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How to prevent youth crime in Macedonia?

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Abstract

This research paper analyzes the policy of Republic of Macedonia on preventing youth crime. It gives a focus on some main points of the topic, such as: The institutional measures there are implemented to prevent youth crime, such as the legislation and the national strategies of the state; The analysis of the special and general preventive effect of the penal sanctions for children. Also, there is presented the analysis of the influence of some social factors as preventive measures for the youth delinquency, such as: The education system; The free time of the youth people; The role of their family; The economic level of the children’s families; The circle of persons who they accompany and the access to the mass media. During this study there are used some methods, such as: The literature review for this topic and the interpretation of the legal provisions for youth crime; The survey and the interviews made with secondary school pupils and the comparative method used for some social factors, as some like more relevant beside others for preventing the youth crime. The results and conclusions of this research paper will contribute on finding the most relevant measures on preventing the youth/child crime in Macedonia.

Keywords: Prevention of youth crime, preventive policy, measures, social factors.

Introduction

The preventive characteristics of the criminal sanctions is expanded in two areas: On the General prevention of the crime and on its special prevention. The general Prevention signifies the influence to the citizens, and in particular on the children or youth people to not commit crimes. This is achieved by causing fear to them from the sentenced penalties to the incriminating offenders. And, the Special prevention signifies on preventing the perpetrator of the crime to (not) do again the same or another crime.

In the following, there are presented the data on the number of children convicted, for the time period 2006-2015, based on the data published by the State Statistical Office of the Republic of Macedonia.

The number of convicted persons in Republic of Macedonia during the period of 2006-2015

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Adults</th>
<th>Minors</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>2006</td>
<td>9280</td>
<td>844</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2007</td>
<td>9639</td>
<td>676</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2008</td>
<td>9503</td>
<td>715</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2009</td>
<td>9801</td>
<td>748</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2010</td>
<td>9169</td>
<td>547</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2011</td>
<td>9810</td>
<td>722</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2012</td>
<td>9042</td>
<td>556</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2013</td>
<td>9539</td>
<td>473</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2014</td>
<td>11683</td>
<td>461</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2015</td>
<td>10312</td>
<td>348</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 1. (State Statistical Office of the Republic of Macedonia, 2016)
From the data presented in table 1, we can see the difference of the total number of the convicted offenders during this ten years period of time (2006-2015) in Macedonia. It is obviously presented the number of young offenders is quite smaller in difference with adult offenders. Also another positive indicator is the decreased number of the minors convicted during the last years. This is another incentive element for analyzing the preventive measure that may have been effective on this reduction of youth crimes in our country especially for the last years! In this point it takes us to give the answers to these two hypothesis:

How effective have preventive measures proved to be against the crime of children in RM?

How much has the aim of the special prevention of the criminal sanctions in convicted children for criminal actions been achieved in Macedonia?

The number of reported, accused and convicted children during the period of 2006-2015

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Reported</th>
<th>Accused</th>
<th>Offended</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>2006</td>
<td>1500</td>
<td>987</td>
<td>844</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2007</td>
<td>1229</td>
<td>839</td>
<td>676</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2008</td>
<td>1355</td>
<td>981</td>
<td>715</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2009</td>
<td>1519</td>
<td>1030</td>
<td>748</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2010</td>
<td>1244</td>
<td>750</td>
<td>547</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2011</td>
<td>1163</td>
<td>1002</td>
<td>722</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2012</td>
<td>1001</td>
<td>778</td>
<td>556</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2013</td>
<td>1005</td>
<td>657</td>
<td>473</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2014</td>
<td>972</td>
<td>712</td>
<td>461</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2015</td>
<td>772</td>
<td>465</td>
<td>348</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 2 (State Statistical Office of the Republic of Macedonia, 2016)

In Table n. 2 we can see the number of reported children, those accused and those convicted for each year, from which we can clearly see the difference in numbers of criminal acts from one phase of criminal procedure to another, thus showing that not every single criminal case that is initiated with criminal charges in the preliminary stage will reach the accusatory stage; and also not every issue prefixed with charges will reach the judicial review, namely will be concluded by a sentencing decision/court verdict! And this fact is especially taken into account when it comes to a suspect, an accused or a defendant who is a child, taking into consideration the special and privileged treatment that children have throughout the criminal-legal system, with the sole purpose - protection of the child’s interest!

Table 3 Number of convicted children in the Republic of Macedonia during the period of 2006-2015 and the number of convicted female children during the same period

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Total</th>
<th>2006</th>
<th>2007</th>
<th>2008</th>
<th>2009</th>
<th>2010</th>
<th>2011</th>
<th>2012</th>
<th>2013</th>
<th>2014</th>
<th>2015</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Females</td>
<td>844</td>
<td>676</td>
<td>715</td>
<td>748</td>
<td>547</td>
<td>722</td>
<td>556</td>
<td>473</td>
<td>461</td>
<td>348</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>38</td>
<td>49</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>22</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 3 Number of convicted children in the Republic of Macedonia during the period of 2006-2015 and the number of convicted female children during the same period

(Perpetrators of criminal offences in 2014, Skopje, 2015, Statistical review / State statistical office of the Republic of Macedonia, Population and social statistics,2.4.16.08)

In Table n. 3, the number of convicted children in the Republic of Macedonia for the duration of the time period specified in the research is shown, while specifying the number of the total number of the convicted children for each year as well as the number of female children that have been convicted during this time period. In 2006 we have 844 convicted children, in 2007 a total of 676 convicted children, in 2008 a total of 715 convicted children, in 2009 a total of 748 convicted children, in 2010 a total of 547 convicted children, in 2011 a total of 722 convicted children, in 2012 a total of 556 convicted children, in 2013 a total of 473 convicted children, in 2014 a total of 461 convicted children, and in 2015 a total of 348 convicted children. Something that can be noticed immediately in this table is the fact that there is a tendency of decline in the number of convicted children in our country, during the last few years, especially if we make a comparison between the first years that this research covers and the last years, where we see that the number of convicted children has decreased by 50%. (Arifi, 2017)
Another indicator in Table n.2 reflects the number of female children that have been convicted, compared to the total number of convicted children. In this case as well it is hardly impossible to notice the relation of the children from both genders, in the context of their inclination to committing criminal acts. We can see a very small number of female children convicted along the ten year period that the research covers compared to that of male children. Namely, for 2006 from a total of 844 convicted children, there are no published data in the State Statistical Office of the Republic of Macedonia for the number of convicted female children; In 2007 from a total of 676 convicted children only 24 are female children. In 2008 from a total of 715 only 38 female children are convicted for criminal offence; During 2009 from a total of 748 only 49 female children are convicted; During 2010 from a total of 547 convicted children only 20 were females; During 2011 from a total of 722 convicted children only 22 were females; During 2012 from a total of 556 convicted children only 9 females; In 2013 from a total of 473 convicted children only 24 are females; In 2014 from a total of 461 convicted children only 16 were females and in 2015 from a total of 348 convicted children only 22 of them were. (Arifi, 2017)

Thus, from these numbers we can conclude that the female minors, namely the children belonging to the female gender, are less included compared to the male children to commit criminal act, and this can be seen in the very small percentage of convicted female children during the period of 2007-2015. Also, if we can say that the overall number of convicted children has positively decreased in the last years, the same cannot be said specifically for the number of convicted female children, because as we can see in the table this number has e relatively stable state with an average that fluctuates between 20 to 40 female children convicted during the year. This tendency of decline of the number of the convicted children from 20122013 and onwards, can be related to some dilemmas, or solutions, like for example priority in pronunciation by competent authorities and in enforcement of noncriminal measures against children - assistance and protection measures, which might have contributed to the decrease of the number of convicted children, given that these non-criminal measures were imposed on them. Thus, it is possible that the number of convictions has decreased rather than the criminal phenomenon of children in the country. This question can be somewhat cleared up if we analyze the number of reported children, namely children towards whom criminal charges were raised during the years of research in table. 1. However, we can normally analyze other factors that might have influenced the decrease of the number of convicted children, such as the preventive measures on child crime, which might have actually yielded success in decreasing the criminality of children these past years! (Arifi, 2017)

The legal regulations for prevention of the children’s crime

The Law on Justice for Children

The positive law which regulates the criminal law for children in Republic of Macedonia (for all persons 7 - 18 years old), on its sixth part titled “Prevention of children’s delinquency”, articles 154-159 regulates the issues for the competent public organs for working on preventing the youth crime. (Law on Justice for Children of Republic of Macedonia, 2013) There is established a special public organ named The State Council for the Prevention of Children’s Crime. This State Council shall be independent and independent in the performance of the activities determined by this law. It is composed of 15 members elected by the Parliament of the Republic of Macedonia for a term of five years, with the right to re-election, of which: - seven members of the State Council are proposed by the Minister of Justice and are representatives of the Ministry of Justice, The Ministry of Labor and Social Policy, the Ministry of Education and Science, the Ministry of Interior Affairs, the Public Prosecutor’s Office of the Republic of Macedonia, the Supreme Court of the Republic of Macedonia and the Bar Association of the Republic of Macedonia; Eight members of the State Council are selected by ranks of a public announcement, among the prominent scientific and professional workers who are working on the protection of the interests of the children, one of which is from the ranks of the non-governmental organizations for the protection of children. The State Council shall have its seat in the Ministry of Justice and a representative from the Ombudsman shall participate in the work of the Council. (Law on Justice for Children of Republic of Macedonia, 2013)(art. 154)

The state administration bodies, courts, public prosecutors, as well as legal persons who perform public authorizations in the area of schooling, education and protection of children, are obliged to cooperate with the State Council for the accomplishment of its functions. (art 155).

The State Council has the following competencies:

- Adopts the National Strategy for the Prevention of Child Offense,
- Approves programs and annual plans for the implementation of the program,
- Adopts a Regulation for its work,
- Proposes funds in the budget calculation proposal of the Ministry of Justice necessary for his work,
- Provides initiatives to improve legal solutions and opinions on draft laws that are important for the protection of children’s rights and prevention of child offenses,
- Launches initiatives for broader recognition of citizens with children’s rights and debates on healthy families, protection of children from narcotics, alcoholism and other addiction diseases, education and education issues, public relations media and for other factors that influence the prevention of child offenses,
- Initiates research and studies on child offense problems,
- Cooperates with international organizations and bodies engaged in the protection of children's rights and prevention of child delinquency,
- Prepares annual reports on its work and situation in the area of children's rights and child delinquency, which it submits to the Parliament and the Government of the Republic of Macedonia, the Judicial Council and the Supreme Court of the Republic of Macedonia – who are obliged to review and take appropriate measures and activities in accordance with their competences (art. 156)

The Council of Municipalities, Municipalities of the City of Skopje and the City of Skopje appoints the Municipal Council and the City Council of Skopje to Prevent Child Delinquency. (art.158,1.) Municipal councils adopt annual programs for their work approved by municipal councils and the City Council of Skopje, regulations for its work in the region of the municipality and the city of Skopje, perform work to monitor the situation, set up an initiative for upgrading them and developing programs to involve the local community in preventing child delinquency and treating perpetrators of actions that are foreseen as a criminal offense and misdemeanor by law. The municipal councils, at least once a year, inform the council of the municipality or the city of Skopje and the State Council for Prevention of Child Delinquency. (art.159).

**National Strategy for Juvenile Prevention (2010-2020)**

This is the first strategy in the Republic of Macedonia aimed at determining the strategic guidelines and priorities for preventing juvenile delinquency and has been adopted by the State Council for the Prevention of Juvenile Delinquency. (Golomeova, 2013)\(^1\)

The integral part of this Strategy are: (National Strategy for Juvenile Prevention (2010-2020) of R.M.)

- Prevention of juvenile delinquency is an essential part of prevention of crime in society;
- The successful prevention of juvenile delinquency requires efforts by the whole society to ensure a harmonious development of adolescents, with respect and promotion of their personality since the earliest childhood;
- Young people should have an active role in society and should be considered as subjects, and not as passive objects of socialization or control;
- The focus of any preventive program should be the well-being of young people from their early childhood;
- Policies and measures of prevention should avoid stigmatization and punishment of children who with their behavior do not cause serious harm to their own development or development of others, but rather endeavor to understand the problem and accept the responsibility for the child;
- Prevention services and programs should be developed locally and supported by the community.

The main challenges and strategic guidelines identified in this Strategy refer to the primary, secondary and tertiary

\(^1\) [http://eprints.ugd.edu.mk/10409/1/MAGISTERSKA%20PDF.pdf](http://eprints.ugd.edu.mk/10409/1/MAGISTERSKA%20PDF.pdf)
prevention. Namely, the objectives of this Strategy are to introduce programs for prevention of juvenile delinquency, coordination, organization and multidisciplinary approach to this issue, assessing and assessing factors that increase juvenile delinquency, as well as intensive international cooperation in the field of prevention of juvenile delinquency. (Golomeova, 2013)

Analysis of some social factors as preventive measures for youth crime:

The following presented results are based in the Survey made on September 2017 in three secondary schools in Macedonia, with 120 pupils ages 15-18 years old. The nature of the questions of the questionnaire were formulated based on the assessment of the impact of some social factors that can most often influence the appearance of the deviant and criminal actions among young people. Also in the other hand the same factors can appear as preventive measures on the criminal behavior of the young people.

The focus of the questions was on the following factors:

The influence of the educational system, respectively how much widespread violence in schools is and how much endangered / protected are students at school!

What preventive measures do schools take to prevent deviant actions of young people?

The influence of the family on young people.

The influence of the circle of people with whom young people are associated,

The free time (after school activities)

Media mass (TV, Internet etc.)

Here are some results from the survey:

The School effect on preventing crime:

On the question on have the pupils have attended to any lecture on how to prevent crime, most of them (70%) have replies with No, and only 30% have answered Yes. It was obvious that only in one of the three schools the study was made, there have been some programs on informing the children on how to prevent crime. And it, was reported that there have been some police officers who have held lectures to the pupils on what behaviors are crimes based on the countries legislation and some other aspects on how to prevent these acts. But, the negative indicator is that in the most cases, the respondents were not informed about this topic!
The other question about how often do the students have meetings/consultations with the competent persons in their schools for giving to them advices and support, as the pedagogue and the psychologist, the answers were desperate. 70.6% of the students answered that they never meet these personnel of the school, and the others answered with once a year or 2/3 times a year. This results are also desperate, because there is indisputable the role of the pedagogue and the psychologist in the schools. Having in consider the age of the students in secondary schools it is unjustified the passivity of these persons on doing/not doing their job!

Do you think it should be increased the security in the school?

On the question did the students think that it should be increased the level of security in their school, we came with results of 68.3% who said Yes, and 31.7% who said No. It means that most of the students do not feel safe in their schools. The schools should take more strict and rigorous measures on protecting their students and making them feel same during their stay there.

Do you have too much free time after finishing your classes?

On the question on did the students consider that they have too much free time after finishing the classes, we came with results that 59.2% answered Yes, and the others consider that they do not have much free time after school. This question is made with the aim to get answers and be confirmed our hypothesis that in Macedonia the children have much free time, and that this is one of the factors that indicates the appearance of the deviant acts of the young people. There are not such opportunities for free activities where the youth can spend the time after schooling. For ex. The students who finish their
classes about 13.30 p.m. they do not really have some opportunities offered by the state or the school where they can be involved. And, that is why it often happens they the young people spend their free time on coffee bars and can be involved on negative/criminal acts where they meet adults who can easily manipulate and incriminate them in different acts, like drug trafficking, alcohol usage, theft, group fighting etc.!

How much influence does your family has on your behavior?

On the question about the influence of the family on the behavior of the youth people, it is again proved that the family is the main factor in preventing the delinquency of juveniles. That is because 85% of the students answered that their family has very much influence on their behavior, and the other less of them said that the family has not too much influence on them and the smallest number of the respondents answered that the family does not have influence at all on them!

How much important is what your friends think about you/your behavior?

On the question about what the friends opinion means to the young people, 53% answered that it is most important what their friends think about them or their behavior. 3.3% answered that it is not much important their friend opinion and only 4 % of them do not care of the friends opinion. It is proved that in most cases the delinquent acts are presented in the young population only because they are part of one or another group in their school!

Can you get inspired on making a negative behavior from the Internet information you get?

120 responses
On the question about the influence of the Internet information on the young people’s behavior, we got 70% positive answers that Internet can be an inspirational/motivational tool for manifesting a negative act. Only 30% of the respondent said that they can not be inspired from the Internet on acting negatively, respectively to commit any delinquent or criminal act. This is also another indicator that Internet can be often the most preventive tool for youth crimes or the opposite-provocative factor for criminal acts.

Conclusion

Preventing youth crime can be done only if there a cooperation between all the competent state institutions on improving the social conditions for the youth people’s welfare. It is better to prevent rather than to correct and in Macedonia there has to be much done on more aspects for reducing and preventing youth crime.

Bibliography

Enculturation of Ambon’s Public Spaces as a Tool of Building Inclusivity of Segregated Communities

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Abstract
Beside having significant values that would enrich the Indonesian nation, tribal, cultural, and religious diversity brought seeds of conflicts that could potentially disrupt social order and threaten national unity. The conflicts that occurred in Ambon from 1999 to 2004 were conflict examples that were caused by religious plurality that had appeared many societal problems that could not be fully resolved until today. The trust among Ambon's plural communities had not returned well and it was even worsened by settlement segregation separating Muslim and Christian communities that factually brought potential for further conflicts. In the present life of Ambon’s segregated society today public spaces inspired by brotherhood and “unity in diversity” spirits that could be meeting and socializing means of the communities and to reduce the social polarization were to be absolutely necessary. Unfortunately, the existing public spaces in Ambon for the time being served only as stages of activities and they did not connect with the communities' social spectrums so that the public spaces remained meaningless. A public space here served just as a witness, not as a means of socializing in accordance with the communities’ cultures and characters. This paper would discuss how to integrate the communities’ cultures and characters into a public space design that had significant meaning in overcoming the polarization of Ambon’s segregated communities. The public space would be designed by taking into account a location choice where two segregated communities could easily meet. In the public space a macro space concept where the sea as the front page of Ambon communities should be applied and even forwarded since such a concept tended to be forgotten. Beside the spatial format, the public space should also be designed by facilitating various cultural-based activities so that the communities’ characteristics that were integrated in the urban culture and daily activities would appear in the public spaces.

Keywords: Enculturation, Ambon, Public Spaces, Inclusivity Building

Introduction
Indonesia’s Moluccas islands were historically islands of peace having abundance of local wisdom that nourishes their people. ‘Hidop Orang Basudara’ was a noble civilization strategy to prevent and resolve conflicts and to build true peace among indigenous Moluccas people. ‘Hidop Baku Bae’ (peace) was a key word in Moluccas customary values referring to a sacred, dynamic and sustainable process to reconcile and reunite the conflicting parties. ‘Hidop Baku Bae’ was a customary life achievement that was not just found but it should be consistently and continuously created and built.‘Hidop Orang Basudara’ and ‘Hidop Baku Bae’ local wisdoms had become a harmony binding among the Moluccas people for centuries and strengthened solidarity and order in the countries of Moluccas and elsewhere so that they were driven to be agents and pioneers of peace in their own countries and outside the region as well.
Ambon as the capital of Moluccas that inherites the characteristics of Moluccas’ culture\(^1\) appears as a dense, pluralistic, and segregative city. Since long time, Ambon has a long history as the center of economic interaction, governmental politics, and culture. It is different from most other cities Ambonese people were not only inherited by pluralism but they were also characterized by a strict segregation based on religious matters and strict segregation of settlement clusters according to the line of religion that had been established since the time of Dutch colonialism\(^2\). For the sake of surveillance of the people, the Dutch colonial government reorganized the settlement system that was called Hena or Aman into Negeri (Country)\(^3\). Therefore any community that used to be called Hena or Aman would change into Negeri. In the socio-historical process, these negeris clustered in certain religion so that there were two religious-based community groups that were later known as Ambon Sarani (Christian) and Ambon Salam (Muslim)\(^4\).

Such segregative dwellings appeared to be one of the triggers of Ambon’s long conflict that began in January 1999 which was initiated by dramatically decreasing social interaction among Ambonese people. They lived in groups based on religious similarities to form a deeper segregating partition. The social interaction patterns experienced a shift that were marked by the increasingly widespread interaction pattern having conflictual characteristics. The basic building of a plural segregative society seemed to find a consolidation momentum so that it reached a total elimination phase. Public facilities such as markets, schools, hospitals, and others were segregated, such as muslim markets, namely Batumerah and Old markets, and christian markets namely Passo, Tagalaya, and Batumeja markets. This dwelling and other facilities segregation had made Ambon experience social segregation. This condition caused mutual distrust among the people.

The present Ambon communities’ socio-cultural condition is in post-conflict reconciliation (of Muslims and Christians) phase after the 1999 conflict. The destruction of public facilities such as education and health facilities have been temporarily fixed and this fact appears to show significant progress. Similarly, the distorting social-cultural relations that affects the social cohesion degree and creates social distance and community segregation have been gradually fixed.

Despite experiencing such distortion that caused disputes or conflicts among communities and created social distance and stretched the social cohesion degree the Ambon communities basically had open, tolerant and appreciative characteristics to cultural diversity, respecting collective life in the spirit of “orang basodara” (brotherhood). These characteristics manifest in their territorial-genealogical social relationship such as “pela” and “gandong” fraternal cultures or other cultural activities. Ambon communities’ cultural characteristics remain having a very strategic potential to be utilized as a safety valve, especially for social stability and security.

The phrase of “Ambon Manise” reflects the totality of the life aspects of Ambon communities, both physically and socially. Physically, “Ambon Manise” means the natural beauty of Ambon City and its environment that is clean, orderly, safe and comfortable; and socio-culturally it reflects to harmonious interaction among the groups and the groups members within the society as it commonly reflects in the cultural fraternity relationship patterns of “pela” and “gandong”. The Ambon communities have a philosophy of “Bersatu Manggurebe Maju” which democratically puts forward collective values in order to reach consensus, a teamwork to have a honest, transparent, and democratic competition in order to reach safe, harmonious and prosperous Ambon city in the future.

In such a situation the role of public space is significant enough to further strengthen the brotherhood among those who recently had social conflict experiences. This public space is not only understood as physically geographic where the communities gather but it is more as a sphere or environment where the communities will probably interact not only face to face but also to make verbal and inner dialogue. The public space becomes a medium of communication of the Ambon people having kewil habit (to discuss mutual interests) so as to be a mediator of the people’s paparipi nature (hurry and rapidly heating up) that usually emerges from private spaces spreading over the city area. Such a space is expected to dilute the differences and to be an arena of amalgamation occurrence (melting pot) meaning the groups and /or individuals

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\(^1\) Aholiab Watloly, 2016, “Gambaran Umum Kota Ambon” presented at Focus Group Discussion on Design of Public Space Based on Ambon’s Local Wisdoms", Ambon pp. 2-4


\(^3\) Abdullah, Subair. 2014, Merayakan Satu Dekade Pasca Konflik: Hidup Harmonis dalam Bingkai Segregasi, Jurnal Studi Islam Volume 3 Nr. 1, 2014

\(^4\) Tamrin Amal Tomagola, et al, op.cit.
will voluntarily merge their respective identity so as to facilitate the occurrence of assimilation and cooperation, or at least to build tolerant attitude and behavior among the members of different communities

B. the Characteristics of Ambon’s Communities and Ambon City as that is Based on "Orang Basudara" Culture

The characteristics of Ambon’s communities can be read and understood from their various traditions and daily life habits. They, since the beginning of the city construction until today, were made of multi-identity migrant communities, multicultural communities, harbor communities adorned with beach and beautiful sea (water front city). As a hallmark of the urban migrants, the Ambon’s communities are embedded in the diversity of ethnic and traditional identities. There are Ambonese, Dutch, Portuguese, Chinese, Arabic, Javanese, Timorese, Kisor, Minang, Tepa, Banda, Tanembar, Babar, Letti and so on which continue to color the Ambon social configuration until now.

Of the Ambon’s citizens there are some having ethnic-identity backgrounds of the Netherlands, Portuguese, Arabic, Chinese, and Spanish. There are also citizens coming from ethnic-identity backgrounds of Ambon, Java, Timor, Sulawesi, Toraja, Madura, and so forth. The coming of the migrants did not only happen in the past but it happens until now (post conflict), the Ambon demography continues to grow due to the never stopped migrant influx and they who are interested in the beauty and hospitality of Ambon. Having such a multi-ethnic diversity the Ambon’s communities are expected to embrace each other in establishing the identity and togetherness concept as Ambon’s citizens in a cross-cutting affiliated identity that are supporting each other. As a result, Ambon’s communities having a mixed identity will emerge.

The genuine characteristic of Ambon’s citizens from the beginning was open to differences, meaning they were accustomed with mutual attitudes to accept and recognize differences and to build cooperation across differences for the common good. The other characteristics were expressed in inter-racial and inter-ethnic relations in Ambon City where they would always be open to ethnic or racial differences in a cultural identity so the term “Katong Samua Orang Basudara” had become a strong social capital perform the national principle of Bhinneka Tunggal Ika (Unity in Diversity) in city called Amban Manise. The openness and plurality natures makes the Ambon’s citizens very sensitive to conflicts eventhough they are factually true peace-lovers (hidop bae-bae). Under these circumstances the existing local wisdom modes in preventing conflict, resolving conflict and building sustainable peace should be the main capital of the Ambon’s communities. As a plural society they often experience conflicts but thereis always local wisdom capital that keeps them open for mutual admonition, counseling, and forgiving each other. Katong Samua Orang Basudara is guided by a social ratio that becomes the customatory ratio of Moluccas or Ambon communities and it becomes a collective mind of civilized Moluccas communities. The Ambon people have always been the reality portrait of Hidup Orang Basudara\(^1\). The description above shows that the plurality of the Ambon’s community must not be used as a means of triggering social conflicts as it is opposed to the authenticity of hearts, characteristics and traditions of the Ambon’s communities themselves. The plurality of Ambon’s communities could be a social and development capitals to achieve a sustainable development of Ambon City.

C. Public Space Concept as a Facility for the Segregated Communities Encounters

A public space as a means of inculturation can be understood as two things, namely public space and public sphere. Public space here means a physical space or place of communities in conducting social activities and a place of social interaction. Such a public space will be a node and landmark of the city navigation tool that could perform as pedestrian, pavement plaza, public square, and park\(^2\). A public space as a public sphere was an idea of a Germany philosopher, Jurgen Habermas, who defines public space as a space for critical discussion that is open to all. In this public space, private citizens gather to form a public in which the public reason will be directed to oversee the government’s and state’s power. The public space here assumes freedom of speech and assembly, free press, and the rights of free participation in political debates and decision-making\(^3\). Habermas further states that public space is a democratic space that can be used as a vehicle for community discourse, meaning that citizens can express their opinions, interests and needs discursively. A

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public space has an important role in the democratic process because it can be the "citizens' arena to communicate with each other regarding their political anxieties".

From the definition, a public space as a plural space is considered as a place of social life of citizens to interact with each other through the democratic principles for the common good and the arena for the communities to participate in deliberation (on issues of political/policy legitimacy) which is an ideal picture of democracy in which there are justice, diversity, freedom, and solidarity values. A public space is not only physical in nature such as a park, a field, a legal institution or organization but the citizens' communication itself is actually a public space. Therefore, public space should be free, open, transparent, and no government intervention as it is autonomous. In other words, a public space should be easily accessible to everyone. From this public space the power of society or citizen's solidarity can be directed to positive goals and vice versa.

The emergence of social media often called "virtual world" as a new medium provides a wider transformation, both theoretical and practical, on how a public space takes place in a virtual space. The internet's characteristics as a medium, the users accessing, to the information distributed in the virtual (public) space should be of concern how to see the real characteristics of the public space of the virtual world, taking into account the positive and negative aspects. A virtual public space is like a double-edged blade meaning it can quickly change from an assisting tool to a "killer" and vice versa because of its virtual nature, there is no physical presence. Thus, to build harmony in society, we can not rely solely on the development of information technology. No matter how sophisticated the virtual world, it is a world that has no touch of real sympathy and empathy to be used as a modality of building brotherhood in the real world. Therefore, an encounter place which is the physical public space to build harmony of the citizens is a necessity that can not be negotiable (conditio sine quanon).

A public space is significant for urban areas and urban life because it is a social construction of a space of spatial behavioral that is defined and to determine the space around us as an integral part of our social existence. Besides, a public space is able to build inclusivity where every community group always has its own belief, character, and problem. When it is only self-kept, not communicated with other groups, what will happen is then exclusivity that has the potential to become prejudice seeds, social jealousy, social segregation, etc. What comes later is the feeling of "in group" and "out group" that are easily provoked by irresponsible parties having certain interests. The public space here will be able to play a positive role that can be a space of encounter among communities having different backgrounds and they can interact with each other so that one is to know the others, and vice versa. A public space will not and should not eliminate differences but it can find "links" between different groups of the communities in the form of shared concerns perceived as members of the community, such as education, the environment, economic difficulties, etc. Face-to-face and eye encounters will create a natural, not artificial, sense of sympathy and empathy as it is possible in the virtual world. On the other hand, such a physical public space could be a "cross-cutting affiliation" for all citizens involved although they are different but have shared concerns that must be fought, including the longingness of safe, comfortable, and not bothered by fear and worry life. A public space could also becomes the reintegration of the socio-spatial division so as a mediator between private spaces dominatin the city and it plays an important role in socio-spatial division. Without the mediation process the spatial movement within the city becomes very limited. In relation to this matter, a public space is also considered capable to be a forum for communication and coordination.

D. Public Space Concept as a Facilities of Ambon Communities Inculturation

1 Noor, Irfan, 2016, Identitas, Agama, Ruang Publik dan Post Sekularisme; Perspektif Diskursus Jurgen Habermas, Jurnal Ilmiah Ilmu Ushuludin, (p-ISSN: 1412-5188/e-ISSN: 2549-3752)
3 Wicandra OB, 2013, Merebut Kuasa atas Ruang Publik: Pertarungan Ruang Komunitas Mural di Surabaya, Disertasi, Petra Christian University
4 Pancaswi, Hermawan, 2016, Budaya Berbasis Kearifan Lokal sebagai Modalitas untuk Perjumpaan dan Interaksi, paper yang tidak dipublikasikan.
5 Ibid
6 Ibid
7 Ibid
8 Ibid
The early building of Ambon’s community was based on a hallmark of a harbor-town community, built by the Portuguese and the VOC in the 16th to the 18th century. The social life of the community was systematically designated as a distinctive residential system equipped with beaches, seas, ports and fortified buildings that characterized the "port of town" and merchant community as well as sailors. As a port town community the anthropological characteristics of Ambon’s people was always close to the beach and the sea. The characters were also influenced by the local viewpoints of the indigenous Ambon’s people as other Moluccas’ communities living in mountainous areas but they always had a bay or an harbor as an entrance and exit of their respective negeri. They had an intact marine and land zonation system without separating the sea from the land.

Sea water was always to be a social event of together afternoon bathing and swimming after doing activities in the forest or garden. After that they then looked for a river to cleanse their body of salty water and the habit was called “spul badan”. The romanticism of the beautiful beach and marine having sand and headland had always been a reference to the cosmological identity of Ambon’s people. Their relationship with the sea and the coast became an inseparable unity. Various songs were created and inherited to remember and restore the freshness of their lives. The songs always told the charm of Ambon city life with its beautiful beach and sea.

The writing above explains that a public space, in the context of post-conflict Ambon, a public space can play an important role in the socio-spatial division of the Ambon’s communities having the anthropological characteristic space concept that is always close to the beach and sea. Sociologically, the Ambon’s communities need public spaces arranged with the charm of the sea, beach and headland that will provide a powerful psychological effects to restore the freshness of the existence of "Orang Basudara" culture in a cosmological space and their original nature as a marine love communities having beautiful beaches to build encounter processes and to do consolidation of “Hidup Orang Basudara”. The public space management implementing the philosophy of Tempat (tampa) Bakumpul Orang Basudara will make the existing social institutions such as governmental institutions, customary institutions, educational institutions, and communities involve in the management and utilization of the public spaces effectively and efficiently. Thus, the presence of public spaces in Ambon city becomes relevant as a primary need to motivate the lives of Orang Basudara to be more constructive so that the density, narrowness, and social sloth that tend to be social problems in Ambon city will be easily handled. The concept of the macro space of Ambon’s communities which is inseparably related to the sea makes the beach a "yard" so that the public space as an encounter space is more precisely placed by the beach. The phenomenon of new development that tends to close the shore makes it necessary to review the policy on the development and urban planning of Ambon city.

The open spaces of Ambon city are designed to support the ecological and socio-cultural benefits that promote people’s welfare. Currently the concept of an open space is still directed to a green open space and it is understood as a green park. Seeing the situation of the Ambon city it is necessary to think about open spaces that are not considered only as green parks but they should be more interpreted as spaces that can be utilized as a public spaces where people can interact in them, meet each other and greet without any divider.

A public space in the context of physical public spaces here is a place for community interaction having a social role. In socially critical situation the local wisdom values could be musically elaborated and packaged into messages that must be more "touching" than the speeches or appeals of formal leaders that are often verily normative. Moreover, if such activities in the public spaces are able to invite all parties, particularly the conflicting ones, the social conditions will soon recover and be much more lasting than if they were carried out under pressure or coercion conducted by the authorities. All these can only happen in public spaces that are physically open.

A public space viewed from local wisdom and people’s daily life is very close to the original characteristics of Ambon’s communities themselves, particularly in building Tempat (tampa) Bakumpul Orang Basudara. The space of Bakumpul Orang Basudara gives a strong cosmological inspiration so that they will understand and accept a public space as a cosmological house of Orang Basudara viewing the object of public space as a house and a yard of Katong Orang Basudara, thus it will awaken a consolidation room of Orang Basudara strongly and firmly inside every public space.

The Ambon' communities, especially the post-conflict Ambon’s youths, need public spaces to build encounter processes and to make a consolidation of Hidup Orang Basudara. Public spaces arranged with the charm of the sea, beaches and
promontory will provide powerful psychological effects to restore the freshness of the existence of Orang Basudara in their a cosmological space and their original characteristics as a sea-love communities having beautiful beaches.

The conflict phenomenon of Ambon’s communities is not static but it tends to be dynamic. Conflicting trend that easily changes has a close relationship with 3 dimensions, namely: time, resources and infrastructure. The behavior or Ambon’s people that are easy to fight but also easy to reconcile is caused by the behavior that tend to be the fundamental weaknesses of the people, such as kalakuang jumawa that is temperament and emotional characters. These characteristics make Ambon’s people less able to control themselves, easily provoked, doubled with kalakuang paparipi, that is the characteristics of rush and quickly respond. A sense of solidarity that is embroiled in emotion that has been a specific characteristic of Ambon’s communities which is a reflection of the sense of brotherhood (Orang Basudara) wrapped with emotional fanaticism tends to harm. On the other hand, the essence of peace and peace modus in indigenous people of Orang Basudara have three meanings that are free of war, free of civic irregularity, and calmness that balance the three meanings, namely social meaning which creates harmony, tolerance and harmony that are called bakudame deng basudara, the meaning of the nature creating harmony with nature (bakudame deng gunung tanah) and inner meaning creating peace and inner welfare (bakudame deng sanang heart dame deng sanang hati).

Therefore, peace as a process must be planned and executed, not given, it must be built and pursued in Ambon’s communities and must be a serious effort. To achieve the peace process, two concepts of reconciliation are made in stages, namely first to build a continuous dialogical relationship, and second to bring and to engage the reconciled parties in an activity which can create dependence on each other. The efforts will be very effective if they are run in a public space concept that became a means of encounter that is based on Ambon’s own culture. The public space should be a living rule which in the community of Orang Basudara is called “Atoran” which means that traditional values are used as a sacred norm which serves to direct, control, and reward or sanction. Cultural traditions that must be developed through the public spaces are, among others:

a. the tradition of kumpul basudara (gathering relatives)

b. panas pela (to strengthen kinship ties between indigenous communities having fraternal relations)

c. panas gandong (to strengthen kinship relationship of relatives)

d. Yelim (tradition of helping each other when happy or hard)

e. Moritari (art or rule of life in the race of doing good)

f. Kalwedo (sharing greetings, joyful spirit and peace in a strong cultural bond), etc.

Therefore, to realize true peace for Ambon’s communities, beside an encounter space, a public space must also be able to represent the living atoran and tradition. Here is an example or model of public spaces that the Ambon’s communities need, especially in the border area between 2 or more segregated settlers:

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1 Watloly, dkk. 2016, Perdamaian Berbasis Adat Orang Bersaudara, PT Kanisius, Yogyakarta, hal. 27-36.
2 Ibid hal. 71,72
3 Ibid hal. 74
4 Ibid. Hal. 78
5 Ibid. Hal. 79
E. Conclusion

The inculturation process of a public space means the process of cultural initiation of "Orang Basudara" of Ambon's communities that elevates local cultural values as part of the work of peace proclamation. This enforces a life-loving process as brothers and sisters and to avoid violence and this can be one of the ways to resolve any conflict. Through the inculturation process in the public space, peace proclamation will be well received by the local communities according to the languages of individuals and cultures that have grown and rooted in Ambonese plural communities. Therefore, the public space inculturation that performs as a reciprocal relationship among individuals and communities that interact in that space having Orang Basudara culture is expected to merge in the rules, limitations and meanings of the social order of the Ambon’s communities to lead a lasting peaceful life.
Influence of “third age” person’s education on cognitive aging and psychological well-being

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Abstract.
Influence of standard regular education of elderly adults (aged 55+) on psychological well being and cognitive aging is studied. The hypothesis that education can slow-down the process of cognitive aging has been verified. By the example of longitudinal study, the dynamics of worry domains, their content as well as cognitive functioning improvement have been studied.

Keywords: elderly adults, education, psychological well-being, cognitive aging, cognitive functioning.

Introduction
According to National Institute on Aging research over the twentieth century there has been both a doubling in average human longevity and the near prospect of our planet having more seniors than young children. The first decade of the twenty-first century has been marked by a dramatic interest and growing concern over an unprecedented human transformation: the global aging of human populations.

Aging is a fundamental biological process that is inseparably linked with the genetic makeup and metabolic workings of the organism and at the same time is sensitive to environmental influences (Strehler, 1986; Yu & Yang, 1996 Arking, 1991). In literature words “old age” and “aging” are often used as close synonyms to describe conditions and processes that can be individual or societal. However, unlike man, societies can become younger, man ages over his life course.

Transformations of the aging body are obvious: face becomes wrinkled, the hairs turn white, step become heavy and body shape becomes fuzzy. Man becomes ailing, his character changes. Even ancient philosophers noticed significant age transformations. More than two thousand years ago in his work “An essay on old age” Cicero wrote: “When I consider the several causes which are usually supposed to constitute the infelicity of old age, they may be reduced, I think, under four general articles: it incapacitates a man for acting in the affairs of the world; it produces great infirmities of body; it disqualifies him for the enjoyment of the sensual gratifications; and it brings him within the immediate verge of death.” (Cicero). In Plato’s Republic, it is also noted that most old people complain about their old age, but he puts their troubles down not to old age but to their character (Plato).

