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# Uvodnik

Spoštovani,

revija Uprava je v šestih letih svojega izhajanja vključevala tudi prispevke tujih avtorjev o pomembnih temah s področja javnega sektorja. Mednarodna usmerjenost revije je bila posledica zavestne odločitve uredniškega odbora o internacionalizaciji slovenske javne uprave.

Širitev védenja o projektih, dosežkih in odprtih vprašanjih razvoja slovenske javne uprave je mogoče doseči tudi drugače. Zelo pomembno je vključevanje različnih institucij v Sloveniji v ustrezna združenja, ki delujejo kot most med zaposlenimi v javnih upravah različnih držav. Slovenija mora biti odprta za novo znanje in dobre prakse iz tujine. Pri tem pa mora igrati tudi aktivno vlogo s posredovanjem svojih izkušenj v druge dele sveta. Kako je mogoče premagati pogosto samo negativno mnenje o vsem, kar se dogaja v slovenski javni upravi, in promovirati dobre rešitve tako v razvitem kakor v manj razvitem svetu?

Možnosti je veliko, samo izkoristiti jih je treba. Univerza v Ljubljani je v začetku leta 2010 v sodelovanju z Univerzo v Šanghaju ustanovila Konfucijski center. Center ni namenjen le spoznavanju jezika, kulture in zgodovine Kitajske, ampak tudi seznanjanju prebivalcev Kitajske z dogajanjem v Evropi. Novi center je namenjen uveljavljenim oblikam sodelovanja med univerzami, ki vključujejo skupne programe, izmenjave učiteljev in študentov. Uporabljajo pa ga lahko tudi druge institucije zasebnega in javnega sektorja, ki želijo sodelovati s to veliko državo in njenimi sosedi.

V oktobru 2010 sem se kot gostja, članica upravnega odbora Mreže šol in institutov javne uprave v Centralni in Vzhodni Evropi, udeležila skupnega seminarja štirih združenj s področja javne uprave: ameriške ASPA, evropskih NISPAcee in IASIA ter mednarodnega instituta za javno upravo IIAS. Združenja so izvedla seminar na povabilo Kitajske upravne akademije (Chinese Academy for Governence) v Pekingu in v Nanningu o odzivih vlad na globalno ekonomsko krizo. Velika Kitajska z nekaj deset milijoni zaposlenih državnih uradnikov in še vedno zelo centraliziranim sistemom sprejemanja odločitev že več kot deset let sodeluje z najbolj prestižnimi izobraževalnimi ustanovami po svetu. Njihov interes je, da bi upoštevali dobre odločitve vzhodnoevropskih držav pri odpiranju gospodarstva in odpravi administrativnih ovir. Področju poslovne in javne uprave so namenili posebno pozornost pri snovanju strategije dolgoročnega razvoja države.

Drugi primer mednarodnega sodelovanja je projekt sosednjih držav Avstrije, Italije in Slovenije pri prenosu sistemskih rešitev in dobrih praks nudenja storitev državne in javne uprave na na obmejnih področjih Koroške, Furlanije Julijske krajine in Slovenije.

Fakulteta za upravo je v mesecu decembru 2010 gostila študente javne uprave in profesorje z nemške Univerze v Kehlu. Svoje izkušnje pri izboljšanju kakovosti dela smo pokazali predstavnikom univerz z Norveške.

To je bilo samo nekaj primerov internacionalizacije slovenske uprave. Navedeni projekti so rezultat dela ljudi, ki dojemajo mednarodno sodelovanje kot pomemben sestavni del javne uprave v Sloveniji. Želimo, da bi začeti projekti prerastli v dolgoročno sodelovanje z mnogimi učinki.

Ni dvoma, da bo mogoče najti veliko izzivov za dobro delo tudi v letu 2011. S to optimistično ugotovitvijo vas vabim k prebiranju te zadnje letošnje številke in vam želim srečno in uspešno Novo leto!

Odgovorna urednica
red. prof. dr. Stanka Setnikar-Cankar

Stanka Setnikar Cankar

*1.01 Izvirni znanstveni članek*

# Samopodoba vodij v upravnih enotah

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IZVLEČEK

**V procesu vodenja lahko predvsem pozitivna samopodoba vodje vpliva na kakovosten medosebni odnos z vodenimi oziroma na vedenje vodje in tudi vodenih. Rezultati izvedene raziskave samopodobe vodij v upravnih enotah kažejo, da sta izmed proučevanih področij samopodobe najnižje izraženi predvsem socialna in telesna samopodoba, najvišje pa je izražena splošna samopodoba. Ker je za vodje pomembno, da imajo dobro razvite predvsem socialne spretnosti oziroma spretnosti za delo z ljudmi, je rezultat raziskave o socialni samopodobi vodij v državni upravi (upravnih enotah) pomemben kazalnik podob vodij o njihovih predstavah na socialnem področju. Prispevek se osredotoča na samopodobo vodij upravnih enot in predstavlja rezultate opravljene raziskave s tega področja.**

*Ključne besede: vodja, socialna samopodoba, telesna samopodoba, samospoštovanje, upravna enota*

*JEL:Z00*

## 1 Uvod

Pomenu vodenja ljudi in primernosti vodij se v slovenski državni upravi namenja vse več pozornosti tako na področju raziskovanja kot tudi pri praktičnem izvajanju. Ključni dejavnik vodenja je vodja, saj predstavlja osrednjo, središčno točko v odnosu do vodenih. Uspešno vodenje ljudi zahteva od vodij, da imajo ustrezne kompetence, ki pomembno vplivajo na to, da bodo doseženi zastavljeni cilji. Raziskave potrjujejo, da osebnost vodje vpliva na uspešnost vodenja – in vodja si na podlagi svoje osebnosti izoblikuje tudi določeno predstavo o samem sebi. Torej predstavo o tem kaj si misli o sebi, svojih sposobnostih, lastnostih, o svojem telesu, možnostih v življenju, uspehih in neuspehih. V strokovni literaturi se za opis takšnih značilnosti uporablja izraz "samopodoba". V procesu vodenja ni vseeno, kakšen je vodja kot osebnost oziroma kakšna je njegova samopodoba, saj lahko določena predstava vodje o samem sebi vpliva na njegovo vedenje, ki se lahko prenese tudi na vodene oziroma njihovo vedenje.

