PRIZREN SOCIAL SCIENCE JOURNAL

Stephen Hawking

Science is beautiful when it makes simple explanations of phenomena or connections between different observations. Examples include the double helix in biology and the fundamental equations of physics

ORGINAL RESEARCH ARTICLE

TABLE OF CONTENTS

REVIEW ARTICLES

Page

TABLE OF CONTENTS

Editor-in-Chief
DR. SC. LUAN VARDARI
PRIZREN "UKSHIN HOTI" UNIVERSITY

co-Editor-in-Chief & Language Editor
NAZLI TYFEKQI
GJAKOVA "FEHMI AGANI" UNIVERSITY

Editorial Board President
PROF. ASC. ENGIN DEMIREL,
TRAKYA UNIVERSITY

SCAN ME

EDUCATION MANAGEMENT OF POLICY REFORM OF EXTRAORDINARY SCHOOL KNOWN AS (SLB) IN CENTRAL JAVA PROVINCE

Diyah Etana*

Endang Larasati

Yuwanto

Sundarso

✱*Correspondent Author: DiponegoroUniversity, Faculty of Social And Political Sciences, prodidap@gmail.com*
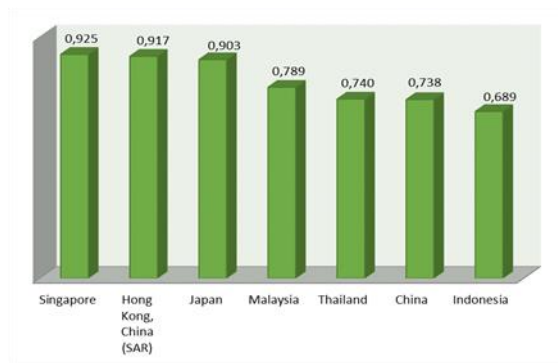
A b s t r a c t

Every citizen has the same rights to obtain the education, including for children with disabilities. However, from the current researchers there are several problems faced with the implementation of Extraordinary School (SLB) education in Central Java Province, which is the limitation of human resources policy, budget and infrastructure facilities. This research aims to observe and conduct analysis of the policy reform of Sekolah Luar Biasa (Extraordinary School) of Education management in Central Java Province and supporting factors and inhibitors of SLB education management policy conducted by the government of Central Java Province. The research method used by researchers is qualitative, with data collection using triangulation techniques. The results showed that the policy reform of SLB Education management in Central Java Province in the field of apparatus resources still need to be addressed because still many who have not been literate with technology. However, it does not affect them in the service given to the community. These recommendations given improving the quality and quantity are human resources apparatus through the technology and training. The addition of personnel, development of infrastructure adapted to disabled, master data collection and budget adjustments. Preparation of Standard Operational Procedure (SOP) sustained to the LAW No 8 in 2016 about the disabled. The creation of governor regulation that is specifically governs the disability.

Introduction

Every country needs a policy to direct actions so that the desired objectives achieved. This is in line with the opinion expressed by (Anggraeni, Zauhar, & Siswidiyanto, 2011) in a book entitled: Public Policy Evaluation. "Policy is an act that leads to a goal proposed by a person, group or Government in a particular environment in connection with certain obstacles while looking for opportunities to achieve goals or Desired Goal. The policy contains an element of action to achieve the goal. Generally, the goal achieved by a person, group or government. The policies certainly face various obstacles or problems but have to look for opportunities to realize the desired objectives.

The problem of education faced by the Indonesian nation is the low quality of education at every level and unit of education. The Report comes from the United Nations Development Program (UNDP) in 2016 about the Human Development Index (HDI). The composition of the achievement stage in education, reported that in 2015 Indonesia was at the rate of 113 from 188 countries, and still low Compared to some of the countries in Asia Pacific such as Singapore, Hong Kong, Japan, Malaysia, Thailand and China, which seen in Figure 1 below.

Figure 1. Human Development Index In Asia-Pacific Countries

Source: Human Development Index, 2016

Based on the figure above, known that HDI for Indonesia in 2015 is the lowest compared to five other Asia Pacific Countries. Indonesia ranks 113 with a score of 0.689. The highest HDI obtained by Singapore with a score of 0.925. It ranks five out of 188 countries. Low HDI shows the low competitiveness of the nation in global trade.

National education has a very important role for citizens. National education aims to educate the life of the nation; therefore every citizen has the right to get an education. As stated in (Kemendikbud, 2013) stated that every citizen has the same opportunity to obtain an education. This indicates that the disabled child may also have the same opportunity as other children in education.
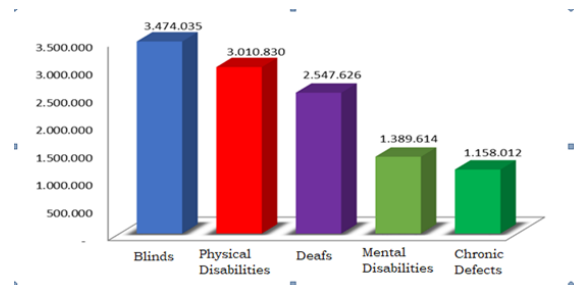
The World Health Organization (WHO) in 2010 revealed that 10% of the world's population is a disability, approximately 600 million people. While the data Ministry of Health Indonesia in 2010 recorded, the number of special disabilities in Indonesia reaches 6.7 million consisting of blind, dumb, deaf, disablement and other types of defects. In 2012, WHO wrote that there were 285 million people experiencing visual impairment around the world, 39 million people had blindness and 246 million of people suffered from low vision. A number of 90 % case blindness (low vision) occurs in developing countries.

Exclusion, marginalization, and discrimination against people with disabilities are still a tough challenge for their opportunities to live on par with other communities. Based on the results of the data from the Ministry of Social Affairs of Indonesia Republic in 2009, about 67.33% of adult disabilities have no skills and employment. For those who have a job, the main skill types of disability are massage, crafting, farmer, labor, and services.

According to (Lusli et al., 2015), the change of disability data in a survey of Statistical Center (BPS) from health indicators to become indicators of social welfare since 1998 raises difficulties to Determine the actual magnitude of a disabled resident, especially since the operational definitions used change

frequently. The results of unbiased surveys, such as RISKESDAS 2007 and the World Bank trials in 2007, are estimated to be no less than 2-3% of the Indonesian population with disabilities that interfere with the function and daily social activities.

Figure 2. Number of Disability in Indonesia

Source: Social Ministry of Indonesian Republic, 2011

Social Ministry of Indonesia Republic as of December 2010 mentions the number of people with a disability in Indonesia 11,580,117, consisting of a blind 3.474,035 people, disability is 3,010,830 people, deaf is as many as 2,547,626 people, mentally disabled is 1,389,614 people and chronic disability is as many as 1,158,012 people. Based on the Social Ministry data, this shows that the blind have the largest amount compared to other types of others.

Data reported from the provincial government of Central Java in this case the provincial education office of Central Java, that there are about 14,544 students of Extraordinary School (SLB). By details for Kindergarten Extraordinary School (TKLB) of 574 students, Elementary Extraordinary School (SDLB) as many as 9,785 students, Junior School of Extraordinary School (SMPLB) as many as 2,697 students, Senior High School of Extraordinary School (SMALB/SMKLB) as many as 1,468 students, and Vocational School as many as 20 students. Where more details seen in figure 3 below.

Figure 3. Number of Extraordinary School (SLB) Students in Central Java Province

Source: Educational Institution of Central Java, 2016

Regardless of the large or small number, given that the inherent number of the figure is the soul, then any number is a number that requires the attention and concern of all elements of the nation and inherent to that number of human rights demanded to be respected, fulfilled and protected. Another problem that arose after the education authority of Extraordinary School (SLB) taken over by the Provincial Government of Central Java from the district/city government besides Human Resources (HM), and infrastructure is the field of budget associated with a diminished Extraordinary School (SLB) teacher's welfare problem, especially teachers in Private Extraordinary School (SLB).

Where many honorary teacher incentives in private Extraordinary School (SLB) after the transition of authority was carried out from the district/city which was taken over by the Provincial Government of Central Java, it 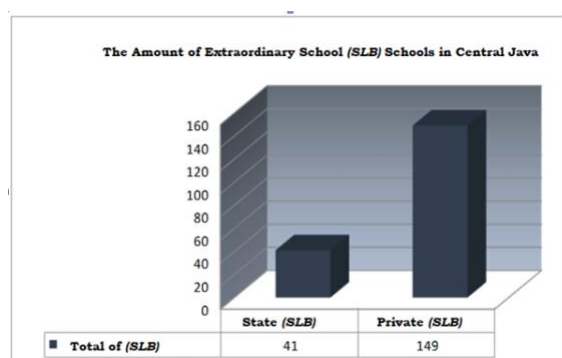has an impact on the loss of their incentives. Such practices are not reformist, when the management authority of Extraordinary School (SLB) is pulling back to the level of the Provincial Government of Central Java. Because in practice cannot be in accordance with what is expected by the honorary teachers in private Extraordinary School (SLB) that are widely scattered throughout the province of Central Java today. Where it seen in figure 4 below.
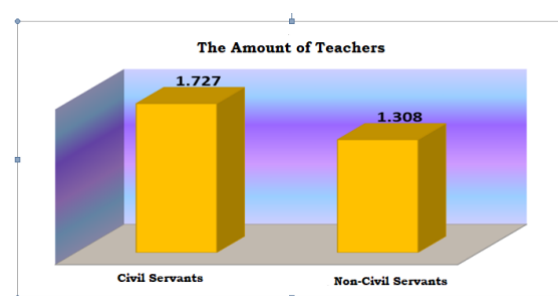
Figure 4. The Amount of State and Private Extraordinary School (SLB) in Central Java Province

Source: Educational Institution of Central Java Province, 2016

Based on Figure 4 above, it can be noted that the number of Extraordinary School (SLB) of state in the Central Java Province is currently only 41 Schools, while for Extraordinary School (SLB) which is managed by the private sector more compared with the current state of Extraordinary School (SLB) with number of schools as much as 149. While teacher incentives lost due to the management of Extraordinary School (SLB) in the back to the level of the Provincial Government of Central Java reached thousands. As shown in Figure 5 below.

Figure 5. Number of SLB's Teachers of Civil servants and Non-Civil servants of Central Java province

Source: Educational Institution of Central Java Province, 2016

Based on Figure 5 above, it can observe that the number of teachers from civil servants in Central Java Province is currently 1,727, while Non-Civil Servant teachers who are threatened incentive disappear because they caused by the management authority of the SLB in pulling back to Central Java provincial Government amounted to 1,308. SLB's withdrawal policy to the provincial government began in 2014, through (Pemerintah Republik Indonesia, 2014) on local government and (Kementerian Pendidikan Nasional, 2010) on previous management and implementation of education, all assets, teachers and Management of Extraordinary School (SLB) is the provincial authority. In addition, this withdrawal is in order for the provincial government of Central Java to responsible as a special education provider. Ensure if the provincial government of Central Java manages and develops this Extraordinary School (SLB) in Central Java Province and conducts more comprehensive coaching for special education in Central Java. However, nothing has done in accordance with the planned, so there are still a lot of problems that arise.

According to the data above showed that the management of Extraordinary School (SLB) in Central Java Province needs reconsidered. Particularly, for teacher's resources taking placed in separated Extraordinary School (SLB) and its public service, seen from still the least number of Extraordinary School (SLB) standing in the region of Central Java provincial Government today. And this is the interest of researchers to conduct a study related to policy reform that focus on the human resources apparatus and services to people who have children with disability condition. As stated in the Grand Design of the current bureaucracy reform, which examined in the bureaucracy reform, it includes its human resources and its public service so that it can affect the public in general. This research aims to conduct a reform analysis of the education management policy of SLB in Central Java province, which seen from the human resource factor of apparatus, and public service.

1. Research Method

This research uses qualitative data analysis and the technique analysis is applying quantitative data. Where this method is a method of research that is not the same as the experimental method, this method of research used to examine the condition of natural objects and Researchers have a duty and function as a key instrument in observing a key problem that revealed in a research object that it would implement. By testing the validity and validity of data are using triangulation techniques.

2. Literature Review
2.1. Public Policy

The scope of public policy studies is broad because it has various fields and sectors such as economics, politics, social, culture, law, and so on. Besides judging from the hierarchical public policy can be national, regional and local such as legislation, government regulation, presidential regulation, ministerial regulation, regulation of the local government/province, the decision of the Governor, Regency/City, and the decree of the Regent/Mayor.

In terms of public policy understanding, it turns out a lot, depending on which point we interpret. (Profwork.org, 2014) provided a definition of public policy as the authoritative alocation of values for the whole society or as a forcibly allocation of values to all members of the community. (Kaplan & Lynch, 2001) also interpreted public policy as a capacitance program of goal, value, and practice or a program of achievement of objectives, values in directed practices.

The public policy according to (Dye, 2016) defined as "Whatever governments choose to do or not to do". Public policy is what the government chose to do or did not do something. This understanding indicates that the government has the authority to make choices about which policies performed or not, depending on the issues arising or the achievement that is intended addressed by the policy. Meanwhile, the policy sense expressed by (Bohara, Mitchell, & Mittendorff, 2004) defined public policy as a series of actions that a person, group or Government proposes in a particular environment, with existing threats and opportunities, where the proposed policy intended to Potential and overcome obstacles in order to achieve certain objectives.

It differents from the opinion of the experts above (Dye, 2016) in (Joko, 2016) suggested that in the policy system there are three elements cosists of "(a) Stakeholders policy; (b) Policymakers (policy contents); and (c) policy environment ". Based on the

theory, you can be aware that a policy creates by the Government to achieve certain objectives in which there are perpetrators involved in addressing the problems arising from the environment. As (Anderson, 1990) elements stated in the public policy, among other things includes the following as follows:

1.   Policies always have a purpose or are oriented towards a particular purpose.
2.   The policy contains actions or patterns of action of government officials.
3.   Policy is what the government is actually doing and not what it intends to do.
4.   Public policy is positive (which is the Government's action on a particular matter) and is negative (the decision of government officials not able to do anything).
5.   Public policy (positive) always based on certain rules of law that are pushy (authoritative).

Public policy created as is intended to address issues that arise in the community, formulating problems is one of the phases in policymaking, so formulating problems is fundamental to policy making. (Dunn, 2003) described some important features of policy issues, classified as follows:

1.   Interdependence is among policy issues. Policy issues within a field sometimes affect policy in other areas. (Meyer & Dunn, 2006) suggested that in reality policy issues are not a stand-alone unity; they are part of the whole system of problems that best described as Meses, that is, an external condition system that generates dissatisfaction among different segments.
2.   The subjectivity is among policy issue. External conditions that pose a problem defined, classified, described and selectively evaluated. While it consists of a presumption that the problem is objective, the same data on a problem interpreted differently.
3.   Artificial nature is among the problem. Policy issues are only possible when humans make judgments about the desire to change some of the problem situations. Policy issues constitute a result/product of human subjective judgment; that policy problem also accepted as legitimate definitions of objective social conditions; and changed socially.
4.   Dynamics is among policy issues. They consist of many solutions to a problem, as many definitions to the problem. Problems and solutions are in constant changes; and hence the problem not constantly solved. The solution to the problem can be obsolete even though the problem itself is not obsolete.

Public policy on addressing a problem also contains various concepts. (Anderson, 2003; Sugandi, 2017) defined public policy as "a response from the political system to demands/claim and support that flows from its environment". In policy making to address community issues, the policy contains values that aligned

with the prevailing values in the community that will directly or indirectly impacted by the policy. As (Eulau & Easton, 2006) presented in (Kawer, Baiquni, Keban, & Subarsono, 2018) said that "When the government makes public policy, it is also the government to allocate values to the community, because each policy contains a set of values in it" . In line with this, (Lasswell & Kaplan, 2018) in (Kawer et al., 2018), argued, "public policy should contain the goals, values, and social practices that exist in the community". Public policy should not contradict the values and social practices that exist in the community, in order not to occur rejection or resistance when implemented..

2.2. Policy Reform Concepts

The basic conception of reform is to create changes, improvements, arrangements and settings comprehensively and systematically on many matters, especially as it relates to leadership, as well as to State, Organize and Government.

Reform defined as the process of change from the old condition to the desired new condition (Said, Abdullah, Uli, & Mohamed, 2014). Whereas according to the opinion of (Novianto, Kurniawan, & Wibawa, 2017) stated that a movement to change the shape and behavior of a setting, because the order is no longer preferred or not according to the needs of the times-good because it is inefficient, not clean, not democratic, etc. According to (Hidayat, 2017) stated that reform is a corrective or changing form.

(Anderson, 2003) in (Nugroho, 2017) defined the policy as "A relative stable, purposive course of action followed by an actor or set of actor in dealing with A problem or matter of concern." Policy is the direction of action that has the intent set by an actor or a number of actors in addressing a problem or issue.

According to the explanation above it noted that the understanding of public policy reform is to change the behavior or action better to be more effective and efficient than the actors in addressing a problem that are occurs in the society of today.

2.3. Bureaucracy Reform Concepts

Relating to the Government's efforts in fixing the bureaucracy, which eventually referred to as bureaucratic reform? Thus, there are various definitions of bureaucratic reform, with varying understanding of bureaucracy reform.

According to (Sedarmayanti, 2011) stated that bureaucracy reform was the government's effort to improve performance through various ways with the aim of effectiveness, efficiency,

and accountability. Where the bureaucracy reform includes several changes namely (a) Changing in way of thinking; (b) Changing of ruler into Civil Servant; (c) Putting the role of authority; (d) Not think the production result but the final result; (e) Changing in performance management.

The explanation above shows that to reform bureaucracy there are some things changed from the bureaucracy itself. After seeing the various explanations of bureaucracy reform above, bureaucracy reform is part of administrative reform, could said in relation to actions or measures undertaken in the reform the administration of one of its objectives is to reform bureaucracy.

In the Grand Design Bureaucracy Reform in the period of 2010-2025 It had determined that the objectives achieved in bureaucratic reform are to create professional government bureaucracy with adaptive, integrity, high performance characteristics. It also shold be clean and free of Corruptio, Collusion and Nepotism, being able to serve the public, neutral, prosperous, dedicated, and uphold the basic values and ethics code of the State Apparatus. There are 8 (eight) areas of change that become the goal of bureaucracy reform covering all aspects of government management, as stated in the table below:

Table 1: These 8 Areas of Bureaucracy Reform Changing

Areas	Results Expected
Organization	Proper organizational function and precise size (right sizing)
Execution	Clear, effective and efficient, measured and in accordance with good governance principles, systems processes and working procedures
Laws and Regulations	Regulation that is more orderly, not overlapping and conducive
Human Resources Apparatus	Human Resource apparatus is integrity, neutral, competent, capable, professional, high performance and prosperous.
Supervision	Increased governance of clean and free of Corruption, Collusion and Nepotism
Accountability	Increasing capacity and accountability for bureaucratic performance
Public Service	Excellent service according to the needs and expectations of society
Mind Set And Cultural Work	Bureaucracy with high integrity and performance

(Culture Set) Apparatus	

Bases on these definitions, in the interest of the authors ' research is to take a generalization of bureaucratic reform concept (administrative) that is a change efforts made by the Government in the governance system to create or make things better than the previous state by involving bureaucracy as the target of change so that bureaucracy becomes more qualified. In addition, using the eight areas of change in the Grand Design bureaucracy reform 2010-2025 became a tool to parse the current research problems. Because of the limitation of researchers then in this research will be selected two areas of change such as Human Resource apparatus and public services. The researchers choose these two areas as a matter of the problem in implementing the education management of Extraordinary School (SLB) in Central Java Province. The reason why researchers in using the Grand Design bureaucracy reform 2010-2025 is more applicative than the other theory, and is one of the mandatory government programs that should be implemented by any agency or institution Government in the entire territory of Indonesia.

3.   Result and Discussion

The results of research that has been done in the field, for reform study of the policy of education Management of Extraordinary School (SLB) in Central Java Province has been known that it turns out the policy by the current government not maximized or optimal. This can be seen from the data obtained from the relevant instituion/agencies through the results of interviews that have been done with some informant both from the government and from the community. The head of the Education and Culture Office, the director of the Ministry of Religious Affairs, the scholarship of the Ministry of Agriculture, Educators and special education (SLB's teacher) currently represent as the informant of the Central Java provincial government. While the informant of the community in this research represented by parents who attended the Extraordinary School (SLB).

Several problems are widely alluded to by the informant of policy reform studies that have been widely complained of by some informant are both human and non-people. Moreover, some facilities of space infrastructure classes that still require improvement to be comfortable to use as a place to learn and teach while in the classroom.

Researchers in obtaining an overview of the policy reform of the education Management of Extraordinary School (SLB) in Central Java province used some of the principles contained in the Grand Design bureaucracy reform 2010-2025 to parse Current research

problems. In addition, because of the limitations owned by the researchers, then in this research will be selected two areas of change such as Human Resources apparatus that is seen using the theory presented by (Notoatmojo, 2010) and public services viewed by Using the Theory of (Kasmir, 2009).

The member states transfer sovereignty always and more, by attributing them the power of creating legally dependent norms, as well as the power to adopt mutual politics, that have always been reserved from the sovereign decisions of member states. Until now we have mutual monetary, agricultural politics etc.

I.   Policy reform of Education Management of Extraordinary School (SLB) in Central Java Province

The current policy reform conducted by the provincial government of Central Java in conducting the management of Extraordinary School (SLB) education for pupils or students with special needs can be known results. Results obtained after a thorough research with the stakeholders and the society results in the reform of the policy has not succeeded optimally. It is very conscious of some results interviews with informers that were successfully encountered by researchers at the field. Some of the informant are the Head Of Education and Culture Office, Head of Field of construction as well as Special Education, the study of student affairs, educator and education special teachers, and SLB's teacher.

The intention of bureaucracy reform, namely as a change effort to improve the bureaucracy quality. Every change to be made always focuses on the bureaucracy as a change target, this is done to solve the problems that exist in the community. Given that the bureaucracy is always in contact with the community therefore the bureaucracy is demanded to maximize its task and function as a servant in serving the community. To achieve this aim, the government as a competent authority to make renewal and fundamental changes to the system of governance.

II.   Human Resources Apparatus

The Area of change is included in the Grand Design bureaucracy reform 2010-2025, namely human resources apparatus. Which in the weaver human resources apparatus according to (Amran, 2009) seen in two factors that can affect the human resources apparatus in the Department of Education and Culture of Central Java, internal and external factors? Researchers observe about mission and organizational objectives, achievement strategy and types of technology used use this internal factor. While in the external, factors used by researchers to observe about the
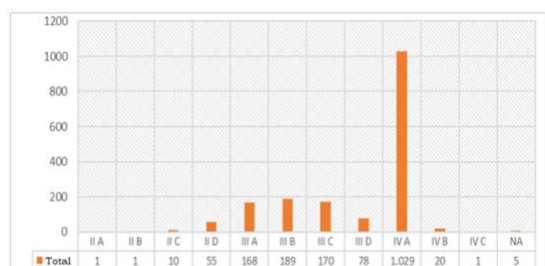
government's wisdom, social culture, and the development of science and technology.

The results of research conducted by researchers found based on interviews and data obtained that the education management of Extraordinary School (SLB) in Central Java province. It related to human resources apparatus has not been done optimally because the vision of a mission that has not yet contained or alluded to the disability, uncertified teachers of Extraordinary School (SLB). As well as several teachers of Extraordinary School (SLB) or education personnel specialized in Extraordinary School (SLB) who have not been able to use the computer applications skillfully and well when completing the work that they are responsible for.

Based on the results of the interview explanation above, it is known that at present, the government has not succeeded the policy reform of the education Management of Extraordinary School (SLB) in Central Java province from Human Resluces factor apparatus. It is necessary to make improvements so that the quality and effectiveness of Extraordinary School (SLB) teachers can be fulfilled. For people with disabilities can face a better future in their lives later. Who has gained the knowledge and skills of their current teachers?

The Human Resource condition above is very suitable with the data in the provincial education and culture Office of Central Java. Teachers who have become civil servants currently in Central Java Province have 1,727 teachers. The following classes are seen from graph 1 below. Gar's people with disabilities can face a better future in their lives. Who has gained the knowledge and skills of their current teachers?

Graphic 1. Number of Civil Servants of Extraordinary School (SLB) Classifying In Central Java province
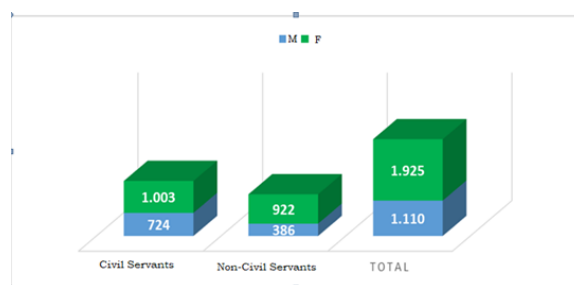

Source: Central Java Provincial Education Office, 2018

From Graph 1 above, it noted that the Extraordinary School (SLB) teachers in the current region of Central Java province are the most in-group IV A with 1,029 people. Then the second most teacher group had shown in-group III B with the number of teachers as much as 189 people. In addition, the number of teachers at least from the graph above knew, namely

Extraordinary School (SLB) Teacher with group II A, II B and IV. Each of them is only one person. Therefore, the government of Central Java province is required to add or make improvements in quality and quantity to teachers who still lack their capacity to teach students or SLB student in Central Java province. Whereas if it viewed based on the type of experience it seen in Graph 2 below.

Graphic 2. The Number of Civil Servants of Extraordinary School (SLB)'s Teachers by Gender in Central Java Province

Sources: Educational Institution of Central Java Province, 2018

Based on Graph 2 above can be noted that at this time Extraordinary School (SLB) teachers located in Central Java Province in the domination of women where the total amount is 1,925 overall, with the details of the status of Civil Servants as many as 1003 teachers, and Non Civil Servants as many as 922 Extraordinary School (SLB) teachers. After that, the gender of men with a total 1,110 Extraordinary School (SLB) teachers, with the status of Civil Servants as many as 724 people and Non Civil Servants currently number as many as 386 people. Based on the results of interviews, data and facts in the field can be noted that the number of Extraordinary School (SLB) teachers in Central Java Province still needs to be added, as well as the addition of qualified teachers in educating children at the time of children with disabilities Lessons given in the classroom.

According to (Van Rensburg, Basson, & Carrim, 2011) stated that the factors affecting human resources are two, first internal factors: mission and organizational objectives, goal achievement strategy, type of technology used and external factors: government policy , social culture, and the development of science and technology. The Human Resources factor of this apparatus used by researchers to determine the extent of the education and culture Department of Central Java in conducting the management of Extraordinary School (SLB) based on internal and external factors that have been carried out.

The results of a reform study of the education management policy of Extraordinary School (SLB) in Central Java Province that has been conducted by researchers at the time in the field can be known that currently that the Human Resource factor apparatus

to conduct management of Extraordinary School (SLB) still need improvement by improved quality and quantity in the field. This is due to the absence of policy regulations such as the struggle or Regional Regulations, which specifically regulates education for those with disabilities. In addition, several classes of teachers who are still not skilled or not able to operate the computer to support the teaching activities of students at the time they are in front of the class. So according to them given the Training or Technologycal Guidance in order to support the education of SLB and develop the interests and talents owned by the students in Extraordinary School (SLB).

The absence of conformity between the theory conveyed by (Van Rensburg et al., 2011) the practice at the time in the field makes the management policy Program of in Extraordinary School (SLB) conducted by the Provincial Education and Cultural Office of Central Java there are still many face of the problem. So according to the informant necessary improvement efforts of the Central Java provincial government so that Extraordinary School (SLB) in Central Java province is better than when it managed by the Regency/City government. Especially it focuses on science and skills are from teachers at Extraordinary School (SLB) School. In addition, the numbers of teachers who still slightly compared to schoolteachers for other education levels also become an obstacle in fulfilling the ratio of teachers to students. Teacher improvement in quality and quantity then it can make children with disabilities can compete with other children in the middle of society today.

III.   Public Service

The Area of change included in the Grand Design bureaucracy reform the next second 2010-2025 in this study was public service. Which in this weaver will be seen in some of the symptoms or indicators, namely the ability of officers in performing the service quickly and precisely, able to communicate well, able to maintain the secret well, have knowledge and ability, trying to understand the community necessities, and able to give confidence to the community.

Based on the results of the interview explanation that conducted by the researchers at the time of the field, it is known that the policy reform of the education Management of Extraordinary School (SLB) in Central Java Province relates to public service factor is can walk according to the society expectations. It based on the answer of the informant who said that the service provided by the Central Java Provincial education and culture office in handling the problem is responsive. They are officers quickly and precisely in providing, the clarity of information needed by both of the teachers and the community who reported related to the problem of Extraordinary School (SLB) in Central Java Province.

Therefore, in the end it can increase the trust of people who currently have children with special needs to be able to follow the education of Extraordinary School (SLB) with high enthusiasm.

The characteristics of good service according to (Jansi, Kasmir Raja, & Sandhia, 2018) formulated as follows: 1. Responsible to each customer/visitor from the beginning to completion. 2. being able to serve quickly and precisely 3. Being Able to communicate 4. Being Able to provide assurance of confidentiality of each transaction 5. Have a good knowledge and ability 6. Strive to understand the needs of customers/visitors. 7. Giving confidence is to customers/visitors. Understanding the quality of services or services centered on the fulfillment of needs and desires of the community and its delivery provisions to offset the expectations that wanted by the society today. This public service factor used by researchers to determine the extent to which the Central Java provincial education and Culture department in conducting the management of Extraordinary School (SLB) is able to provide good service to the community in the field of extraordinary education for children with disabilities.

The research results conducted by researchers can be found based on the results of the description of interviews and data obtained that the management of Extraordinary School (SLB) education in Central Java Province related to the service provided to the community is already running according to what is expected. The implementor officers who come from the provincial education and cultural Office of Central Java and teachers who teach in Extraordinary School (SLB) are already able to provide good service to the community. Therefore, in the implementation it is no problem in conducting the management of Extraordinary School (SLB), after all the extraordinary education affairs taken by the provincial government of Central Java.

The alignment between theory and practice, so that the management of Extraordinary School (SLB) conducted by the Department of Education and Culture of the Central Java Province in conducting services today has been able to satisfy the various parties to the teacher, Principal as well as Community. It based on the ability of officers in performing services quickly and appropriately, able to communicate well with the principal, teachers of Extraordinary School (SLB) and society, transparent in providing data related to SLB, have knowledge and Skills about good management of Extraordinary School (SLB) is what it does. They are trying to understand the needs of the community, and able to give confidence to the community to send their children who have special need to learn to the Extraordinary School (SLB). Having good public service even though the Human Resource is still very limited to Central Java Province showed his achievements in the Olympics for students with

disabilities who are held in Jogjakarta in the past time by bearing or Won as General champion.

Figure 6. Extraordinary School (SLB) Students of Central Java who Become Champions In Competition Events O2SN in all Indonesia

Source: Researcher Document, 2018

4. Conclusion and Suggestions

Research reform Study of the policy of education Management of Extraordinary School (SLB) in Central Java Province that has done by researchers previously concluded as follows:

The policy Management of Extraordinary School (SLB) education in Central Java Province as whole results in the framework of reform in the field of apparatus has not carried out well. Because up to the extent of the resource apparatus that became a phenomenon in this research, after the study in the field is, still many who have not digital literacy is to operationalize computer and props when the teacher teaches Students in front of the class.

Especially for human resources apparatus, that is middle age. However, based on the results of the study in the field they continue to do public service well, fast and responsive to the principal and SLB's teachers of whom found many problems when they learn to teach in Extraordinary School (SLB) school the that they handle today. Therefore, to improve apparatus resources especially for Extraordinary School (SLB) teachers, need to do some training to improve their quality. Therefore, those Extraordinary School (SLB) teachers can give a good understanding to their students, when teaching them in the classroom while learning to teach in the school.

Improvement efforts that need implemented on various conditions evaluation of the education management policy of Extraordinary School (SLB) are as follows:

1.   Improving the quality and quantity of Human Resource apparatus through technology and training

2.   The addition of current Extraordinary School (SLB) teachers is still very little, compared to the general level of education.

3.   The construction of facilities that can adapted to the disability.

4.   Re-collection of teachers is both of state and of private Extraordinary School (SLB) in Central Java. Therefore, it could see the amount of Human Resources certainty teacher that are both of honorer, state and private. So it calculated in the budget adjustment that will done by the Central Java Provincial Education Office in the payment of benefits for Extraordinary School (SLB) teachers to be paid.

All of the above recommendations need optimized in order to be equal to the state or private Extraordinary School (SLB) education in Central Java Province could realized later on.

References

1.   Amran. (2009). Manajemen Personalia dan Sumber Daya Manusia. Jurnal Ichsan. https://doi.org/doi:10.1056/NEJMp1302259

2.   Anderson, J. E. (1990). Public Policy Making: An Introduction. Psychiatric services Washington DC. https://doi.org/10.1176/appi.ps.61.11.1069

3.   Anderson, J. E. (2003). Public Policymaking. Boston New York: Houghton Miffin Company.

4.   Anggraeni, R., Zauhar, S., & Siswidiyanto. (2011). Evaluasi Kebijakan Publik. Evaluasi Kebijakan Publik (Evaluasi Terhadap Proses Pengadaan Anjungan Mandiri Kepegawaian Berdasarkan Perpres No. 504 Tahun 2010 Kepegawaian Daerah Kota Malang).

5.   Bohara, A. K., Mitchell, N. J., & Mittendorff, C. F. (2004). Compound democracy and the control of corruption: A cross-country investigation. Policy Studies Journal. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1541-0072.2004.00077.x

6.   Dunn, W. N. (2003). Pengantar Analisis Kebijakan Publik edisi kedua. Yogyakarta: Gajah Mada University Press.

7.   Dye, T. R. (2016). Understanding Public Policy. Understanding Public Policy.

8.   Eulau, H., & Easton, D. (2006). The Political System: An Inquiry into the State of Political Science. The Yale Law Journal. https://doi.org/10.2307/793409

9. Hidayat, S. (2017). An Islamic Party in Urban Local Politics: The PKS Candidacy at the 2012 Jakarta Gubernatorial Election. Jurnal Politik. https://doi.org/10.7454/jp.v2i1.80

10. Jansi, K. R., Kasmir Raja, S. V., & Sandhia, G. K. (2018). Efficient privacy-preserving fault tolerance aggregation for people-centric sensing system. In Service Oriented Computing and Applications. https://doi.org/10.1007/s11761-018-0241-5

11. Joko, W. (2016). PERATURAN PEMERINTAH REPUBLIK INDONESIA NOMOR 18 TAHUN 2016 TENTANG PERANGKAT DAERAH. In PERATURAN PEMERINTAH REPUBLIK INDONESIA NOMOR 18 TAHUN 2016 TENTANG PERANGKAT DAERAH.

12. Kaplan, G. A., & Lynch, J. W. (2001). Is economic policy health policy? American Journal of Public Health. https://doi.org/10.2105/AJPH.91.3.351

13. Kasmir, S. (2009). Toward an anthropology of labor. City and Society. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1548-744X.2009.01011.x

14. Kawer, O. F. S., Baiquni, M., Keban, Y. T., & Subarsono, A. (2018). IMPLEMENTASI KEBIJAKAN PEMBANGUNAN RUMAH LAYAK HUNI DENGAN PENDEKATAN HIBRIDA DI KABUPATEN SUPIORI PROVINSI PAPUA. Sosiohumaniora. https://doi.org/10.24198/sosiohumaniora.v20i3.18489

15. Kemendikbud. (2013). Standar Isi Pendidikan Dasar dan Menengah. In Peraturan Menteri Pendidikan dan Kebedayaan.

16. Kementerian Pendidikan Nasional. (2010). Peraturan Pemerintah Republik Indonesia Nomor 66 Tahun 2010 tentang Perubahan atas Peraturan Pemerintah Republik Indonesia Nomor 17 Tahun 2010 tentang Pengelolaan dan Penyelenggaraan Pendidikan. uk.staff.ugm.ac.id.

17. Lasswell, H. D., & Kaplan, A. (2018). Influence. In Power And Society. https://doi.org/10.4324/9781315127156-6

18. Lusli, M., Zweekhorst, M. B. M., Miranda-Galarza, B., Peters, R. M. H., Cummings, S., Seda, F. S. S. E., … Irwanto. (2015). Dealing with stigma: Experiences of persons affected by disabilities and leprosy. BioMed Research International. https://doi.org/10.1155/2015/261329

19. Meyer, S. M., & Dunn, W. N. (2006). Public Policy Analysis. Journal of Policy Analysis and Management. https://doi.org/10.2307/3324749

20. Notoatmojo, S. (2010). Pengembangan Sumber daya manusia. Jurnal LPPM Bidang EkoSosBudKum.

21. Novianto, A., Kurniawan, L., & Wibawa, S. (2017). Krisis Kapitalisme 2008 dan Bangkitnya Gerakan Kiri Studi Dinamika Gerakan Partai Syriza di Yunani. Jurnal Ilmu Sosial Dan Ilmu Politik. https://doi.org/10.22146/jsp.15678

22. Nugroho, R. (2017). Public Policy: Dinamika Kebijakan, Analisis Kebijakan, dan Manajemen Politik Kebijakan Publik. Jakarta: Elex Media Komputindo. https://doi.org/10.1017/S0033291702006190

23. Pemerintah Republik Indonesia. (2014). Undang-Undang Republik Indonesia Nomor 23 tahun 2014 tentang Pemerintahan Daerah. Kementerian Sekretariat Negara RI. https://doi.org/10.1017/CBO9781107415324.004

24. Profwork.org. (2014). The Public Policy Cycle. Easton Model.

25. Said, A. R., Abdullah, H., Uli, J., & Mohamed, Z. A. (2014). Relationship between Organizational Characteristics and Information Security Knowledge Management Implementation. Procedia - Social and Behavioral Sciences. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.sbspro.2014.01.1442

26. Sedarmayanti. (2011). Manajemen Sumber Daya Manusia Reformasi Birokrasi dan Manajemen Pegawai Negeri Sipil. In Manajemen Sumber Daya Manusia.

27. Sugandi, Y. S. (2017). Sustainable Administrative Reform Movements Policy in Joko Widodo's Administration. Jurnal Ilmu Sosial Dan Ilmu Politik. https://doi.org/10.22146/jsp.24784

28. Van Rensburg, H., Basson, J. S., & Carrim, N. M. H. (2011). Human resource management as a profession in South Africa. SA Journal of Human Resource Management. https://doi.org/10.4102/sajhrm.v9i1.336.

ADULTS IMPACT ON THE RELIABILITY AND SUGGESTIBILITY OF CHILDREN'S EYEWITNESS TESTIMONY

Dr. Sc. Eda ERMAGAN-CAGLAR*

Prof. Dr. Nese KOCABASOGLU**

Correspondent Author: University of Northampton, Faculty of Health and Society Department of Psychology, eda.e.caglar@northampton.ac.uk

**University of Istanbul. Medicine faculty, Department of Psychiatry, nesekocabasoglu@superonline.com*

A b s t r a c t

The aim of the study was to determine the influence of authority on the susceptibility of child witnesses and the reliability of their testimonies. This study, consisting of experimental and control groups, included 20 girls and 20 boys, totalling 40 children. It took place in two phases; an initial phase ("eyewitness", "post-event interview") and, one week later, a final phase ("recall"). In the individual interviews held with the children, a questionnaire consisting of a free narrative question and 18 open-ended questions was used. The free narrative question asked the children to specify the details they remembered about the animated film. The open-ended questions focused on the events and characters in the film. However, 12 of the open-ended questions could be answered correctly since they were about characters and situations in the film that the children had watched, while six of the questions were trick questions that were about characters and situations that were not shown in the film. For data analysis, both quantitative and qualitative methods were used to reach the deeper level of perception and memories that children shared about the film. In conclusion, after analysis, it was found that even when the interview takes place immediately after the event, children are significantly affected by the misinformation given by an adult and their knowledge on the event in question is shaped according to this misinformation. It was observed that children create "a new event" based on the information they receive from an adult.

Introduction

Binet observed in research he carried out with children in 1900 that they preferred to give wrong answers about the facts they did not remember about a specific event in order to satisfy the interviewer, even though the first studies of eyewitness testimony were aimed at adults (Binet, 1900). He also indicated that children are prone to confirm adults' interpretations of events and replace their own memory with incorrect memory and remarked within the framework of these results that children are open to social suggestion (Binet, 1900).

Varendonck is one of the first psychologists to research directivity in children. In a study he conducted with children, he told them a story about the school garden then asked them to describe a person approaching them in the same garden. He concluded that children's memory could easily be manipulated, because seventeen children out of twenty-two who participated in the study indicated that they had met the fictitious person described in the story (Varendonck, 1911). Some children not only remembered they had met this imaginary person, but they also named this imaginary person and described what he looked like.