Thus, external obvious signs of aging are described and have been studied over centuries. Aging of cognitive functions is not so obvious. Even Aesculapius and his associates did not find the brain and higher cognitive functions sufficiently important to be included in the list of geriatric troubles (Craik, 2000). Cognitive aging become an issue of researches in the past three decades of the XX-th century. A number of theoretical notions, theories, researches and even new research topics have been suggested. The results of researches have been periodically surveyed and summarized but the results sometimes are partial and contradictory. Although there are ample studies confirming that different kinds of occupational activity improved successful aging and psychological well-being, less is known about the influence of regular university education of the elderly on cognitive aging. The goals of the current study were twofold. The first one was to examine the role of elderly adults’ education in cognitive aging. The second goal was to investigate the influence of education on person’s well-being.
The hypothesis that standard regular education of elderly adults (aged 55+) can slow-down the process of cognitive aging has been tested. By the example of longitudinal study (2.5 years), the dynamics of cognitive functioning as well as subjective well-being have been studied.

Method

Participants. Older adults aged (N=21) aged 51-63 (M=57.6) took part in the research. All respondents were students of special educational program “Practical psychology”. Duration of the program was 2.5 years. The program started in October 2014 and lasted till December 2016. All participants were on a pension and none of them worked. All students had first higher education in economy, engineering, education etc. None of them had psychological education and this was a key moment for the program. Thus, psychology was a new sphere for these adults.

Measures

Battery of psychological techniques was used. The Worry Domains Questionnaire (WDQ) (Tallis, Eysenck, Mathews, 1992) was used to study worry across five domains in everyday activity: relationships, lack of confidence, aimless future, work, and financial issues. WDQ consists of 25 items with five point Likert scale. The Questionnaire was adapted for Russian-speaking sample; its psychometric properties were verified, its factorial structure was confirmed.

The Metacognitions Questionnaire (MCQ-30) (Wells, Cartwright-Hatton, 2004) was used to study the range of metacognitive processes and metacognitive beliefs about worry. The questionnaire consists of five subscales, three of which assess beliefs, including:

Positive beliefs about worry (Worrying helps me cope);

Negative beliefs about worry (My worrying is dangerous for me);

Cognitive confidence (I do not trust my memory);

Need to control thoughts (I should be in control of my thoughts all of the time);

Cognitive self-consciousness (I pay close attention to the way my mind works).

Four-point Likert response scale: 1 (do not agree); 2 (agree slightly); 3 (agree moderately); 4 (agree very much) is used. Russian version of the Questionnaire demonstrates good psychometric properties (satisfactory internal consistency and convergent validity, and had a good test-retest reliability). Confirmatory factor analysis affirmed its five-factor solution.

Different procedures were used for cognitive abilities measurement: perceptual style and analytical ability, cognitive flexibility, attention, memory, reasoning etc. The Embedded Figures Test (EFT) was used to measure perceptual style and analytical ability (Witkin, 1969). Cognitive flexibility was measured by means of Stroop Color and Word Test. For memory assessment the Spot the Difference for Cognitive Decline (SDCD) test was used. The test was elaborated by a group of Japanese scientists and proved its accuracy for the identification of cognitive impairment in older adults (Shu Nishiguchi, 2014). Bourdon and Munsterberg tests were used for attention assessment and Kraepelin’s calculating test was used for mental activity evaluation.

Procedure

Questionnaires and cognitive tasks were presented to the participants at the beginning and at the end of each term. To exclude the effect of learning the tasks were modified.

Results

The results of the first testing in October 2014 are presented below. For items of The Worry Domains Questionnaire summary statistics are presented in Table 1 and Fig. 1.
Table 1

Summary Statistics for Worry Domains Questionnaire scales

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Average</th>
<th>Standard deviation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Relationships</td>
<td>14.59</td>
<td>4.14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lack of confidence</td>
<td>15.67</td>
<td>4.27</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Aimless future</td>
<td>14.32</td>
<td>3.75</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Work</td>
<td>11.08</td>
<td>3.75</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Financial</td>
<td>9.45</td>
<td>4.37</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total worry</td>
<td>65.13</td>
<td>9.46</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Fig. 1. Comparative analysis of subscales’ means at the beginning of the education

The results show that our respondents are not confident in their abilities, they consider their future as aimless and they are not sure in their relations. Financial and work issues are not so important for them. The total worry score above 65 indicates that people have problems and even are chronic worries (Leahy, 2005). So we can conclude that upon the whole they worry much enough about their life and therefore, they are rather anxious because worry is considered as the principle component of anxiety disorders and depression (Eysenck, 1992). It is impossible to image a person with high level of worry and with high level of well-being. Worry is a major detractor from wellbeing.

The second stage of the research was conducted at the end of their first term. The same tests’ battery was given. The results of comparative analysis indicate that the total level of worry decrease as well as worries in different domains. The results of comparative analysis are presented in at Fig. 2.

Fig. 2. Comparative analysis of worry domains at the beginning and the end of the first term

Significant decrease in the Lack of confidence and Aimless future worry domains was revealed. The above changes are statistically significant (\(W=8.14 \text{ u } 6.27\) respectively; \(p\)-value \(\leq 0.01\)). Worry about relationships stayed unchangeable and
even increased. This result puzzled researchers, but it was clarified by the participants’ interviews. It was revealed that not all family members welcomed changes of their mothers’ and fathers’ (grand mothers and grand fathers for some members) status. Crisis situations connected with limited possibility to fulfill customary functions appeared in some families. It turned out that grandmother should go to the library (to write essay, for example) instead of picking up the child from the school or leading him to hobby/sport group. The necessity to change habitual day order not only by elderly students but by their family members as well resulted in some tension in extended families and affected the measured index. But later on in the majority of cases this problem was solved.

In toto index of total worry decreased significantly (Fig. 3).

![Fig. 3. Comparative analysis of total worry indices at the beginning of education and after the first term](image)

(W = -4450.5; P-value = 0.0)

By means of Metacognitions Questionnaire causes of this worry were revealed. The results of the first profile are presented at Fig. 4.

![Fig. 4. Histogram of causes of worry](image)

Cognitive incompetence is the main sphere of worry for participants. They acknowledge the necessity to control their thoughts constantly as well. Other spheres are not so important. Thus, at the beginning of education, elderly students worry much and the main sphere was the sphere of cognitive functioning.

In five months of education indices of cognitive incompetence decreased significantly. Indices of cognitive self-consciousness and need to control thoughts increased. At Fig. 5 the results of comparative analysis of causes of worry are presented.
The most significant result of this comparison indicates striking decrease in cognitive confidence. Our participants became surer in their cognitive abilities after a five month of regular learning. The most surprising thing is that their real cognitive functioning did not change. Their cognitive abilities, cognitive flexibility, attention and memory remained just the same. No significant differences were revealed in the tasks’ indices.

Changes of psychological status of participants continued during the first year of their education and then remained stable until their graduation.

The dynamics of worry domains indices during the first year of learning is presented at Fig. 6.

All changes presented at fig. 6 were statistically significant and were confirmed by the Kruskal-Wallis test with the significance level $p \leq 0.01$.

As the result of worry decreasing the participants become less anxious, less depressive, improve their relationships, consider future not so aimless and become confident in their abilities especially in cognitive ones. So they feel themselves
psychologically better and their subjective well being increased. No changes occurred in financial sphere; this sphere is a perennial problem for the seniors. This fact was quite natural for 2014-2016 economic crises. But in consideration of modern socio-psychological situation this result can be considered as **positive** because no increases in these worry domains were marked. At the same time the increase in these worry domains were marked for population in tote according to sociological surveys (data of Levada-centre, 2016).

As for cognitive functioning, real improvement was recorded only by the end of the second term of learning. Multiple Range Tests were used to determine which means are significantly different from others. The some results are presented in Table 2.

Table 2/ Multiple Range Tests

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Contrast</th>
<th>Sig.</th>
<th>Difference</th>
<th>+/- Limits</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>EET_before - EET_1st_term</td>
<td></td>
<td>-0.27027</td>
<td>0.561114</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>EET_before - EET_2_term</td>
<td>*</td>
<td>-2.24324</td>
<td>0.561114</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>EET_1st_term - EET_2_term</td>
<td>*</td>
<td>-1.97297</td>
<td>0.561114</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>flexibility_before - flexibility_1st_term</td>
<td></td>
<td>-1.08108</td>
<td>5.1238</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>flexibility_before - flexibility_2_term</td>
<td>*</td>
<td>25.7568</td>
<td>5.1238</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>flexibility_1st_term - flexibility_2_term</td>
<td>*</td>
<td>26.8378</td>
<td>5.1238</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>memory_before - memory_1st_term</td>
<td></td>
<td>-0.162162</td>
<td>0.699107</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>memory_before - memory_2_term</td>
<td>*</td>
<td>-1.62162</td>
<td>0.699107</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>memory_1st_term - memory_2_term</td>
<td>*</td>
<td>-1.45946</td>
<td>0.699107</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* denotes a statistically significant difference, p≤0.01

Students improve their cognitive abilities – the number of right answers in EET test increased significantly. They become more flexible – index of interferental decreased significantly. Their memory become more infallible – the number of correctly identified differences increased significantly. Indices of attention and mental activity increased as well.

**Discussion**

Obtained data confirm the hypothesis that regular education of elderly people can improve their subjective well-being. Increase in subjective well-being was registered after the first month in university though improvement in cognitive functioning became observable only after six months of learning. The results are presented at Fig. 7.

![Dynamics of integral indices of psychological well-being and cognitive functioning during education](image)

The current data and analyses confirm the authors’ hypothesis that regular education of elderly people can improve their psychological health and thereby improve person’s subjective well-being. They select a new goal; organize their lives around the achievement of the goal. They had to visit lectures, read special literature, fulfill practical tasks, and conduct scientific researches – so they had to optimize their efforts toward their goal by using their own resource and asking for the help of others. Some researches consider the orchestration of this processes to be central in achieving adaptive mastery and continued lifelong development (Freund, etc., 2009, Matsumoto, 2011). Thus the results of the research reveal the possibilities of enhancement of life satisfaction among those whose age is 55+ through participation in regular education.
Conclusion

The results of the research reveal the possibilities of enhancement of life satisfaction among those whose age is 55+ through participation in regular education. Moreover, obtained results confirmed the hypothesis that regular education can improve cognitive functioning of the elders. It should be mentioned that significant changes in cognitive functioning became evident only after a year of regular education.

Thus, the research shows that person’s well-being can be improved in a short-term educational program while if the objective of education is prevention of cognitive aging – education should be continuous.

References

Abstract

Today hundreds of millions of Internet users are using crowdsourcing platforms either to work to an online job as workers, or as a model of problem solving and production as requesters. This growing workforce makes it necessary from the perspective of the online platforms, to fully understand the factors which contribute on this emerging and innovative “online labor”. We present a study comparing how crowdsourcing platforms have evolved over two time periods. The study explores in addition the effect of several factors of such websites on their traffic data and attention seeking. The results show that several website’s characteristic are strong indicators of its attempting to get and optimize potential workers’ or requesters’ attention.

Keywords: Crowdsourcing, Online labor, Websites Review, Alexa Rankings, Regression Models

JEL Classification: A19, C14, J49, O10

Introduction

Since Jeff Howe introduced the term “Crowdsourcing” in 2006 for the first time in history [3], crowdsourcing has become a pivotal part of today’s Internet focus where everything is designed to take advantage of the networked world. Thousands of workers every day categorize images; write articles or take part to several kinds of online tasks. Crowdsourcing, as a term, is a strategic model to attract an interested, motivated crowd of individuals capable of providing solutions superior in quality and quantity to those that even traditional forms of business can [1]. Today the term “Crowdsourcing” is used today as equivalent to online labor. With the growth of online platforms with crowdsourcing and crowdfunding services like Amazon Mechanical Turk and Kickstarter respectively, a huge workforce and a large knowledge base can be easily accessed and utilized to tackle problems requiring human intelligence. Users have only recently been recognized as an alternative source of new product ideas. Whereas some have attributed great potential to outsourcing idea generation to the “crowd” of users (“crowdsourcing”), others have clearly been more skeptical [2]. Given the success of the crowdsourcing paradigm, we expect that this field will continue to grow rapidly. It’s not outsourcing, it’s crowdsourcing [3].

The continuous development of these online platforms providing crowdsourcing and crowdfunding services, in general, impose the need for continuous and responsible destination management in order to achieve and maintain an appropriate level of sustainability and competitiveness of this new way of online labor. In our study, we use Alexa rankings data as a measure of a website’s attention seeking indicating its level of sustainability and competitiveness. We determine the factors that affect and to which degree the ‘combination’ of the estimated average monthly unique visitors and the estimated number of page views incurred in these online platforms based in our two time-period study [4].

Related Work

In recent years, many studies have elaborated proposals for defining and measuring the quality of work in crowdsourcing environments [5], while others focused on the level of engagement and motivation of the participants called “workers” in these online tasks [6]. Due to these issues, crowdsourcing has attracted the interest of researchers from various fields.
Many research efforts have as a focal point the development of several mechanisms in order to make possible the quality control and cheat detection [7], while others aimed at answering important questions in the field (e.g. What tasks are most paid? or When are the users of my platform active?) by analyzing the anatomy of a crowdsourcing platform [8]. Nevertheless, an online platform is in fact a type of online business and all businesses aim at improving their conversion rate in order to have sustainability and competitiveness. Yet, it is unclear, which factors enact on a crowdsourcing website’s effort to attract targeted traffic, so as to achieve financial success.

This paper aims at investigating how crowdsourcing platform characteristics correlate with their traffic and by extension to their ranking as reported by Alexa. The overall goal is to investigate how crowdsourcing platforms change over time in order to provide their services to a greater user base. This study builds and extends earlier research that aimed to provide a first systematic review of such kind of sites [9].

Data Analysis

Data source

Data regarding the traffic of the studied crowdsourcing websites were collected from alexa.com in values of global ranking, while the data regarding their provided services and mode of operation have been collected by visiting each site included in the survey. The study considered the Alexa top-ranked one hundred crowdsourcing platforms for two periods; January of 2014 to January of 2015 (which from now on will be referred to as year 2014) and January of 2016 to January of 2017 (which from now on will be referred to as year 2016). Alexa was chosen as the preferred site of web traffic data because, related to Webometrics i.e. the process of measuring various aspects of websites that include their popularity and usage patterns, Alexa has been shown to outperform other similar services such as Google Trends for Websites and Compete (Vaughan and Yang 2013). We gathered the data the exact time period in order not to have traffic seasonality issues, so that we can make safe conclusions through the comparison. Last but not least, we didn’t include in our study the period of January of 2015 to January of 2016, because we wanted our comparison study to reflect all the websites’ changes occurred since 2014. For that reason, we needed an unobserved time period in order the websites’ change process to be completed.

Methodology

We selected a number of popular websites offering crowdsourcing services for review. The same methodology was used to select the crowdsourcing sites for both time periods (2014 and 2016) and was based on a two scaled selection methodology. Initially, we used the most three popular search engines – Google, Bing and Yahoo!Search - to search for crowdsourcing online platforms that stakeholders are likely to encounter. For the 2014 dataset, all searches were performed from 1 January to 30 April of 2014 and for the 2016 dataset searches were conducted from 1 August to 30 November using the same set of keywords (“crowdsourcing”, “crowdfunding”, “online platforms”). The final list of crowdsourcing sites was compiled by selecting sites that met specific criteria that included:

Language: All crowdsourcing websites reviewed had to present their services in English. This facilitated the work of assessing services provided and comprehending their use.

Presentation of the type of service provided i.e. type of tasks accepted: Websites had to explicitly report all the necessary information related to the types of tasks it accepts in order to make their review possible.

All information needed for completing the review had to be offered. Many websites may not disclose all information required and such websites were excluded from our analysis.

Based on the above criteria a final list of crowdsourcing sites was compiled and for each site its Alexa ranking were retrieved. For each site the Alexa rankings for the years 2014 (Alexa 2014) and 2016 (Alexa 2016) were collected resulting in the top 100 crowdsourcing websites as ranked by Alexa. The selected websites were assessed against a number of criteria, which aimed to capture the site’s characteristics. In particular, these criteria cover technical as well as operational features. Below we present the criteria in greater detail:

Type of service provided

The term “type of service provided” refers to the type of tasks the site specializes in. Services provided by websites were grouped into the following ten categories [10]:

...
a. Microworks/Simple tasks, which are considered the smallest unit of work in a virtual assembly line, e.g. categorisation, tagging, Web research, transcription, etc.

b. Crowdfunding, which is the collection of finance from backers (the crowd) to fund an initiative (project). Crowdfunding has its origins in the concept of crowdsourcing, which is the broader concept of an individual reaching a goal by receiving and leveraging small contributions from many parties. Crowdfunding is the application of this concept to collect funds through small contributions by many parties in order to finance a particular project or venture.

c. Mobile crowdsourcing services, which is concerned with issues related to applications for mobile phones.

d. Content Generation services, in which content is generated by the crowd. This method is becoming increasingly popular because it offers an alternative to content creation and content curation.

e. Data Entry services, which are projects using many different modi operandi, e.g. Excel, Word, electronic data processing, typing, coding and clerical assignments.

f. High knowledge intensity services, which are specialised services in specific fields such as health, law, insurance, consultancies, data management, market research and cloud applications.

g. Program developing services, which focus on the design and implementation of software.

h. Web and graphic design services, which use the crowd contribution in the creation of Web and artistic projects.

i. Translation services, which target content translation tasks from one language into another.

j. Product reviews and testing, in which reviews and tests are requested.

Quality & Reliability

This variable is used to capture the methods the website employs to ensure the quality of work provided by workers. It also includes methods that the platform employs to prevent cheating and ensure workers’ reliability [11].

Region

Indicates the region the platform is operating in [12]. Websites were classified in one of the following regions: North America, Europe, Australia and Asia.

Online Imprint

This variable reflects the strategies a platform uses for digital marketing and includes three categories; social networks, video streaming-sharing communities and blogs/forums [13].

Descriptive Statistics

The study essentially consists of two databases. In particular, we examined the top 100 crowdsourcing websites of 2014 and 2016 respectively, based on the aforementioned criteria. It is noteworthy to point out that 74 websites in the 2014 list were absent in the 2016 database because either they closed; or they changed their field of service. In the reviewed websites 57.47% remained in the top 100 list in the reported time period while 42.53% of these for several reasons appear to exit the top100 listings. With respect to the latter, 19% of them have cased their operation, 7% have changed its business scope and 5% have merged with other crowdsourcing websites. Table 1 gives an overview of the variables collected for each reviewed crowdsourcing website. It shows also summary statistics for each variable for the set of reviewed websites. As it is shown from the following table 1 most of our variables are binary (i.e termed 0 and 1). Thus, for example regarding the crowdfunding websites, are coded with “crf” and the mean shows that 33.5% of our sample is coded with “1”, meaning that on average in both periods of our study one out of three online platforms provided crowdfunding services.
Table 1. Summary statistics

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variables</th>
<th>Code_Name</th>
<th>Obs</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Min</th>
<th>Max</th>
<th>Std Dev.</th>
</tr>
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<tbody>
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<td>10.720</td>
<td>6.516</td>
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<td>0.361</td>
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<td>0.474</td>
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<td>0.00</td>
<td>0.000</td>
</tr>
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<td>Crowd Generation websites</td>
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<td>0.00</td>
<td>1.00</td>
<td>0.280</td>
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<tr>
<td>Data Entry websites</td>
<td>dze</td>
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<td>0.00</td>
<td>1.00</td>
<td>0.247</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>HighTech Services websites</td>
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<td>0.401</td>
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<td>Product Development websites</td>
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<td>Design Services websites</td>
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<td>0.00</td>
<td>1.00</td>
<td>0.238</td>
</tr>
<tr>
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<td>0.400</td>
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<td>Reviews &amp; Ratings</td>
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<td>Workers Profile</td>
<td>qr3</td>
<td>174</td>
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<td>1.00</td>
<td>0.500</td>
</tr>
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<td>Skills &amp; Practice Tests</td>
<td>qr4</td>
<td>174</td>
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<td>0.00</td>
<td>1.00</td>
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<td>qr5</td>
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<td>1.00</td>
<td>0.445</td>
</tr>
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<td>174</td>
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<td>0.00</td>
<td>1.00</td>
<td>0.466</td>
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<td>Websites from Europe</td>
<td>Europe</td>
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<td>0.215</td>
<td>0.00</td>
<td>1.00</td>
<td>0.412</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Websites from Australia</td>
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<td>0.00</td>
<td>1.00</td>
<td>0.171</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Websites from Asia</td>
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<td>0.00</td>
<td>1.00</td>
<td>0.256</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No Imprint</td>
<td>Nolimpnt</td>
<td>174</td>
<td>0.040</td>
<td>0.00</td>
<td>1.00</td>
<td>0.196</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Social Communities</td>
<td>Soc_Com</td>
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<td>0.125</td>
<td>0.00</td>
<td>1.00</td>
<td>0.332</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Video Communities</td>
<td>Vid_Com</td>
<td>174</td>
<td>0.065</td>
<td>0.00</td>
<td>1.00</td>
<td>0.247</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Blogs or Forums</td>
<td>BlogsForums</td>
<td>174</td>
<td>0.770</td>
<td>0.00</td>
<td>1.00</td>
<td>0.422</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Dataset with results drawn from alexa.com. Author’s calculations.

Note: Alexa rankings are on logarithmic scale.

Furthermore, our study contains a total 174 unique crowdsourcing websites in both years of research. In order to investigate what changes have occurred in the 2014 and 2016 rankings drawing additionally some first conclusions in the evolution and preference of such kind of platforms we grouped the variables in six major categories: Alexa rankings, websites’ quality assurance mechanisms, Type of services provided, Region of origin and Online imprint) and compared the how these groupings changed over the two year period (2014-2016).

More specifically, with regard to Alexa rankings, we crawled from alexa.com the average Alexa ranking values of 2014 and 2016 of each crowdsourcing platform. The results showed a positive relationship between them (figure 1), a statistically significant difference on the average values at 1% (table 3) and similar medians but different distribution characteristics (figure 1, box plot). This means that, a crowdsourcing online platform that was in high-ranked places in 2014 preserved its traffic over time and remained in similar ranking place, while in general we can observe that the values of alexa rankings in 2016 has a higher concentration around the mean and less extreme values (figure 1, Box Plot).

Figure 1 shows the relationship and the distribution of the values of alexa ranking over time. In the left graph y-axis measures the alexa ranking of our sample in 2014 values and x-axis in 2016 respectively. In the right graph y-axis has as a unit of measurement values of alexa ranking.
In addition, with respect to the quality mechanisms that the crowdsourcing online platforms offer as a tool for controlling the quality of responses and detecting cheats, the analysis revealed some interesting results between the two reviewed periods (table 2 and figure 2). First, the percentage of websites that don’t provide any cheat detection mechanism has declined from 45% to 15% in the studied time period, while the percentages of all these type of quality control methods being provided by the crowdsourcing websites have been steadily rising, with the percentages' difference being statistically significance in most cases (table 2).

It is known that, commercial crowdsourcing applications suffer from workers, who try to submit invalid or low quality work in order to maximize their received payment while reducing their own effort. Our study revealed that, despite the success of many crowdsourcing platforms, it is only the last 2 years that they realise the processes that lead to high quality output by espousing several quality control mechanisms. It is known that, the strategies used to assure high quality depend largely on the tasks and outputs of crowdsourcing projects and for that reason many researchers have already introduced several types of quality control. In our research we categorise them into four main groups. “Reviews & Ratings”, meaning whether or not a crowdsourcing platform gives the opportunity to the requesters to find the best worker for his task-needs, based on the reviews and ratings of the worker’s job activity. “Workers profile”, meaning whether or not a crowdsourcing platform provides on requesters, a profile for each worker containing demographic characteristics. “Skills & Practice Tests”, meaning whether or not a crowdsourcing website gives the opportunity to the requesters to pre-select workers and through specific tests to understand which workers are most suitable to their crowdsourcing job. “Spamming Tools”, meaning whether or not an online crowdsourcing platform has embodied in their crowdsourcing process automated methods to aggregate a user’s contributions in a way that promotes high quality output [14].

Figure 2 shows the percentages of “quality assurance” mechanisms over time

Moreover, concerning the websites’ region of origin, we grouped both databases in four major groups, considering the origin country, North America, Europe, Australia and Asia. Figure 2 shows that from 2014 to 2016, a small increase of the percentage of these websites in North America (66% vs. 71%), in Australia (2% vs. 4%) was observed, while in Asia the percentage remained stable (7%) while in Europe a decrease was observed (25% vs. 18%). Our results showed that, crowdsourcing despite its web-based aspect; its process (i.e. its key activities, incentives of participation and structure), is strongly related to several geographical characteristics such as the platforms’ geographical origins [15].
Figure 3 shows the percentages of websites’ region of origin over time.

Concerning the websites’ type of services provided, the review pointed to some noticeable outcomes. Figure 4 presents the major changes that occurred over the reported time period.

Figure 2 Comparison of websites’ type of services provided over time

In particular, the number of websites supporting crowdfunding has increased significantly in the reported time period (24% vs. 38%). Similarly, the percentages of websites providing mobile crowdsourcing (3% vs. 4%), content generation (2% vs. 7%), high-tech services (16% vs. 20%) and web & graphic design tasks (12% vs. 14) have increased in 2016 when compared to 2014. On the other hand, the percentage of websites offering microtask services (18% vs. 10%), data entry services (7% vs. 2%), translation (5% vs. 4%) and review & testing products (9% vs. 2%) show a decrease when compared to 2014. Websites with programming services remained stable (4%) over the reviewed time period.

Table 2 also shows the websites’ online imprint over time. The term “online imprint” is used to denote the strategy that a website follows with respect to their digital marketing. In 2016 the percentage of websites using social networks such as Facebook and LinkedIn as well as video sharing sites such as Youtube are increased. A minority of the reviewed websites (2%) does not employ any digital marketing strategy in 2016.
Table 2. Independent Samples t-tests for equality of means of websites’ Alexa Rankings, Quality Assurance Mechanisms & Online Imprint, collected in 2014 and 2016 respectively

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year of Research</th>
<th>Difference</th>
<th>t-test</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>2014</td>
<td>201.716</td>
<td>4.36***</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2016</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Websites’ Quality Assurance*

- No Quality Assurance: .45, .15, -.30, 4.87***
- Reviews & Ratings: .23, .48, .25, 3.81***
- Workers’ Profile: .28, .65, .37, 5.62***
- Skills & Practice Tests: .13, .15, .02, 0.41
- Spanning Detector Tools: .21, .33, .12, 1.97

*Websites’ Online Imprint*

- No Social Network: .11, .02, -.09, 2.61***
- Facebook: .83, .88, .05, 1.01
- Pinterest: .09, .21, .12, 2.40**
- Youtube/Vimeo: .19, .49, .30, 4.70***
- LinkedIn: .41, .52, .11, 1.56
- Twitter: .84, .89, .05, 1.03
- GooglePlus: .40, .39, .01, 0.14
- Blog or Forum: .71, .83, .12, 2.09**

Source: Dataset with results drawn from Alexa.com. Author’s calculations.

Note: Statistical significance: *** 1%, ** 5% and * 10%.

In order to have a better picture of the evolution of crowdsourcing platforms over time, we conducted a cross-tabulation analysis. Table 3 presents the relationship between each websites’ quality assurance mechanisms and where they are hosted. It is noticeable that in 2016, all quality assurance mechanisms except skills and practise tests (qr4) are increasingly being adopted by crowdsourcing online platforms located in North America, Europe and Australia. On the other hand, crowdsourcing websites located in Asia emphasize more on providing information about their workers through worker profiles (qr3 is seen in 85.7% of the websites in 2016). This differentiation in preference of quality control mechanisms in Asia located crowdsourcing websites may be explained by the fact, that crowdsourcing in Asia is at an early stage of adoption and crowdsourcing in Asia is just warming up [16]. Yet, the general increase of the adoption of quality assurance mechanisms by the crowdsourcing websites over time indicates that while crowdsourcing platforms are maturing, online platforms realize the importance of “quality control” and “cheat detection” mechanisms [17].

Table 3. The relationship of a website’s region and its quality assurance mechanisms over time.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Region</th>
<th>qr2</th>
<th>qr3</th>
<th>qr4</th>
<th>qr5</th>
<th>qr2</th>
<th>qr3</th>
<th>qr4</th>
<th>qr5</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>North America</td>
<td>37.1</td>
<td>25.7</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>42.3</td>
<td>59.2</td>
<td>16.9</td>
<td>35.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Europe</td>
<td>37.5</td>
<td>62.5</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>61.1</td>
<td>72.2</td>
<td>11.1</td>
<td>33.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Australia</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>75</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>25</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Asia</td>
<td>75</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>57.1</td>
<td>85.7</td>
<td>14.3</td>
<td>14.3</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Dataset with results drawn from Alexa.com. Author’s calculations.

Note: A website may have more than one quality control mechanism.
Unit is the percentage of websites that meet the current criteria.

Concerning the relationship between the type of services being provided by crowdsourcing websites and their location and quality control mechanisms, our analysis show some significant results (table 4 & 5). In 2016, a major increase of crowdfunding websites (crf) in all regions is observed while websites focusing on microtask (mwk) services are severely limited. Moreover, it can observed that, over time, the percentage of websites providing mobile crowdsourcing tasks in Asia and Australia remain non-existent, while in Europe and North America appear with very low percentage. This is rather counterintuitive considering the use of smartphones. With respect to other type of services, changes are observed which are summarised in table 4.

Table 4. The relationship of website region and its provided type of services over time.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Region</th>
<th>mwk</th>
<th>crf</th>
<th>mcw</th>
<th>cntg</th>
<th>dte</th>
<th>hts</th>
<th>pdvp</th>
<th>dsns</th>
<th>trs</th>
<th>rtp</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>2014</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>North America</td>
<td>28.6</td>
<td>28.6</td>
<td>4.3</td>
<td>12.9</td>
<td>17.1</td>
<td>17.1</td>
<td>7.1</td>
<td>11.4</td>
<td>4.3</td>
<td>11.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Europe</td>
<td>26.7</td>
<td>26.7</td>
<td>6.7</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>13.3</td>
<td>26.7</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>6.7</td>
<td>6.7</td>
<td>13.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Australia</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Asia</td>
<td>75</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>75</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>75</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2016</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>North America</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>36.6</td>
<td>5.6</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>2.8</td>
<td>22.5</td>
<td>4.2</td>
<td>12.7</td>
<td>2.8</td>
<td>2.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Europe</td>
<td>22.2</td>
<td>44.4</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>11.1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>16.7</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>5.6</td>
<td>5.6</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Australia</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>75</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Asia</td>
<td>14.3</td>
<td>42.9</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>14.3</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>14.3</td>
<td>14.3</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Dataset with results drawn from Alexa.com. Author’s calculations.

Note: A website may provide more than one type of service. Unit is the percentage of websites that meet the current criteria.

Regarding the websites adoption of quality control mechanisms and their provided services, table 5 shows that in 2016 websites have a more specific orientation in quality mechanisms depending on the type of the provided services. More specifically, in 2016 websites focusing on microtasks (mwk), crowdfunding (crf), software development (pdvp) and web & graphic design tasks (dsns) offer only basic tools of quality control and cheat detection, namely via publishing the worker’s history and job success. The review also indicates that, in 2016 compared to 2014, websites focusing on mobile crowdsourcing have stopped providing trivial quality assurance mechanisms at all and have moved on using other forms. This may indicate that such kinds of mechanisms are ineffective in such tasks.

Table 5. The relationship of Website quality assurance mechanisms and its provided type of services over time

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Quality Mechanisms</th>
<th>mwk</th>
<th>crf</th>
<th>mcw</th>
<th>cntg</th>
<th>dte</th>
<th>hts</th>
<th>pdvp</th>
<th>dsns</th>
<th>trs</th>
<th>rtp</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>2014</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>qr2</td>
<td>42.1</td>
<td>16.7</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>55.6</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>33.3</td>
<td>71.4</td>
<td>71.4</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>33.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>qr3</td>
<td>26.3</td>
<td>33.3</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>22.2</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>66.7</td>
<td>14.3</td>
<td>42.9</td>
<td>33.3</td>
<td>16.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>qr4</td>
<td>31.6</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>33.3</td>
<td>41.7</td>
<td>11.1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>33.3</td>
<td>33.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>qr5</td>
<td>47.4</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>55.6</td>
<td>58.3</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>28.6</td>
<td>14.3</td>
<td>33.3</td>
<td>50</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2016</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>qr2</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>42.1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>28.6</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>55</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>64.3</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>50</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>qr3</td>
<td>70</td>
<td>78.9</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>28.6</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>55</td>
<td>75</td>
<td>85.7</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>50</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>qr4</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>14.3</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>21.4</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>qr5</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>36.8</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>42.9</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>21.4</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Dataset with results drawn from Alexa.com. Author’s calculations.

Note: A website may provide more than one type of service and have more than one quality control mechanism.

Unit is the percentage of websites that meet the current criteria.

The analysis of the crowdsourcing websites reveals that these underwent many changes in a rather short period. This may indicate that the field of crowdsourcing is still evolving trying to find ways to properly offer and assess such kind of services.
Empirical Evaluation

Overview

In this section we present a way to model the Alexa rankings of online crowdsourcing platforms, using the characteristics of websites which have been discussed previously. The aim of this model is to investigate the determinants of a website’s Alexa traffic rankings and to what extent affects its attention seeking. The model might provide some useful insights related to the popularity of websites and suggest ways for improvement. Towards this, a OLS linear regression model is used, which applied to each ranking separately. Nevertheless, we also wanted a more comprehensive picture of predictors’ effect on the response variable, in order to investigate, if their effect exists and to what extent, on low and high values of the alexa ranking list and be compared to their effect on median. For this reason, we also used for our estimation a quantile regression. This allows comparing how some quantiles (25%, 50%, 75%) of the rankings, may be more affected by our determinant-factors, than others.

Empirical Model

Based on our methodology, the econometric specification in our study is of the following general form:

\[ AR_{16i} = \alpha + \beta AR_{14i} + \gamma QA_i + \delta R_i + \epsilon S_i + \zeta O_i + u_i \]  

Where \( AR_{16i} \) is the logarithmic values of the aforementioned alexa ranking in reversed values (dependent variable) for the \( i \)th online platform for the year 2016. Factor \( AR_{14i} \), in the model is the vector containing the logarithmic values of rankings in reversed values of the \( i \)th online platform for the year 2014. \( QA_i \) is a vector which includes the quality assurance mechanisms of the \( i \)th online platform (No quality assurance mechanisms, Reviews & Ratings, Workers’ Profile, Skills & Practice Tests, Spamming Detector Tools), \( R_i \) is also a vector for region of the \( i \)th online platform (North America, Europe, Australia, Asia) and \( S_i \) is a vector of the services being provided by the \( i \)th online platform (Microtasks, Crowdfunding, Tasks on Mobile, Content Generation, Data Entry, High Tech, Program Developing, Graphic Design, Translation, Reviews & Testing Products). Last but not least, \( O_i \) is a vector of the online imprint of the \( i \)th online platform (Social Networks, Video Streaming-Sharing, Blogs and Forums). \( u_i \) is the disturbance term.

Estimation Results

The OLS linear regression model and the coefficient for the 25th, 50th and 75th quantiles are shown in table 6. In the next section, each result of each model is discussed in more detail.

OLS Regression

The results suggest that there are remarked differences across the distribution of websites’ Alexa rankings with respect to the independent/explanatory variables.

Recall, our dependent variable (i.e. crowdsourcing websites’ alexa rankings in year 2016) and crowdsourcing websites’ alexa rankings in year 2014 are in reversed values based on the equation; reversed values = maximum value + minimum value – initial values. We did so, in order to have a better interpretation with the regression outputs. In particular, now, higher values of our dependent variable reflect higher levels of online website traffic.

Thus, the first column in table 6 shows the coefficients for the OLS linear regression model. The results show that several independent variables are statistically significant. For example, a website’s Alexa ranking of previous years (i.e. 2014) is a strong indicator of its future traffic (at the 1% level of significance and the right hand variable is positively relate to the left hand variable). Concerning the group variables of “quality assurance mechanisms”, the reference group was websites with that did not disclose any quality control and cheat detection mechanisms. The results show that websites providing mechanisms for spam detection and reviews & ratings for their workers have a high Alexa ranking compared with the websites which belong to the reference group (r=1.330, p.value = .098 and r=.450, p.value = .030 respectively). Furthermore, having as a reference group websites from North America, the model indicates at the 5% level of significance that websites originated from Asia have an approximately 60% lower average traffic compared with crowdsourcing websites from North America. The OLS coefficients for the various types of services offered show some interesting results. Having as a reference group online platforms providing microworks and simple tasks (i.e. tasks that are performed in parallel by large, paid crowds in a short time), we find that the effect of websites’ providing service vary on their traffic and therefore in their position in the Alexa rankings.
Table 6. The determinants of the 2016 Alexa Rankings for the reviewed crowdsourcing online platforms.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>OLS</th>
<th>Quantile Regression</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Mean</td>
<td>0.25</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Independent variables</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Constant</td>
<td>1.602*</td>
<td>1.110*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(.551)***</td>
<td>(.142)***</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Alexa ranking (year 2014)</td>
<td>.920***</td>
<td>.969***</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(.045)***</td>
<td>(.036)***</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Websites’ Quality Assurance Reviews &amp; Ratings</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>1.330*</td>
<td>.808**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(.810)***</td>
<td>(.423)***</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Workers’ Profile</strong></td>
<td>-2.75</td>
<td>-2.18**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(.200)***</td>
<td>(.097)***</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Skills &amp; Practice Tests</strong></td>
<td>-1.75</td>
<td>.161</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(.213)***</td>
<td>(.213)***</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Spamming Detector Tools</strong></td>
<td>.450***</td>
<td>.390***</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(.206)***</td>
<td>(.112)***</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Websites’ Region</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Europe</strong></td>
<td>0.79</td>
<td>0.152**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(.166)***</td>
<td>(.019)***</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Australia</strong></td>
<td>.282</td>
<td>.737*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(.278)***</td>
<td>(.409)***</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Asia</strong></td>
<td>-5.99**</td>
<td>-3.46</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(.276)***</td>
<td>(.299)***</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Websites’ Type of Services/Tasks</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Crowdfunding Tasks</strong></td>
<td>-.781***</td>
<td>-.522**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(.175)***</td>
<td>(.274)***</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Tasks on Mobile Applications</strong></td>
<td>-1.415***</td>
<td>-1.408**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(.296)***</td>
<td>(.598)***</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Content Generation Tasks</strong></td>
<td>.351</td>
<td>1.012</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(.302)***</td>
<td>(.798)***</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Data Entry Tasks</strong></td>
<td>-.093</td>
<td>-.156</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(.449)***</td>
<td>(1.478)***</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>High Tech Tasks</strong></td>
<td>-.531**</td>
<td>-.896***</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(.225)***</td>
<td>(.283)***</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Programm Developing Tasks</strong></td>
<td>.400</td>
<td>.545</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(.638)***</td>
<td>(.703)***</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Graphic Design Tasks</strong></td>
<td>-.195</td>
<td>-.213</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(.254)***</td>
<td>(.254)***</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Translation Tasks</strong></td>
<td>-.137</td>
<td>.025***</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(.197)***</td>
<td>(.198)***</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Reviews &amp; Testing Products Tasks</strong></td>
<td>.288</td>
<td>.185*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(.389)***</td>
<td>(.105)***</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Dataset with results drawn from Alexa.com. Author’s calculations.
Notes: Dependent variable: Websites’ Alexa Rankings for year 2016. In parentheses heteroskedasticity corrected standard errors.