## 2 Vodenje in vodja

V literaturi zasledimo, da obstajajo različne [1] definicije vodenja, ki vodenje opredeljujejo z različnih[2] vidikov. V prispevku se vodenje razume kot vplivanje vodje na vodene z namenom, da si vodeni želijo (hočejo) opraviti nalogo, za katero so se dogovorili z vodjem. Podobno menita tudi Hellriegel in Slocum (1996, str. 445), saj razumeta vodenje kot vplivanje na zaposlene, da ti delujejo v smeri doseganja ciljev. Brajša (1983, str. 187) pa opredeljuje vodenje kot zapleten medosebni proces, saj gre pri vodenju za delo z ljudmi, ki so zapletena in zahtevna bitja.

Northouse (2007, str. 3) pojasnjuje, da je vodenje proces[3], v katerem poteka niz aktivnosti, in kot menijo Hočevar (2003, str. 130–131) in drugi »v takšnem procesu enakovredno sodelujejo vodja, vodeni in okoliščine«. Vodeni lahko v organizaciji oziroma socialni situaciji s svojim vedenjem silijo vodjo, da izbere ustrezen stil vodenja – toda vodja bo stil vodenja prilagodil tudi na okoliščine oziroma situacijo, v kateri izvaja aktivnosti, in to s ciljem uspešno realizirati dogovorjeno oziroma zadano nalogo. Pri vodenju gre torej za proces, ki ga oblikujejo razmerja oziroma interakcije med vodjo, vodenimi in okoliščinami. Ključni dejavnik vodenja pa je vodja, ki »z zgledom in nasveti vodi sodelavce, da bi dosegel zastavljen organizacijski cilj« (Stare & Seljak, 2006, str. 89). Gibb (v: Nastran Ule, 1994, str. 237) opredeljuje, da je vodja:

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1 Nekatere so predstavili Bass, Antonakis, Yukl, Avolio, Bennis, Gardner, Kotter, Kovač, Mayer, itd.

2 Vodenje se lahko obravnava z antropološkega, psihološkega, sociološkega, tehnološkega, ekonomskega, organizacijskega, kulturološkega in drugih vidikov.

3 Podobno menijo tudi Bass (1990), Mayer (2004), Možina (1994), itd.

- dominantna osebo z močjo in vplivom, s katerim deluje na obnašanje in aktivnosti drugih;
- "centralna oseba" za člane skupine, ego-ideal skupine;
- oseba, ki ima največji vpliv na druge in katerega vpliv skupina prostovoljno sprejema.

Vodja opravlja pomembne naloge v procesu vodenja in ima v organizaciji oziroma skupini osrednjo vlogo. Njegova vloga je pomembna, saj on ne samo vpliva na ljudi, da dosežejo dogovorjene cilje, njegova vloga je tudi v tem, da je vzgled ljudem (tudi na področju morale oziroma etičnih standardov). Temu pritrjuje tudi Branden (2000, str. 61), ki pravi, da »premalo vodilnih razume in ceni stopnjo, do katere so vzor drugim. Ne prepoznajo, kako podrobno ljudje okrog njih včasih nezavedno opazujejo in prevzemajo njihove drobne gibe in kako se njihov vpliv odraža v celotni organizaciji«. To kar vodja naredi in pove je pogosto vidno v povratni reakciji v vedenju vodenih. To vedenje je pomembno in izkustveno ugotavljamo, da mora vodja takšno vedenje zaznavati in izboljševati. Na vedenje oziroma na uspešnost vodenja lahko vpliva s svojimi sposobnosti, znanjem in lastnostmi.[4] Toda Stare (2005, str. 86) meni, da je zmožnosti, ki naj bi jih imel posamezni vodja za uspešno vodenje, težko opredeliti in to tudi zaradi vpliva vodenih in posamezne situacije.

Yukl (2002, str. 195) meni, da so med spretnostmi predvsem spretnosti za delo z ljudmi [5] bistvene za vplivanje na ljudi. Takšne spretnosti so znanja in sposobnosti za delo v skupini oziroma sposobnosti za vodenje določene skupine. Gre za spretnosti,[6] ki jih ima oziroma bi jih moral imeti vodja za delo z ljudmi, saj mu pomagajo k bolj učinkovitemu delu s podrejenimi oziroma vodenimi in to z namenom, da se dosežejo organizacijski cilji. Vodja, ki ima zelo dobro razvite takšne spretnosti oziroma sposobnosti, se zaveda svojega razpoloženja, domnev in prepričanj drugih posameznikov (vodenih) in skupin. Ustvarja tudi pozitivno klimo oziroma vzdušje zaupanja, v katerem se zaposleni (vodeni)

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**4** Znanje, sposobnosti in lastnosti (osebnostne, socialne) se lahko razume tudi kot človeške zmožnosti.