Lipmann (1911) presented a different opinion in the same year. He indicated in his studies that he believed there were no differences between the memories of a child and an adult. Lipmann stated that children remember events and facts differently because they are more attentive to the small details which adults ignore. However, he also specified that children who perceive adult interviewers as an authority tend to agree with the suggestions in questions on aspects, they were not sure about.

The scientific literature about children's eyewitness testimony, starting with Binet (1900) and supported by the contributions of other researchers, developed slowly until the 1980s. At this time, children took part more frequently in the judicial system both as witnesses and as victims due to the increase in child abuse cases, so studies on child witnesses gained importance. Foley and Johnson (1985) worked with children aged six in their studies on memory and recall. They concluded that children remembered things that did not actually take place when they were asked to describe events (Foley and Johnson, 1985).

Another study conducted on children's memory performance was carried out by Ceci and Bruck (1993). They concluded that children were more easily manipulated than adults, and found it difficult to distinguish reality from imagination. They found that the event memories of children were more influenced by misinformation given after the event (Ceci and Bruck, 1993) than the event memories of adults. They emphasised that children with weak memories were more vulnerable to misinformation from an external source. and more influenced by orientation when it comes to deteriorating memories. They also found that children said what they thought the interviewer would like them to say. Similarly to Ceci and Bruck (1993), Gudjonsson and Sigurdsson (2003) explained the concept of "obeying the authority" and emphasized that children tended to make incorrect statements to "satisfy" the interviewer or to act in an expected manner even though they had remembered what actually happened.

Having called attention to repeated interviews held with child witnesses, Gulotta et al. (1996) observed that children could change their statements to satisfy the interviewer even after the first interview.

In the light of the research cited that focused on the reliability of child witness testimonies, this study aimed to determine the influence of authority on the susceptibility of child witnesses and the reliability of their testimonies.

1. Method
1.1. Participants and Procedure

As the study included individual interviews with children aged 9, permission to interview them was obtained from the Institutional Ethics Committee at Faculty of Cerrahpasa Medicine, Istanbul University. In addition, informed consent was obtained from the children's parents and/or fosters.

This study, consisting of experimental and control groups, included 20 girls and 20 boys, totalling 40 children. It took place in two phases; an initial phase and, one week later, a final phase.

In the initial phase, children were shown a 4-minute animated film called Boundin by Pixar. This animated film had been used with children aged 6 to 10 in a study conducted by Pezdek et al. (2009). Each child was then interviewed individually.

The first stage of the initial phase was the film-watching session or "eyewitness" stage. The second stage, or "post-event interview" stage, was the interviewing of the children and recording of their responses on a questionnaire.

Prior to the individual interviews for the experimental group, an assistant researcher was introduced to the children. During the initial phase, straight after the film-watching session ended, the researcher left the room, telling the child that she would return as soon as possible and the assistant researcher would be with the child in the meantime. The period of time for which the assistant researcher stayed with each child was planned so that the assistant researcher could tell them an incorrect version of what they had seen in the film. This was structured carefully so it was identical for every child and included falsified details of the witnessed events and details which did not actually exist in the film. At the end of this period, the researcher returned to the room and the assistant researcher left the room. The researcher then interviewed the child.

Children in the control group were interviewed by the researcher directly after watching the film. This research design aimed to determine how the misinformation given by an authority figure would affect the child's event memory.

One week after the initial interviews, each child was interviewed again in the final phase or "recall" stage of the study. The animation film was not watched again during the final phase, but the same questions as those in the first phase were asked.

1.2. Measures

In the individual interviews held with the children, a questionnaire consisting of a free narrative question and 18 open-ended questions was used. The questionnaire used was the questionnaire created by Pezdek et al. (2009) translated into Turkish.

The free narrative question asked the children to specify the details they remembered about the animated film. The open-ended questions focused on the events and characters in the film. However, 12 of the open-ended questions could be answered correctly since they were about characters and situations in the film that the children had watched, while six of the questions were trick questions that were impossible to answer correctly as they

were about characters and situations that were not shown in the film..

1.3. Data Analysis

The criteria used to score the free narrative question were the same for the first and second interviews. Accordingly, it was possible to compare the number of right and wrong answers given by each child to the free narrative question during the first and second interviews.

One point was given for every unique piece of information, whether it was correct or incorrect. So, one point was added to the right answer total for each correct statement and one point was added to the wrong answer total for every mistake or invented answer. The answers given were in categories such as event, character, clothing, time and location.

If words with a similar meaning were used more than once, only one point was given for these words. For instance, for an answer such as "he was sad, he was sorry," only one point was given. Only one point was given for identifying each character in the film, no matter how many times they were referred to. The chronological order of events was taken into account for scoring the sense of time. Each statement in which the correct sense of time was indicated received one correct answer point. However, one point was added to the wrong answer total for a mistake in the chronological order.

Additionally, for the experimental group, it was also examined how many similarities there were between their answers and the false information provided by the assistant researcher.

The answer key for the open-ended questions was generated using the film's written transcript. Even though a 3-option scoring scale consisting of the answers "true", "false" and "I don't know" was deemed suitable for evaluating the answers at the beginning of the process, it attracted our attention that the answers received from the children consisted of more than one suggestion and/or description (true or false) as the result of the interviews. It was believed that the true or false answers given with a single suggestion and/or description should not be included in the same scoring with the answers that consisted of more than one detail in the context of the aspects we studied within the context of the study, and including different evaluation in the scope would yield more meaningful results. For this reason, a "detailed answer"

section was created for true and false answers that consisted of more than one suggestion (The rabbit told the lamb, "It doesn't matter what colour you are, what's important is that you're healthy, don't worry, just jump and play") or more than one description (The rabbit was wearing a black hat with white stripes) according to the purpose of the question for the evaluation of open-ended questions. Within this context, for the evaluation of the open-ended questions, a 7-option rating consisting of true and false answers, detailed true and false answers, true and false answers with more than two details, and the answer "I don't know" was used.

A scoring scale consisting of the options "false answer with more than two details", "detailed false answer", "false answer", "I don't know, I don't remember", "correct answer", "detailed correct answer" and "correct answer with more than two details" was prepared for 12 open-ended questions that can be answered in relation to the details given in the film. Evaluations were carried out according to the options "false answer with more than two details", "detailed false answer", "false answer", "I don't know, I don't remember" and "correct answer" for the 6 trick questions that were not related to the film. However, since some questions had only one correct answer (how many snakes were there, how many owls were there, etc.) no details were sought in these questions.

SPSS 17.0 program was used for statistical analysis. Since the obtained data did not show a normal distribution, hypotheses were tested using Mann Whitney U Test, Wilcoxon Test and Marginal Homogeneity Test. Chi-Square Test was used for comparison between the groups. The level of significance in this study was taken as .05. Qualitative data analysis was used to determine the deviation in the interviews of the experimental group, as well.

2. Results
2.1. Evaluation of Free Narrative Question

As the result of the obtained findings, since the p-value for the first comparison of the control group was <0.01 a significant difference was found between the numbers of correct answers of the first and last interviews (Table 1).

Table 1. Comparison of the True and False Answers in the First and Last Interviews of the Control Group

			AO	N	SD	Z	P[1]
Control Group	Comparison of the First Interview	Correct Answer Point_1	7.2000	20	2.56700		
		Correct Answer Point_2	6.1500	20	2.25424	-3.535	.000**
	Comparison of the Last Interview	Incorrect Answer Point_1	1.4000	20	.99472	-1.732	.083
		Incorrect Answer Point_2	1.7000	20	.73270		

1:Wilcoxon Sign test p-value **p<0.01 *p<0.05 AO: arithmetic average SD: standard deviation

The average number of correct answers in the first interview (7.2) is higher than the average number of correct answers in the second interview (6.1). However, the incorrect answer average of the first interview in the control group was found to be 1.4 and the incorrect answer average of the second interview was found to be 1.7.

Since the p-value for the first comparison of the experimental group was <0.01 a significant difference was found between the numbers of correct answers of the first and second interviews (Table 2).

Table 2. Comparison of the True and False Answers in the First and Last Interviews of the Experimental Group

			AO	N	SD	Z	P[1]
Experimental Group	Comparison of the First Interview	Correct Answer Point_1	6.2500	20	2.51050	-3.367	.000**
		Correct Answer Point_2	4.3500	20	1.22582		
	Comparison of the Last Interview	Incorrect Answer Point_1	2.0000	20	.91766	-2.000	.046*
		Incorrect Answer Point_2	2.5500	20	1.14593		

1:Wilcoxon Sign test p value **p<0.01 *p<0.05 AO: arithmetic average SD: standard deviation

The average number of correct answers in the first interview (6.25) was found to be higher than the average number of correct answers in the second interview (4.35). In addition to this, since the p-value for the second comparison was p<0.01, a significant difference was found between the numbers of incorrect answers of the first and second interviews, unlike the comparisons of the other groups. The average number of incorrect answers in the first interview (2.0) was found to be lower than the average number of incorrect answers in the second interview (2.55).

3. Evaluation of Open-Ended Questions

3.1. Evaluation of open-ended questions that can be answered

As indicated in Table 3, it was seen that the number of the "I don't know" answers given to the first interview decreased in the second interview and the number of incorrect answers increased.

Table 3. Detailed Comparison of the First and Second Interview Results for the Control Group

Questions	Answers	1st interview		2nd interview		Test
		n	%	N	%	P[1]
[1. How many fish were swimming at the beginning of the film?]	incorrect answer	4	20.0%	7	35.0%	
	I don't know, I don't remember	3	15.0%	0	0.0%	.083
	correct answer	13	65.0%	13	65.0%	
[2. Where do the animals in the film live?]	incorrect answer	5	25.0%	7	35.0%	.157
	correct answer	15	75.0%	13	65.0%	
[4. How many teeth are visible in the lamb's mouth?]	incorrect answer	4	20.0%	6	30.0%	.157
	correct answer	16	80.0%	14	70.0%	
[5. How many snakes are there in the film?]	incorrect answer	4	20.0%	5	25.0%	.317

Questions	Answers	n	%	n	%	P[1]
	correct answer	16	80.0%	15	75.0%	
[6. What does the lamb like to do?]	incorrect answer	3	15.0%	5	25.0%	.157
	correct answer	17	85.0%	15	75.0%	
[8. What is it that makes the lamb sad?]	incorrect answer	3	15.0%	3	15.0%	.89
	correct answer	17	85.0%	17	85.0%	
[10. How did the other animals treat the lamb when the lamb was feeling sad?]	incorrect answer	2	10.0%	3	15.0%	.317
	correct answer	18	90.0%	17	85.0%	
[11. What colour was the lamb's skin?]	incorrect answer	9	45.0%	11	55.0%	
	I don't know, I don't remember	2	10.0%	1	5.0%	.180
	correct answer	9	45.0%	8	40.0%	
[12. What colour were the lamb's eyes?]	incorrect answer	7	35.0%	9	45.0%	
	I don't know, I don't remember	4	20.0%	2	10.0%	.157
	correct answer	9	45.0%	9	45.0%	
[13. What did the rabbit say to the lamb to make the lamb happy?]	incorrect answer	3	15.0%	5	25.0%	
	correct answer	13	65.0%	12	60.0%	.096
	2 detailed correct answers	4	20.0%	3	15.0%	
[15. How many owls were there in the film?]	incorrect answer	5	25.0%	7	35.0%	.165
	correct answer	15	75.0%	13	65.0%	
[17. How often will they cut the lamb's wool?]	incorrect answer	8	40.0%	9	45.0%	
	correct answer	9	45.0%	10	50.0%	.102
	2 detailed correct answers	3	15.0%	1	5.0%	

1: Marginal homogeneity test p-value p>0.05

Table 4. Detailed Comparison of the First and Second Interview Results for the Experimental Group

Questions	Answers	1st interview		2nd interview		Test
		n	%	n	%	P[1]
[1. How many fish were swimming at the beginning of the film?]	incorrect answer	12	60.0%	14	70.0%	.157
	correct answer	8	40.0%	6	30.0%	
[2. Where do the animals in the film live?]	correct answer	20	100.0%	16	80.0%	
	2 detailed correct answers	0	15.0%	3	15.0%	.890
	more than 2 detailed correct answers	0	5.0%	1	5.0%	
[4. How many teeth are visible in the lamb's mouth?]	incorrect answer	6	30.0%	6	30.0%	.900
	correct answer	14	70.0%	14	70.0%	
[5. How many snakes are there in the film?]	incorrect answer	3	15.0%	4	20.0%	.317
	correct answer	17	85.0%	16	80.0%	
[6. What does the lamb like to do?]	2 detailed incorrect answers	0	0.0%	2	10.0%	.033*
	incorrect answer	5	25.0%	7	35.0%	

	correct answer	15	75.0%	11	55.0%	
[8. What is it that makes the lamb sad?]	incorrect answer	2	10.0%	3	15.0%	
	correct answer	13	65.0%	17	85.0%	.127
	2 detailed correct answers	5	25.0%	0	0.0%	
[10. How did the other animals treat the lamb when the lamb was feeling sad?]	incorrect answer	1	5.0%	3	15.0%	
	correct answer	12	60.0%	17	85.0%	.022*
	2 detailed correct answers	7	35.0%	0	0.0%	
[11. What colour was the lamb's skin?]	incorrect answer	15	75.0%	15	75.0%	.890
	correct answer	5	25.0%	5	25.0%	
[12. What colour were the lamb's eyes?]	incorrect answer	10	50.0%	11	55.0%	.317
	correct answer	10	50.0%	9	45.0%	
[13. What did the rabbit say to the lamb to make the lamb happy?]	2 detailed incorrect answers	1	5.0%	2	10.0%	
	incorrect answer	4	20.0%	11	55.0%	
	correct answer	12	60.0%	7	35.0%	.001**
	2 detailed correct answers	2	10.0%	0	0.0%	
	more than 2 detailed correct answers	1	5.0%	0	0.0%	
[15. How many owls were there in the film?]	incorrect answer	4	20.0%	7	35.0%	.180
	correct answer	16	80.0%	13	65.0%	
[17. How often will they cut the lamb's wool?]	2 detailed incorrect answers	5	25.0%	3	15.0%	
	incorrect answer	4	20.0%	10	50.0%	
	correct answer	7	35.0%	7	35.0%	.140
	2 detailed correct answers	4	20.0%	0	0.0%	

1: Marginal homogeneity test p-value p<0.05

As the test probability value in all questions except for the question 6, question 10 and question 13 was p>0.05 no significant difference was found between the first and second interviews on a question-based assessment (Table 4).

There was a significant difference between the first and second interviews since the test value in question 6 was p <0.05. For the relevant question item, the incorrect answer rate reached 35% in the second interview while it was 25% in the first interview, and the number of correct answers reached 55% in the second interview while it was 75% in the first interview. In addition, this number was found to be increasing in the second interview although there were no children who answered this question with a detailed incorrect answer in the first interview.

On the other hand, it seems that there was a significant difference between the first and second interviews since the test value for question 10 was p <0.05 (Table 4). The correct answer rate reached 85% in the second interview while it was 60% in the first interview. It also attracted our attention that the rate of giving two detailed correct answers in the first interview was 35% while this rate was 0% in the second interview.

There was a significant difference between the first and second interviews since the test value in question 13 was p <0.05. The incorrect answer rate for this question item reached 55% in the second interview while it was 20% in the first interview. The number of correct answers was 20% in the first interview and reached 55% in the second interview.

3.2. Evaluation of open-ended trick questions

As the test probability value in the trick questions except for the questions 7, 16 and 18 was p>0.05 no significant difference was found between the first and second interviews on a question-based assessment (Table 5).

Table 5. Detailed Comparison of the First and Second Interview Results for the Trick Questions of the Control Group

Questions	Answers	1st interview		2nd interview		Test
		n	%	n	%	P[1]
[3. What is the colour of the boat in the river?]	2 detailed incorrect answers	1	5.0%	5	25.0%	
	incorrect answer	7	35.0%	7	35.0%	.106
	I don't know, I don't remember	6	30.0%	3	15.0%	
	correct answer	6	30.0%	5	25.0%	
[7. How were the frogs dressed?]	more than 2 detailed incorrect answers	3	15.0%	5	25.0%	
	2 detailed incorrect answers	5	25.0%	7	35.0%	.020*
	incorrect answer	7	35.0%	6	30.0%	
	I don't know, I don't remember	5	25.0%	2	10.0%	
[9. What colour were the clothes of the man in the car?]	more than 2 detailed incorrect answers	2	10.0%	1	5.0%	
	2 detailed incorrect answers	3	15.0%	7	35.0%	
	incorrect answer	8	40.0%	5	25.0%	.467
	I don't know, I don't remember	5	25.0%	6	30.0%	
	correct answer	2	10.0%	1	5.0%	
[14. What did the rabbit say to the squirrel and the moles?]	2 detailed incorrect answers	3	15.0%	7	35.0%	
	incorrect answer	10	50.0%	8	40.0%	.225
	I don't know, I don't remember	5	25.0%	2	10.0%	
	correct answer	2	10.0%	3	15.0%	
[16. What colour were the flowers of the plant behind the lamb?]	2 detailed incorrect answers	2	10.0%	1	5.0%	
	incorrect answer	7	35.0%	8	40.0%	.035*
	I don't know, I don't remember	5	25.0%	3	15.0%	
	correct answer	6	30.0%	5	25.0%	
[18. Can you describe the hat that the rabbit was wearing?]	more than 2 detailed incorrect answers	-	-	5	25.0%	
	2 detailed incorrect answers	5	25.0%	5	25.0%	
	incorrect answer	7	35.0%	4	20.0%	.001**
	I don't know, I don't remember	5	25.0%	3	15.0%	
	correct answer	3	15.0%	3	15.0%	

1: Marginal homogeneity test p-value p<0.05

Even though there are no significant differences, when we look at the answer distributions of two interviews on a question basis, it is noteworthy that the "I don't know, I don't remember" answers decreased in the second interviews compared to the first interviews, and the numbers of the incorrect answers decreased and were added to the numbers of the detailed incorrect answers.

As the test probability value in the trick questions except for the questions 3 and 16 was p>0.05 in the experimental group, no significant difference was found between the first and second interviews on a question-based assessment (Table 6).

Table 6. Detailed Comparison of the First and Second Interview Results for the Trick Questions of the Experimental Group

Questions	Answers	1st interview		2nd interview		Test
		n	**%**	**N**	**%**	**P[1]**
[3. What is the colour of the boat in the river?]	2 detailed incorrect answers	0	0.0%	8	40.0%	
	incorrect answer	19	95.0%	12	60.0%	.004**
	correct answer	1	5.0%	0	0.0%	
[7. How were the frogs dressed?]	more than 2 detailed incorrect answers	2	10.0%	5	25.0%	
	2 detailed incorrect answers	17	85.0%	15	75.0%	.157
	incorrect answer	1	5.0%	0	0.0%	
[9. What colour were the clothes of the man in the car?]	more than 2 detailed incorrect answers	12	60.0%	15	75.0%	
	2 detailed incorrect answers	8	40.0%	4	20.0%	.617
	incorrect answer	0	0.0%	1	5.0%	
[14. What did the rabbit say to the squirrel and the moles?]	2 detailed incorrect answers	12	60.0%	5	25.0%	
	incorrect answer	7	35.0%	15	75.0%	.197
	correct answer	1	5.0%	0	0.0%	
[16. What colour were the flowers of the plant behind the lamb?]	more than 2 detailed incorrect answers	5	25.0%	11	55.0%	
	2 detailed incorrect answers	10	50.0%	9	45.0%	.008**
	incorrect answer	5	25.0%	0	0.0%	
[18. Can you describe the hat that the rabbit was wearing?]	more than 2 detailed incorrect answers	4	20.0%	7	35.0%	
	2 detailed incorrect answers	12	60.0%	9	45.0%	.366
	incorrect answer	4	20.0%	4	20.0%	

1: Marginal homogeneity test p value $p < 0.05$

As the probability value in questions 3 and 16 was $p < 0.05$ it was determined that the answers given by the subjects to these questions in the first and second interviews were different from each other. It was seen that 1 child (5%) gave the correct answer and 19 children (95%) gave the incorrect answer to question 3 in the first interview, and these numbers turned into 0 correct answers, 12 incorrect answers (60%) and 8 two detailed incorrect answers (40%) in the second interview. In question 16, there were 5 incorrect answers (25%), 10 two detailed incorrect answers (50%) and 5 more than two detailed incorrect answers (25%) in the first interview, while these numbers were found to be 0 incorrect answers, 9 two detailed incorrect answers (45%) and 11 more than two detailed incorrect answers (55%) in the second interview.

Another result that is important for this group according to the numerical data within the scope of the study is that the answers given by children show similarity with the manipulative information given by the assistant researcher.

It was found according to the numbers obtained via qualitative data analysis that 12 children (60%) in the group indicated that they saw "a blue car" in the first and second interviews in the context of the free narrative question.

All children agreed that there was a "frog" in the film, and 11 out of 20 children (55%) said the frog was wearing striped pants or a sweater.

The gender of the person who comes to take the lamb in the film is not clear, only an arm extending out of a car is visible. However, in line with the misinformation given by the assistant researcher, all children said they saw "a man" (5 children (25%) even stated they saw more than one man) and once again in parallel with the manipulative information given to them, 5 children (25%) indicated that "the man was wearing a white sweater (or shirt), green pants and a red hat". It was noted that 4 children (20%) used two of these three details, 4 children (20%) used one of the three details, and these 8 children gave answers similar to the manipulative information using different colours.

When the answers similar to the misinformation about the rabbit were examined, it was seen that only 2 children (10%) said that the rabbit was "black". However, it was noted that there were 18 children (90%) indicating that the rabbit "was wearing a hat" and 11 children (55%) indicating that the hat was "a red hat with a feather".

4. Discussion

The reliability of the statements of child witnesses, which is still studied today with regard to various factors, has been chosen as the main theme of the study, and this study tries to explain how the event memories of child witnesses are affected by the information given by adults.

When we examine the findings we have obtained from this study, we see that the number of the correct answers received in the first interview for the free narrative questions in both groups decreased in the second interview, and the number of incorrect answers received in the first interview increased in the second interview. When we look at the results of the open-ended questions, we see a similar result. It was observed that the number of correct answers given in the first interviews decreased in the second interviews, and the number of incorrect answers increased similarly. In addition, it was seen that the detailing rates of incorrect answers given in the second interviews increased, while the number of "I don't know, I don't remember" answers given to the trick questions in the first interviews decreased.

As a result of the aforementioned findings, firstly, we conclude that statements change as the amount of time passing after the event took place increases. Other studies discussing the negative effects of time on memory and therefore on the statements of witnesses (Loftus, 1975; Ackil & Zaragoza, 1998; Bruck, Ceci & Hembrooke, 1998; Zaragoza et al., 2001; Gudjonsson & Sigurdsson, 2003; Zaragoza, Rich et.al. 2016) also support our result. For this reason, it is concluded that it is important to perform the judicial interrogations in the shortest time period after the event takes place regarding the reliability of a child's statement.

In addition, the detailing rates of the incorrect answers given in the second interviews led to the result that passing time causes the memory to drift away from the actual event and in time children may create a new reality regarding the event they witnessed. This emerges as an important detail within the scope of the findings of this study. However, since the answers given by children for trick questions are not approached within the scope of detailing criterion in other studies conducted on this subject (Ackil & Zaragoza, 1998; Zaragoza et al., 2001; Stolzenberg & Pezdek, 2013; Otgaar, Howe, Memon and Wang, 2014; Wilford, Chan, &

Tuhn, 2014; Baumgartner, Strandberg & Eslick, 2015), they do not include results on how much the memory drifts away from reality and therefore the obtained results cannot be scientifically compared.

Another dynamic that is observed to negatively affect the reliability of the child witness testimony according to individual interviews is that the child witness has difficulty in resisting the interviewer (adult). The results obtained in this context can respond to the actual starting point of this study.

First, even though it was stated before the interviews that the children could give the answers "I don't know, I don't remember" for questions they are not able to answer, very few such responses were received in the control group. However, it was seen in the distribution tables that children in the experimental group avoided giving the answers "I don't know, I don't remember" when a second adult was included in the process. At this point, the children were observed to be hesitant to state that they do not know or do not remember what happened in front of the interviewer, and they answered all questions including the trick ones to satisfy the interviewer and look good in front of the authority figure. The studies in the scientific literature (Sporer, 1982; Yates, 1987; Ceci, Ross & Toglia, 1987; Gulotta et al., 1996; Zaragoza et al., 2001; Schwarz & Roebers, 2006; Gombos, Pezdek & Haymond, 2012; Stolzenberg & Pezdek, 2013; Otgaar, Howe, Memon and Wang, 2014) support this result we obtained. When we discuss the contents of interviews held with the children in the experimental group, it is seen that children were significantly affected by the manipulative information given by the assistant researcher and the answers they gave to the questions were in accordance with the misinformation obtained from the adult.

When we compared the contents of the answers received from the children and the story flow which were prepared for the interview to be held with the group in question and included incorrect information, it was seen that 12 children stated they saw "a blue car" in the answers they gave to the free narrative question in the first and second interviews. However, it was observed that all children agreed they saw a "frog" and 11 children stated that the frog was wearing striped pants or a sweater even though there were no frogs in the film they watched. Even though in the film they watched, there is only a car that comes to take the lamb and only an arm extending out of the car is visible, children expressed that they saw a "man" in line with the misinformation they received from the assistant researcher. Additionally, in parallel with the manipulative information, it was seen that 5 children stated that "the man was wearing a white sweater (or a shirt), green pants and a red hat", 4 children used two of these three

details and 4 children used one of these three details. Lastly, in parallel with the information provided by the assistant researcher, it was seen that only 2 children indicated that the rabbit was "black", 18 children stated that the rabbit was "wearing a hat," and 11 children indicated that the hat was "a red hat with a feather." However, the rabbit in the film is brown and is not wearing any clothes or hats.

As the result of this contextual comparison, it is concluded that even when the interview takes place immediately after the event, children are significantly affected by the misinformation given by an adult and their knowledge on the event in question is shaped according to this misinformation. It is observed that children create "a new event" based on the information they receive from an adult. From another point of view, these results are parallel to the results obtained by Schwarz and Roebers (2006) which state that children are influenced by social pressure when they testify about a certain event.

5. Conclusion

As a result of the study, it was seen that the use of guiding questions in judicial interviews held with child witnesses and the repeated interviews negatively affected the reliability of the statement given by the child. Therefore, it is recommended to pay attention to these aspects in interviews held with children to provide the information that is the most factual possible to be used in the judicial mechanism and to use free narrative questions that allow the child to express every detail they saw instead of guiding and yes-no questions. However, even a week-long time interval can cause children's memory to lose the details of an event that took place. This shows us that the first judicial action to be taken with the child must be taken immediately after the event or as soon as possible. From another point of view, evaluations should be conducted considering that the child may be mistaken as more time passes after the event takes place.

Lastly, even when it takes place immediately after the witnessed event, it is seen that adult guiding has a strong influence on the change of the child's reality about the event. Even though we cannot always control the adult information which we stated to have the power to change the reality of the judicial process, awareness can be created among judicial workers. Most essentially, judicial workers who will be in contact with the child in the judicial process may avoid giving details about the event during the interview held with the child, and may remain neutral in relation to the details given by the child.

References

1. Ackil, J.K. and Zaragoza, M.S. (1998). "Memorial consequences of forced confabulation: Age differences in susceptibility to false memories." Developmental Psychology, Vol. 34, No.6, pg. 1358-1372. doi:10.1037/0012-1649.34.6.1358

2. Baumgartner, T.R., Strandberg, H.C. and Eslick, A.N. (2015). "Effects of self-confabulated misinformation on eyewitness memory" Infront Outback – Conference Proceedings, CSBS Student Research Conference, 23.

3. Binet, A. (1900). "La suggestibilité." Paris: Schleicher.

4. Bruck, M., Ceci, S.J. and Hembrooke, H. (1998). "Reliability and credibility of young children's reports: From research to policy and practice." American Psychologist, Vol. 53, pg. 136-151.

5. Ceci, S.J. and Bruck, M. (1993). "The suggestibility of the child witness: A historical review and synthesis." Psychological Bulletin, Vol. 113, pg. 403-439.

6. Ceci, S.J., Ross, D.F. and Toglia, M.P. (1987). "Age differences in suggestibility: Narrowing the uncertainties." Ceci, J., Toglia, M. P. & Ross, D. F. (Eds.). Children's Eyewitness Memory. New York: Springer-Verlag.

7. Foley, M.A. and Johnson, M.K. (1985). "Confusions between memories for performed and imagined actions: A developmental comparison." Child Development, Vol. 56, pg. 1145-1155.

8. Gombos, V., Pezdek, K. and Haymond, K. (2012). "Forced confabulation affects memory sensitivity as well as response bias." Memory & Cognition, Vol. 40, pg. 127-134. doi:10.3758/s13421-011-0129-5

9. Gudjonsson, G.H. and Sigurdsson, J.F. (2003). "The relationship of compliance with coping strategies and self-esteem." European Journal of Psy. Assessment, Vol. 19, pg. 117-123. doi:10.1027//1015-5759.19.2.117

10. Gulotta, G., De Cataldo, L., Pino, S. and Magri, P. (1996). "Il bambino come prova negli abusi sessuali." In C. Cabras, Psicologia della prova. Giuffrè, Milano. 157-214.

11. Lipmann, O. (1911). "Pedagogical psychology of report." Journal of Educational Psychology, Vol. 2, No. 5, pg. 253-261.

12. Loftus, E.F. (1975). "Leading questions and the eyewitness report." Cognitive Psychology, Vol. 7, pg. 550-572.

13. Otgaar, H., Howe, M., Memon, A. and Wang, J. (2014). "The development of differential mnemonic effects of false denials and forced confabulations." Behavioral Sciences and Law, Vol. 32, No.6, pg. 718-731.

14.   Pezdek, K., Lam, S.T. and Sperry, K. (2009). "Forced confabulation more strongly influences event memory if suggestions are other-generated than self-generated." Legal and Criminological Psychology, Vol. 14, pg. 241-252. doi: 10.1348/135532508X344773

15.   Schwarz, S. and Roebers, C.M. (2006). "Age differences in the effects of social influence on children's eyewitness performance and their metacognitive monitoring." Journal of Experimental Child Psychology, Vol. 94, pg. 229-248. doi:10.1016/j.jecp.2006.01.003

16.   Sporer, S.L. (1982). "A brief history of the psychology of testimony." Current Psychological Reviews, Vol. 2, pg. 323-339.

17.   Stolzenberg, S. and Pezdek, K. (2013). "Interviewing child witnesses: The effect of forced confabulation on event memory." Journal of Experimental Child Psychology, Vol. 114, No. 1, pg. 77-88. doi: 10.1016/j.jecp.2012.09.006

18.   Varendonck, J. (1911). "Les temoignages d'enfants dans un proces retentissant." Archives de Psycholgie, Vol. ll, pg. 129-171.

19.   Wilford, M.M., Chan, J.C.K. and Tuhn, S.J. (2014). "Retrieval enhances eyewitness suggestibility to misinformation in free and cued recall." Journal of Experimental Psychology: Applied, Vol. 20, pg. 81– 93. doi:10.1037/xap0000001

20.   Yates, A. (1987). "Should young children testify in cases of sexual abuse?" American Journal of Psychiatry, Vol. 144, pg. 476-480.

21.   Zaragoza, M.S., Payment, K.E., Ackil, J.K., Drivdahl, S.B. and Beck, M. (2001). "Interviewing witnesses: Forced confabulation and confirmatory feedback increase false memories." Psychological Science, Vol. 12, No. 6, pg. 473-477. doi: 10.1111/1467-9280.00388

22.   Zaragoza, M.S., Rich, P., Rindal, E. and DeFranco, R. (2016). "Forced fabrication and false eyewitness memories." In. False and Distorted Memories (Eds. Robert A. Nash, James Ost). London: Psychology Press.

PSYCHOLOGICAL FACTORS INFLUENCING ADJUSTMENT TO RETIREMENT

Prof. Ass. Dr. Agron HOXHA

Heimerer College, agron.hoxha@kolegji-heimerer.eu

A b s t r a c t

The quality of aging or life after retirement is determined by levels of psychological well-being and life satisfaction. The levels of psychological well-being and quality of life satisfaction can be influenced by multiple factors including personality, perception of individuals about aging and the quality of respect they get from others. This study was conducted with 170 elderly individuals ranging from 65 to 85 years of age. The results showed significant relationships between dependent variables such as psychological well-being and life satisfaction, and the independent factors including personality, perception of aging and respect from others.

Introduction

Today's generations of the world population are becoming older than former generations and projections show that by 2050 older adults (aged 60 or over) will represent about 20% of the population (Harper, 2014). This demographic phenomenon will pose demanding socio-economic and health challenges to the societies. In order to deal with it, it is of crucial importance to study and understand the needs of older adults and to evaluate what affects their quality of life. Aging is a universal phenomenon but not necessarily in a uniform pattern. Adjustment to retirement represents a developmental phenomenon that must be reconstructed within the context of life-long development.

Generally, older people in are often characterized as being less satisfied and low in psychological well-being. However, no study has been conducted to find out what are the factors that influence their levels of psychological well-being and life satisfaction. Some elderly people think that retirement transition is easy and requires a little planning. However, for some other elderly people retirement is a major life change that, despite the freedom and excitement it offers, also requires personal adjustment to a new life stage (Osborne, 2012; Barrow, 1996). Therefore, the main purpose of this study is to investigate the factors and reasons why people have different views about later life or adjustment to retirement. The proposed factors that could lead elderly people to

have different adjustments to retirement were personality, health, social resources, religiosity and socioeconomic status.

People who reported to have higher psychological well-being and good life satisfaction were considered to have good adjustment to retirement (Van Solinge, 2006). Adjustment to retirement refers to the process of getting used to retirement as a new stage of life (Van Solinge, 2006). In the present study, adjustment to retirement refers to life after retirement, which is termed as later life or older age. It is often said that people get sick and die shortly after retirement but, studies do not support this thought (Barrow, 1996).

Retirement alone does not lead to low psychological well-being and low life satisfaction; there are other factors that influence elderly people's adjustment to retirement. Some people adjust well to retirement whereas others have problems adjusting to retirement. One man reported this:

'I turn 80 next February. It's always a milepost, I suppose, but no big deal. I retired about 75 percent at age 65 and then fully retired at age 70. It was easy, very easy, for me to retire. I like the freedom to do what I want, go where I want. I never understood these people who are restless and unhappy in retirement. It seems to me that they have not got much imagination'. (Barrow, 1996: 162).

People like this man have no problems with adjustment to retirement. However, others do have problems with adjustment to retirement. As mentioned above, there are other factors that influence elderly people having problems with adjustment to retirement. In the below section, the researcher will elaborate on the psychological factors that have significant influence on adjustment to retirement including life satisfaction and psychological well-being..

1. Psychological Factors Influencing Adjustment To Retirement

This part intends to present studies related to psychological well-being and life satisfaction. Theories of aging and retirement will also be discussed to show how aging and retirement are associated with psychological well-being and life satisfaction. Finally, the conceptual framework of the present study will be presented.

1.1. Psychological Well-being

Psychological well-being is a complex term that confuses people about the meaning of the term psychological well-being. Because, generally speaking well-being means feeling physically and mentally healthy and having a good life (Kibret and Tareke, 2017). Well-being of elderly people depends on how positive or negative people's experience is perceived, including feelings of happiness, sadness, anxiety, or excitement (Tinkler & Hicks, 2011). Many studies have focused on psychological well-being in correlation to older age. Psychological well-being is a variable that has different meaning for different social scientists. However, one definition that would be acceptable for most scientists would be what researchers often term subjective well-being. Subjective refers to personal evaluation based on how the person feels about him/herself. Therefore, combining the definition of subjective and well-being would refer to a person who feels physically and mentally healthy about him/herself and not what others would diagnose them. In addition, we can say that subjective well-being and psychological well-being mean the same for most of the time (Barrow, 1996).

Although psychological well-being is important for all age group, it is particularly more relevant to older people for several reasons. It was estimated that in 20 years' time, nearly a quarter of the population in the UK will be aged 65 and over (Medical Research Council, 2010). As life expectancy increases, the issue of maintaining psychological well-being and morale at older ages is becoming more important. Since maintaining is becoming more critical and more important every, it is more effective to divert people's attention to take preventive measures rather than maintaining psychological well-being at older age. It is more

important to find out what influences quality of psychological or subjective well-being.

What influences psychological well-being is another issue; for the last 60 years scientists have attempted to find out what decreases psychological well-being in later life. One of the findings by Cagney and Lauderdale (2002) suggested that elderly people with higher levels of education, income and wealth reported higher psychological well-being as compared to elderly individuals with lower levels of education, income and wealth. In addition, psychological well-being was found to be associated with spiritual beliefs and health. It was reported that people who were weak in health (mental and physical health) showed lower levels of psychological well-being. Furthermore, elderly people who were involved in religious activities reported having higher levels of psychological well-being compared to people who were not involved in religious activities (Edison, Boardman, William and Jackson, 2001; Kirby, Coleman and Daley, 2004). There are certain factors like religiosity, social activities and exercises which elderly people could improve in later life, but, there are some other factors that should be considered before feeling old enough. For example, education, knowledge to share, health and many other factors that everyone should consider in advance. There are studies that found psychological well-being lower at older age as compared to younger generation, but these studies were contradicted by other studies (Zaninotto, Falaschetti, and Sacker (2009). It is not the age itself that leads people to lower quality of psychological well-being; there are other factors that influence the quality of well-being. Therefore, it was found that once controlling factors like health, socioeconomic status, and psychological factors, there are no overall cohort differences in quality of life between older adults and younger adults. It is not appropriate to say that as people get older; their quality of life gets lower. Factors that had a negative impact on quality of life over time were depression, functional limitations, poor wealth, not being in paid employment, not perceiving positive support from one's spouse, children and friends, and having a small social network of close friends and family. These factors can have impact on younger generations as well, only those younger generations have more time to make up and improve the quality of those factors. Therefore, the researcher is suggesting that in order to people to have better quality of aging, they must be aware of the factors that have stronger impact on the quality of psychological well-being than the aging itself.

1.2. Life Satisfaction

Life satisfaction is one of the strongest criteria for describing the ageing process. Higher levels of life satisfaction in later life predicts higher quality of aging process. In addition, previous researchers have made no difference between life satisfaction and

quality of life (George and Bearon,1980). Happy elders reported to have higher levels of life satisfaction and quality of life. Life satisfaction can be defined as a sense of satisfaction or pleasure about one's present and past life. One view of successful aging accepted by social gerontologists is the life satisfaction approach which maintains that people have aged successfully is they feel happy and satisfied with their present and past endeavors. According to Eid and Diener (2004) the focus of subjective well-being has been to try to explain how people experience their lives, their cognitive assessment, emotional reaction and adjustment to later life. In most cases, life satisfaction is considered to be a cognitive feature of subjective well-being, implying a judgmental process where elderly people perceive their present life situation in comparison to their desired life satisfaction (Krause, 2004).

These findings suggest that it is the cognitive perception of elderly individuals about their later life, it is the expectations they have at the later stage of their life. The challenge for elderly people seams to lie on their life expectations and desired outcomes; therefore, it is suggested that people in general need to be more realistic and understanding about what they expect and desire. Furthermore, in order for people to have a better life satisfaction in later life, they need to prepare themselves in advance. For example, one of the main factors that determines the level of life satisfaction is type of personality. Retirees who reported high in extraversion as compared to introversion, reported higher life satisfaction and were more active during retirement (Osborne, 2012). Extraverts tend to be more outgoing than introverts and thereby tend to make friendships more easily. Although retirees may score higher on introversion, having control over when and how one retired facilitates well-being (Lockenhoff, Terracciano, & Costa, 2009).

1.3. Personality and Perception of Aging

Personality has been noted to be playing an important role across all stages of life. Similarly adaptation in old age is also influenced by biological and social changes. Biological changes may interfere with the brain's functioning. Social changes can lead to isolation or feelings of worthlessness. Hence personality is undeniably very important aspect of in successful ageing. People who feel and perceive themselves with higher self-esteem and are more optimistic are more likely to integrate in social activities and hence experience better psychological well-being (Herero and Extremera, 2010).

There are five types of personality traits that have direct influence on how individuals perceive aging. These five personality traits are openness, conscientiousness, extraversion, agreeableness and neuroticism Johnson and Spinath (2013).

