da due osservatori focali diversi.

I referenti in questo caso (iscritto) sarebbe il lupo e la nonna, i quali si posizionano d’avanti gli alluni, attraverso le loro opzioni, che vengono a noi come davvero possibili. Finché l’intera comunicazione ci da le cose con l’opportunità di soluzione, i relatori sono credibili in maniera parziale.

- Definire i termini i utilizzati in un testo in base alla informazioni contenute in modo sottostante semanticamente nel testo stesso.

Condizioni:
Rossa- cappuccetto rosso e la sua storia conosciuta
Il lupo- le versioni del racconto
Il mio bosco- proprietà e relazione
Il giudizio- invita alla decisione le varianti della storia.
Il personaggio della nonna- elemento di finzione e variazione della storia
La storia- le variazioni della storia

In ogni esercizio di monitoraggio, e tuttavia essenziale mantenere una posizione che fa la differenza tra la risposta corretta e non corretta, tra la vera stratificazione semantica e altri interventi o le dimensioni di ciò che non si è detto, ma non per trasformare questa diversità in una citazione che utilizza alcune condizioni in più, che poi il rifiuto diventò un brutto problema. E per progettare e controllare le varie attività può essere ancora necessario, anche se non essenziale, una presa di coscienza meta-linguistica sviluppato abbastanza. Per progettare le domande che portano alla stratificazione semantica, è necessario in primis, bisogna identificare questi sottostrati semantici e gli indicatori testuali. Al contrario, non puoi distinguere tra sottoscrizione semantica e quella non detta, proponendo al richiedente domande che il testo non risponde con stratificazioni semantiche, se in primis noi non troviamo queste differenze e le loro ragioni. Sotto questo punto di vista di un uso operativo e privo di qualsiasi nozione, lo studio delle stratificazioni semantiche del testo può aiutare a perfezionare i vari modi il significato del testo scritto e migliorare la scrittura attraverso il monitoraggio di ciò che
si scrive.

Ma come è noto, lo studio degli strati semantici può avere implicazioni al di là dell' insegnamento dell'educazione linguistica. Soprattutto, l'insegnante nella spiegare la funzione consistente nel fornire: la migliore spiegazione consistente spesso, nel chiarire i concetti, e non la loro sottoscrizione semantica, facilmente percepite. Inoltre, gli studenti nel processo della spiegazione si trovano d'avanti ai testi, ai quali dovrebbero ricevere informazioni per essere utilizzati in contesti diversi (inoltre ciò che succede fuori dalla scuola, in molti casi della vita: si pensa solo al bisogno di ottenere informazioni dalle regole e utilizzare linee guida). Quindi un terreno privilegiato per esercitare le capacità di comunicazione stratificate ricevute, qualora sulla base dell' assistenza diffusa sul problema, anche nel rilascio di esercizi di osservazione, può essere dato esattamente dai testi destinati e non per ottenere informazioni, ma per la ricreazione di conoscenze: p.e. la diffusione della scienza e del giornalismo, e anche i propri libri scolastici. Gli esercizi che mirano a trarre le comunicazioni implicite possono sorgere come attività trasversali interessanti, altrettanto interessante anche se da prospettive diverse di educazione linguistica e, a volte, dallo studio di discipline specifiche.

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