**5** Angl. "human skill"

**6** Bass (1990, str. 195) jih poimenuje tudi kot "socialne, družbene spretnosti" in meni, da s tem mislimo na sposobnosti, ki omogočajo razumevanje občutkov, razpoloženja in motivov vodenih ter sposobnosti dobre komunikacije in prepričevanja.

počutijo udobno in varno. Takšne spretnosti so pomembne, saj gre tudi za motiviranje in razumevanje vodenih (po Katz, 1955, str. 34–35). Bass (1990, str. 110) pojasnjuje, da so raziskave pokazale, da so takšne spretnosti zelo pomembne in vplivajo na uspešnost in napredek vodje oziroma na uspešnost vodenja. To potrjuje tudi z raziskavo, ki jo je izvedel Boyatzis (1982), saj je pokazala, da se na podlagi spretnosti dela z ljudmi ločijo uspešni vodje od neuspešnih. Nastran Ule (1994, str. 237) pa pojasnjuje, da so spretnosti vodje povezane z nalogami, ki jih mora opraviti; pomembne naloge vodje so predvsem psihološke naloge, socialne naloge in strokovne naloge.

Na uspešnost vodenja ne vplivajo samo spretnosti in znanja vodij, ampak tudi lastnosti vodij, itd. Po pregledu literature ugotovimo, da vsak avtor s svojega vidika opredeljuje lastnosti, ki so značilne za uspešnega vodjo. V tabeli 1 so prikazani pogledi nekaterih avtorjev na lastnosti, ki bi jih morali imeti uspešni vodje.

**Tabela 1: Predstavitev ključnih lastnosti uspešnih vodij**

| Northouse (2007) | Kirkpatrick in Locke (1991) | Stogdill (1974) | Mayer (2004) |
|---|---|---|---|
| - inteligentnost<br>- samozaupanje<br>- odločnost<br>- poštenost<br>- družabnost | - prodornost<br>- motiviranost<br>- poštenost<br>- zaupnost<br>- kognitivnost<br>- strokovnost | - uspešnost<br>- vztrajnost<br>- opazovanje<br>- samozaupanje<br>- odgovornost<br>- kooperativnost<br>- tolerantnost<br>- vplivnost<br>- družabnost | - inteligentnost<br>- osebnost v ožjem pomenu<br>- ustvarjalnost<br>- izraznost<br>- empatija<br>- pozitivna samopodoba<br>- odločnost<br>- etična načela<br>- altruizem in filantropija |

Vir: Northouse (2007, str. 18–19), Mayer (2004, str. 53–56)

Maxwell (2007, str. 10) predstavlja 21 pomembnih lastnosti, ki jih morajo imeti uspešni vodje, in sicer: značaj, karizma oz. očarljivost, predanost, komunikacijska sposobnost, pogum, razsodnost, moč osredotočenosti, velikodušnost, dajanje pobud, poslušanje, navdušenje, pozitiven pristop, reševanje težav, odnosi, odgovornost, prepričanost vase, samodisciplina, uslužnost, učljivost, vizija. Po primerjavah lastnosti lahko ugotovimo, da vsi avtorji poudarjajo lastnost "zaupanje vodje v samega sebe" oziroma "spoštovanje samega sebe", svojih sposobnosti. Po mnenju

Maxwella (2007, str. 101) je vodja lahko tisti, ki osvoji "zakone vodenja", vendar pa postane vodja učinkovit šele zaradi svoje notranjosti. Torej je pomemben vodja kot osebnost, ki ima jasno zavedanje o sebi, o tem kaj želi doseči in verjame v samega sebe. Pomembno je tudi to, da ima vodja izoblikovano predstavo o sebi.

## 3 Samopodoba

Pogled vodje na samega sebe oziroma njegova samopodoba je v odnosu do vodenih pomembna predvsem zaradi tega, ker vpliva na njegovo vedenje in s tem posledično tudi na vedenje vodenih ter tudi na samozavest in samozaupanje vodje v okviru njegovih posameznih dimenzij samopodobe. Nastran Ule (1994, str. 238) pojasnjuje, da so strokovnjaki[7] na podlagi raziskav ugotovili, da je za dobre vodje značilna izgrajena in realna samopodoba o sebi.

Samopodobo si posameznik ustvarja kot edinstvena osebnost, ki po mnenju Allporta (Samuel, 1981, str. 3) predstavlja dinamično organizacijo posameznih psihodinamičnih sistemov, ki določajo posameznikovo značilno vedenje in misli. In ker smo ljudje socialna bitja, saj vzpostavljamo odnose z drugimi ljudmi, vpliva na kakovost vzpostavitve ter ohranitev odnosa z drugimi tudi osebnost vsakega posameznika in s tem povezana njegova podoba o samem sebi. To potrjuje tudi Musek (2005, str. 1), saj meni, da »šele na podlagi ustreznega poznavanja osebnosti se lahko dobro znajdemo v medsebojnih odnosih in si jih urejamo tako, kot si želimo«.

Tudi v procesu vodenja prihaja do interakcije med vodjo in vodenimi, torej do odnosa med različnimi osebnostmi. In zato sta osebnost posameznika in njegova podoba o sebi pomembni v procesu vodenja. Stare in Seljak (2006, str. 189) pojasnjujeta, da »ugotavljanje potenciala za vodenje temelji prav na spoznanju osebnosti oziroma posameznih vidikov osebnosti«. Rogers (v: Kohont, 2005, str. 36) pa meni, da je vedenje posameznika kot edinstvene osebnosti odvisno od tega, kar si misli o sebi, kako se doživlja.