Openness refers to people who are open and motivated to learn new things and enjoy new experiences. People who score high in openness are associated with traits like being insightful and imaginative and having a wide variety of interests.

Conscientiousness on the other hand explains people with higher levels of reliability. People who score high in conscientiousness are reported to be more organized and detailed than people with lower levels of conscientiousness.

Extraversion refers to outgoing people, people that get their energy from interacting with others, while introverts get their energy from within themselves. These people tend to be more energetic, talkative, and assertive as compared to people who score higher in introversion.

Agreeableness explains individuals that tend to be friendly, cooperative, and compassionate. People who score low in levels of agreeableness may be more distant and isolated. People who score high in agreeableness tend to be kinder, affectionate, and more sympathetic than individuals with lower levels of agreeableness are.

Neuroticism refers to degree of negative emotion of individuals. Sometimes, neuroticism is also known as emotional stability. Individuals that score high on neuroticism often experience emotional instability and negative emotions such as being moody and tense.

It is reported that people in general have their own traits of personality and that they cannot change. This study does not intend or suggest for people to change, but awareness about what personality trait is expected to show on certain situations and with certain people is very important. Each individual must be aware of their own personalities and understand the impact that each personality trait can have in relation to quality of life. Therefore, it is very important that individuals understand and acknowledge different styles of personalities' people may have, hence, be aware of what is expected of yourself despite of your actual personality type. For example, you may not be an outgoing person (extrovert), but on certain occasions and with certain people you should go out, even though you happen to be more introvert (not an outgoing person). Because, it is well experimented that people who are more extroverts experience more successful aging than introverted individuals do (Osborne, 2012).

Previous studies indicated that low scores on neuroticism and high scores on extraversion, openness to experience, agreeableness, and conscientiousness are significantly helpful for successful aging. Higher levels of emotional stability,

agreeableness, and conscientiousness were positively related to higher levels of cognition, higher likelihood of engaging in volunteer work, higher levels of activities of daily living, and higher levels of subjective health. Extraversion and openness to experience were also positively associated with cognition and engaging in volunteer work (Baek, Martin, Siegler, Davey and Poon, 2016).

Some people can be lonely because they lack companionship and not because of their age, and still they may attribute it to the aging process which is actually not true. Sometimes personality affects the perception of aging; some individuals perceive aging as natural, even if they face stressful events. Isaacowitz and Smith (2003) studied 516 participants aged 70 and older in Berlin. This study's main purpose was to find out what predicts positive affect in old age such as happiness, joy and satisfaction in later life on the one hand and negative affect such as distress, fear and anger on the other hand. Personality was found to be a strong predictor of the aging experience; it was even stronger predictor of aging experience than was health (Isaacowitz and Smith, 2003). Individuals who scored high in extraversion were reported to have more positive experiences of aging, whereas individuals who scored high in neuroticism were reported to have more negative experience of aging. Thus, it was concluded that extraversion predicted positive affect and neuroticism predicted negative affect in later life (Isaacowitz and Smith, 2003). Extrovert adults were reported to be less lonely in later life. They were reported to have larger social networks than adults who were not extrovert. Extroverts were warmer and more sociable. Their social network could provide them emotional support even after the death of a spouse or if lacking family interaction (Lang and Martin, 2000).

Older people who had high self-esteem reported having good control and the ability to maintain their health. It was concluded that individuals who evaluated themselves as high in self-esteem were less likely to suffer from chronic illnesses (Bailis and Chipperfield, 2002).

Featherstone and Hepworth (1991) suggested two types of aging images which are distinguishable among elders. The first one is called 'heroes of aging' which refers to elders who have a positive attitude towards aging. They usually take care of themselves and do not act like being old but on the contrary try to be young all the time in their daily actions, bodily posture and general behavior. These people are regarded as optimists in other studies; they perceive aging and stressful events as challenging and not as threats to their life. People like 'heroes of aging' and optimists are more likely to show improvement in psychological well-being and have better physical health. The second image of aging is that some elders experience severe bodily decline through disabling illness to the extent that the outer body is seen as misrepresenting and imprisoning the inner self. This type of image is called 'mask of aging' and shows the more disagreeable aspects of the aging process and a negative attitude towards aging. They perceive aging and the problems that come with aging as threats to their life. These people are more likely to decline in their physical health and life satisfaction (Featherstone and Hepworth, 1991; Uskul and Greenglass, 2005).

As people age, their extrovert personality type declines whereas introvertness increases. They are more likely to stay home and not be involved in usual activities as compared to before when they were younger. Extroverts were more likely to have their own social network, which was reported to help them cope with aging (Field and Millsap, 1991).

1.4. Respect

In the words of Kofi Annan, Secretary-General of the United Nations:

"Trees grow strong over the years, rivers wider. Likewise, with age, human beings gain immeasurable depth and breadth of experience and wisdom. That is why older persons should not be only respected and revered: they should be utilized as the rich resource to society that they are." (Powell, 2005).

Before we discuss the value of older people it would be necessary to present some statistics prepared by Simon Powell (2005). The statistics show that the world is getting older because the number of people over the age of 60 will triple over the next 50 years, growing from approximately 600 million to nearly 2 billion. This is due to a combination of factors including a significant decrease of birthrates (below replacement level) and an increase in longevity. Currently, one in every ten persons is 60 years and older; by 2050, this number will grow to 1 in 5. At that point, nearly 80% of the world's older population will be living in less developed regions of the world.

It was suggested that the more compassion and personal vitality young people attributed to elderly people, the older adults would be respected and not avoided. It was also suggested that, higher respect for older people and lower avoidance of older people would be associated with higher life satisfaction. Some studies have shown that the way older people are treated by the younger generation and peers as well can have a significant impact on their reports of life satisfaction and self-esteem (Powell, 2005). Therefore, it is recommended to treat older adults fairly and with dignity regardless of disability or other status, because it was reported that polite talk from young adults can help them by having benefits on psychological well-being. Respecting old

people the way they expect will help them cope with aging. The purpose of this article was to ensure that older adults are treated fairly and with dignity until the end, to respect them and to fulfill their needs when necessary in all stages of their life (Powell, 2005).

391 older people from six European countries were examined. The participants were aged 60 and older and from a range of educational, social and economic backgrounds. These participants were examined to find out their views on human dignity in their lives in association to self-esteem and well-being. When a person was pain-free, washed, in a clean bed and clothes and had contact with other people, this made him/her feel cared for and well respected. Feeling cared for and respected in later life enhanced the self-esteem, self-worth and well-being of elders. Understanding the dignity of later life, and applying it to older people by respecting their needs and communicating with them enhanced their self-esteem and well-being. In other words old people were more satisfied and had more positive perceptions of aging when they felt cared for and respected by others (Bayer, Tadd and Krajcik, 2005). The way the younger generation or peers responded to the older generation was reported to have a significant impact on life satisfaction and psychological well-being in later life. The more politeness young adults showed to older adults, the more benefits elders gained in life satisfaction and psychological well-being. In this way older people reported being more respected and not avoided by their peers and younger generation. It was concluded that politeness and positive communication were associated with life satisfaction and psychological well-being in later life (McCann, Dailey, Giles and Ota, 2005).

Theories: Aging and Adjustment to Retirement

This section highlights the main theories which explain the psychosocial factors to influence aging and adjustment to retirement.

Regarding life after retirement Havighurst (1986) reported:

"The decrease of interaction proceeds against the desires of most aging men and women. The older person who ages optimally is the person who stays active and who manages to resist the shrinkage of his social world. He maintains the activities of middle age as long as possible and then finds substitutes for work when he is forced to retire and substitutes for friends and loved ones whom he loses by death" (Quadagon, 1999: 161).

Since the 1960s interest in studying the post retirement population in terms of their aging image has increased gradually (Featherstone and Wernick, 1995). The number of professional and scientific journals about gerontology also increased during the last decade. Some of the possible reasons for this increased number of professional journals would be the increasing number of old people, their increased lifespan and the ever-growing burden on society for their care (Rogers, 1986). According to Sarah and Pat (1989) by the late 1960s it was accepted that the normal period of full-time employment would stop for most of the population at the age of 60 or 65. At these ages most people, especially men, stop working and as a result this created a major crisis of identity. As people age their occupational and physical status changes to the extent that they come to understand that they are no more the prime movers within their family or at work. Parsons (1942) described the problems that retirement brings to people by postulating:

"In view of the very great significance of occupational status and its psychological correlates, retirement leaves the older man in a peculiarly functionless situation, cut off from participation in the most important interests and activities of the society.... Retirement not only cuts the ties of the job itself but also greatly loosens those to the community of residence. It may be surmised that this structural isolation from kinship, occupational and community ties into the fundamental basis of the recent political agitation for help to the old. It is suggested that it is far less the financial hardship of the position of elderly people than their "social isolation" which makes old age a "problem" (Parsons, 1942:616).

Levinson (1980) suggested that after retirement people should learn how to pass their leadership to the younger generation because they cannot be the prime movers in the family or at work anymore. As Levinson (1987) reported, old people should take the "back seat" at their later stage of life and let others lead in the family or work. This process was termed as view from the bridge. Levinson suggested that elderly people should pass their duties and responsibilities to younger generation and learn to agree with younger generation. It is not necessary for them to avoid all of those cares and duties that they had before but they could hand over some of those duties and cares to other family members or younger friends. (Stuart-Hamilton, 1994). Levinson identified four overlapping stages in the life cycle of people with each stage lasting about 25 years and each stage having its own psychological, physical and social issues (Stuart-Hamilton, 1994; and Rogers, 1986). It is the last stage of life which starts at the age of 60 and over, when individuals experience more life distractions. During this time older adults experience higher levels of stress and anxiety because of their physical decline that occurs to them and also because they are labeled as old people after their sixties. In this stage people are recommended to accept the realities of their past, present and future in order to be satisfied

with their lives. However, if they come to reject these realities, they would be more vulnerable to psychosocial and physical problems (Hayer, Rybash and Roodin, 1999).

Old age is usually referred to the last stage of human life. Erik Erikson proposed eight stages of life span. Each life stage has specific issues which were generalized to all people who go through the stages. The first six stages included the years from birth to young adulthood. The seventh stage includes individuals aged 26 to 50. This is the stage of generativity versus stagnation, generativity results when individuals try to satisfy their needs by turning towards others such as bearing children and trying to contribute to the younger generation by mentoring and guiding them. However, stagnation results when individuals at this stage do not get satisfaction from others, in other words their contribution to others results in frustration or lack of fulfillment (Quadagon, 1999).

Regarding generativity Levinson (1996) reported:

"Most of us during our forties and fifties become "senior members" in our own particular world. We are responsible not only for our own work but also the development of the current generation of young adults. . . . . It is possible in this era to become more maturely creative, more responsible for self and others, more universal in outlook, more capable of intimacy than ever before" (Quadagon, 1996: 20).

The eighth and final stage of life starts from the age of sixty and above. This stage of life encounters the issues of ego integrity versus despair. In later life, Erikson argued that individuals who reached the last stage of their lives are characterized by a psychological conflict between ego integrity and despair. Individuals with ego integrity would appraise their old age and will acquire wisdom, acknowledge the universal nature of humanity and accept the fact of mortality. Here is how Erikson described individual's ego integrity:

"It is a post-narcissistic love of human ego---not of the self---as an experience which conveys some world order and spiritual sense. . . . It is the acceptance of one's one and only life cycle as something that had to be and that, by necessity, permitted of no substitutions. . . . It is a comradeship with the ordering ways of distant times and a different pursuit . . . [but] the possessor of integrity is ready to defend the dignity of his own life style against all physical and economic threats. . . . Ego integrity, therefore, implies an emotional integration which permits participation by followership as well as acceptance of the responsibilities of leadership" (Belsky, 1990: 268-269).

According to Erikson's theory, the person who has reached ego integrity should be able to accept the past and death (Blesky, 1990). In this stage people get to be more aware of the fact that death for them is approaching. This is the stage when old people look back at what they have done and achieved during their life period. Individuals who perceive that their seven former stages as proposed by Erik Erikson were successfully accomplished, were reported to have had a meaningful and satisfying life, which is ego integrity. However, some other people reported being not satisfied with their life and not having had a meaningful life during the seven former stages. These people were categorized under despair. These people were not happy with their lives, so they blamed themselves for their disappointment, thus despair (Rogers, 1986). Despairing old people may become withdrawn and hesitant or destructive in their old age. Regarding the stage of ego integrity versus despair Erik Erikson (1968) reported:

"A meaningful old age, then. . . serves the need for that integrated heritage which gives an indispensable perspective on the life cycle. Strength here takes the form of that detached yet active concern with life bounded with death, which we call wisdom. . . To whatever abyss ultimate concerns may lead individual men, man as a psychosocial creature will face, toward the end of his life, a new edition of the new identity crisis which we may state in words, "I am what survives me". (Rogers, 1986: 140--144)

Based on the role theory, the main task for men is their work, and with retirement their main task is finished, so it is this time when disengagement begins (Fennell, Phillipson and Evers, 1988). As individuals age, members of their social network start dropping off one by one. Their neighborhood as well starts disappearing, and as a result old individuals may give up their social or external resources and instead turn themselves towards their inner resources. Older individuals in fact automatically distance themselves from society and external resources. Further, disengagement theorists reported that this disengagement process is universal, normal and natural (Belsky, 1990). Disengagement has been defined as an inevitable process in which many of the relationships between a person and other members of society are severed, and those remaining are altered in quality (Belsky, 1990). According to disengagement theory, retirement is the time for elders to relax and maintain higher morale in old age, in other words disengagement suggests that old people should stop getting involved in their daily activities. Disengagement involves the process of social and psychological withdrawal of an individual from society. Disengagement occurs when "the individual becomes sharply aware of the shortness of life and the scarcity of time remaining to him, and if he perceives his life space as decreasing" (Quadagon, 1999: 215). Disengagement usually leads to reduction of daily activities and ego energy in later life.

This view has been challenged by the gerontologists whereby they disagreed with disengagement theorists because disengagement theory challenged the traditional view about the importance of maintaining high levels of activity and interaction in old age. The alternate theory that was proposed was the activity theory, which proposes that happiness in later life is to stay as involved in life activities as possible (Belsky, 1990). The contradiction between disengagement and activity theory is that, according to disengagement theory, older adults should be withdrawn from their daily activities and focus on maintaining higher morale and avoid life activities, whereas gerontologists insist that older people should remain active for as long as possible.

In one of the largest studies conducted, the Duke Project involving 250 individuals aged 60 and older. It was concluded that older individuals who reported the highest activity levels scored highest in life satisfaction, contrary to what disengagement theory would predict. Disengagement theory would suggest that in older age people who score high in daily activities would score low in life satisfaction (Quadagon, 1999). Gerontologists suggest that, in order to avoid certain psychosocial and health declines, older adults should continue pursuing their usual life activities and not disengage from them (Fennell, Phillipson and Evers, 1988). Gerontologists suggested that disengagement theory should be rejected because this theory in some way forces people to withdraw from society and life activities in older age which according to activity theory harms the psychosocial and physical health of individuals in later life (Belsky, 1990).

In conclusion, old age was reported to be a very complicated stage whereby older individuals face higher levels of stress, anxiety, depression and health problems as compared to the younger generation. So, they come to face different problems in trying to adjust with those psychosocial and physical problems. Erikson and Levinson proposed theories explaining differences at different stages of the lifespan. Erikson proposed eight stages of life but we focused more on the last stage which is ego integrity versus despair. Ego integrity results when an old person accepts the past and death, whereas despair on the other hand results when an old person is not satisfied with his past and does not want to accept that death is approaching. Different theorists suggested different ideas about adjustment in later life such as disengagement theory suggesting that retired people should decrease their life activities and relax. On the other hand activity theory suggests just the opposite of disengagement theory which is not to withdraw from life activities, but instead keep life as active as possible. Thus, this is both agreement and disagreement on the most appropriate approach to coping with adjustment to retirement.

2.   Methodology

The main study was conducted in Kosova and focused mainly on elderly individuals. the measures used were those that had been previously validated in the pilot study. The main purpose of the present study was to assess the factors that influenced the retired or elderly people's levels of psychological well-being and life satisfaction.

2.1. Participants

In the main study 170 elderly individuals participated. 106 of the participants were males and 64 were female. Participants were randomly selected from different institutions and locations. Participants were aged between 60 to 89 with a mean of 68.7 (SD=6.2). The majority (113) of the participants were married, 48 were widowed, 8 were divorced and only one participant had never married. In terms of education, 29 participants were uneducated, 86 had primary school or 8 years of school, 41 had secondary school, 12 of them had completed their first degree and only 2 had second degrees (post graduate). 127 participants were living together with their children, 31 were living with their spouses alone and 12 were living in the institutions.

2.2. Procedure

In this study the researcher decided to distribute the questionnaires to participants who could read and understand only in order to avoid the interviewer bias. Surveys were conducted in institutions for the elderly, houses, villages, religious institutions and other random places. Permission to enter the retirement houses in Kosova was taken from the main director of the retirement house in Prizren. This person's permission was recognized in all retirement houses of Kosova.

2.3. Measures

In the present study, structured interviews and self-administered questionnaires were utilized to measure the association between symptoms of psychological wellbeing, life satisfaction and participants' personality and perception of aging among elderly people at their post-retirement period.

Psychological Well-being
The Affect Balance Scale (ABS) is a scale developed by Bradburn (1969) to measure the psychological well-being of the general population. In the ABS 10 items in series was used to ask people about their positive and negative feelings with "yes" or "no" answers. The final psychological well-being scale used for the final study consisted of 7 items. The correlation coefficients of the psychological well-being scale ranged from .23 to .64 with a Cronbach's alpha of .72.

Life Satisfaction

The Life Satisfaction Scale (LSS) is an instrument that measures desired and achieved goals of elderly individuals. The LSS was developed by Neugarten, Havighurst and Tobin (1961). These researches had developed three main scales to measure life satisfaction among elderly people aged 50 and above. The final life satisfaction scale used for the final study consisted of 12 items. The correlation coefficients ranged from .30 to .61. The Cronbach's alpha of the life satisfaction scale was .79, which indicates high internal consistency between items.

Personality and Perception of Aging

The items were combined from different scales related to introvertness and extrovertness (Robinson and Shaver, 1991).The final personality scale used in final study consisted of 8 items. The correlation coefficients of personality scale ranged from .26 to .40. The perception of aging scale that was used in the final study consisted of 10 items and the correlation coefficients ranged from .27 to .56. The Cronbach's alpha for the perception scale was .73 which indicates high internal consistency between items.

Religiosity

This religiosity scale of seven items was developed by the researcher to assess the importance of religious activities and practices in later life. The items were developed based on religious requirements, what is required and what is practiced by them and if the practice helped them adjust with retirement. The items were in question form and the answer was from 0=not at all to 10=extremely. 1 to 10 response set was used because the greater range of possible answers made it was easier to rate the level of religiosity. For example one of the items was "do you feel that religion gives you spiritual support"?

3. Results

The analysis of psychometric properties of the scales revealed that the measures of personality, perception of aging and respect used are reliable and valid instruments. Similarly, the measures used to determine the levels of psychological well-being and life satisfaction among elderly individuals in Kosova were also reliable and valid.

In addition, the results revealed that perception of aging was significantly correlated with psychological well-being and life satisfaction. Similar results were found with regard to the association between personality and psychological well-being and life satisfaction.

Furthermore, the results revealed that respect was significantly correlated to life satisfaction and psychological well-being.

3.1. The Relationship Between Personality, Psychological Well-Being and Life Satisfaction

On the relationship between personality and the dependent factors, the findings indicate that there are significant relationships between personality, perception of aging and psychological well-being and life satisfaction. The personality type of the participants was associated with dependent factors. Elderly individuals who were extroverts in personality tended to have better psychological well-being and life satisfaction which was consistent with the study of Isaacowitz and Smith (2003) in Berlin. Extroverts reported having better experience of aging.

Similar relationships were observed between perception of aging and the dependent variables. Individuals who reported having more positive perceptions about aging showed better psychological well-being and life satisfaction which is consistent with studies of personality whereby people who perceived aging and stressful events as challenging and not threats to life were observed to have improvement in psychological well-being and to be more satisfied with their lives (Uskul and Greenglass, 2005). People who showed more positive perceptions about aging in later life reported having better psychological well-being and life satisfaction.

3.2. The Less Respect the Elderly Individuals Get Lower Levels of Life Satisfaction and Psychological Well-Being

The findings from Pearson correlation revealed that respect is significantly related to the total scale scores on psychological well-being, and life satisfaction. The results reveal that the strongest correlation was observed between respect and life satisfaction, (r=0.35). Psychological well-being showed significant but more moderate association with respect.

3.3. Regression analysis

The regression correlation revealed that psychological well-being was significantly measured by the total scale score of personality scale, Beta=.168, n=170, p<.015. The results reveal that personality measures the level of psychological well-being among elderly people of Kosova.

Overall, the results of regression analysis revealed that 33% of variance in life satisfaction and 39% of variance of psychological well-being are explained by the model.

On the other hand, using multiple regression analysis in predicting the power of personality and respect on life satisfaction

was found that the model explains 33% of the variance in levels of life satisfaction (R Square=.329).

Life satisfaction was found to be predicted by the personality and the level of respect elderly individuals in Kosova were sharing with others. The regression correlation revealed that life satisfaction was significantly measured by the total scale score of personality scale, Beta=.174, n=170, p<.001, by the total scale score of perception scale, Beta=.416, n=170, p<.001 and by the total scale score of respect scale, Beta=.243, n=170, p<.002. The results reveal that personality, perception and respect were found to predict the change in the level of life satisfaction among elderly people of Kosova.

4. Discussions

The analysis of psychometric properties of the scales revealed that the measures of personality, perception of aging used in this study are reliable and valid instruments.

In addition, the results revealed that perception of aging was significantly correlated with psychological well-being and life satisfaction. Similar results were found with regard to the association between personality and psychological well-being and life satisfaction. Personality was found to be the strongest predictors of the levels of psychological wellbeing. This result indicated that personality does influence the levels of psychological wellbeing which could be supported by Isaacowitz and Smith (2003) who reported that personality is a strong predictor of the aging experience; the more extroverted the person the more positive experiences of aging reported. Similarly, personality and perception of aging were found to be the stronger predictors of life satisfaction. The result indicated that personality and perception of aging predicts the levels of life satisfaction. One explanation could be that personality and perception of aging are interrelated. Personality type of elderly people influences the perception of aging, then perception of aging determines the level of life satisfaction. Extroverted individuals could have more positive perception of aging which in turn is associated with higher life satisfaction.

The findings indicate that there is a strong positive association between respect and life satisfaction indicating that elderly people are more satisfied with their life if they get enough respect from others. In other words, respect in later life plays a very important role for determining the level of life satisfaction. This finding is consistent with a previous study which suggested that the way older people are treated by the younger 132 generations as well as peers can have a significant impact on their reports of life satisfaction and psychological well-being (Powell, 2005). In addition, Bayer, Tadd and Krajcik (2005) reported that elderly people are more satisfied when they feel respected and cared for by others.

5. Conclusion

The present study measured the relationship between personality, psychological well-being and life satisfaction in Kosova. The results indicated that type of personality and level of respect have strong influence in adjustment to retirement among elderly people of Kosova. The findings indicated that more attention should be given to elderly people in Kosova because they complained that they are not getting what they need and deserve.

References

1. Bailis, D. & Chipperfield, J. (2002) Compensating for losses in perceived personal control over health: A role for collective self-esteem in healthy aging. The Journals of Gerontology, 57b, 6, 531.
2. Barrow, G. M. (1996) Aging, the Individual, and Society. New York, West Publishing Company.
3. Bayer, T., Tadd, W. & Krajcik, S. (2005a) Quality in Ageing. Health & Medical, 6, 1 22
4. Bayer, T., Tadd, W. & Krajcik, S. (2005b) Dignity: The voce of older people. Quality in Ageing, 22.
5. Belsky, J. K. (1990) The Psychology of Aging. California, Brooks/Cole.
6. Bradburn, N. M. (1969) The structure of psychological well-being. In Robinson, J. R., Shaver, P. R. & Wrightsman, L. S. (1991) (Eds) Measures of Personality and Social Psychological Attitudes, San Diego: Academic Press.
7. Cagney, K. & Lauderdale, D. S. (2002) Education, wealth, and cognitive function in
8. later life. The Journals of Gerontology, 57b, 2, 163.
9. Edison, C., Boardman, J., Williams, D. & Jackson, J. (2001) Religious involvement, stress, and mental health: Findings from the 1995 Detroit area study. Social Forces. 80, 1, 251.
10. Eid M, Diener E. (2004) Global judgments of subjective well-being: Situational variability and long-term stability. Social Indicators Research. 65(3):245–277.
11. Featherstone, M and Wernick, A. (1995). Images of Aging. London: Routledge.
12. Featherstone, M., & Hepworth, M. (1991). The mask of ageing and the postmodern life course. In Featherstone, M and Wernick, A. (1995). Images of Aging. London: Routledge.

13. Field, D. & Millsap, R. (1991) Personality in advanced old age: Continuity or Change? Journal of Gerontology. 3, 299.

14. George and Bearon (1980) in Krause, N. (2004) Lifetime trauma, emotional support, and life satisfaction among older adults. The Gerontologist, 44, 5, 615.

15. Harper, S. (2014). Economic and social implications of aging societies. Science, 346, 587–591

16. Havighurst (1986) in Quadagon, J. (1999) Aging and the Life Course: An Introduction to Social Gerontology. USA, McGraw-Hill.

17. Hayer, W. J., Rybash, J. M. & Roodin, P. M. (1999) Adult Development and Aging. New York: McGraw-Hill.

18. Herero. V. G. and Extremera, N. (2010) Daily life activities as mediators of the relationship between personality variables and subjective well-being among older adults. Personality and Individual Differences 49, 124–129

19. Isaacowitz, D. & Smith, J. (2003) Positive and negative affect in very old age. The Journal of Gerontology, 58b, 3, 143.

20. Jik Joen Lee (2005) An exploratory study on the quality of life of older Chinese people living alone in Hong Kong. Social Indicators Research, 71 335–361

21. Kibret BT, Tareke G (2017) The Contribution of Instructor, Peer and University Support for Promoting Psychological Well-Being among Students in the Amhara Regional Universities. Clin Exp Psychol 3: 154.

22. Kirby, S., Coleman, P. & Daley, D. (2004) Spirituality and well-being in frail and nonfrail older adults. The Journals of Gerontology 59b, 3, 123.

23. Krause, N. (2004) Lifetime trauma, emotional support, and life satisfaction among older adults. The Gerontologist, 44, 5, 615.

24. Krause, N. (2005) Stressor arising in highly valued roles, meaning in life, and the physical health status of older adults. The Journals of Gerontology, 59b, 5, 287.

25. Levinson (1980, 1987) in Stuart-Stuart-Hamilton, I. (1994) The Personality of Aging. London and Bristol, Jessica Kingsley Publishers.

26. Lockenhoff, C. E., Terracciano, A., & Costa, P. T. (2009). Five-factor model of personality traits and the retirement transition: Longitudinal and cross-sectional associations. Psychology and Aging, 24(3), 722–728

27. Long, M V. and Martin, P. (2000) Personality, relationship closeness, and loneliness of oldest old adults and their children. The Journals of Gerontology, 311.

28. McCann, R., Dailey, R., Giles, H. & Ota, H. (2005) Beliefs about intergenerational communication across the lifespan: Middle age and the roles of age stereotyping and respect norms. Communication Studies, 56, 4, 293.

29. Neugarten, B. L., Havighurts, R. J. & Tobin, S. (1961) The measurement of life satisfaction. In Robinson, J. R., Shaver, P. R. & Wrightsman, L. S. (1991) (Eds) Measures of Personality and Social Psychological Attitudes, San Diego: Academic Press.

30. Osborne, J.W. (2012) Psychological Effects of the Transition to Retirement. Canadian Journal of Counselling and Psychotherapy, Vol. 46, 1, 45–58

31. Parsons (1942) in Featherstone, M and Wernick, A. (1995). Images of Aging. London: Routledge.

32. Powell, S. (2005) The World Assembled on Aging,

33. http//www.stridemagazine.com/articles/. Accessed on 23/6/20017.

34. Robinson, J. R., Shaver, P. R. & Wrightsman, L. S. (1991) (Eds) Measures of Personality and Social Psychological Attitudes, San Diego: Academic Press.

35. Rogers, D. (1986) An Introduction to Aging. New York: Prentice Hall.

36. Sarah, H. and Pat, Th. (1989) The consolidation of "old age" as a phase of life, 1945-1965, in Featherstone, M and Wernick, A. (1995). Images of Aging. London: Routledge.

37. Stuart-Stuart-Hamilton, I. (1994) The Personality of Aging. London and Bristol, Jessica Kingsley Publishers.

38. Tinkler L., Hicks S. (2011). Measuring subjective well-being. London: Office for National Statistics.

39. Uskul, A. K. & Greenglass, E. (2005) Anxiety, stress, and coping. psychological well-being in Turkish – Canadian sample. Stress Anxiety and Coping. 18, 3, 269 – 278

40. Van Solinge, H. (2006). Adjustment to and satisfaction with retirement. Journal of Gerontology:Social Sciences. 60, 1, 11.

41. Zaninotto P, Falaschetti E, Sacker A. (2009) Age trajectories of quality of life among older adults: results from the English Longitudinal Study of Ageing. Quality Life Research;18(10):1301-9.

DIFFERENTIATED TEACHING STRATEGIES WITH CHILDREN WITH LEARNING DIFFICULTIES

Prof. Ass. Dr. Shemsi MORINA

Universit of Prizren "Ukshin Hoti", Faculty of Education, shemsi.morina@uni-prizren.com

A b s t r a c t

Teaching process every day and more is changing with a strong evolution, where the use of methods, forms and multiple techniques are transforming teaching in a complex and difficult process on the other hand the teaching process is faced today with a large number of exception and contradiction as:

a)   Teachers often give students the task of exercises, for solution of which required knowledge of many subjects, despite the knowledge provided by the teacher were only on their case, so in this respect should be paid special attention to all stages through which ensure quality teaching and successful learning.

b)   Teachers should be familiar with: difficulties, styles, interests, needs, trends and psychological abilities of each student in order to ensure their walk confidently ahead.

c)   On the other hand they often have to break and be dedicated to a group of advanced students who have interests much broader than the rest of the class, in this regard have the skills, but the rest of the children have difficulties therefore require constant supervision and help of teachers. These are some of the reasons that make teaching as a difficult and complex process. The teaching process as the learning had their history of development. Therefore they passed through the different stages being perfectly constantly.

From the very cognitive of these issues, it was concluded that both these processes are correlated with each other, which makes it even more complicated (Raçi, A. Gashi, Sh. 2001: 3). Precisely for these reasons, studies and research on teaching and learning have been and are many today. These studies, as well as the interest accrued so teachers, psychologists, and experts in other fields, coupled with the fact that teaching and learning are continuous processes, such as understanding about them cannot ever finish (QTKA, 2005: 13).

Introduction to Search and Research Methodology

1.   Presentation of the Problem

Ongoing changes in the field of education, especially in the aftermath of war in Kosovo, had intended raising the quality of all levels of education, although the reality today shows an unsatisfactory situation in schools in Kosovo. Every day more and more in our schools is an increase of children who have difficulties in learning the language prior notions, mathematical skills. In his book ,, differentiated teaching "(Tomlinson, 2005: 51) gives practical advice on how to approach and be successful with children with learning difficulties in the learning process, based on the belief that all children They can learn and can be successful, but to do so depends on the insistence of teachers to achieve success, and confidence in the abilities of each child. According to him the basic idea of differentiated teaching is that teachers need to consider not only the subjects that give, but also children. Results in teaching, should be seen as an important element of experience in the work of a teacher. The degree of

preparation and knowledge of the changes that have children in language, socioeconomic status, race, ethnic background, differences in strengths and weaknesses, abilities and learning difficulties - are the key to success in teaching. Many teachers feel that grades must include students with different needs, with different educational levels, with different interests and learning styles. In this way, to benefit from diversity, not to disregard it, teaching must necessarily be differentiated.

Under current conditions, as well as the modalities of teaching that apply now, where the inclusion of students with disabilities, but also the number of children with SN, is growing every day more and more, seen as a necessity increase the accountability of teachers to be we provide quality education for all children, as well as adequate preparation for life and work.

Such a goal requires the fulfillment of certain conditions as provided in the school practices of other countries as:

- Teachers competent, responsive and well trained to work with children with S.V. and V.N. and trained in pedagogical and psychological terms:

- Customization of the curriculum;

- Tools and diverse enough concretized;

- Number of students in the class to be reasonable;

- Functionality of psychological and pedagogical service;

- Cooperation Permanent subjective factors.

Kosovo in school reality, some of the causes that are impossible implementation of differentiated instruction are:

- Overcrowded curriculum, and disproportionate to the psycho-physical capabilities of children;

- Lack of adequate training of teachers, implementation of differentiated instruction;

- The very high number of students in classes, especially in urban areas;

- Short residence time student in school;

- Not great interest of parents for child's achievement in school;

- Lack of consulting services in school

1.1. Hypothesis

Today the process off teaching in our schools about his adaptation, the specifications of each child is presented with various defects. Rise of hypotheses, analysis and confirmation, or not in terms of the knowledge and attitudes of teachers about the necessity of implementing the teaching of the differential in our

schools, and factors affecting the teaching in our schools will addressed step by step in this search.

The basic hypothesis; Differentiated Teaching and individual influences more in overcoming difficulties in learning, compared with other types of teaching;

Auxiliary hypotheses:

Auxiliary hypotheses 1: Women Educationalists auxiliary hypotheses, evaluate the usefulness and efficiency more differentiated teaching, compared with male teachers.

Auxiliary hypothesis 2: Teachers with higher education level, the more productive estimate of differentiated instruction, compared to teachers with lower levels of education.

Auxiliary hypothesis 3: private school teachers have the knowledge, and show the highest level of alert in the implementation of differentiated instruction, compared with public school teachers.

Auxiliary hypothesis 4: urban teachers, knowledge, and show the highest level of alert in the implementation of differentiated instruction, compared with teachers in rural areas.

1.2. Methodology

The aim of this study is to diagnose the knowledge, and the willingness of teachers to implement the mode of teaching differentiated children with learning difficulties, and the conditions and technologies that provide schools for successful implementation of this modality, about adapting depending on: the needs, styles, intelligences and diverse difficulties faced by children with SN in the learning process of knowledge in the learning process. This chapter shall submit a research strategy is selected, the instruments used and the population from which the sample was selected appropriate. Study on the nature of the collection and analysis of data, a combination of quantitative methods with qualitative research method (Shamiq, A. 2009: 60). This methodological approach to our research, more sustainable makes arguments that arise in his conclusion, regarding the factors that affect the implementation of differentiated teaching strategies with children with learning difficulties. The instruments that we use in research are: a) questionnaires; b) Interviews; and c) Focus Group; (Mattheus, B; Ross, Liz; 2010: 201).

1.3. Selection of Champions

The population selected in this search are teachers of primary and lower secondary education, as well as school psychologist and

lecturer. Limited sampling in the Municipality of Pristina and its environs. Stratification of the sampling is done by two groups:

• Rural - urban

• Private school - public school

Weighing scale sampling is done on the basis of approximate participation of these groups in the sample population. Selection of respondents within Strata weighted methodology made by chance (the algorithm randomly in the population register).

Rough stratification of the population division of teachers: The survey was conducted in three schools in Prishtina (urban location, both public and private schools), as well as three schools in rural locations; 75 teachers of primary and lower secondary education were surveyed in three public schools, and 25 teachers of primary and lower secondary education were surveyed in a private school in the city, the total urban location were 100 respondents. While 40 surveys of teachers in primary and lower secondary education are made at three public schools Pristina district (rural). A total of 140 respondents. Circle from the selected sampling was done intentionally, because the city of Prishtina is the place where investing more about the training of various teachers, equipping schools with diverse, in cooperation with parents, in order to raising the quality of teaching and learning, as well as private schools are functional and psychological services of teaching in some schools, which all of these elements may be indicative for successful implementation of teaching differentiated children with learning difficulties.

For conducting interviews was selected sampling intentional composed of psychologists and teachers of schools, in schools where it is functional service (private school) champion deliberately focused on those schools where the number of students is very large, and the number children with SN is considerable. Also, focus groups were selected for intentional sample consisting of teachers with long work experience and training in this field, but also in the classroom teachers who have a considerable number of children with SN.

1.4. Instruments Used in the Study

For lighting empirical problems, differentiated teaching strategies with children with learning difficulties are using these tools:

Questionnaire: In most studies in the social sciences, are advised to use the survey with self-report of which may include different instruments (Mattheus, B; Ross, Liz; 2010: 202). In this study we drafted a questionnaire, which consisted of two sections. In the first section of the survey were put questions about the teacher data such as gender; the level of education achieved; location of school; and the type of school where he works. Except that these

data were used as variables in the analysis of data were also used to create a profile of teachers participating in the study. While the second section of the survey is composed of 17 specific questions, through which we aimed to measure the knowledge and assessment of teachers of the benefits of teaching differentiated compared to other types of teaching conditions in schools and readiness their implementation of this mode.

2. Teaching Differential – Definition

"The essence of teaching is differentiated adaptation of the contents, processes, methods, forms, techniques, tools, procedures and educational materials styles, intelligences, and the pace of learning of students with the aim of achieving the same goals and objectives" (Muka, P; Karaj, Dh; Qela, L. 2002: 9).

Now the all public opinion is aware that the school has students with learning difficulties, and therefore must find ways to bring assistance to them (Kraja, M. 2006: 287). Given the fact that this mode of teaching us is an innovation in terms of terminology, but not its implementation, since it has been in education ever, even from infancy before, without names or designations different.

Its implementation has been an integral part of the school, where classes held respectively in this process, because it was necessary, until the teacher thought and decided not only to the entire class, but also for special students. Students have always been different because: (from parents, family circles different interests and different needs, difficulties, styles and intelligences different), but the whole problem is how much and how considering the diversity of students in our schools, against the goals and objectives that society puts school.

Experience shows that the higher that the intended performance collective, the more deficient del working only with the entire class, and the more necessary is done taking into account the diversity of students in the design and content, the selection of methods, forms, tools, techniques, procedures and educational materials that are used to adapt rhythms, styles, intelligences, and other differences of students, in order to alleviate or eliminate the overall difficulties facing children in the learning process knowledge, creating habits, and skills development. These are the reasons that necessarily must implement differentiated mode of teaching in our schools (Muka, P; Karaj, Dh; Oela, L. 2002: 10).

Below we give a scheme which sets out the fundamental difference between traditional teaching, with differentiated, as above noted in a wider specifics of teaching indirectly, that there is so fundamental difference teaching differentiated, as has differences traditional teaching mode.

Differences of traditional teaching with differentiated	
Traditional	*Differentiated*
Masked differences between students, or leave when they become problematic, and thus they can not be resolved.	Differences between students studied to serve as a basis for successful planning in the education process
Evaluation is common and the end of learning is to understand,, who understand it	The assessment is a diagnosis action and made to understand in what way will adapt teaching to the needs of the learner, taking into account any difference to children in the educational process.
It dominates a narrow conception of intelligence and other differences that have children	It focuses on multiple forms of intelligence, and takes into account any differences that have children in the learning of knowledge
Prevails a simple definition for excellence	Perfection is defined primarily as a development that departs from the starting point.
Interests and needs of students are often not taken into account	Students occasionally led to the fulfillment of their interests and needs, based on learning needs.
Considered relatively few options for learning profiles	Profiles observed many learning options.
Dominates the whole class teaching, regardless of the changes that have children in the learning process	Numerous measures in teaching, making it possible for each successful student progress in learning process
Treatment of teaching from textbooks and curricula determined	Adaptation of teaching students is regulated by predispositions, interests and their learning profile
It focuses on mastery learning of facts and skills, irrespective of the conditions.	Learning focuses on the use of the most essential skills in order to develop a coherent understanding of the content and its reasoning
Evaluation forms are unique and dominates the use of an instrument for assessing student achievement	Constantly used many ways assessmen
Use of time is less flexible	Time used flexibly in accordance with students' needs and interests of students.
Only a text prevails, not given alternative opportunities to increase resources easier learning content	Materials are diversified in order to meet the needs, interests, and simplification of curriculum content
Mechanical limited in content acquisition and interpretation of facts	Become common multiple angles of ideas and events
The teacher guides the behavior of students.	The teacher supports habits that help students increase confidence in themselves.
Teacher solves problems	Students help each other and the teacher to solve problems.
The teacher drafts standards for the advancement of the whole class.	Students work with teachers to put together the goals of learning for all grade and by individuals.
In most cases using only one form of assessment.	Students are assessed in many ways.