For Websites’ Quality Assurance categorical variable the reference group is websites with no quality assurance mechanisms, for Websites’ Region categorical variable the reference group is websites located in North America, for Websites’ Type of Services/Tasks categorical variable the reference group is websites providing Microtasks/Simple Tasks Services and for Websites’ Online Imprint categorical variable the reference group is websites with no online imprint.

Statistical significance: ** *** 1%, ** 5% and * 10%.

For example, a crowdfunding online platform has an approximately 78% lower traffic than a microtask website, with the result being strongly significant at the 1% level of significance. Similarly, websites having tasks on mobile or tasks requiring high-tech knowledge have lower traffic than the reference group (at the 1% and 5% level of significance respectively). Last but not least, regarding the impact of a website’s digital marketing strategy (online imprint) on its traffic, the study revealed a weak effect of video sharing communities. More specifically, crowdsourcing online platforms that have a strong profile in video sharing communities such as Youtube and Vimeo, have 61.1% more traffic than the ones with no profile on such networks.

**Quantile Regression**

The quantile regression makes possible to statistically examine the extent to which a website’s quality assurance mechanisms, types of services provided, location and online imprint differ when considering the distribution of their traffic. The column 2, 3 & 4 in table 6 presents the regression for the 25th, 50th and 75th quantiles respectively. Recall that quantile regressions were estimated to determine if the impact of the above independent variables varied for crowdsourcing websites at different points in the distribution of their average Alexa rankings in 2016. The results of the quantile regressions show primarily that a website’s traffic in previous years is a strong indicator for its traffic in the near future, regardless its position (low or high) in the Alexa list. Moreover, concerning the websites’ quality assurance mechanisms, the quantile regressions not only confirm the OLS results, but also reveal that among low-ranked websites (at the 25th quantile) another mechanism called “workers’ profile” have a strong effect on their traffic (at 5% level of significance and the right hand variable is positively relate to the left hand variable). Similarly, among high-ranked websites (at the 75th quantile), the opportunity of a requester of a crowdsourcing task to conduct skills and practice tests in order to decide which workers to hire, has a notable effect on the online platform’s general traffic at 5% level of significance. The quantile regressions also reveal that among low-ranked websites, a website that originated in Europe has 15.2% more traffic than websites originated in North America at 1% level of significance (r= .152 and p value= .000), while among high-ranked websites a website that originated in Asia has 70.5% less traffic than websites originated in North America at 10% level of significance (r= -.705 and p value= .081). Additional evidence reveals that the effect of a website’s type of service differs among the distribution of the alexa rankings. For example, among websites in low traffic positions, a website that provides translation tasks or tech services of tasks on mobile have in general less traffic than the reference group. Finally, with regard to the websites’ online imprint, quantile regression does not confirm the OLS concerning the effect of a strong website’s profile on video sharing communities on Alexa ranking, because at the 25th quantile and at 75th quantile this effect is substituted from a strong website’s profile on social networks such as Facebook, Twitter, LinkedIn etc. (at 5% and 10% level of significance and the right hand variable is positively relate to the left hand variable respectively).

**Discussion**

The tools that a crowdsourcing website offers to the potentially requesters, the region where it is located, the type of tasks it accepts and the strategies for efficient digital marketing that applies, can have important effects on its recognition and popularity. The abovementioned characteristics of a crowdsourcing platform affect the decision of a requester, concerning the participation and accomplishment of a crowdsourcing job in this platform. Obviously, a high-attracted crowdsourcing online platform has major indexes of traffic and as an extent a high position in alexa ranking list. As a consequence, highly-ranked websites may have more crowdsourcing sessions when compared to low-ranked sites, giving them the opportunity to respond efficiently to their competitive operating environment.

**Conclusions**
The purpose of this research is twofold. First, it aimed at investigating how crowdsourcing websites have evolved in terms of their characteristics and services offered in a period of two years (2014-2016).

Second, it attempted to devise a theoretical framework to investigate the effect of the websites’ characteristics on their ranking as these are reported by Alexa. The theoretical evaluation’s purpose is to investigate and understand how the individual characteristics of crowdsourcing websites influence their traffic and popularity. Give the dynamics of the field in recent years, such results may offer insights in improving their services and operation.

References


Application of Change of Basis in the Simplex Method

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Istanbul University

Abstract

The simplex method is a very useful method to solve linear programming problems. It gives us a systematic way of examining the vertices of the feasible region to determine the optimal value of the objective function. It is executed by performing elementary row operations on a matrix that we call the simplex tableau. It is an iterative method that by repeated use gives us the solution to any n variable linear programming model. In this paper, we apply the change of basis to construct following simplex tableaus without applying elementary row operations on the initial simplex tableau.

Keywords: change of basis, linear programming, simplex method, optimization, linear algebra

1. Introduction

In the summer of 1947, George B. Dantzig started to work on the simplex method for solving linear programs. The linear programming problem is to find

$$\min \ z, \ x \geq 0 \ \text{such that} \ A x = b, cx = z_{min}$$

where \( x = (x_1, x_2, ..., x_n) \), \( A \) is an \( m \times n \) matrix, and \( b \) and \( c \) are column and row vectors [1].

He presented in his work titled “Maximization of a linear function of variables subject to linear inequalities” the details of the simplex method by means of linear algebra [2]. The significance of this work lies in showing that we can do something about finding an optimal solution if such one exists. This method allows us to compute the optimal solution. Two issues in the simplex method are of great importance: First, with the simplex method we can obtain a basic feasible solution with which to start the computation and second, the simplex method ensures that the algorithm finishes in a finite number of steps either with an optimal solution or with the conclusion that there is no optimal solution [3].

2. Basis and coordinates

Let \( V \) be a vector space and let \( B = \{ v_1, v_2, ..., v_n \} \) be a set of vectors in \( V \). \( B \) forms a basis for \( V \) if the following two conditions hold:

1. \( B \) is linearly independent.
2. \( B \) spans \( V \).

If \( B = \{ v_1, v_2, ..., v_n \} \) is a basis for \( V \), then every vector \( x \in V \) can be expressed uniquely as a linear combination of \( v_1, v_2, ..., v_n \).

$$x = y_1 v_1 + y_2 v_2 + ... + y_n v_n$$  \hspace{1cm} (1)

Theorem 1.: If \( B = \{ v_1, v_2, ..., v_n \} \) is a basis for a vector space \( V \), then every vector \( x \) in \( V \) can be written in one and only one way as a linear combination of vectors in \( B \).

Proof 1.: Suppose there are two sets of coefficients for \( x \).

$$x = k_1 v_1 + k_2 v_2 + ... + k_n v_n$$  \hspace{1cm} (2)

and also

$$x = l_1 v_1 + l_2 v_2 + ... + l_n v_n$$  \hspace{1cm} (3)

Subtracting the two expressions for \( x \) gives

$$0 = (k_1 - l_1) v_1 + (k_2 - l_2) v_2 + ... + (k_n - l_n) v_n$$  \hspace{1cm} (4)
Since \( \{v_1, v_2, \ldots, v_n\} \) is linearly independent, so the coefficients in this expression must vanish:
\[
(k_1 - l_1) = 0 \text{ implies } k_1 = l_1 \\
(k_2 - l_2) = 0 \text{ implies } k_2 = l_2 \\
\vdots \\
(k_n - l_n) = 0 \text{ implies } k_n = l_n
\]
Therefore, the coefficients \( k_1, k_2, \ldots, k_n \) are unique as claimed.

**Definition 1.** The coordinates of a vector \( x \) in a vector space \( V \) with respect to a basis \( B = \{v_1, v_2, \ldots, v_n\} \) are those coefficients \( (y_i) \) which uniquely express \( x \) as linear combination of the basis vectors.
\[
x = y_1 v_1 + y_2 v_2 + \ldots + y_n v_n = y_{1j} v_1 + y_{2j} v_2 + \ldots + y_{nj} v_n
\]
These coefficients \( y_1, y_2, \ldots, y_n \) are called the coordinates of \( x \) relative to the basis \( (y_i \in \mathbb{R}) \). The coordinate matrix (or coordinate vector) of relative to \( B \) is the column matrix in \( \mathbb{R}^n \) whose components are the coordinates of \( x \).
\[
[x]_B = \begin{bmatrix} y_1 \\ y_2 \\ \vdots \\ y_n \end{bmatrix}
\]
In Figure 1, two coordinate systems in the plane are displayed:
- coordinate plane \( xy \)
- coordinate plane \( x'y' \)
Every coordinate system is defined by a basis.
- The standard coordinate system is defined by the standard basis:
\[
S = (e_1, e_2) = \{(1,0), (0,1)\}
\]
- The dashed coordinate system (non-standard) is defined by the basis:
\[
B = (u_1, u_2) = \{(3,2), (-2,1)\}
\]
In Figure 2, the vector \( u = (1,3) \) has standard coordinates \( x = 1 \) and \( y = 3 \).
If we use the dashed coordinate system (non-standard), whose coordinate axes are labelled \( x' \) and \( y' \); the dashed coordinates of \( u \) are \( x' = 1 \) and \( y' = 1 \).

3. **Change of Basis**

If we are provided with the coordinate matrix of a vector relative to one basis \( B \) and are asked to find the coordinate matrix of the vector relative to another basis \( B' \), we have to apply the procedure of change of basis. This is shown in Example 1.

**Example 1.** Find the coordinate matrix of \( x = \{1, -2, -1\} \) in \( \mathbb{R}^3 \) relative to non-standard basis \( B' = (u_1, u_2, u_3) = \{(0,0,-1), (1,3,-1), (2,1,1)\} \).

**Solution 1.** First, \( x \) is written as a linear combination of \( u_1, u_2, u_3 \).
\[
x = y_1 u_1 + y_2 u_2 + y_3 u_3
\]
\[
(1, -2, -1) = y_1 (0,0,-1) + y_2 (1,3,-1) + y_3 (2,1,1)
\]
Then, the following system of linear equations is obtained:
\[
y_2 + 2y_3 = 1 \\
3y_2 + y_3 = -2 \\
-y_1 - y_2 + y_3 = -1
\]
This can be written in matrix form $P \cdot [x]_{B'} = [x]_B$

$$
\begin{bmatrix}
0 & 1 & 2 \\
0 & 3 & 1 \\
-1 & -1 & 1 \\
\end{bmatrix} \cdot \begin{bmatrix}
y_1 \\
y_2 \\
y_3 \\
\end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix}
1 \\
-2 \\
-1 \\
\end{bmatrix} \tag{13}
$$

Where $P$ is the transition matrix from $B'$ to $B$. $[x]_{B'}$ is the coordinate matrix of $x$ relative to the basis $B'$ and $[x]_B$ is the coordinate matrix of $x$ relative to the basis $B$. (13) shows the change of basis from $B'$ to $B$.

$[x]_{B'}$ can be found by $[x]_{B'} = P^{-1} \cdot [x]_B$

$$
\begin{bmatrix}
y_1 \\
y_2 \\
y_3 \\
\end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix}
0 & 1 & 2 \\
0 & 3 & 1 \\
-1 & -1 & 1 \\
\end{bmatrix}^{-1} \cdot \begin{bmatrix}
1 \\
-2 \\
-1 \\
\end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix}
3 \\
-1 \\
1 \\
\end{bmatrix} \tag{14}
$$

Where $P^{-1}$ is the transition matrix from $B$ to $B'$. So the solution of the system given in (12) is $y_1 = 3$, $y_2 = -1$ and $y_3 = 1$, so the coordinate matrix of $x$ relative to $B'$ is
Figure 2: Vector $\mathbf{u}$ in both coordinate systems

Theorem 2.: Let $\mathbf{B} = \{\mathbf{v}_1, \mathbf{v}_2, \ldots, \mathbf{v}_n\}$ and $\mathbf{B}' = \{\mathbf{u}_1, \mathbf{u}_2, ..., \mathbf{u}_n\}$ be two ordered bases for $\mathbb{R}^n$. Then the transition matrix $P^{-1}$ from $\mathbf{B}$ to $\mathbf{B}'$ can be found by using Gauss-Jordan elimination on the matrix $[\mathbf{B}' : \mathbf{B}]$ as follows:

$$[\mathbf{B}' : \mathbf{B}] \rightarrow [I_n : P^{-1}]$$

(16)

Example 2. shows an application of (16).

Example 2.: Find the transition matrix from $\mathbf{B}$ to $\mathbf{B}'$ for the following bases in $\mathbb{R}^3$.

$\mathbf{B} = \{(1,0,0), (0,1,0), (0,0,1)\}$ and $\mathbf{B}' = \{(1, -1,0), (-2,1,2), (1, -1, -1)\}$

Solution 2.: First, $\mathbf{B}$ and $\mathbf{B}'$ are written in matrix form.

$$\mathbf{B} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \text{ and } \mathbf{B}' = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & -2 & 1 \\ -1 & 1 & -1 \\ 0 & 2 & -1 \end{bmatrix}$$

(17)

The matrix $[\mathbf{B}' : \mathbf{B}]$ is formed and Gauss-Jordan Elimination is used to rewrite $[\mathbf{B}' : \mathbf{B}]$ as $[I_n : P^{-1}]$. 

(15)
\[
[B':B] = \begin{bmatrix}
1 & -2 & 1 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\
-1 & 1 & -1 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\
0 & 2 & -1 & 0 & 0 & 1
\end{bmatrix} 
\]

\[
[I_n:P^{-1}] = \begin{bmatrix}
1 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 1 \\
0 & 1 & 0 & -1 & -1 & 0 \\
0 & 0 & 1 & -2 & -2 & -1
\end{bmatrix}
\]

Transition matrix from \(B\) to \(B'\) is then
\[
P^{-1} = \begin{bmatrix}
1 & 0 & 1 \\
-1 & -1 & 0 \\
-2 & -2 & -1
\end{bmatrix}
\]

4. Application

The simplex method is a very useful method to solve linear programming problems. It gives us a systematic way of examining the vertices of the feasible region to determine the optimal value of the objective function. It is executed by performing elementary row operations on a matrix that we call the simplex tableau. This tableau consists of augmented matrix corresponding to the constraint equations together with the coefficients of the objective function written in the form

\[c_1x_1 + c_2x_2 + \ldots + c_nx_n + 0 \cdot s_1 + 0 \cdot s_2 + \ldots + 0 \cdot s_m - z = 0\]  

In this paper, we apply the change of basis to construct following simplex tableaus without applying elementary row operations on the initial simplex tableau.

**Example 3.** \(z_{\text{max}} = 2x_1 + x_2 + 3x_3\)

\[
s.t. \quad x_1 + 2x_2 \leq 8 \\
x_1 + x_2 + 2x_3 \leq 12 \\
x_1, x_2, x_3 \geq 0
\]

**Solution 3.** \(z_{\text{max}} = 2x_1 + x_2 + 3x_3 + 0 \cdot s_1 + 0 \cdot s_2\)

\[
s.t. \quad x_1 + 2x_2 + 0 \cdot x_3 + 1 \cdot s_1 + 0 \cdot s_2 = 8 \\
x_1 + x_2 + 2 \cdot x_3 + 0 \cdot s_1 + 1 \cdot s_2 = 12 \\
x_1, x_2, x_3, s_1, s_2 \geq 0
\]

| Table 1: Initial simplex tableau |
|-----------------|---|---|---|---|---|
| \(c_B\) | \(c_j\) | 2 | 1 | 3 | 0 | 0 |
| BASIC | VARIABLES | \(x_B\) | \(x_1\) | \(x_2\) | \(x_3\) | \(s_1\) | \(s_2\) |
| 0 | \(s_1\) | 8 | 1 | 2 | 0 | 1 | 0 |
| 0 | \(s_2\) | 12 | 1 | 1 | 2 | 0 | 1 |
| \(z_j\) | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| \(z_j - c_j\) | ----- | -2 | -1 | -3 | 0 | 0 |
| MIN RATIO | | | | | | |

Coefficient vectors of \(x_1, x_2, x_3, s_1, s_2\) are respectively

\[a_1 = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} \quad a_2 = \begin{bmatrix} 2 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} \quad a_3 = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 2 \end{bmatrix} \quad a_4 = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} \quad a_5 = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}\]  

In the initial simplex tableau in Table 1, the coefficient vectors that are in the basis \(B\) are

\[a_4 = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} \quad a_5 = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}\]  

45
\[ B = (a_4, a_3) \] (Basis of the initial simplex tableau)

In the initial simplex tableau, the pivot column is the coefficient vector of \( x_3 \), namely \( a_3 \). The coefficients in the pivot column are the coordinates of \( a_3 \) relative to the basis \( B \).

After pivoting in the initial simplex tableau, we decided that \( s_2 \) is leaving the solution as \( x_3 \) is entering the solution. In the second simplex tableau, the coefficient vectors that are in the ordered basis \( B' \) are

\[ a_4 = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}, \quad a_3 = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 2 \end{bmatrix} \] (25)

\[ B' = (a_4, a_3) \] (Basis of the second simplex tableau)

Without applying elementary row operations on the initial simplex tableau, we apply the change of basis to construct the second tableau. To get the transition matrix \( P^{-1} \), the matrix \([B':B] \) is formed and Gauss-Jordan Elimination is used to rewrite \([B':B] \) as \([I_n:P^{-1}] \).

\[ [B':B] = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 2 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \ldots \]

\[ [I_n:P^{-1}] = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 1/2 \end{bmatrix} \] (26)

Transition matrix from \( B \) to \( B' \) is then

\[ P^{-1} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1/2 \end{bmatrix} \] (27)

To construct the second tableau in Table 2, we multiply the augmented matrix in the initial tableau with the transition matrix when the basis is changing from \( B \) to \( B' \). So we get the augmented matrix of the second tableau

\[ P^{-1} \cdot AUGMENTED\ MATRIX = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 1 & 2 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 8 & 1/2 & 1 & 0 & 1 & 2 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 8 & 1 & 2 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 6 & 1/2 & 1 & 0 & 1/2 \end{bmatrix} \] (28)

Table 2: Second simplex tableau

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>( c_B )</th>
<th>BASIC</th>
<th>( c_j )</th>
<th>2</th>
<th>1</th>
<th>3</th>
<th>0</th>
<th>0</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>( x_B )</td>
<td>( x_1 )</td>
<td>( x_2 )</td>
<td>( x_3 )</td>
<td>( s_1 )</td>
<td>( s_2 )</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0</td>
<td>( s_1 )</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>( x_3 )</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>1/2</td>
<td>1/2</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1/2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>( z_j )</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>3/2</td>
<td>3/2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>3/2</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>( z_j - c_j )</td>
<td>-----</td>
<td>-1/2</td>
<td>1/2</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>3/2</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Recall that in the initial simplex tableau the coefficients in the pivot column are the coordinates of \( a_3 \) relative to the basis \( B \). But for the second simplex tableau we have another basis \( B' \). The coefficient vector of \( x_3 \) in the second simplex tableau gives us the coordinates of \( a_3 \) relative to the basis \( B' \).

First, \( a_3 \) is written as a linear combination of \( a_4 \) and \( a_3 \).

\[ (0,2) = c_1(1,0) + c_2(0,2) \] (29)

Then, the following system of linear equations is obtained:

\[ c_1 = 0 \]

\[ 2c_2 = 2 \] (30)
We can see that
\[
\begin{bmatrix}
  c_1 \\
  c_2
\end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix}
  0 \\
  1
\end{bmatrix}
\]
(31)

So \([a_3]_{B'}\) is
\[
[a_3]_{B'} = \begin{bmatrix}
  0 \\
  1
\end{bmatrix}
\]
(32)
The same holds for the coefficient vectors of \(x_1, x_2, s_1\) and \(s_2\) as well.

After pivoting in the second simplex tableau, we decided that \(s_1\) is departing from the solution as \(x_1\) is entering the solution. In the third simplex tableau, the coefficient vectors that are in the ordered basis \(B''\) are
\[
a_1 = \begin{bmatrix}
  1 \\
  1
\end{bmatrix}
a_3 = \begin{bmatrix}
  0 \\
  2
\end{bmatrix}
\]
(33)

\(B'' = (a_1, a_3)\) (Basis of the third simplex tableau)

Without applying elementary row operations on the second simplex tableau, we apply the change of basis to construct the third tableau. To get the transition matrix \(P'^{(−1)}\), the matrix \([B'': B']\) is formed and Gauss-Jordan Elimination is used to rewrite \([B'': B']\) as \([I_n: P'^{(−1)}]\).

\[
\begin{bmatrix}
  B'': B'
\end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix}
  1 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\
  1 & 2 & 0 & 2
\end{bmatrix}
\]

\[
[I_n: P'^{(−1)}] = \begin{bmatrix}
  1 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\
  0 & 1 & -1/2 & 1
\end{bmatrix}
\]
(34)

Transition matrix from \(B'\) to \(B''\) is then
\[
P'^{(−1)} = \begin{bmatrix}
  1 & 0 \\
  -1/2 & 1
\end{bmatrix}
\]
(35)

To construct the third tableau in Table 3, we multiply the augmented matrix in the second tableau with the transition matrix when the basis is changing from \(B'\) to \(B''\). So we get the augmented matrix of the third tableau
\[
P'^{(−1)} \cdot AUGMENTED\ MATRIX = \begin{bmatrix}
  1 & 0 \\
  -1/2 & 1
\end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix}
  8 & 1 & 2 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\
  16 & 1/2 & 1/2 & 1 & 0 & 1/2
\end{bmatrix} = \\
\begin{bmatrix}
  8 & 1 & 2 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\
  2 & 0 & -1/2 & 1 & -1/2 & 1/2
\end{bmatrix}
\]
(36)

In the third tableau there are no negative elements in the bottom row \(z_j − c_j\). So the optimal solution is 22 monetary units (subsequently referred to as m.u.).

\[
(x_1, x_2, x_3, s_1, s_2) = (8, 0, 2, 0, 0)
\]
(37)

\[
z_{max} = 2x_1 + x_2 + 3x_3 = 2 \cdot 8 + 1 \cdot 0 + 3 \cdot 2 = 22 \text{ m.u.}
\]
(38)

Table 3: Third (optimal) simplex tableau

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>(c_B)</th>
<th>BASIC</th>
<th>(c_j)</th>
<th>2</th>
<th>1</th>
<th>3</th>
<th>0</th>
<th>0</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>(x_1)</td>
<td>(x_2)</td>
<td>(x_3)</td>
<td>(s_1)</td>
<td>(s_2)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>(x_1)</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>(x_2)</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>-1/2</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>-1/2</td>
<td>1/2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(z_j)</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>5/2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>1/2</td>
<td>3/2</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(z_j − c_j)</td>
<td>-----</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>3/2</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1/2</td>
<td>3/2</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

NO NEGATIVE ELEMENTS IN \(z_j − c_j\)
Recall that in the initial simplex tableau the coefficients in the pivot column are the coordinates of \( a_3 \) relative to the basis \( B \). But for the third simplex tableau we have another basis \( B'' \). The coefficient vector of \( x_3 \) in the third simplex tableau gives us the coordinates of \( a_3 \) relative to the basis \( B'' \).

First, \( a_3 \) is written as a linear combination of \( a_1 \) and \( a_3 \).

\[
(0,2) = c_1(1,1) + c_2(0,2)
\]  

(39)

Then, the following system of linear equations is obtained.

\[
c_1 = 0 \\
c_1 + 2c_2 = 2
\]  

(40)

We can see that

\[
\begin{bmatrix}
c_1 \\
c_2
\end{bmatrix} = 
\begin{bmatrix}
0 \\
1
\end{bmatrix}
\]  

(41)

So \([a_3]_{B''}\) is

\[
[a_3]_{B''} = 
\begin{bmatrix}
0 \\
1
\end{bmatrix}
\]  

(42)

The same holds for the coefficient vectors of \( x_1, x_2, s_1 \) and \( s_2 \) as well.

1 Economic interpretation of the coordinate vectors in the optimal simplex tableau

The optimal simplex tableau in Table 3 shows that 8 units of \( x_1 \) and 2 units of \( x_3 \) should be produced to get 22 m.u. \( x_2 \) is a nonbasic variable which means that no unit of \( x_2 \) should be produced.

Let \( y_2 \) be the coordinate vector of \( a_2 \) relative to the basis \( B'' \) in the optimal simplex tableau. So \( y_2 \) is

\[
y_2 = \begin{bmatrix} 2 \\ -1/2 \end{bmatrix} = [a_2]_{B''}
\]  

(43)

and we can obtain \( a_2 \) by

\[
B''y_2 = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 2 \\ -1/2 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 2 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} = a_2
\]  

(44)

\( a_2 \) can be represented by a linear combination of \( a_1 \) and \( a_3 \).

\[
a_2 = 2a_1 - \frac{1}{2}a_3
\]  

(45)

(45) tells us how much more or less we should produce of \( x_1 \) and \( x_3 \) if we want to produce one unit of \( x_2 \).

In the simplex algorithm basic variables can be represented by

\[
x_B = (B)^{-1}b - \sum_{j \in J}[y_j]x_j
\]  

(46)

where \( J \) is the set of the indices of the nonbasic variables [5]. Therefore, we can get

\[
\frac{\partial x_B}{\partial x_j} = -y_j
\]  

(47)

where \((-y_j)\) shows the rate of change of the basic variables as a function of the nonbasic variable \( x_j \). If we increase \( x_j \) by one unit, the \( i \)th basic variable \( x_{Bi} \) should be decreased by an amount \( y_{ij} \). This can be expressed by

\[
\frac{\partial x_{Bi}}{\partial x_j} = -y_{ij}
\]  

(48)

Going back to Example 3, we have

\[
\frac{\partial x_B}{\partial x_2} = -y_2 = \begin{bmatrix} -y_{12} \\ -y_{22} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} -2 \\ 1/2 \end{bmatrix}
\]  

(49)
(49) tells us that if we want to produce one unit of $x_2$, we should decrease the production of $x_1$ by 2 units and increase the production of $x_3$ by $\frac{1}{2}$ unit. Substituting these values for $x_1, x_2$ and $x_3$ in the constraints of Example 3, we see that
\[
x_1 + 2x_2 \leq 8 \Rightarrow (8 - 2) + 2 \cdot 1 = 8
\]
\[
x_1 + x_2 + 2x_3 \leq 12 \Rightarrow (8 - 2) + 1 + 2(2 + 1/2) = 12
\]
are satisfied in equality. But if we substitute these values in the objective function we see that
\[
z_{\text{max}} = 2x_1 + x_2 + 3x_3 = 2(8 - 2) + 1 \cdot 1 + 3(2 + 1/2) = 41/2 \text{ m.u.} \tag{51}
\]
gives us less profit than before. To make the same profit as before, we should increase the marginal profit of $x_2$. By using the trick $z_j = c_j + (z_j - c_j)$ we can calculate how much the new marginal profit of $x_2$ should be to make the same profit as before
\[
z_2 = c_2 + (z_2 - c_2) = 1 + 3/2 = 5/2 \text{ m.u.} \tag{52}
\]
(52) tells us that the marginal profit should be $5/2$ m.u. to make the same profit as before because
\[
z_{\text{max}} = 2x_1 + 5/2x_2 + 3x_3 = 2(8 - 2) + 5/2 \cdot 1 + 3(2 + 1/2) = 22 \text{ m.u.} \tag{53}
\]
5. Conclusion

Every time the simplex algorithm calculates the next tableau, coefficient matrix of the original standard problem is multiplied by the inverse of the basis matrix of the actual tableau by using the formula $B^{-1}a_j = y_j$. This paper shows that the next tableau can be calculated by multiplying the transition matrix by the actual augmented matrix by using the formula $P^{-1}y_j = y'_j$.

In each tableau, the coordinate vector of a variable gives us the coordinates relative to the actual basis. In this paper, we made an economic interpretation of that coordinate vector.

6. Acknowledgements

I would like to express my special appreciation and thanks to Prof. Dr. Erhan Özdemir, who permitted me to use his unprinted lecture notes in Linear Algebra course at Istanbul University School of Business on which this paper is primarily based.

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Abstract
Following 1945, that is the Second World War, Europe faced a huge demographic increase in the number of births, known as baby-boom. Encouraged by the improvement of the living conditions after the devastating war, the return of the optimism, opening of the employment opportunities and the renewal of the idea about the family, this demographic trend entailed the so-called familism tide. In the mid 1960-ies however, demographic indicators in almost all European countries began to change suddenly. Massive development of contraception, increased birth control and family planning, as well as higher employment of women and their integration in the labour market, took place. As a result of these trends, in the 1970-ies European countries faced a considerable drop in fertility rates. This trend reached its peak during 1970-1980-ies when a dramatic drop in fertility rates took place, known as baby-bust. As a consequence, almost everywhere in Europe, the fertility rate dropped below the level needed for simple population reproduction or below 2.1 children per woman. Several related trends also contributed to the change in the demographic picture of Europe, such as: dropping birthrates, shrinking of the population, delay in births (increase in the age of birth of the first child), increase in the number of one-child families, as well as growth in the number of couples without children (universality of births is no longer present – at least 1 child per family). Similar trends are evidenced in the countries of Central and Eastern Europe (CIE), with one considerable difference – they took place around a decade later compared to the developed European countries. One common characteristic which shaped the demographic changes in CIE countries was the fact that they occurred simultaneously with the radical changes of the societal system from socialism towards democracy in the 1990-ies. Due to this, demographic changes in CIE countries gain in weight, are furthermore under the influence of the transitional processes and thus differ considerably compared to those in the developed countries. The differences are heavily attributable to two sets of factors: a) different institutional settings, especially in the family policies related to employment of women and child raising; and b) different effects of these family policies upon fertility rates and participation of women in the labour market. Given the above demographic trends, welfare states in Europe, adjust accordingly, predominantly through the policies and measures of family policy as one of the social policy domains. Following a detailed statistical analysis of demographic indicators in Europe, this paper will produce an analysis of the family policy responses to demographic trends based on the Esping-Andersens’ classification of welfare states: universal welfare states (Nordic countries); conservative welfare states (Continental European countries); liberal social states (Anglo-Saxon countries) and South-European social states (Mediterranean countries). A specific focus in the paper will be also given to the demographic trends and corresponding family policy developments in the Republic of Macedonia, as a country of South Europe. Cross-cutting issues in the analysis of the family policy models will be: the extent to which family policies are gender-neutral or gender-specific (are they women-friendly and do they promote active fatherhood?), measures for harmonization of work and family life (are women appropriately supported in performing their roles of mothers and active participants in the labour market at the same time) and the scope in which family policy is being designed to serve the purposes of population policy (how the concern and the interest of the state to increase fertility rates shapes family policy?).

Keywords: family, fertility, welfare states, family policy models.
Introduction

Demographic Changes in Europe

Following 1945, that is the Second World War, Europe faced a huge demographic increase in the number of births, known as baby-boom. Encouraged by the improvement of the living conditions after the devastating war, the return of the optimism, opening of the employment opportunities and the renewal of the idea about the family, this demographic trend entailed the so-called familism tide. In the mid 1960-ies however, demographic indicators in almost all European countries began to change suddenly. Massive development of contraception, increased birth control and family planning, as well as higher employment of women and their integration in the labour market, took place. As a result of these trends, in the 1970-ies European countries faced a considerable drop in fertility rates. This trend reached its peak during 1970-1980-ies when a dramatic drop in fertility rates took place, known as baby-bust. As a consequence, almost everywhere in Europe, the fertility rate dropped below the level needed for simple population reproduction or below 2.1 children per woman. Several related trends also contributed to the change in the demographic picture of Europe, such as: dropping birthrates, shrinking of the population, delay in births (increase in the age of birth of the first child), increase in the number of one-child families, as well as growth in the number of couples without children (universality of births is no longer present – at least 1 child per family) (Bomarova, 2014).

1.1. Trends in Fertility in the Developed European Countries

As a consequence of the fertility rate below the level required for population reproduction evidenced in the last few decades, and initiated in the 1960-ies and 1970-ies, European countries face a population decrease challenge due to the expectation that the low fertility may reduce the number of potential parents. It is assumed that if such low fertility rates are maintained for a longer period of time together with low mortality rates, they may have dramatic implications in terms of reducing the annual number of births and the number of population by half, in less than 5 decades (Kohler, Billari, Ortega, 2006).

Fertility below the reproduction levels is common in the world, with Europe being the world leader in this trend. From average total fertility rate of 2.17 in the period 1970-1975, total fertility rate in Europe decreased to 1.54 in the period 2005-2010 (UN, 2013). In 2015, the total fertility rate in the EU-28 was 1.58 live births per woman. The EU-28’s fertility rate increased from a low of 1.46 in 2001 and 2002 to a relative high of 1.62 in 2010, subsequently followed by a slight decrease to 1.55 in 2013 before a modest rebound in 2014. The mean age of women at childbirth continued to rise between 2001 and 2015, from an average of 29.0 to 30.5 years. One partial explanation for the increase in the fertility rate is that it may have been related to a catching-up process: following the trend to give birth later in life (witnessed by the increase in the mean age of women at childbirth), the total fertility rate might have declined first, before a subsequent recovery. Among the EU Member States, France reported the highest fertility rate in 2015, with 1.96 live births per woman. By contrast, the lowest fertility rates in 2015 were recorded in Portugal (1.31 live births per woman), Poland and Cyprus (both 1.32 live births per woman), Greece and Spain (both 1.33 live births per woman). In most of the EU Member States, the total fertility rate declined considerably between 1980 and 2000–2003: by 2000, values had fallen below 1.30 in Bulgaria, the Czech Republic, Greece, Spain, Italy, Latvia, Slovenia and Slovakia. After reaching a low point between 2000 and 2003, the total fertility rate increased in most Member States and by 2015, all of them reported total fertility rates that were above 1.30.¹

In 2015, some of the countries with the highest total fertility rates also had a relatively high mean age of women at the birth of their first child. Four different groups of EU Member States can be broadly identified based on their position with respect to the EU-28 averages. The first group is composed of Denmark, Ireland, the Netherlands and Sweden, where both the total fertility rate and the mean age of women at the birth of their first child were above the EU-28 average. A second group is made up of most of the countries that joined the EU in 2004 or more recently: both their total fertility rates and mean ages of women at the birth of their first child were below the EU-28 averages, as was also the case in the Macedonia and Serbia. A third group composed of Germany, Greece, Spain, Italy, Cyprus, Luxembourg, Austria and Portugal, as well as Switzerland recorded a higher than average mean age of women at the birth of their first child but a lower total fertility rate than the EU-28 average. The fourth group was composed of the three Baltic Member States, Belgium, France, Romania, Finland and the United Kingdom, as well as Albania (2014 data for the mean age of women at birth of first child), Norway

and Iceland; in each of these, the total fertility rate was higher than the EU-28 average but the mean age of women at the birth of their first child was below the EU-28 average.¹

1.2. Trends in Fertility in the Countries of Central and Eastern Europe

Similar trends are evidenced in the countries of Central and Eastern Europe (CIE), with one considerable difference – they took place around a decade later compared to the developed European countries. One common characteristic which shaped the demographic changes in CIE countries was the fact that they occurred simultaneously with the radical changes of the societal system from socialism towards democracy in the 1990-ties. Due to this, demographic changes in CIE countries gain in weight, are furthermore under the influence of the transitional processes and thus differ considerably compared to those in the developed countries. According to Neyer (2006) the differences are heavily attributable to two sets of factors: a) different institutional settings, especially in the family policies related to employment of women and child raising; and b) different effects of these family policies upon fertility rates and participation of women in the labour market.

In the period from 1990-2000 sudden and drastic fall in fertility in these countries was not only a temporary trend, but continued in the 21st century. In transitional countries the drop in fertility rates is attributed to several factors: socio-economic changes, urbanizations, impoverishment of population, emancipation of women and increased labour market participation of women. In 1990s total fertility rate is around the level required for population reproduction, that is around 2.1 in almost all CEE countries, except Slovenia, Croatia, Bosnia and Herzegovina where this rate was lower than 2.1. In 2000, total fertility rate is below 1.4 in almost all countries, except Albania, Macedonia, Serbia and Montenegro. These countries still evidence decrease in the total fertility rate, although they are traditionally high fertility countries (Philipov, 2003). Evidence of the rapid decrease in fertility rate and its maintenance on low levels is the data that in 2010 total fertility rate in CEE countries (1.4) is even lower than the EU27 average (1.59).

Mean age of women at first birth in these countries also considerably and suddenly increases. Women tended to have their first birth quite early during the communist era, on average between 22 and 24 years of age. With the beginning of the transition in the early 1990s women started to postpone childbearing and the mean age of women at first birth started to rise and did so throughout the remainder of the 1990s and the 2000s. The increase in the mean age of women at first birth was most pronounced in Central Europe but slow in Eastern Europe. For instance, in the Czech Republic it grew from age 22.5 in 1990 to 27.6 in 2010; in the Russian Federation increased from 22.7 only to 24.8 during the same period. In most countries the mean age of women at first birth growth slackened in the early 2010s (Frejka, Gieten-Basten, 2016).

It may be concluded that CEE countries basically undergo same demographic trends related to fertility as developed European countries. The only specific difference is that these trends in CEE countries take place considerably later, but with a higher intensity and within a shorter time period compared to the developed countries.

Given the above demographic trends, welfare states in Europe, adjust accordingly, predominantly through the policies and measures of family policy as one of the social policy domains. Modalities in which these changes take place will be elaborated further in this paper.

2. Models of Family Policy According to Types of Welfare States

Family policy is an integral part, more specifically a separate domain of social policy in every welfare state. Hence, the way in which family policies are created depends on the type of the welfare state in which those policies are designed. According to Fukuda (2003), there are great differences between countries in terms of family policies. This is mainly because family policies are not designed solely under the influence of economic and demographic factors, but they also depend on cultural traditions and norms that implicitly determine the type of relationship between parents and children in a society. Within the welfare state, family policy is a domain that is less precisely defined than, for example, health care or social security. This comes as a result of the fact that in some countries the family is seen as a private institution in which society must not

¹ - He was born on Wednesday, 22nd of September, 1842. He was of moderate conduct when he was young before coming to the throne. He was sworn as a sultan in the 31st of August, 1876 when he was 34 years old. He remained the sultan for about 33 years until the 14th of April, 1909. He adopted a balanced policy with the European states to avoid wars. He established a strong intelligence body to protect the Ottoman state from plots and treacheries schemed by the European states. He adopted the Islamic League Policy to unite the Islamic Nation. He died on the 10th of February, 1918. (Al-Jundî, 1987).
interfere, except in particular crisis situations. Therefore, in most countries, there is no separate family legislation, nor an administrative structure that would manage this area of social policy.