Pri opredelitvi pojma samopodoba ugotovimo, da se v slovenski literaturi uporablja številčnost izrazov, ki opredeljujejo pojem samopodobe (po Kobal, 2000, str. 17). Nekateri mu pravijo

7 Nastran Ule (1994, str. 238) navaja naslednje avtorje: Bird (1940), Mann (1959), Sorrentino in Boutillier (1975).

samoidentiteta (Musek, 1993a, str. 359), identiteta (Zupančič, 1993, str. 208), socialni jaz (glej Nastran Ule, 1994, str. 292–302), samopercepcija (Ferbežer, 2008, str. 25). V angleški literaturi pa *self* (James, 1890, Cooley, 1902), *self-actualisation* (Rogers, 1951, Maslow, 1954), *self-image* (Offer et al, 1988), *self-concept* (Shavelson & Bolus, 1982), *self-esteem* (Rosenberg, 1965), *identity* (Kroger, 1989) in drugo.

S konstruktom samopodobe se ukvarjajo številni[8] strokovnjaki in ravno v tem lahko poiščemo vzrok za številčnost[9] pojmov, ki opredeljuje samopodobo. Vsem pojmom pa naj bi bilo po mnenju Nastran Uletove (1994, str. 296) skupno, da gre pri tem konstruktu za množico odnosov, ki jih posameznik vzpostavlja do samega sebe[10]. Posameznik v ta razmerja vstopa postopoma, s pomočjo občutkov, predstav, vrednotenj in ocen samega sebe, svojih tipičnih socialnih naravnanosti, ki jih najprej preko prvotnega objekta, kasneje pa preko širšega družbenega okolja, razvija že od rojstva dalje. Gre za občutek lastne kontinuitete v prostoru in času ter dejstvo, da tudi drugi prepoznajo to kontinuiteto. S slovenskim pojmom "samopodoba" po mnenju Kobalove (2000, str. 24) razumemo vključenost dveh različnih konceptov, in sicer ameriškega *self-concept* in evropskega *self-image*. *Self-concept* opredeljuje zavestno, pojmovno, torej tudi logično in racionalno, *self-image* pa bolj poudarja nezavedno, nagonsko in emocionalno. Oboje pa je združba psihosocialne, telesne in vedenjske razsežnosti osebnosti – samopodoba. Podobno *self-concept* opredeli tudi Tohme (v: Kobal, 1994, str. 31), saj pojasnjuje, da gre pri tem za celoto potez, podob, značilnosti, okusov, vrednot, pričakovanj itd., ki jih posameznik bolj ali manj jasno zaznava pri samem sebi in jih v skladu z drugimi in v skladu s svojimi socialnimi vlogami ustrezno organizira in usklajuje.

Burns (1979) pojasnjuje, da je »samopodoba neka sestavljena podoba o tem, kaj mi mislimo o tem, kaj smo, kaj mislimo, da bi lahko bili, oziroma kaj bi lahko dosegli, in kaj mislimo, da drugi mislijo o nas, ter kaj bi radi bili, oziroma kakšni bi radi postali«. Burnett (1999, str. 2) in drugi opredeljujejo »samopodobo kot multidimenzionalna čustvena, ocenjevalna, primerjalna in kognitivna prepričanja, ki jih imajo ljudje o

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**8** Shavelson, Marsh, Offer, Rogers, Markus, Wurf, Fleming, Watkins, Kobal - Grum, Avsec itd.

**9** To potrjujeta tudi Ahmed in Bruinsma (2006, str. 554).

**10** Podobno opredeljujeta koncept tudi Akram in Akram Naseem (2010, str. 78).

posebnih lastnostih – in glavna tri področja teh lastnosti so: telesno, socialno in akademsko področje«. Zimbardo in Gerrig (1996, str. 528) pa pojasnjujeta, da je samopodoba dinamična struktura, saj vsebuje mnogo komponent, kot so:

- lastni spomini o samem sebi;
- prepričanja oziroma zaupanja o svojih lastnostih, motivih, vrednotah in sposobnostih;
- idealni "jaz" oziroma idealna samopodoba, ki bi jo zelo radi dosegli, pridobili in s tem možni "jazi" oziroma samopodoba, ki bi jo radi uvedli;
- pozitivno in negativno vrednotenje samega sebe;
- in prepričanja o tem, kaj drugi mislijo o nas.

Samopodoba je v dobršni meri proizvod procesa socialnega konstruiranja in socialnega zrcaljenja – izjave drugih o nas so kot zrcalo, v katerem vidimo samega sebe. Iz tega razloga tudi Adlešič (1999, str. 5) pojasnjuje, da »na razvoj samopodobe vplivajo različni socialnopsihološki procesi, kot so sprejemanje informacij od pomembnih drugih, socialno primerjanje z drugimi osebami, prevzemanje vlog, vrednot in stališč socialnega okolja, v katerem posameznik živi, in identifikacija z modelom«. Tudi Nastran Ule (2004, str. 296) meni, da »nam samopodobo potrdijo le drugi ljudje, to so tisti, ki so za nas kakorkoli pomembni ali zanimivi. Toda to morajo storiti brez pritiska ali manipulacij. Pozitivne samopodobe, ki jih dosežemo s podkupovanjem drugih, niso kaj dosti vredne, saj jih lahko hitro ogrozi kak bolj avtonomen in kritičen opazovalec«. Pomen okolja oziroma drugih ljudi za razvoj samopodobe opredeljuje tudi Musek (1993b, str. 348–349), saj meni, da se v našo samopodobo vtisnejo izjave drugih, recimo o tem, kako smo "pridni", "poredni", "živi", itd. Vsa ta sporočila se bolj ali manj "primejo" naše duševnosti in postanejo del predstave, ki jo gojimo o sebi.