2.1. Strategies for Teaching the Differential

The basic prerequisites for a differentiated treatment of children with learning difficulties (identification of needs and implementation of appropriate strategies)

In connection with the basic prerequisites to differential treatment of children, it is necessary to be identified them, according to these criteria:

1. Identify students who have learning disabilities;

2. Recognition in anatomic-psychological development of the child, advancing with difficulty;

3. Recognition of mental-intellectual capability;

4. Recognition of educational and cultural conditions and social and material conditions in which the child;

5. Date on the condition of the senses of sight, hearing (Kraja, M. 2006: 289).

After the teacher has the knowledge easier to take steps that will mitigate or even eliminate entirely difficult to have children in the acquisition of any of the fields or program content.

3. Findings and Results of Data

3.1. The Results of Quantitative and Qualitative Data

Metrology core of this study is based on the selection of the study sample by randomly. This means that there is no difference or criteria that determine the selection of respondents - or that each interviewee has the same probability of selection. In this way, the results of the sample statistics are valid for the population studied, in this case the Municipality of Prishtina teachers. Random selection is the method applied by the lottery. Teacher Registry is assigned a serial number, and then by the logarithm of chance (in Microsoft Excel program) is generated community numbers selected at random. It should be emphasized that this method is applied after determining the strata of the population, according to the study objectives (location where it operates, as well as the type of school). Sample weights are predetermined by observation of the actual weights in the population strata. Therefore, weight has become a priori the number of respondents, and all analysis results within the group then developed (angl. Pooled).

This strict selection protocol sample was applied in order to comply with the conditions for statistical interference, emanating from the central limit theorem and the law of large numbers. The sample size is selected, within budgetary limits, recognizing the error margin of 5%, 10% confidence interval, in a population of 1 427 teachers in the municipality of Pristina. According to the program for calculating Raosoft enough sample size, the sample is supposed to be interviewing 156 attempts, with the assumption that 66% will respond positively to the request to be interviewed. After the interview, the response rate has proved to be 71.7%, that of 156 requests, 112 teachers have agreed to be interviewed. Stratification and weight of the sample was made ex-ante, where separation is proportional to the number of schools and teachers engaged in school, among the 17 public schools and 5 private schools in urban areas (with over 65% of teachers engaged) and 24 public schools in rural areas.

The entire questionnaire is designed to answer categorical / ordinal, to accelerate the time of the survey and to increase the accuracy of the answers given. All answers given are included under the pre-encoded data in order to avoid errors. As a database, as well as the overall statistical analysis was performed by SPSS 17.0 statistical program. Although he collected data derived from ordinal response, the statistics presented are derived from the frequency percentage categories. The categories are designed to be exclusive, which means that only one option was applicable to respondents, it is therefore a direct interpretation (see the questionnaire in the Annex).

In statistical testing phase two tests were used. Univariat test is used as a binomial test of proportion, as in the bivariate case is using Chi-square test (angl. Pearson Chi Square). The significance level predefined in both these tests is selected 5%. Statistical analysis of the data is divided into the descriptive analysis, and testing it. In the first part of the analysis presented basic information on the demographics of teachers and basic statistics drawn from teachers' responses to questions via questionnaires. In the second half then proceed with statistical hypothesis testing study, which analyzed the responses of teachers being conditional on their demographic differences, gender, the environment where it operates schools, education level and the type of school where the teacher works.

It should be emphasized that the descriptive statistics analysis constantly refer to the outcomes of the sample observations. Given that the sample selection is made exclusively randomly, these results can be used for statistical interference within the selected population - ie teachers in the municipality of Pristina. Given the budget limitations of this study - namely limiting the number of respondents - statistical interference should be interpreted with caution.

3.2. Quantitative Analysis of Data

Discussing the results of the study aims to identify the realization of the purpose of this study regarding teaching strategies differentiated children with learning difficulties, and the hypotheses raised in the study, if the teaching of differentiated accompanied associated with difficulty lower learning, compared with other types of teaching. Factors analyzed in the context of this study will be analyzed with each other, because to us so far no in-depth studies on teaching strategies differentiated children with learning difficulties, which can be compared with research previous.

Regarding the basic hypothesis:

Differentiated instruction and individual influences more in overcoming difficulties in learning, compared with other types of teaching.

In this study we were worked with various teachers like (different levels of education, with different specifications, such as the type and location of the school where they work, as well as work experience and trainings attended). The analysis of measurement data it was found that no statistically significant differences between them with regard to the first hypothesis.

Basic statistical hypothesis Examination:

From the presentation of the results of the analysis descriptive, can already be concluded that according to the teachers of the Municipality of Prishtina (with interference) teaching differentiated and individual associated with less difficulty in learning, compared with other types of teaching - scale adoption of 72.1% .

Since all the answers in this study were designed according to the survey to be categorical, analysis of variance responses has no statistical significance. However, responses to the questionnaires are ordinal, so they were given from 1 to 5 in case the main question. In the context of the question of the effect of differentiated teaching degree this is translated in accordance with the conclusion, ie 1 (least) to 5 (completely). Just because observation, statistical analysis results in an arithmetic average of 4:05 (more than evaluation agree „too" with a standard deviation of 0.8 (according to the response rates).

To formally test the hypothesis of the study, the variable interest values are reconstructed into a binary variable, where the value 1 is defined „ success "or the teacher agrees „ very" or „ fully "with the hypothesis, or 0 as, , non-success "where the teacher has given approval lesser extent, somewhat „" „ little "or „ no". Taking into account the available data that represent ordinal ratings, such a reconstruction of the variable allows for the use of binomial proportion test through statistical z. We note that in case of non-categorical variables, it would be standard for such purposes to be used „ test ".

In this form to conclude that quantitative goals:

"More than 2/3 of teachers in the municipality of Pristina estimate that differentiated and individualized teaching is associated with less difficulty in learning, compared with other types of teaching "

Statistical test:

The value of the test binomial proportion is lower than 1%, meaning much lower than the margin of permissible error of 5%, therefore we can conclude that there is no statistical evidence to

reject the hypothesis, and conclude that differentiated teaching is more effective than the current format.

Through this test statistic proved that even if the conditions hypothetical interview will be repeated with other samples representative within the population (teachers and Pristina), randomly, then the proportion who appreciates the usefulness of teaching differential will still pass two thirds of respondents.

Auxiliary hypotheses:

To better inform understanding of the basic hypothesis in this study were also presented four auxiliary hypotheses which are examined statistically as:

1. *Gender teacher determines the differences in evaluating the effectiveness of differentiated teaching;*

2. *The level of education of teachers determines their differences about the usefulness of differentiated teaching;*

3. *Type of school determines the difference in knowledge, and the willingness of teachers to implement differentiated instruction;*

4. *Determines the difference in knowledge, and assessing the utility of teachers for the implementation of differentiated teaching*

The importance of these auxiliary hypotheses is more detailed understanding of the determinants of attitudes towards differentiated instruction, and the differences have statistical significance can then be used to formulate recommendations for the improvement of teaching method differentiated educational system

Auxiliary Hypothesis 1:

Gender teacher determines the differences in evaluating the effectiveness of differentiated teaching;

1. From the data presented in the following tabulation variable that defines the basic hypothesis with variable gender of respondents, it appears that there is a higher probability that male teachers teaching to estimate the benefits of differentiated than the opposite sex. While 68% (56 of 82) females have considered teaching differentiated form followed with fewer difficulties in learning, 80% (24 of 30) of male teachers are given the same rating.

Table 1. Tabulation,, high degree of compliance with the basic hypothesis "to,, Gender   of Teacher"

Tabulation,, high degree of compliance with the basic hypothesis "to,, Gender of Teacher"		Gender of Teacher		
		Female	Male	**Total**
The high level of compliance hypothesis	No success (NO)	26	6	**32**
	Success (YES)	56	24	**80**
Total		**82**	**30**	**112**

Statistical Test:

Formal statistical hypothesis testing of the first auxiliary through Chi-Square statistical test shows that despite the fact that the descriptive analysis of the results seems to have a tendency to male teachers have the highest rating for the benefit of differentiated teaching; Gender differences were not statistically significant rating. P value of the test statistic is 0.225, indicating that there is 22.5% probability of receiving an erroneous hypothesis, well above the predetermined threshold with this study of 5%.

Auxiliary hypotheses 2:

The level of education of teachers determines their differences about the usefulness of differentiated teaching;

Regarding the difference in the evaluation of teaching differentiated by teachers, conditional on their level of education, tabulation of the data shows that the trend higher to assess the usefulness of teaching differentiated show teachers who have completed level Master education (19 of 22, or 86%). However, the relationship is not linear, because the trend is higher among teachers with HPS than those with Bachelor-level education, 69% to 67% respectively.

Table 2. Tabulation,, high degree of compliance with the basic hypothesis "to,, education level of teachers'

Tabulation,, high degree of compliance with the basic hypothesis "to,, education level of teachers'		The level of education of teachers:			
		HPSCH	Faculty	Master	**Total**
The high level of compliance hypothesis	Non-success (NO)	10	19	3	**32**
	Success (YES)	22	39	19	**80**
Total		**32**	**58**	**22**	**112**

Statistical Test:

However, as in the case of teacher gender, education level of teachers it appears that is not statistically significant, despite the observable differences in sample results. P value of statistical test Chi-Square is 0.221, indicating high probability that the hypothesis is not true (22.1% probability).

Auxiliary hypotheses 3:

Type of school: Determines the difference in knowledge, and the willingness of teachers to implement differentiated instruction;

More pronounced differences in assessing the usefulness of the resulting differentiated teaching evaluations after conditioning with variable type of school where the teacher is engaged . While the tendency of all teachers engaged in private schools is to evaluate the usefulness of teaching high differential (27/27) , it is lower tendency to engage teachers in public schools (53/85 or 62 %).

Table 3. Tabulation,, high degree of compliance with the basic hypothesis "to,, Type of school where the teacher works"

Tabulation,, high degree of compliance with the basic hypothesis "to,, Type of school where the teacher works"		Type of school where the teacher works		
		Public	Private	**Total**
The high level of compliance hypothesis	Non-success (NO)	32	0	**32**
	Success (YES)	53	27	**80**
Total		**85**	**27**	**112**

Statistical Test:

Formal testing of observations arising from the results of sample hypothesis that private school teachers have a higher rating than those of public schools for teaching differential is statistically significant. P value of Chi-Square test is the 0.00, indicating that there is the probability that the hypothesis is much lower than the predetermined margin of 5% (0:05).

Auxiliary hypotheses 4:

School location: Determines the difference in knowledge, and assessing the utility of teachers for the implementation of differentiated instruction;

The type of location where it operates schools in which the teacher is engaged, there is significant difference in knowledge and appreciation of the benefits of differentiated teaching. More specifically, teachers engaged in the city have knowledge, but also a significantly higher tendency (57/71 or 80%) to assess the usefulness of teaching differentiated compared to teachers engaged in rural location (23/41, or 56%).

Table 4. Tabulation,, high degree of compliance with the basic hypothesis "to,, location of the school where the teacher works"

Tabulation,, high degree of compliance with the basic hypothesis "to,, location of the school where the teacher works"		School Location		
		Village	City	Total
The high level of compliance hypothesis	Non-success (NO)	18	14	32
	Success (YES)	23	57	80
Total		**41**	**71**	**112**

Statistical Test:

Even in the case of hypothesis 4-of ancillary testing shows selokacioni school formal is definitive evaluation of the usefulness of differentiated teaching. P value of the test statistic is 0.006, which means that the probability of error in accepting this hypothesis is only 0.6%, significantly below the accepted margin of 5%.

4. Conclusions and Recommendations

The findings of the study gave positive answers the first research hypothesis that differentiated instruction is a priority in children's learning with vësntirësi, compared with other types of teaching. Study on differentiated teaching strategies in children with VN is one of the few studies done in Kosovo, which illuminates some interesting opinions discussed in the study. These represent opportunities, interventions for positive change with regard to the implementation of differentiated teaching strategies in order to mitigate or eliminate entirely the problems faced by children with VN in the teaching process. The benefits of such teaching will be to the benefit of all children, especially children with VN, parents and society in general. Such changes would make our goal a reality of our society that every citizen to ensure quality education regardless of their differences in the development of individual, national differences, religious, gender, race etc.

Some recommendations for education policy and decision makers are:

Invest in regulation and the expansion of facilities where learning takes place;

• Invest in all schools in technology (means) varied learning (visual, auditory, visual);

• The functional pedagogical and psychological services in schools.

• Improve efficiency of teacher training system.

For this:

- Push materially and encouraged to attend properly to take advantage of training to raise the quality in their work with all groups of children;

- Include in the training which focus on pedagogical and psychological themes, such as the difficulties in learning to children;

- The funded publications which reflect the concerns of teachers in learning difficulties in children, as well as successful strategies to approach the work in these groups of children.

Recommendations for schools:

• Schools should explore the possibilities of the device with multiple tools and opportunities to use ICT to create a variety of teaching, in order to facilitate the learning of children, in particular children with SN;

• The animated function within training schemes, with special focus on treatments to problems with learning difficulties in children;

• To explore the way to permanent cooperation with parents, with the aim of unifying the attitudes and views concerning the treatment of children with SN.

Recommendations for teachers:

• Teachers need to implement differentiated teaching to achieve results satisfactory to all children;

• The problems of children in learning can be a reflection of inappropriate teaching practices;

• Teachers need to recognize, interests, styles, intelligences and difficulties of each child in the implementation of differentiated teaching, trusting in the abilities of each child;

• Teachers must be informed of the reasons of learning difficulties, type, characteristics of children with SN that can build successful strategies;

• Teachers should consult with pedagogical and psychological service for more in-depth knowledge of learning difficulties in children, as well as possibilities of successful treatment of learning difficulties;

• Apply the exchange of visits classes to exchange positive experiences in terms of learning difficulties

Recommendations for parents:

•   Parents must attend school more often in order to be aware of the problems and difficulties faced by their children in the learning process;

•   Parents should consult with teachers tutors and pedagogical-psychological service in order to inform about the situation of the child, as well as opportunities to help children overcome learning difficulties.

References

1.   Muka. P, Karaj. Dh, & Qela. L, (2002). Hyrje në mësimdhënien e diferncuar, Tiranë

2.   QTKA, (2005). Mësimdhënia me në qendër nxënësin (1), Geer, Tiranë

3.   Rraçi. A, Gashi. Sh, (2001). Doracak pune i përgatitjes me shkrim për orën mësimore, Prishtinë

4.   Mathews. B, Ross. L, (2010). Metodat e Hulumtimit, Tiranë

5.   Eco. U, (1997). Si bëhet një punim diplome, Tiranë

6.   Gjedia. R, (2010). Trajtimi i fëmijëve me vështirësi në të nxënë, Tiranë

7.   Tomlinson. C, A, (2005). Fulfilling the promise of the differentiated classrooms, ASCD, Virginia USA

8.   Woolfolk. A, (2011). Psikologji Edukimi, CDE

9.   Zabeli. N, (2004); Vështirsitë në të nxënë, PrishtinëGërliq Danko, Leksikoni i filozofëve (The lexicon of philosophers) „Rilindja", Prishtinë, 1986.

FATALISM – GEORGIAN CULTURAL MODEL

Tamar CHKHAIDZE*

Dimitri CHUBINIDZE

Elisabed GEGENAVA

*Correspondent Author: * Ivane Javakhishvili Tbilisi State University, tamochkhaide@gmail.com*

A b s t r a c t

Fatalism—belief that all events are predetermined and therefore inevitable—have been studied by researchers from different disciplines as it is a significant notion to explain various aspects of individual and social life (health behavior, economic capital, political activity, social participation, etc.). However, the weakness of using only etic methods to understand this complex phenomenon is strongly emphasized. We fully share this viewpoint and think that it is far more appropriate to study fatalism with an interdisciplinary approach such as Contemporary Psychological Anthropology. The aim of the present study was to emphasize the theoretical and methodological opportunities of studying fatalism within this field (specifically, within cultural models school) and presenting the results of the empirical study on the Georgian cultural model of fatalism in the light of the opportunities discussed.

The theoretical apparatus of the cultural models' school allowed us to think of culturally shaped fatalism, not only as an element of objective culture beyond the mind but also as a part of the mind, namely, as a cognitive schema formed on the basis of shared experiences. To reveal components of this schema we used the in-depth interview as a data collection method and cultural analysis of discourse (specifically, metaphor analysis) as the data analysis method. Personal control, Deity, Destiny, Luck, and Helplessness emerged as the components of Georgian cultural schema according to this analysis.

Introduction

Fatalism can be defined as "Belief that all events are predetermined and therefore inevitable" [lat. fatalis - fatal, deadly, predestined] ("Fatalism", 2019). Why study fatalism? Research has revealed that fatalism can play an important role in determining a wide range of behaviors such as voting behavior (Goodwin & Allen, 2000), seeking social support (Goodwin, et al., 2002), health behaviors (Straughan & Seow, 1998) and even financial savings decisions (Shapiro & Wu, 2011). In economic science, fatalism is regarded as one of the impeding factors to capital investment (Bernard, Dercon, & Taffesse, 2011). In his book, The Protestant Ethic and the Spirit of Capitalism (1905), the sociologist, philosopher, and political economist Max Weber emphasized the role of predestination (one of the basic concepts of Protestant ethics, specifically, Calvinism) beliefs in the formation of modern "economic human". This belief holds that God has preselected some people, who deserved salvation, for heaven. For the believers, the outward sign of election or being chosen for salvation is success achieved through conscientious effort. Accumulating wealth by working conscientiously is no longer considered a sin. Hence, Weber attributes an important role to shifts in worldviews or understandings in causing economic changes. He links the rise of capitalism in Europe with Protestantism, and the failure of the development of capitalism, for example, in India, with the fatalistic understandings characteristic of Hinduism. However, a question arises as to whether Weber analyzed the understandings from the perspective of a member of the culture or follower of a religion. For example, a German-American economist Kapp (1963) also relates poverty in India to Hinduistic fatalism. However, his works got criticized

by Indian scientists. They think Kapp's (1963) analysis relies on superficial interpretations of some theological texts, which link beliefs in fate with passivity (Young, Morris, Burrus, Krishnan, & Regmi, 2011).

With regard to this, Barrett and Keil's (1996) study results are interesting as well; the authors point out that everyday thoughts about the supreme power determining human life reflect folk beliefs, not abstract theology. Analyzing only theological texts can be a source of misunderstandings in this sense too. For quite a long time it was considered wrong to think that we can read people's minds from such texts. To understand how people's beliefs — with which they operate in everyday life — are formed through interacting with theological or cultural texts, a proper approach is necessary.

It's also an important challenge to analyze the following issue: while all religious or cultural traditions contain a notion of supreme power that determines people's lives, these traditions differ in terms of their conceptions of these powers. According to Norenzayan and Lee (2010), Asian Canadians are more fatalistic than European Canadians. Most importantly, their study has found qualitative differences between the various forms of fatalism: unlike Asian fatalism, Christian fatalism is more associated with devotion to a deity. Considering studies such as the above mentioned, it's not surprising that a number of authors (Acevedo, 2005; D'Orlando, Ferrante, & Ruiu, 2011; Ruiu, 2012) claim that fatalism is partially determined by culture. However, the main challenge is that in order to determine the role of culture in shaping fatalism, we need a definition of culture that will capture the link between culture and fatalistic beliefs (Ruiu, 2012).

We think this is precisely the kind of definition that contemporary psychological anthropology, specifically, the cultural models/schemas[1] school functioning within it, offers.

1. Cultural models

Suppose you have a software that can recognize or identify objects and events based on the particular patterned relations of their components, by simplifying the patterns. Basically, schemas are this sort of computer program: they allow the identification of objects and events on the basis of simplified pattern recognition. Our cultural schemas might vary in terms of their specificity or concreteness, so, we can have highly specific and concrete schemas for identifying material things like chairs or spoons, as

well as high-level schemas for understanding love, success, authority and other abstract phenomena, including fatalism (D'Andrade, 1992).

According to cognitive psychology[2] , the notion of a schema is most effective in describing the way human cognition operates flexibly. How is all this related to culture? Why did anthropologists, specifically, those in the cultural model school, get interested in the notion of schema? They drew attention to the schema as a mental structure that is shaped by experiences. As they suggest, it is logical to assume that a group of individuals that share similar experiences, must have a shared mental representations or schemas of the experiences too (Quinn, 2011). Using the example of the present study's domain of interest, fatalism, the experience gained through the interaction with so-called objective cultural products (cultural texts, practices, institutions) is represented in the form of cultural schemas in mind. Thus, the cultural model school responds to the above-mentioned problem related to Kapp's (1963) works, that it is not sufficient to focus on objective culture only; studying the interaction between cultural and mental processes is of great importance.

Within the approach of the cultural models school, relationship between culture and fatalistic beliefs is also clear: culture is defined as the collection of taken-for-granted assumptions (including fatalistic beliefs/assumptions) organized in mind in the form of schemas shaped on the basis of shared cultural experiences; people have the schemas shared with others and draw upon them in forming expectations, reasoning, telling stories, and performing other ordinary everyday tasks (Quinn, 2005).

2. Emic Approach

Differences regarding how fatalism is conceived within different cultures and religions, that is, the existence of different cultural models (Young, Morris, Burrus, Krishnan, & Regmi, 2011) should be taken into account when investigating the role of fatalism in different societies (Ruiu, 2013). So, it is relevant not only to study fatalism but also to refine the methodological tools to achieve it. We have found only a single study related to the issue of fatalism in our country, Georgia. It addresses the influence of fatalism on perceived social support and mental health in post-soviet countries (Russia, Georgia, Ukraine, and Belarus) (Goodwin, et al., 2002). This study showed the highest levels of fatalistic attitudes in Georgia. However, the researchers

---

[1] Cultural schema and cultural model are alternative terms. However, some authors prefer to use the notion of cultural model in order to denote the cultural schema of particular size (D'Andrade, 1995:152-153) or complexity (Quinn, 1997:139). In this paper we use them as interchangeable.

[2] It is important to note that cultural model school of contemporary psychological anthropology incorporates insights from cognitive anthropology and cognitive psychology (D'andrade & Strauss, 1992; Shore, 1996, Dressler, 2017).

emphasized the insufficiency of etic approach and the necessity to design a more culturally meaningful instrument.

To do this it is important to understand a culture from the "native's point of view" (Lu, 2012). This approach is referred to as the emic approach (Lu, 2012). Contemporary psychological anthropology stresses the necessity of using emic research instruments in addition to popular etic research methods. Thus, the relevance of this field for studying fatalism emerges not only from the complexity of theoretical approaches but also from its methodology.

3.   Research Methods

3.1. Data Collection Method and Sampling

How can   emic cultural understandings   be reconstructed? According to cultural models school, the most effective way to do it is a cultural analysis of discourse. Cultural analysis requires a reasonably extended sample of rich discourse (Quinn, 2005). To generate such rich talk, taking the experience of cultural models school into consideration, we have used the in-depth interview method as a data collection method. Interviewers used a pre-designed interview guide which underwent expert evaluation by two independent researchers of Georgian culture prior to the study. In order to ensure effective conditions for revealing the taken-for-granted cultural assumptions, the interviews were made maximally similar to ordinary everyday situations, conducted in as informal settings as possible.

After being informed about research objectives all respondents gave their consent and were free to withdraw from an interview process at any time. Interviews were conducted and transcribed in the Georgian language which is native for the respondents. The anonymity and confidentiality of data were guaranteed.

The quota sampling method was used to maximize diversity and to ensure that we had not accidentally captured a variant subculture (Strauss & Quinn, 1997). Study participants were 20 respondents who identified themselves as Georgians. Participants' ages ranged from 18 to 60 years. Interviewees were selected with regard to such obvious differences as their places of geographical origin (Interviews were conducted in 5 cities across Georgia: Tbilisi, Telavi, Batumi, Kutaisi, and Poti.), socio-economic status (from people with the status of socially vulnerable to people with high-income), educational attainment (from high school diploma to master's degree) and levels of religiosity (irreligious to highly religious) [3].

3.2. Data Analysis Method

Cultural analysis of discourse was chosen as the data analysis method, which means to reveal shared, stable understandings by analyzing the features of discourse that did occur frequently and are culture-laden (Quinn, 2005). For the present study, we have chosen metaphor[4] which is one of such features (Quinn, 2005). What determines the frequent use of methapors in everyday speech and how can its culture-laden nature be explained? Metaphor (from the Greek: metaphorá – to transfer, carry over) is a figure of speech in which an expression is used to refer to something that it does not literally denote by attributing the properties of one object (referred to as source domain) to another in order to suggest a similarity. These objects are widely acknowledged exemplars (referred to as cultural exemplars) of those aspects of experience they are being made to stand for. Because the speaker and listener intersubjectively share an exemplar, both knowing what it exemplifies, the chosen metaphor ensures clarifying the point of the speaker for the listener, and consequently propels the tendency using it regularly (Strauss & Quinn, 1997).

The method of looking at metaphors as indicators of schemas was first developed by George Lakoff and Mark Johnson (1980), however, according to these authors, metaphors create cultural schemas whereas contemporary psychological anthropologist think metaphors don't create but only reflect underlying cultural schemas (Strauss & Quinn, 1997). To reveal schemas, they suggest the methods of metaphor categorization. The authors emphasize that it is specifically the revealed categories that the respondents share widely among each other, not the metaphors within each category. In fact, the latter might vary from individual to individual, as well as for the same respondent on different occasions.

Following contemporary psychological anthropologists (Strauss & Quinn, 1997; Quinn, 2005) , we took these categories of metaphors to reflect components of a cultural schema of fatalism that was implicitly used by our interviewees.

4.   Results

Data analysis revealed the following components of the Georgian cultural schema of fatalism: Personal Control, Deity, Destiny, Luck and Helplessness.

---

[3] A 5-point scale was used with 1 meaning "non-religious" and 5 "highly religious". All religious respondents were Orthodox Christians. It is important to note that the majority (89%) of

ethnic Georgians belong to the Orthodox Christian church (Pew Research Center, May 10, 2017)

[4] Metaphor is used in the broad sense of the term, as an equivalent to trope. Trope involves words or phrases used with a figurative meaning.

4.1. Personal Control

One set of shared understandings revealed in the conversations with our respondents were understandings related to personal control. It needs to be emphasized that personal control is represented as a continuum with the lack of personal control at one end[5] and the high level of personal control as the other.

One metaphor within the personal control category is working. The source domain of the metaphor is field of work experience. Considering Georgian history, it is plausible to presume that the characteristic field for Georgian culture is land cultivation/farming[6].

Metaphorical phrases express the ideas of growth, development, and sophistication through effort, gaining control over events at the expense of changing oneself:

"Very few people are born with inborn talent... If a person doesn't work on himself/herself, he/she might not achieve anything";

"In order to achieve success, you should make some time for it and work on yourself every day."

Interestingly, the same understanding was expressed by another respondent who believed in astrology, which makes it even more reasonable to assume that we're dealing with the shared underlying conception.

> I think astrology helps you to *work* on the given aspects on your birth chart in a way that helps you become a successful person. A person who has harmonious aspects, for example, that he is industrious, diligent... suppose, he was born in a wealthy family, he might be less successful, than a person who has disharmonious elements in his chart[7] because he has to *work* more, *struggle* more. Those who *struggle* more, achieve more.

The personal control component involves fight-related metaphors which were also shared among the respondents:

> "You shouldn't *surrender* (literally, to put your sword and shield on the ground as a sign of surrender to the enemy to) your destiny; you should *fight* and something will come out of it";

> "If you *surrender* and think, 'everything is destined so I'm not going to do anything', you will *die as a slave*."

These metaphors manifested themselves in the discourse presumably because the field of fight or wars constitutes a Georgian cultural exemplar. Due to its geopolitical location, throughout the history of Georgia, Georgians were often confronted with the necessity of dealing with the attacks of enemies.

Along with the metaphors expressing direct personal control, the interviews also showed shared metaphors indicating indirect personal control. "In indirect personal control, individuals hide or play down their agency by pretending that they are not acting as an agent while they are actually doing so" (Yamaguchi, 2001, p.227).

Such metaphorical expressions were *"intuition"* and *"cunningness"* (craftiness / being devious). The original Georgian word is not exactly intuition but algho/ალღო which stands for a specific aptitude or ability of quickly understanding something, for example, grasping a particular situation and knowing what to do in it, usually based on your feelings rather than examining facts. The second meaning the word carries is for animals – instinct or scent detection skills.

> "[To achieve success] You need *cunningness and intuition/algho*."

> "I have a strong *intuition/algho*, it doesn't take me much to know a man, I can tell a trustworthy person from an untrustworthy one easily."

---

[5] In certain cases, the respondents highlight the lack of personal control in Georgian people: "Georgians don't *calculate* anything and are surprised at the end of the month (the end of payroll period, usually Georgian payroll is monthly) 'where has all the money gone?'... They don't plan anything ahead of time. You shouldn't live *counting on* your fate only. You shouldn't live only *with the hope* that you will win the lottery tomorrow and so it's okay if you waste all you've got today." "He doesn't try to do something... My neighbors come to my mind now... they *spend all day* playing backgammon."

[6] Materials about the spiritual culture of Georgian tribes can be found in the form of ancient cult items which suggest that mythology and religious beliefs of these tribes correspond to the worldview of land-cultivating tribes. Ancient Georgian myths involve symbols of seasonal death and revival of nature, land fertility and bumper harvest. Sacral acts of procreation, fertility, and prosperity are depicted in the cult items. Ethnographic works show a diversity of labor management, working tools optimally adjusted to local natural geographical environment, methods of labor production, and cultivated plants in Georgian ethnic groups (ბასილაია, 2006)

[7] 7 Natal chart or the personal astrological chart that can be drawn up for each individual depicting the configuration of planets at his/her birth supposedly determining his/her personality, energy, focus or course of life

"The product might be of poor quality but you can *wrap* and *present* it in a way that will sell the product."

Revealing this conception in our discourses is consistent with the findings of a recent study of Georgian proverbial expressions and cultural models of adaptive behavior according to which *strategic elasticity* is a culturally specific behavioral strategy (ჭუბინიძე, 2018).

The interviewees have also used metaphorical expressions conveying the concept of proxy control. This means control by someone else for the benefit of the person (Yamaguchi, 2001):

"It's difficult in this country... unless someone gives you a *helping hand*."

High prevalence of indirect and proxy control is characteristic of the cultures where interpersonal harmony is highly valued and direct personal control of the environment is undesirable (Yamaguchi, 2001). These cultural differences are well reflected in the differences between individualistic and collectivistic forms of control. These forms correspond in content with the prominent classifications of agency: individual versus collective agency (Menon, Morris, Chiu, & Hong, 1999) and disjoint versus conjoint agency (Markus & Kitayama, 2003) distinctions.

Explicably, the notion of agency is often identified with Western philosophy. From the western philosophical perspective, behavior doesn't emerge by itself but always implies the existence of an agent or initiation of action by the agent. In this view, the agency is understood as exclusively characteristic of an individual. However, Markus and Kitayama (2003) argue, this understanding fails to capture agency comprehensively enough since it has been created and is maintained in the context of and by the meanings and practices of middle-class European Americans. This is just one of the existing models[8] of the agency; it is referred to as a disjoint agency model.

The experience of agency is present not only in the disjoint agency model but also in the context of conjoint agency, however, in a different form: meeting others' expectations and obligations can be perceived as giving rise to and enhancing one's motivation, not as pressure. Therefore, as Markus and Kitayama (2003) point out, this is not a low-level agency but just a different model of agency.

In our study, the sense of conjoint/collective agency was conveyed by metaphors expressing connection:

"[Achieving success] requires not only working but also forming some *connections* and creating a proper environment, which in turn, requires a lot of time."

"It's very difficult to be unemployed but it doesn't mean that... you understand, right?... My family members *stand by me*.

„When you are friends with someone... it's not forced. This is something based *on mutual understanding* and something you do for free."

The agency classification authors point out that conjoint agency is more prevalent in collectivistic cultures (Menon, Morris, Chiu, & Hong, 1999; Markus & Kitayama, 2003). However, it is important to note that these works exclusively[9] separates "individualism" from "collectivism" which, to take into consideration the conceptual and measurement problems of cross-cultural research paradigm, can be considered as theoretically meaningless (Guimarães, 2019; Huang, Bedford, & Zhang, 2018; Omi, 2012; Tripathi & Leviatan, 2003). Unlike Cross-Cultural Psychology, Cultural Psychology, especially Cultural Psychology of Semiotic Mediation emphasizes that it is more meaningful to move from exclusive separation ("individualism OR collectivism") to inclusive separation ("individualism AND collectivism") (Valsiner , 2019). This approach is also confirmed by our data of Georgian respondents in which disjoint and conjoint agencies do not exclude each other but coexist.

The following quotation below shows that together with a metaphor expressing conjoint agency ("stand by someone") stands a metaphor of success achieved through personal effort ("I wouldn't be here").

"My parents *stood by me* when I needed to study, they paid for my education. But if not all those sleepless nights spent working, I *wouldn't be here* " (I wouldn't be able to achieve what I am now)".

The following quotation shows ambivalent feelings about consuming collective resources: on the one hand, feeling uncomfortable when getting helped out and on the other hand, when adopting the perspective of a helper who gives, considering such an attitude unacceptable.

---

[8] It's noteworthy that when using the term model they rely on the theories of cultural models (Holland & Quinn, 1987; Shore, 1996) and social representation (Moscovici, 2001).

[9] There are two possible ways in which phenomena can be separated: mutually exclusively (A is not non-A) and mutually inclusively (A is not non-A but A relates with non-A and vice versa) (Valsiner, 2014)

On the inside, I feel stressed thinking of how much he/she put himself/herself out, how much he/she *gave so much* away for me... but at the same time, I don't want to tell them "you shouldn't have bothered doing this much for me" because I would feel offended if someone told me "you didn't have to bother so much" because if I do something like this, I'm completely enthusiastic about it and *I put my whole heart and soul into* doing it.

The next two components might demonstrate the relevance of the approach of mutual inclusivity even better.

4.2. Deity & Destiny

Two types of fatalism can be distinguished: cosmological and structural (Acevedo, 2005). The first comes from Weber, according to whom, fatalism originates from notions of external forces affecting individual, such as laws of karma, diabolical spirits, divine predestination, stellar constellations, cycles of rebirth and so forth (Ruiu, 2012). The differences between various cosmological doctrines are best summarized in the Oedipus principle (or Destiny) versus the Job principle (or Deity) distinction (Young, Morris, Burrus, Krishnan, & Regmi, 2011; Fortes, 2018).

Oedipus is a righteous and noble man who exiles on his own will to get rid of murdering his caring and devoted father, however, he failed to escape predestination (Fortes, 2018). Thus, the Oedipus principle holds that individuals are born with predetermined destinies they cannot escape (Young, Morris, Burrus, Krishnan, & Regmi, 2011). The catastrophe of Oedipus is caused by the reasons that "lie hid deep in the nature of God and man[10]," not by any fault of his (Lucas, 1950, as cited in Fortes, 2018).

A completely different understanding of human nature and morality is suggested by Job's story[11] . It doesn't propose

supernatural forces mysteriously determining an individual's life course from birth to death. Instead, the good and evil that one receives in their life, is considered rewards and punishments given by a personified omnipotent god. But god's actions are not arbitrary, impulsive or unpredictable. Instead, they are restricted by the covenant with his creature. Practically, this is a relationship based on a contract in which god is obliged to act justly and man has freedom of choosing between righteousness and sin (Fortes, 2018).

The conceptions of the Job principle were expressed by the respondents using the following metaphors: "punishment", "pass the test", "walk the path" (similar meaning was expressed by "taking a step" – in the right or wrong direction), "human relationships" (relating to a human-like creature), "babysitter" (represents the watchful, responsive deity of the Job principle) (Young, Morris, Burrus, Krishnan, & Regmi, 2011). These metaphors make up the Deity component of the schema.

> "I have committed a big sin, for which I *got punished* with being left without a family".

> "How we *pass the test* or how we *walk the path*, determines our future"

> "[A person's fate is determined] exactly the *way we relate to one another*. For example, I hurt you, but then I helped you a lot and so we ended up with a *great relationship* formed between us."

> "A comedian said Christ is a free (free as not paid) *babysitter:* when someone is told he/she is being watched, he/she won't do bad deeds".

Interestingly, metaphors corresponding to the Oedipus principle have also been revealed in the interviews. They constitute the Destiny component of the fatalism schema. One such metaphor

---

[10] The Oedipus principle, the cosmic belief about destiny, is characteristic of Hinduism. At the heart of this model is samsara, the cycle of birth and death, through which souls are reborn with predestined fortunes which are determined, respectively, by positive or negative deeds in their previous lives. Importantly, there is not a universally agreed upon view with regard to the gods' role in determining one's karma in ancient texts. The Brahma Sutras highlight the role of God's in dispensing destined fortunes. According to other Hindu schools, however, even gods can't intervene in predetermined karma. The inability of gods to overpower a person's destiny is illustrated in a folktale: Lakshmi, the wealth goddess, is pleading with Vishnu, her husband, to help a beggar. Vishnu responds that it is pointless because "the beggar has nothing in his karma...He has done nothing virtuous and therefore deserves nothing" (Shweder & Miller, 1991, p. 158). Eventually Vishnu agrees on putting money under a tree, but the beggar failed to see the money right before him. This folktale shows that nothing can overcome a person's destiny (in this case to be poor), even

the intervention of gods (Young, Morris, Burrus, Krishnan, & Regmi, 2011).
[11] The Job's story is one of a suffering righteous man whose friends visit him when they learn about his troubles. They engage in cycles of conversations (Job 3-27), where his friends advice Job to admit his guilt and return his happiness by asking God's forgiveness. Job rejects their advice and arguments. He thinks his afflictions are not related to his sins, because he hasn't committed any. However, eventually he admits having imagined himself as equal to god and entitling himself to judge what constitutes righteous or wicked conduct. This was exactly his sin. Fortes (2018) compares the sufferings of Job to paternal disciplinary punishment of his son's misconduct, and Job's salvation to his acceptance of the supremacy of the father and his filial dependence. This means realization of the benevolence of the father's intentions and the acceptance of the paternal authority with even when it involves severe measures of discipline.

is "being born under a star". According to ethnographic works, one of the most widespread beliefs in Georgia is that at the moment when a person is born a new star named after him/her appears in the sky (აბაკელია, 1997). The respondents have been using this metaphor to convey the idea that a person's life is predetermined at his/her birth:

> "I firmly believe in fate: under what *kind of star you are born*. Some people achieve everything so easily, some with so much difficulty".

In expressing the notion referred to as the *equifinality* principle of fate attributions (Norenzayan & Lee, 2010) that regardless of preceding events, the outcome is overdetermined and fixed in advance, the respondents have been using the expressions of "slave" and "return back":

> "You are a *slave* to your fate".

> "You might get rid of an unfortunate incident but it might *return back* to you after a short time in a different form".

A metaphorical expression "tsera"/წერა (literally can be roughly translated as "writing") is also used within the Destiny component of fatalism schema of the Georgian respondents:

> "No matter where you go, you can't avoid what's *written*/დაწერილია for you anyway".

> "It's like everything is *written*/დაწერილია in advance".

The personification of fate in the Georgian myth-ritual system is represented by bedismtserlebi/ბედისმწერლები (singular bedismtserali, with bedi meaning fate, mtserali – writer) — "writers of fate", "fate-writers" or "fate-authors" who often are portrayed as elderly women dressed in black (აბაკელია, 1997). It's interesting that another word for bedi (fate) in the Georgian language is bedistsera/ბედისწერა. Ethnographic works propose in Georgian tradition bedismtserlebi (writers of fate) are at the same time weavers or knitters too (sporadic hints can be traced in some rituals like tying thread on the wrist, neck, or around the waist, აბაკელია, 1997). On the one hand, such threads or strings might have served a protective function (against evil), but on the other hand, they might have been supposed to tie desirable qualities (longevity, wisdom, etc.) to a person (აბაკელია, 1997). In our study, we have also seen respondents using metaphorical expressions like „tied fate" ("I don't know what ties my fate") and

"untied fate" (In Georgia getting married is considered untying/opening your fate) which, according to the Georgian ethnographic works, also indicate to a link with the thread of fate (აბაკელია, 1997).

As we've seen, our study has revealed the conceptions of both Deity and Destiny. It is also interesting having revealed such a pattern of coexistence of these conceptions in which predetermination, invariability of one's fate independent of their actions (the Oedipal principle) is related to the notion of a personified god (the Job principle):

> "Religion acknowledges fate but the *bedismtserali/ბედისმწერალი* (writer of fate / fate-writer) is god."

> "God came to my mind because everyone thinks that god *writes/წერს* [the fate]."