The professional literature notes attempts of creating typology of welfare states. One of the most famous typologies is of Esping-Andersen, where welfare states are grouped into four groups (categories): universal welfare states (Nordic countries), conservative welfare states (continental European countries), liberal welfare states (Anglo-Saxon countries) and southern European welfare states (Mediterranean countries). This typology is based on the principle of decomodification, more precisely, the extent to which the welfare state reduces the dependence of the worker from the market by guaranteeing his right to leave the labour market without seriously jeopardizing his survival. The decomodification goes hand in hand with defeminisation, that is, the extent to which the welfare state releases the family/household from the obligations of social protection.

According to feminists analysis of welfare states this classification is less reliable when taking into account family, family policies and commodification of a woman. Unlike the typology of Esping-Andersen who sees the family as a community, the feminist research distinguishes between two types of relationships from which is comprised: partnership and parenting. Hence, the classification of welfare states in terms of family policies, requires to focus on the way policies regulate partnership and parenting, on the availability of social services for care, and on gender aspects of the policies of the welfare state (Nesser, 2003).

Basically, the existing typologies of welfare states may indicate that women's role in the labour market, family policies or maternity benefits are not sufficiently taken into account. Therefore, special typologies of family policy have been developed which, as a starting point, have exactly the role of the woman, and above all her place in paid and unpaid work (Pulizz, 1999).

Gautier (2002) based on the analysis of the characteristics of the types of welfare states from the classification of Esping-Andersen, made the appropriate classification of states according to the model of family policy in them. The characteristics of these models will be analysed bellow.

2.1. Scandinavian model of family policy

Characteristics of the welfare state. Public policies in the Scandinavian countries (Denmark, Finland, Sweden, Norway) aim to cover the social and labour market risks and maintain a high standard of living for all. Social benefits are obtained on the basis of individual civil rights. The goal is social integration, equality and access to social rights by providing social security for all citizens. Comprehensive social services contribute to the defamilization of social protection (reducing the contribution of the family to social protection), that is, the Scandinavian (Nordic) model of a welfare state is characterized by high-quality public services, universal service, the dominant role of the state as a provider of social services and their availability to all.

Family policy in Scandinavian countries. Family policies in the Scandinavian countries are oriented towards facilitating maternal employment, releasing the mother from her caretaking work, as well as changing gender roles with regard to foster care and employment. Accommodation in public institutions for children of all age groups is widely available at very low prices. Parental leave is regulated to allow parents to take care of their children without deteriorating their living standards or jeopardising employment. On the whole, family support is based on providing more social services than cash benefits, although all Scandinavian countries have increased social transfers over the last decades (Esping-Andersen, 2002). This partially coincides with the change in public policies towards subsidizing family care for children. Although Finland and Norway have relaxed the orientation towards employment and gender equality in their family policies by introducing cash benefits for home care, they did not eliminated the right of parents and children for accommodation in a public care institution.

The main goal of family policies in the Nordic countries is redistribution of expenses for children among different population groups and increasing gender equality. Also, family policy is considered to be a central instrument for promotion of participation of women in the labour market and for adjusting the family with the working life. As a result of this, the participation of a woman with a children under the age of three on the labour market in the Nordic countries is among the highest in Europe (86% in Sweden, 84% in Denmark) (Forssen, 1998). The high percentage of women's labour market participation is enabled by a comprehensive day care system. In Finland, for example, at the request of parents, a child can be accommodated in day care even when both parents are unemployed. Therefore, the Nordic model is called a woman friendly model (Leira, 1993). In Norway, day care services are so important that regardless of whether the day care centers
or kindergartens are public or private, as long as they are approved by the government, they receive public subsidies (Hardso, Schone 2005).

In the Scandinavian countries, the movement of so-called state feminism influences significantly on family policy. Namely, public benefits for families with dual—breadwinner “dual-breadwinner model” (both men and women participate in the labour market) and for the protection of children is developed in a political context in which women’s equality is valued. In doing so, family policies are not directed only at mothers, but also towards mothers and towards fathers, and efforts are being made to encourage men to take up most of housework, especially with regard to child care (Crompton, Linnette, 2005), which is done by introducing compulsory quotas for fathers or other benefits related to childcare as individual rights reserved only to them. By establishing conditions for combining double labour market participation with dual parenting, the Nordic countries made a significant shift from social security based on the market to social security based on the ideology of gender equality. These states understand unpaid family protection as an individual right that co-exists with the right to work, and not as an external factor that impedes the participation in the labour market (Bradshan, Khatland, 2006).

The Nordic countries largely depend on the public sector regarding help of parents to reconcile family and working life. Not only is the participation of women in the labour market encouraged, but also the redistribution of care-giving function in society and in the family (Korpi, 2000).

Precisely because of such family policy, the employment rate of women is very high, as there are numerous programs to support motherhood, flexible working practices, and work place safety measures after childbirth, as well as well-developed child care services from the earliest age (0-2 years) to school age, provided on a daily basis throughout the week. Also, through policies for activation of the labour market, women are encouraged to be employed before childbearing, in order to provide an inclusive labour market and to prevent social exclusion (Bovberg, 2005).

2.2. A conservative model of family policy

Characteristics of the welfare state. The continental European countries (Germany, the Netherlands, Ireland, France) angle their social policies to maintain the status of society and preserve traditional family forms. Social benefits correspond to type of work and duration of contributions into the social security system, and are also dependent on marriage. Conservative states are largely based on familism, that is, the family as a provider of social welfare. This corporate model is dominated by the provision of social and economic well-being by men. The public sector is more involved in providing social protection through income transfers than through a direct offer of social services. Services are mostly provided by non-governmental organizations and the church.

Family policy in conservative states. Regarding family policy, the mother-housewife ideology assumes that care for children and the elderly is the primary responsibility of the woman (Borzhorst, 1994). Family policies are focused on the needs of families with two parents and the woman and her role in the family. In this regime, the rate of participation of mothers with children under the age of 3 in the labour market varies from country to country (Germany 40%, France 60%). These are lower rates than in the Nordic countries. This is partly due to unsatisfactory day care programs that usually offer half-day care and are not developed for children under 3 years of age. For example, in Germany, day care is usually shortened, not for the whole day, and only single families have access to this service (Forssen, 1998). Public policies prioritize private before public care. The policies for combining work with care-giving engagement are not sufficiently developed. Family benefits are significant, but the benefits of child care are low and insufficient. Directly or indirectly, family policies in these countries are guided by the approach that women caregivers are supported by male breadwinners (Nesser, 2003). In these countries, the male earner model contributes to the existence of a strong cultural resistance to the feminization of a man’s life which would be necessary for the development of policies that would contribute to greater gender equality (Bradshan, Khatland, 2006).

Continental European countries apply general measures for family support (Korpi, 2000). Harmonization of working and family life is only partially supported. Women's participation in the labour market is on medium or low level, and women usually choose to work part-time because their contribution to the family budget is of secondary importance (Borja, 2001). These states support the model of a mother caregiver/father breadwinner), where the main responsibility for care is given to the woman, while the career and status of the male breadwinner is protected through laws related to the labour market. Unlike the Scandinavian countries, in the Continental active fatherhood is not supported.
2.3. Liberal model of family policy

Characteristics of the welfare state. Liberal social states (USA, Australia, UK) support market-oriented individualism through minimum public social benefits and promotion of private and market patterns of social protection. Social benefits are usually based on income checks and reserved for the poorest. Social protection depends on the market and familism. The state plays a very small role as a provider of social services.

Family Policy in Liberal States. In the domain of family policy, there are no satisfactory measures to facilitate the conflict of women between work and childcare. Benefits related to motherhood (for example, maternity leave) and daily care for family members are minimal. Daily care in general is left to the private sector. Part of the day care services are subsidized and supervised by the state, but primarily for children under some form of public protection. On the other hand, despite the weaknesses and lack of public child care services, more than half of mothers with children under the age of 3 are employed, which shows that most of the child care functions are performed unofficially, usually through social and family networks of informal support (Forsyen, 1998).

In the liberal model family policy relies more on individual solutions that the family finds on the market than on state programs, where despite families at the top of income distribution, families with medium and low income have limited opportunities to combine paid work with a care-giving family function (Hartmann, Hegnigsch, Lovell, 2007).

Anglo-Saxon countries have a market-oriented model in which families depend on market resources or family relationships with regard to child care (Korpi, 2000). In these countries, the underdeveloped maternity leave and parental leave are compensated by a very flexible labor market. Flexible working practices in the private sector (flexible working time, part-time volunteer work, etc.) help women in easier integration on the labour market after childbirth (Bovberg, 2005). However, residual social protection and the absence of public childcare services marginalizes low-skilled workers and single-parent families (Jansaite, 2006). Basically, family policy encourages informal unpaid care for children and the elderly in the family and does not support active fatherhood (there are no parental leave opportunities for the father). In the absence of public family benefits, family policies are created by companies/employers resulting in the non-uniformity, inconsistency, and differences in access to these benefits.

2.4. South European model of family policy

Characteristics of the welfare state. Mediterranean social states (Italy, Portugal, Spain, Greece) are sometimes considered as part of the conservative welfare states, but because of their strong orientation towards familism they are treated as a separate group of social states. Due to the large role of the family in the provision of social protection, this model of a welfare state is also called a model of family care. Pluralism in the provision of social services by the state, but also by the non-governmental and private sectors is characteristic.

Family policy in South European countries. South-European countries are characterized by strong family-oriented values associated with a low degree of individualization and a lack of explicit family policies as evidenced by the limited number of social benefits for families. Public services for children are unsatisfactory, as are family allowances and the benefits of adjusting family and working life, so that families are left to themselves in meeting their needs. Families in these countries in comparison to other European countries are more generational, with greater share of young people living with their parents, the rates of extramarital couples are lower, and the number of children born out of wedlock, the rates of divorce and single families is lower, the intergenerational solidarity is stronger and dependence when it comes to providing care for children and the elderly for whom adult women have a traditional and moral obligation to care for (Flauler, 2000).

In such conditions, one cannot be claim that the welfare state in south European countries is based solely on the model of one breadwinner, but rather on the entire family as the unit from which they provide income and resources, to which each member contributes. The figure of the husband as the provider of family existence is not central, but of the family and family solidarity and of the primary role of women (married women and mothers) in providing informal protection. According to Esping-Andersen (1999), this familyism (familism) goes hand in hand with a passive and underdeveloped family policy. Thus, family policy in southern European countries implicitly fosters and reproduces the ideological assumption for the family as the main provider of social welfare in society.

Child care services are not very well developed. The public offer of care-giving services for children under 3 years old as well for older children (except in Italy) is insufficient, and the cost of child care is high. Parental leave is unpaid. Children's
allowances are not universally available and are very low (Esping-Andersen, 2002). And while around 33% of children under 3 years of age are covered in a private or public form of a pre-school institution in the developed Nordic countries or in the United Kingdom, in Greece, Italy, Spain this percentage is around 10% (Oberlin, 2008).

There are insufficient measures to support women's employment in these countries, hence maternity employees must rely on informal family assistance. Flexible working practices (Borja, 2001) are also missing, and are observed as a threat to the protected position male breadwinner.

2.5. The model of family policy in the post-communist countries of Central and Eastern Europe

Characteristics of the welfare state. The Professional literature increasingly introduces the notion and thus forms another model of social policy - characteristic of post-communist countries. These countries share common transitional experiences from state socialism to a market economy. Within this process, a transition from universal benefits and services toward completely different solutions has been made to meet social needs such as the market, civil society and the family, in addition to the state. Gradual inspection of income and targeting of social benefits is introduced. These countries have similar demographic, economic and social challenges from the transition, but the way they respond to these challenges differs depending on the social, political and cultural context. Because of these differences, this model is also called a hybrid model of a welfare state.

In essence, in constructing models welfare state, the CEE countries, are increasingly inspired by the pattern of international financial organizations such as the International Monetary Fund and the World Bank, rather than the European model (Manabu, 2005).

Family policy in post-communist countries. These countries are characterized by a non-coherent family policy, a lack of competent institutional structures and adequate financial resources. Family policy is often used to achieve pro-natal goals, and women mothers are discriminated against in the labour market (Kutsar, Ulikool, 2005).

Also, in the CEE countries, the much smaller involvement of fathers in childcare and the use of public provisions for parental leave for this purpose is characteristic. Family policy itself is based on supporting the mother's role in caring for members of the family "mothers as caregiver model" rather than active paternity of fathers.

According to Hobson and Fahlen (2009), CEE countries have the smallest opportunities to achieve a balance between family and work life due to the multiple factors: lower job protection, lack of policies designed to support the father in his family role as well as stronger norms according to which the role of a man is to secure the family's existence. As for mothers in these countries, they have the smallest opportunities to achieve this balance between working and family life.

In the transformation of the social system in the countries of this group, family politics leans towards the liberal model (opportunities for market satisfaction of the needs of childcare and the elderly are opened up), yet they retain much of the features of the Scandinavian model (primarily in relation of public benefits), while the dominant informal family protection makes this model much similar to the model of family care characteristic for the countries of South Europe.

References

Instructional Design Model for Applying Flipped Learning in Higher Education Institutions

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Abstract

The era of globalization, growth and development of information and communication technology (ICT) and its application to learning and teaching has influence on our modern generation students, making the teaching traditional methods are useless. Changing familiar instructing methods can be a challenge available for instructors as a way to ignite our students’ curiosity and make our teaching materials more engaging and effective. Recently, the flipped learning model has been recognized by educators as an effective instructional approach (Hwang, & Wang 2015), it is a pedagogical approach in which the typical lecture and activities elements of a course are reversed, where students individually watch online lectures prior to class and then engage in classroom learning activities interacting with peers and instructors. Flipped learning model helps instructor to focus more on student-centered learning, which includes any use of the technology to take advantage of learning in the classroom, so that the instructor can spend more time interacting with the students instead of lecturing. The purpose of this study is to suggest instructional design (ID) model for teaching undergraduate courses applying the flipped learning model. Research on ID models may be classified into three different types: model development, model validation, and model use. This study concerned the first one of these, and it is based on the ADDIE, Dick and Carey model. The process begins with planning, followed by programming, then Coaching. Assessing and evaluating occur continually throughout the process and act as valuable mechanisms for monitoring progress and identifying achievement. At each stage of the process, instructors base their decisions on the requirements of the course curriculum, and, equally importantly, on their students’ needs.

Keywords: Flipped Learning, Flipped Classroom, Flipped Pillars, Information Communication Technology (ICT), Instructional Design (ID).

Introduction

Information Communication technologies play a more important role in the early part of the 21st century than they have ever done before. There are a number of reasons for this. Technology is taking its rightful place in the society now, in the workplace, education, and home. In fact, the changes that are taking place all around us are due to the prevalence of technology in our environment. Information communication technologies are helping people to work faster, more intelligently, more efficiently and more productively than ever before (Collins, & Halverson, 2010). However, the effect of the new technologies in our educational institutions is not as profound as it might be; there are still very many instructors who are uncomfortable in the ICT controlled environment (Marshall, & Ruohonen, 2013; Inan, & Lowther, 2010; Collins, & Halverson, 2010). They prefer to use the traditional teaching aids even when multimedia application would be enjoyable and more effective class-teaching means. They still convinced that they are the only major source of knowledge and they are not admitting that instructors in modern classrooms are no longer lecturers, they are facilitators. They need to teach their learners how to gain information and how to select and use them. They need to implement student-centered learning approaches in their instruction (McCarthy, 2015). In addition, because “the whole education system is moving towards a better support of individual abilities and self-directed play a much bigger role than in the past” (Marshall, & Ruohonen, 2013), they need to create a learning environment that supports individuals to learn what they need to know or to do. They need to integrate technology in their instructional design and classroom, just knowing how to use a computer and technology hardware is not enough. Instead, as Ertmer & Ottenbreit (2010) said:

Teaching with technology requires instructors to expand their knowledge of pedagogical practices across multiple aspects of the planning, implementation, and evaluation processes. (Ertmer & Ottenbreit 2010, p. 264)
Higher Education institutions are facing the pressures from globalization and the development of information and communication technology (ICT), which demand experience with technology, different skills, and a different learning experience. These demands place higher education institutions in a difficult position, and to a certain extent they are forced to explore new delivery modes that accommodate learner needs in the 21st century. However, changing familiar teaching methods can be a challenge available for instructors as a way to ignite our students’ curiosity and make our teaching materials more engaging and effective.

Recently, the flipped learning model has been recognized by educators as an effective instructional approach (Hwang, & Wang 2015), (Brame, C. 2013), (Berrett D 2012). It is an instructional approach helps instructor to focus more on student-centered learning, which includes any use of the technology to take advantage of learning in the classroom, so that the instructor can spend more time interacting with the students instead of lecturing. It can improve learning by encouraging reflection instead of mere reaction, and by emphasizing results rather than attendance. Through communication, learning becomes an active process where everybody involved in the learning experience has to constantly contribute to the learning process by sharing his or her thoughts and ideas to the class discussion. Critical thinking and collaborative knowledge construction creates an empowering learning process.

The flipped learning model meets the needs of learners in the 21st century, and facilitates a learning experience that equips learners with the necessary skills and attitudes (Lee, J., Lim, C. & Kim, H. 2017). Higher education institutions can therefore justify investment in this delivery mode. But, instruction needs to be clarified, because not all instruction is effective, "Effective instruction is instruction that enables students to acquire specified skills, knowledge, and attitudes" (Reiser & Dick, 1996). The role of instructor and what it can accomplish as well as its limitations must be understood.

This study suggests instructional design (ID) model for teaching undergraduate courses applying the flipped learning model. Research on ID models may be classified into three different types: model development, model validation, and model use. This study concerned the first one of these, and it is based on the ADDIE, Dick and Carey model. The process begins with planning, followed by programming, then Coaching. Assessing and evaluating occur continually throughout the process and act as valuable mechanisms for monitoring progress and identifying achievement. At each stage of the process, instructors base their decisions on the requirements of the course curriculum, and, equally importantly, on their students' needs.

Core Concept

First I will inspect four core concepts that are needed for this article: Instructional design, Flipped Learning, Flipped Classroom and Flipped Pillars.

Instructional Design

In general design is a systematic planning process prior to implementation. Or engineering something according to specific criteria and the term is used in many fields such as: decoration, interior design, engineering, industry, and trade. In the area of education, the instruction design is a modern science that has emerged in recent years of the twentieth century; it is concerned with understanding and improving the teaching and learning process. According to Gagné and Briggs (1974) instructional design augments learning by incorporating various strategies into courseware, for example structuring, ordering and sequencing content in particular ways, depending on the expected learning outcome. Seels and Glasgow (1998), state that "instructional design is the process of solving instructional problems by systematic analysis of the conditions for learning."

Berger and Kam (1996), point out that instructional design is the systematic process of translating general principles of learning and instruction into plans for instructional materials and learning. Jonassen (2001) defines Instructional design as "the application of theory to create effective instruction". In today's world, with an emphasis of lifelong learning, instructional design is not merely an organized approach to product or course development. It is instead "a generic process for analyzing human performance problems and determining appropriate solutions to such problem" (Richley et al. 2001, p. 29).

According to Charles (1983) instructional design is concerned with understanding, and applying methods of instruction. It is the process of deciding what methods of instruction are best for bringing about desired changes in student knowledge and skills for specific course content. It can be the process of translating general principles of learning and instruction into plans for instructional materials and learning. It is the entire process of analysis of learning needs and goals through to the
evaluation of the instructional program. Instructional design pays attention to instruction from the learner perspective than from the content perspective which is traditional approach (Isman, 2011). Instructional design is concerned with understanding, improving, and applying methods of instruction (Reigeluth, 2013).

Instructional design is a systematic approach to building a program, courses study units or lessons (Dick & Carey, 2001). It provides one framework for the systematic design, development and management of educational material and program. This systematic model of instructional design is often referred to as ADDIE model because it consists of five phases – analysis, design, development, implementation and evaluation.

**Flipped Learning in The Context of Flipped Classroom**

The Flipped Learning Network distinguishes between a Flipped Classroom and Flipped Learning. "These terms are not interchangeable. Flipping a class can, but does not necessarily, lead to Flipped Learning" (FLN, 2014). They believe that the flipped learning is the logical next step in the evaluation of the flipped classroom.

Flipped classroom pioneers Bergmann and Sams (2014) in their book Flipped Learning state that the original flipped classroom concept focused on delivering content and didn’t ensure student-centered learning, "we want to be clear that what has popularly become known as flipped classroom is only one basic form of flipped learning model" (Bergmann and Sams 2014, p. 5). The commonly known definition of the flipped classroom is an instructional strategy aimed at the use of modern technology and the Internet in a way that allows the instructor to prepare the lesson through video clips or audio or other media files, for the students to watch in their homes at their own pace using their computers or their smart phones or tablet devices before attending a class. While the class is devoted to discussions, projects and doing homework. The video is a key element in this type of education where the instructor set up video clip and shared with the students in a website or social networking (Bergmann and Sams, 2012). Bishop and Verleger (2013) define a flipped classroom as "an educational technique that consists of two parts: interactive group learning activities inside the classroom, and direct computer-based individual instruction outside the classroom." Flipped Learning Network provides an excellent definition to what the flipped learning is:

*Flipped Learning is a pedagogical approach in which direct instruction moves from the group learning space to the individual learning space, and the resulting group space is transformed into a dynamic, interactive learning environment where the educator guides students as they apply concepts and engage creatively in the subject matter.* (Flipped Learning Network, 2014)

**Theoretical Frameworks for The Flipped Learning Model**

According to the limited researchers’ review, the key elements of the flipped learning model are built on student-centered learning theories (Bishop, & Verleger, 2013; Hamdan, McKnight, McKnight, & Arfstrom, 2013), which based on constructivist learning theory (Attard, 2010). Constructivism, derived originally from the works of Piaget (1970), Bruner (1962, 1979), Vygotsky (1962, 1978), and Papert (1980, 1993), is both a philosophical and psychological approach based on social cognitivism that assumes that persons, behaviors and environments interact in reciprocal fashion (Schunk, 2012). The major theme behind constructivist theory is that learning is an active process during which learners construct new ideas or concepts based upon their current and past knowledge (Bruner, 2009). Modern theories of learning advocate the constructivist approach to learning, stressing that learning is a distinctive and personal process characterized by individuals developing knowledge and understanding by forming and refining concepts (Dick & Carey, 2001). Learning environments should therefore be provided with multiple knowledge representations and varied cases and context so as to facilitate the exploration of systems, environments and artifacts. Giving learners a sense of ownership over their learning helps them to take responsibility.

According to constructivism theory: learners construct knowledge (rather than acquiring it) individually through their interactions with the environment (including other learners) based on their current as well as prior knowledge, authentic experience, mental structures, and beliefs that are used to interpret objects and events in relation to the context and environment in which learning takes place; the learner is an active processor of information and creator of personal knowledge; instruction is a process of supporting that construction; knowledge is not purely objective; and the instructor’s major role is that of a facilitator of learning (Dick & Carey, 2001).
Constructivists put their emphasis on learning rather than instruction implying the need for rich learning environments for students to actively engage with the instructor as well as their peers and construct knowledge. Besides, constructivism requires the learning environment should be learner-centered (Anderson & Kanuka, 1999). Student-centered learning environment is seen as a major enabling element in constructivism.

Since the common constructivist ground is that learning is the process of learners actively constructing knowledge, traditional instructional methods, such as demonstrating, encouraging memorization and imitation are deemed incompatible with this point of view. Some constructivists propose that people learn most things better by means of participative activities such as writing, computer games, or multimedia composition than through traditional methods of directly teaching content.

Proponents of constructivism point out that education has been biased towards objectivism, treating learners as passive vessels into which knowledge is poured (Glasersfeld, 1989; Jonassen, 1991; Biggs, 1996; Dick & Carey, 2001; Bruner, 2009). However, instructors should take the role of coaches, facilitators, or even partners, with learners. It follows, as has been stated, that the goal of instructors should be the creation of environments that facilitate the construction of knowledge.

**Flip Pillars**

According to Hamdan, McKnight, McKnight, and Arfstrom (2013), flipped classroom must include the four pillars of flipped learning identified as the "four pillars of F-L-I-P", which are: Flexible Environment, Learning Culture, Intentional Content, and Professional Educator.

Flexible learning environments: where classroom or teaching space can be adapted and students choose when and where they learn, Teaching should be adapted to accommodate the specific needs of each learner. Instructors are also flexible in their expectations of student timelines for learning and how students are assessed.

A shift in learning culture: where "students move from being the product of teaching to the center of learning." The instructor no longer transmits information but rather facilitates and coaches students to explore topic in greater depth. They are supporters rather than educators. They provide an environment in which the learner feels valued and in receipt of learning which will be of benefits not only in the classroom context, but also in their lives outside of the classroom.

Intentional content: Instructors evaluate what they need to teach and what materials student should explore on their own outside of the classroom. They also decide on the methods of teaching and learning.

Professional educators: skill professional educators have the responsibility of setting the stage for successful learning. They "must determine when and how to shift direct instruction from the group to the individual learning space, and how to maximize the face-to-face time between instructors and students".

**Instructional Design Model Phases**

The instructional design model phases (Figure 1) presented here is based on the ADDIE model. The process begins with planning, followed by programming, and then Coaching. Evaluating occur continually throughout the process and act as valuable mechanisms for monitoring progress and identifying achievement. At each stage of the process, instructors base their decisions on the requirements of the course curriculum, and, equally importantly, on their students’ needs.

The diagram below shows the process of Planning, Programming, Coaching, and Evaluating. The steps will be described in sequence below.
Effective instructions don’t come together by accident. They require planning and analysis. You’ll produce the best instructional design if you first analyze two important areas, see Figure 1:

The analysis of learner characteristics:
- Entry Behaviors: These are skills associated with learning the goal that must already be mastered. What should learners already know how to do in order to be successful with the new instruction? In the last lesson we determined specific entry behaviors related to our goal, but there may also be some general entry behaviors that were overlooked in the instructional analysis yet would be useful to mention at this point.
- Prior Knowledge of the Topic Area: What must learners already know about the topic?
- Attitudes toward Content and Potential Delivery System: What are the learners’ impressions and attitudes about a topic and how it might be delivered? In other words, will they have any preconceived notions about the topic or the delivery system?
- Academic Motivation: How motivated are learners to learn the topic, and how much is it likely to interest them? We might want to ask potential learners these questions:
  - How relevant is the instructional goal to you?
  - What aspects of the goal interest you most?
  - How confident are you that you could successfully perform the goal?
  - How satisfying would it be to you to be able to perform the goal?
- Educational and Ability Levels: What are the achievements and general ability levels of the learners? This helps determine the kinds of instructional experiences they may have had and their ability to cope with new and different approaches to instruction.
- General Learning Preferences: What types of learning approaches do the learners prefer? For example, lecture, seminar, case study, small-group, or web-based?
Attitudes toward Educational institutions: How do the learners feel about their educational institutions? Do they have a positive view of management, instructors and peers, or are they cynical about them? With instructors, we may already know our students’ attitudes about school, but keep in mind that some students actually like school, while others may hate it. It’s important to know which kind of students we will be interacting with.

Group Characteristics: Is there heterogeneity within the target population? If so, we want to make sure to accommodate any diversity. Also, get a general overall impression of the target population based on interactions with them.

That may seem like a lot of information to collect about our learners, but it can aid us immensely in providing more meaningful learning experiences for the learners. Some of it we may already know, but much of it should be culled by talking with learners, Colleagues, and parents. Other helpful methods include surveys, questionnaires, and pretests. Collecting this type of data may be much easier if we are instructor with a long experience, as we are already immersed in the environment, and thus may already know many of the students we will be teaching. However, don’t immediately assume that we know the answers to these questions.

The list of learner characteristics we end up with will be used throughout the remainder of the instructional design process to make decisions regarding the various steps. It will help us determine the objectives (next step), as well as play a major role in the instructional strategies we employ later on.

The analysis of learning context involves two steps:

Determining Instructional Needs:

Dick and Carey (2001) state that "Perhaps the most critical event in the instructional design process is identifying goals" (Dick and Carey, 2001, p.17). Before establishing the instructional goals, instructors must analyze the learning environment and reflect on what has been done previously to identify the areas that should receive special emphasis in the course. The process, which is called "learners needs" or "needs analysis", consists of identifying the topics to be included, determining what it is that learners need to know, and data regarding student performance. Instructional goals are ideally to be derived through this analysis procedure.

For instructors needs analysis is often informal but is nevertheless very important. Such needs analysis can be directed at determining:

What are the major topics to be covered;

What portion of curriculum involves learning tasks that students had difficulty in learning and for which no readily available instructional solution exists; and

Which learning tasks, therefore, needs to be designed, modified or redesigned?

Needs analysis should also indicate whether there were learning goals that were not being reached previously. Such goals should then be candidates for the development of instruction. It should identify the areas of instruction that were not appealing, motivating, interesting and relevant to learners. These areas again should be considered for revision of the current instruction or instructional materials/tasks.

Describing the Learning Environment

By knowing a little bit about our learners we can better arrange the environment to increase the probability of individual student learning. The primary task of this analysis is to think about the environment in which the instruction will take place. It should enable us to analyze all factors that affect and are affected by the instruction that we will provide.

It is always wise to consider, beyond the classroom, the larger learning system into which the classroom environment belongs. The characteristics of the school and the community in which the instruction will take place are critical for the success of the implementation of our instruction.

It is important that instructors support each other and share their expertise, information and ideas throughout the teaching-learning cycle. Instructors also need access to a range of resources, ideas and solutions as they work through the process of planning.
Planning takes time and involves detailed discussion, evaluation and review. It is important that schools make this time available to instructors. Planning is done both within learning area groups and across learning area groups, and across learning areas and grades. This whole-school approach ensures that teaching ideas and classroom experiences are shared and available to everyone when the programs and units of work are being developed. A whole school approach also develops good organizational practices and a thorough knowledge of the school Curriculum across learning areas.

![Diagram of Instructional design model processes]

**Figure 2:** Instructional design model processes

**Programming Phase**

The Programming phase deals with learning outcomes, identifying the content, exercises, assessment strategies, learning activities and delivery mode. The Programming phase should be systematic and specific, see [Figure 2].

At the start of Programming phase, the instructor should have a pretty good idea of what the learners/students will already know when they start the course (through a learner analysis). The instructor should also know what learners will need to learn during the course (learning outcomes).
How do you create a course that helps student move from what they already know and gain mastery of the new material? That's the question that the Programming phase process answers.

Steps in the Programming Phase:

There are basically four steps in Programming phase:

Determining learning outcomes

Planning and designing the learning content, materials, assessments and activities.

Identifying, selected or create your video-based learning.

Share and monitor your video-based learning.

**Determining learning outcomes:**

During the planning phase (a learner analysis), the instructor examines the learners’/students' current knowledge and capabilities. What do the students already know and have the ability to do? The instructor uses the information from the learner analysis to create a unit of work or a topic that focuses on students' actual needs.

We want a unit of work that challenges but doesn't overwhelm our students. If we don't take time to study the learners/students and their contexts, we could make a unit of work that bores students because it's too basic. We could also create a course that's impossibly difficult for a group of students—because it might assume that students know more than they really do. It is not only important to know what material we're going to teach, but also what our students need to be taught. Describe what the students will be able to do after having learnt this topic (i.e. learning outcomes and tasks they can do/perform) and list the relevant key/foundational concepts.

**Planning and designing the learning contents, assessments and activities.**

Learning activities are used in education because they facilitate effective communication, especially if it's educational technology tools (Danielson, 2011). They help learners to process and retain what they learn, as well as enhancing the instructor's credibility. Therefore, they should be simple, clear, active and professional. The learning contents or video-based learning used by instructor must enhance the learning, not replace it or distract from it. You must consider the topic, why you are flipping it, how this topic relates to capabilities that count? Identify established misconceptions around this topic and address these in the pre class activities and make links with assessment explicit.

Well-designed learning contents shorten coaching time and increase comprehension substantially. They can increase participation of learners, and facilitate group consensus.

**Identifying, selected or create your video-based learning:**

Technology must be used to improve the efficiency and effectiveness of the learning delivery process. This may be quite a change from traditional teaching procedure adopted by instructors. Individual and articulate vendors will make pitches for their own particular product, many of whom have contributed to the revolutionizing of IT teaching and training. Instructors must start by asking themselves a series of questions about technology and pedagogy: Will they make their own videos, curate others' material, or a combination of the two? (Bergmann, Sams 2012). There are plenty of good, educational videos from websites such as TED-Ed and Khan Academy, and online course sites such as edX, courser, and Alison allow you to get your students in. But, to achieve truly comprehensive educational goals, instructors must take the advantage of educational technology on the market. This means that instructors will have to create their own video-based learning, according to the learning outcomes and the topic that they cover. I absolutely agree with Babiker (2015) when he stated that: “Teachers must and need as educator to create their own multimedia applications if they really want to make use of the multimedia applications as an effective tool in education. When teachers create their own video-based learning they must remember to keep the lower-order things on Bloom’s taxonomy to the videos and the higher-order things in class.” (Bergmann, Sam 2012).

**Plan, share and monitor your video-based learning:**
In this step you have to plan how you are going to share your video, if you have a learning management system. All you need to do is upload the video and then add your students to the course. Another way is to create YouTube channel and upload it in. You can then monitor the activity to make sure everyone is logging in to view the material. You won’t be able to monitor all student activity in real time from the learning management system or any other delivery media you choose, so you should set-up a mechanism that confirms the student has viewed the content. A simple end-of-lecture quiz (the points of which will be added to the activity), is a good place to start. This will also make it possible for you to deliver on the next step more effectively.

Coaching Phase

Gagne described instruction as asset of events external to the learner design to support the internal process of learning (Gagne, 1985). Smaldino state that "instruction is the arrangement of information and the environment to facilitate learning. This may be done by the learner or the instructor" (Smaldino, 2005). The learning styles of the learners must be taken into consideration in the Coaching Phase. Learning styles include the way a person perceives the world and new information, their unique experiences and the motivation they have for learning a particular topic (Gulid & Garger, 1998; Fralick, 2011). It does not necessitate the design of customized topic for every learner, but it does require that every learner is accommodated and their learning needs catered for. The requirement for measurable results can only be met in this scenario. Only when instructor knows the base line can they judge what they have accomplished.

Research has shown that, the more involved and interested students are in what they are doing, the more they learn. Using learning strategies in which our students are 'saying and doing' improves their learning enormously (Smaldino, 2005), (Gulid & Garger, 1998; Fralick, 2011), (Danielson, 2011). When we stand out the front of a room and lecture, our students' learning is far less effective, especially where this is our 'normal' teaching method.

The learning strategies we choose are important in ensuring that students are challenged and enjoy learning. They enjoy learning when that learning is relevant to them. They are also more likely to be challenged and engaged if they are actively involved in the learning activity. Tsai et al. (2015) state that "Flipped learning helps instructors move away from direct instruction as their primary teaching tool toward a more student-centered approach" (Tsai, et al., 2015, p.174). It is the learner who does the learning. Instructors can, of course, guide the process, but student develop understanding through what they do (Danielson, 2011).

In the 21st century instructors are facilitators of student learning and creators of productive classroom environments, the instructor acts as a coach when students are involved in project work or self-study. The instructor provides advice and guidance and helps students clarify ideas and limit tasks (Danielson, 2011).

Here are just some steps the instructor may use it during the coaching phase:

Set up the physical space to accommodate group based learning and organize learning resources
review student responses to the video, at the start of the class
Select the relevant concepts, related content and group learning activities e.g., case studies, flow charts, role play, quizzes, posters, which require students to apply and analyze the core concepts covered in the video
Support the class activities with planned mini lectures that introduce and/or summarize more complex concepts
clarify remaining learning issues
deliver classroom learning activities and mini lectures as needed and ‘time on task’ - monitor allocated time dedicated to each classroom activity Summarize the learning segments by reviewing the learning outcomes.

But even more important than the coaching methods chosen is the attitude of the instructor which must emphatically be to promote independence among learners so that they can figure thing out for themselves when he is no longer available. In order to do this effectively, we as instructor must make the learner active in the learning process. We provide basic information, the concepts, the vocabulary and the skills, and then make the learner do the work! Ask more questions than we answer, and encourage them to answer their questions by progressing logically from the information and the skills we have delivered to them in the programming phase, and by using the resources (handouts, recorded video, web sites etc.). The rule of thumb is don’t tell them how to do something, ask them how to do it.
Evaluation Phase

This ID Process stresses the concept that good program requires planning, programming, review, and revision. Each of the three ID phases provides review checkpoints that allow the instructors to evaluate the work that has been produced so far. The ID evaluation phase can produce pretty graphs and metrics, but that's not its main purpose. The evaluation phase measures the program's efficacy and make sure that the students achieve the expected learning outcomes.

Mary Thorpe (1988) see evaluation as "the collection, analysis and interpretation on information about any aspect of a program of education and training, as part of a recognized process of judging its effectiveness, its efficiency and any other outcomes it may have" (Thorpe, 1988, p.5). Evaluation must be seen as an ongoing process that is initiated in the earliest stages of program planning and continued beyond program completion.

Each the instructional course should be accompanied by a well-designed evaluation plan for determining its effectiveness. Because of the complexity of current changes in education, this plan should extend over time in order to describe and give value to the interrelationship of individual change and systemic change in education. The development of the evaluation strategy should commence at the beginning of the planning process for each the instructional course.

As a preliminary step, evaluators determine the purposes of the evaluation. After the purposes of the evaluation are determined, the evaluators can plan the evaluation itself. The evaluation design should be based on the intended outcomes of the institutions-improvement effort. The evaluators can ensure the quality of the instructional system design process by asking questions that focus on the value of the program in achieving institutions-improvement goals and critiquing it with a short-term evaluation questions checklist.

Evaluation Questions

During the evaluation phase, the instructor measures how well the program, practices and strategies achieved its goals. Here are just some of the questions that might be explored during the evaluation phase.

Did the activities and learning experiences cater for the needs, ability levels and interests of all students?

Was the work challenging enough?

Were the students engaged in the learning?

Were the activities and learning experiences effective?

Were the students well-supported in their learning?

Were the delivery media appropriate?

Was there enough time to complete the planned work?

Were the assessment tasks appropriate?

Did my students achieve the expected outcomes?

Did my feedback to the students help them?

Did I vary the planned program and how would I change it for future use?

For some questions, it's fairly easy to collect information. You can find out students' opinions of the program through a short survey immediately after the class. A pre-test and post-test can measure how well students achieved the learning objectives.

Summary & Conclusion

Instruction must be appropriate, and meet the needs of its target group, and it must be seen to be justified in terms of return on investment. In other words, it must be effective in changing the way students do thing so that efficiency and productive are improved. In my view, traditional lecturing methods in higher education institutions - needs to change in the near future. Some experts say it is too late to begin the changes, as we need new competencies in instructors right now. However, if
our instruction methods remain practical, flexible and learner-centered, there is a hope that the next generation of learners will get the support and skills they need in their future life.

Flipped learning model appoints to increase motivation toward learning process, mimic reality and are consistent with its environment, and effective means of communication. 

This Instructional design model provides a systematic methodology to plan, and program the unit of work or a course before delivery mode. It's possible for someone to record lectures in a video clips without following this instructional design methodology, there's a much higher degree of risk. The lectures could have the wrong focus, confuse or frustrate the students, or even lack critical content. So, if the course has been developed without planning or programing, then all you can do is hope that the course will go well.