Po pregledu literature ugotovimo, da avtorji [11] v svojih delih kot ključno za razvoj samopodobe poudarjajo predvsem obdobje otroštva in mladostništva. Adlešič (1999, str. 2) pa meni, da je razvoj samopodobe kontinuiran in značilen za vsako razvojno obdobje. To tudi pomeni, da kljub temu, da sta ključni obdobji za razvoj samopodobe otroštvo in mladostništvo, je obdobje odraslosti tisto obdobje, ko se vzpostavlja še

**11** Kobal, Juriševič, Lewis, Adams, Hurlock, itd.

več novih področij samopodobe, ki so tesno povezane z razvojem osebnosti v obdobju odraslosti. Kobal (2000, str. 89) pojasnjuje, da se samopodoba s starostjo posameznika razvija in kot kažejo raziskave se tudi spreminja in strukturira. Ne razvija se kot celota, temveč se s starostjo vzpostavljajo zelo različna področja, od telesne, socialne, akademske in emocionalne samopodobe, itd. To potrjuje tudi Shavelson (v: Adlešič, 1999, str. 4), ko pojasnjuje, da se samopodoba oblikuje postopoma v človekovem razvoju – predvsem na prehodu iz otroštva v odraslost; s starostjo pa postaja vse pogostejša s plastmi. Od življenjskega sloga odraslega posameznika, njegovih obveznosti, interesov, socialnih vlog in vpetosti v medosebne odnose pa je odvisno, v kolikšni meri bo posameznik svojo samopodobo še določneje strukturiral oziroma razmejil na posameznih področjih (glej Kobal Grum, 2004, str. 99).

### 3.1 Samopodoba in samospoštovanje

Samospoštovanje je pomemben korelat samopodobe oziroma njen vrednotni vidik (po Potočnik, 2003, str. 6). Kobal Grum (2003, str. 20) pa celo meni, da je samospoštovanje najpomembnejši korelat samopodobe. Če samopodoba zajema predvsem nevtralne samoopise, potem se samospoštovanje nanaša na vrednostne samoopise, v katere so vpeti izrazito čustveni odnosi do samega sebe. Samospoštovanje je torej vrednostni odnos do samega sebe in zajema predvsem čustva, ki jih posameznik goji do sebe. Obstaja tudi pozitivna korelacija med samopodobo in samospoštovanjem – človek, ki ima visoko samopodobo (zlasti splošno) ima tudi visoko samospoštovanje. In obratno: oseba, ki o sebi nima visokega mnenja, se tudi ne ceni prav dosti (Kobal Grum, 2003, str. 21).

Samospoštovanje je kompleksen pojem, ki vključuje naravnanosti, prepričanja, dispozicije, želje, pričakovanja, čustva in dejanja, ki izražajo ali tvorijo občutek lastne vrednosti osebe. Vključuje tako prepoznavanje in razumevanje lastne vrednosti kot tudi željo in dispozicijo, da bi to vrednost zavarovala in ohranila (Marčič, 2006, str. 66). Rosenberg (v: Kobal, 2000, str. 154) pojasnjuje samospoštovanje kot pozitivno ali negativno stališče do samega sebe. Pozitivno stališče ali visoko samospoštovanje pomeni, da se posameznik sprejema takšen, kakršen je, se ceni, je zadovoljen s sabo, se čuti vrednega spoštovanja. Oseba z nizkim samospoštovanjem oziroma negativnim stališčem do sebe, se ne ceni, se ne vidi kot vrednega, se mu lastne lastnosti ne zdijo vredne.

Samospoštovanje pomeni odnos do samega sebe in zajema predvsem čustva, ki jih posameznik goji do sebe.

Rosenberg (1965) v eni izmed svojih raziskav tudi dokazuje, da se nizko samospoštovanje povezuje s simptomi, ki so značilni za tesnobo: tresenje rok, glavobol, povečan utrip srca, itd. (Rosenberg v: Avsec, 2010, str. 98). Znaki, ki so značilni za osebe, ki imajo slabo samopodobo oziroma nizko samospoštovanje, so ljubosumnost, slabo govorjenje o sebi, občutki krivde, nezmožnost dajanja komplimentov, neupoštevanje lastnih potreb, nezmožnost vprašati po tistem, kar bi radi, nezmožnost izražanja naklonjenosti drugim, kritičen odnos do drugih, primerjanje z drugimi, trajno poslabšanje zdravja (Račnik, 2008).

Kobal (2000, str. 165) pojasnjuje, da so številni raziskovalci ugotovili, da je zveza med samopodobo (samospoštovanjem) in anksioznostjo obratno sorazmerna – čim bolj ima posameznik izoblikovano pozitivno samopodobo in visoko samospoštovanje, tem nižja je njegova stopnja anksioznosti. In obratno: manj kot se oseba ceni in čuti vrednega, sposobnega in uspešnega, bolj je tesnobna.

## 3.2 Področni vidiki samopodobe

Strukturni modeli samopodobe različnih avtorjev[12] prikazujejo, da je samopodoba psihološki konstrukt, ki je sestavljen iz različnih področij oziroma podpodročij. Po pregledu literature ugotovimo, da avtorji[13] samopodobo delijo na različna področja, in sicer splošna, socialna, telesna, emocionalna, religiozna, akademska, družinska samopodoba itd. S starostjo posameznika in z okoliščinami, v katerih deluje posameznik, pa se področja, ki sestavljajo samopodobo, spreminjajo oziroma so lahko različna[14] od posameznika do posameznika. Izkustveno ugotovimo, da je samopodoba vsakega posameznika in s tem tudi samopodoba vsakega vodje sestavljena predvsem iz splošne, akademske, socialne, telesne in emocionalne (čustvene) samopodobe.[15]

12 Shavelson, Bolus, Offer, Tam, Watkins itd.

13 Npr. James (1980), Fleming in Elovson (1988), Kobal (2000), Hattie (2003) itd.

14 Hattie (2003, str. 7) v svojem prispevku navaja kar 18 podpodročij samo za akademsko samopodobo in pojasnjuje, da jih je lahko še mnogo več.