The phrase cited in the above quotation —"everyone thinks"— might be suggesting perceived sharedness of this conception. The subsequent quotation shows how the inevitable destiny implied by the Oedipus principle might be determined by a god's punishment (the Job principle), not only in a given individual's life but also in his offspring's lives too.

> When he was born, it was with his fate *written* and *assigned* at birth, but you know what I think? ... There used to be a church near here which they destroyed later. I think, when you burn or destroy the house of God it will then result in some consequences. God is *merciful* but I think if one does such deeds, something is bound to go wrong in his life and those of his offspring.

In addition to this, the interviews showed that different strategies for managing future risk corresponding to Deity and Destiny beliefs can also coexist. Young et al. (2011) note, that in the Hindu model of Destiny, since one's fate is predetermined, it is possible to learn (at least to some extent) about the future in advance, however, not for an ordinary layperson, but for psychics, seers or soothsayers only. Because the samsara system is connected with the stars, astrologists can foresee an individual's fortunes too. In contrast, it is impossible to forecast the influences of supernatural powers years in advance in the Christian cosmology of Deity since in this model the fatalistic influences don't stem from predictable cosmic predetermination but from the changing perceptions, emotions, or intentions of a person-like deity. Accordingly, this leads to the perception of praying to god

as an effective strategy. King David, for example, often communicates to god with prayers (Psalms).

As we mentioned above, for managing future risks both strategies were expressed by our respondents:

> "They go to fortune-tellers/soothsayers, they spread the Tarot; my close friends go to them too. They try to persuade me to visit them too."

> "Lots of people around me believe in fortune-tellers / soothsayers."

> "I used to read tarot cards myself."

> "Deep inside my heart, I believe prayer has power."

> "When my mother makes the sign of the cross on me as I'm leaving home, this gives me power".

> "I get distracted but I'm afraid of not praying. It can't be skipped."
>
> "Astrology is created by god too".

It's interesting that the coexistence of the Oedipus' and Job's principles in West African religion is also emphasized by a South African-born anthropologist, Meyer Fortes (2018). According to him, the Oedipus and Job principles represent two main alternatives for dealing with difficulties and hazards on the way of a person making progress from the state of complete dependence (as a newborn at the mother's breast) to the state of independence (albeit constrained) as an adult or citizen[12] . It's a law of nature that certain people fail at becoming a full-fledged member of society. To interpret, give moral value, and control the problematic situation resulted from such failures in the individual, they use the beliefs and rituals that are focused on the notion of Oedipal destiny. However, most people succeed in the task of becoming social persons as long as they can bear with the unpredictability of dangers and rewards. To give moral value to this latter experience, the religious system of West Africa also involves personified supernatural figures (a simplified version of Job's god) which are analogous to parents' authority (Fortes, 2018).

4.3. Helplessness

It is impossible to affect life situations in a way that that results in changing the outcomes — is another shared understanding revealed in the discourses of Georgian respondents. This is a case of structural fatalism, not cosmological fatalism discussed above. Acevedo (2008) argues that fatalism is not a direct result of religious denomination, it comes from historical, cultural, economic and sociopolitical processes too, so for fuller understanding of this phenomenon he suggests not to abandon Cosmological for Structural or vice versa, instead, appropriate both formulations in the development of a multidimensional model of fatalism. The definition of structural fatalism is proposed by Durkheim for whom fatalism may stem from structural conditions such as inequality or extreme over-regulation. His idea that a more regulated society tends to be also more fatalistic is supported by research data[13] (Ruiu, 2012; Ruiu, 2013).

It is emphasized that structural fatalism is linked to the sense of powerless/helplessness produced by "over regulation combined with a lack of exit option into the collective body in which the subject lacks the necessary voice and/or exit option to alter their social position, status, rank, or living conditions" (Acevedo 2005a, p. 75 as cited in Esparza, Wiebe, & Quiñones, 2015). In our study too, the helplessness component of the cultural model of fatalism incorporated metaphors expressing the shared conceptions of the impossibility of causing change and lack of mechanisms for having control over the course of events.

> "As the saying goes, money *goes* to money."

> "People are *resigned* to defeat and they don't try... "*Nobody's there for a peasant*", you've heard of it, haven't you[14] …"

It is important to note that Durkheim's (1968:276 as cited in Acevedo, 2005) empirical example of fatalism that is experienced by "very young husbands [and] the married woman who is childless" shows that his structural fatalism concept does not point only the material sources of regulation that impact social actor. Durkheim expands his concept beyond the economic realm to include more micro-level domains of social life, such as marriage and child bearing (Acevedo, 2005).

---

[12] He considers all beliefs and concepts found in studying West African religion as magnified and disguised religious extrapolations of the experiences produced by parental relationships with children in kinship and descent based societies.
[13] However, it is possible that higher fatalistic tendencies lead to higher demand of protection and therefore, higher level of regulation or, on the contrary, it may be that regulation itself

generates fatalistic tendencies. So, the possibility of reverse causality is not eliminated (D'Orlando et al., 2011). Ruiu (2012) argues that if institutions are the expression of the preferences of the members of a society (at least in democratic societies), the first explanation seems to be more plausible.
[14] We believe, the phrase *"you've heard of it, haven't you"* said by respondents to interviewers that are representatives of their own, same indigenous culture suggests sharedness of the conception under discussion.

This broader understanding of the concept was taken into account in Ruiu's (2013) study also; To measure to what extent a society is regulated, the researchers used not only a country-level indicator[15] that evaluates the extent of state control over travel, choice of residence, employment or institution of higher education, the right of citizens to own property and establish private businesses, the private business' freedom, security forces, political parties or organized crime, but also gender equality, freedom of choice of marriage partners and size of family.

The respondents of our study also discussed social pressures, such as pressure to get married, and having to take other people's opinions into account in choosing a partner and the like.

> My father had two professions: at first, he was a physics teacher and then he became a constructor. We (his children) chose construction faculty and physics — my father's professions. My mother wanted us to become doctors very much but we didn't want to, so, in that, we went in the direction of following our father's advice. On the other hand, we fulfilled her wish to have doctors as daughters-in-law. I pleased my mother.

> "Others think that the time came for me to get married."

> "They forced me to get married."

> If I were born and had lived in another country, I would have achieved a lot. I don't mean career, knowledge and such-like; I would be more grown as a person... [What prevented you from it here?] Clearly social, economic, stereotypical attitudes [prevented me from it here]... But now that I'm getting older, I don't pay attention to some things, I still try to maintain my autonomy, but the social *pressure* is huge. I think it even intervenes in your thinking; when you don't have exposure to anything different for some period of time, you can't hear something different, can't see something different, I think, you're bound to *think inside that box*, independently of your will.

4.4. Luck

The Luck component incorporated shared understanding that in addition to taking rational actions ("use your head", "measure twice, cut once"), one's course of life is governed by something else too. This is what the respondents refer to as luck. With regard to being an individual characteristic as opposed to being an external event not dependent on a person, luck is described equivocally. On the one hand, they describe it as an individual characteristic which is assigned to a person at birth. The metaphorical expression kudbediani/ქუდბედიანი is used to talk about the shared conception of luck ("some people are born with kudbedi"). kudbediani is a compound word consisting of the base-words kud (meaning a hat) and bediani (meaning lucky or literally having bedi; bedi means luck, fortune, fate). It's interesting that kudbedi referred to fetal membrane surrounding a newborn. Children are born with this membrane rarely, so it was an anomalous event which used to create an unusually strong impression even in the recent past, let alone in the far more distant past when unexplained phenomena, as supernatural and mysterious, had been causing fear and terror in people. An extraordinary event for them was a sign portending something, either good or bad. Taking it as a sign of good luck (rather than bad fortune) might be due to the tendency of seeing phenomena in a self-favorable manner (ომიაძე, 2006). And why precisely 'kudi'/hat? A child is born with a head and so it is logical that the first impression is as if she/he is wearing a hat (ომიაძე, 2006).

On the other hand, luck is described not as an individual characteristic but as a sequence of external events, independent of a person, that brings good to him/her.

> "She achieved success, got married, got rich, got a job, everything at the same time. Luck was never on her side before but then suddenly *everything worked out well.*"

> "As I said, 'having a good fortune' means that your *life goes well" / things in your life work out well*."

The revealed distinction between two understandings of luck in our interviews corresponds to an existing classification that categorizes luck beliefs in two types: fleeting luck and stable luck. Fleeting luck belief views luck as a product of situational happenstance, while stable luck belief considers it as a constant trait (Chen & Young, 2018). It is important to note that people see stable luck as an extra personal asset that they can use anytime

---

[15] The source of this indicator is the Personal Autonomy and Individual Rights index furnished by Freedom House (2006). The ratings of Georgia in 2019 repeat the ratings of 2006. Freedom Rating –3 Political Rights –3 Civil Liberties 3 (1=Most Free, 7=Least Free); 2009 Aggregate Freedom Score is 63 (100=Most Free, 0=Least Free).

they want and this perception makes them more agentic (Young, Chen, & Morris, 2009). However, as we mentioned above, perceptions of agency and practices are culture-specific. For instance, having agency in the American culture usually means that you do not need superstition as a coping strategy to collect good luck, but in Asian cultures, a person's sense of agency is associated with a greater propensity for superstition (Chen & Young, 2018). How it is possible? As we mentioned above, Americans are more likely to have a belief in individual agency, whereas Asians are more likely to support the idea of collective agency (a belief that social collectives can help obtain desired outcomes) (Menon, Morris, Chiu, & Hong, 1999). In these contexts, such collectives may include not only human actors but also non-human actors, such as deities or animals (Morris, Menon, & Ames, 2001) and people often use superstitions to seek the favor of such non-human actors (Thompson, 1978 as cited in Chen & Young, 2018).

The idea of using superstitions for managing one's luck combined with the sense of agency was expressed in our interviews too. The Georgian respondents mentioned that sometimes they perform superstitious rituals in order to obtain desired outcomes.

"I tell them to pour water on the salt thrown."

Salt thrown is perceived as an ominous sign. According to this superstition, if salt is thrown on the floor, it portends a fight/argument. Throwing water on it might be an attempt to avoid predicted negative consequences.

"These clothes bring *luck to me*/kargad makvs datsdili/კარგად მაქვს დაცდილი"

The original Georgian expression kargad/tsudad makvs datsdili/კარგად/ცუდად მაქვს დაცდილი doesn't seem to have an exact English corresponding phrase. kargad/tsudad datsdili (with the base-word tsda/ცდა meaning to try, to experience, to test as a verb or trial, attempt, observation as a noun) roughly means tested and tried, well-tried, probed and refers to generalized superstitious beliefs based on previous experience about something (an action, place, object, person etc.) bringing positive, desirable (კარგად დაცდილი with კარგი meaning good) or negative, undesirable (ცუდად დაცდილი with ცუდი meaning bad) outcomes.

The revealed combination of stable luck, sense of agency and the propensity for superstition demonstrates that the associations among the beliefs may be culture-specific and consequently,

suggests once again the importance of the emic approach to the study of such a multidimensional phenomenon as fatalism.

5. Conclusions

Given its complexity, studying fatalism is relevant to researchers in behavioral or social sciences, as well as researchers interested in cultural, economic or political issues. Studies on fatalism in Georgia are scarce; besides, even for the authors of the studies conducted it is evident that studying fatalism properly is impossible using etic research instruments only.

Taking these difficulties into consideration, the aim of the present study was to emphasize the theoretical and methodological opportunities of studying fatalism within the frames of contemporary psychological anthropology, specifically, cultural models school and presenting the results of the empirical study on Georgian cultural model of fatalism using these opportunities. The theoretical apparatus of the cultural models school allowed us to think of culturally shaped fatalism, not only as an element of objective culture beyond the mind, but also as a part of mind, namely, as a cognitive schema formed on the basis of shared experiences. Discourse cultural analysis —more specifically, metaphor analysis—of the in-depth interview data revealed the following components of the Georgian cultural schema: Personal control, Deity, Destiny, Helplessness and Luck. The disclosure of these components/dimensions shared among the Georgian respondents allowed us to reconstruct emic cultural understanding of fatalism.

The etic instruments—so favored in social and behavioral science disciplines nowadays— are not defined by the terms that respondents themselves use to talk about a particular phenomenon (fatalism, love, happiness, etc.). In other words, they lack the "emic validity" (Dressler & Oths, 2014). The present study was an attempt to deal with this methodological challenge. Revealing emic components/dimensions of fatalism using metaphor analysis was the first step. The aim of the subsequent study will be studying the interrelationships among these dimensions using propositional analysis (Quinn, 2005). The verification of the revealed Georgian cultural model of fatalism by determining consensus levels for each proposition using cultural consensus analysis (Romney, Batchelder, & Weller, 1987) and measuring the level of cultural consonance (the degree to which individuals put cultural models into practice in their own everyday lives, Dressler, 2017) are following important steps to build emically valid instrument for studying fatalism. With this, we would like to stress once again that only instruments created this way—following the basic anthropological directive of the prominent anthropologist Bronislaw Malinowski: to see the

world as others see it (Dressler, 2017)—¬provides an opportunity for comprehensive understanding such a complex phenomenon as fatalism.

References

1. Acevado, G. (2008). Islamic fatalism and the clash of civilizations: An appraisal of a contentious and dubious theory. Social Forces, 86(4), pp. 1711-1752. https://doi.org/10.1353/sof.0.0033

2. Acevedo, G. (2005). Turning anomie on its head: fatalism as Durkheim's concealed and multidimensional alienation theory. Sociological Theory, 23(1), pp. 75-85. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.0735-2751.2005.00243.x

3. Barrett, J., & Keil, F. (1996). Conceptualizing a nonnatural entity: Anthropomorphism in God concepts. Cognitive Psychology, 31, pp. 219–247. DOI: 10.1006/cogp.1996.0017

4. Bernard, T., Dercon, S., & Taffesse, A. (2011). Beyond fatalism-an empirical exploration of self-efficacy and aspirations failure in Ethiopia.

5. Chen, N., & Young, M. (2018). The Relationship Between Belief in Stable Luck and a Propensity for Superstition: The Influence of Culturally Conferred Agency Beliefs. Journal of Cross-Cultural Psychology, 49(7), pp. 1098-1113. https://doi.org/10.1177/0022022118777296

6. D'Orlando, F., Ferrante, F., & Ruiu, G. (2011). Culturally based beliefs and labor market institutions. The Journal of Socio-Economics, 40(2), pp. 150-162. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.socec.2010.12.010

7. D'Andrade, R. (1992). Schemas and motivation. In R. D'Andrade, & C. Strauss, Human motives and cultural models (pp. 23–44). Cambridge University Press.

8. D'andrade, R. G., & Strauss, C. (1992). Human motives and cultural models. Cambridge University Press.

9. Dressler, W. (2017). Culture and the individual: Theory and method of cultural consonance. Routledge.

10. Dressler, W. W., & Oths, K. S. (2014). Social survey methods. In H. R. Bernard & C. C. Gravlee (Eds.), Handbook of methods in cultural anthropology (2nd ed., pp. 497–515). Lanham, MD:AltaMira Press.

11.

12. Esparza, O., Wiebe, J., & Quiñones, J. (2015). Simultaneous development of a multidimensional fatalism measure in English and Spanish. Current Psychology 34(4), pp. 597-612. https://doi.org/10.1007/s12144-014-9272-z

13. Fatalism. (2019). In Lexico dictionary. Retrieved from https://www.lexico.com/en/definition/fatalism

14. Fortes, M. (2018). Oedipus and Job in West African religion: The 1956 Frazer Lecture. HAU: Journal of Ethnographic Theory, 8(1-2), pp. 394-413. https://doi.org/10.1086/698432

15. Goodwin, R., & Allen, P. (2000). Democracy and Fatalism in the Former Soviet Union 1. Journal of Applied Social Psychology, 30(12), pp. 2558-2574. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1559-1816.2000.tb02450.x

16. Goodwin, R., Allen, P., Nizharadze, G., Emelyanova, T., Dedkova, N., Saenko, Y., & Bugrova, I. (2002). Fatalism, social support, and mental health in four former Soviet cultures. Personality and Social Psychology Bulletin, 28(9), pp. 1166-1171. https://doi.org/10.1177/01461672022812002

17. Guimarães, D. (2019). Towards a cultural revision of psychological concepts. Culture & Psychology 25(2), pp. 135–145. https://doi.org/10.1177/1354067X18820632

18. Holland, D., & Quinn, N. (1987). Cultural models in language and thought. Cambridge University Press.

19. Huang, Y., Bedford, O., & Zhang, Y. (2018). The relational orientation framework for examining culture in Chinese societies. Culture & Psychology, 24(4), pp. 477–490. https://doi.org/10.1177/1354067X17729362

20. Kapp, K. (1963). Hindu culture, economic development and social planning in India. Asia Publishing House.

21. Lakoff, G., & Johnson, M. (1980). Metaphors we live by. University of Chicago press. Chicago, IL.

22. Lu, L. (2012). Etic or emic? Measuring culture in international business research. International Business Research, 5(5), p. 109. https://doi:10.5539/ibr.v5n5p109

23. Markus, H. R., & Kitayama, S. (2003). Models of agency: Sociocultural diversity in the construction of action. In V. Murphy-Berman & J. J. Berman (Eds.), Vol. 49 of the Nebraska symposium on motivation. Cross-cultural differences in perspectives on the self (p. 18–74). University of Nebraska Press.

24. Menon, T., Morris, M., Chiu, C., & Hong, Y. (1999). Culture and the construal of agency: Attribution to individual versus group dispositions. Journal of personality and social psychology, 76(5), pp. 701-717. DOI: 10.1037/0022-3514.76.5.701

25. Morris, M., Menon, T., & Ames, D. (2001). Culturally conferred conceptions of agency: A key to social perception of persons, groups, and other actors. Personality and Social Psychology Review, 5(2), pp. 169-182. https://doi.org/10.1207/S15327957PSPR0502_7

26. Moscovici, S. (2001). Social representations: Essays in social psychology. NYU Press.

27. Norenzayan, A., & Lee, A. (2010). It was meant to happen: explaining cultural variations in fate attributions.

Journal of personality and social psychology, 98(5), p. 702. DOI: 10.1037/a0019141

28. Omi, Y. (2012). Collectivistic individualism: Transcending a traditional opposition. Culture & Psychology 18(3), pp. 403–416. https://doi.org/10.1177/1354067X12446232

29. Pew Research Center (May 10, 2017). Religious Belief and National Belonging in Central and Eastern Europe [Report]. Retrieved from http://assets.pewresearch.org/wp-content/uploads/sites/11/2017/05/15120244/CEUP-FULL-REPORT.pdf.

30. Quinn, N. (2005). Finding culture in talk: A collection of methods. New York: Palgrave Macmillan.

31. Quinn, N. (2011). The History of the Cultural Models School Reconsidered: A Paradigm Shift in Cognitive Anthropology. In D. B. Kronenfeld, M. Bennardo, V. De Munck, & M. Fischer, A companion to cognitive anthropology (pp. 30-46). Chichester: Wiley-Blackwell.

32. Romney, A., Batchelder, W., & Weller, S. (1987). Recent applications of cultural consensus theory. American Behavioral Scientist, 31(2), pp. 163-177. https://doi.org/10.1177/000276487031002003

33. Ruiu, G. (2012). Is fatalism a cultural belief? An empirical analysis on the origin of fatalistic tendencies. https://mpra.ub.uni-muenchen.de/41705/

34. Ruiu, G. (2013). The origin of fatalistic tendencies: An empirical investigation. Economics & Sociology, 6(2), pp. 103-125. DOI:10.14254/2071-789X.2013/6-2/10

35. Shapiro, J., & Wu, S. (2011). Fatalism and savings. The Journal of Socio-Economics, 40(5), pp. 645-651. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.socec.2011.05.003

36. Shore, B. (1996). Culture in Mind: Cognition, Culture, and the. Problem of Meaning. New York: Oxford University Press.

37. Shweder, R., & Miller, J. (1991). The social construction of the person: How is it possible? In R. A. (Ed.), Thinking through cultures: Expeditions in cultural psychology (pp. 156–195). Cambridge, MA: Harvard University Press.

38. Strauss, C., & Quinn, N. (1997). A Cognitive Theory of Cultural Meaning. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

39. Straughan, P., & Seow, A. (1998). Fatalism reconceptualized: a concept to predict health screening behavior. Journal of Gender, Culture and Health, 3(2), pp. 85-100. https://doi.org/10.1023/A:1023278230797

40. Tripathi, R., & Leviatan, U. (2003). Individualism and collectivism: In search of a product or process? Culture &

Psychology, 9(1), pp. 79–88. DOI: 10.1177/1354067X03009001005

41. Valsiner, J. (2014). Invitation to Cultural Psychology. Sage.

42. Valsiner, J. (2019). Culture & Psychology: 25 Constructive years. Culture & Psychology, 25(4), pp. 429-469. https://doi.org/10.1177/1354067X19872358

43. Weber, M. (1905). The Protestant Ethic and the Spirit of Capitalism.

44. Yamaguchi, S. (2001). Culture and control orientations. In D. Matsumoto , The handbook of culture and psychology (pp. 223-243).

45. Young, M., Chen, N., & Morris, M. (2009). Belief in stable and fleeting luck and achievement motivation. Personality and Individual Differences, 47(2), pp. 150-154. DOI: 10.1016/j.paid.2009.02.009

46. Young, M., Morris, M., Burrus, J., Krishnan, L., & Regmi, M. (2011). Deity and destiny: Patterns of fatalistic thinking in Christian and Hindu cultures. Journal of Cross-Cultural Psychology, 42(6), pp. 1030-1053. https://doi.org/10.1177/0022022110381123

47. აბაკელია, ნ. (1997). სიმბოლო და რიტუალი ქართულ კულტურაში [Symbol and Ritual in Georgian Culture]. ივ. ჯავახიშვილის სახელობის ისტორიისა და ეთნოგრაფიის ინსტიტუტი. თბილისი.

48. ბასილაია, მ. (2008). ეთნოსები საქართველოში [Ethnic groups in Georgia]. საქართველოს სახალხო დამცველთან არსებული ტოლერანტობის ცენტრი. თბილისი.

49. ომიაძე, ს. (2006). ქართული დისკურსის ლინგვოკულტურულ შემადგენელთა სტრუქტურა, სემანტიკა და ფუნქციონირება [The structure, semantics and function of the lingvocultural characteristics of Georgian discourse] (Unpublished doctoral dissertation). არნ. ჩიქობავას ენათმეცნიერების ინსტიტუტი. თბილისი.

50. ჭუბინიძე, დ. (2018). ქართული ანდაზები და ადაპტაციური ქცევის კულტურული მოდელები [Georgian proverbs and cultural models of adaptive behavior] (Unpublished doctoral dissertation).ივანე ჯავახიშვილის სახელობის თბილისის სახელმწიფო უნივერსიტეტი. თბილისი

SCAN ME

EFFECTS OF DECIPHIRING IN PIANO EDUCATION BASED ON WORK ANALYSIS [1]

Lecturer Dr. Çağlar BAKIOĞLU*

Assoc. Prof. Dr. Yakup Alper VARIŞ**

*Correspondent Author: * Trabzon University Faculty of Education, Department of Music Education, caglarbakioglu@trabzon.edu.tr*

* Ondokuzmayıs University, Faculty of Education, Department of Music Education, yalperv@omu.edu.tr

A b s t r a c t

In this study "Piano Lesson Analysis Form" was developed and intended to provide a thorough analysis in the work of a piano piece, at the time of the study or before playing it. This developed form allowed us to determine what is effecting the skills of the students in sight reading. In this study, which has pre-test and post-test control group design, the assessments were made with between-groups and within-groups comparisons. In the study, results in the first period of both groups were obtained and sight reading study was made. After these implementations, the other piano pieces that were deciphered by the experimental group and the homework assignments of the piano lessons studied throughout the semester and examined with "Piano Piece Analysis Form for the Piano Lessons". Based on the results of pre-test and post-test comparisons, it is observed that there was a significant difference in terms of the sight reading skills.

Introduction

The importance of the piano in the instrument training which aims to make the candidates of music teachers competent, knowledgeable and equipped in their instrument that requires discipline and patience (Akyürek, 2018), is a recognized fact all over the World.

In Turkey, the music departments of the universities as well as the other music institutions, are in consensus that music teachers should learn adequate keyboard skills that are acquired during the process of music education. Keyboard competence is considered as a skill that should be acquired for all students studying music (Baker, 2008). Teachers, researchers and academicians working in many institutions and organizations think that piano education is not only a training for pianists but also a training process that every musician should take.

Piano education can be defined as all of the processes applied to gain new behaviours that have aesthetic, musical and technical characteristics for individuals (Yılmaz, 2006). According to

Kurtuldu (2007), the method of repetition and organizing plays an important role in the cognitive perception of the student in piano education. In this process, in which the student is active, reinforcement is done by repeating. The process of repetition should be divided into certain parts, not from beginning to end. This process of repetition can be done by dividing the work such into sentences, motifs and periods. This method facilitates the learning process of the work while increasing the retention. For this reason, the works studied in piano education should be divided into pieces and repeated in certain time periods.

1. Deciphering Skills in Piano Education

If we compare the universal music to a language, the notes can also be regarded as the alphabet of that language. Being able to pronounce notes in a work correctly can be compared to the correct reading of the texts in that language. Performing regular exercises in order to be able to read quickly and accurately ensures the development of talent by eliminating the deficiencies

---

[1] The study is a part of the first author's doctoral dissertation (supervised by Assoc. Prof. Dr. Yakup Alper VARIŞ) entitled "Effects of Deciphering in Piano Education Based on Work Analysis"

in that subject. Students who have difficulty reading notes can minimize this problem by doing regular exercise. The better a person can read, the more he / she can reach different types of books and improve his / her reading. So like reading, the music students can reach different types of music more easily, thus improve their music taste, repertoire and interpretation that can provide them easier transitions to other steps in the educational process (Özer, 2010). It can be thought that deciphering can make a significant analysis of the given notes and contribute to other areas of music education.

Deciphering, which comes up with similar names in the literature such as playing deciphering, reading deciphering, is an important and indispensable element that exists in all areas of music education. Deciphering, which is a guide and assistant for all activities of a musician's professional life, is among the most important skills expected from a musician (Kurtuldu, 2014).

When the relevant literature is examined, it is possible to come across studies that reveal the place and importance of deciphering studies in piano education (Küçük, 1994; Kurtuldu, 2014; Özer, 2010; Selen & Aşkın, 2009; Tufan, 2000).

Öztutgan and Akbulut (2019) state that deciphering is one of the main qualities that should be present in each individual engaged in music, and that the factors that may affect the dimensions of deciphering are composed of learning, reading and vocalizing.As in every scientific field, making an analysis in the field of music has an important place. In this context, the student's ability to what he/she sees can be seen as an equivalent to deciphering.

The ability of a student to read (decipher) what he/she sees directly affects the speed and quality of musical learning, especially in beginner and advanced levels. In addition, this ability, which helps students become independent musicians, can also be regarded as an indicator of a musician's level of musicianship. For this reason, many universities, orchestras, or any music institution or ensemble measure the ability to decipher to have better musicians. Students who develop better deciphering skills can learn new music faster and improve their self-confidence by increasing the level of correct playing on the instrument (Kuo, 2012).

Çimen (2001) defines deciphering, which is accepted as one of the most basic skills of piano education, as playing or reading notes of a music at first sight without any previous work. The high level of deciphering skills helps the student to learn faster and more accurately, but also makes the learning more enjoyable and enables the student to love his instrument and move forward more quickly. Students who do not hesitate to study new notes increase their interest in learning. Thus, the students who are good in deciphering improve their talent with the opportunity to get to know the richness of the piano literature such as style, technique

and interpretation. A student with these characteristics can develop himself / herself and become an independent musician without the help of others and create a source foe music that he/she can enjoy throughout his life (cited by Küpana, 2012). Individuals who can provide self-learning with the ability to analyse can improve themselves by enjoying music. At this stage, if we take deciphering as the ability to analyse, we see that it is used in two dimensions in music.

According to Fenmen (1974), there are two types of deciphering. Generally speaking, the first one is to examine the piece slowly when we first have it and read every note, while the second type of deciphering is to read the piece at first glance at a speed close to its tempo. The first deciphering type is made for the works that we intend to play in full. The aim of such studies is to bring the work to our repertoire. For this reason, it should be read by paying attention to all the features of the work on paper. The purpose of the second deciphering type is to improve reading faster. In this deciphered form, while performing instant work, it is necessary to play as close to the tempo of the work as possible.

It is more likely to play a selected work below students' level at a speed close to its original tempo. In this way, the students can improve the ability to play at the moment when they see the work just by focusing on the notes. In this process, trying to play the work with the right and clean notes as much as possible makes us think that the student's learning skills will improve.

Since the aim is to have a new piece in repertoire, it should be done carefully and accurately. It can be thought that all the features of the work will be analysed and learned thoroughly and will contribute to the development of technical skills as well as its accuracy.

According to Tufan (2000), considering the benefits of deciphering skills and the extent to which these benefits will reach, the following can be reached.

a) Enjoying the work

b) With the improvement in note reading speed, the instrumental skill also shows a rapid improvement

c) Wondering new works to play with the desire of making and getting them

d) Piano repertoire development

e) Development in musicality

f) Recognizing accompanied instruments and knowing the music types

g) With the development of music culture enjoying more music.

The individual can obtain these gains by analysing the music works well. It can be thought that the gains obtained will contribute to the musical development of the person as well as understanding the music correctly. It's either the technical development of the piano, the right method of operation or good deciphering skills mainly brings success and the factors related to success into mind.

2. Analysis in Piano Education

If an effective piano education has been chosen as the goal, the student's questions about music must arise in order to achieve this goal. In order to better perceive music and express it back, students should be in search of what kind of things can be done. In short, "Musical Analysis in Piano Education" is an imperative to approach piano education analytically with this understanding (Bağçeci, 2003). It can be said that the examination of the piano works, which have many fields of knowledge in technical, musical or cognitive ways, makes it possible to separate them under these headings as much as possible, to analyse them in general terms and to make the difficult parts into perceptible information.

Accurate perception of the difficulties in the technical and artistic content of a musical work is seen as the main basis of mastery (Demirova, 2008). Musical analysis is one of the first steps in learning, considering that it is a sub-step of mental perception of knowledge.

When creating music, it is essential to think analytically in many areas. Especially because of the use of cognitive, affective, sensory and dynamic fields used by the person during performance, these fields need to interact based on each other. Providing this interaction will provide a higher level of vocalization. For this reason, analysis should be made in terms of both technical and musical disciplines (Bağçeci, 2003). Considering the function of nuances and articulation signs in the transmission of musical emotion, it can be said that analysis of such areas is also important.

Before the deciphering of a work, having a prior knowledge of the work enables the deciphering process to take place in a shorter period of time. In this context, deciphering is a skill that has many sub-dimensions, which can develop as you work and that musicians need to use throughout life (Çiftçibaşı and Şaktanlı, 2017). Given the importance of deciphering throughout a musician's life, it can be seen that it should be developed as much as possible. In this context, it can be said that a good analysis is needed for better decoding. The ability to decipher can also be considered as the power to analyse the note they see. It can be said that the power of this analysis is highly utilized while learning a work.

When learning a new piece on the piano, starting by analysing the piece first makes it easier and more robust to learn. A pianist who can be analytical can see himself as a musician. Evaluating and discussing musical objects from different angles can create the most enjoyable and effective way to achieve the goal that determines the strategy (Selen and Aşkın, 2009). According to Chaffin and Imreh (2002), when preparing a notation for performance, a performer will go through several stages, such as dismantling, working on, and reassembling (cited, MacRitchie, 2017).When the student is learning a new piece on the piano, he or she may need to develop an insight into how to plan to play the piece he / she wants to learn.

During the piano education process, the students will be able to analyse and understand the works they have played with the theoretical information they have learned, and it will enable the students to interpret that work and add their own interpretation. In this aspect, it is seen that musical analysis plays an important role in the interpretation of the work in a systematic way (Bulut, 2008). In order for a pianist to be a full musician, he/she has to take an analytical approach. The fact that the musician is able to understand the content by analysing the music of the works can be interpreted as he/she have the background information.

It can be said that the first step is to reveal information considering that it is necessary to reach information in order to learn and make it functional. Looking at the whole while studying a piano work, it can be seen as a ball of knowledge. Accordingly, the learning process can be perceived as difficult in the eyes of the students. If we think that it is not impossible to play any piano piece, it would not be wrong to think that there is a way to play the existing piece. For this purpose, the student may need to try to see what is invisible to the eye in the learning process. The use of behaviours such as thinking, trying to understand, trying to play will help.

It may be necessary to form some analytical questions in order to make learning easy, fast and accurate considering that there are many technical and cognitive knowledge in piano works. Through these questions, the student improves himself / herself and at the same time decomposes all the knowledge of the work. Once the disaggregated information is learned both technically and cognitively, the merging process can start. Thus, the information consisting of small pieces is combined in order to reach the information contained in the whole piece.

When learning a new piece, one of the useful approaches is by summarizing the structural and style features such as musical elements, form and period of writing. Recognizing the piece in terms of music elements and their complementary patterns will help the student to understand the musical ideas in that piece and make simple analyses from it (Ercan, 2008).

Piano students, focusing only on the notes without paying due attention to all the features of the work they play, may decrease the quality of the work. In addition to deciphering, this may negatively affect the academic achievement and attitude towards the piano lessons. The work analysis form, which was developed in order to eliminate these negativities, can help the student to become more familiar with the work while paying attention to these characteristics. Thus, since he/she can see the work in every sense, not only with its notes, a more accurate and faster learning is expected. For this purpose, it was planned to compare the data obtained by using the deciphering scale for the piano lesson and "Piano Lesson Analysis Form" to contribute to the piano education processes. In this context, the research question of this study was "What are the effects of the music teacher candidates' analysis on the works they have learned in piano education processes with their basic features and pre-studies through work analysis to their deciphering skills?".

3.   Purpose of the Study

The aim of this study is to determine whether the music teacher candidates' analysis on the works they have learned in piano education processes with their basic features and have an effect on the deciphering skills or not. On the other hand, it is aimed to determine the effect of "Piano Lesson Work Analysis Form" which is developed and to test its usability.
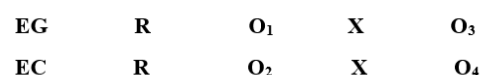
4.   Importance of Research

The research is important in terms of aiming to contribute to Turkish music education by determining whether the analyses on the works during piano lessons made by music teacher candidates effect sight reading skills of the piano or not.

5.   Research Model

In this study which has a pre-test/post-test control group design, screening model was also used and expert opinion was also applied.

Kerlinger (1973) pre-test/post-test control group design can be defined as a system which assigns subjects into experimental and control groups neutrally and evaluate them before and after manipulation (X) (Büyüköztürk, 2001:22). In this context, after determining the equivalence of the subjects, they were assigned to experimental and control groups objectively.

EG	**R**	**O_1**	**X**	**O_3**
EC	**R**	**O_2**	**X**	**O_4**

Figure 1. Pre-Test/Post-test Control Group Design

In figure 1, EG represents experimental group, CG represents control group, R represents neutrally assigned subjects, O1 and O3 represents the pre-test and post-test measurements of the experimental group, O2 and O4 represents pre-test post-test measurements of the control group and X represents the independent variable that was applied to the subjects in the experimental group. The practice to be performed according to the pre-test/post-test methods are given in Table 1.

Table 1. Practices to be Performed According to the Pre-test/Post-test Methods

EG	R	O_1	X	O_3
Experimental Group	Grade Point Avarage (GPA) of the Piano Lessons from Previous Five Semester	Decipher1 Evaluation of the Skill GPA of the 5th Semester Attitudes Towards Piano Lessons	Work Analysis Form of the Piano Lessons	Decipher2 Evaluation of the Skill GPAs of the 6th Semester Attitudes Towards Piano Lessons
CG	R	O_2	---	O_4
Control Group	Grade Point Avarage (GPA) of the Piano Lessons from Previous Five Semester	Decipher1 Evaluation of the Skill GPA of the 5th Semester Attitudes Towards Piano Lessons	Current Piano Program	Decipher2 Evaluation of the Skill GPAs of the 6th Semester Attitudes Towards Piano Lessons

6. Determination of Experimental and Control Groups

For this study's experimental and control group 16 (8 for experimental group and 8 for control group) Junior Year students were selected from Trabzon University, Fatih Faculty of Education, Department of Fine Arts, Music Teaching Program. In order to make a comprehensive analysis of the piano work, it was preferred to work with the class that reached the most intermediate level in the piano class as much as possible. There is no piano lesson in the Senior Year due to the renewal of the curriculum in the department. Therefore, in the 2nd semester of the Junior Year the students have the most advanced piano education.

This research, ground on the neutrality of the subject assignments of the groups. For this purpose, the piano Grade Point Average (GPA from now on) of the first five semesters was accepted as the basis. In order to represent all success levels of the subjects in both groups, they were matched with each other and then distributed to the groups by neutral assignment. This way was chosen to prevent the group of students with high GPA end up in one group and students with low GPA in the other. In order to ensure the equivalence of the selected students, the GPAs of the first five semesters were examined and equivalent students were identified. Piano course's academic achievement is determined and equivalent students whose scores are closest to each other were considered. It was taken care that the difference between the achievement scores of the matched students did not exceed more than 5 points. After the difference between the average scores of the groups in pairs not exceeding 5 points, it was decided objectively whether which student will be in the experimental group and which will be in the control group and then assignments were made.

In order to get the GPA of the selected students, they should not fail the piano course of previous semesters. In the first stage, 26 students were identified that matched these conditions and matched each other. These 26 students were matched with each other and 13 experimental and control groups were formed. However, the number of groups had to be reduced from 13 to 8 due to some negativities in the research's process. 5 groups (10 students in total consisted of 2 students for each) were excluded from the study due to the unexpected negativities such that some students worked without completing the "Piano Lesson Analysis Form" and some students were not thrilled during the deciphering video recordings. Experimental and control groups of 8student were determined. The piano GPA of these students are given in the table below.

7. Data Collection Process

While the pre-test and post-test deciphered works, which are used in the experiment process, are developed by experts, to evaluate the video recordings that were used in the piano deciphered works, "Decipher Evaluation Scale" developed by Kurtuldu (2014) was used in order to evaluate this information. Researchers prepared some tools and equipment using experts' ideas. While scoring and suggestions were taken into consideration in determining the deciphered works, Lawshe technique was used in the development of "Piano Lesson Work Analysis Form".

7.1. Piano Lesson Work Analysis Form Development Process

When creating a piano work analysis form, a pool of items was created in order to help subjects to analyse the piano work thoroughly. In this item pool, it is aimed to know the character traits of the work as much as possible. In this sense, 32 items which can help the student to realize the characteristics of the work such as number of measurements, tone / tonality, melodic structure, rhythmic patterns, changer marks, nuances, articulation marks are included. In addition to these cognitive items, eight affective and psychomotor items were prepared to determine the first impressions of the subjects about the work. While developing the "Piano Lesson Analysis Form", expert opinion was used to determine the comprehensibility and suitability of the items for the target audience. In the first stage, the item pool that was prepared in the cognitive-affective-psychomotor fields was first tried to obtain the most appropriate expressions in Turkish by consulting a specialist in the Department of Turkish and Social Sciences Education. Subsequently, the items obtained were reviewed in terms of education in consultation with an expert in Educational Sciences and made ready to be sent to the experts. This pool of materials was then sent to 10 music educators specializing in piano. According to the feedback from the experts, it was proposed to remove the affective and dynamic field items and it was considered that it was more appropriate to analyse only in the cognitive field. Therefore, only the cognitive domain items were improved.

The necessary explanations for the parts that are not deemed appropriate or required to be corrected by the experts have been taken and the "Piano Lesson Work Analysis Form" has been finalized and made ready for use with 28 items with the help of Lawshe technique.

7.2. The Process of Identifying Deciphered Works

The deciphered works used as pre-test/post-test were written by the researcher. This method was used in order to eliminate the possibility that the transcription works had been seen, heard or sung by the students before. In this context, the researcher has created five works with different characteristics and asked the experts to determine whether they are appropriate for the pre-test and post-test, if appropriate, to select the most appropriate ones, if not, how to make corrections. In order to make these evaluations, five works were sent to experts with voice scales and note scales, as well as evaluation scales, where they could indicate their comments. Experts stated their opinions about the work by scoring and commenting. In line with the feedback received, the highest score was accepted as the pre-test and the second highest score was accepted as the post-test. Based on these results, pre-test and post-test works that will be used to measure the deciphering skills of the subjects were determined.