This Instructional design model provides a systematic methodology to plan, and program the unit of work or a course before it launches. If we follow this ID Process, we'll have a high degree of confidence about the course when it's ready to launch.

References


Chemical Castration of Child Molesters – Right or Wrong?!

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Abstract

Studies have shown that recidivism rates among child sexual offenders are very high. Therefore, the number of children victimized by paedophiles is also very high. In most of the cases, offenders committing these crimes suffer from paraphilia – categorized as a mental disorder by the psychological sciences. Thus, imprisonment for this category of child abusers obviously is not the answer. That’s why a lot of states have tried to incorporate in their legislations a medical treatment useful to prevent recidivism of paedophiles and to protect the children. Chemical castration is merely a type of hormone therapy that takes away the offender’s sexual desire. There can be some unpleasant side effects, but they are mostly reversible and this paper tries to argue that this procedure is humane and necessary to prevent child molesters. The first part of this paper examines paedophilia, chemical castration procedure and will show data from studies made mostly in USA to see the efficiency of this procedure. The second part of this paper examines the growing trend by legislators towards favoring castration as a sentencing alternative and explains the reasons for this trend. This part finds that this trend is a necessary response to a failing criminal justice system.

Keywords: paedophilia, chemical castration, child molesters, depo-provera, criminal legislation

Introduction

Sexual abuse of children is undoubtedly one of the worst and most serious crimes with long-term consequences for the victim and his family and social circle. Childhood from medical, psychological and pedagogical disciplines is considered a crucial period for the future development of children as individuals and as citizens. The importance of this period for further development makes it necessary for children to be given special care to meet their development needs. Unfortunately, however, they may be often victims of various abuses, either inside their own family or from someone outside. They may be victims of various forms of violence. But what is considered to be the worst form of abuse, which adversely affects the well-being, the growth of the child’s development and which has long-term consequences in their lives is undoubtedly their sexual abuse.

Given the high risk posed by these criminal offenses, the fragile nature of victims which often do not understand what is happening to them, and above all, considering that pedophilia today is considered a mental disorder, states should undertake measures for medical treatment of the perpetrators for these offenses, in addition to the harsh penalties. This is supposed to be achieved through the incorporation of pharmacological-medical treatment or so called chemical castration of perpetrators of criminal offenses in the criminal laws of contemporary states.

Child Sexual Abuse and Paedophilia

In the daily vocabulary the sexual abuse of children is also known as pedophilia, while individuals who commit sexual abuse against children are known as pedophiles. However, the medical and psychological literature reveals distinct differences between these two terms and we will try briefly to make clear the difference between pedophile and sexual abuser. It turns out that although these terms are often used as synonyms for each other, there are concerns about the possibility of accurately categorizing pedophilia and sexual abuse of children.

According to the Diagnostic and Statistical Manual of Mental Disorders (DSM-IV; 1), pedophilia is considered a mental disorder. Many studies indicate that sexual abusers of children may or may not have paraphilic disorders and thus individuals are categorized as pedophiles (a person who needs to be cured). Pedophilia is one among many disorders
loosely categorized as paraphilia-psychosexual disorders such as transvestitism, exhibitionism, sexual masochism, and sexual sadism in which unusual or bizarre imagery or acts are necessary for realization of sexual excitement (Winslade, Stone, Smith-Bell, & Webb, 1998).

As a particular paraphilic disorder, pedophilia is a desire or preference for sexual relations with prepubertal children (Winslade, Stone, Smith-Bell, & Webb, 1998). According to the American Psychiatric Association pedophilia is defined as intense and persistent sexual interest in prepubescent children. Some pedophiles seek same gender victims (homosexual pedophiles), others seek opposite gender victims (heterosexual pedophiles) and some don’t care about gender. This type of offender is more concerned with committing a sexual assault with a child than concerning himself with the gender of his victims (Stevens, 2001). The most common child molester sexually assaults his own children or those of someone he knows ((Leberge, 1997) cited by (Stevens, 2001).

Pedophilia is classified as a particular type of paraphilia, which is defined as “recurrent, intense sexually arousing fantasies, sexual urges, or behaviors generally involving (Siverts, 2005):

1) nonhuman objects,
2) the suffering or humiliation of oneself or one’s partner, or
3) children or other non-consenting persons that occur over a period of at least six months.

The Diagnostic and Statistical Manual of Mental Disorders gives the following criteria for pedophilia (Winslade, Stone, Smith-Bell, & Webb, 1998):

1) An impairment lasting at least 6 months, with recurrent and intense sexually arousing fantasies, sexual urges, or behaviors that involve sexual activity with a prepubescent child or children (generally age 13 years or younger);
2) Fantasies, sexual urges, or behaviors that cause clinically significant distress or impairment in social, occupational, or other important areas of functioning; and,
3) The impaired person is at least aged 16 years, and at least 5 years older than the child or children.

From these definitions, it is clear that a pedophile is not a sex offender until he engages in a legally proscribed act (Absent the act, a person cannot generally be compelled to undergo treatment or otherwise be charged with a crime or be incarcerated simply because the person has a pedophilia disorder) see (Winslade, Stone, Smith-Bell, & Webb, 1998).

The definition of the crime of the child sexual abuse depends from the criminal legislation of each state particularly. For example, the Criminal Code of the Republic of Macedonia this crime defines in the Article 188 – “Sexual assault against a child who has not attained 14 years” where in the 1st paragraph it’s appointed that this crime it is committed by anyone who will have a sexual intercourse or other sexual activity with a child who has not attained 14 years old.

The literature of the field distinguishes and categorizes four categories of child sexual abusers.

Fitzigerlad (1990) devided sex offenders into four types:

Type I – denies the commission of the crime or the criminal nature of the act;

Type II – confesses to the commission of the crime, but places the blame for the crime on nonsexual or non-personal forces, such as alcohol, drugs, or stress;

Type III - is the violent criminal who is motivated by nonsexual gain, such as anger, power, or violence;

Type IV- is the paraphiliac who exhibits a pattern of sexual arousal, erection and ejaculation, which is characterized by a specific fantasy or its actualization.

The categorization of child molesters is very important because as we can see from this categorization not every child sexual abuser is appropriate subject to chemical castration.

Of the four different types of sex offenders, only Type IV offenders (paraphiliacs), "feel remorse or guilt" and are "unable to 'control' [their] behavior". Therefore, only Type IV offenders will respond to Depo-Provera (the medicament used for
chemical castration) treatment because the other three types either deny their behavior (Type I), project blame for their behavior (Type III), or enjoy exercising violent urges (Type VI), thus not admitting that their behavior is out of control or inappropriate (Peters, 1993). Accordingly, chemical castration laws should only apply to paraphiliacs (Type IV) and should not apply to the other three types of sexual offenders, because the treatment may not reduce their recidivism rates (Peters, 1993).

A child molester may have one or more causes for his conduct. Some offenses against children are committed by individuals who have some degree of mental retardation and a consequent inability to appreciate the difference between appropriate and inappropriate sexual behavior. An individual with an antisocial personality may commit sexual offenses against children simply because it is hurtful (See Berlin & Meinecke, supra note 26, at 602 cited by (Moog, 1999).

In most states that provide chemical castration in their legislation either as a medical treatment or as a punishment for child sexual abusers, the imposition of this treatment is in voluntary basis and usually the individual who agrees to undergo this treatment either is sentenced to lower penalties (for example, the case of the Republic of Macedonia) or the application of chemical castration is a condition for parole (for example, California legislation). Therefore, if chemical castration is imposed on an individual who does not actually need medical treatment because his criminal behavior is influenced by other factors as discussed above, then misuse of this measure may occur or in other words this treatment will be useless (the offender may repeat the crime).

Chemical castration appears to be ineffective in antisocial or psychopathic sex offenders who do not suffer from paraphilia (Berlin 2009 cited by (Douglas, Bonte, Focquaert, Devolder, & Sterckx, 2013).

**Chemical Castration as a Criminal Sanction for Child Molesters**

The crime of raping a child is so abhorrent that many states adopted laws that called for the death penalty for the commission of such crimes (D’Avella, 2006) cited by (Tullio, 2010). However, sentencing these offenders to death is no longer constitutional and those who are released often reoffend and end up back in prison (Tullio, 2010), therefore it is very necessary to find other mechanisms and humane methods for treating these offenders.

Castration is probably more familiar to the public as a form of punishment. One of the first uses of castration in the United States occurred during the 1800's, "when slaves were routinely castrated as a punishment if suspected of having relations with white women” (Druhm, 1997). In Europe, castration was done on modern psychiatric indication for the first time in Switzerland in 1892, as an imbecile was cured of his neuralgic pains from the testes and his "hypersexuality" (Sturup, 1972) cited (Heim & Hursch, 1979). The Nazis employed it from about 1935 to 1945 as a “security” measure to protect Germany’s racial purity from the Jews, Gypsies, homosexuals, lunatics and “others” (Chaney, 2006).

Even the punishment of sexual offenders with castration is not a new concept. Indeed, the idea of castration as a punishment does not originate in the United States. In fact, it appeared centuries before the colonization of America. For example, in ancient times, invading armies often castrated their captives as punishment for what they dared to be their enemies (William L. Baker, 1984). In biblical times, rapists received blinding and surgical castration as punishment (Berlin, 1997). Browe a Jesuit priest has studiously documented the history of castration in religion and law with copious references. According to him, Babylonian king, Hammurabi (about 1955-1913 B.C.) formalized the ancient law of retaliation “eye for an eye, tooth for tooth” known as Lex Talionis which called for castration for those who castrated someone else. Egyptian law called for the same punishment for anyone who had forced sex on a free woman. Late Roman law called for the same punishment for those who had sex with animals. The old pagan Frisian code of the Salic Franks, issued about 507 AD, used it for anyone who had stolen something dedicated to the gods. Self-castration was allowed in lieu of being buried alive or death by fire (Jacobs (1973) cited by (Chaney, 2006).

When talking about castration as a treatment for sexual perpetrators, namely sexual child abusers, the literature recognizes two types of castration: surgical castration and chemical castration.

Physical castration, or orchiectomy, is a surgical procedure in which a man’s testes are removed. This causes a dramatic drop in the levels of testosterone in the body which severely decreases a man’s sex drive (Tullio, 2010). Surgical castration is an irreversible procedure. The procedure itself is fairly simple, involving a small incision made in the scrotum so the testes can be removed; it is not considered major surgery and can be done on an outpatient basis (Druhm, 1997).
Surgical castration as an invasive procedure which involves removal of human organ it is considered as an unusual and cruel procedure which violates human rights. As so, many states that had surgical castration in their legislation either removed it or replaced it with chemical castration. Even that the use of surgical castration in now days is limited, it still happens in Europe and USA (for example the case of Czechs Republic or the case of the state of Texas).

Researchers in the 1960s, seeking alternatives to prison or surgical castration, studied chemical castration as a means of "curbing the sexual appetite of sex offenders" (Tsang (1995) cited by (Berlin, 1997). The term "chemical castration" describes a medical treatment that uses anti-hormonal drugs to block the release of hormones, resulting in significantly lower testosterone levels and sex drives in men (Murray, 1998). Chemical castration consists of administering the medication periodically, usually in the form of an injection, which extinguishes sexual libido (Kambovski, 2015). While chemical castration sounds almost barbaric, it is one of the more civilized forms of treatment that has been used on sexual predators. It is merely a type of hormone therapy that takes away the offender’s sexual desire (Harrison, supra note 1, at 21–28 cited by (Tullio, 2010) There can be some unpleasant side effects, but they are mostly reversible, and overall, there is little pain and suffering associated with the procedure (Tullio, 2010).

The first reported use of the hormonally based medications in order to reduce pathological sexual behavior in men occurred in 1944 when the progesterone hormonal compound diethylstilbestrol was prescribed to lower male testosterone (Holmberg & Scott, 2003).

Medroxyprogesterone acetate (MPA), also known by brand names Clinovir, Cycrin, Depo-Provera, and Hystron, is the hormone used for chemical castration in the United States. MPA first came to the market to treat gynecological problems in females (Pitura, 2009). This drug "was first synthesized in 1954 [by the Upjohn Company] and was initially introduced in 1959 as a treatment for gynecological disorders. Depo Provera was first used as an effective way to reduce men's sex drive in 1958 (Philip J. Henderson, 1998) cited by (Daley, 2008). Depo-Provera is a legitimate, non-experimental treatment used around the world in the treatment of paraphilia disorders (Fitzgerald, 1990). In the United States, the first research with MPA was performed in 1966 by Dr. Money who treated a male bisexual transvestite who was engaged in an incestuous relationship with his six year old son (Fitzgerald, 1990).

In most cases, the reduction of sexual behaviors and the complete disappearance of deviant sexual behaviors and fantasies are observed after 1-2 months of treatment (Garcia, Delavenne, Thibaut, & Assumpção, 2013). MPA is able to reduce the occurrence of sexual imagery and lessen the offender’s level of sexual. Essentially, the drug causes the brain to believe the body has enough testosterone and so it does not allow the testicles to produce anymore (Gimino III, 1997). The effect is a reduction in the levels of testosterone in the offender’s blood down to that of a pre-pubescent male within one to two weeks; this low level of testosterone greatly lowers the offender’s sex drive (Tullio, 2010).

A review of the studies indicates the following possible physiological side effects: 1) no change in blood pressure; 2) no change in body chemistry; 3) the possibility of weight gain; 4) a dramatic decrease in sperm count; 5) normal basal insulin levels, but also hyperinsulinaemic response to a glucose load; 6) possible irregular gallbladder functioning and diverticulitis while on long term therapy; 7) infrequent fatigue or lethargy; 8) testicular atrophy; 9) diabetes mellitus; 12) no breast changes ((Walker, supra note 10) cited by (Fitzgerald, 1990)). Other reported effects include hot and cold flashes, phlebitis, headaches, insomnia, nausea, nightmares, dyspnea, hyperglycemia, leg cramps, loss of body hair, and increased basal body temperature. Most of the reported side effects are extremely rare. All of the side effects are reversible once the treatment ceases (Fitzgerald, 1990).

Proponents of chemical castration argue that the side effects are comparable to medications used to treat other diseases. Every commercial for a prescription drug ends with a long list of side effects that can range from minor discomfort to life-threatening problems; what is so different about the side effects for antiandrogen drugs? (Pitura, 2009).

Except MPA (Depo-Provera) there is another medicament used for the same purpose, mostly in Europe. Cyproterone acetate CPA decreases testosterone production by competitive inhibition of testosterone and dihydrotestosterone in androgen receptors. Cyproterone acetate (CPA), marketed under the names Androcur, Cyprone, Cyprostat, and Diane, is not officially approved in the United States, but is used in Canada, the United Kingdom and Germany. Comparative studies of MPA and CPA are difficult because the drugs are not available in the same countries (Pitura E., 2009).

Recidivism Among Chemically Castrated Child Molesters

The Johns Hopkins University's National Institute for the Study, Prevention and Treatment of Sexual Trauma has been studying MPA and using it to treat certain sexual disorders since 1966 (Fitzgerald, 1990). In one study of twenty paraphilics,
only three of twenty men had reoccurrences of deviant sexual behavior while on the medication, an eighty-five percent success rate (See Berlin & Meineke, supra note 26, at 604 cited by (Moog, 1999).

A University of Texas study, conducted from 1976 to 1980, revealed that only one offender, out of twenty-five treated with Depo-Provera, committed an act of paraphilia while being treated (Green, supra note 40 cited by (Berlin, 1997).

Also, in a 1991 study conducted at Johns Hopkins University, "fewer than ten-percent of 626 patients chemically castrated with Depo-Provera committed sexual offenses five years after treatment (Rundle, supra note 4 cited by (Berlin, 1997).

**Chemical Castration – A New Trend in the State Legislations**

Today, chemical castration is used in many states, whether as a punishment or as a medical treatment for sex offenders, mainly for the perpetrators of sexual crimes against children.

Chemical Castration is a part of criminal legislations in many states including USA, Argentina Australia, Estonia, Israel, Moldavia, New Zealand, Poland, Russia, Denmark, Germany, Hungary, France, Norway, Finland, Iceland, Lithuania, United Kingdom, Belgium, Sweden, Macedonia, Turkey, Indonesia etc.

According to a research made by the (Institute for Criminal Justice Reform, 2016) the precise structure or formulations of laws that provide chemical castration differ in important ways in each jurisdiction. The following three alternatives are of some use in categorizing these laws. First, the administration of chemical castration as a form of treatment may be “voluntary” in the sense that chemical castration will only be considered, and is only lawful, if a person is convicted of certain types of offences and consents to such treatment. This is reportedly the case in a number of jurisdictions, including England and Denmark. Secondly, a law relating to chemical castration may be “discretionary’. Chemical castration may be a sentencing option that a court may impose if a person has been convicted of a certain offence, along with any other sentence (such as imprisonment). But the court does not have to impose it. If the Court does impose it as a sentence, then the sentenced person is required to undergo the treatment. Thirdly and finally, a law may be “mandatory”. If a person is convicted of certain types of offences, then the court must impose the sentence of chemical castration (as well as any other sentence, such as imprisonment). Typically, laws that provide that a sentence involving chemical castration is mandatory are applicable when an offender re-offends (Institute for Criminal Justice Reform, 2016).

Sweden, Germany and Denmark were among the first countries to allow chemical castration, as an alternative to the surgical form which is also permitted. It is significant that in these countries it is utilized solely as a voluntary treatment (Wilson, 2007). Meanwhile, in certain legislation, chemical castration is incorporated as a sanction (USA, Poland, Estonia etc.), while in others (Great Britain, Germany etc.) is used as a medical treatment for sexual abusers with their consent (Kambovski, 2015). In USA, California was the first state to enact a compulsory chemical castration law. Any person convicted for the second time of forcible or statutory rape will be automatically required to undergo chemical castration as a condition of parole (Wilson, 2007). The treatment will continue until the State considers it is necessary and it is not required to include medical staff in this process.

In USA, chemical castration is foreseen in the legislation of eight states. Legislation in Georgia, Montana, Oregon, and Wisconsin provides for chemical castration only; California, Iowa, Florida, and Louisiana permit both chemical and surgical castration; and Texas allows only surgical castration. In some cases where chemical castration is offered it is formally optional and no link is made between refusal to consent to it and further incarceration; in others chemical castration is mandated as a condition of release; and in others still it is mandated with no formal link to release (Douglas, Bonte, Focquaert, Devolder, & Sterckx, 2013).

Unlike the United States which has only recently enacted chemical castration statutes, several European countries have had castration statutes on the books for quite some time. Denmark was the first country to create a castration law in 1929 (Daley, 2008). Denmark was the first to establish a comprehensive law on June 1, 1929, under Chapter XXIV of the Danish Criminal Code concerning punishments for rape, pederasty, and other sex crimes. This law was amended on May 11, 1935, with more details concerning permission to castrate offenders. Forced castration was never employed under Danish laws however (Chaney, 2006). Sweden passed a castration law in 1944, Finland passed a law in 1970 and Norway enacted its castration law in 1977 (Daley, 2008).

In Europe, the mandatory chemical castration is envisaged in the Penal Code of Poland, with the reform of the Polish Penal Code in 2009 which envisages the mandatory chemical castration for perpetrators of the criminal offense "Sexual Assault of a Child under the Age of 15 Years" (Trendafilova & Bozhinovski, 2015).
The Estonian Parliament has approved chemical castration for sex offenders in 2012 and according to the legislation, courts will be able to impose a course of medical treatment on sex offenders, who would be obliged to take special medication for up to three years. Chemical castration may also be a precondition for the offender to be released on parole (https://sputniknews.com/voiceofrussia/2012_06_05/77079747/).

The French Government in 2005 and the United Kingdom in 2007 have introduced chemical castration legislation. In both countries it is a voluntary procedure (Wilson, 2007). According to media report in 2012, in Great Britain around one hundred child sex offenders have undergone chemical castration under a government program to reduce the likelihood of them reoffending in jails (http://www.telegraph.co.uk/news/uknews/law-and-order/9139845/Paedophiles-chemically-castrated-in-British-jail.html).

In the criminal legislation of the Republic of Macedonia, chemical castration is incorporated as a criminal sanction in 2014 and with this Macedonia became the first country in the region (Balkans) which treats child molesters with medical treatment. Chemical castration in Macedonia was incorporated as a security measure (medical – pharmacological treatment) for the perpetrators of the offense of sexual assault on a child who has not reached the age of 14 as provided in Article 188 of the Criminal Code. In our legislation the imposition of this measure needs the consent of the perpetrator of the criminal offense, so, it is on a voluntary basis. “Compensation” for voluntary submission to such medical treatment is the reduce of the sentence of imprisonment, respectively, the perpetrator will serve half of the sentence. For instance, if for the criminal act is sentenced life imprisonment, the court may impose to the offender a sentence to imprisonment of 40 years; if for the criminal act imprisonment of 40 years is sentenced, the Court may impose to the offender a sentence of 20 years of imprisonment; and if criminal act is punishable by 20 years of prison, the court may impose the minimum prison sentence prescribed for that criminal act as long as the perpetrator agrees to undergo chemical castration treatment, which will last until the end of his or until the Court estimates that is necessary to take the treatment (paragraph 2, 3 and 4 of the Article 65 of the Criminal Code) see (Ratkoceri, 2017). It is a obligatory treatment among imprisonment when the offender is a recidivist.

Turkey has authorized chemical castration in 2016. Individuals convicted of sex offences may be chemically castrated while they are serving time or during the control period if they are conditionally released.

Conclusions

The issue of chemical castration is a controversial topic in many scientific circles, dividing researchers and scientists in two campuses, pro et contra. To some extent, both sides have their own facts and arguments that support one side or the other. However, given the latest trends of states, namely the incorporation of this sanction in many legislations recently, it is clear that states have decided to fight pedophilia with medical treatment.

The reason for this may be the fact that sexual abuse of children by pedophiles is a growing trend and the rate of recidivism is very high in these cases, as well as the specifics of victims (where children are concerned) who need absolute protection from such crimes.

Considering that paraphilia is defined as a mental disorder, pharmacological medical treatment is almost inevitable and more than necessary. We consider that the use of chemical castration on voluntary basis on individuals who consider that they can’t control their sexual urges and need medical help, is a right thing. However, its mandatory imposition to cases of recidivism also has a certain justification, since it is argued that imprisonment hasn’t fulfill its main goal, re-socialization, and that these individuals can’t control their sexual urges. Therefore, for the sake of protecting potential victims, such perpetrators should be assisted with medical treatment (chemical castration).

Chemical castration is not an inhuman and denigrating punishment. It is a simple procedure that does not cause suffering or pain in the individual. It is a treatment that helps people suffering from certain disorder and as such as long as it is proved to be successful we consider that it should be used.

Bibliography


Regional Integration in the Horn of Africa: Some Findings

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Tsoaledi Thobejane
University of Venda, South Africa

Abstract

In the Horn of Africa there is a regional bloc that comprises eight countries namely Djibouti, Eritrea, Ethiopia, Kenya, Somalia, Sudan, South Sudan and Uganda. The appellation of the organisation is called IGAD (Intergovernmental Authority on Development). It was established in 1986, yet it could not bring a desired result. Even the least form of integration i.e. Free Trade Area (FTA) could not achieve. So that this paper will probe the challenges associated with the regional integration agenda of IGAD. This paper is an excerpt from a study conducted by the author regarding IGAD. Thus the paper will present the findings of the said study. The study used qualitative approach for data collection. Interview with IGAD officers has been conducted to know the cause for the failure of IGAD’s integration process. IGAD lacks both financial and human capacity to fulfil its objectives, absence of regional institutions (such as Bank of IGAD) worsen the situation, emerging and subsequent security threats such as terrorism, pastoral conflict, tense relationship among member states, undermining of the informal trade remains the road block of regional integration.

Keywords: Regional Integration, Horn of Africa, Economic Growth, IGAD

Introduction

This paper focuses on the findings that emerged from the data. It also discusses the themes that emerged from the interviews relating to regional integration in the IGAD region. The main purpose of this study is to probe mechanisms through which the IGAD regional integration programmes could be achieved and how these mechanisms could contribute towards the socio-economic growth of IGAD countries.

Specific objectives of this paper are as follows:
1. Explore the core socioeconomic and political challenges that hamper the regional integration agenda of IGAD,
2. Investigate the appropriate measures that could be taken by IGAD to remedy the situation and describe whether these actions address the organizational challenges of IGAD’s regional integration endeavors,
3. Probe the best practices that IGAD might take from other regional groupings within or outside Africa.

In order to meet these objectives, the researchers interviewed IGAD officials in Addis Ababa and Djibouti. The researchers followed research ethics procedures and the interview was made with unreserved consent of the interviewees. The Headquarters of IGAD is in Djibouti while its peace and security branch is located in Addis Ababa. The interviews were conducted with five officers of IGAD. These officers have immense knowledge on the IGAD regional integration process. They are high profile individuals and were selected by the researcher for their potential to provide the requisite information.

Table 1. Biographic data of respondents

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Name</th>
<th>Age</th>
<th>Qualification</th>
<th>Position in IGAD</th>
<th>Country</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Andrew</td>
<td>38</td>
<td>MA: economics</td>
<td>Director: Division of economic cooperation and social development</td>
<td>Uganda</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The data were captured between the time of April 18 to June 10, 2016 in Djibouti and Addis Ababa. After analyzing of the data, the following themes and sub-themes as shown in Table 2 below emerged:

### Table 2. Emerging Themes

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Main themes</th>
<th>Sub themes</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Factors related to Capacity building within IGAD</td>
<td>1.1. Financial capacity</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>1.2. Dependency on donor funds</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Lack of feasible infrastructure in the region</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Harmonisation of policies</td>
<td>3.1. Bilateral agreements</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Challenges of free movement of people</td>
<td>4.1. One stop border post</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>4.2. People to people interaction</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. Effects of political factors on regional integration</td>
<td>5.1. Lack of political will and commitment</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>5.2. Coinciding membership</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

#### 1. Factors related to capacity

Capacity refers to the ability of achieving projects with adequate human and financial means.

In this regard, Andrew (Participant 1) stated the following:

"**IGAD has the potential of becoming one of the best organizations in Africa should it adhere to all its policies that it has adopted since its inception.**"

Kendrick (participant 2) also supported the views of Andrew and said that IGAD had capacity challenges associated with the structure. The structure of IGAD has never changed since its inception. It is so archaic that it hinders the organisation from moving forward. In line with this, Dan (2010) wrote that the secretariat’s ability is highly restricted by a top down decision making structure. The Assembly of the Heads of state is the ultimate decision making organ and this hinders a participatory method of decision making.

Kendrick continued by saying that the organization does not have a clear programme on how to deal with disasters such as drought in the Horn of Africa. In this vein, Abdi & Seid (2013) indicated that member state countries should strive to act closely based on what type of regional integration or cooperation would achieve specific objectives of the organization.

In addition, Kendrick said that:

"**Subsequent trainings have been offered. Project management, monitoring and evaluation training is given to project officers. Gender and conflict workshops are also organised. But it seems as if these trainings do not yield any results.**"

Trevor (participant 3) agreed with Andrew and Kendrick by stating that IGAD had capacity challenges but it is not something that is related to lack of knowledge and skills among IGAD officers. In certain areas, it needs specialists and professionals while it also needs resources.

In addition, Andrew bolstered his argument by saying that:
“We have quite a lot of capacity building programmes that are supported by our partners. But I can never say that we have adequate resources. IGAD needs improvement. If you have the adequate capacity, the implementation of the policies will be easier.”

Hussien (Participant 4) also supported other respondents by saying the following:

“We cannot talk about IGAD in isolation. This organisation represents member states. If it fails, it means all of the states are failing. So the capacity of IGAD should not be limited to the Secretariat. It is also within the mandate of member states to make sure that it delivers. This is their organisation. Member states failed to compliment staff even when there was a serious need to address conflicts and other forms of disasters. The ultimate mandate of IGAD lies at the top of its hierarchy – i.e. the summit or the Assembly. So the capacity problem is caused by the member states that give IGAD narrow mandates and inadequate capacity. The actual implementation of all IGAD projects is done by member states.”

Johannes (Participant 5) also acknowledges the capacity challenges of IGAD. According to him, the capacity problem of IGAD might be serious but not critical. He further said that there is a way out if member states can look for a solution. He expanded his argument with the following sentiments:

“Sometimes you might have heard a lot of generalized statements about lack of capacity in the organization. But when people are criticizing they just look at the weaknesses. They do not look at the strengths. So sometimes those statements are not balanced because one could not say that you are not doing well rather he must point out the areas that you are weak at.”

Johannes further said that IGAD has the capacity to address these problems but it is also the responsibility of member states.

1.1. Financial capacity

All the respondents stated that the financial capacity of IGAD is at its lowest. Kendrick said that in terms of financial capacity, there are challenges. Johannes said that “IGAD is financially weak. Financial weakness hampers the ability of implementing its policies. Johannes further said that lack of an IGAD Development Bank worsens the situation. IGAD needs to have its own resources rather than depend on donors or partners. Member states of IGAD are only paying the salaries of IGAD officials. The real programs are run by donor funds. So each partner has their own agenda. So if it really wants to move forward, IGAD must have its own resources. In a nutshell, IGAD has to develop its own development bank.”

Financial incapacity of IGAD, according to Hussien, leads to a narrow agenda that does not address the overall needs of the member states.

1.2. Dependency on donor’s funds

All the respondents mentioned that dependency on donor funds is not a problem and there is no influence by donor countries. According to Trevor:

“Donor countries express their interest and their focus. You cannot use that money beyond their commitment earmark. For instance, Japan gave us USD$750 Million to counter terrorism in Somalia. Japan’s interest is Somalia, IGAD cannot use that money to develop Kenya or Uganda. In the aid politics, there is no free lunch. In fact, they might not twist your hand and say to you, do this and don’t do that. However, one way or another they impose their interest.”

Hussien said that, IGAD is dependent on partner funding, explaining that;

“In the 20th century, it is a fact that developing states are dependent on developed countries to secure funds for both national and regional projects. It is also a fact that if you do not have the capacity to buy a car, you may borrow money from the bank or other sources. I think all the issues of regional integration are controlled by national interest. Member states have their own interest.” Hussien said that even if we depend on donors, we have to bargain in order not to lose our integrity.

Kendrick also supported Hussein’s view. He said that dependency on donor countries is not influencing the regional process of IGAD. Kendrick thinks that having funds from external donors is not a problem in the first place and it does not bring any influence on the proposed projects. “If a project is relevant to the citizen and if you have the ability to borrow by all means
borrow and do it. There are a lot of people saying that it is not good to rely too much on foreign funding. However, regional projects are capital intensive, if you do not have the resources, it is wise to get these somewhere else. The benefits outweigh whatever costs that means there is no problem on the foreign aid IGAD depends on. If there is capability of getting funds, it is better to limit the conditions and scope of the donating country,” said Kendrick.

In addition, all respondents said that IGAD has development partners. There is also an IGAD Partner Forum (IPF) that constitutes the donor countries of IGAD. IPF is established to facilitate the flow of funds from partners to IGAD’s projects. So far, the member states appear not to be funding a lot of regional projects of IGAD. Instead, there is over-reliance on funds from developed countries.

Johannes agreed with the other respondents that dependency on donor funding is inevitable due to lack of regional financial institutions. According to him, the challenge of dependency could not be alleviated until IGAD is able to establish a development bank. According to Trevor and Hussien, the partners of IGAD are also benefiting in one way or another when they allocate funds for projects.

3. Lack of feasible infrastructure

Infrastructure includes the construction of roads, railways, ports, power and communication facilities. In this regard, Johannes said that IGAD is presently making road connectivity that measures about 5 000km. According to Johannes, IGAD is a facilitator for making the projects. In addition, IGAD is instrumental in making energy (power), telecom, and railway connectivity.

Hussien supported Johannes’s view by saying that, “in terms of connection, we are connecting capital cities with ports, which is the first step towards development. We have the main road connection but it needs sub-roads because integration is about the entire people not just connecting the capitals.”

According to Kendrick, IGAD facilitates the interconnection of trans-African Highway number 4, which links Cape Town and Cairo. The missing link of this Highway was in Kenya between the borders of Siweru and Moyale in Ethiopia. This missing link is expected to be completed at the end of 2016. For a region to be connected, people should be able to move as well as goods. For all practical purposes infrastructure is one of the main drivers of the integration process.

Andrew and Trevor supported the notion that infrastructure is one of the key drivers of integration. Both said that there are infrastructure challenges for IGAD to speed up its integration process. In the aviation industry; there is no network among airlines of the region. The only airlines that fly across the region are Ethiopian and Kenyan airways. At least those airlines connect the capital cities of certain member states. Hussien and Trevor said that the region’s airways are not enough to cover the whole region and the price of airfare is too high. In line with this, Gerald (2012) also observed the high cost of transport in the region which is associated with lack of harmonisation of transport policies.

In relation to the cost of developing infrastructure, Johannes said that it is quite expensive. Johannes added that it was expensive to communicate especially across borders. The calling rate of the region is quite expensive. According to Johannes, there are two kinds of regional integration challenges in the IGAD region, these are physical and non-physical barriers.

Andrew agreed with Johannes and stated that:

“Sometimes it is easier to call the USA or UK than to communicate with the next door member states. Why I would have easier access to communicate with the outside world than with my own people still confuses me to date.”

Physical barriers refer to solid road blocks of regional integration. The majority of respondents said that physical barriers refer to infrastructure such as road, railway, and airways. The non-physical ones were identified as visas, immigration regulations and policies in general. In order to address the problems of non-physical barriers, political will and commitment are the two prerequisites. The regional integration process in general has tariff and non-tariff barriers. The imposition of heavy tariffs on goods that pass through member states is the main challenge for the promotion of FTA in the region.

Trevor agreed with the others on the main challenges of IGAD in advancing connectivity projects. He said that “we need more projects on connectivity of roads. With the addition of the problem of donor fatigue due to duplicated projects in the South-Eastern Africa region, the infrastructure projects suffer from lack of sustainable financial contributions.”
Hussein agreed with Trevor that in infrastructure connectivity, roads were being rehabilitated and undergoing maintenance. These roads will have to be regulated within the law. When constructing a road, according to Kendrick, there must be quality control. In addition, there must be maintenance. Lack of routine maintenance is exacerbating the poor state of infrastructure in the region. Routine maintenance includes even mundane issues such as cutting the grass, opening the caravan and mending the boreholes.

Johannes agreed with Kendrick's opinions. He said that when an infrastructure is designed, there should be some predetermined costs, including the cost of renewing. If there is a failure to maintain projects, their sustainability can therefore not be guaranteed. Lack of adequate maintenance resources remains the challenge of infrastructure development in the region.

All the respondents said that the involvement of the private companies in the infrastructure sector is so limited. According to the respondents, when it comes to regional projects, companies mainly involve themselves as contractors or consultants. Private companies are only involved in the power construction sector, telecommunication and the development of ports. Due to the very fast remittances, private companies are often involved in the telecommunication business sector. If you look at the telecom industry, you will notice that there are a number of private companies in the region. In Kenya, the telecommunication sector is dominated by the private sector. In Uganda, it is the same. The initial capital of the telecom industry is not so high and the remittance is higher and faster. The private industry is a business driven system.

All respondents agree that, on roads connectivity, IGAD does not involve private companies. The road tender is mainly given to government companies because infrastructure is very expensive. Road, railway and other related constructions can only be serviced through the funds of the governments which are member states. Private companies are profit-oriented. They have difficulties in funding road projects. Infrastructure is capital intensive because of this. IGAD prefers government companies than private ones.

4. Harmonisation of policies

One of the most vital elements of the integration process is harmonization of policies. In response to this, Kendrick said that the harmonization of policies poses a lot of challenges. IGAD had some meetings among transport ministers of member states regarding harmonising of vehicle carrier policies and licensing. It must be noted that the IGAD secretariat can only make recommendations at a technical level regarding policy changes pertaining to the harmonisation of, for instance, vehicle policies. The ultimate decision on harmonisation of policies and their enactment lies with the summit of heads of states.

Kendrick agreed that the process is quite tedious and difficult. Recommendations continue to be made to ease the burden that the IGAD faces regarding the above problem. Also, it should be noted that it takes time before recommendations are addressed. Making policy out of these recommendations involves another tedious process which takes time.

Trevor stated that the harmonisation of policies is difficult to implement in the region. IGAD could not force states to harmonies their laws because of the principle of sovereignty. The most difficult barrier in harmonization of laws is sovereignty. States have to surrender their sovereignty to empower IGAD with policy making. In line with this, Kasner (1983) contended that harmonisation of policies could be implemented only if states are ready to relinquish certain portions of their sovereignty.

IGAD is also working with Kenya, Uganda, Sudan, South Sudan and Somalia to draft policies which are user-friendly. Gradually, this cooperation will upgrade to harmonisation of other policies. At least for now, there is a platform and framework to go about implementing these policy recommendations. IGAD is also in the process to establish regional platforms for regional issues to address and resist, the emerging and evolving problems of the region.

Hussien agreed with the other participants that the attainment of harmonisation of laws in the region was still a long way off. He said that:

“If you take the ICT, it is too costly, bringing these to our side must have been quite a lot of investment. The bottom line is usually profit for those companies that brought those technologies. Even delivering the IC for the people of the region is a problem let alone harmonising ICT policies. This is because, we have a lot of legacies, ideology, technology or thinking that we continue to contend with in this day and age. And these do not help us to get to where we want to go as IGAD. States also have also shown some dislike of some of the features of technology. Do you stop some using skype to talk to relatives...
or business partners? Some states fear that certain information available to the citizenry may be politically insensitive and may result in some form of the “Arab spring” which caught Egypt by surprise. There is quite a lot of harmonising to be done.”

4.1. Bilateral agreement

Hussein believes that regional integration takes time as it needs a lot of negotiations. The IGAD region has different nations that have diversified interest, but they still rely on each other. Ethiopia and Djibouti, for instance, rely heavily on each other for survival. Most of the food from Djibouti comes from Ethiopia and some commodities are also from Djibouti. There are so many Somalia businessmen in Kenya while there are Ethiopian and Ugandan business persons in Djibouti. Some industries in the South Sudan are predominately owned by Eritrean investors.

Kendrick supported Hussein’s view that the bilateral agreements of member states in various sectors are flourishing. “It seems that a lot of negotiations and work has been done bilaterally. However, IGAD lacks the capacity to regulate and rationalize bilateral agreements so that they become regional”, said Kendrick.

Andrew agreed with Kendrick and Hussein that member states should be able to sign bilateral agreements in order to expedite regional development.

Johannes also supported the views of the other respondents by saying the following:

“I told you that infrastructure is one of the main drivers of integration. We are doing very well in terms of connectivity. Our members are doing a commendable job bilaterally.”

Trevor also supported the view of Johannes as follows:

“Ethiopia and Djibouti are the greatest trading partners. These countries are trading with their neighbours and they have a lot of bilateral arrangements and are working together. For me this is one of the giant steps towards integration. If you check Sudan and Ethiopia, you will also find that the two countries are working together. Kenya and Ethiopia are also working together as well as Kenya and Uganda and Kenya and South Sudan. What I can tell you is that even Ethiopia and Somaliland have found the urge to work together.”