15 Izpostavljenost posameznih področij, iz katerih je samopodoba sestavljena, je od posameznika do posameznika različna in tudi število področij je različno.

Emocionalna samopodoba predstavlja določena občutenja in prepričanja posameznika o izražanju, spoznavanju ter obvladovanju svojih čustev. Posameznik na primer razmišlja in vidi samega sebe kot ne/mirnega, ne/sproščenega in čustveno ne/uravnovešenega itd. Razmišlja tudi o tem, ali je pretežno dobro ali slabo razpoložen, ali je močno vznemirjen in kako potem obvladuje svoja čustva (glej Kobal, 2000, str. 205–220). Socialna samopodoba obsega zaznave [16], prepričanja in presoje posameznika o odnosih z vrstniki in drugimi pomembnimi bližnjimi osebami, kot so starši, sorojenci, partner in sodelavci. Gre za zaznave posameznika o lastnih sposobnostih sklepanja prijateljstev, o lastni priljubljenosti in o kakovosti odnosov z bližnjimi. Del samopodobe pa se nanaša na vpliv posameznika na širšo skupnost oziroma na doživljanje odnosa do zakonov in družbenih moralnih norm (glej Kobal, 2000, str. 171–200). Musek (1993a, str. 345) pripisuje velik pomen socialni samopodobi in pojasnjuje, da so del naše samopodobe pojmovanja in predstave, ki jih imamo o tem, kaj drugi mislijo o nas in o tem, kako naj samega sebe predstavimo in prikažemo pred drugimi, na socialnem prizorišču – socialni jaz. Hattie (2003, str. 18) pojasnjuje, da je socialna samopodoba za posameznika pomembna in veliko informacij o posamezniku izvira iz socialnih okoliščin. Vsak človek je namreč veliko v prisotnosti drugih in njegovo osebnost drugi tudi predstavijo drugim – na podlagi tega pa človek gradi in spoznava sam sebe v socialnih situacijah in si oblikuje določeno podobo o sebi.

Znak dobre socialne samopodobe vodij je, da zlahka sklepajo odnose z vodenimi in jih tudi ohranjajo na kakovostni ravni. Vodje imajo jasno izoblikovano podobo o sebi in niso občutljivi na neodobravanje drugih, niso obsedeni s tem, kako najbolj uspešno predstaviti sebe v socialnem okolju. Vodje z visoko izraženo oziroma pozitivno socialno samopodobo nimajo težav z anksioznostjo oziroma predvsem socialno anksioznostjo, ki pomeni, da ljudje doživljajo nenehen (nepojasnjen) strah pred družabnimi situacijami, v katerih bi jih lahko drugi ocenjevali ali obsojali. Takšen strah pa še naraste, če ugotovijo, da bi lahko pred omenjenimi ljudmi doživeli ponižanje. Vodje s socialno anksioznostjo so v odnosu z ljudmi neuspešni in pogosto občutijo tesnobo, napetost, vznemirjenost itd.

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**16** James (v: Hattie, 2003, str. 17) je socialni jaz opredelil kot "priznanja", ki smo jih dobili od svojih bližnjih (npr. družine, prijateljev).

Po mnenju Schilderja (v: Fisher, 1990, str. 8) je »telesna samopodoba slika lastnega telesa posameznika, ki jo izoblikuje v svojih mislih«. Thompson (v: Kuhar, 2004, str. 84) in drugi pa pojasnjujejo, da »je telesna samopodoba terminološka oznaka za notranjo predstavo o lastnem zunanjem videzu. Ta notranji pogled oziroma mentalna slika pa je povezana z občutji in mislimi, ki v določenih situacijah vplivajo na vedenje. V nekaterih primerih so lahko občutja, ki izhajajo iz ocene videza, pozitivna, v drugih primerih pa so lahko tako negativna, da vodijo celo v depresijo«. »Pozitivna telesna samopodoba lahko zviša samospoštovanje in prispeva k uspešnim medosebnim ali poslovnim stikom, medtem ko lahko negativni pogled na lastno telo do take mere oslabi samozavest, da oseba ni pripravljena zapustiti varnega zavetja svojega doma« (Kuhar, 2004, str. 84–85). Grogonova (v: Kuhar, 2004, str. 86) meni, da gre pri telesni samopodobi za »človekove percepcije, mišljenje ali občutenja o njegovem ali njenem telesu. Percepcije se nanašajo na oceno velikosti telesa, mišljenje na vrednotenje telesne privlačnosti, občutja pa na čustva, povezana z obliko in velikostjo telesa«.

Na razvoj telesne samopodobe pomembno vplivajo medosebne izkušnje, npr. druženja, vrednotenje, tudi navidezno milo komentiranje videza. Osebe, ki so v otroštvu in mladosti deležne pogostih kritik in draženja zaradi videza, razvijejo bolj negativno telesno samopodobo, kajti telesna samopodoba se ne pozablja. Na negativno samopodobo vplivajo tudi specifični dogodki in situacije, ki sprožajo določena občutja in razmišljanje o videzu (Kuhar, 2004, str. 87). Kobal (2000, str. 65) pa pojasnjuje, da če je oblikovanje telesne samopodobe pri mladostniku moteno, se tudi splošna samopodoba in samospoštovanje ne moreta ustrezno razviti.