In order to determine the pre-test and post-test deciphering skills, 5 works with different characteristics were first sent to 12 music education piano specialists. For these works, a scale prepared by the researcher for the experts can make scoring and commenting.

In order to prevent the works used as pre-test and post-test to be based on one feature, each deciphering works have different features than the others. The works submitted to expert opinion have the following features; Decipher 1; There are two harmonious and monophonic successive melodies that are very similar but not exactly the same for the right hand and the left hand. Decipher 2; simple figures and chords are written for the left hand whereas main melody for the right hand. Deciphering 3; the left hand gives an octave bass sound while the right hand has a main tune greater than 1 octave. In the second part, if we consider the number of measurements as 4/4 as 8/8, it is given as 4 + 4 in the left hand and 3 + 3 + 2 in the right hand. Decipher 4; 2 or 3 voice tunes were used instead of monophonic sound, including the main melodies in the right hand and left hand. Decipher 5; a melody in the right hand and left hand is exactly the same.

Every experts opinion and scoring were needed for this work. It is stated that the first two works with the highest scores will be pre-test and post-test. In addition, suggestions and comments about the works received by the experts via phone calls and e-mails were also evaluated.

Incoming feedbacks were converted to numerical values by making content analysis, so that two works could be determined to be used as a pre-test and post-test among five works. According to the feedback received from the experts, among 5 works the highest score was obtained by decipher 1 and the second highest

score by decipher 2. As mentioned while taking expert opinions, it was determined that the highest score obtained by deciphering 1 used as pre-test and the second highest score by decipher 2 as the post-test.

7.3. Experiment Process

The "Piano Lesson Work Analysis Form", whose development was completed, was applied to the experimental group. This form was filled in before any studying or the practising was held by the subjects. The experimental group, consisting of Junior Year Spring Semester students, completed the form for each piano work they should play during the education process. In addition, they have completed the form for works that were selected as deciphering 1 and deciphering 2 to determine their deciphering skills. The experimental group used the "Piano Lesson Analysis Form" for both the piano works played in the midterm and final exams and for the determination of their reading skills.

7.4. Determination of Experimental-Control Groups and Ensuring Equivalence

Students from Trabzon University, Fatih Faculty of Education, Department of Fine Arts, Music Teaching Program Junior Year and Spring Semester were selected for the experiment, during piano lessons in an academic year (14 weeks) once a week for one hour.

In accordance with the study, the equivalence and neutral assignment of the subjects should be ensured. In order to make equivalence and unbiased assignments, the piano GPAs of the subjects were taken as basis. After obtaining the necessary legal permissions, a 5 semester GPA was reached. The arithmetic mean of five semesters was calculated for each student in the class list and they were balanced with each other to form the experiment-control group. The first five semesters of the piano course averages were compared and the subjects were matched with each other and randomly assigned to the experimental and control groups. The experimental group students completed the "Piano Lesson Analysis Form" for each piano work from the first week and the control group continued their courses in accordance with the curriculum without doing so. All subjects were pre-tested for deciphering skills and recorded on video.

Post-test applications were performed for the deciphering skills of the subjects and the videos were recorded. In this application, the experimental group completed the "Piano Lesson Work Analysis Form", and the control group was given time to recognize the work without using the form. After the end of the midterm exam, the experimental group completed the "Piano

Lesson Analysis Form" for each of these works. The control group did not complete this form and continued their courses according to the curriculum.

7.5. Deciphering Skills

In the practice, the process of deciphering the works of art was recorded on video. This method was preferred in order to make it possible to reach the expert juries who will make the evaluations. Because of the objective and validity of the evaluation process of the skills in the deciphered pieces, connection established with as many juries as possible and 12 academicians in the piano branch. Subjects and juries were divided into four groups and matched with each other. 3 participant were involved in each jury groups and 5 or 6 participants were involved in test groups. Thus, each jury evaluated 5 or 6 people and each subject were evaluated by 3 juries. The reliability of the numerical data was tried to be increased by the evaluation of the subjects by 3 juries.

In order to measure pre-test and post-test deciphering skills, the selected works were played by the subjects and this process was recorded on camera. Before the works were played, the experimental group was filled in the "Piano Lesson Work Analysis Form", and the control group was given time to recognize the work. Then, these records were sent back to the experts with the "Deciphering Assessment Scale" and the subjects were asked to score their deciphering skills. The arithmetic mean of the scores obtained from the 3 experts that evaluated at least 5 or 6 student. The scores obtained for the pre-test/post-test were compared with each other and the data were compared with the experimental and control group.

Experimental and control groups were asked to play the deciphered work. Firstly, after giving time to study the work, the first performances were recorded. Both groups were deciphered without using any method. The data obtained from there form the pre-test part of deciphering skills. The data obtained from the post-test applications were first compared with the pre-test data in the group, then the results were compared with the experimental and control groups.

In the post-test application for deciphering skills, a second deciphering piece (deciphering 2) was played to the subjects and the video was recorded. The experimental group completed the "Piano Lesson Analysis Form" before they started, and the control group did not complete the "Piano Lesson Analysis Form". The control group was asked to analyse the work in accordance with their wishes and to allow them to recognize the work. Then, the played works were recorded by video and sent to expert teachers with "Deciphering Assessment Scale" and they scored. The data from the experts were compared with the pre-

test results of the groups themselves and the general data of the experimental and control groups.

8. Data Analysis

Since both qualitative and quantitative data collection techniques are used in this research, quantitative and qualitative analysis methods are used in the data analysis stage. The qualitative field was involved in developing the data collection tools of the study and the creation of the "Piano Lesson Analysis Form" while the quantitative field was included in the pre-test and post-test section.

A known statistical package program was used in the analysis of the quantitative data of the study. In statistical transactions, average score calculations for data, reliability coefficient and comparative measurements were performed respectively. In the scoring process of the deciphering works, "Deciphering Assessment Scale" was used and scored by four jury groups consisting of three people. The scoring process and data are explained in detail in the tools used and developed above. After obtaining the course lists (6 semesters) related to the academic achievements of the study group, the arithmetic average of the related course notes was obtained. While the average of the first five semesters of these lecture notes determines the equivalence of the groups, the fifth and sixth term averages constitute the pre-test and post-test parts of the academic achievement of the subjects. After completing the process of obtaining descriptive information for the concept of deciphering, the process of comparing the data obtained from the experimental and control groups was initiated.

Comparative measures (Mann Whitney U test - Wilcoxon Signed-Rank test) were used to evaluate the scores obtained from the deciphering process of the experimental and control groups. In the measurement of the obtained scores, it was considered that the students in the experimental and control groups could not meet the assumption of normality because of the small number and therefore non-parametric tests were preferred. In comparative measurements, the significance level was accepted as $p < ,05$.

The collected data were firstly compared as pre-test/post-test within the groups. The status of the experimental and control group students before the experiment was determined and recorded under three headings. Then the applications were made and the new data of the subjects were recorded under three headings. Comparisons with the control group were needed to fully determine the observed changes. Comparisons were made with the control group in order to determine whether the changes in the experimental group stem from the applications in the experimental process or the natural ongoing process. All the data obtained from the subjects were compared between the groups

and then in the groups. The Wilcoxon Signed-Rank Test was used for intra-group comparisons of data, and Mann Whitney U Test was used for comparisons between groups.

9. Findings

In this section, the values obtained were compared both in groups and between groups and the results were tried to be reached as a result of these comparisons.

9.1. Experimental Group Pre-test/Post-test Comparisons

The pre-test and post-test (in-group) comparison of the transcription scores of the students in the experimental group are given in Table 2.

Table 2. Pre-test/Post-test Comparison of the Experimental Group's Deciphering Skill

Subject Number	Pre-test	Post-test	Difference
1	51	72,6	+11,6
2	40,3	61,3	+21
3	65,3	83	+17,7
4	57	74,6	+17,6
5	68,6	77,6	+9
6	37,6	54,3	+16,7
7	30,6	67,6	+37
8	49,6	54	+4,4
$\overline{X}$	50	68,12	+18,12
Max.	68,6	83	+14,4
Min.	30,6	54	+23,4

When the pre-test and post-test mean values of the deciphering skills of the experimental group were examined, an increase was observed from 50 to 68,12. Deciphering skills were found to be an increase of 18.12 in the group. When the highest scores in the group were analysed, it can be said that there is an increase of 23.4 in the lowest points and an increase in general. In the light of these data, it can be said that there is an increase in all grades taken by the experimental group and an increase in the skills of playing piano works

Table 3. Experiment Group Deciphering Scoring Test Results for Pre-Test and Post-Test Using Wilcoxon Signed-Ranks Test Results

Measurement	Ranks	N	Mean A.	Addition R.	z	p
	Negative R.	0	0,00	0,00		
	Positive R.	8	4,50	36		
Experiment G. Decipher Pre-test/Post-test	Equal	0			-2,52	,012
	Summation	8				

The results obtained in the comparison of the scores of the experimental group in the deciphering process according to the data at the pre-test and post-test level were found to be significant according to the $p < 0.05$ level [$z = -2.52$, $p < ,05$]. When the data were analysed, it was observed that there were no students who caused negative decrease in scores, and all students in the group were in positive order. Accordingly, it can be said that the post-test scores of the students in the experimental group increased positively compared to the pre-test scores.

9.2. Control Group Pre-test/Post-test Comparisons

The pre-test and post-test (in-group) comparison of the transcription scores of the students in the control group are given in Table 4.

Table 4. Pre-test/Post-test Comparison of the Control Group's Deciphering Skill

Subject Number	Pre-test	Post-test	Difference
1	62	71	+9
2	56	57,3	+1,3
3	60	60,6	+0,6
4	52,6	55,3	+2,7
5	40,6	34,6	-6
6	35,6	42,3	+6,7
7	42	44	+2
8	36,6	38,6	+2
$\overline{X}$	48,17	50,46	+2,29
Max.	62	71	+9
Min.	35,6	34,6	-1

Decreasing skills of the control group showed an increase from 48.17 to 50.46 when the pre-test and post-test mean values were analysed. There is an increase of 2.29 in deciphering skills within the group. When the highest scores in the group are analysed, it is seen that there is an increase of 9 points, and the lowest points decrease is -1. In this sense, it can be said that there is no significant difference between the control group deciphering pre-test and post-test data comparisons.

Table 5. Control Group's Deciphering Scoring Test Results for Pre-Test and Post-Test Using Wilcoxon Signed-Ranks Test Results

Measurement	Ranks	N	Mean A.	Addition R.	z	p
Experiment G. Decipher Pre-test/Post-test	Negative R.	1	6,00	6,00		
	Positive R.	7	4,29	30	-1,68	,092
	Equal	0				
	Summation	8				

The comparison of the scores of the control group during the deciphering process according to the data at the pre-test and post-test levels was not significant according to the level of $p <,05$ [z = -2.52, $p <,05$]. According to these results, it can be said that the scores obtained from pre-test and post-test did not show a positive increase in the deciphering process.

9.3. Pre-test Comparisons of Experimental and Control Groups

The comparison of the transcription scores of experimental and control group students at the pre-test level between the groups are given in Table 6.

Table 6. Pre-test Comparison of the Experiment and Control Group's Deciphering Skill

Experiment Group Rank N.	Decipher	Control Group Rank N.	Decipher
1	51	1	62
2	40,3	2	56
3	65,3	3	60
4	57	4	52,6
5	68,6	5	40,6
6	37,6	6	35,6
7	30,6	7	42
8	49,6	8	36,6
$\overline{X}$	50	$\overline{X}$	48,7
Max.	68,6	Max.	62
Min.	30,6	Min.	35,6

When the mean scores of deciphering were examined at the pre-test level of the subjects, it was seen that the experimental group was 50 and the control group was 48.7. In the highest scores, the experimental group was 68.6 and the control group was 62. In the lowest scores, the experimental group was 30.6 and the control group was 35.6. When the general averages are taken into consideration, it can be said that there is no significant difference between the deciphering skill scores of both groups.

Table 7. Comparison of Transcription Scores at Pre-test Level between Groups Using Mann Whitney U Test Results for

Measurement	Groups	N	Rank A.	U	p
Decipher Scores	Experiment G.	8	8,75	30,00	,834
	Control G.	8	8,25		

When the results obtained in the comparison of the scores of the students in the study group, the deciphering process were examined, no significant difference was found according to p <0.05 level. When the average rank values are examined, it can be observed that both groups have close scores. According to this result, the deciphering scores and the deciphering skills of the students in both groups can be considered as equivalent.

9.4. Post-test Comparisons of Experimental and Control Groups

The comparison of the transcription scores of the experimental and control group students at the post-test level between the groups is given in Table 8.

Table 8. Post-test Comparison of the Experiment-Control Deciphering

Experiment Group Rank N		Decipher	Control Group Rank N		Decipher
1		72,6	1		71
2		61,3	2		57,3
3		83	3		60,6
4		74,6	4		55,3
5		77,6	5		34,6
6		54,3	6		42,3
7		67,6	7		44
8		54	8		38,6
	$\overline{X}$	68,12		$\overline{X}$	50,46
Max.		83	Max.		71
Min.		37,6	Min.		34,6

When the test scores of the subjects were examined at the post-test level, it can be seen that the experimental group was 68,12 and the control group was 50,46. While the highest scores were 83 in the experimental group, the control group was 71, the lowest score was 37.6 and the control group was 34.6. When the general averages are examined, it is observed that the experimental group is 17.66 points higher than the control group. In this sense, it can be said that the "Piano Course Work Analysis Form" shows increase in the experimental group compared to the control group.

Table 9. Comparison of Deciphering Scores at Post-test Level between Groups Using Mann Whitney U Test Results

Measurement	Groups	N	Rank A.	U	p
Decipher Scores	Experiment G.	8	11,25	10,00	,021
	Control G	8	5,75		

When the results of the post-test deciphering scores of the students in the study group were compared between the groups, a significant difference was found according to the p <0.05 level. When the average order values were examined, it was observed that the significant difference occurred in the direction of the experimental group (11.25 - 5.75). According to this result, it is understood that the scores obtained during the deciphering process indicate the experimental group comes up first at the level of the groups, and that the scores of the students in the experimental group are at a better level than the control group.

process are analysed, it is necessary to make comparisons with the pre-test results in order to make full evaluation with the obtained data. We looked at the post-test results of deciphering skills, academic achievements and, in order to make full evaluation of the data obtained from the comparisons made in three sections, and they were evaluated by comparing with the pre-test achievement scores between the groups. The table below shows these comparison results.

10. Conclusion

When the post-test results of the music teacher candidates' analysis of the works they are working with in the piano education

Table 10. Pre-test/Post-test Comparisons of Both Experimental and Control Groups

Test Group Average Results		Control Group Average Results	
Success in Piano 73,71		Success 72,5	
Application	Decipher	Application	Decipher
Pre-test	50	Pre-test	48,17
Post-test	68,12	Post-test	50,46
Difference	+18,12	Difference	+2,29

When the data that the subjects have both within themselves and between the groups is observed, it is seen that there is a significant positive difference in the deciphering skills of the experimental group. The first five-semester piano course averages (piano success) that ensure the equivalence of the groups were 73.71 in the experimental group and 72.5 in the control group. Considering the fact that the piano success scores of the groups were close to each other, it can be said that the groups were also equivalent to each other. As a result of the applications, the experimental group showed an increase of 18.12 points in deciphering skills while the control group showed an increase of 2.29 points.

As a result of the applications of the "Piano Work Analysis Form" that had been applied to the experimental and control groups; it was found that the experimental group made a significant difference in piano lesson sight reading skills.

According to Bağçeci (2003), the student should aim to play well and create questions in his mind in order to achieve this goal. What should be done in order to play well?, How we can overcome problems? or What can be desired to be told in this music work?, such questions created by the student's analytical approach to piano work should be provided. In an effective piano education, it is necessary to understand all aspects of music mentally. In this context, musical analysis is essential in the process of piano education. Considering that the analytic approach helps us to understand the object in front of us, it can be argued that it needs to be analysed in order to understand the content of the work we are going to study in piano education. It can be said that the well-understood work can be transferred more easily on the keyboard, since the well-analysed work is well understood.

In addition to reading the notes while deciphering, there is also a voice over the instrument. During this vocalization, there are mechanical movements according to the structural aspects of the instrument along with the mental dimension of the vocalization

(Öztutgan, 2018). It can be thought that mentally good perception, analysis and comprehension while playing a musical tune will help to transfer this tune on the instrument more quickly and accurately. In this context, it can be said that analysing the work well and learning it mentally will contribute to deciphering skills. It can be concluded that the "Piano Lesson Work Analysis Form" helps to understand the work mentally so that the technical skills can be transferred to the piano more quickly.

The fact that the experimental group showed an increase of 15.58 points compared to the control group in the pre-test-post-test comparisons of the deciphering skills of the experimental-control groups can be considered as an indicator that the 'Piano Lesson Work Analysis Form" had a positive effect on the deciphering skills. Decreasing skills post-test scores increase in the experimental group according to the pre-test scores, and post-test scores do not increase in the control group according to the pre-test scores and that can be considered as an indicator of this.

It can be said that the most important reason why the experimental group showed an increase in score in the deciphering skills of the subjects was that the experimental group analysed a wide range of the deciphered work to be played compared to the control group. In order to play the piano works correctly, it is necessary to read the correct notes, correct finger numbers, correct nuances and articulation marks. It can be said that the experimental group noticed a lot of cognitive field information by completing the "Piano Lesson Work Analysis Form" before playing the deciphering works and then deciphering the piece after this stage. It may be thought that the attention of the correct finger numbers, correct nuances, articulation marks and notes before playing the work contributes to the increase in deciphering skill points by acquiring the subjects more familiar with the work.

11. Recommendations

Playing the piano is a performance that requires active use of the mind as well as physical activity and emotional aspects. The more information about the work to be played, the more dominating the cognitive domain is. The more you know about a work, the easier it is to learn and play it.

It is hardly possible to say that focusing on notes is the right approach when deciphering, studying or playing a piece on the piano. By analysing the work in the best way and in all its aspects, it can be said that trying to ensure a permanent learning will be a more correct approach in terms of education. Before playing the piano works, etc. analysis is a very important issue.

Considering that the piano students perform their piano analysis according to their natural abilities, some individuals may be successful and others may be left behind. When the piano instructors recognize the students who have problems in analysing the piano works in terms of playing, it can be considered that they will help them with the analysis mentioned above. In such a case, the use of the "Piano Lesson Work Analysis Form" can be considered as beneficial. However, if desired or required, the instructor may remove items from the work analysis form or add items to the form. In this research, it was tried to provide a scientific approach by taking expert opinions as it was tried to put the students' work analysis on a broad and certain basis in terms of playing the piano. For this purpose, an analysis form that can be used in all works has been tried to be reached. However, the trainer may create analysis items that draw attention to the characteristics of the work to be studied, if there are subjects that the student wants to pay particular attention to, or if it is necessary for the student to analyse on certain topics, not on each subject according to the student's situation. Because the main issue here is to enable the student to analyse.

References

1. Akyürek, R. (2018). Müzik eğitimcisi yetiştiren kurumlarda orkestra/oda müziği eğitimi etkinlik sürecinin incelenmesi. Journal of Turkish Studies, 13(19), 65-76. Doi:10.7827/TurkishStudies.14034.

2. Bağçeci, S. E. (2003). Piyano eğitiminde müzikal analiz kavramı – kapsamı ve örnek klavye analizleri. Fırat Üniversitesi Sosyal Bilimler Dergisi, 13 (1), 159-176, Elazığ.

3. Baker, N. E. (2008). The effects of peer teaching on undergraduate music majors' achievement and attitude toward sight-reading in the group piano setting. (Unpublished Doctoral Dissertation). Louisiana State University, Baton Rouge.

4. Bulut, F. (2008). Piyano eğitiminde geleneksel Türk Halk Müziği kaynaklı eserlerin seslendirilmesine yönelik oluşturulan bir "çoklu analiz modeli" ve bu modelin öğrenci başarısı üzerine etkileri. Gazi Üniversitesi Eğitim Bilimleri Enstitüsü Güzel Sanatlar Eğitimi Anabilim Dalı Müzik Öğretmenliği Bilim Dalı, Doktora Tezi.

5. Büyüköztürk, Ş. (2001). Deneysel desenler öntest-sontest kontrol grubu desen ve veri analizi. 1. Baskı, Öncü basımevi, Ankara: Pegem A Yayınları.

6. Chaffin, R., & Imreh, G. (2002). Stages of practice revisited. In R. Chaffin, G. Imreh, & M. Crawford (Eds.), Practicing perfection: Memory and piano performance (239–246). Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.

7. Çiftçibaşı, M. C. ve Şaktanlı, S. C. (2017). Hızlı okuma teknikleri eğitiminin piyano deşifre becerisine etkisi. Mehmet Akif Ersoy Üniversitesi Sosyal Bilimler Enstitüsü Dergisi, 9 (18), 35-55.

8. Demirova, G. (2008). Piyano eğitiminde gam tekniği üzerine düşünceler. Mehmet Akif Ersoy Üniversitesi Eğitim Fakültesi Dergisi, 14-23.

9. Ercan, N. (2008). Piyano eğitiminde ilke ve yöntemler. Ankara: Sözkesen.

10. Fenmen, M. (1974). Piyanistin kitabı. Ankara: Akba.

11. Kuo, M. H. (2012). Strategies and methods for improving sight-reading. (Unpublished Doctoral Dissertation). University of Kentucky, Lexington.

12. Kurtuldu, M. K. (2007). Bilgiyi işleme modeline dayalı piyano eğitiminde genel öğrenme stratejilerinin yeri ve görsel imajlar oluşturma yönteminin kullanılabilirlik düzeyi. Gazi Üniversitesi Eğitim Bilimleri Enstitüsü Güzel Sanatlar Eğitimi Anabilim Dalı Müzik Öğretmenliği Bilim Dalı, Doktora Tezi, Ankara.

13. Kurtuldu, M. K. (2014). Piyano öğrencilerinin deşifre becerileri ile piyano dersi başarılarının karşılaştırılması. TSA, 18(3).

14. Küçük A. (1994). Bir piyano eseri nasıl çalışılır. Gazi Üniversitesi Gazi Eğitim Fakültesi Dergisi, Yeni Dönem (Özel Sayı), 185-194.

15. Küpana, M. N. (2012). Piyanoda deşifre öğretimi programının müzik öğretmeni adaylarının piyano dersine yönelik tutumlarına etkisi, 11 (41), 183-194.

16. MacRitchie, J. (2017). Deciphering and Embodying Contemporary Piano Scores: A Commentary on Huisman, Gingras, Dhondt, and Leman. Empirical Musicology Review, 12(1-2), 75-79.

17. Özer, B. (2010). Piyano öğretiminde deşifre becerisinin kazandırılması. Selçuk Üniversitesi Eğitim

Bilimleri Enstitüsü Güzel Sanatlar Eğitimi Anabilim Dalı Müzik Eğitimi Bilim Dalı, Yüksek Lisans Tezi, Konya.

18. Öztutgan, K. (2018). Mesleki müzik eğitimi veren kurumlarda klasik gitar deşifresini geliştirmeye yönelik bir metot önerisi. Ondokuz Mayıs Üniversitesi Eğitim Bilimleri Enstitüsü, Güzel Sanatlar Eğitimi Anabilim Dalı, Doktora Tezi, Samsun.

19. Öztutgan, K. ve Akbulut, F. (2019). Müzikal deşifrenin boyutları ve etken faktörleri. SDÜ Güzel Sanatlar Fakültesi Sanat Dergisi, 12 (23), 65-87.

20. Selen, B. ve Aşkın, C. (2009). Piyano eğitiminde çözümleme destekli çalışma metodu ve uygulanışı. İTÜ Dergisi/B, 6 (1), 53-63.

21. Tufan, S. (2000). Piyano eğitiminde deşifre çalışmaları. G.Ü. Gazi Eğitim Fakültesi Dergisi, 20 (3), 101-104.

22. Yılmaz, N. (2006). Uludağ üniversitesi eğitim fakültesi gse bölümü müzik eğitimi anabilim dalında uygulanan piyano eğitiminin değerlendirilmesi. Ulusal Müzik Eğitimi Sempozyumu Bildiri Kitabı, (554-593), 26-28 Nisan, Pamukkale Üniversitesi Eğitim Fakültesi, Denizli.

SCAN ME

PLATO`S IDEAS ON POETRY

Merxhan AVDYLI, PhD. C.

Universit of Gjilan "Kadri Zeka", Faculty of Education, merxhan.avdyli@uni-gjilan.net

A b s t r a c t

In his most important and most voluminous creation "The State" (Republic, Politeia), Plato included the most characteristically philosophical concepts which were an expression of his interests. Apart various fields of teaching, such metaphysics, theology, ethics, psychology, pedagogy, State system, which result from this creation, art and poetry could not go without being included as well (including the music). Otherwise, the Plato himself, in young age, except with mathematics he also dealt with poetry by believing that he is going to be more dedicated to it. But, it seems that acquaintance with the Socrates since he was 20 years old changed his mind and he was fully committed to the philosophy. His general philosophical reviews sublimating his philosophical ideas, which arise on the basis of the idea, as an alpha and omega of every human been in the world, took Plato away from poetry by making him more and more torrential in philosophy and more and more critical, even more cynical towards the poetry.

Introduction

Plato (427-347 b.c) is one of the most prominent thinkers and philosophers of Greek antiquity.

The real name of Plato was Aristokle. He was named Plato based on the Greek word "Plato" which means "wide". It se said that he named "Plato" due to his athletic body. But, apart well build body; Plato had also well-built wider thinking. He was Athenian which came from a reach family. He was even known as a founder of the Academy in his town of birth on the doors of which he had written: "Let no one ignorant of geometry enter" (Gerliq, 1986).

The Plato's influence on general philosophical thinking is great and universal. His dialogues are popular which remained as philosophical works are prominent due to their stylistic aspect as well, where we have a meeting point of philosophical thinking and esthetical approach. Sometimes it seems that the border between the philosophy and art vanishes. This conclusion is reached also by historians of aesthetics, Gilbert and Kun, by dividing the Plato`s idea into small parts, where they say that "if the art is weak philosophy, the philosophy is an excellent art" (Gilbert, 1969).

In his most important and most voluminous creation "The State" (Republic, Politeia), Plato included the most characteristically philosophical concepts which were an expression of his interests. Apart various fields of teaching, such metaphysics, theology, ethics, psychology, pedagogy, State system, which result from this creation, art and poetry could not go without being included as well (including the music). Otherwise, the Plato himself, in young age, except with mathematics he also dealt with poetry by believing that he is going to be more dedicated to it. But, it seems that acquaintance with the Socrates since he was 20 years old changed his mind and he was fully committed to the philosophy. His general philosophical reviews sublimating his philosophical ideas, which arise on the basis of the idea, as an alpha and omega of every human been in the world, took Plato away from poetry by making him more and more torrential in philosophy and more and more critical, even more cynical towards the poetry (Ibid).

However, Plato is the first philosopher which raised the issues of poetry in his writings: relation between the poet`s poetry and the State and society. But, he is also first Greek philosopher which emphasized divisive elements between philosophy and poetry.

It cannot be said precisely what made Plato to abandon his poetical world, to move away and to deal fully with the focus on the idea in his philosophical reviews and puts on the stinger of the critics of his poetry.

In the focus of our interest this time are not his poetries, nor his general reviews on the idea and matter, but only his idea on the poetry and poets, respectively on his ripples towards the poetry and poets.

Plato`s, which in the fundamentals of the development of his concepts puts the idea, he dealt with the concept of good, the concept of beauty and art. In his reviews, in his popular dialogues, which are known for their eloquence of expression, the tendency of persuasion and argumentation, one may notice that his thoughts, despite the essence and simply philosophical orientation take esthetical characteristics. Furthermore, the beauty is fundamental esthetical category and according to Plato they should be raised over all other philosophical and esthetical concepts. Despite the sublimation of this category, the metaphysics of beauty contravenes his theory on arts, by seeing it completely in the service of the ideal State, which he attempts to build. In this State, according to Plato, poets should have no place. This is the most concrete exclusion done to the poets for which he has his reasons which he excludes from his reviews. So, even the life of poets, due to their importance, ranks it in the sixth place, after the philosophers.

1. The Rise of Plato Against Poetry and Poets

Plato, in his idea for the creation of ideal State, could not avoid other societal activities. In this respect, he speaks about poetry with the greatest contempt, while about the poets he speaks as for destroyers, not only of the idea of establishing an ideal State, but also as destroyers of the youth.

Thus, it is not only the poetry that disturbs the Plato`s ideal State, the poets are those that should be excluded from a State as conceived by him. In this context, Plato is very conservative. His exclusivity is pointed out especially in his very destroying opinions on poets. Almost in the entirety of his reviewing dialogues, where he gets the opportunity to speak, or to express an opinion about poets, he does not hesitate to express himself with contempt which derives from his lack of contravening refrain towards the poets, whom he considers as a category which knows to write beautifully, but does not know to think, which say their opinions in a very beautiful manner, but in the essence they are deceivers and people which with use their pathetically side to cheat on wider masses. Perhaps, the Plato`s disagreement is exactly the floor of poetical expressions, which can be overflowing instantly, but, they do not have any core conceptual

form in the essence where the society should be influenced, especially the youth. Plato does not hesitate to draw attention to negative impact that the poetry and those who write verses could have. He, does not to attack Homer and his poetic style which he attempts to censure by marking some parts of his creation which according to Plato should have no place in the Homer`s Iliad and Odyssey.

There are several reasons why Plato was positioned against poetry and poets as a bearer of this, according to him, evil in the society (Platon, 1980). Initially, the dilemmas must be removed as regards Plato`s lack of knowledge on poetry, but his attention was focused more in the conception of the idea for creation of basis for an ideal State, almost utopic one. Therefore, his views on establishing a State are not equivalent with what the poetry lays down. This was probably influenced also by his withdrawal from poetic writings apart from its highly refined aesthetic feelings.

Although, the imitation (in Latin: imitatio) is "one of the key problems of the entire antique art philosophy"(Gerliq, 1986) , however, Plato`s understanding of arts, simply as an imitation or the shadow of the shadow (Plato, 1980) , has the basis for his contemptuous attitude towards art their bearers, furthermore towards the poetry and poets.

Plato deals with the issue of poetry in the third book of "State". Through his dialogues, initially philosophical ones, he enters in the issue of reviews of the poetry in which by seeking an ideal purity he asks the poets to somehow not rush to write what it does not correspond to the truth. He is highly critical towards those poets which do not hesitate to present the goods with an image that does not correspond to the reality. In his request for the poets to have self-censorship and to not display in such a brutal manner their views towards the goods, he requests that even the top poet of antique Greece Homer to give up some verses, which according to Plato not only do not honour him, but they can also have negative influence on weakening the ideal State to which he is committed and in the demise of society, especially the young part of the population. Before all other motives, it is the preservation the State`s and Society's honour that motivated and incited Plato`s aversion towards the poetry and poets.

By further expressing of his idea on poetry, Plato, says that the poetry is imitation of imitation of essences in order to express openly regarding this issue that "The pleasure is the greatest deception", with which he expresses the lack of consideration for poets and the poetry and to conclude that the poetry is equivalent with the pleasure and the pleasure is not equivalent with the value, says Plato, by decreasing thus even more the importance and the value of poetic art, which derives from the poetry as well.

It has already been said above that Plato had good knowledge on the poetry. He also had a sense to write poetry. Even most of his philosophical reviews, notwithstanding what is about, has great meeting points with the poetry.

The Plato`s attacks and opposition towards the poets are also expressed in the creation "Protection of Socrates". By analysing the inspiration of poets Plato distinguishes their inspiration, but by emphasizing that they, despite this, often are not able to know what they say, because according to Plato, the poets do not receive inspiration form their inner but from outside, it is the muses which inspire them (Ibid).

Meanwhile, to reinforce his opinion of breaking the youth's voyage by poets, Plato states that "poets are incorrect typewriters," he adds, "poets believe they are in other actions in the wise, but they are not " (Platon, 1976).

Plato also deals with this issue in the dialogues of Ijon, in which the main hero is now the poet interpreter. Even here Plato by opposing the traditional view that poets are wise and human teachers emphasize the blindness of poets and performers of their works. In this plane Plato's poetry's work compares it with the attractive and unconscious magnitude of the magnet (Gilbert, 1969). After all, Plato is convinced that not only poetry but all art is just a mirror and nothing else. His tendencies towards the poets and poetry Plato expresses and emphasizes also in "Feast", but not directly, such as "State" or "Iyon", as "Feast" more deals with beauty in general (Ibid).

2. Plato`s Requests Towards Homer

In most of Plato's dialogues, poetry and poets, the central place of voice Homer and his epic, for which Plato has special requirements, demands that in order to complement the moral codes of being of the idealistic state are defined as censorship and self-censorship.

Therefore, seeing in this light Plato's request to Homer not to present the gods by crying or laughing, it can be said that this is a requirement that in some way precedes further trends in the literary developments of censorship and self-censorship, although this, in this case, is mainly concerned with Plato's attitude to the creation of the idealistic state. Thus, Plato, seeking from Homer and other poets to remove various parts from their works, he urged them "not to be angry at why these and similar places are deleted, not why they are not poetic, and why they are not content with them, but because they are more poetic, the less they should listen to the boys and the people who need to be free and who should rather have fear of slavery than of death" (Platon, 1980).

Plato poses clear demands, especially to Homer, disagreeing with many of his work and demanding the removal of all those parts, whether terrible or frustrated, or those that Plato considers to be unstable or even untrue, by mentioning any part of the actions of Zeus, Achilles, Hector, Patroclus, Priam, Tezeu etc.

Therefore, Plato's attack on Homer's work, based on idealism and on the protection of some kind of abstract morality, becomes even tougher when Plato can sublimate his opinion on the subject in these words, arguing that "the poets and myths makers, for the most part, speak badly about people" (Ibid).

3. Do Poets Identify With Imitation and Do They Touch the Truth?

It is interesting to point out and emphasize Plato's approach to the appearance, by the poets, of the actions of the good and the unworthy or the bad, as he shares it. Plato is of the opinion that the poet during the imitation phase, as it is said, of the actions of the good people is worth identifying with them, somehow, while not worthy of the poet, which in any way be identified with the action of unworthy or bad people, saying that with such irritating imitation should not be made his mirror (Ibid).

Much more specific and clearer in his attacks on poetry and poets, Plato is in the tenth "State Book", where he is presented with the firm demand that in state building he has clarified the position of poetry and poets, which pose great risk to the ideal State. Plato for this says: "If she (monaural poetry: M.A.) imitates, we did not want to accept it. Now that we have examined each and every kind of soul, as it seems to me, it is even clearer that such poetry should not be accepted at all" (Ibid).

In the section about Plato's mimetics, he continues to pose numerous issues and dilemmas for poetry. In his review, speaking on the subject, he raises the dilemma whether it is possible that the poet as imitator who is able to answer even in the spheres and areas for which he is willing to write. He in one case calls sophisticated poets, even magicians. Meanwhile, it raises the dilemma of whether poets can do what they imitate.

Plato compared a doctor's healing work and imitation of the poet's words to the doctor, addresses Homer and other poets, asking whether any of the poets have come to cure someone as Asclepius (Ibid).

In reviewing this issue, he further ironizes Homer's work by posing direct questions about his imitations, as Plato expressed, about their wars and development, the rule of state, and the education of people, reducing the value of positive influence on

society and public life, not only of Homer, but of all the poets. To illustrate this, Plato, attacking Homer considers that his influence and other poets in public life is trivial, for he adds "as Homer and Hesiod had been able to teach virtue to people, then their contemporaries certainly will not let the rhapsodist to wander around the world, hold them stronger than the gold themselves, and force them to stay in them, and if they do not want to do so would go after them wherever they would go, until they gained enough education" (Ibid).

Further, Plato gives an interesting conclusion after all his contemplation of imitation: "All the creators, beginning with Homer, are just imitators of the images of true virtue and all that they sing for songs, and the truth does not even touch it" (Ibid). Do the poets really touch the truth, it is unknown even today.

References

1. Bart, Rolan, Književnost, mitologija, semiologija (Literature, Mythology, Semiology), Belgrade, 1971.
2. Eco, Umberto, Si bëhet një punim diplome (How to Become a Diploma), "Attempt", Tirana, 1997.
3. Lotman, J. V., Predavanja iz strukturalne poetike (Lectures from structural poetics) "Matica Hrvatska", Zagreb, 1965.
4. Lotman, J. V., Struktura umetničkog teksta (Structure of the Art Text), "Nolit", Belgrade, 1976.
5. Slamnig, Ivan, Disciplina mašte (Discipline of imagination), Zagreb, 1971.
6. Welek, Rene - Austin Warren, Teoria e letërsisë (Theory of Literature), "Onufri", Tirana, 2015.
7. Gërliq Danko, Leksikoni i filozofëve (The lexicon of philosophers) „Rilindja", Prishtinë, 1986.
8. Everet Gilbert, Katarina - Helmut Kun, Istorija estetike (History of aesthetics) "Kultura», Beograd, 1969.
9. Platoni, Shteti (State), "Rilindja", Prishtinë, 1980.
10. Gërliq, Danko, Estetika – Historia e problemeve filozofike (Aesthetics - The History of Philosophical Problems), "Rilindja", Prishtinë, 1986.
11. Platon, Odbrana Sokratova – Fedon - Ijon (Socrates' Defense - Fedon - Ion), BIGZ, Beograd, 1976.
12. Zejnullah Gruda "E Drejta Ndërkombëtare Publike", Publishing house "Furkan", Skopje, 2007.

THE UNSOLVED PROBLEM OF TRAFFIC ACCIDENTS WORLDWIDE

Agim NUHIU, PhD*

Ajten RAMADANI, PhD**

Ministry of the Interior, Republic of North Macedonia, agimnuhiu@hotmail.com

**Correspondent Author: Ministry of the Interior, Republic of North Macedonia, ajtenramadani@gmail.com*

A b s t r a c t

The problem of traffic accidents is not generally discussed as an issue with any political, philosophical, psychological, or cultural implications. What might such implications be? In terms of policing, countries and nations worldwide generally have quite a narrow focus on prophylaxis (road safety education, awareness campaigns, warning signs about speed limits, dangerous corners, etc.) and punishment (fines, trials, sometimes prison sentences for those who cause accidents). This paper argues that a broader and deeper analysis of the issue is needed, in order to understand (principally) and possibly pre-empt or at least remediate (secondarily) the harm and damage of traffic accidents. Methodology: systemic analysis and culture-critical analysis combined with perspectives from public policy, philosophy, democratic and libertarian political theory, and psychology. Conclusions will promote improved clarity and refreshed thinking about this important but misunderstood issue on the part of researchers and practitioners alike.

Introduction

In 2015 the United Nations promulgated its seventeen Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs). Goal number 3, which is headed 'Good Health and Well-Being', includes a 'Target 3.6', as follows: "By 2020, halve the number of global deaths and injuries from road traffic accidents." (United Nations 2015) At the time of writing, 2020 is two months away. How is the world progressing in its pursuit of SDG Target 3.6?

In a word, badly. The report from the World Health Organization (WHO) titled 'Global status report on road safety 2018', published on 7 December 2018, concludes its 'Summary of progress to date' with these words:

The number of road traffic deaths continues to climb, reaching 1.35 million in 2016, while the rate of death relative to the size of the world's population has stabilized in recent years. The progress that has been achieved has not occurred at a pace fast enough to compensate for the rising population and rapid motorization of transport taking place in many parts of the world.

At this rate, the SDG target 3.6 to halve road traffic deaths by 2020 will not be met. (WHO 2018a, 94)

In addition to the 1.35 million annual death-rate, over 50 million people suffer serious injury from car crash events worldwide every year, according to the same WHO report. The growth-rate of road traffic deaths and injuries is constant, in line with population growth. It is reasonable, based on these data, to conclude that the problem remains unsolved.

But is it ultimately and definitively unsolvable? What if it is not? And how would we know whether it is or not? Is there a logic and a pragmatics to this issue which might allow us to venture a more dynamic answer other than merely "Wait and see" or "Only time will tell"? Because if we can reason our way to a fuller understanding of all its roots, branches and implications, we ought to be much better able to achieve pre-emption and remediation, as is assumed by all involved to be the goal. Hence, this paper sets out to answer these questions using rational analysis, logic, and critical philosophical reasoning.

1. Efforts to Reduce Car Crash Events

There have been massive efforts, stretching far back in time, almost all the way back to the first appearance of motor vehicles equipped with fossil-fuel-powered internal combustion engines in significant numbers on roads, to address the problem of traffic accidents in the world.