5. Challenges of free movement of people

For Trevor, the movement of people is limited due to a tense relationship between IGAD member states. He added that in the Sudan-Uganda, there is no free movement of people because of the rivalry between the two, resulting in the closure of the border since the 1998 war. The Sudan-South Sudan border does not entertain free movement of people because of territorial claim and the unresolved issues. The Kenya-Somalia border is not that much suitable for the free movement of people because of the threat of terrorist attacks.

Kendrick supported Trevor’s view that the integration process should enable the movement of people and goods as smooth as possible. Andrew also said that in the IGAD region, movement of people is difficult.

Johannes agreed with Andrew and Kendrick by articulating that:

“We have to develop the protocol of free movement of people. If heads of governments pass this protocol, it will have a lot of use. After the approval of the protocol, it gives people of the region the right to establish residency and business.”

Hussein said that a lot of work has to be done to enhance the movement of people. The people of IGAD have to interact within the region. This is the starting point of future integration. As a citizen of the IGAD region, there should be minimum problems to move from one member states to another one, and at least visas should be issued on arrivals.

In a nutshell, all respondents agree that the movement of people should be allowed for legal, formal or informal, economic or political as well as social or environmental reasons.

According to the respondents, IGAD should also be on the lookout for trafficking activities. Thus far, there are three routes of the trafficking “industry”, namely,

1. Europe – that crosses Sudan, Libya, Egypt and the Mediterranean Sea;
2. Middle East – via Ethiopia, Djibouti, Somaliland to Yemen and Saudi Arabia;

3. South Africa – this is a dangerous route that people were forced to cross six countries to reach their destination. Most Eritreans, Ethiopians and Somalis are travelling through this route.

Johannes said that people still prefer illegal routes to migrate. In 2014, many Ethiopians were chased from Saudi Arabia and most of them went back using illegal routes and traffickers. Most of the trafficked are fascinated by the good economic prospects in foreign countries.

Andrew further lamented that “We do not need a visa to visit our intertwined countries. Our movement is hampered by the strict requirement of visa and these strict procedures are discouraging people from doing business amongst themselves.”

5.1. One-stop border post

Andrew explained the principle as follows:

“One-stop border posts essentially means when you are travelling from one side of the border with or without goods. Once you clear your documents at border one for instance, you do not have to do the same at border two. These documents should be able to be captured electronically. The migration officer at the other side of the border should just check the documents and make an entry stamp.”

Trevor supported the views of the other respondents by saying that modern equipment like scanners can help in the screening of trucks without offloading all those shipments. Trevor further explained that:

*Information can come to border officers before the people and trucks arrive.*

Kendrick also supported the principle of one stop border post. He said that:

“For people to be integrated, they need to move from one place to another to trade. For that to happen, you have to have the necessary infrastructure.”

All the respondents are in agreement that the border areas are HIV hot spots. In this regard, the respondents said that IGAD has a regional HIV/AIDS programme that focuses on cross border population that migrate a lot. These are the truck drivers, refugees and cross border traders. In support of the respondents Gerald (2012) indicates that, a fundamental principle for sustainable development is that human being. Wellbeing that is health, wealth and quality of life of people is part of and linked to the diversity, productivity and quality of the ecosystem of the region.

5.2. People-to-people interaction

Slocum and Langenhove (2004) indicated that beyond trade and tariffs, regional integration should be conceived of as a dialectical unity of social, economic and political processes.” The New Regionalism Theory also stated that integration process should involve non-state actors including the people (Hetne, 2010). It results in the diffusion of political power from centralised state to other actors such as the people themselves (Laursen, 2008). It is in this vein that Hussein stressed that IGAD should normalize and harmonies border polices of member countries so that border towns can share resources especially that people along the borders are the same in terms of culture, race and linage. Hussein further said the following: “The relationship is already there. Even in the economic sphere, unregulated commerce is conducted in border areas.”

Andrew agreed with Hussien that member states have to strengthen the interaction between people. In the border area, there is an informal socio-economic interaction between people of two or more countries. Andrew added that the border area might be divided by boundaries but residents of the area have blood relationship. They get married to each other. “In some areas, you have so much migration of people because of the nomadic lifestyle where they stay during winter and move to the other area later”, indicated Andrew.

The other feature of people-to-person interaction is informal trade. All the respondents said that, if one goes to the borders people are the same on both sides. They trade between each other but this trade is unrecorded and registered by member states. Kendrick added that Moyale is a border town between Kenya and Ethiopia. People of Kenya work and sleep in Moyale. They move around, go to the cattle market on the Ethiopian side and buy whatever they want. In fact, such kind of
common market will reduce conflict among pastoralist communities. According to the study conducted by the World Bank (2014) and ECA (2006) frequent and increasing trades will reduce conflicts by about 17%.

Hussien agreed with Kendrick that if one goes to Kenya and Uganda, there are two border towns on either side. These are Marba border and Bsiya. In fact, some people even farm on both sides. In terms of cross-border trade, the informal transaction is already there. There is a lot of trade but this trade is not formal but informal. Here, the boundaries are artificial and separate family members. For example, one may have relatives on the other side of the border.

6. Effects of political factors on regional integration

6.1. Lack of political will

According to Johannes, political will and financial means are the key drivers of integration of which without them one cannot talk about integration. Johannes added that once the political will is there the other drivers will follow. In support of this Kidane (2013) stated that political setting is the foremost component for the success of integration process. In addition, Draper et. al. (2007) indicated that in Africa politics is the major driver of integration.

The majority of the respondents agreed that political will and other drivers of integration are pillars of a region. They are connected to each other. Member states must harmonize their developmental policies. The harmonization of policies has been done everywhere from Latin America, Europe, EAC etc. Andrew added that the systems have already been developed, provided that member states render their political will or agree on the matter. They are the ones responsible for signing the agreements and not the Secretariat. Biswaro (2005) also support this view that nations could only integrate with their free will rather than coercion. This contention was raised by Haas (1964) that states has to redefine their national interest to regional perspectives based on their will.

Kendrick said that the decision of summits should be implemented by member states. Making deliberations in the annual meetings is not sufficient. However, for regional integration to be a reality the meetings should be coupled with implementation and political will. The ratification of protocols demands political will from each member state.

Trevor indicated that there was lack of cooperation among member states due to the tense relationship each state had with the other. He added that the relationship between Ethiopia and Eritrea is not cordial at the moment. Similarly, the relation between Eritrea and Djibouti is not healthy. The South Sudan and Sudan relation is not good since they did not have clearly demarcated borders. There is tension between Sudan and Uganda because of previous political squabbles.

For Hussien, IGAD is just a secretariat that implements decisions of member states and the commitment of member states determined the achievements of the secretariat. Hence, when one mentioned the problems of political will and commitment, it directly reflected on the heads of states. These are the main actors of the integration process.

Johannes also agreed with the other respondents that the protocol for free movement of people had been adopted. The protocol promotes the right of establishing business, work, education (e.g. Universities). But heads of states are the ones that should ratify the protocol. In line with what Johannes said, Layne (2006) further stressed that despite abundant declarations, measures, policy statements, political commitments, and intra-national institutional configurations, there is little advancement in forwarding clear and breakthrough guidelines for policy makers and researchers.

Andrew supported the views of other respondents that member states lack trust for each other and the integration process. Due to lack of trust member states are not willing to do tasks that benefit the entire region. Instead of rendering political will and commitment for the regional project, member states prefer to construct roads that will connect them with a “trustworthy neighbour” country. The road between Ethiopia and Sudan was constructed through bilateral agreement between the two countries. The interconnection has been done by the countries. This shows that if member states are committed, they will facilitate the integration process. In supporting this view, Layne (2006) stated that member states have to forego their national interest for regional common good.

Besides, member states are also competing to get the status of hegemonic state. According to Trevor, Ethiopia and Kenya behave like the hegemonic states of the region. For Trevor:

“The term hegemonic is difficult to understand. In ECOWAS, Nigeria is a hegemonic state, it has political influence, big economy and strong military. In the SADC region, South Africa can be classified as the hegemonic state due to its vibrant economy. If you look within the IGAD perspective, Ethiopia looks like a hegemonic country. Ethiopia’s fastest growing
economy makes her more viable to become a hegemonic power. Ethiopia has political influence and a strong military. Besides, the population of Ethiopia is by far large and greater than the sum of Kenya and Uganda. Population by itself is power. Kenya is another emerging hegemonic power because of her good economic standing, except that the country is mired in corruption scandals. I am therefore pessimistic about the political will of the member states when it comes to the amelioration of hegemonic power in the region”.

Andrew agreed with Trevor noting that lack of hegemonic power in the region could be one of the challenges of regional integration. He added that states of the region are not in good standing to nominate the region’s hegemonic state, but Ethiopia will be a hegemonic state since geographically it is situated at the centre of the IGAD region and shares a border with all IGAD members except Uganda. This is supported by Nomvete (2009) when he stated that there must be at least one big or powerful state in a region, which is imbued with either socio-economic or political power or popularity in the international arena. Ethiopia as the location of African Union headquarter could regard as popular state in the international community.

Johannes supported Andrew and Trevor’s views noting that Kenya could be a hegemonic power of the region. However, the country has been targeted by terrorists leaving Ethiopia as the most stable country in the region, hence placing Ethiopia in a better position to become the hegemonic state of the region.

6.2. Coinciding membership
Trevor noted overlapping membership is a problem. Kenya and Uganda are member states of EAC. All member states except Somalia are members of COMESA. Djibouti, Eritrea, Sudan and Somalia are members of CEN-SAD. Trevor noted that, dual accountability and dual membership affects member states’ ability to attain their priority and commitment. This contention is also supported by Estrada (2009) when he indicated that regional integration may contribute to international frictions between competing blocs through creating multiple legal frameworks and various dispute settlement mechanisms as well as absorbing other multilateral arrangements.

Johannes agreed with Trevor’s and Estrada’s view that overlapping membership makes member states to be uncommitted. The most problematic consequence of coinciding membership was that it brings overlapping programs. Previously there was an Inter-Regional Coordination Committee that gave recommendations on projects of building a road. According to Johannes, although there was a tender for overlapping programs, it lacked coordination among different RECs of the South Eastern Africa including SADC, COMESA, EAC, IOC and IGAD.

Andrew and Hussein bolstered the views of the other respondents by saying that the Tripartite Agreement (TA) is just a political agenda that has nothing to do with the reality. In the beginning one has to finish what he is doing in the IGAD region. Jumping from one configuration to another is meaningless. The TA is an agreement between COMESA, SADC and EAC where they agreed to work in the infrastructure projects. But practically, all the three organisations did their own projects without engaging IGAD. A study conducted by IGAD (2011) also confirm that due to overlapping projects, donor countries considered the organisation as political group because many projects of IGAD is also run by COMESA. Indeed, overlapping of regional projects create confusion on donor countries and development partners. It creates paradox on which project should get funded.

7. Lack of peace and security
All the respondents said that the best achievement of IGAD lies in the peace and security sector. Hussien said that, IGAD achieved quite a lot of mediation and peace security tasks. However, its achievement in the Sudan and Somalia peace process is still far from over. In relation to this Peter (2012) enunciated that integration will lead to not only on economic unity but also cooperation in the peace and security sector. Redie (2013) also stated that regional integration in the region could serve as a resolving mechanisms for pastoralist conflict over grazing land and water. A sound regional policy could reduce socio economic problems.

In light of the above, Trevor said that:

“Even though IGAD has been grappling with extraordinary circumstances, the IGAD mediation process is successful so far. Both the Sudan and Somalia peace processes are effective. In Somalia at least the federal government is established. It is a success story. The impending Comprehensive Peace Agreement (CPA) between South Sudan and Sudan is also a
success story of IGAD. In addition, the peace accord between President Salva Kir and Rick Machar is also a success story. But the problem is that there remains an emergent conflict that borders on religiosity.”

Andrew also agreed with Trevor by saying the following:

“I think those extraordinary issues are spoiling the achievements of IGAD. However, if you look at the issue of peace and security, IGAD has been able to establish the Sudan peace process. When Sudan separated with South Sudan, IGAD is the one that midwifed the process. IGAD has been working with Somalia including the rebel groups. With limited resources, IGAD is doing well in the peace and security sector. This clearly shows despite whatever happens, we are on the right track. Even if people from outside might not agree, we have a good record especially in the peace and security sector.”

The majority of respondents said that the IGAD region was notorious for frequent conflicts and wars. According to the World Bank report (2013), since 2005-2011, there were a series of attacks by pirates and warlords in the region. As a result of that, Euro naval forces and many actors were drawn to the offshore of Somalia to protect European interests. Because of this intervention since 2011, piracy declined. Indeed, this trend of piracy in Somalia and the weak political system makes the country to be one of the weakest in the horn of Africa (World Bank, 2013).

Johannes, also a participant, said the following: “Eritrea also suspended its membership from IGAD. We don’t know when it intends to come back. It is part of the consequence of the Ethio-Eritrea border war. South Sudan is part of IGAD but suddenly war broke out in its mainland, right in the capital city called Juba. The Eritrean government captured parts of Djibouti. Somalia is also a failed state for the last 25 years. On the overall, things are not well in this part of the world.”

Kendrick also reflected on the views of Andrew and Johannes. He said that:

“Member states are more committed with conflict resolution efforts. If one looks at the meetings held by member states for Somalia and South Sudan, you will find that there have been many. South Sudan now is committed to peace. The same is true about Somalia. Stopping internecine conflicts means a lot to the development of the region.”

Hussien also agreed with Kendrick that organised transnational crimes affect the socio-economic development of the region. Hussien added that arms trafficking, money laundering, insurgent groups, and terrorism were the main security challenges of the region which compromised the integration process. Money laundering was affecting the financial integration of the region while insurgent groups were involved in the demolition of regional infrastructure in order to unseat the central government.

For Hussien, one cannot control the insurgent movement unless the incumbent forces win or lose. He said that one has to know the reality. In Ethiopia, there were civil wars for more than three decades. There was mediation and discussion but it did not bring any solution. Finally, the one who won the battle came to power.

Trevor supported Hussien’s view that the Sudanese civil war is the longest one in Africa. Many mediations were conducted but neither of the parties agreed to cease their warfare. At last the civil war came to an end with the secession of South Sudan.

The majority of respondents believe that IGAD’s engagement with the media is quite limited. This is due to the different policies of member states towards the media. The respondents also worry about the growing negative impact of social media. The Information Resource and Communication Centre of IGAD is responsible for liaising with the media. It is faced with challenges. Johannes and Kendrick emphasised the need for inclusiveness in IGAD’s mediation process. Accordingly, IGAD’s peace process is an inclusive one as it involves civil societies, elders, warring factions, international institutions (Such as African Union), interested countries, and IGAD partners.

Hussien supported this view and said that:

“IGAD is neutral in the mediation process. In the CPA, IGAD was mediating the South Sudan and Sudan. It was mediating as a neutral partner. CPA is too vital to bring relative peace in Southern Sudan.”

7.1. Terrorism

Andrew noted that terrorism is one of the major challenges of regional integration. The frequent attacks such as in Kenya affects the country in many ways. It affects the country’s stability and its cost of life, the cost of finance as well as the tourism
industry. This was witnessed by the recent attacks by Al Shabab on the 11 April 2015 at Garissa University where almost 147 Kenyans were killed (ISS, 2015). The same is true about other countries such as Ethiopia, Uganda and Djibouti which are embroiled in terrorist activities. Andrew emphasised that even profiling and labelling has its negative impact on socio-economic development. After 9/11, travelling to US or Europe with a Muslim name was not easy.

Hussien added that the same is true for peaceful Somalis who want to travel across the IGAD region and also to the United States of America since President Trump was sworn into the oval office. They are interrogated and watched out by immigration officers. Even if a religion could serve as a pretext to mobilize people to engage in terrorist activities, it will be a bad deduction to associate all sects of Islam with terrorism.

In supporting Hussein, Victoria (2011) maintains that religion as a means of controlling state power is not a new phenomenon. She indicates that there were the Jacobins in France that indorsed for the origins of terrorism in the 13th century. Other terrorists that justify their acts as religiously correct include Irish Republican Army, National Organisation of Cyriote Fighters, Muslim National Front in Algeria. In line with this, the majority of respondents believed that terrorism and radical Islam have a nexus relationship. Kendrick said the following in this regard:

“Radical Islam is a problem. Definitely Radicalisation is a challenge. This is because of our proximity to the Middle East conflict centre. This proximity makes us highly vulnerable. In addition, the Somalia crises aggravated the problem of radical Islam. Somalia became a theatre for foreign fighters, foreign ideology and narratives that are beyond the doctrine of Islam.”

This is in line with Dawit (2016), who indicated that Wahhabism, which is also part of the radical Islam, is a problem in the region in that it does not tolerate other forms of religion. He further stated that Wahhabism observes strict interpretation of Islam, condemned other interpretations and innovations and it saw Western values and civilization as abhorrently evil. Dawit’s assertion was also made true by the US state department’s report about the beheading of two Muslim clerics from Shi sect in Somalia (US state department, 2009).

The use of force to defeat terrorist groups like Al-Shabab is not working. The best way is to study the root causes of terrorism. According to a study conducted by Institute for security studies (2015), the brutality of security forces within IGAD is mentioned as the reason instigating the citizens to join terrorist groups. Atin and William (2007) also argue that economic factors in this region are the root causes of terrorism. Furthermore, poverty might lead the unsatisfied youth to join terrorist groups.

Conclusion

This paper presents the opinion of the respondents. Most of them revealed that IGAD lacks financial capacity, unclear programmes and a static structure that hampers the secretariat to work effectively. It was also revealed that regional projects are depending on donor countries since IGAD lacks financial institutions that could develop its own source of funding. Presently, IGAD is engaging the member states in building roads that could connect all the countries in the horn of Africa. Unfortunately, there is a slow progress in this regard as many of these countries are reluctant to participate in this worthy programme. The infrastructure in most of these countries is not adequate to fully and quickly transport goods and people. The involvement of the private sector in helping IGAD is also limited. Lack of harmonization of policies is another challenge that the IGAD is battling with. Instead of thinking and acting regionally, member states prefer to engage in bilateral agreements with countries of their own. According to the respondents, free movement of people is hampered by a tense relationship among member states. Respondents further said that strict visa regulations and inadequate infrastructure are also discouraging people to move, work and trade. Even though IGAD does not encourage people to people interaction, informal trade along the borders continue to take place. According to the respondents, political will is the key for integration. The lack of political will could be manifested in the overlapping of membership. The region is notorious for subsequent conflicts. Peace in the region could be one of the recipes to bring harmony and stability in the region.

References


How much space is given to women in local Kosovo newspapers competing for mayors?

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Abstract
The purpose of this paper is to identify the space that was given in the local newspapers to women that competed for mayors during the election campaign held on November 3, 2013, in Kosovo, and to see if the newspapers can be one of the factors that in this election there were fewer women that competed and that only one was elected. On November 3, 2013, the local elections were held for 37 municipal mayors in Kosovo. From 37 municipalities there were 206 man and 8 women candidates. In all municipalities only one woman was elected as a mayor of municipality. We are waiting for the new local elections that will be held on October 2017, and again there will be fewer than 3 % women who will compete. The methodology of this article is the content analysis. An analysis of the articles from three daily Kosovo newspapers was used, which are the most read, such as: Koha Ditore, Kosova Sot, and Zëri. The sample for the analysis included: the month of October, since on October 3rd the election campaign was officially started. In addition, it includes the first week and the last one of the month of October, 2013. From the analysis it is noticed that women who competed were given very little space in the newspapers. For example, the most widely read newspaper "Koha Ditore" during this period on the first page only mentioned 1 woman competing while men mentioned 42 times. With the very small number of women mentioned on the front page there is also the second most widely read newspaper in Kosovo, "Kosova Sot", which only once mentions a woman, while men are mentioned six times. The third most widely read newspaper, the "Zëri" newspaper, first page men mentioned 29 times while women 4 times. Considering the fact that patriarchal opinion prevails in Kosovar society, and when the newspapers do not give space to women who are competing, then it is conceivable that we have very few women to vote. Also, this tiny space given to women during the race implies that we have too few women competing because the biggest newspaper space would make women aware and stimulate them to compete, and of course we will have more women voted.

Keywords: spaces, newspapers, women, men, compete

Introduction
The space that local newspapers in Kosovo give to women who run for mayors

Before starting the interpretation of the results it is important to show why these three newspapers have been chosen for analysis. According to a survey conducted by Index-Kosovo in Kosovo in 2008, the most widely read newspapers in Kosovo are: Koha Ditore 36%. The newspaper Kosova Sot follows with 35% and, Zeri's paper by 8%.

The analysis shows that there is a big gender difference in how much space is given by Kosovo newspapers when women are competing. As can be seen from Figure 1 below, the most widely read newspaper in Kosovo "Koha Ditore", only one woman had mentioned on the first page during the election campaign. While, the men who competed were mentioned on the first page 42 times. Gender difference is also found inside the newspaper, where women were mentioned 11 times while men 52 times.

We also have the number 2 most read newspaper, which is the newspaper "Kosova Sot", which on the first page also mentioned only 1 woman, while the men this newspaper had mentioned 4 times in the front page. In this newspaper we have a huge gender difference in the newspaper, where 24 men and 6 women are mentioned.

The third newspaper listed in Kosovo, which is the newspaper "Zëri", also has a large gender difference on the front page. This newspaper distinguishes from the first two of the most widely read because there is the largest gender difference between men and women mentioned in this newspaper. On the front page of this newspaper 60 men have mentioned and
only 4 women mentioned. Inside the newspaper the men politicians who ran were mentioned 287 times while competing women were mentioned 29 times.

Figure 1: the space given women in newspaper who run for mayor

Source: National Library of Kosovo/respective newspapers

Media, with its own epithet as the fourth power, has an enormous role in people's lives, including the best opportunity to promote the issue of gender equality. Considering this role of the media, there should be harmony between gender issues and the media and journalism, because these two areas are inseparable. Therefore, it is very improbable to think that the media has no impact on people. (Gauntlett, 2008, p. 2 dhe 3)

The media not only has a reflection on public opinion, but it is also one of the socializing agents of the individual who has a great deal of influence on the formation of public opinion and the education of the people.

Media can have a huge impact on empowering women. Therefore, the Beijing Platform for Action was adopted at the Fourth Women's Conference in 1995. This platform identifies the issue of "women and the media" as one of the twelve critical and worrying areas, and emphasizes that "there is a possibility that the media contributes more to the advancement of women." This platform has also set two strategic objectives, where one of these objectives is dedicated to new media and new telecommunication technologies, through which they promote a balanced and unbiased stereotyped women in the media.

Not only do the newspapers have gender differences

The small number of women is not just of those who run for mayors. Also, newspapers do not remain the only ones that have large gender differences. In order to have a clear situation, it is important to have a gender overview of the current 2017 outgoing Government.

For example from 19 ministries – 14 men are ministers and only 5 women are ministers. On the position of deputy ministers there are 20 men and only 4 women, see fig. Nr. 2. Even though every political party in Kosovo has 30% of women, as it is required by legal quota, still these 30% of women remain invisible in decision-making positions.
This tells us how much patriarchal mindset still prevails in Kosovo society. For many centuries, this mentality was not installed in the Kosovar mentality. Therefore, the Albanian sociologist Zyhdë Dervishi was right in claiming that in Albanian mythology, the portrait of the Albanian woman was compared to the image of Zana (fairy), who was believed to be a woman dressed in bridal clothes, but also distinguished by her bravery. But the Ottoman Empire was the one that put the idea that military functions and war were men’s occupations and jobs. Prejudices for women have overwhelmed the entire atmosphere of Albanian society and as an invisible gelatinous mass prevented the engagement of girls and women in political life. (Dervishi, 2011, p. 18).

Why so few women voted?

It can be quite rightly pointed out that the newspaper can be considered one of the reasons why we have very few women voted in Kosovo, and also why very few women compete for mayors.

On the other side, it is not only the media, in these case newspapers, the only factor that determines why we have so few women voted. An important role has also the political culture that we have in Kosovo. Here, political culture that prevails is that we do not see the candidates and do not read the programs of the political parties. In Kosovo, voting for political party is done based on emotional bonds to the party, without reading the program or seeing the candidate. Political entities in Kosovo are viewed on the basis of territories and in each area so far are known the result in advance of who will win the elections.

Why are media and politics very close?

At the time when these 8 women competed for mayors, in Kosovo we had a woman as the country president. It is not the purpose of this paper nor has the analysis devoted to the criticisms for her. But considering it very important to mention that there was much criticism at the time, both for her appearance and performance. Although there is no empirical and scientific evidence in Kosovo regarding what political party owns any kind of media, there are some small articulations – not scientific but individual, which are told by the people on which media belongs to which political party. But, from what we see during the political campaign, there are several media outlets that speak in favor of one or another political party in Kosovo. What can we say in this case? That if Mrs. Jahjaga had a media platform there wouldn’t be mainly criticism addressed to her, but a new reality would be presented towards Mrs. Jahjaga, different from the one we are used to see on most of the occasions

Or what can we say about these 8 women competing for mayoral elections in these elections if they had a newspaper, would they give themselves more space? Of course yes. They would give themselves more space, and surely today we would have more women as mayors, and today, more than 3% of women would compete for mayor. It would also be considered a very powerful tool to overcome prejudices about women in politics.

The very fact that the history of newspaper creation has started with the political developments of societies, even the first publications have begun in the form of billboards, policy pamphlet publications or other interest groups in general (Berisha,
2007, p. 44), shows why politics has a very close relationship with the media and in this case newspapers. Because of this very close relationship between media and politics, where the media itself has the power to change reality depending on social and political situations or interests, naturally the question arises as to how we can have a realistic picture of women's portrayal in the media, and in this case, in newspapers? Or, as Giovanni Sartori said that in the case of media monopoly there is no worthy public opinion (Sartori, 1998).

Experts in the field of mass communication argue that political competition is deeply transformed with the development of political marketing based on lure, speed, restricted vocabulary, and the media is taken as a convenience and short way to communicate with citizens (Maigret, 2010).

German politician Werner Patzelt has found a kind of interdependence between government officials and journalists in his research, pointing out that the relationship between them is multifaceted because each one is dependent on the other (Patzelt J., 2016).

The democratic country should be followed by the free and independent media, as Monro E.Prajs and Peter Krug said, in their study “The Environment Friendly for Free and Independent Media”, saying that without the press free democracy is impossible, as the courts claim (2000).

**Conclusion**

Newspapers in Kosovo do not offer minimal space for women politicians who run for mayors, compared to their male counterparts. Normally, having this situation in newspapers, how can we expect to have more women voted?

The media, in this case newspapers, as one of the important pillars of democracy, and the educational role it has, should work in the spirit of non-discriminatory gender-based reporting. This is to make the newspapers give much more space for political women when they run for mayors. It remains to be hoped that the situation will improve as soon as the election campaign for elections to be held in October of this year (2017) is opened.

**Bibliography**

Sociological Dimensions of the FCP Method according to Christian Psychotherapy in Coping with Stress and Suffering

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Abstract
The concept of the Five Control Points, FCP (systematized by the author), is a contemporary approach used in Christian Psychotherapy that arises from a specific personal and spiritual experience under the supervision of a spiritual father—psychotherapist. It enables productive and meaningful overcoming of stress, as well as of the process of suffering, on a personal and wider social level, developing an adaptive social response and effective functioning. This is a descriptive study of the applied FCP method. It consists of five control points based on the Christian spiritual practice (acceptance, thanksgiving, self-discernment, quiescence and prayer). In the classical approaches, dealing with stress occurs on a psychological level by activating the psychological defence mechanisms, the most common: suppression, denial, rationalization. With FCP there is a completely opposite reaction. The intrapsychic process and its dynamics shift in the domain of the spiritual self with phenomenon of positive transformation (metanoia). The FCP method stimulates a creative process of overcoming stress and suffering as a purposeful and useful integrated experience that enhances the capacity of existence by enabling further and continuous personal growth and development. The person maturing through this process is the unifying axis, the peacemaker and the pointer to the positive developmental direction in the family unit, the environment and the society as a wider context. The positive social impact of the concept can be observed by comparing the usual human behaviour and the behaviour of a person trained through the FCP method.

Keywords: FCP method, Christian psychotherapy, stress, suffering, defence mechanisms, metanoia, positive social impact

Introduction
Human existence is the greatest challenge for science, philosophy and the branches of sociology alike. Contemporary psychology imposes new paradigms in its explanation of man’s functioning as a whole being. This entails a holistic approach in the interpretation, that is, beside the biological and psychological there is also a spiritual aspect to the whole being. Spirituality has undoubtedly been and will remain “the missing chain” in the scientific interpretation of man and his most profound inner forces.

The primary aim of this study is to offer a description of the FCP method—systematized for the first time by the author—and additionally to carry out its demystification by precise informing and understanding of the significance of spirituality from the viewpoint of Christian Psychotherapy and Christian Anthropology. The emphasis is on the spiritual dimension as a reality to human health and existence in general and as a basis for an overall social wellbeing.

This has already been undeniably and empirically shown in contemporary studies, like the one carried out by the National Institute of Health and Family Welfare (NIHFW), New Delhi, which made a survey in 2011 and pointed out the importance of the fourth dimension of health—the spiritual one beside the other three dimensions: physical, mental and social, defined and constituted by the WHO. Spiritual health has been defined as a state of being where an individual is able to deal with day-to-day life issues in a manner that leads to the realization of one’s full potential, meaning and purpose of life and fulfilment from within. Such a state of being is attainable through self-evolution, self-actualisation and transcendence (Dhar, Chaturvedi and Nandan, 2011, pp. 275-82).
Indisputable is the relation between the unfavourable life events and the states of stress, suffering and crisis in general. **Stress has been invoked as a cause of major psychopathology, a precipitator or trigger of psychiatric illness, and a contributor to considerable mental anguish** (Dimsdale, Keefe and Stein, 2000, p. 3775).

These states are most often related to a series of unwanted biological and psychological effects, above all, on an individual basis, such as psychosomatic diseases, anxious disorders and depression, which result in a professional, family and social dysfunction. They are also reflected wider and have a far-reaching effect within the family as a primary social structure and further, within the secondary social structures—the working place and the society as a wider social context. **The spirituality and spiritual practices have been shown to have a positive impact on many of these lifestyle diseases** (Dhar, Chaturvedi and Nandan, 2013, pp. 3-5).

This has also been proven empirically in a research study, which is a Master’s thesis of the author—**Psychological Aspects of the Process of Loss, Grieving and Overcoming the Loss of a Family Member** (2015). The research was carried out on a sample of 108 examinees that were going through the process of grieving due to a loss of a family member. The examinees were categorized into three groups—believers, nominal believers and atheists, depending on their relation to religion and faith (obeying the church rules, principles, feasts, reading and listening to the Scriptures, Holy Eucharist, FCP method with a prayer).

The basic purpose was to point at the positive impact of spiritual life on one’s psychological state, by examining the following parameters: anxiety, stress and depression. The psychological state of the first category of believers that have lost a family member is considerately on a higher level, with a lesser degree of anxiety, stress and depression than the other two groups. Next is the category of nominal believers, and the last is the category of atheists.

The received parameters indicate that the influence of the Church and the depth of spiritual life influence upon the psychological state of the examinees; this influence is statistically significant.

**Christian Psychotherapy**

The FCP method is the basis of Christian Psychotherapy and Christian practice in a wider sense, which is derived from the two-thousand-year experience of the holy teachers of the Church. It is based on the ascetical-hesychastic struggle (Митрополит Струмичи Наум, 2011, pp. 19-20), which is the essence of Christian teaching.

According to the Christian Anthropology, man is both soul and body. The human soul consists of three powers: the rational one, which is the mind, and two irrational, the will and desire. Their center is man’s spiritual heart. All of these powers need to function in reconciliation; otherwise, the man cannot be considered mentally healthy. The mind is the rational power by which the man personally and directly communicates with God (the Archetype of good), while the intellect is a secondary function or tool of the mind by which the man communicates with this world. The reconciliation of the primary function of the mind with its secondary function—the intellect, is of an essential importance.

In the Patristic ascetical literature, the cognizant Orthodox spiritual life or struggle in knowledge is developed at three levels of the spiritual growth: **purification of the heart from passions, illumination of the mind and godlikeness**. The level of spiritual growth is determined by the quality of prayer. These teachings have been lost in other Christian denominations.

According to the Christian Psychotherapy, without the reconciled activity of the primary and secondary function of the mind, which comprises the healing of the mind, the development of the human personality and the realization of one’s personal identity are not possible (Ilievski, 2015, p. 168).

**FCP Method:**

Several authors have made an attempt to describe the phases or the stages which man goes through when facing stress and suffering. Mentioned very often is the method according to the psychologist Kübler-Ross (1969, p. 91), described for the first time in her book *On Death and Dying*. The original idea was a detailed description of the stages which a person goes through when facing the terminal phase in fatal illnesses and death (denial, anger, bargaining, depression and acceptance). Afterwards the same stages were used for describing the process which man goes through when grieving and mourning. Many disagree with this systematization and no one can definitely claim that this process is general, unavoidable and always brings a successful resolution in the end.
These five stages undergone by an individual who leads unnatural way of life (soulfulness) are a total opposite to the five control points undergone by a Christian struggler who leads a natural way of life (spirituality), because from experience it is known that the former, closed in his created and fallen nature, is limited to undergo only the process of suppression, while the latter, because of a graceful and personal union with God, undergoes a process of transformation.

The FCP method is, in fact, the basis of the Orthodox struggle in general. It is ascetical by nature, which means that it is based, above all, on volition and action. It is a dynamic process of activating the deeper volition dynamisms, such as the rational will, according to St. Maximus the Confessor, as opposed to the primordial impulses, which are determined by the natural will (PG 91, 280a).

**Description of the Method:**

Each life challenge and trouble (temptation) is correctly overcome in the following way (Metropolitan Nahum of Strumica, 2015):

1. **Acceptance** (accepting it as a gift of God);

   The key is in acceptance. He who accepts the temptation correctly has reached the end before setting out on his journey. It is the main turning point as an initial position. A sign that the temptation is accepted as a gift is when without changing itself at all—except our attitude towards it—the temptation becomes to us a source of joy, consolation and grace.

2. **Thanksgiving** (giving thanks to God);

   Gratitude as a positive emotional and spiritual state that enables the person an unhindered access to the greatest power of the spiritual self, as well as building a positive and constructive attitude towards various life occasions.

3. **Self-discernment** (self-examining with a humble self-conscience);

   Keeping the locus of control to oneself, with an insight into one's own conduct and understanding his role into concrete life situations.

4. **Quiescence** (stillness with a behavioural peacefulness);

   Not showing outwardly with some acting that one is being tempted.

5. **Prayer** (not as a battle against temptation, but as a continuous struggle of building union with God).

   Prayerfully collecting its energy into God—in the heart, the mind comes to knowledge of God and realizes its own primary function. On the other hand, when scattering its energy through the senses in the world, the mind realizes its secondary function as intellect.

   According to the previously said, the man struggles in a free and love manner in order his mind to act, above all, in its primary function—by prayerfully collecting its energy within the heart and prayerfully uniting him with God.

   Prayer is also directly related to the coefficient of spiritual intelligence, a notion also defined by the author.

**Coefficient of Spiritual Intelligence**

The coefficient of spiritual intelligence is the ability—transformed by God’s grace and acquired through a long-lasting struggle and experience derived from it, correctly and quickly to overcome every temptation that is standing before man’s development (Митрополит Струмички Наум, 2015, pp. 62-63).

At a moment of temptation, the weakened mind usually uses its secondary function—overflowed by thoughts, it observes itself (becomes aware of the hurt and changed feelings), thinks about what has happened and how to respond adequately to the new situation—an action that contaminates its energy.

Instead of this, man can try immediately, through prayer, to redirect his energy so that his mind starts functioning in its primary function—an action that is transforming its energy.

We can also measure the time during which the mind, functioning in its primary function, succeeds to calm its overall mental sphere, and especially its conceptual sphere.
Dynamics of the Process:

What does it look like the incorrect facing with unfavourable life situations that cause suffering and crisis?

1. Non-acceptance (manifesting a psychological resistance through the primitive mechanisms of defence—denial, projection), which leads to an intrapsychic conflict;
2. Acting out—showing aggressive impulses through emotions of anger and revolt;
3. Displacement—shifting the intrapsychic conflict to the outwards, which leads to losing the locus of control (Rotter, 1954);
4. Externalization—showing outward changes in behaviour;
5. If any prayer is used, it is understood as a battle against the problem.

Certainly, in order to learn how to act correctly at the moment of temptation it is necessary one to spend time in the struggle of self-enforcing—ascesis.

Ascasis (Greek: ἁσκησις) means a struggle, in its etymology—exercise, training. In psychology, ascasis is considered as one of the mature defence mechanisms of personality. "The elimination of directly pleasurable affects attributable to an experience. The moral elements is implicit in setting values on specific pleasures. Asceticism is directed against all "base" pleasures perceived consciously, and gratification is derived from the renunciation" (adapted from Vaillant, 1977). It is a man’s active struggle, whose initial position is acceptance as a crucial point that changes the entire intrapsychic process. Namely, more complex, mature psychological mechanisms arise, which have the function of dealing with newly arisen situations (stress, suffering), and not only the more primitive, defence mechanisms in the basis of which arises temporary dealing with the conflict on a suppression level.

It is a more profound process than the usual psychological model of one’s acting while dealing with unfavourable factors, through which only the primitive mechanisms are managed and through which Ego keeps the dynamic equilibrium. With the first control point of acceptance, the dynamics, as well as the essence of the process, is shifted from the psychological level into the domain of spiritual existence—the spiritual self, whose core according to Orthodox Anthropology and Christian Psychotherapy is placed in the spiritual heart.

In the second case, there is only temporary restoring of an intrapsychic equilibrium, as opposed to the first. Applying the FCP, the moving energy Psihe, from the basic impetuses that are part of human nature, Survia and Passia, as named by the American psychologist Fanita English, penetrates into the level of Transcia (English, 2006).

Transcendence is the essential spiritual aspect, where the process of the deepest, crucial transformation metanoia takes place along with a profound repentance, which brings to a radical change of conscience or change of mind.

It is a crucial process that enables a complete processing of experience, their essential living and integration at all levels of one’s existence. This, in fact, is a continuous process that is the core of the developing cycles, which leads to its utmost self-actualization as a whole being, that is, the spiritual being. More precisely, it is a complete existential realization where man lives the eternal determinedness in hic et nunc.

By the correct way of overcoming stress and suffering, one can realize the following—generating positive emotions and pleasant psychological and spiritual states, such as: love, mercy, forgiveness, thankfulness, peace, sharing, with an effect of repentance and mourning as a spiritual joy, not despair or euphoria. In addition, one realizes that the problem is never outside of him, but it is always inside him—in his attitude or relation to everything that happens, and that the only way to change the world around him is to change himself first.