## 4 Raziskava o samopodobi vodij v upravnih enot

Namen raziskave, ki je predstavljena v prispevku, je bil poudariti pomen samopodobe vodij. Vodja namreč s svojim vedenjem vpliva na delovanje (vedenje) zaposlenih in s tem posledično na uspešnost in učinkovitost upravne enote. Glavni cilj raziskovanja oziroma proučevanja je bil ugotoviti, kakšna je samopodoba vodij v upravnih enotah in katero področje samopodobe vodij je najnižje oziroma najvišje izraženo. Ciljna skupina, ki je torej sodelovala v raziskavi, so bili vodje, ki v organih državne uprave opravljajo razmeroma identične naloge in le-te opravljajo na območju celotne države. Takšnemu pogoju so ustrezali vodje v upravnih enotah in zato so bili v raziskovalni vzorec vključeni vodje iz upravnih enot v Sloveniji.

Raziskava je bila izvedena v 57 upravnih enotah (za nesodelovanje v raziskavi so se odločili samo v eni upravni enoti) in v njej je sodelovalo 136 vodij, med katerimi je bilo manj kot 5 % tistih, ki so strokovno tehnično osebje (javni uslužbenci) in so vodje organizacijskih enot. Največ, in sicer dobrih 66 % je bilo takih, ki so uradniki oziroma vodje organizacijskih enot z do 30 zaposlenimi. V raziskavi je sodelovala tudi polovica vseh načelnikov upravnih enot v Sloveniji oziroma dobrih 21 % vseh anketiranih vodij. V raziskavi je bilo ocenjevanih 8 % vodij organizacijskih enot z več kot 30 zaposlenimi.

Vprašalnik[17], ki je bil izoblikovan v sklopu raziskave, opredeljuje 45 vprašanj in meri štiri vidike samopodobe, in sicer splošno, socialno, telesno in emocionalno samopodobo. Idejne zasnove za oblikovanje vprašanj sta predstavljala Lestvica samospoštovanja [18] avtorice Tanje Lamovec in tudi Vprašalnik SDQIII[19] (vprašanja, s katerimi ugotavljamo splošno samopodobo). Visoko število točk oziroma visoka aritmetična sredina na vsaki posamezni dimenziji samopodobe kaže na to, da je samopodoba na tistem področja močno izražena.

### 4.1 Rezultati raziskave

Z raziskavo smo želeli ugotoviti, kako so izražena posamezna področja samopodobe pri vodjih, in sicer splošna, emocionalna, socialna in telesna samopodoba. Raziskava je pokazala, da sta področji socialne in telesne samopodobe v primerjavi s splošno in emocionalno samopodobo nižje izraženi. Preverjanje s T-testom je pokazalo, da statistično značilnih razlik ni zaznati samo med področjem socialne in telesne samopodobe. Med vsemi drugimi pari proučevanih področij samopodobe je mogoče zaznati statistično značilne razlike.

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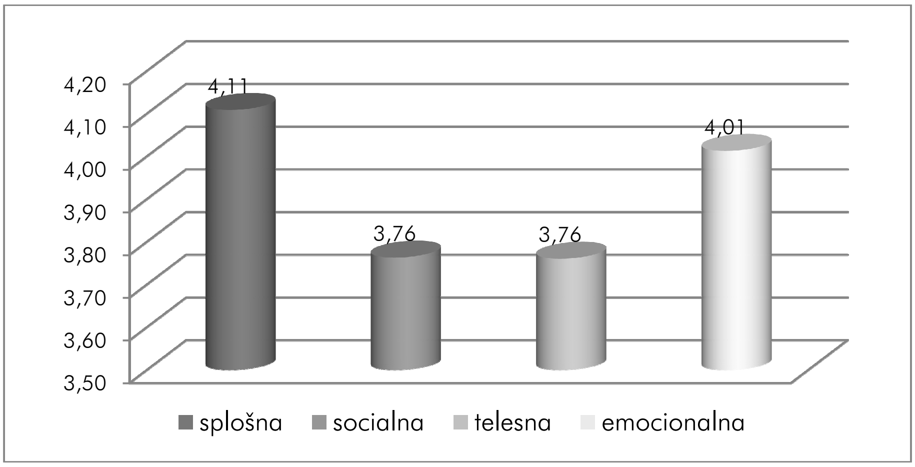
**17** Poimenovan je kot Vprašalnik Lestvica samopodobe.

**18** Lestvica samospoštovanja je krajše poimenovana kot LS.

**19** Self Description Questionnaire III (Marsh, 1992)

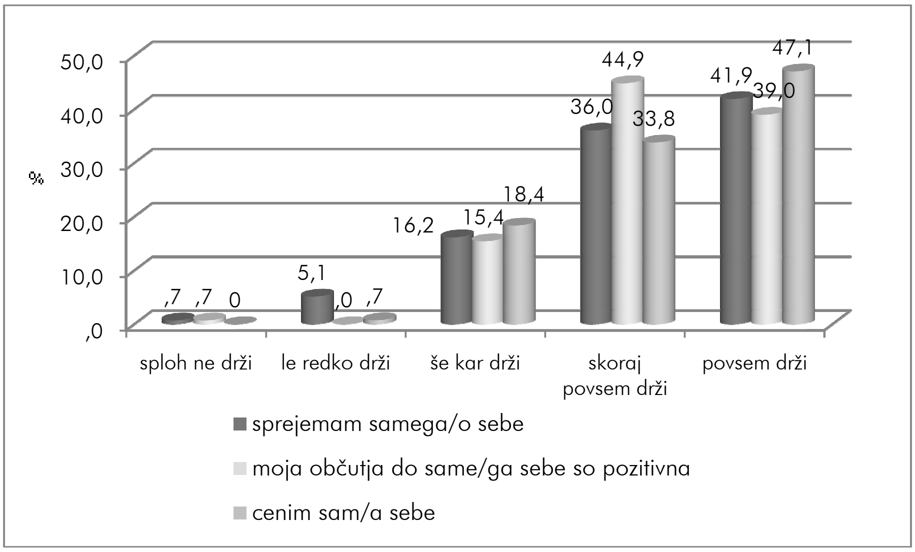
Grafikon 1: Področja samopodobe vodij v upravnih enotah (povprečna ocena)




Vir: lastni

Rezultati raziskave (cf. grafikon 1) kažejo, da sta telesna in socialna samopodoba najnižje izraženi področji samopodobe, ki so bile merjene v raziskavi, saj je povprečna ocena vodij za obe področji 3,76. Takšen rezultat kaže na zmerno izraženost socialne in telesne samopodobe proučevanih vodij v upravnih enotah.