There were three countries where the mass motorization of society first got going: Germany, France, and Great Britain. The USA was not far behind. In Germany, prior to 1900, there were only individual German States' efforts to manage the problems of road accident events. (Niemann & Hermann 2006) The consistent and concerted efforts in Imperial Germany to legislate, regulate, police and educate motor vehicle users – which continued through two world wars, the 'two Germanies' era during the Cold War, the Great Reunification and right up to the present day – began 113 years ago in 1906 with the Polizei-Verordnung über den Verkehr mit Kraftfahrzeugen. (Fack 2000, 167) In Britain, the UK's Royal Society for the Prevention of Accidents (RoSPA) was founded in 1916, at a time when there were only about 100,000 cars in the country, whereas today there are over 37.9 million licensed vehicles in Great Britain. (GOV.UK. 2018) The RoSPA has been running campaigns to prevent or reduce road accidents for over a hundred years, non-stop. In France, another pioneer country in the development of automobiles, the laws and campaigns for road safety pre-dated the automobile itself. (Government of France 2019) France is the most extreme case. In France, there are more than twenty different bodies – "Organismes intervenant sur la sécurité routière" – dedicated to stopping the road traffic carnage. These bodies, and those in Germany and the UK, have all been working hard for well over 100 years to solve the problem, yet the problem has everywhere only grown bigger. This is a strange outcome.

A full and exhaustive list of all the present-day groups, bodies, campaigns and conferences for cutting the road accident statistics would be far too long to include here, because apart from the UN's various bodies and other transnational agencies such as the European Transport Safety Council (ETSC) in the EU, almost every country has its own NGO or charitable foundation or government agency dedicated to preventing car crashes.

Just to mention at random a few examples:
1. The Road Traffic Injury Research Network (RTIRN) is an international body founded in 1999 and based at Makerere University in Kampala, Uganda; the RTIRN focuses its efforts on investigating traffic accidents in developing countries, nowadays more commonly referred to as LICs or LMICs, low and middle income countries. (World Bank Data Team 2019) All the evidence shows that there are more deaths and injuries in LMICs than in the affluent member states of the OECD. (Nantulya & Reich 2002) As the WHO's "Road Safety Factsheet" states, "The risk of dying in a road traffic crash is more than 3 times higher in low-income countries than in high-income countries. (WHO 2018b)

2. The Australasian College of Road Safety (ACRS), founded in 1988, acts as "the peak regional body [in Australia and New Zealand] for road safety professionals, advocates, and members of the public who are focused on saving lives and serious injuries on our roads". As such, it works to support the Canberra government's long-established National Road Safety Strategy 2011–2020, and the UN's Decade of Action for Road Safety 2011-2020. (ACRS 2019) (Australian Federal Government Transport and Infrastructure Council 2019) (WHO 2010)

3. Interestingly, and somewhat curiously, the WHO's main page on the United Nations Road Safety Collaboration presently (August 2019) contains a link to a now-defunct website called "www.decadeofaction.org". This link yields a redirect to a branch of none other than the FIA website. The FIA is the Fédération Internationale de l'Automobile, the motor vehicle industry's global advocacy and promotional body, whose sub-branch, the FIA Foundation, is a charity dedicated to road safety. The FIAF describes itself as undertaking "[...] research into public policy issues relating to the automobile's interaction with society". So, even the world's car-makers are investing in efforts to reduce car-crash deaths and injuries. (UNRSC 2019) (FIAF 2019)

This move is logical enough. After all, if a company's product is causing 1.35 million deaths and 50 million injuries every year, it would be only sensible for that company to make a public relations effort to appear concerned. But why would the UN let its high-minded 'decade of action' be linked to the FIA, an agent of commerce? From the UN's standpoint, however, this is not so strange. Where the mitigation of traffic accidents is concerned, all comers are welcome at the table, and vehicle manufacturers are certainly interested in showing that they are working constantly to make their products safer.

In view of all the massive worldwide efforts mentioned above, and so many others too numerous even to mention here, why has nothing been achieved? This is an evident puzzle, and a mystery:

there has to be some better explanation than just to shrug and say, "Well, we tried our best, but the problem is bigger than our available resources could deal with." The implication of this excuse is clearly, "Let us throw even more money at the problem."

What is it about the problem of car crashes that makes it so intractably difficult – or indeed, apparently impossible – to solve? Is there perchance some unconscious, undisclosed or unacknowledged element deep in the human psyche or inherent in the culture of the automobile age that blocks or defies all treatment? What is the logic, what is the psychology, of car crashes?

2. The Car Crash Mystery: Two Lines of Reasoning

Let us now seek to shine some light on the problem by analyzing the political issues behind it and the psychocultural dimensions around it. The political issues connect it with a particular understanding of democracy, individual liberty, and the sempiternal tension between the individual and the collective or, as it increasingly presents itself in the modern age, the 'system'. The psychological and cultural analysis pertains to a certain theory of 'civilization' itself, best represented in the works of Freud and his successors. Usefully, these two lines of thought are convergent in the case of the car crash problem.

2.1. Freudian Theory of Civilization

The argument presented in this paper starts with a psychocultural critique because politics and laws and rights and freedoms and societal institutions like a parliament or a police force arise upon the foundation of culture, which has its basis in the structure of the human psyche, not the other way around. The answer to the conundrum of car-crash prevalence and intractability can partially be found by relating this conundrum to the seminal essay by Sigmund Freud, 'Civilization and its discontents' (Das Unbehagen in der Kultur, 1930).

Let us sum up, briefly, the picture painted in Das Unbehagen in der Kultur. Civilized behavior is merely an epiphenomenon of the unconscious, both the individual and the collective unconscious, in their privileged co-determining relation to each other. Civilized norms arise only as the resultant or product of repression of the destructive urges, drives, instincts and desires which inhabit and power the unconscious mind. The instance or mechanism of this repression is like a moral conscience – again, both individual and collective, with both of these dimensions crucially co-determining each other.

Freud's key insight is that this repression is never strong enough to hold out for very long against the underlying – and more powerful – forces of violence and destructiveness in the unconscious. There is always going to be the proverbial 'return of the repressed'. Hence, civilization itself is perpetually fragile, and destined inevitably to break down sooner or later, as seen in minor and major destructive outbreaks of violent 'uncivilized' behavior such as the Great War.

What has all this got to do with the intractability of car crash fatalities and injuries? It would seem evident enough that the whole vast global apparatus of car-accident prevention corresponds to the mechanism of censorship and repression in Freud's model. In this regard, it resembles certain strictures of religious discourses such as the Judaeo-Christian 'Thou shalt not kill', a 'commandment' which, in more than two millennia, has never proved effectual in the least. Just like all the preaching in the last 120 years about 'Thou shalt not crash thy car', such preaching was always doomed to fail in its pious wish to repress destructive and self-destructive tendencies – including Freud's other discovery, which is also quite relevant in the present context, that of the unconscious death-wish, a concept first defined in an earlier work of Freud's, Beyond the Pleasure Principle (German: Jenseits des Lustprinzips, 1920).

2.1.1. Counter-arguments

A possible counter-argument is that car crashes do not happen as a result of any will to do damage: they are, precisely, 'accidents', which nobody actually intended to cause, and therefore Freud's model does not fit them. The answer to this objection is that the human individual or collective will is a conscious entity, not part of the unconscious mind, and therefore the model does not require the presence or action of any conscious will-to-crash in order to be applicable.

It may be objected that the statistics on vehicular traffic accidents would likely be much worse if there had not been all this quixotic effort to curb them, and therefore it is not a case of the failure of repression to prevent destructive behavior: rather, it is a case of commendable partial success. The answer to this objection is that it belongs in the realm of pure untested speculation: we have only the results that we actually have, and not other, imaginary results. What would or could or might have happened in the absence of all these repressive measures remains unknown.

2.2. The politics of Car Crashes

In a world where state encroachment on individual liberties is self-evidently rampant, it can be argued that such liberties urgently require to be protected and defended. In a world where inequality of wealth and of individual rights is worse than ever

and constantly worsening further, it can be argued that any effort to make people more equal must be welcomed, encouraged and supported. At the same time, it seems fairly clear that State power over the individual has increased in this century out of all proportion, whereby the great paradox is that the more powerful the State becomes, the less able it is to solve the large problems of the world we all live in, such as global warming, climate change, species extinction, deforestation and desertification, environmental collapse, and – yes, indeed – world poverty. In such an alarming, dire and threatening context, what can be said or done politically about the topic under discussion here, cars and car crashes?

Not every country in the world is democratic: far from it. Also, the levels of 'democraticness' in the world are becoming less and less. Freedom House, which measures such levels, concludes in its 2019 report that:

Freedom in the World has recorded global declines in political rights and civil liberties for an alarming 13 consecutive years, from 2005 to 2018. The global average score has declined each year, and countries with net score declines have consistently outnumbered those with net improvements. (Freedom House 2019)

However, for the purposes of this paper, the discussion will focus on the ideal model of democracy, which still to a greater or lesser degree is instantiated in many countries. In a representative or parliamentary system of democracy, the State is supposed to serve the interests of 'the people', and be accountable to them. The State is the collective, it is the 'people' but attired in the garb and trappings of power. However, the relation between any given individual and his/her collective is never harmonious, because it is never a one-to-one relation. The individual and the collective are almost always in conflict with each other, generally to the harm and detriment of the former. The relationship is not symmetrical, since the Collective, acting through the agency of its State apparatuses, always constrains and coerces the Individual, whereas the Individual is less and less able to constrain or coerce the Collective, through traditional means such as voting, petitioning, lobbying, protesting, demonstrating, and indeed even revolution. It can scarcely be argued that this situation is a good thing: it is simply an inevitability. Short of a worldwide dystopian disintegration of the social fabric and its established machinery of social order, which anarchists have imagined but which few others desire, nothing can arrest or reverse the onward march of State power over the citizen.

On the positive side of the individual liberty balance sheet, the advent of 'automobilism' (from Automobilismus, as the Germans call it) has been hailed as a great leap forward for individual

freedom, and this is most assuredly the case. In the United States, libertarian thinkers like Randal O'Toole have made this case most plausibly:

... [private car] mobility is really important because mobility gives people access to more economic resources, more social resources, more recreation opportunities. Mobility of course has completely transformed in the 20th century. Before 1800, hardly anybody in the world had ever traveled faster than a horse could run and lived to tell about it. (O'Toole 2019)

According to Spencerian Libertarianism, individual freedom – understood as the right to maximum and equal but negative liberty – is the highest value. By 'negative' liberty, the followers of Herbert Spencer mean 'the absence of forcible interference from other agents'. (Narveson 1988) If one can afford to own and run a car, one can certainly gain a large measure of such freedom, even today: one can drive around all over the map quite freely as long as one pays one's car registration and insurance, and abides by certain simple 'rules of the road'. Up to now, Spencer's proverbial 'other agents' did not substantially interfere with this liberty. Now, however, the rising hyper-dominance of State power in our de-democratizing world order threatens this individual right.

Few would argue that individual freedom should include the right to crash one's car and hurt or kill another individual, and certainly no genuine libertarian would espouse such a view, which would contradict the principle of equal negative liberty. However, the history of the ever more pervasive and intrusive road safety campaigns, laws, and regulations, accompanied by the mass deployment of high surveillance technologies, would suggest that things are moving inexorably in the direction of greater restrictions on citizens. This inexorable progression looks like culminating ultimately – but in a relatively near future – in the conquest of the roads by autonomous vehicles, or 'self-driving cars'. Opinions diverge widely on the foreseeable timeline for this to happen.

2.3. Self-driving Cars

Some of the prominent advocates of individual freedom, including Randal O'Toole, cited above, are hailing the autonomous vehicle revolution as another great step forward because it is claimed to solve the problems of congestion and road safety:

Pretty soon you will be able to drive a car – buy a car that will drive itself everywhere and they won't even have steering wheels. [...] if we can use the existing infrastructure, our four million miles of [US] roads and streets that we already have without any

changes to them, self-driving cars can totally transform how we use that, make it a lot more effective, faster, cheaper, safer and more convenient than the transportation system we have today. (O'Toole 2019)

There is some scope and reason to disagree. While there are a hundred different views on the Autonomous Vehicle (AV) revolution, no-one really knows yet what to expect. The recent book by transport industry expert Sam Schwartz (No One at the Wheel: Driverless Cars and the Road of the Future, November 2018) amply demonstrates this, by quoting a dozen different conflicting sources and citing five mutually contradictory yet still plausible scenarios.

In the US at least, Elaine Chao, the Trump administration's Secretary of Transportation at the time of writing, is trying to mollify the libertarian supporters of the regime by promising that Americans will always have the joys of driving their cars on their beloved 'Open Road' even when AVs have taken over. The National Highway Traffic Safety Administration (NHTSA), an executive agency of the Department of Transportation (DoT) published its policy document 'Preparing for the Future of Transportation: Automated Vehicles 3.0', on October 4, 2018, wherein the last of the six stated U.S. DoT 'Automation Principles' reads as follows:

We will protect and enhance the freedoms enjoyed by Americans. U.S. DOT embraces the freedom of the open road, which includes the freedom for Americans to drive their own vehicles. We envision an environment in which automated vehicles operate alongside conventional, manually-driven vehicles and other road users. We will protect the ability of consumers to make the mobility choices that best suit their needs. We will support automation technologies that enhance individual freedom by expanding access to safe and independent mobility to people with disabilities and older Americans.

Until the Autonomous Driving Systems (ADS) revolution actually happens, no-one can tell whether this grand promise will ever be kept. But where the typically mendacious political rhetoric of a chaotic administration is concerned, it would no doubt be prudent to maintain a strict policy of caveat emptor. There is one scenario that is often invoked, and which is at least as plausible as any of the others: that human drivers in non-automated vehicles will sooner or later be banned entirely from using the roads, and where is the 'enhanced individual freedom' then?

Why should the rest of the world worry about the US federal government's ADS policy and whether it will ever be implemented? Because whatever else may be said about it, the US is still a very influential country: where the US leads, many will follow.

3. Conclusions

Staggering and incalculable amounts of money are spent every year on paying people to jet around the planet and congregate in lavish hotels and conference centers to talk and think about ways to save lives on the world's roads, but the upward spiral of deaths and injuries continues unabated. Little or nothing has been achieved, and this seems unlikely to change. This paper has argued that all or most of that expenditure is wasted and all (or most of) those efforts are in vain because those experts and officials in their costly global get-togethers are all missing the point.

As long as the citizens of the world have any liberty left, they will in some degree be free to go astray and kill or maim themselves or others. Road traffic and motor vehicles are merely the modern mode of expression of the ancient two-edged sword called 'human freedom'. To err is human, as the old proverb goes, and if all chance of human error is one day eliminated, so is our fundamental humanity.

Until the day comes when we have handed over all agency and responsibility to the Ultimate Great Other of technology and are all riding around in 'autonomous vehicles' that make all the decisions for us – in other words, until we become totally enslaved to a machine intelligence that is not our own – there will continue to be car crashes, fatalities and injuries. Those who love liberty must be prepared to take that on board. This paper thus concludes, as befits its topic, with an open question: given what is well known about the history of the human mind, even if it were possible to 'reprogram' our DNA so as to eliminate from the world all forms of error, waste and loss, would we really want such a world?

References

1. Australasian College of Road Safety. 2019. "Full brochure on the College". Accessed 22 August 2019. https://acrs.org.au/wp-content/uploads/ACRS-DL-Broch08.pdf
2. Australian Federal Government Transport and Infrastructure Council. 2019. "National Road Safety Strategy". Accessed 22 August 2019. https://www.roadsafety.gov.au
3. Fack, Dietmar. 2000. Automobil, Verkehr und Erziehung. Motorisierung und Sozialisation zwischen

Beschleunigung und Anpassung 1885–1945. Opladen: Leske + Budrich.

4. FIA Foundation. 2019. "Road safety initiatives". Accessed 22 August 2019. https://www.fiafoundation.org/our-work/road-safety

5. Freedom House. 2019. "Freedom in the World 2019". Accessed 22 August 2019. https://freedomhouse.org/report/freedom-world/freedom-world-2019

6. Freud, Sigmund. 2005 [original German text 1930]. Civilization and Its Discontents (The Standard Edition) (Complete Psychological Works of Sigmund Freud). New York, NY: W. W. Norton.

7. Government of France. 2019. "Les grandes dates de la Sécurité routière". Accessed 22 August 2019. https://www.securite-routiere.gouv.fr/mieux-nous-connaitre/qui-sommes-nous/les-grandes-dates-de-la-securite-routiere

8. GOV.UK. 2018. "Vehicle licensing statistics: January to March 2018". Accessed 22 August 2019. https://www.gov.uk/government/statistics/vehicle-licensing-statistics-january-to-march-2018

9. Nantulya V.M., Reich M.R. 2002. "The neglected epidemic: road traffic injuries in developing countries". British Medical Journal. 324(7346):1139–41.

10. National Highway Traffic Safety Administration (NHTSA). 2018. "Preparing for the Future of Transportation: Automated Vehicle 3.0". Accessed 22 August 2019. https://www.transportation.gov/av/3

11. Narveson, J. 1988. The Libertarian Idea. Philadelphia: Temple University Press.

12. Niemann, Harry; Hermann, Armin (Eds.). 2006. Geschichte der Straßenverkehrssicherheit im Wechselspiel zwischen Fahrzeug, Fahrbahn und Mensch (Wissenschaftliche Schriftenreihe des DaimlerChrysler Konzernarchivs). Königswinter [Nordrhein-Westfalen]: Verlag Heel.

13. O'Toole, Randal. 2019. "Transportation, Land Use, and Freedom". Accessed 22 August 2019. https://www.libertarianism.org/media/free-thoughts/transportation-land-use-freedom

14. Schwartz, Samuel I. 2018. No One at the Wheel: Driverless Cars and the Road of the Future. New York, NY: PublicAffairs.

15. United Nations. 2015. "Sustainable Development Goals." Accessed 22 August 2019. https://www.un.org/sustainabledevelopment/sustainable-development-goals/.

16. United Nations Road Safety Collaboration (UNRSC). 2019. "Decade of Action for Road Safety 2011-2020". Accessed 22 August 2019. https://www.who.int/roadsafety/decade_of_action/en/

17. World Bank Data Team. 2019. "New country classifications by income level: 2018-2019". Accessed 22 August 2019. https://blogs.worldbank.org/opendata/new-country-classifications-income-level-2018-2019

18. World Health Organization [WHO]. 2010. "Decade of Action for Road Safety 2011-2020". Accessed 22 August 2019. https://www.who.int/roadsafety/decade_of_action/en/

19. World Health Organization [WHO]. 2018a. "Global status report on road safety 2018." Accessed 22 August 2019. https://www.who.int/violence_injury_prevention/road_safety_status/2018/en/

20. World Health Organization [WHO]. 2018b. "Road Safety Factsheet." Accessed 22 August 2019. https://www.who.int/news-room/facts-in-pictures/detail/road-safety

SCAN ME

HOW DOES MASS IMMIGRATION TRANSFORM THE DESTINATION SOCIETIES?

Dilshad SABRI ALI, Msc

Universit of Soran, Faculty of Arts, dilshad.ali@soc.soran.edu.krd

A b s t r a c t

The phenomenon of mass migration is explained thoroughly in this paper. It explains how easy global transportation by air and sea in a technological advanced world has made mass migration much easier. Mass Migration has also been made easier by globalization in that borders and boundaries between countries are being eliminated. Mass migration is explained in the sense that it takes into account the immigrants effect on destination countries such as the European Union, the United States of America, and also Canada. It takes into account how destination countries integrate and absorb these migrants within their economic sectors. It also takes into account how global security has been threatened by mass immigration. This paper also explains how national identity is being maintained in destination countries as mass migration influences the culture and beliefs of a country. The content analysis as methodology was used to discover the issue in this article.

Introduction

Over the last few decades mass immigration has become a reality for large parts of the world, particularly in western developed societies. It is argued that mass immigration has created several advantages for host nations. However, at the same time it has also brought considerable difficulties for destination societies. The concept of international migration is defined by the United Nations, "As a person who stays outside their usual country of residence for at least one year, which is called an international migrant" (Koser, 2007: 4). This definition of international migration will be used as the main point in this article for discussing mass immigration. According to this definition the number of migrations, particularly international migration has increased worldwide, especially in industrialized countries during the second half of the 20th Century. It is expected that by 2050 the number of immigrants who live in the western world will increase by approximately 30% (Ivlevs and King, 2012: 118).

The number of people who live in another country in 2005 was estimated to be 200 million, which at the time was approximately 3% of the world's population. This is despite increased attempts by several developed countries to restrict immigration in their societies. This is virtually equivalent to the fifth most populous country in the world, Brazil. In addition, if this rate of immigration is compared to 1960, it has increased by over twice the amount (Polgreen and Simpson, 2011: 819; Koser, 2007: 4). Recently, the voices of several critics of mass immigration can be heard in a number of destination societies. These critics claim that international migration causes several disadvantages for destination societies, for instance, economic recession, unemployment, pressure on health care and the benefits system, and questions with regards to national identity are some of the issues raised.

In this essay, the role of globalization in the process of migration in industrialized countries in recent decades will be pointed out. In addition, it will briefly look into the history of migration in western developed societies. Further to this, the main objective of the article is to show how mass immigration can transform destination countries. This will be the core part of the essay. The various debates about mass immigration in destination societies will be explored and evaluated.

There are many arguments that illustrate which globalization plays a significant role in increasing the number of international immigrants across the world. Many social scientists, principally sociologists emphasize the connection between globalization and an increasing international migration to developed societies in

recent decades. People can move from one country to another more readily than in the past because of well-developed transportation systems, relatively safer and inexpensive travel and improved communication technologies such as the internet and mobile telecommunications (Doyle, 2004: 1). Supporters of the migration claim that the world has become a global village and that globalization is a way to accelerate integration and interconnectedness in all dimensions of contemporary social life such as the economy, cultures, national identities and security (Held et al., 1999:2; Heywood, 2011: 11).

1. Methodology

This research utilized content analysis in qualitative research to illustrate the range of meanings of phenomena mass migration. The flexibility of utilizing deductive or inductive procedures or a mixture of both approaches in data analysis which is a characteristic of qualitative content analysis. Qualitative content analysis allows researchers to interpretation of texts and documents to understand social reality in a subjective, yet scientific way. In another word, the content analysis of qualitative method depends on interpretation and reading texts by researchers (Bryman, 2012: 289).

2. A Literature Review of the History of Migration

There are different views, which might be utilized to consider international migration. Migration has long and important place in history for humankind. It is impossible to illustrate the whole history of international migration in this essay. The history of migration began around 5000BC, when some people separated from the African continent into European countries, and then into other continents (Koser, 2007: 1). In the eighteenth and nineteenth centuries, approximately 12 million people migrated from poorer African countries through slavery to western industrialized societies. Subsequently, a period of increased international migration occurred after World War II. The western developed societies needed to maintain economic growth after the War, as a result, large numbers of North Africans immigrated to Belgium, France, and Turkish workers were employed in Germany.

Most recently in the 1970s and 1990s international migrants increased in industrialized societies such as European countries and the USA (Koser, 2007). As mentioned above, globalization has played a considerable role in increasing the number of migrants around the world, especially in western developed states after the Second World War (Castles and Miller, 2009). For example, reports illustrate that at the beginning of this millennium the figures for international migration were increasing and

becoming a complication for destination societies. It was stated that approximately 1 in 4 inhabitants in western developed countries such as the USA, Switzerland, Australia, Germany, Sweden, Canada and New Zealand were foreign born. The great number and various origins of international migrants remarkably challenge long held concepts of citizenship within nation-state boundaries (Bloemraad, et al., 2008: 154).

This increase is not restricted to countries such as Australia, the USA or Canada, which are called the 'classic immigration states'. For instance, in western states the ratio of foreign populations is expected to increase to 30% by 2050. Thus, it could be argued that such a rapid increase in population may create sizable ethnic minority groups, who remain isolated from their host nations, causing both negative and positive emotions. The negative emotions may emerge because immigrants sometimes create exploitable social instability as they clash with traditional social structures, notions of nationhood, and culture. The positive emotions that appear might be due to immigrants integrating into the employment sector, economic progress and international cooperation (Ivlevs and King, 2012: 118). Consequently, mass migration has been considered and studied by social scientists, especially sociologists in destination societies from a socioeconomic and social-cultural concept. In addition, international migration has become a considerable issue for destination societies as a threat to security, national identity, especially after the horrific events of 9/11 in New York and 7/7 London (Tanrisever, 2007:238; Ceccorulli, 2009: 10).

Some opponents of migration argue that the problems such as economic recession, security and fading national identity are related to and frequently caused by immigrants in destination countries. Whilst, advocates of migration refute these arguments and claim that migration has more benefits than detrimental effects on the host countries.

3. The economy and Labor Market

The concerns with respect to the effects of mass immigration on destination societies are one of the most significant contemporary debates. The number of immigrants who are living in developed societies are increasing and at the same time that several of these countries are encountering enormous structural shifts in their labour markets and economies (Koser, 2007: 90). It is impossible to ignore the role that globalization is having on developed societies. The changing dimensions in these destination societies, it is argued has negative effects from the perspective of proponents of anti-migration and cultural diversity. From the perspective of advocates of immigration, migration has positive impacts on destination countries by bringing a varied and skilled work force, hard working employees, the opportunity to learn

about and experience diverse cultures for the host nations, and furthermore, some people state they bring a return to traditional family values that developed countries are gradually losing.

A significant focus for debate in destination societies on mass immigration has recently been the labour market and economy. According to economic theory, migrants decide to migrate having compared their situation in their homeland to life in more developed countries (Sjaatad, 1962 cited in Polgreen and Simpson, 2011: 820). If the destination country's conditions, especially economic conditions are better than the person's place of origin, then individuals will decide to move to a host country (Ibid). The main factors in increasing numbers in international migration are the economic issues and economic growth in developed countries. However, these days developed countries are placing more restrictions on the free movement of people, especially immigration from parts of the world such as Africa, Asia and the Sub-continent. This is due to increased unrest from some of their citizens to what they see as 'foreigners' taking jobs, housing, benefit, and gaining free access to health care.

According to standard economic theory, free movement of immigration across borders demonstrates limited evidence of the advantages of immigration due to the economic expense, and the effects of immigrants on welfare and social costs, whilst paying fewer taxes (Orcalli, 2007: 1). Opponents of migration argue that immigration has a remarkable negative influence on labour markets in destination countries. According to Schmidt et al. (1994) immigrants would compete with unskilled domestic labour, in order to obtain the restricted number of occupations, which are available. This causes a decrease in the wages of unskilled workers and can increase social turmoil and raise hostility in destination societies. Schmidt et al., asserts that immigration may threaten the economy, the system of unemployment insurance and the welfare system, which is provided in developed countries (1994: 186).

In contrast, Hijzen and Wright (2010) both illustrate that a rise in the rate of unskilled immigrants has a very small negative effect on unskilled domestic employees wages, and that there is even no notable effect on skilled domestic workers (Hijzen and Wright, 2010:1192). Furthermore, there is a global agreement amongst economists, in extensive terms, which states that the economic effect of immigrants on a destination society is affirmative (Steiner, 2009: 43).

Recently, the economic increase in several developed countries has been related to the positive effect of mass migration. For example, around a quarter percent of labourers in the USA are immigrants. According to the president's Council of Economic Advisers, "On average, U.S. natives benefit from immigration. Immigrants tend to complement (not substitute for) natives, raising natives' productivity and income. Careful studies of the long-run fiscal effects of immigration concluded that it is likely to have a modest, positive influence". An example of the positive benefits can be seen in the remarkable growth of Singapore's economy in recent decades because of immigrant labourers. Immigrant workers make up one of third Singapore's population (Steiner, 2009: 43). The increase in the economy in both the US and Singapore is a positive example of immigration for pro-immigration supporters to critics of mass immigration.

Despite both these positive examples about immigrants in the USA and Singapore, the indigenous people might not like to live with migrants in a society, particularly when they realize their job opportunities are being negatively impacted upon (Damelang and Haas, 2012: 367). Whilst, supporters of immigration claim that if immigrants have negative effects on societies, then why do developed countries receive these migrants? As Steiner (2009) highlighted, Canada attempted to attract high-skilled workers into its labour market, and roughly 59% of the immigrants were from a high-skilled and business background (Steiner, 2009: 14).

These types of immigrants can contribute to economic growth and investment in developed societies. Critics claim that the large numbers of people who immigrate to developed countries are unskilled and from poor societies such as Asia and Africa. These critics demand that authorities should control borders, in order to decrease the number of immigrants and increase domestic employment (Basu, 2009: 878). Supporters of immigration in destination societies refer to an example of those who claim that most immigrants are unskilled, cause unemployment to rise, and place pressure on the economy.

According to the USA's census report in 1990, around 63% of people who immigrated to the USA had the minimum of a high school degree. Moreover, approximately 21% of all migrants had a college or a further degree (Papademetriou, 1997: 20). As Altschuler (2013) emphasized in her article, migration can be positive for host societies due to its highly professional background, which can complement local people in all sectors of society (2013: 549). For example, according to a research in 2008, in the USA, the rate of patents designed by immigrants is actually higher than the indigenous population. These patents produce benefits because of the higher average share of different degrees among skilled immigrants (Niebuhr, 2010: 564). However, anti-immigration proponents argue that enabling a large number of immigrants of different skills, especially the highly-skilled to enter into industrialized societies leads to a rise in negative influences on the high-skilled residents in all sectors. For

instance, a report by the OECD 2007 Illustrates that 11% of nurses and 18% doctors employed in OECD countries were foreign born around 2000 (Castles and Miller, 2009: 64).

This is an example, which can be used to illustrate that immigrants have a negative impact and are likely to take jobs from the local population. As opponents of immigration claim that migrants gradually take hold of all sectors, especially the economic and labour markets in destination countries. Whilst, others claim that immigrants can share their knowledge with native residents, create new opportunities for work and intellectual property, and boost the economy in host countries (Steiner, 2009:44).

4. Security and Mass Immigration

Globalization has had an extremely important role in introducing different people and cultures to each other across the world. It can be argued that gathering them together in places creates cultural diversity in destination communities. It can also be debated that globalization has had some negative influences on western societies such as contributing to conflict between majority and minority groups, in terms of religion and security.

There have been millions of immigrants from Asia, Latin America and Africa into destination societies in the more developed western world, and this can bring a lack of integration into these societies, especially after the well-known terrorist attack on the twin towers in New York in 2001 and also the London bombings in 2005 (Castles and Miller, 2009: 3). There are several arguments that countries have rights of control to prevent immigrants from crossing their borders because of the threat to public security, rising crime and terrorism, and social disorder (Seglow, 2005: 319).

Recently, mass immigration and security have become the top place on the policy agenda in destination societies especially in the western world. The critic's voice against migration is increasing. They are demanding governments' change the migration policy because immigrants are a threat to public security and stability in society (Ceccorulli, 2009: 1).

It can be noted that politicians and the media play contribute in spreading xenophobia in western communities and claim that migrants are associated with terrorist groups from outside countries such as the Al-Qaeda. This was due to reports, which documented that a number of immigrants who support Islamic extremism were found to have had links with terrorist groups in Afghanistan and Pakistan (Castles & Miller, 2009: 4).

After the attacks of women during the 11th September in 2001 and the 7th of July 2005 several reports were published of attacks and harassment of minority groups of people who had migrated to western industrialized countries, particularly Muslim immigrants. In this case, when the immigrants or minority people found themselves the victims of hostility and suspicion, it was an influential factor in encouraging some individuals and groups to take revenge on people in the host societies (Modood and Ahmad, 2007: 188). For instance, this comes from anxiety about terrorist groups and networks attracting alienated young immigrants in host countries to become involved in battles outside the country and act like a 'fifth column' at home (Modood and Ahmad, 2007: 188).

These arguments by anti-migration followers lead to a spread in xenophobia and hostility between migrants and domestic residents in destination communities (Koser, 2007: 61). For instance, it can be mentioned that the riots in May 2001 by Pakistani and Bangladeshi youths against the white youths was due to inequality and hostility as protesters claimed in the UK, which caused chaos, instability in three cities in northern England. This example supports the claim of anti-immigration adherents, in relation to public security disorder in host countries (Vertovec and Wessendorf, 2010: 5). A further instance was that the bulk of participants in the riots, which happened in France, in 2005, were young people who were from a migrant background. Those young French protesters of an African and North African background expressed anger against the high levels of discrimination and hostility from both the indigenous people and the police (Castles and Miller, 2009: 1). These examples encourage anti-migration supporters to pressure their governments to change the migration policy and control the borders, in order to protect security. Furthermore, critics of immigration and racism in western democratic countries claim that each society and culture requires its own mother country, where the native population can live undisturbed others. Commonly, advocates of this viewpoint assert that, like some western people, immigrants can be happier in their homelands and in their natural surroundings as well (Lentin, 2005: 390).

In contrast, these claims that are against mass immigration and cultural diversity from the supporters of immigration and multi-culturalism assert that mass immigration has more advantages for destination communities than negative impacts. As mentioned before, there are a few positive effects of migration in the economic section, for example, "the theories of multiculturalism consequently call for recognition and accommodation of cultural minorities, including immigrants, and require states to create policies or laws that allow minority groups to root their

participation in society within their cultural communities" (Bloemraad et al., 2008: 160).

Contrary to the public debate with respect to immigration in most developed countries which claims that immigration is out of control, supporters of immigration revealed this example from the 1990s, where 7 out of 8 immigrants who settled in developed societies, crossed through regulated borders or channels, which serve the needs of the developed countries much more than the immigrants themselves (Papademetriou, 1997: 16).

4.1. National Identity and Mass Immigration

Another point in this article on mass immigration is related to nationality. In the west, destination societies are encountering a disappearance in their own national identity. Immigrants who live in destination countries might have a lower standard of life, such as class, language, education, which leads to them separating themselves from the host communities and a denial of integration with the mainstream nationality and society. These points inevitably lead western host countries and their governments to change their migration policies to try and encourage more integration. The integration requirements are based on knowledge of the host society's culture, history, constitution, language and citizen test (Acosta, 2010: 234). In addition, as Kymlicka (2010) indicates in his book, opponents of mass immigration worry about these factors, highlighted above, as they lead to the weakening of nationality, identity and culture, and also destroy the structure of society in the host countries (Kymlicka, 2010).

It can be pointed out that critics of mass immigration in destination countries claim that foreign people who live in their countries come from different societies with different nationalities, cultures and languages, and appear different in their physical appearance such as clothing, hairstyle and so on. These acts and behaviours from immigrants cause xenophobia to spread among domestic people and lead to problems with the future of national identity and coherence in host societies, especially when immigrants attempt to create a community in which members do not try to integrate into mainstream society, have not loyalty to the host nation and deny learning the language and culture (Castle& Miller, 2009: 14).

Some politicians and the media have a long history of hostility with mass immigrants. They voice anti- migration concerns and encourage western developed governments to change the policy of migration by showing negative aspects about immigrants, in order to maintain the white identity in western countries, e.g. Critics of immigration argue that immigrants live in white neighborhoods and have the same right as white people, but that they do not have loyalty towards national identity, and deny

integrating into mainstream society. For example, in the last few years, the French Parliament voted in favour of a new law, in order to prevent schoolgirls wearing the veil in schools (Vertovec and Wessendorf, 2010:5). This example highlights where destination countries attempt to prevent immigrants keeping their national identity and indicates to them to integrate into mainstream society. On the contrary, the United Nations General Assembly via the approval of the statement of the rights of native people in 2007 stated that "the trend towards enhanced land rights, self-government powers and customary law for indigenous peoples remains fully in place across the Western democracy" (Kymlicka, 2010: 40).

Nevertheless, most western countries in recent years have attempted to change migration policies and add tough questions into migration tests, as illustrated above, for new migrants who want to enter these countries (e.g. Germany, Austria, the UK, Holland and Denmark) (Vertovec and Wessendorf, 2010: 17). In contrast to critics of immigration, who claim that immigrants in destination countries destroy their new countries' identity and social order, several supporters of immigration theories assert that a community's culture and nationality will be richer because of immigrants from different nationalities and cultures (McKinstry, 2013).

If we look at some recent surveys amongst immigrants and domestic people about belonging to the host national identity, we can observe that some immigrants answer that they have strong feelings about the host's national identity. The UK can be seen as an example here because of the large number of immigrants. A survey conducted in 2003 by the 'Home Office Citizenship Survey' among Indians, Pakistanis and Bangladeshis,and white people,asked, 'How strongly do you belong to Britain?' As a result, approximately 86% of participants answered that they felt strong about belonging to Britain. At the same time, around 86.7% of white participants answered the same (Kymlika, 2011: 283). This survey highlights mass immigration does not have significant negative impact on destination countries.

5. Conclusions

This article has attempted to illustrate the role of mass immigration in altering destination societies, which are chosen by migrants as host countries to live in. In addition, after the Second World War globalization had a strong role in accelerating this process and transforming destination societies in terms of socio-culture and socioeconomic -economic through mass immigration. In this essay, I have endeavored to show some arguments about the effects of mass immigration in destination societies, particularly in developed western countries. The article has tried to focus on the labour markets and the economy, which opponents

of immigration believe have negative impacts on host countries by showing some strong examples. On the other hand, advocates of immigration and cultural diversity disprove these arguments by illustrating positive evidence and claim that immigration has a remarkable effect on destination societies by creating new job opportunities, increasing host countries' economy through investment and sharing their knowledge with domestic laborers. It can be said that the arguments for immigration, which related to the endangerment of public security, and fading national identity and citizenship in destination countries, mainly in developed societies have risen after the attack on the twin towers in New York in 2001 and the London bombings in 2005. Particularly these events lead to the opponent's orientation in relation to immigration turning towards negative changes in destination societies. They support their claims by giving some examples of the negative effects on destination countries of immigration such as a rise in unemployment, culture diversity and national identity. These criticisms lead governments to review some laws on migration to reduce these negative impacts.

In contrast, supporters of mass immigration in destination countries, ask that the western world should not change their laws and policy of migration to tighten levels, in order to limit free movement across borders, especially for immigrants. Furthermore, regulations that lead to immigrants being integrated into mainstream society by force, as illustrated in this essay, the most obvious being in France, should not be allowed.

References

1. Altschuler, J., (2013), "Migration, illness and health care" Contemporary Family Therapy, Vol. 35, No. 3 pg 546-556.

2. Aosta, D., (2010), "A belief in the purity of the nation: the possible dangers of its influence on migration legislation in Europe" Studies in Ethnicity and Nationalism Vol. 10, No. 2 pg 234-254.

3. Basu, B., (2009), "Another look at mass migration and unions in western Europe" Economic Modelling Vol. 26, No. 5 pg 878-885.

4. Bloemraad, I. Korteweg, A. Yurdakul, G., (2008), "Citizenship and immigration: multiculturalism, assimilation, and challenges to the nation-state" Annual Review of Sociology Vol. 34, No. 1 pg 153-179.

5. Bryman, A., (2012), "Social research methods", Oxford: Oxford University Press, 4th Edition.

6. Castles, S. Miller, M., (2009), "The age of migration: international population movements in the modern world" New York: Guilford Press, 4th Edition.

7. Ceccorulli, M., (2009), "Migration as a security threat: internal and external dynamics in the European Union" Forum on the Problems of Peace and War, Florence Working Paper No: 65/09 pg 1-30.

8. Damelang, A. Haas, A., (2012), "the benefits of migration: cultural diversity and labour market success" European Societies Vol. 14, No. 3 pg 362-392.

9. Doyle, M., (2004), "the challenge of worldwide migration" Journal of International Affairs Vol. 57, No. 2 pg 1-5.

10. Held, D. McGrew, A. Goldblatt, D. Perraton, J., (1999), "Global Transformations: Politics, Economics and Culture", Cambridge: Polity Press.

11. Heywood, A., (2011), "Global Politics", Basingstoke: Palgrave Macmillan.

12. Hijzen, A. Wright, P., (2010), "Migration, trade and wages" Journal of Population Economics Vol. 23, No. 4 pg 1189-1211.

13. Ivlevs, A. King, R., (2012), "Family migration capital and migration intentions" Journal of family and economicissues Vol. 33, No. 1 pg 118-129.

14. Kosar, K., (2007), "International Migration A Very Short Introduction", New York: Oxford University Press.

15. Kymlicka, W., (2010), "The rise and fall of multiculturalism? New debates on inclusion and accommodation in diverse societies", in S. Vertovec, and S. Wessendorf (eds) The Multiculturalism Backlash, Abingdon: Routledge, pg 32-49.

16. Kymlicka, W., (2011), "Multicultural citizenship within multination states" Ethnicities, Vol. 11, No. 3 pg 281-302.

17. Lentin, A., (2005), "Replacing 'race', historicizing 'culture' in multiculturalism" Patterns of Prejudice, Vol. 39, No. 4 pg 379-396.