Spiritual Heart

Central role in the existence of the Christian is his spiritual heart. It is the most powerful source of his being, living and overall existence. It is the eternal impetus (Oxford Advanced Learner’s Dictionary, 2005). It is the momentum of a centripetal gathering of the energy—Psiche in its primordial center, the spiritual heart. It is a place of the most intimate meeting between God and man, a point of uniting between the created and the uncreated. The uncreated energy of God, that mystical elan vital (Bergson, 1911, pp. 87-97), is given to all by the act of Baptism in the Church. This energy is laid in the spiritual heart. The aim of Christian life and existence in general is—through cleansing of the heart from the passions—to activate and actualize the divine uncreated energy, which when manifested in the enough cleansed heart,
shows us the **place of the heart**, and the mind receives the gift of the mind-and-heart prayer. It is this prayer that enables the personal union of man with God (Митрополит Струмишки Наум, 2017). According to Paul Pearsall (1998, p. 4), “the heart thinks, cells remember, and that both of these processes are related to an as yet mysterious, extremely powerful, but very subtle energy with properties unlike any other known force.”

**Sociological Dimension of the FCP Method:**

The practical application of the FCP method has a useful social impact on man, not only as an individual, but also on a wider scale, as a social dimension of his family and environment in general. According to Erickson’s psycho-social development model, the producing of a “widening social radius” (Erickson, 1998, as cited in Sadock & Sadock, 2005, p. 746) by reaching maturity through evolution not only of the emotional-social intelligence (Sadock, Sadock and Ruiz, 2015), but we would add, also by the coefficient of spiritual intelligence’ (Митрополит Струмишки Наум, 2015, pp. 59-67).

This is reflected in the development of a healthy mental and spiritual welfare, generating positive and useful spiritual values, such as: love, forgiving, reconciliation, readiness to share, quick and adequate overcoming of all life challenges, above all, of the unfavourable ones related to the states of stress and suffering.

The benefits are manifested not only in the subjective psychological welfare, but also such an individual is with a higher level of consciousness, responsibility and productivity within the social context. The continuous personal growth and development through this method enables increasing of one’s capacities by means of a pro-social behaviour, that is, he overcomes the limits of his closed intrapersonal world and establishes quality interpersonal relations based on empathy and altruism. In such a way mature and complete personalities that are the unifying axis and a positive social model are created.

Contemporary society is facing a moral crisis and a crisis of values, and more than anytime there is a need of persons who are bearers of such inner coverage, who are the unifying axis, peace makers and bearers of antinomical leadership.

Thus the domain and the outreach of the FCP method is widened, which—in its essence—is a dynamic and live process that enables a continuous growth and development of personality. This is the essential way of the development model from the perspective of Orthodox Anthropology, defined as *a revelation in the opposite direction* (Митрополит Струмишки Наум, 2015, p. 111), where the highest achievement of man is his spiritual realization—the loving union with the divine in his open heart.

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Intercultural Translation and Communication

Lorena Sadiku Manaj

Abstract

The accuracy of translation and interpretation in intercultural communication is a primary element in the exchange of messages between two or more cultures. When it comes to precision in translation, it is imperative to put in the foreground the precision of finding the equivalence or correspondence appropriate to the communication of two different identities. That precision is entirely in the hands of the translator, but not only. Accurate translation is related to the role of translator in this communication, but also the recognition of jogging elements, as well as the social context in which the process takes place. It is well known that intercultural communication has been achieved through translation science, as it is clear that without this science intercultural exchanges could not happen. There is no way to get used to all the languages of the world. Since the creation of human life, various verbal and nonverbal interpretations between different communities had to be communicated. Intercultural communication relies heavily on translation and interpretation, which are two very important tools for creating a bridge of meaning-crossing, from one language to another, and from one culture to another. Translation is one of the most ancient linguistic phenomena. It was seen as the necessary solution that brought the great number of languages around the world at a time when mankind had just started extending widely to the planet called Earth. Translation has a special merit in communicating between two speakers who speak different languages and have different cultures. Merit relates to the exchange of words that carry the meaning and accurate transmission of the message between two interlocutors or between two different identities with unmatched tradition, culture and habits. In intercultural communication, during the translation process, translators are left free to choose words to describe the concepts from source language to sign language, but this free hand is allowed only by being faithful to the meaning. An important role plays a social context as the interpreter should be attentive to distinguish which culture is being translated and is always ready to find the right linguistic and cultural parameters for the sole purpose of realizing communication. The work of an interpreter can not be done by anyone who knows two languages. The interpreter should be a good connoisseur of the language and culture of the source language and the sign language. Also, the interpreter must necessarily be a very good connoisseur of the social context, which translates or interprets. In intercultural communication, the work of an interpreter can not be left to linguistic equivalence alone, as it is highly riskful to convey the meaningful message. The sender transmits signals to the receiver. For a man who does not know the language - the source of the message, these signals find no sense, so it is imperative for the interpreter to intervene, who, besides being able to embody them, makes meaningful sense to the recipient of the message. How does he do this? Of course, finding the correct verbal and nonverbal parameters as well as necessarily calculating the time or social context in which the translation takes place. Given all the above elements, the interpreter should always be keen to achieve an accomplished communication. He should have a very good knowledge of the language and culture of the source language and quite well the language and culture of the sign language. You should also know the social period or context for which you are translating well. You can not overlook the inner state or curiosity of the interpreter himself.

Keywords: Intercultural Translation and Communication.

Introduction

How do you find the right word at the right moment?

Of course, it is not a major difficulty for a professional translator, but in different situations, difficulties can be made even possible or at a high level. This usually happens through cultural translations of the traditions or customs of a people or the
daily or popular jargon of a certain identity. An example of the correct translation of a social reality in Albania is eating a basketball bag made by many Albanians during their long journeys. How can you explain to an alien, for example, that in Albania it has become good that when people leave for holidays in the south, at some stops along the way, stop eating locusts and pilafs? In folk culture or let’s call it in the tradition of the current social context of Albanians, eating a few pupae pans is indispensable for gastric gathering so that you do not feel the mixture over a long journey. Can a Frenchman understand this, whose morning over a long journey is just a croissant and a glass of milk? The aforementioned situation is closely related to the fact that different realities are translated according to different situations. Of course, an interpreter should translate everything.

There is no doubt that we are living in times of great change. As we prepare teachers or students, we are aware of many changes taking place at the global level. Population shifting continues to happen all over the world, bringing in contact intercultural dialogue between groups who speak different languages and carry different cultures. This change does not affect only sectors of society, industry, health, politics or business, but also education. In different parts of Europe just like anywhere else in the world, school curriculum designers include intercultural objectives in school curricula and teachers find themselves facing the challenge of promoting and supporting the acquisition of intercultural competence through teaching. This is true for subject teachers but mostly for those of foreign languages. Foreign Language Teaching is intercultural in essence. Entering a foreign language into a classroom means connecting students with a world that is different from their world. Thus, nowadays it is expected to all foreign language teachers take advantage of this potential and encourage empowerment intercultural competence among students and their students. Intercultural competence is the degree to which a person is able to exchange information efficiently and appropriately to individuals who belong to a different crop. People have different ways of communicating with individuals who are remodeling of a different culture. This makes the intercultural process a difficult process. Purpose of whether expressed or not, of many researches in the field of intercultural communication is the improvement of intercultural competence in individuals. One of the most important competency barriers intercultural is ethnocentrism. Intercultural contact turns individuals into ethnocentric, prejudicial and discriminatory. Even when we are aware of the barriers they make particularly difficult intercultural communication, we can attribute it erroneously other people's problems and do not focus on our abilities or the lack of these skills. Misunderstandings are equally likely to be created by intercultural contacts as well understandings.

The objective of teaching foreign languages is no longer defined by the appropriation of communication competence in a foreign language. Teachers nowadays are required to teach students and students the intercultural communication competence. Being able to cope with intercultural experiences requires that a person possess a range competencies and intercultural characteristics. These powers and features are identified as a desire to engage in foreign culture, self-awareness and the ability to see oneself from an external point of view, the ability to see the world through the eyes of others, the ability to face the most insecure, the ability to acting as a cultural mediator, and the ability to consciously use the skills of learning the culture and to read the cultural context. Given the above, the article will focus first on a general theoretical overview on the importance of communicative and intercultural competences, various interpretations of the concepts as well as the way of passing and acquiring intercultural competence in English language learning. This competence is seen today as a modern trend in foreign language didactics and as one of the most important in the field of education, aiming at a multi-dimensional development of the individual’s personality. First of all there are some of them important methods and exercises such as critical situations, role playing, simulations, which assist in the transference of intercultural competence develop this competence and decide students in real intercultural situations. Then examples of other methods will be given, such as laboratory learning, virtual realities, reflective dialogue, use of fictitious texts, the use of books, virtual classes, and learning through electronic media – all these show concrete aspects and awaken the interest of not only students but also teachers who are looking for ideas to promote the development of intercultural competence. To do it this will be even more clear proposals, examples and concrete exercises as well as instruments didactics to mediate and convey intercultural elements that help teachers for the organization of the lesson, but also the students to be able to communicate and interaction during different intercultural situations. An important part of the paper will be the collection of empirical data related to the role of teachers in intercultural learning of the English language, analyzing these data and extracting them and making conclusions and recommendations.

**What is culture?**

We encounter the notion of “culture” in diverse ways, in different contexts, as well as in diverse meanings and definitions. But what is meant by “culture”? It is about so-called “culture” such as theater, literature, architecture, etc., or the word is
for everyday culture, for example. How we are nourished, how we fix the house and how to dress, how the women and men are greeted; or with culture do we understand our traditions, rituals and customs? Culture is undoubtedly an integral part of our life and society. Also worthy of note is that with the phenomenon "culture" many scientists and personalities have taken over. Based on this, we can assert that "culture" is a complicated and manifold notion, since it itself is also cultural. Word culture implies important and countless aspects of life, making them an inseparable part of it. For most anthropologists, culture includes learned behaviors, beliefs, views, values, and ideals as characteristics of a particular society. It can therefore be said that each of us is born into a complex culture, which exerts a great influence throughout our lives. Culture has to do with the lifestyle of a society, and it includes not only the aspects that are considered more desirable in society, but mostly the everyday activities of everyday life. Suffice it to mention here the example of playing piano or reading the works of Kadare or another author. In this case, social science scientists would only consider elements of what is called general culture. But if we were to talk about culture as a whole, then we would recognize that culture also includes human activities, such as clothing, eating and drinking, washing clothes, driving events, etc. Uncultured society is said to have no, as there are, and uncultured individuals. So we agree with the opinion that every society has a culture, however simple it is and as a result each individual owns a culture, so it is cultured, being a member of a particular society. Culture is taught and adopted by being transmitted mainly through language. The first definition of the concept of culture is found in 1871, given by anthropologist Edward Taylor. In its definition, it is noted that the concept of "culture" includes knowledge, belief, art, law, morals, customs, as well as any other man-made ability and norm as a member of a society. It can be said that, from this point of view, the concept of culture is clear and understandable. But would there be any definitions that are so comprehensive, clear or would they have a more modern orientation? Would there be numerous definitions? It is worth mentioning that since then, the definitions have been numerous. Thus, in 1950, A. L. Kroeber and Clyde Kluckhohn collected from the literature about 100 definitions of culture. In all these definitions there is a clear division of behavior on the one hand, and the abstract values, beliefs and perceptions of the world, on the other. If we would say in other words, we would say that culture is a complex of values and beliefs people use to explain and create new behaviors. Although it is a word of frequent and frequent use, it is not always clear what it means. Like many other notions of this kind, "culture" is also meaningful and its meaning varies in context and usage. For this reason, there is no talk of a homogeneous and general definition of culture.

Thus, according to cultural and social anthropology, which deals mainly with the research of "cultures" count over 500 definitions of culture. As mentioned above, culture is a difficult notion to define, as there is no single definition accepted by everyone. For this very reason, in this paper we will mainly dwell on those definitions, which are important to our topic. Initially, it is important to know the etymology of the word culture, from which language has its source and what its prime meaning is. The word culture comes from Latin culture ("work, plowing of the earth"; the body (of the soul) "), which is related to the cholera ("cultivate", "cater") and generally indicate the way people build their lives together with what they have been thinking and achieving.

**Intercultural and interculturality**

The main aspects of intercultural studies include issues of intercultural learning in foreign language learning. But before addressing the aspect of intercultural learning, it is important and necessary to clarify and explain the notion of "intercultural" as a broad and highly controversial notion. What is understood by this notion can be seen differently according to the scientific disciplines, which we have seen above in explaining the notion of "culture". Generally speaking, aspects of "interculturality" or "intercultural" are understood as a classic example or as a personification of communication between people of different cultures. According to Neudall, communication between speakers of different cultures is always meaningful and this is not only in the context of increasingly growing internationalization of politics, economy, education and culture, but also in teaching a language. Of course, not all the definitions can be addressed in this paper, but those aspects, which have a special significance in learning English for foreigners. The "intercultural" notion is widely used since the mid-1970s and early 1980s, in a very large number of combined definitions, more or less related to teaching and learning of foreign languages. Initially, this notion came out as a thematic word in the field of pedagogy and later in the didactics of foreign languages. It implies the necessary learning that leads to a better understanding of the respective culture as a different culture, alien and its own culture, as we live in a society where different cultures meet. It is about developing the readiness and the ability to be sensitized to the views and ways of others' behavior, to understand them, to tolerate and learn from them something about personal behavior. Concerning this is understood the processes of exchange between cultures, or more specifically: between persons and groups with different cultural history and traditions.
From the point of view, we think that Latin prefixes inter- mean exactly "between two or more entities, with each other, mutually." So let's note that in relation to "interculturality" it is a "between (them)". Interculturality unfolds as a theoretical model of how to behave in different situations of cultural meetings in which cultures can not be seen as biased, but as open systems of rules, which act in mutual respect and exchange with each other.

Only after the collapse of the communist system, after the 90s, the term "intercultural" and "intercultural" began to be talked about, although it did not really mean the same thing, which was supposed to be spoken in the western Europe. This notion began to be used almost for every relationship between foreign countries and their countries, as well as everything related to foreign culture, and was described as "intercultural". Thus, the fact that interculturality is also intriguing was also ignored. But we can say that after the overthrow of the political system after the 1990s, something began to change, as teachers, but not only, began to encounter this notion abroad; so they began to get acquainted with his meaning, then introduced in Albania. The result was extremely positive, as Albanians were later able to explain different intercultural situations as well as the very meaning of the notion. They also began to rely on the notion of "cooperation" between foreign cultures, of course in a broader sense. This view is not wrong, because everywhere, where different cultures meet, we are dealing with intercultural situations.

We think that there was no ideological or political reason for delaying the use of interculturality. In France, for example, in the years of communism they have studied and specialize in foreign language teachers but they have not approached the intercultural concept.

Communication and Intercultural Competence - Intercultural Communication

Communication is a common and well-known part of our lives that we often do not pay attention to the importance. Moreover, we often participate in the communication process only as senders and recipients of information without being aware that we are dealing with a complex process, which itself contains many interconnected steps with each other. Human society is built and exists precisely thanks to the human ability for communication. There are many tools that serve to communicate between people: gestures, screams, different signals, but the main tool is nested speech etc. Knowing how to communicate with other people is very important, but on the other hand you have the ability to be understandable about what you intend to say to them is a circumstance that facilitates relationships with them, thus avoiding misunderstandings, disagreements or conflicts. On a few occasions in our daily lives we have noticed that the cause of the great and sometimes insoluble conflicts may have been a mistaken word, not in the right place, as well as badly understood or heard. Also, we may often have felt badly when someone has talked to us seriously or did not understand us properly. Precisely regarding the correct use of the word, Mark Twain would write in his statement that "the difference between the word correctly and what is almost correct is the difference between the light of lightning and the light of the candle". For this, the experience of everyday life has shown that finding the right communication with everyone is difficult.

• First, we need to understand that not everyone thinks and desires the same. For example, likes read, another enjoys hiking in nature.

• Second, we talk to each other about different topics. If we do not like the theme, of course we can retreat, but that does not make us feel good.

• Third, not everyone is tolerant and uncomplicated and understands each other as it is without pre-ordination. To handle and resolve a dispute or conflict, it is imperative to have effective communication. The question should not be asked, "What is the definition of communication?" Or "What is communication?". The answer to this question can not be the same from everyone. Anyone from us would have a different answer. The most appropriate question would be, "What do we understand by communication and what do we want to say, express and convey by word?" Indeed, all the human relationship displayed as human relationships with each other, the human being with nature or the human being, is in fact in essence an infinite number of communications. Therefore, we find communication treatments in the most ancient thinkers, and therefore there is also a set of communication definitions.

Communication is not only an integral part of our daily life, but also an element of important for any form of coexistence among people. Communication involves everyone; it appears in all human situations. Given this, the fact is not surprising, why there are so many communication theories, and why defining the notion of "communication" is not easy at all, but an extremely complex issue.
The words communicate, communication are the source of the communicative Latin verb and are used in many languages, taking appropriate forms according to their phonetic-grammatical structure. In Latin this verb has the following meanings: 1. make joint; 2. participate, to something with someone; 3. interlock, add. (HenrikLacaj - FilipFishta, Latin-Albanian Dictionary Tiranë, 1966, s.v.). In the "Albanian Dictionary of today" (2002) 48, are given two meanings of the word" communication ": 1) action and state by verbs communicate, communicate (eg communication tool); 2) short notice, announcement (what is transmitted). But what does it mean to communicate? Like many other words in a language, the verb communication or the name of the communication that comes from it are words of great significance.

From this we can say that we face a difficulty defining the notion "com- muny". In the most general sense, this notion is used for any relationship in relationships. So with communication we understand, firstly, putting into relationships of human minds. The notion "communication" can be defined as a process by which the communicator's internal discourse is transmitted to others. In this case we are dealing with a kind of process called human communication or oral communication. So communicating means communicating the information you have in mind.

It is in this process that we have the giver and recipient, namely the communicator, the one that starts communication and convey to others: knowledge, memories, images, trials, desires, feelings, etc., as a variety of things.

Research on intercultural communication is relatively new and started exactly when language science was being tackled not only with the semantic and syntax of the language, but also with the pragmatic one. The term "intercultural" includes all the phenomena that arise from contact between different cultures, but which do not always have a communicative dimension

It distinguishes four dimensions, namely: individualism - collectivism, power of distance, avoidance of insecurity and feminism / masculism. The first dimension (individualism and collectivism) can not be understood politically, but in anthropological terms. Individualist cultures assume that everyone in the first place cares for themselves. Quite differently happens in collective cultures.

In such a culture, everyone belongs to a certain group, who you must remain faithful to power of distance as a particular aspect of culture implies acceptance within a society of this distance from the weak, calling it quite normal. But avoiding uncertainty determines to what points of a culture show nervousness in situations that are unclear and unexpected. Given this, they try to avoid such situations by setting behavioral rules and confidence in absolute truth. Cultures, which have a significant avoidance of uncertainty, are more active, aggressive, sensitive, intolerant and in search of security. While cultures which try to avoid the least uncertainty, are less aggressive, cold, relatively tolerant and accept personal risks. The last dimension relates to feminist and machinist cultures. The masculine cultures emphasize the prohibition of men by women and the superiority of men. Men should be ambitious and competitive. They should also aim to be successful. It is quite different in cultures feminist, where the differences between men and women are not clear enough. What is highlighted by scholars, there are other variants of quality of life, namely social relationships as well care for the weakest. Basically any communication situation carries a risk on its own. This happens if the speaker has no knowledge of cultural good, in order to avoid the dangers. For Marsh (1993) 102 are extremely important situations in intercultural communication. It introduces the concept of "situational adaptability / adaptability to the situation ". In his opinion it is a great advantage that the science of different academic ones, such as anthropology, sociolinguistics, etc., have approached each other as far as this topic is concerned. Different views have shown that if a person is in a certain situation, there are many different, psychological, social, and biological factors that influence this process.

There are two ways to look at intercultural communication, namely the "maximalist and minimalistic approach / maximum and minimum approach". Blommaer's (1988) maximum approach 107 supports the view that a person's culture always determines how the latter can interact with others.

According to Blommaer, this view is hidden, so it is not straightforward, as it presents an unchanged view of culture and its representatives.

If solutions to any problems related to intercultural communication will be sought, attention will focus on misunderstandings, completely forgetting the most successful communication process. People try to adapt not only to situations but also to interlocutors during communication. Thus, successes or failures are always the result of action in a given situation, but also part of human goals. One of the most common reasons for intercultural misunderstanding is the different use of mechanisms that promote communication. Such mechanisms include, for example, the right to speak, the mutual control of "listeners"
through the addition of speech, listeners’ passages, and through particles such as “hm”. However, many of the communication situations are developing nonverbally, which is what it does even more complicated intercultural communication.

But what do they really change? This question is it is difficult to give an answer, as we would easily create cliché and stereotype. Everyone has created for other countries, their people and cultures their imaginations and ideas and perceptions that they can to be general, but also detailed. Perceptions are closely related with each other. They not only exist in our minds, but are also extremely subjective.

**Intercultural communication in the curriculum**

Intercultural learning of foreign language develops student communication skills. He offers them knowledge and skills for language and its use and gives them the opportunity to develop knowledge about foreign cultures to better understand and respect these cultures. In this case attention focuses on European identity, multilingualism and the diversity of cultures. So students become more able to learn foreign language in the most autonomous way. They also understand, that in order to have a communicative competence, communication should be exercised in a continuous way, durable and versatile. Therefore foreign language is considered as a whole, skills, knowledge, but also as a cultural whole. The learner should be able to communicate appropriately in a language and foreign culture. He should be able to evaluate his/her language skills in relation to objectives and identify its strengths and weaknesses. The words in collision conspiracy. Intercultural situational adaptability as a success factor.

Cultural and intercultural competences are part of important to foreign language learning. For this, intercultural orientation should be part of inseparable, such as listening, speaking, writing and reading. Culture and Interculturalism should be included in the curriculum, but not only. Each language book (method) of the language foreigners should be equipped with cultural and intercultural elements, such as textbooks, role playing, dialogues according to authentic situations etc.

As we have mentioned in the heading above, learning the culture is part of the teaching of each language alien. This enables students to make a real assessment as well and a cultural exchange with their peers. In this way, the students except the competences communicative, and cultural development, from which it is created and respect for other cultures. So communication in a foreign language also implies cultural training. It is important for cultural exchanges to be part of foreign language learning, as this motivates students to communicate as much as possible during conversations and discussions. In multicultural classes in which pupils and teachers belong to different cultures, these cultural conversations are naturally more varied. Anyone would have to show it in this case something from his culture, pointing to the changes, but also the similarities that exist between the cultures. In this area naturally arises the question of what happens in single-cultural classes? In such classroom students and/or teachers come from the same culture, which makes the situation extremely difficult. In such students rely on the teacher to understand the language being taught but also to get as much knowledge as possible about the culture of this language. If we would say what we said above in other words, we would point out that every foreign language teacher teaches students not only knowledge, but also culture. Since language and culture are inseparable, then culture must be part of component of the foreign language program. About the relationship between language and culture have been written even Somavar, Porter & Jain, who call the link between culture and communication inseparable. By calling culture as the foundation of communication, they show that culture takes care of continuity of communication.

**Intercultural competences**

Everyone has its own history, life and therefore its own culture. In other words, each individual has its own cultural affiliation, or its cultural identity. In the relationship between people, this has to do, on one hand, with the changes that exist between cultures, regions, continents, or countries, but not only. Differences and differences exist between companies and their departments, between groups and minorities, different social strata and classes, or members of the same family, as long as there is talk of different social values. These cultural changes are not only relevant to a proper interaction, but also for the development of personal competencies. If we want to present a summary of the concept of intercultural competence, we will come up with concluding that this is not easy at all. For decades it has been emphasized and accepted, that being fit in the intercultural aspect is extremely important for a more cohabitation successful in a diverse world. Possessing intercultural competence is more important to develop and maintain democratic societies.
With a variety of meanings of this concept, the multiple views on related to this notion always have a positive impact on the process of understanding. Of course that besides the changes there is a range of common things. The notion of "intercultural competence" constitutes a modern concept, which has developed in half second century AD, as a result of massive migration and ever-growing globalization. About it many researches have been conducted in various fields such as psychology, as well as foreign language, sociology, anthropology, cultural science, pedagogy, philosophy, linguistics and economic science. For each field the definition has its own characteristics. So for example, in language a clear distinction between intercultural competence and factual cultural knowledge.

For some scholars, intercultural competence has an important pragmatic part, namely increase tolerance to other cultures. The ability of speakers of different ages and gender to coexist in one society, peacefully and without mutual discrimination. Because there are multiple views about communication competence, there are also different perceptions of intercultural competence. The following comparison of the selected definitions is intended to demonstrate the widespread use of this concept.

Intercultural knowledge, emotional dimensions (intercultural sensitivity) and dimensions connotative (acting ability in intercultural situations). All three of these powers allow us to have consider the concepts of perception, thinking, feeling and influence of foreign culture on our actions. It is also worth noting that all three of these dimensions are related with each other. Thus we can mention that the ratio of knowledge of intercultural processes is equally within the cognitive dimension. Elementary knowledge of cultural differences are not enough, as they fail to explain the processes of concrete interaction among the members of these cultures. So if we focus on the comparative views of cultures, we must also need to consider the interaction, as the latter best meets the first. The same we can also say about the emotional dimension, which is complemented by the connotative one. Ability to act in intercultural situations, which is seen as one of the basic goals in teaching foreign languages, plays an important role in intercultural learning of foreign languages. It is closely related to developing the student's identity towards intercultural learning. In such cases, experiences are restored intercultural personality of the competent person, creating the possibility of reviewing the stereotypes and prejudices and to learn something new. At the individual level, intercultural competences it is only an extension of interpersonal competence. To achieve intercultural competence, it is necessary adopting many factors: first, the recognition of the linguistic code, and the second, the recognition of the cultural environment as a basis for communication and awareness of personal behavior in relation to culture. Third, foreign culture and cultural expectation should be recognized and understood. Achieving intercultural competence representation represents an important process that extends throughout human life; this process should be started as early as possible and practiced in a consistent manner. Today intercultural competence is considered a modern trend in foreign language didactics and especially English. Intercultural competence is seen as one of the most important notions of the XXI century, also in the field of education, but also the main objective of intercultural learning in educational institutions.

So we can summarize that language and culture are an inseparable part and that learning a foreign language also means recognizing a certain culture. Knowledge of mother tongue culture, or as is known differently and in the first language, it is also a necessity for language teachers because otherwise we would have overestimated the parent culture and denigration of the culture of other nations. Learning a foreign language is inseparably linked to knowledge or learning of culture. But on the other hand, learning a foreign language or even mastering that semantic language, syntactic or pragmatic is not sufficient for an intercultural genuine dialogue. Very important is to know how to deal with and respond to our various intercultural behavior situations. Relying on the ideas that we have noted about intercultural concepts, examples studied, concrete case studies and collecting the opinions and views of teachers, can we draw the following conclusions:

- The term "communicative competence" is dealt with by many scholars as a competence which includes all forms of language communication. This competence is not simply about recognizing the structure language, but also with the meaning, possession and use of endless sentences in situations different backgrounds of everyday life using so and social experience, about the competence communicative has different interpretations. Here is shown particularly the interpretation that anthropologist Dell Hymes has given to communication skills. According to Hymes the competency communication is not only the grammatical knowledge of the speaker but also the psycholinguistic, social and pragmatic knowledge.

- Intercultural communication is also defined as a process of exchange in which they are involved individuals of two or more cultures in different attractive situations. Naturally, the question arises, how much knowledge the interlocutor has in communication about the culture of the other. Although there are different views of what the intercultural competence
implies, most researchers dealing with this concept are convinced that intercultural competences (defined as the ability to act in intercultural contexts) is transmitted to events and situations certain. This view seems credible if intercultural competence is not viewed as well self-sufficient and fully acquired ability, but as an integral part of a general ability to acting in different intercultural situations. The latter consists of partial competences, such as: individual, social, strategic, professional competencies, which find expansion in the intercultural context. Intercultural competence remains one of the most affected topics discussed, which is increasingly in the spotlight. Which of these competences to Partial individual is the most priority, it is depending on the relevant culture, the situation and everyone’s interests. Because of these differences and different interests there can not be a single and general definition of intercultural competence. This chapter has had also as an objective to present the main concepts of intercultural competence and intercultural communication, different interpretations of these concepts and the acquisition and transmission of this competence in learning English in particular, but also of any foreign language in general.
Satisfying the Housing Needs of Disabled Citizens in North-Eastern Poland

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Abstract:
Since disabled people have lower income and their geographical mobility is lower, they often tolerate inappropriate housing conditions, i.e. conditions that do not suit the type and degree of their disability. This article presents the results of interviews conducted among people affected by various degrees of disability. The main aim of the study was to determine the housing needs in regard to quality and to the extent to which the needs are satisfied by people living in the north-east of Poland. The first stage of the study involved identification of the factors that determine the quality of housing that satisfies the basic needs and barriers which prevent performing everyday activities. Subsequently, a multidimensional analysis was conducted to assess the extent to which the housing needs are satisfied in groups identified by the degree of disability. The synthetic measures and distance-related indexes suggested the existence of large diversity in the level of satisfaction of housing needs in the groups of disabled people under study.

Keywords: housing needs, disabled people, multidimensional analysis

1. Introduction
Measures aimed at providing equal opportunities, including improvement of housing conditions, are an important aspect of social life in the rapidly changing socioeconomic environment. The housing standards of disabled people are not comparable to those of the rest of the population. A home, which is the central point of their existence (Disabled..., 2012), cannot be an obstacle on the road to a life of dignity. The everyday life of a disabled person is difficult. Therefore, in the author’s opinion, it is extremely important to identify the housing needs of this social group. In such cases, a subjective assessment of the extent to which one’s housing needs are satisfied is very important. Hence, a particular weight must be assigned to examining the current housing conditions of the disabled and identifying the expectations and needs in this regard, both conscious and otherwise, and indicating the barriers that people with disability of various kinds must overcome at their flats and their surroundings. It seems to be of fundamental importance to evaluate the willingness of the disabled to remove the barriers, which is a key factor in regard to improvement of their housing conditions. It is both important and topical to act with a view to improving the housing conditions due to – inter alia – an increasing number of disabled people. The number of disabled people is increasing – according to the WHO¹ – due to the population ageing and increasing incidence of chronic diseases, such as diabetes, cardiovascular diseases, cancers and mental disorders. Therefore, it is of key importance how disabled people are perceived by local communities. It is difficult to define disability because it is difficult to define a border between a person who is not fully able and one who is fully able, as well as to determine the burden of disability. However, it must be stressed that not every dysfunction of the body constitutes a disability. Limitations suffered by disabled people vary and depend on the type and degree of damage to various organs of the body or

¹ It is important to point out, at this point, that the aforementioned Agreement establishes the following: "Minors who have left FARC-EP camps since the beginning of the peace talks, as well as those who leave until the end of it, will be object of special attention and protection measures that will be discussed in the National Council of Reintegration in the framework of the Commission of Follow-up, Impulse and Verification of the Implementation of the Final Agreement (CSIVI)... To these minors will be granted all the rights, benefits and privileges established for the victims of the conflict, as well as those derived from their process of reincorporation in the terms contemplated in this Final Agreement ..." (High Commissioner for Peace, 2016, p. .74). This means that the boys and girls who belonged to the guerrilla group and leave their ranks, will no longer have the status of ex-combatants, but will be considered victims of the conflict. This point has a fundamental importance for the process of reconstruction of the social fabric, because it will enable the reparation of these children who were born in the middle of, or were dragged into, that armed conflict, and that is why they have precisely the connotation victims
simultaneous damage to several organs. Permanent or temporary limitations or even an inability to perform activities cover all the aspects of life, which contributes to the specificity of satisfying many needs, including housing needs. A home where one satisfies one’s needs, not only the basic needs, but also higher needs, becomes an asylum (Laszek, 2004). When the higher needs are satisfied, a person can develop intellectually, emotionally and socially (Gawron, 2012). However, it must be emphasised that the housing needs based on subjective determination of one’s housing requirements and an individual understanding of the standard depend on the financial capabilities of households. Hence, part of society expects the state to aid in satisfying their housing needs and it is the duty of the authorities to eliminate unjustified differences in accessibility of homes and decent quality of life.

A diagnosis of the housing conditions of disabled people helps to determine the actual extent to which the housing needs specific to this group of people are satisfied, while the existing gap in the knowledge on the issue indicates the need for further studies. This article presents the results of interviews conducted among people affected by disability to various degrees. The main aim of the study was to determine the housing needs in regard to quality and the extent to which the needs are satisfied by people living in north-eastern Poland.

2. Specific housing needs of disabled people

The issue of satisfying one’s housing needs is common and is faced by everyone and it remains valid throughout everyone’s life. The need to have a home is – along with the need for food and clothing – the most important of human needs. Housing market researchers have stressed that the level of satisfying the housing needs affects all aspects of human life because the proper housing conditions enable one to fulfil one’s life goals, both on a personal and a professional level (Foryś, 2011, Gazińska 2006, Szelągowska 2011, 2012, Zapotoczna 2014). In the quantitative dimension, housing needs determine the number of houses necessary for independent residence. The qualitative dimension determines the physical characteristics, such as the size of a flat, but mainly its spatial and functional layout and the quality standard. Ensuring the optimum conditions for satisfying one’s housing needs should enable disabled people to satisfy all their needs, regardless of their psychophysical condition. The following characteristics gain particular importance in the case of disabled people: freedom, comfort, independent use, self-fulfilment, security and social integration. All of these are components of the quality of life. Subjective needs which arise from individual preferences result in different expectations of each disabled person. Moreover, it is extremely important to be able to make qualitative changes in order to adapt a flat to the current needs of its user. Each flat should be designed so that it can be adapted to the disability of its resident. Adaptation of the functional layout of a flat should depend on the type and degree of disability. Elements of special adaptation of houses and flats to the needs of the disabled include:

1) in regard to accessibility of external area:
   a) providing sufficient space for moving in wheelchairs,
   b) adjusting the height of kerbs and steps,
   c) proper signs, position and size of parking places, with anti-slippery surface and without high kerbs,

2) in regard to accessibility of buildings:
   a) adapting building entrances by installing doors of the right parameters which can be accessed from the ground level with the use of ramps and steps, lifts or elevators; the surface of these devices should be made of anti-slippery material;
   b) ensuring sufficient space before and behind a ramp to enable free manoeuvring of a wheelchair and opening the door by a disabled person,

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c) touch signs on steps and contrast signs along ramps and on landings,
d) adaptation of stairs by ensuring appropriate height and width of steps and the number of steps,
e) fitting out lifts with appropriate control panels with sound and light signalling of a lift stop,
f) fitting out doors with ergonomic handles and hand rails,
g) installing entry-phones in the roofed area at an appropriate height and fitting out with traditional keyboard (preferably numerical),
h) installing bells and light switches at an appropriate height,
i) appropriate position and size of parking spaces with suitable access road,

3) in regard to accessibility of a flat:
a) ensuring the appropriate size and shape of rooms in a flat, with sufficient passages and space for manoeuvring as well as the floors enabling easy movement,
b) adaptation of doors,
c) fitting windows at an appropriate height, with appropriate opening handles;
d) equalising the floor level in rooms,
e) fitting out doors with ergonomic handles or sliding or folding doors,
f) installing switches and sockets at the appropriate height, of the appropriate type and colour,
g) designing the kitchen in accordance with the rules of ergonomics, with the minimum manoeuvring area, and fitting it out with a set of cupboards of the appropriate height and width of the board and kitchen appliances with appropriate access to them,
h) appropriate position of the bathroom and equipping it properly, with the minimum manoeuvring area, while observing the rules of ergonomics, functionality and safety, with anti-slippery floor;
i) fitting out the bathroom with devices that enable their safe use and installing handles, lift, seat, etc.;
j) placing the bathroom close to the bedroom;
k) applying proper lighting as well as sound or light signalling devices;
l) fitting out with appropriate smelling elements, furniture and other equipment, deployed properly;
m) fitting out with various alarm systems (e.g. wireless, cable, photo cells).

3. Methodology

This study was taken up because of the need for examining the extent to which the housing needs of people with various level of disability are satisfied and for identifying the barriers with which they have to contend in their flats and in the surroundings. The main aim of the study was to determine the housing needs in regard to quality and the extent to which the needs are satisfied by people living in north-eastern Poland (Warmińsko-Mazurskie Voivodship). A diagnosis of the housing conditions of disabled people, which provided the basis for determination of the actual extent to which the housing needs specific to this group of people are satisfied, was an important study area. Since at least two definitions of disability are applied in Poland, the study was conducted on people with valid disability certificates, issued by disability evaluation boards. Such certificates provide the grounds for applying for and obtaining special aid and privileges.

A number of research methods were used in the study. The desk research technique was applied in order to gather the necessary information. The analysis of secondary data was a starting point for field research. The first stage of the field research involved in-depth interviews with 10 representatives of entities conducting activities for disabled people. In this research, we used objectified cases to specify and develop detailed issues related to housing needs and the improvement
opportunities regarding housing conditions. The second stage involved direct interviews with 148 disabled people. The group under study was divided according to the degree of disability, i.e. group 1 - 23 people with mild disability, group 2 - 80 people with moderate disability and group 3 - 45 people with severe disability.

The data were used to identify the factors that determine the quality of housing that satisfies the basic needs and barriers which prevent performing everyday activities. The last stage of the study involved comparing the extent to which the housing needs are satisfied and the degree of satisfaction of the interviewees with their housing conditions and to their willingness to change the place of residence.

The synthetic method was used to evaluate the housing needs. Owing to the WAP multidimensional comparative analysis, a sizeable set of variables was replaced with one – synthetic variable. A typical measure, proposed by Hellwig (1969), was used in the article; it is usually applied in empirical studies and it belongs to a group of standard-based methods. The groups of disabled people under study made up a 3-item set $\Omega$ of so-called taxonomic operational units described with 15 diagnostic variables, which were based on data obtained in the survey. The taxonomic synthetic index of the level of satisfying the housing needs was calculated from the formula:

$$D_i = 1 - \frac{c_{0i}}{c_{0}s_0},$$

where $c_{0} = c_{0} + 2s_{0}$

with:

$c_{0}$ - mean value of the calculated distances $c_{0}$

$s_{0}$ - standard deviation of the distance $c_{0}$.

Destimulants were replaced with stimulants, which is why the values of the index lie within the range of $[0,1]$. The closer the value of the measure to 0, the lower the level of satisfying the needs in the group.

Subsequently, the distance formula proposed by Roeske – Słomka (1998) was used to calculate the distance of satisfying housing needs in the 3 groups of disabled people under study. The distance indices were calculated from the formula:

$$d_{ir} = \left(\frac{x_{ij}}{x_{\text{min} j}} - 1\right) \cdot \left(\frac{x_{\text{max}/\text{min} j}}{x_{\text{min} j}} - 1\right) \cdot e_{ir} \cdot 100$$

where:

$x_{i,j}$ - so-called empirical level of satisfying the i-th need in a given population,

$x_{\text{min} j}$ - the minimum level of satisfying the i-th need in a given population,

$x_{\text{max}/\text{min} j}$ - the optimum level of satisfying the i-th need, with: the lowest value of the i-th variable in a given group of disabled people, - for variables which are stimulants or the highest value of the i-th value in a given group, - for variables which are destimulants,

$e_{ir}$ - the index of homogeneity of distribution of satisfying the i-th need in a given population,

The values of the distance index lie within the range of $d_{ij} \in [0,1]$. The distance index $d_{ij}$ takes the value of 0 for the j-th group, in which the given feature $x_i$ was achieved to the minimum extent. It does not mean that $x_i$ was equal to 0, but that the distance that the given group of disabled people has to cover to reach the maximum level (for the objects under study rather than for hypothetical standards) is 100%. On the other hand, the value of 1 is taken by an index which corresponds...
to a group of disabled people with the highest value of feature $x_i$ assuming that $e_i = 1$, i.e. the distribution of feature $x_i$ is completely homogeneous. It must be emphasised that $d_j=1$ (100%) will mean that the $j$-th group can be taken as the standard with respect to a given feature $x_i$ in regard to satisfying the housing needs.