18. McKinstry, L. (2013) Mass Immigration is Destroying Our Once Great Nation. [Online]. Available from: https://www.express.co.uk/comment/columnists/leo-mckinstry/451080/Mass-immigration-is-destroying-our-once-great-nation, [accessed 28th September 2019]

19. Modood, T. Ahmad, F., (2007), "British muslim perspectives on multiculturalism" Theory, Culture & Society, Vol. 24, No. 2 pg 187-213.

20. Niebuhr, A., (2010), "Migration and innovation: does cultural diversity matter for regional R&D activity?" Papers in Regional Science, Vol. 89, No. 3 pg 563-585.

21. Orcalli, G., (2007), "Constitutional choice and European immigration policy" Constitutional Political Economy, Vol. 18, No. 1 pg 1-20.

22. Papademetriou, D., (1997), "Migration" Foreign Policy, Vol. 109, pg 15-31.

23. Polgreen, L. Simpson, N., (2011), "Happiness and international migration" Journal of Happiness Studies, Vol. 12, No. 5 pg 819-840.

24. Schmidt, C. Stilz, A. Zimmermann, K., (1994), "Mass migration, unions, and government intervention" Journal of Public Economics, Vol. 55 No. 2 pg 185-201.

25. Seglow, J., (2005), "The ethics of immigration" Political Studies Review, Vol. 3 No. 3 pg 317-334.

26. Steiner, N., (2009), "International migration and citizenship today", Abingdon: Routledge.

27. Tanrisever, O., (2007), "Review of International Migration and Security: Opportunities and Challengesby Elspeth Guild and Joanne van Selm. Comparative Sociology Vol. 6, pg 232-245.

28. Vertovec, S. Wessendorf, S., (2010), "Introduction: Assessing the backlash against multiculturalism in Europe" in S. Vertovec, and S. Wessendorf (eds) The Multiculturalism Backlash, Abingdon: Routledge, pg 1-31.

ENCRYPTED DATA SERVICE FOR SECURITY ELECTRONIC COMMUNICATIONS

Prof. Asoc. Dr. Naim BAFTIU

Dr. Sc. Ahmet NUREDINI

Prof. Asoc. Dr. Samedin KRRABAJ*

*Correspondent Author: Universit of Prizren "Ukshin Hoti", Faculty of Computer Science, samedin.krrabaj@uni-prizren.com

A b s t r a c t

The law on electronic communications has so far enumerated a considerable number of natural persons, legal entities as well as public institutions that use code systems and crypto devices during communication. Of particular interest is addressing the key role of operators and providers of encrypted data services in combating abuses committed through or against computer systems as the responsible performance of their duties to protect the security of networks and computer systems affects significantly in controlling illegal risks and attacks. In this perspective, the specific legal obligations for the protection of privacy regarding personal data that are processed for the purpose of providing information services are also analysed.

The purpose of the paper is, utilizing communication between two parties sharing a common key, implementing a shared key to protect data communicated with different security attributes, Role of cryptography in data protection during communication, and Focus on privacy. Of the data communicated, against their authenticity.

Introduction

Cryptography is very important for transferring information from one place to another, and not wanting anyone to read it. With the rapid growth of internet use and all the work being done on it, such as online banking, which is directly related to our money, the need for electronic security is increasing.

Cryptography is used to enhance the security of online communication such as e-mail messages, online transactions, computer passwords, ATM card transactions, computer data and many other private information.
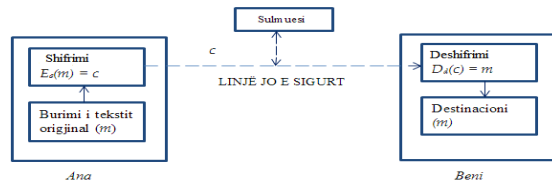
1. Symmetric Crypto - Classic Definition

Cryptography is an uncommon science, a scientific discipline that deals with the discovery and advancement of methods for converting open text into digits and figures into open text. In this science, research culminates only when the result provides the confidential information to unauthorized persons, regardless of how they are exchanged. The notions of cryptography, with the notion of open source, mean information dedicated to one or more collaborators involved in the unique communication system. By the notion of digits, we mean the incomprehensible (encrypted) text for unauthorized persons not found in the unique system of secret communication. By the notion of decoding we mean the reverse coding action, by which we know the encryption-decoding method to convert the cipher into open text (Hamit 2011).

If the cipher is transmitted to the receiver, in the hands of unauthorized persons it is called a cryptogram. The action to open that cryptogram without knowing the encoding-decoding method is called Decryption. By key notion we mean the secret word (password) which roughly defines the way of deciphering. In cryptography the key will play a crucial role in determining the cryptographic value of a system. The encryption is done by applying certain methods, which should be known only to the sender and receiver of the secret information. Only in this way

can the sender and the recipient exchange information, the confidentiality of which is guaranteed. The advantage of encrypted information is that even if it falls into the hands of unauthorized persons, they will understand nothing from non-information (Hamit, 2011).

Figure 1. scheme Basic communication

The symmetric encryption scheme has five components:
•**Plain Text** - The original or original message to be sent is known as open text.
•**Cipher Text** - The message on which the cipher is applied is known as the cipher text.
In cryptography the initial message "hello" can be converted to such incomprehensible form "**Ajd672 # @ 91uk**".

Encoding - The process of converting an open text into encoded text is known as encoding. Cryptography uses encryption techniques to send confidential messages over an unsecured line of communication. The coding process requires two things: a coding algorithm and a key. The encryption algorithm means the technique used and the encryption occur on the sender side.

•**Decoding** - An inverse process of decoding is known as decoding, where the encoded text is converted to the original text. Cryptography uses decoding techniques on the recipient's side to retrieve the original message from the encoded text.
•**Key** - A key is an alphanumeric text or may be a special symbol.

A source produces a message clearly, e.g. $X = [X1, X2... XM]$.

A key of the form $K = [K1, K2... KJ]$ is generated.

If the key is generated at the message source, then it must also be secured to the destination via a secure channel.

Alternatively, a third party may generate the key and deliver it to the source and destination. The cipher text $Y = [Y1, Y2... YN]$ is generated by the encryption algorithm with the **X** message and the **K** encoding key as input. The Encryption Process is: $Y = E(K, X)$

This notation indicates that **Y** is produced using the encryption algorithm **E** as a simple function **X**, with the specific function defined by the value of the key **K**. The target key receiver is able to reverse the transformation according to the formula: $X = D(K, Y)$

An opponent, observing Y but not having access to K or X, may attempt to cover **X** or **K** or both. It is assumed that the opponent knows the encryption **(E)** and decryption **(D)** algorithms.
The opponent can do one of the following. Remove **X** by generating a simple **X ^** rating, if the opponent is only interested in this particular message Recover K by generating a **K ^** rating, if the opponent is interested in being able to read future messages.

There are several terms associated with cryptosystems:
- Cryptologist
- Cryptography
- Cryptanalysis and
- Cryptosystems:

Cryptosystems - A cryptographic system or a cryptosystem is a system that enables two parties to communicate securely. A cryptosystem contains five elements (**P, C, K, E, D**), each of which is described as follows:

P - Represents a finite set of possible initial texts,
C - A finite set of possible coded texts,
K - A finite set of possible keys,
E - A set of cipher functions,
D - A set of corresponding decoding functions.

Mathematically a cryptosystem is defined as follows: Definition: Let P be the open text space, C the encoded text space, **K** the space of the keys. Let c be the decoding function and **dk** the decoding function.

Then for each key $k \in K$, there is a decoding function and a corresponding decoding function such that $dk(ek(x)) = x$ for each element $x \in P$. Each function must be injected able as the decoding must be unique.
There are three types of cryptography forms:

1. Hidden Key Cryptography (DES, IDEA. AES)
2. Public Key Cryptography (RSA, DSS, PGP, ECC)
3. HASH Algorithms (SHA, MD2, MD4, MD5)

Security components:
1. Confidentiality of data that provides private data, which is not disclosed to any unauthorized user.
2. Data integrity ensures that programs and data are changed only in a specified and authorized manner. System integrity ensures that the system performs its function without damaging anything, free from unauthorized manipulations.

3.Availability ensures that systems work safely and service is not denied to the automated user.

(Confidentiality, Integrity and Availability) - CIA.

Additional concepts: Authenticity: the property of being true, trustworthy, and capable of being verified. Responsibility: the requirement for an entity's actions to be uniquely traced to that entity.

Security Aspects: Aspects of information security

1.Security attacks - any action that endangers the security of information owned by an organization.

2.Security Mechanism - A process designed to detect, prevent a security attack.

3.Secure services - the security of data processing systems, transfers of an organization.

1.1. The Importance of Securing Data Encrypted During Communication

In some cases the decoding or decoding transforms are characterized by keys and if they are discovered by someone it will not be necessary to design a scheme from scratch but simply switching the key would be enough. Frequent switching of the key is in fact considered a genuine cryptographic practice. An indispensable but usually not sufficient condition for the security of a cipher is related to the fact that the key space is large enough to render exhaustive search impossible.

What is worth noting is that the size of the key greatly affects cryptography. Almost most asymmetric schemes allow for **1024-bit** keys and more, even according to Shamir, the **512-bit** keys in the RSA "protect 95% of online E-commerce nowadays".

Where asymmetric systems are used in the exchange of symmetric keys, the lengths of the public keys are chosen to be resistant to certain specific levels of attack. The length of the secret keys exchanged in the system must be such that it has a level of resistance to a given attack. Thus, the three parameters - the strength of the system, the strength of the secret key, and the strength of the public key must coincide with each other.

This is more widely discussed in RFC 3766 with respect to determining the strength of public keys used in the exchange of symmetric keys. If we consider the size of the keys in the cryptography of the elliptical lines, they turn out to be much smaller than the **RSA** keys. Consequently we have faster processing and less memory and bandwidth requirements. Some studies find that Elliptic Curve Cryptography (ECC) is faster than **RSA** for signature and decoding, but slower for signature

verification and encryption. A 256-bit **ECC** key is as secure as a 3248-bit key in the RSA algorithm.

Table 1. Key length for RSA security

The length of the key	Potential categories for finding the key
256 bit	Potential categories for finding the key
384 bit	Scientific research groups (University) and cryptographic communities
512 bit	Governments
768 bit	Safe in a short period
1024 bit	Safe for the near future
2048 bit	Safe for decades?

1.2. Communication control

There are various algorithms that encrypt information. The greater the number of bits using such key algorithms, the more secure the encryption will be. If e.g. the 32-bit algorithm is used, the number of possible combinations per key is **2 ^ 32 (4294967296)**. For small companies and most universities, the 40-bit algorithm is used.

The safest algorithms used utilize 128 bit encryption, with which **(340.282.366.92.938.368.736.424.720.624.720.032.456)** key combinations are achieved. So it is very difficult to get into the system and break down such security. Because to break such information one has to try so many combinations in sequence! Technically impossible to achieve, even with the simultaneous operation of 1 million processors!.

Recent studies, conducted by independent researchers, have shown that a key with a length of not less than 90 bits guarantees complete security for the next 20 years.

The algorithms used to calculate the values of private keys d by public keys e and technology change over time. Thus the calculation of **Wd** can result in different values. Concerning the security of a cryptosystem there are concepts of information theory which we will see in the following chapter. The Kickoffs principle and the Shannon principle are among the most popular assumptions in cryptanalysis. In fact, the safest cryptographic algorithms are those algorithms that, being publicly known and constantly subject to cryptanalysis, continue to resist and qualify as unbreakable. The 20th century, and especially the two world wars, took cryptography to new sophisticated levels, using sophisticated coding machines like the German "Enigma" that resembled a typewriter. When the operator typed normal text, some electronically connected rotors encrypted the message. The encrypted text was then sent in Morse code and decrypted by another Enigma machine. However, the errors and carelessness of the redundant operators gave important data to the code breakers, enabling them to decrypt the messages.
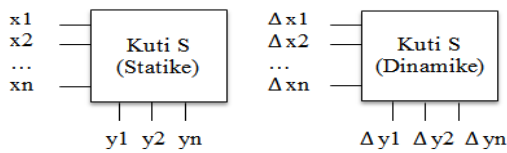
In today's digital world, banking, money transfers and various payments, as well as medical, corporate and government data, are provided with complex encryption.

The encrypted text is then read by those who have the decryption key needed to restore the data to its original form.

2. Modifying S boxes in AES and Bluefish

Static and dynamic boxes- Modifying S boxes can be accomplished thanks to different methodologies in cryptographic algorithms. Before studying these methods let's look at the construction of S. boxes S boxes can be constructed in two separate ways: static and dynamic. In the static boxes, the values of the input vectors are not changed while in the dynamic boxes their values will be changed.

The following are the views of the S boxes in both cases:

Figure 2. Static and Dynamic S boxes

The properties of the boxes in each case are determined using a specific metric such as entropy, which estimates how random the data are, denoted by **H (Z)** and given as a random variable 'z' (Rodwald and Piotr Mroczkowski, 2006):

$$(Z) = \Sigma P \, ni = 1 \, (Zi) \log 2 \, (Zi - 1)$$

The larger the entropy, the harder it is to replace the values. Many of the encryption algorithms use static or dynamic boxes. The boxes in **DES** are static and resistant to differential cryptanalysis but if we use certain methods to give them a dynamic nature this would obviously increase their nonlinearity. The Camellia algorithm has the Avalanche feature and every element of the S boxes in it is polynomial in GF (28) making this algorithm robust against high-order differential attacks. Only that Integral attack would be carried out very easily against **128-bit** Camellia (**10/11** rounds) (Zhang et.al., 2013) .

In AES, static replacement boxes define Sub Bytes transformation that provides nonlinearity and confusion in the figure, thanks to multiplicative inverse functions and affine transformation. But at the same time static values make it easier to perform mathematical attacks on AES and this algorithm turns out to be non-resistant to Timing and Cache attacks.

The Bluefish algorithm uses key-dependent dynamic S boxes and is not endangered by linear and differential cryptanalysis methods. But the Bluefish algorithm turns out to be weak against the Vandenay attack. This attack is due to the presence of weak keys in the figure and this is due to the encounter of the same values in the S boxes in Bloopfox, so we can easily apply the attack with the original text selected. In conclusion we can say that dynamic boxes manage to provide more diffusion than static boxes.

Modifying S boxes to make them dynamic can be accomplished by using chaotic equations of random nature. One of them is the Logistic map equation which has the following form (Xin-je, 2009) :

$$Xn+1 = r* Xn (1-Xn)$$

Xn takes values from **0 to 1**, r is a positive number from **1 to 4**. In this way a dynamic key dependent S box can be created. The following algorithm can be used for this and changes to the key mentioned in the equation can be applied:

```
for (i=0; i<=dsize; i++)
{
temp=a;
p=k1*(dsize-i);
k1= k2*(1-k2) + (k3/p) + (k4/p);
k2=temp;
System.out.println(a);
V=afterDecimal(k1);
System.out.println(V);
x=V%MDv;
System.out.println("" + x);
}
```

The only problem with creating S boxes in this way is encountered in repeating values within S boxes (usually no more than **5% to 10%**), but this is resolved by replacing multiple values with others. The security provided by dynamic boxes is commensurate with the values of **DMv** (dependent modulo) and size (S box size). Increasing these values affects the overhead needed by an exhausted attacker to break our cipher. Dynamic boxes are prioritized over the S boxes mentioned above in relation to their operation in key algorithms such as **AES**, Bluefish, etc.

2.1. Security Application

SQL (Structured Query Language) is a computer language designed for data management in relational database management systems, and originally based on relative algebra.

C # (read "as sharp") is a modern programming language for developing software applications. C # is a simple object-oriented language that has roots in the C family of programming languages, which means it is easily understood by the programmers of C, C ++, and JAVA.
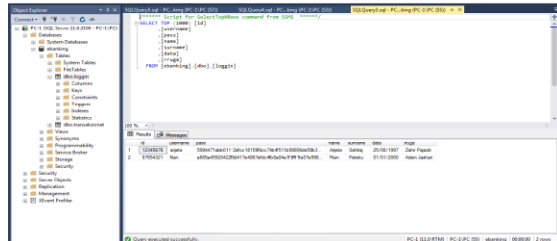

Figure 3. Overview of the SQL Server Studio computer language

Microsoft Visual Studio supports various programming languages through the language service, which allows the code editor and debugger (scripting program) to support almost any programming language, ensuring that specific language services exist.

Hash Functions are mathematical functions used to encode notes in a computer. These functions, unlike encryption algorithms, have no encryption or decryption keys. MD5 divides messages into 512-bit blocks
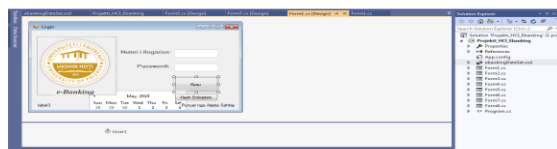

Figure 4. View from the Microsoft Visual Studio programming language

E-Banking Modules:
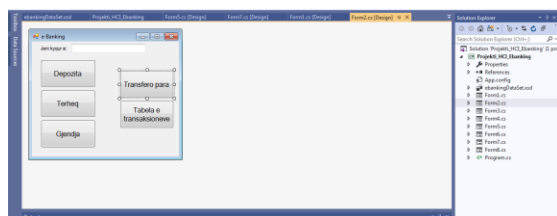-Emphasis
-Deposit
-Transfer

Figure 5. E-Banking Modules

To protect this communication between Databases we have used Encryption to prevent third parties from intercepting them.
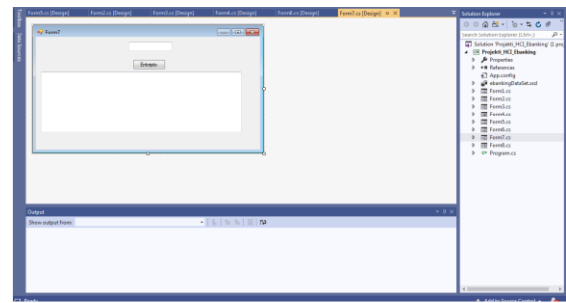

Figure. 6. System Encryption

2.2. Legal-Criminal Characteristics of Offenses Related to Cybercrime, According to the Criminal Code of Kosovo

In the Republic of Kosovo, cybercrime-related offenses are not provided by a single code or law, but are dealt with in some laws. Some of them are foreseen in the Criminal Code of Kosovo, others in the Law on Prevention and Fight against Cybercrime, while such a provision is provided in the Criminal Code, the Law on Classification of Information and Security Verification. We think that such a picture, which is found in the Kosovo legislation, represents a bad legislative practice that needs to be regulated. The solution is to include all criminal offenses of this nature in a separate chapter in the Kosovo Criminal Code.

Given their features and features, cybercrime-related offenses can be understood as any activity in which computers or networks serve as tools or objects of attack for the exercise of criminal activity, against which all appropriate preventive legal measures to combat them. The main characteristic of cybercrime-related offenses is their global effect. For this reason, an international focus is required, as the perpetrators of these crimes are consuming and using various methods that are not confined to specific territorial units when consuming these offenses. They may operate in one place, while the object of their crime, the victim, may be in another. Such offenses include: unauthorized access to computer systems, illegal interception of computer data, interference with computer data, interference with computer systems, abuse of computer equipment, spread of viruses and other actions that endanger computer programs.

2.3. Hacking

Hacking means the human mind against the computer. It is carried out by specialized people, called hackers, who deal with cyber-attacks. Hackers have often made a fuss in fictional accounts as people who stealthily manipulated a maze of computer networks, systems, and data to find and access information. A hacker often spends hours examining the types and structures of the systems he intends to infiltrate, using his deception, fraud, and bypassing

controls placed on someone else's proprietary information. They build software programs and use them to accomplish their goals. Expert hacker is usually the master and master of several programming languages, protocols, networks, and operating systems. Also, he skillfully manages to fully master the technical environment of the target computer system. After choosing a system as the target, the likelihood that the expert hacker will successfully enter that system is high.

Cybercrime of hacking is characterized by unauthorized interference with foreign computer systems, which in the classical sense means violent interference with foreign objects (Vula, 2010: 102). In practice there are two ways to accomplish this work. The first involves obtaining the necessary information, with different methods and techniques for successful intrusion into foreign computer systems, such as internet addresses, phone numbers, identifiers, encrypted messages, operating systems, etc. Preliminary information pertains to researching classical emails, newsletters, eavesdropping, false presentations, etc. (Petrovic, 2000: 118). The second way is based on the principle of "try, make a mistake, put away the mistake". In this way the attacker attempts to intrude on the defensive parameters, for infiltration of the particular information system. The perpetrators of this action are the hackers.

2.4. Phishing

Phishing is one of the oldest cybercrime. The idea of the authors of this work is to pretend to be a trustworthy subject on the Internet, trying to get personal information. We are dealing with an email fraud method. The fraudster sends out e-mails that look like official, in search of potential victims, to collect personal and financial information. It is also known that such scams are also used to steal valuable information, such as passwords, credit card numbers, social security numbers, and bank account numbers. During this process, their users, victims, are asked to visit a website to update their personal information via email. Clearly phishing is any process designed to extract personal data from the targeted victim. This is often done by e-mail. "A common scenario might involve the author of the work having created a fake website designed to look like a legitimate website, and a financial institution (Computer Hacking Forensic Investigator, 2009).

2.5. Identity Theft in Kosovo Banks - Electronic Communication

Identity theft is the process of getting personal information from a person or organization pretending to be someone else. This is often done to obtain credit on behalf of the victim, putting this in financial liabilities. So, it's about stealing a person's identity and then that identity is used to commit fraud with the victim's personal information, such as: insurance numbers, bank accounts, and credit card numbers. Identity thieves provide the names, addresses, dates of birth of the victims and can apply for loans on their behalf (Easttom, 2011).

It is important to consider the means by which identity theft is committed. The most important action for perpetrators is access to personal information so that it can be used in identity theft. There are four main ways in which individuals access personal information: phishing, or spyware hacking, unauthorized data access, and deletion of information. Another form is credit card fraud. Attackers illegally use someone else's credit card to buy other goods and services online. Also, by using different techniques, they can steal personal data in a user's online transactions or simply through social engineering techniques.

According to the Kosovo Banking Association, computer system fraud can cause significant damage, so the Kosovo Banking Association presents some recommendations to businesses in order to better protect themselves from cyber-attacks: "To provide computer systems with antivirus, to have installed Antivirus and keep it updated regularly. Also, other applications such as browsers (Explorer, Firefox, Chrome) keep up to date, not send personal information, in particular username, password and credit card information via email, social media messages ('Face book 'etc.).

3. Recommendations and Conclusions

This paper deals with various cryptographic algorithms and techniques that provide data security in various aspects of functional operation. Initially their operational structure is given by examining the relevant features that are the basis for a robust cryptographic scheme.

Certain algorithms have different performances depending on how they are applied and where they are applied but we also know that a symmetric algorithm is faster than an asymmetric algorithm. The level of security is subjective: an algorithm may be very safe but not efficient, or it may be less secure but at the same time more efficient. It depends on what we ask for and can spend. In this paper, the sites of application of cryptography are reviewed. Much of the cryptographic attack depends precisely on the computer capabilities of computer systems.

A certain number of attacks aim to find deficiencies in the operational structure of a cryptographic algorithm while another part points out weak points in its implementation. Powerful encryption algorithms such as AES, RSA and ECDSA, although considered perfect in structure, are somewhat fragile in

implementation (it is possible to obtain the key used in encryption).

The use of cryptographic algorithms in everyday applications drives us to recognize and focus on today's encryption techniques and even identify potential cases of data protection and communications breaches. For this reason we have attempted to provide a broad overview of the use of algorithms by examining the possibilities of application in different countries. In this way we have tried to identify points and issues that are critical to data protection.

References

1. Zenullahu,Hamit "Bazat e Kriptografisë" Prishtinë, 2011–243f. ISBN 978-9952-585-99-6

2. Dawid Kahn, The Codebreakers, Scribner, New York, Ny 10010;

3. Joachim Beckt, Blitz &Anker Band II , ISBN 3-8334-2997-6;

4. Zenullahu,Hamit "Bazat e Kriptografisë" Prishtinë, 2011–243f. :ISBN 978-9952-585-99-6

5. Simon Singh, Geheime Botschaften, KmbH & CO. KG, Munchen, 2001;

6. "A survey of information authentication", G. J. Simmons, editor, Contemporary Cryptology: The science of Information Integrity, 379-419, IEEE Press, 1992.

7. Easttom, C. (2011:5), Computer crime, investigation, and the law. Cengage Learning, USA.

8. Computer Hacking Forensic Investigator, 2009.

9. Easttom, C. (2011:6), Computer crime, investigation, and the law. Cengage Learning, USA.

10. https://www.gazetaexpress.com/lajme-krimet-kibernetike-ne-rritje-ne-kosove-qasur. date 06.09.2019

11. Easttom, C. (2011:5), Computer crime, investigation, and the law. Cengage Learning, USA.

THE INFLUENCE OF PARENTING STYLES ON SOCIAL BEHAVIOR AND COMPETENCE IN FUNCTION OF STUDENT LEARNING SUCCESS

Valbona UKA, Mr. Sc.*

Hanife BERISHA, Mr. Sc.

*Correspondent Author: *Universi College, Faculty of Nursing, vuka5@live.com*

A b s t r a c t

Styles of parenting create different social environments in the lives of children inside the home. The main purpose of this research is to find out the existence of a relationship between parenting, emotional control, prosocial behavior, and student success in learning. The study included a sample of 200 subjects from two low public secondary schools in Kaçanik, 51% female and 49% male. Participants were 15 years of age (28 teenagers), 16 (51 teenagers), 17 (21 teenagers). The tests used in this research are: a question about parenting styles that is standardized for use in our country and a question about social competence. The results showed an authoritative parental stature with 50% of the parents, followed by the indifferent style of 27%, the authoritative style with 14%, and the liberal style with 9% of the polled ones. Regarding social competence, dominates the average level of social maturity by 62%, followed by high social maturity by 24% and low social maturity by 14% of adolescent sample. The feminine gender of adolescents exhibits higher emotional control versus the male gender of adolescents with less emotional control than that of the female gender. There is a significant difference in the appearance of prosocial behaviors according to the level of success. It was also found that there is a statistically significant difference between the level of emergence of social competence deriving from the sex of the subject in this research, then the feminine gender of the adolescents exhibits higher emotional control in spite of the age-old gender, there is a significant difference in the appearance of prosocial behaviors according to the level of success, as well as the 16-year-old show higher levels of prosocial behavior despite 15 and 17 year-olds in this research.

This study puts emphasis on parents awareness and psycho-education on positive parenting strategies for the growth of healthy children with a sense of autonomy and confidence..

Introduction

Being a parent is one of the most difficult tasks we have, it is a never-ending responsibility to be a parent, that is, to carefully build the character of a child and give him or her a solid foundation upon which he or she will orient in life. So, starting from this fact and the need to enrich my professional experiences as a psychologist and the actuality and treatment of such topics in finding relevant patterns of parenting and thereby achieving the structuring of a healthy childhood development especially in our Albanian lands was the main motive for dealing with this problem. Also, the other reason I decided to address this topic is the lack of information about the importance of parenting style and the effect that parenting types can have on a child's character development and personality.

Also, the other reason I decided to address this topic is the lack of information about the importance of parenting style and the effect that parenting types can have on a child's character development and personality.

Given the scant research and studies so far in our Albanian lands, more studies on parenting styles are needed to uncover the potential interplay between parenting styles and other psychosocial traits in adolescent life.

Parenting is the process of fostering and supporting the physical, emotional, social and intellectual development of a child from childhood to adulthood. Parenting refers to the activities of raising a child rather than biological relationships. The goals of human parenting are highly debated, usually the parental figure providing the child with physical needs, protecting him or her, and learning cultural skills and values until they reach adulthood, usually adolescence. The main goal of good parenting is to maximize the potential of the child so that as he or she grows up he becomes a productive and active participant of society. Although parenting is one of the most studied fields in the world, raising a happy and healthy child is one of the most thought-provoking tasks a period can have (Davies, Martin, 2000).

1. Literature Review

When we talk about research in the field of parenting we know that it is a new phenomenon of research that has begun to be partially explored in our country as well. Some foreign and domestic authors have dealt with this topic which has been of great importance since it is useful to recommend an adequate parenting style, social behavior, and student success in the learning process.

The literature review focuses on the type of parenting style, social competence, and learning outcomes achieved by students. In essence, this research deals with the analysis of psychological factors acting on the type of parenting style and on the achievements of students in their educational processes as well as in their daily lives, based on the theories and results of previous research to who presume that parenting style has a potential association with social competence and academic achievement in adolescent learning

2. Research Methods

Subject of research - In essence, this research deals with the analysis of psychological factors that influence students' achievements in educational processes as well as their daily lives, based on the theories and results of prior research on the basic notions of this research that are presented. as psychological factors in this case that are supposed to have a potential link with academic achievement in adolescent learning.

Research problem - The problematic of the present research is to find a possible association between the three psychosocial variables (parental styles and social competence with the latter's special preexisting subscales of emotional control and prosocial behavior) with students' academic achievement (adolescents).) In school. As a consequence of the research problems the following research questions are structured:

Q.1 How is the distribution or distribution of variables (academic achievement, parenting styles, social competence and social maturity in general) in research!

Q.2 Is there a link between parenting style, emotional control, and prosocial behavior with students' academic achievement!

Q.3 Is there a link between parenting style and students' social competences?

Q4 Is there a link between parenting style and students' academic achievement!

Q.5 Is there a link between social competence in general and students' academic achievement!

Q6 Are there any statistical differences between sociodemographic characteristics (gender, residence, academic achievement and age) and level of social competence!

Q7 Are there any statistical differences between sociodemographic characteristics (gender, residence, academic achievement and age) and level of prosocial behavior!

Purpose and objectives of the research - The main purpose of this study is to determine whether parental styles, emotional control, and prosocial behaviors (emotional control and prosocial behaviors are the two sub-variables of the social competence variable) are positively correlated with adolescents' academic achievement at school. The following are the basic objectives of the research:

1. Finding a possible link between parental style, prosocial behaviors with academic achievement.

2. Finding a potential statistical difference between sociodemographic characteristics by parenting style, prosocial behaviors, and academic achievement.

2.1. Research Hypotheses

H1: Research variables (success, parenting styles, social competence and social maturity in general) have normal distribution or distribution to adolescents.

H2: There is a link between parenting style, prosocial behaviors in academic achievement (success)

H 2.2: There is a positive relationship between parenting style and academic achievement of students in this research, ie academic

achievement is related to indifferent and liberal parenting style and is not related to authoritarian and authoritative style.

H 2.3: There is a positive relationship between the level of success and social competence in this research, thus, with the increase of social competence, academic achievement in adolescent learning increases.

H3: There are differences in students' social competences depending on the characteristics of sociodemographic characteristics (gender, place of residence, academic achievement and age)

Research variables - The main variables of the research in question are divided into two groups, which according to the research questions may eventually be related to each other in this research, including: Prind Parental style and Sociale Social competence.

Research methods and techniques - The basic research technique for collecting data from the subjects is their survey based on two standard research questionnaires, the parenting style questionnaire and the social competence questionnaire (emotional control and prosocial behaviors).

Research Questionnaires - a). Questionnaire on parenting styles created by Robinson, C., Mandleco, B., Olsen, S. F., and Hart,C.H.(1995).,Authoritative, authoritarian, and permissive parenting practices: Developmentof a new measure. Psychological Reports ,, consists of 30 items, the questionnaire consists of only one section and includes demographic data of subjects with the following categorization: gender, place of residence, success.

b). The social competence questionnaire consists of 19 items or assertions, the questions are formulated to be as comprehensible as possible by the respondent choosing the answer that by summing the total points (95) three levels of social maturity are determined, namely, low social maturity, average maturity and high social maturity, but also as an integral part of social competence are its two sub-variables such as emotional control and prosocial behaviors.

Population and sample - The research population includes high school students ie young people as well as their parents, and a sample of them was selected from among them 100 adolescents surveyed. The research was conducted in two lower secondary schools: "Skanderbeg" and "Feriz Guri and the Çaka Brothers" in Kacanik Municipality. The adolescents are 15, 16 years old.

3. Results

So, in the part of the statistical analysis of the results, from this paper we came to some very relevant findings, based on preliminary research in this field. From the obtained results, in detecting parenting styles according to the representative sample reporting, it was found that authoritative parenting style dominates with 50% of parents which according to relevant researches mentioned above in the theoretical part of research that authoritative parenting style, characterized by a high level of acceptance and involvement, as well as an average level of rigor and supervision, indicating a high level of life satisfaction and self-esteem, as well as a low level of depression for adolescents, the results also showed that adolescents with parents authoritarians were more often associated with values-oriented crowds of adults.

Whereas the liberal style in this research appears to 9% of respondents, which according to relevant research was characterized as parents who set rules and boundaries very little and are reluctant to apply the rules. These parents are warm and gentle, but they do not like to say anything or disappoint their children. Children of liberal parenting: cannot follow the rules, have worse self-control, possess egocentric tendencies, encounter more problems in relationships and social interactions.

So all this shows that the average level of social maturity is due to the dominance of authoritative style with 50% of this research, which style empowers the child to average and not high social maturity.

Regarding the social maturity of the respondents, the average level of social maturity is dominated by 62%, followed by high social maturity with 24% and low social maturity with 14% of the adolescent sample in this survey. So all this shows that the average level of social maturity is due to the dominance of authoritative style with 50% of this research, which style empowers the child to average and not high social maturity.

In addition, it is worth pointing out that higher success in adolescents results in higher levels of social maturity in general than in adolescents, so with increased school success, adolescents exhibit higher levels of social maturity. it is emphasized that this situation is related to a lower percentage of the subjects surveyed and this may be closely related to the fact that the authoritarian style with a frequency of 14% in this research, according to relevant research, shows high levels of sensitivity in children as well as high success in lessons, recalling a study that analyzed children's emotional control and their externalizing behavior, they found that parents exhibiting elements of empathy as more warmth and less punishment towards children between the ages

of seven and twelve, they had children who had more difficult control and less externalizing problems. Pearson's correlation coefficient indicates that the highest level of social maturity (adolescence) in adolescents results in the highest level of emotional control and prosocial behaviors in adolescents, or as adolescence increases social control also increased emotional control and prosocial behaviors among adolescents in this study (high positive correlation between social competence and emotional control ($r = 0.703$; $p < 0.01$) as well as social competencies and prosocial behavior ($r = 0.719$; $p < 0.01$).

The above finding resulted that we can observe that positive Pearson correlation coefficients result only between the variables success and social competence ($r = 0.208$; $p < 0.05$) thus significant for the second limit. of reliability, ie, low significant correlation, once again in other words we can say that higher success in adolescents results in higher level of social maturity in general than in adolescents, thus increasing success in school the adolescent exhibits a higher level of social maturity and vice versa.

In addition, it is worth noting the comparison between the sexes in terms of prosocial behaviors, based on the results that the occurrence of prosocial behaviors is not different depending on the adolescent gender (female adolescents exhibit higher emotional control in spite of male adolescent sex with adolescents). lower emotional control versus female gender ($21.39 > 18.63$; $p < 0.01$).

Regarding age differences, it appears that 16-year-olds exhibit higher levels of prosocial behaviors compared to 15- and 17-year-olds in this study (see Table 25), more precisely significant difference ($p < 0.05$) depending on their age, ie, there is a significant difference between the two groups by age in the occurrence of prosocial behaviors and the significant difference between the two groups and that in group 1 (first) 17 years old with a mean of 17.14 and 15 years old with a mean of 17.86 and group 2 (second) with a mean age of 16 years 18.84, or in other words, 16-year-olds exhibit higher levels of prosocial behaviors than 15- and 17-year-olds in this study. So far, according to our analysis, we have not been able to find and compare this finding of our research with relevant research and findings where 16 year olds are differentiated as "most self-conscious" about the level of occurrence of prosocial behaviors, but analyzes of this research that was more than necessary to make such a detail in terms of age, let them be the starting point for other research in this area, especially in this segment.

Regarding the type and type of residence of the respondents, the level of emotional control and the level of occurrence of prosocial

behaviors did not depend on the type or type of adolescent residence in this research (see Tables 19 and 20). Also for this conclusion in this research would be worth the high suggestion noted for a field or segment where it is worth exploring especially its habitat and characteristics as a research base.

4. Conclusion and Recommendations

In conclusion, it was found that the success of students - adolescents in this research was in a low positive relationship with social competence in general, or in other words, the higher the social maturity of adolescents the higher the level of success of yes to those teens in lessons. However, this correlation does not result when separately correlating analyzes of emotional control and prosocial behavior as sub-variables of social competence with adolescent success.

Also in this context, as noted above, it did not appear that any relevant research emphasizes such a relationship separately for these two sub-variables, but only the relationship between social competence in general and success, ie social maturity with success.

On the other hand we can say that this sample consisting of 200 subjects where 100 were students and 100 parents of respondents, think it is insignificant and low to determine a high objectivity of the results even though the instruments have high reliability, but the randomly selected sample had features and characteristics of an asymmetric or abnormal distribution or distribution that I thought should approach a normal distribution according to the traits of psychosocial phenomena. With the increase in the number of subjects in the sample as well as the distribution of the sample at the state level, including other Municipalities at the state level, we can achieve more relevant and significant results in terms of the interrelation of the parenting style variable, emotional control, prosocial behavior and academic success of students at school.

1. Ministry of Education to organize community outreach and counseling programs to raise awareness, educate and empower parents on various parenting issues. For example, teach parents to set boundaries and control for their children while still maintaining a warm and supportive relationship; neglected parents becoming more engaged in their children's lives, permissive parents setting more rules for their children, and authoritative parents becoming more flexible with their children.

2. Psychosocial counseling to assist parents in their relationships with children in order to gain a better

understanding of their parenting style and then treat each child according to the parenting style applied. This would help them control children's emotional behaviors, as well as prosocial behaviors that would help adolescents perform well in academic success. Parents should embrace the authoritarian style of parenting, which will improve the proper communication between parents and their children.

References

1. Aldao, A., Nolen-Houseman, Schweitzer, S. (2010).Emotion-regulation strategies across psychopathology: a meta-analytic review". Clinical Psychology Review 30, 217e237.

2. Alegre, A. (2011). Parenting styles and children's emotional intelligence: What do we know? The Family Journal, 19, 56.doi: 10. 1177/1066480710387486.

3. Ainsworth, M.(1979) Infant mother attachment. American Psychologist, 34(10), 932-937.http://dx.doi.org/10.1037/0003-066X.34.10.932

4. Baumrind, D.(1991).Effective parenting during the early adolescent transition. Family transitions. Advanced in family research series: New York: Erlbaum.

5. Baumrind, D. (1978). Parental disciplinary patterns and social competence in children. The Journal Youth and Society, 9, 239-276.

6. Baumrind, D. (1991).The influence of parenting style on adolescent competence and Substance use. The Journal of Early Adolescence, 11,56-95.

7. Berzonsky, M.(1992). Self-construction over the life span: A process perspective on identity formation. Advances in Personal Construct Psychology.

8. Bornstein.M..(2002).Handbook of parenting, children and parenting. New Jersey: Lawrence Erlbaum.

9. Barber, B.(1996).Parental psychological control: Revisiting a neglected construct. Child Development,3296-3319.

10. Borntein, B. (1990).Hand book of parenting, Practical issues in parenting, Mahwah, NY: Erlbaum, vol. 5, fq. 407-437.

11. Berzonsky, M. D.(1992).A process perspective on identity and stress management, in G. R. Adams, T. P. Gullet, & R. Montemayor (eds.), Adolescent identity formation (Advances in adolescent development), Newbury Park, CA: Sage, vol. 4, 193-215.

12. Cooper, C ,Grievant, H., Condon, W. R.(1983).Individuality and connectedness in the family as a context for adolescent identity formation, in H. D. Grievant, & C. Cooper (eds.), Adolescent development in the family: New directions in child development, San Francisco: Josses-Bass, fq. 43-59.

13. Crick, N.R.; Dodge, K.A. (1994).A review and reformulation of social information-processing mechanisms in children's social adjustment". Psychological Bulletin. 115:74–101.

14. Cavell.(1990).Social Adjustment, social performance and social skills. Journal of Clinic Cild Psychology.

15. Davies, Martin, (2000). Analysis of Parenting Styles and Interpersonal Relationship among Adolescents. Journal of Youth Adolescence.

16. Semrud- Clikeman, M. (2007). Social competence in children. New York, NY:Springer Science Business Media.

17. Weiss, L.H.; Schwarz, J.C. (1996)."The relationship between parenting types and older adolescents' personality, academic achievement, adjustment, and substance use". Child Development.