3.1 Measure of housing needs of disabled people

The basis for evaluation of the housing needs was made up of variables whose construction was based on data obtained in a direct interviews with disabled people, their families or carers living in the same household. An analysis of the housing conditions of disabled people living in the area under study helped us to identify the technical and spatial parameters of evaluation of the residential space and architectural barriers present in the surroundings of a house and in the residential space, which affect the meeting of housing needs and, in consequence, the quality of life. The diagnostic data accumulated in the study were categorised based on the coefficients of variation (the coefficient of variation for the $i$-th variable was higher than 10%), coefficients of correlation (strongly correlated variables were discarded) and standard deviation. Subsequently, the selected set of variables was arranged by standardisation in order to make it comparable. Ultimately, a set of 15 variables was obtained which describe different areas of evaluation of the extent to which housing needs are satisfied.

- **the building entrance and surroundings:**
  - $x_1$ % of buildings at whose entrances there are architectural barriers, e.g. too high kerbs, damaged or no pavements.
  - $x_2$ % of buildings at whose entrances there are no ramps or driveways.
  - $x_3$ % of buildings near which there are no parking spaces for the disabled.
  - $x_4$ % of buildings near which there are improper surfaces (e.g. not hardened, uneven, slippery, such that make movement difficult).

- **space inside a multi-family building:**
  - $x_5$ % of flats which are not easily accessible to disabled people as the passages within them are not adapted to their disability (small landings, no lift or platform);

- **residential space:**
  - $x_6$ % of flats with thresholds between rooms, which hinder moving around the flat.
  - $x_7$ % of flats in which the type of floor was not adapted to the needs of disabled people (e.g. no anti-slippery floor).
  - $x_8$ % of flats in which doors are not adapted to the need of disabled people who live in them.
  - $x_9$ % of flats in which the type and position of door handles were not adapted to the disability of the people who live there.
  - $x_{10}$ % of flats in which the type and method of door opening was not adapted to the disability of the people who live there.
  - $x_{11}$ % of flats in which the type and position of switches and sockets was not adapted to the disability of the people who live there.
  - $x_{12}$ % of flats in which the area of rooms in the flat (bathroom, kitchen, bedroom, study) was not adapted to the disability of the people who live there.
  - $x_{13}$ % of flats which were not fitted out with appropriate devices enabling one to use a bathroom safely and freely (e.g. type and positioning the bathroom facilities, handrails).
  - $x_{14}$ % of flats in which furniture (cupboards, table, household appliances) was not positioned functionally and not adapted to the disability of the people who lived in them.
  - $x_{15}$ % of flats with a wrong position of the bedroom relative to the bathroom.

4. A multidimensional analysis of satisfying housing needs

4.1 The level of satisfying the housing needs

Considering the fact that the population of disabled people is not homogeneous and requires a separate approach to each type of disability (various types of disability are associated with various issues and barriers), the degree to which housing needs are satisfied was evaluated for the three groups identified by the degree of disability, i.e. mild, moderate and severe. Subsequently, the groups under study were arranged according to a synthetic measure of satisfying the housing needs $d_i$ in order to compare the extent to which the housing needs are satisfied.
Owing to the synthetic approach to measure $d_i$, which cannot be determined directly, it could be regarded as a measure of satisfying the housing needs of disabled people who live in the north-east of Poland. The measure was constructed while taking into account the main areas of evaluation of housing conditions made by disabled people. A detailed construction of the index was presented in the study methodology. The values of measure $d_i$ calculated for various groups are shown in Table 1.

Table 1. Values of the synthetic measure

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Degree of disability/Group</th>
<th>$x_1$</th>
<th>$x_2$</th>
<th>$x_3$</th>
<th>$x_4$</th>
<th>$x_5$</th>
<th>$x_6$</th>
<th>$x_7$</th>
<th>$x_8$</th>
<th>$x_9$</th>
<th>$x_{10}$</th>
<th>$x_{11}$</th>
<th>$x_{12}$</th>
<th>$x_{13}$</th>
<th>$x_{14}$</th>
<th>$x_{15}$</th>
<th>$d_i$</th>
<th>Ran k</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>People with mild disability</td>
<td>26.09%</td>
<td>47.83%</td>
<td>47.83%</td>
<td>26.09%</td>
<td>26.09%</td>
<td>26.09%</td>
<td>34.78%</td>
<td>34.78%</td>
<td>26.09%</td>
<td>26.09%</td>
<td>34.78%</td>
<td>34.78%</td>
<td>34.78%</td>
<td>26.09%</td>
<td>26.09%</td>
<td>34.78%</td>
<td>34.78%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>People with moderate disability</td>
<td>31.25%</td>
<td>43.75%</td>
<td>43.75%</td>
<td>26.09%</td>
<td>26.09%</td>
<td>26.09%</td>
<td>34.78%</td>
<td>34.78%</td>
<td>26.09%</td>
<td>26.09%</td>
<td>34.78%</td>
<td>34.78%</td>
<td>34.78%</td>
<td>26.09%</td>
<td>26.09%</td>
<td>34.78%</td>
<td>34.78%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>People with severe disability</td>
<td>44.44%</td>
<td>57.78%</td>
<td>57.78%</td>
<td>57.78%</td>
<td>57.78%</td>
<td>57.78%</td>
<td>57.78%</td>
<td>57.78%</td>
<td>57.78%</td>
<td>57.78%</td>
<td>57.78%</td>
<td>57.78%</td>
<td>57.78%</td>
<td>57.78%</td>
<td>57.78%</td>
<td>57.78%</td>
<td>57.78%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: the author’s calculations

The synthetic index of satisfying housing needs was the highest in the group with mild disability (0.701) and the lowest – in the group with severe disability (0.221). It can be seen from the values of the index that the phenomenon is highly diverse. A small value of the synthetic measure (0.221) for people with mild disability indicates that their housing needs are satisfied to a small extent.

From the perspective of the variables taken for the study, the number of people with a good opinion on how their housing conditions are adapted to their disability was the greatest in the group with mild disability and the smallest – in the group with severe disability. The value of 9 out of 15 variables of housing conditions assessment ($x_1, x_3, x_4, x_5, x_6, x_7, x_{11}, x_{12}, x_{13}$) was the smallest in the group of people with mild disability. This means that the percentage of people in this group in whose opinion their housing conditions were adapted quite well in the areas described by these variables was the highest. In consequence, in their opinion their housing needs were satisfied to a considerable extent. On the other hand, the values of 14 out of 15 variables taken for an assessment of the extent to which housing needs are satisfied were the highest in the group with severe disability. This means that the percentage of people in this group with a low opinion on the adaptation of the surroundings of the buildings and of the flats to their disability was the highest in nearly all of the areas (except $x_9$).

4.2 Distance of satisfying the housing needs

A multidimensional comparative analysis of the distance of satisfying the housing needs was conducted in order to compare the extent to which housing needs are satisfied in groups of people with different degrees of disability. The values of variables described in the section on the measures of housing needs of disabled people were taken characteristics of different areas of satisfying the needs. The distance formula is presented in detail in the methodology section. The distance indices of satisfying the housing needs in the groups of disabled people under study are shown in Table 2.

Table 2. The distance indices of satisfying the housing needs

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Diagnostic variables</th>
<th>Distance index of satisfying need $d_i$</th>
<th>$d_i$</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>People with mild disability</td>
<td>People with moderate disability</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$x_1$</td>
<td>27.36%</td>
<td>32.77%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$x_2$</td>
<td>55.65%</td>
<td>50.91%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$x_3$</td>
<td>90.29%</td>
<td>48.32%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$x_4$</td>
<td>21.77%</td>
<td>28.79%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$x_5$</td>
<td>22.88%</td>
<td>40.57%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$x_6$</td>
<td>38.55%</td>
<td>40.18%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
These calculations helped to determine the distance to the maximum level, determined for all the groups of disabled people that must be covered by the given group of the disabled with respect to the feature taken for the analysis.

The general distance indices (the last line in Table 2) show that the housing needs are satisfied to a rather small extent in all the groups of the disabled. The best situation was found in the group with mild disability - the distance from the maximum level was 43% and the worst - in the group with severe disability. The distance in this group was ca. 50%.

From the perspective of the variables taken for analysis, it was found that:

1) in the group of people with mild disability:

- in terms of satisfying the housing needs defined by the variables taken for analysis, the situation was the best in adaptation of the flats to the disability of people who live in them in regard to the position and type of switches and sockets, position of door handles and the size of doors. The distance from the maximum level was approx. 5%. A slightly worse situation was noted in regard to the method of opening the doors and their type (hinged doors opened to the inside, folded doors, sliding doors). The distance in this regard was 10%.

- The situation in this group of disabled people was the worst in terms of adaptation of building entrances. There was a considerable percentage of buildings with architectural barriers at the entrance. Also, disabled people found it difficult to move around due to lack of adaptation of the building surroundings. The distance in this case was a little over 70%, it was lower by 3 pp compared to the group of people with mild disability.

2) in the group of people with moderate disability:

- The distance index of satisfying the housing needs was the best in adaptation of the flats in regard to the type and position of switches and sockets. The distance in this regard was nearly 4%. The situation was slightly worse in regard to the number of parking spaces for disabled residents. The distance from the maximum level was just under 10%.

- As in the group of people with mild disability, the situation was the worst in adaptation of building entrances. There was a considerable percentage of buildings with architectural barriers in this group. Also, disabled people found it difficult to move around due to lack of adaptation of the building surroundings. The distance in this case was a little over 70%, it was lower by 3 pp compared to the group of people with mild disability.

3) in the group of people with severe disability:

- The situation was the best in adaptation of the flats in regard to the type and position of switches and sockets and the position of door handles. Moreover, the situation was relatively good in regard to fitting out the bathrooms with equipment facilitating their free and safe use (e.g. proper position of bathroom fixtures, installing handrails). The opinion of the respondents was similar in regard to fitting out the buildings with platforms, ramps or other devices facilitating movements of disabled people. The distance from the maximum level in these areas of assessment was just under 60%.

- Also in this group, the situation was the worst in regard to adaptation of the building surroundings to the needs of disabled residents (the distance from the highest level was nearly 86%). Moreover, a large distance (approx. 80%, i.e. larger by 7 p.p. compared to the group of people with mild disability and by 10 p.p. compared to the group of people with moderate disability) from the maximum level was found in adaptation of building entrances.

Source: the author’s calculations
Considering the variables describing the extent to which the housing needs of the disabled are satisfied in north-eastern Poland (Warmińsko-Mazurskie Voivodship), it has been shown that:

- The distance index of satisfying the housing needs in terms of the variables taken for analysis in all the groups of the disabled was the best in adaptation of the flats in regard to the type and position of switches and sockets. The distance in this regard was approx. 21%.
- The situation was the worst in terms of adaptation of building entrances by removing architectural barriers. The distance from the maximum level in this case was slightly over 73%. The situation was also adverse for the disabled in terms of adaptation of the building surroundings with a view to making it easier for the disabled to move around. The distance from the maximum level was just over 78%.

### 4.3 Level of satisfaction with housing conditions

The level of satisfaction with housing conditions was evaluated in the last stage. The ranking of the levels of satisfaction with the housing conditions by the degree of disability is shown in Table 3.

#### Table 3 Summary of the levels of satisfaction with the housing conditions

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Degree of disability</th>
<th>Evaluation of housing conditions</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Absolutely not</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>mild</td>
<td>13.04%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>moderate</td>
<td>8.75%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>severe</td>
<td>13.33%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* categories and population sizes of the lowest incidence

** categories and population sizes of the highest incidence

Source: the author’s calculations

The study results have shown that approx. 21% of the group of people with mild and moderate disability are rather satisfied or highly satisfied with their housing conditions. On the other hand, over 70% are rather or highly dissatisfied. Among the people with severe disability there was a slightly higher percentage of people rather or highly dissatisfied (approx. 27%), whereas the percentage of rather or highly satisfied with their housing conditions was slightly under 70%. Therefore, despite not having a very high level of satisfying housing needs, the majority of the disabled people were satisfied with their housing conditions. In each of the groups under study there was a considerable percentage of people who were not interested in exchanging their flat for a smaller or larger one or in the purchase of a new one which would be better suited to their disability, even if they received a non-returnable subsidy. These people felt they needed to improve their housing conditions, but in their opinion the effectiveness of such actions depended on the financial aid received. The reasons for this state could include the fact that they are accustomed to their place of residence and their environment despite their low opinion of it and their financial situation, because social benefits were the main source of income for disabled people in each of the groups under study (approx. 90% of the respondents).

### 5. Summary

This article presents an assessment of the extent to which the housing needs are satisfied and an assessment of satisfaction with their housing conditions based on a survey conducted among people with various degrees of disability. The study involved seeking determinants of satisfying the housing needs of disabled people; therefore, a particular weight was assigned to examination of the current housing conditions, focusing on the key areas of the qualitative assessment of the housing conditions of the people under study. The methods employed in the study helped to evaluate the extent to which the housing needs were satisfied. The synthetic measures calculated in the study suggested the existence of large diversity of the level of satisfying the housing needs. On the other hand, owing to the distance formula it was possible to compare the overall level of satisfying the housing needs in the groups of disabled people from the perspective of the variables taken for analysis. The distance indices $d_i$ showed that, in general, the level of satisfying the housing needs in all the groups under study was not high. A subjective assessment made by the respondents, arising from the individual preferences, resulted in different expectations in each of the groups under study. The expectations varied in regard to the size, standard and the functionality of the layout.
The study results have identified the directions of actions aimed at improvement of the housing conditions of disabled people, in line with their expectations and needs. They have also provided scientific evidence for political projects and programmes which can improve the level of satisfying the housing needs of disabled people.

**Literature**


Social Welfare System of Republic of Srpska in the Function of Developing a Non-Governmental Network of Support for Children with Disabilities

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Abstract

Children with disabilities represent a significant part of the population of users within Social welfare system in the Republic of Srpska. Number of children with a disability who are registered as users at the centers for social work, and therefore as users of social services, annually range around 3.5 thousand. Their status and support services are defined by the Law on Social Protection, which allows the non-governmental sector to provide services for children with disabilities. The network of non-governmental organizations and consumer associations concerned with providing social support to children with disabilities and their parents began to develop in the late 90s, when they started to form parents' associations in several municipalities. In the past period such associations were formed in almost all the communities in the Republic of Srpska. Their activities are very important for improving social protection in local communities. These associations work together at regional level, in the framework of the Association Persons with Mental disabilities (acronym - MINERALS). The effect of parents' associations is recognized through the development of partnerships with centers for social work on the realization of social protection measures for children with disabilities. Associations have developed new support services such as day care, speech therapy treatments, workshops, self-help groups and etc. Association improved the direct work with children, provide new ways of financing social protection and welfare (project finance), have contributed to the planning of services, developed the partnership model of cooperation, have contributed to the legal solutions; enhance the social sensitivity of the local community to the situation of children with disabilities. This paper presents the development of a network of parents associations of children with disabilities in the Republic of Srpska, legal merits of their work and partnership in the social welfare system, model of community work and the role of associations in the life of the local community. Paper also presents the results of research relating to the general characteristics of a network of associations, members of the association structure, and the types of services provided to the associations, methods of working with customers, quality of partnerships and ways of financing the association.

Keywords: Children with disabilities, Republic of Srpska, an association of parents, social services, Social welfare system

1. Introduction

Children with disabilities are socially vulnerable group of the population, which required different types of support measures in the community. Their development is in direct correlation with the achieved level of satisfying their needs arising from development difficulties, as well as the possibilities of the community to fulfill those needs. Family, user associations and public institutions create a specific system of social support for children with disabilities in the community. Their action is crucial to achieving quality results of social support. Specifics of the development problems of children determine their needs and support systems affect the quality of satisfying those needs. Such mutual conditionality between development problems, the needs of children and community resources refers to the necessity of coordinated actions between the different actors in the Social welfare system, and in order to ensure a better
development path of the child with disabilities. Support to children with disabilities is recognized as a different planned intervention measures, organized and implemented in their immediate environment. First of all this relates to measures carried out by parents, communities and institutions of the system. Parents, for its natural role, are the first circle of support. Since their engagement and willingness depend on the results of all other interventions. An important role in providing support to children and parents are resources in their immediate community. Community resources are identified in institutional facilities, amenities and a positive atmosphere which is essential to family of a child with disabilities. Systemic interventions are carried out in different areas of social activities such as health care, education, child protection, rehabilitation and social protection. Social protection as part of a system of social welfare for children with disabilities, is consists of the organizational system, service providers and users themselves. The social welfare system consists of a network of institutions of social protection and measures to be implemented by users. It is determined by the legal and budgetary framework that enables action to protect subjects. For children with disabilities, the social welfare system is one of the key support system through which can be realize different types of intervention aimed at moderating and facilitating their development problems. Service providers are public institutions, non-governmental organizations and the private homes involved in caring for children with disabilities. Social service providers are professionals, professionals who directly implement measures to support children with disabilities. In addition to children with disabilities, beneficiaries of social protection are their parents as well. Parents or family where children live are the key player in the implementation of support for children with disabilities. Any measure of system support has a chance of failure if in the planning process, organizing and providing parents are not involved. Parents of children with disabilities are beneficiaries of the support system for two reasons: on the basis of representation of the interests of their children, and on the basis of expressing their needs as guardian of his children. Therefore, the role of parents is manifold. They participate in identifying needs, establishing a connection between the needs and system of measures, participate in the process of service delivery, provide the necessary information institutions of the system, ensure the implementation of systematic measures for children, control the achieved results, have the responsibility and bear most of the burden related to the state of development problems of their children. This role of parents rises to the level of the central resources of the entire social support. In order for parents to become the real power and resources of the system of social protection is necessary to organize them as user associations. Users Association formally established non-governmental organizations aimed at representing the interests of its members, developing their capacities and strengthening of cooperation with institutions of public support systems. User’s network association is a set of interconnected non-governmental organizations of parents of children with disabilities. They are working at the local level, in local communities. They collaborate with Centers for social work in every municipality on providing different types of support to children with disabilities and their parents.

II. ACTION FRAMEWORK IN THE USERS ASSOCIATION AT SOCIAL WELFARE SYSTEM OF REPUBLIC OF SRPSKA

The merits of the action of non-governmental organizations and users’ association in the social security welfare system of the Republic of Srpska arise from the legal definition of a mixed system of social welfare. Social Protection Law (Official Gazette of Republic of Srpska, no. 37/12) defines the rights, measures and social services. Also, the law stipulates certain priority groups of users and operators of social protection. The same law stipulates that providing of social services can be realized in the public, private and NGO sector. This can be realized through mixed system of social welfare which enabled NGOs to participate equally in the implementation of the measures and social services. Basic characteristics of the mixed of social welfare system are: equality of public, private and non-governmental sector in planning, organizing and providing support services to users; a high level of involvement of user associations in the implementation of social protection measures; pluralism in setting priorities; Partnership in the development of public policy; development of social services on market principles, etc.

The reasons for the introduction of the NGO sector in the social welfare system of the Republic of Srpska lie in the fact that the existing capacity of the public sector in providing adequate responses to the needs of the user of social welfare system is insufficient. Resources of system for providing social support to children with disabilities are very scarce as can be concluded from the data that indicate: low budgets of public institutions, a lack of skilled staff, and poor development of existing and lack of new services. These shortcomings could be overcome or at least reduced with inclusion of the NGO sector in the social welfare system as a partner.

Cooperation and partnership of government institutions with NGOs is defined depending on the recognition of common interest and the nature of the area in which articulate the interests of certain groups of the population. The basis of the
systemic recognition of the role and functioning of non-governmental organizations is located in the laws that define their establishment and operation. Effective laws on non-governmental organizations and foundations in the Republic of Srpska and Federation of Bosnia and Herzegovina are prescribed modes of formation, operation and functioning of non-governmental organizations and foundations, their role and social significance. The law defines that children with disabilities are particularly vulnerable group of users that have priority in the offering of various types of social services. The most recognizable form of services used by children with disabilities is a Day care Centre. Some of them are even working in these facilities. This service was not recognized in the social welfare system in the previous period. Its development is fueled by the new Social Protection Law. Today this service represents the most respectable form of cooperation and partnership between public and non-governmental sectors. The most responsible for the development of these services are organization of parents of children with disabilities.

Special importance in the work of NGOs in this area has a municipal decision on extended rights. According to the Social Protection Law, each local community is required, shall decide on extended rights that define social services through which they have to meet social needs specific to the citizens and local community. Decision is making on basis of monitoring the state of social needs, in cooperation with their associations (Article 11). The purpose of this Decision is to provide services for their citizens that republican institutions are not recognized as a priority at the level of the entire system. The importance of non-governmental organizations in the design, implementation, monitoring and evaluation of the implementation of this Decision is large. Associations of parents of children with disabilities are most agile actors in these processes.

According to the Republic Bureau of Statistics annual influx of new cases of children with disabilities is about 1000 per annum (RSIS, 2016). However, the number of children who are beneficiaries of some of the rights from the social welfare system is much smaller. According to the Ministry of Health and Social Welfare that number is around three and a half thousand (Ministry of Health and Social Welfare, 2016), and the reasons must be sought in the restrictiveness of the existing system of social protection in the Republic of Srpska. Children with disabilities are the most common beneficiaries of the allowance for assistance and care of another person, the right to equalization of opportunities for children and youth with disabilities, the right to accommodation in an institution and the right to day care. As a particularly vulnerable group of beneficiaries, children with disabilities are also in the system of child protection which is entitled to child benefit under special criteria.

Actions of social and child protection in past are mainly been limited to the provision of financial support to families of children with disabilities and accommodation for children as well as direct specialist intervention. The lack of services in the social welfare system in the Republic of Serbian is a consequence of underdevelopment of institutions and problems in financing. Also, the reasons should be sought in cultural and historical heritage as well as the role of the family in the society. Republic of Srpska is still a patriarchal society that is experiencing intense transformation towards modern society, but they are still a strong traditionalist values in which the family and family authority plays a significant role.

The socialist system of social welfare did not include nongovernmental organizations. That system in the past relied exclusively on the role of the state and state institutions in the care of children with disabilities. Therefore, the forms and methods of work were poor by species. Although the state has a lot invested in the social welfare system, the needs of a significant number remained within the traditional forms of care, primarily in the form of financial transfers and classic institutional arrangements that are implemented in institutions for people with disabilities. System institutions were not interested in the development of non-institutional models of work with children with special needs. The role of parents was exclusively related to direct work with the child and parents were not recognized as a subject of support.

Disintegration of former Yugoslavia and the abandonment of the socialist system of social protection, this area has become an area of different influences competition in all spheres of life, including in the field of social and child protection. The application of national conventions and the intervention of international projects in the field of social and child protection has led to the adoption of new standards in this area which included an increased interest in the development of the NGO sector. This has opened the way for parents association to get in to interest groups that would later become a respectable part of systemic support (Lepir, 2010).

2. ORGANIZATION OF PARENTS OF CHILDREN WITH DISABILITIES-NETWORK DEVELOPMENT
Social welfare in Bosnia and Herzegovina became the area where the NGO sector made significant interventions, especially at the practical level. The implementation of a significant number of different projects that have left an indelible mark on the community level influenced the creation of the reform process at the system level. At first, only as strengthening the capacities of centers for social work and the introduction of new practices, later projects were started to influence the direction of reform processes in the entire system of social welfare. Good practice in a number of municipalities was confirmed as a good method of spreading the need to reform the existing practice in social welfare. At the beginning, exclusively financed by donor funds, project activities are becoming an integral part of the public budget which ensured the sustainability of good solutions for the beneficiaries.

One of the most important contributions of these projects, in addition to technical improvements of the system and practice, was to strengthen the partnership of the public and NGOs. It took a lot of time and activities to confirm this partnership into practice. Even now there are some doubts about the quality and functionality of the partnership, but it is not the fruit of mutual hostility between the two sides, but the realization that it is necessary to systematically arrange the place, role and functioning of these relationships (Lepir, 2009).

The action of the association of parents of children with disabilities has a long tradition in this region. The reasons for this lies in the fact that the fact that the developmental problems of children was understood exclusively as problems of parents. At the system level, these problems are treated as general social problems while the system institutions its procedures separated from the public. All this has affected the already built a stigma in society. The stigma that accompanied the family when it receives a child with disabilities prevented the exit of parents in public, and the activities of the institutions of the system was aimed exclusively at professional intervention while a whole problem walking away from the general public interest.

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Organization of parents of children with disabilities in the Republic of Srpska began to form in the late 90s of the last century when it suddenly increased the interest of the general and professional public to the problems of this group of users in social welfare system. Very soon the work of local organizations has become known in local communities because it offered quicker, more accessible to the public and to the social welfare system, better insight to the real needs of children with disabilities and needs of their parents. A higher level of organization, and therefore more effective way of influencing the public social welfare system of the organization are achieved when, after a few years, joined the Alliance (acronym "MENERALI") which has become an indispensable factor in planning, organizing and providing social support for children at the system level. In the early years, associations have emerged spontaneously on the basis of individual enthusiasts engagement, usually parents of children with disabilities, who are founding the association wanted to ease the problemsolving they faced in providing support to their children. The first interest of these associations was the problems of access to health care and social care. The first associations were mainly relied on the support of parents. Later, with the growing interest of international institutions in these issues, possibilities for project financing open up, that significantly speeds up the process of further strengthening the network of these associations.

Initially, these associations did not have the support of local centers for social work, as well as they did not have the support of local authorities. Over time, this picture has changed so that these associations become important partners in the planning, organization and implementation of measures and services for children with disabilities. Today, they are respectable resources on which social welfare system seriously account, especially in the provision of new services such as day care centers for children with disabilities.
The biggest boost to the development of user organizations in this period gave the international projects of UNICEF, DFID and SDC. Their project interventions were aimed at supporting the establishment of parents’ associations, strengthening the capacity of existing NGOs and the introduction and development of new services for children with disabilities. Later on in support of the development of a user network associations have been involved with the local community co-financing of new services that have been developed in these associations.

A significant step forward in the development of a network of non-governmental organizations in this area made the implementation of the action research "Early detection of children with special needs and their development problems," which was first implemented in the municipalities of Srbac, Prnjavor and Kozarska Dubica. During the next seven years (2002-2008) this research was conducted in all municipalities in the Republic of Srpska (Lepir, 2006). For the first time this research was supported on behalf the Government of Republic of Srpska thru Ministry of Health and Social Welfare and the Public Fund for Child Protection, organizationally and financially. All activities that are conducted within this project were implemented in cooperation of center for social works and local associations of parents with disabilities. Activities were focused on conducting research on needs, sensitization of parents of children with disabilities for the purposes of greater social engagement, as well as strengthening social awareness to strengthen the support system at local level. The results achieved by the project are established in the new association of parents of children with disabilities in municipalities where there were none, technically and professionally have strengthened existing associations, explored the needs of families and children, established by the local database of children with disabilities, cooperation between the centers for social work and local associations, introduced new social services, established the first day care center for children with disabilities, raising the public awareness in local communities about the need for civic action in this area. During the Period of continuous implementation of this project, a significant number of families of children with disabilities received direct educational and advisory support on the specifics of the development problems of their child, and for child is provided the exercise of rights determined by Low, as well as measures and social services from social welfare system. The results of this project have been very important for the further development of a network of associations as well as to improve the overall social protection of children with disabilities in the Republic of Srpska.

Since 2010 there has been a decrease in interest of international institutions in this area in Bosnia and Herzegovina. At the same time local budgets have fallen into a crisis so that there has been a reduction of revenue of those organizations which contributed to the reduction of their activity. However, most organizations continued to work, to participate as a partner in the creation of social welfare at the local level and to influence the system solutions. A number of services have continued with work even though there is an interruption of funding from outside resources. At the end of 2015 in the Republic of Srpska there were about forty of these associations. Most of them (28) located in the roof MENERALI Union, while others operate independently.

Table 1. Classification of mentally and physically handicapped children and adolescents

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Total</th>
<th>Under 7 years</th>
<th>7-14</th>
<th>15-16</th>
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3. RESEARCH RESULTS

The results that will be presented were obtained in the study of the structure and organization of the user association's network. Research has been made in the period January-March 2017. The study included 21 non-governmental organizations which represent approximately 50% of all organizations that provide services for children with disabilities and their parents in the Republic of Srpska.

The subject of this research is the empirical analysis of the status, activities and resource of associations of parents of children with disabilities.

The aim of the research is to investigate a non-governmental network of support, membership structure and organization of users associations.

Hypothetical framework:

- Organization and management of associations are based on stakeholder integration motives and users actions.
- The work content of the association is based on the strengthening of existing and the introduction of innovative services in social protection.
- Association resources are insufficient to meet all the needs of users and are conditioned by the financial support of the local community.
- Association resources are insufficient to meet all the needs of users and are conditioned by the financial support of the local community.

Research Methods:

The study applied the basic, general, and data collection methods - methods of testing. Method of testing, the survey technique has been applied in empirical research also for the collection of data by questionnaire; instrument was designed for this study.

The questionnaire consists of 24 questions and 63 variables. The survey was completed by the most responsible persons at the associations. Processing of the results was performed by standardized statistical procedures.

A) Organization and management of associations

According to the Law on Associations and Foundations (Official Gazette of Republic of Srpska, 52/01), to establish association it is necessary that three individuals come together to achieve the objectives of the association. The association is in terms of this Act, any form of voluntary association of more natural or legal persons in order to improve or achieve some common or general interest or goal. Mandatory authority responsible for managing the association's is Assembly of the Association appointed by the Management Board or a person who represents the Assembly. Most people who represent these associations are also the parents of children with disabilities. Most often they are also the founders of the same association. In addition to the authorized person in the person, management usually involved a technical person engaged in correspondence, cash registers, running administrative affairs etc.

Managers of association of parents of children with disabilities are usually parents themselves. This fact talks about high level of integration between objectives of the association with its direct action. Associations gather children with disabilities, their parents and other people with disabilities. The structure of children and parents associations is diverse. In the study sample included a total of 521 families of which 397 or 76% have at least one of the high-educated parents. The number of families using cash transfers from the social welfare system is 240 or 46%. Number of families who actively participates in co-financing of associations is 150.
The largest number of associations over which the survey was conducted in his work is not often changed their managers. Half of these associations have so far had two managers, and only two associations have a brief break in their work which indicates a high degree of continuity in the work of the association.

According to the results, these associations bring together a total of 2,259 persons with disabilities, of which 665 children under the age of 18 years. Research results indicate that their members come from a variety of developmental and age groups. The largest number of members coming from groups of people with psychiatric disorders (36%), physical disability (10%), damage of the musculoskeletal system (17%) and visual impairment (10%).

A) Work contents of the association

Most associations have opened Day care centers as an additional activity. The Day care center is an institution of social welfare or additional activity which provide day care. Daily care includes different types of organized daily services and stays out of your own family through which it provides nourishment, care, conservation, health care, upbringing and education, psychosocial rehabilitation, occupational therapy and other services. In term of Law there are different types of Day care centers which witch differs by the type and severity of developmental disorders in children. The activities of Day care center associations of parents of children with disabilities make a direct connection with the public system. The association administration in the implementation of Day care services provided by a partnership with the Centers for social work which entails obtaining equal status of social service providers in the local community.

These are activities that are offered in these associations and that should be highlighted: Professional work with children, Advisory work with parents, The daily child care/Day care center, Trips to nature, Birthday celebrations, Cultural and information activities, Regular gatherings of members/parents, The workshop activities/production of souvenirs, Rehabilitation/physical exercise, Sensitization of the public, Cooperation with other institutions in the municipality. Activity that are commonly practiced in an association is "professional work (1)", which implies the implementation of different types of professional intervention, such as speech therapy exercises, special treatment, psychological workshops and the like. Furthermore, it is present "counseling to the parents (2)" and "the rehabilitation services (9)," a least represented "cultural information activities (6)" and the "tours in the nature" (4). Graphic given below represents the earlier mentioned activities.

A significant part of the activity relates to the project implementation. It is interesting that all associations had experience in project activities. Most of these activities were related to "public sensitization projects" (90%) and "parent education projects" (90%). Associations have been dealing to in a lesser extent with projects related to children's leisure activities and projects that have established cooperation with other associations (81%).

A) Resources of the association

Almost all of the associations involved in the research have the continuous support of professionals. Most of them are special education teachers of different directions, but there are psychologists as well. The support of professionals is very important in the work of these associations. This support raises the professional competence of the associations. In the
beginning, this support was reduced, only as part of some project activities, but recently it has been a continuous support in direct work with children.

Most associations have working rooms, although they are often inadequate. In recent years, a number of associations have managed to build and equip new functional spaces for work, but this problem remains open. Often, the problem is the lack of equipment especially for those who are undergoing rehabilitation and work therapy.

Financing as the most important item of the association's resources has always been uncertain. However, analysis of the funds allocation of the governmental sector for the non-governmental sector in Bosnia and Herzegovina (B&H) for 2007 and 2008, carried out by IBHI (2009), found that a significant part of the funds from the government budgets were allocated to the work and activities of the entire non-governmental sector. Compared to 2007, these allocations in B&H increased by about 11 million KM. Most of the funds come from the level of municipal budgets. A certain part of the funds is allocated from appropriately collected funds from the profit of games of chance. Organizations with a special status (veterans-disabled associations, refugee associations, etc.) are financed directly from the budget (usually the entity budgets of Republic of Srpska or Federation of Bosnia and Herzegovina), exclusively based on program activities. Organizations of persons with disabilities (associations) receive grants intended for humanitarian activities also on the basis of program activities. The competitive allocation of funds to non-governmental organizations has not yet become overwhelming, which indicates possible further improvements in financing methods. According to research findings, the ways in which funds are allocated to non-governmental organizations are not based on public call procedures (tenders). As much as 41% of the institutions allocate these funds on the basis of insights into the program activities of organizations. Only a fifth institution applies tender procedures (IBHI, 2009).

In 2007, around 107 million KM were planned at different levels of government in B&H, which represents 0.55% of GDP for 2007 (in 2008, 118 million KM were planned). A little over 50% was allocated for sports and veterans' organizations. For other types of organizations, these allocations ranged from 43% in 2007 to 48% in 2008. Organizations that are certified as social service providers have been invested about 14% of the total allocated funds to all non-governmental organizations, which shows that most of the funds go to organizations whose activities are not proactively targeted for social inclusion activities. The funds intended for the provision of social protection services are still insufficient according to the required level of needs (Lepir, 2009).

A survey carried out among associations of parents with disabilities in the Republic of Srpska found that there is not only one way of financing. Funding of these associations is provided from multiple sources. The largest number of associations provides funds through donations from the private sector and through grants from local government institutions. Funding of associations from projects is one of significant item in the budgets of these associations. The largest number of associations participated in the projects as a partner organization. A small number of associations appeared as a project leader, so the funds on this basis were small. Small part of funds are from personal donations of families whose children use the services of the association Membership fees as a source of funding do not apply in the work of these associations. The diversity of sources of funding enables associations to provide the means necessary for maintaining basic activities, and also does not allow development of new, and improvement of existing social services.

4. CONCLUSIONS

The network of the Association of Parents of Children with Special Needs in the Republic of Srpska are developed under the influence of international organizations' projects and the, as well as gradual development of awareness of the importance of community involvement. Associations have crossed the road from the period when they were driven by the enthusiasm of parents to a legally positioned place in system solutions. In parallel with the implementation of projects that advocated partnership relations between the public and non-governmental sectors, awareness in the community of the need to organize user associations and their role in achieving better quality of social protection has grown. A result of these processes, it was the establishment of a mixed social protection system that opened the door to users associations for public policy participation that regulated social support for children with disabilities. Misunderstandings between centers for social work and parents' associations with disabilities were overcome, but the question of establishing adequate and functional coordination and cooperation remained. However, on the other hand, their importance has been recognized in the public from local communities. Associations have become a subject in the social protection of children with disabilities. Strengthening the competencies of parents, their association and the activities of associations in the social protection
system have achieved much in the field of recognizing the real needs of children with disabilities and establishing a more efficient social services system.

The survey of the network of parents' organizations with disabilities has shown that these user associations are poor with resources, lacking adequate financial support and still having problems with lack of professional competencies in working with users. However, a constant increase in the number of these organizations indicates the need for their action. According to this statement we ask the question: Does Social Welfare system helps in developing a non-governmental network of support for children with disabilities? Serenely, yes. But is it enough? Benefits of involving user associations in the social protection system are found in: faster, more economical, more direct and more accessible social services; more flexible and rational organization of services; the possibility of creating new services based on the real needs of users; greater choice of services as well as ability to engage more resources in the local community.

The most recognizable activity of non-governmental organizations lies in the provision of direct services to children and educational and informative work with parents and the general public. User associations influence public opinion and provide support to the public of local communities, which has a direct impact on the sustainability of their work. Their significance lies in analytical-research activities, the analysis of the state of the state of resources in the field and the recognition of the real needs of families and their children.

User associations represent the best guarantor in representing the interests of children with disabilities and their parents. Their future development will be conditioned by: strengthening of the partnership relations with the public institutions of the system; the introduction of standards in the provision of social services, the professionalization and specialization of non-governmental organizations in this field and the provision of a secure source of funding.

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Re-Defining Polyphony in Media Text for Public Relations Discursive Practices in Organization

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Abstract

The research explores the new media tools manifested in communication and public relations discursive practices in organization, marked by Bahtinian polyphony in media relations texts. The study of organization theory can be defined, analyzed and evaluated as dialogic organization constructed in and by dialogues as discursive practices [Hatch 2006, Grunig, 2002, Castells 2011]. Redefining polyphony consists in analyzing the original definition as ‘one self - concept is formed part from the social relationship we have with others and from others’ responses to what we say and do…….Because the self is constructed out of our need to balance on our own needs with those of others, the self is necessarily dialogic or make in concert with others’.[Bahtin, 1981] But having the keys for reading the self – concept as the social identity of an organization, the social relationships with others, namely the public(s) as groups of interests validated in the public sphere, and the roles and relations starting from the organization to and from the public(s). Thus evaluating the main levels offered by the framework in organization, the current research has identified: the intentional level created in the communicative contract by the organization in the context the new media have been used; the impact upon the public(s) - audience and/or communities throughout the means of new media and social media, analyzing their posts, comments; the rules of structuring the sequential configuration of the messages in media text as dialog, trilog or polilog in the polyphony of discursive media relations practices in organization’s site, blog, social media units-Facebook, Twitter, You Tube.

Keywords: polyphony, media text, new media, organizational discursive practices, media relations, public relations