Grafikon 2: Primerjava treh trditev v sklopu splošne samopodobe

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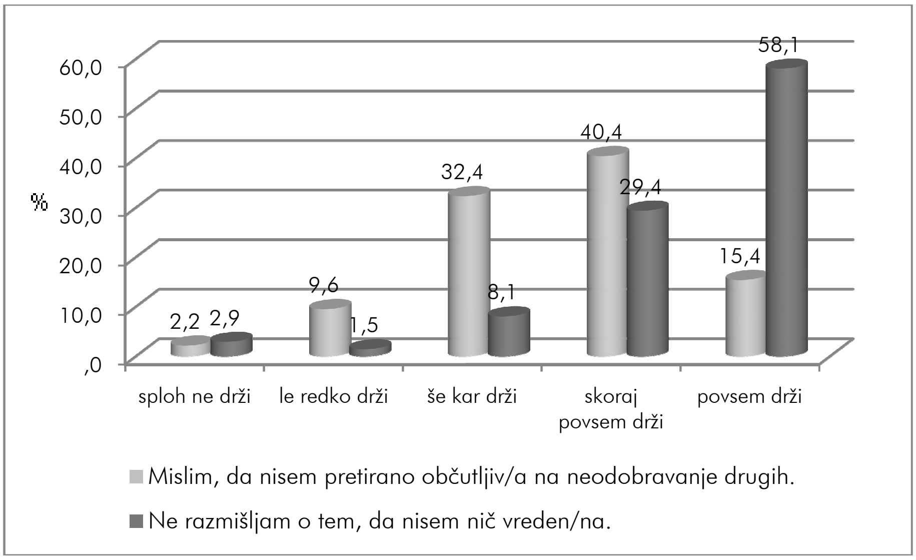
Med spremenljivkami (prikazane v grafikonu 2) v sklopu splošne samopodobe se statistično značilna razlika zazna med parom dveh spremenljivk, in sicer "sprejemam samega/o sebe" in "cenim sam/a sebe". Med drugimi pari spremenljivk ni zaznati statistično značilnih razlik. Rezultati pri paru kjer so statistično značilne razlike zaznane, kažejo, da slabih 67 % proučevanih vodij, ki sprejemajo same sebe, hkrati tudi meni, da cenijo sebe. 11 % vodij, ki sprejemajo samega sebe pa hkrati meni, da se še kar cenijo, ampak ne povsem. Dobrih 67 % vodij pa hkrati meni, da sprejemajo same sebe in imajo tudi pozitivna občutenja do sebe.

V sklopu spremenljivk emocionalne samopodobe sta najvišje ocenjeni spremenljivki "ne razmišljam o tem, da nisem nič vreden/na" (4,38) in "nimam težav z depresivnostjo" (4,32). Najnižje sta ocenjeni spremenljivki "mislim, da nisem pretirano občutljiv/a na neodobravanje drugih" s povprečno oceno 3,57 in "sem zadovoljen/a sam s sabo" s povprečno oceno 3,69. Preverjanje s T-testom kaže, da je med najvišje ocenjeno spremenljivko in najnižje ocenjeno spremenljivko mogoče zaznati statistično značilne razlike (cf. grafikon 3).

**Grafikon 3: Primerjava dveh spremenljivk v sklopu emocionalne samopodobe**

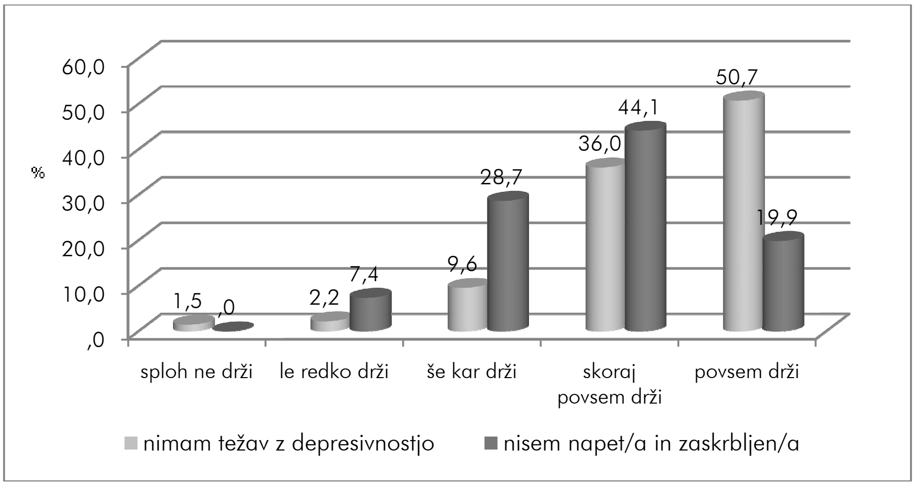



Vir: lastni

Rezultati, ki so prikazani v grafikonu 3, kažejo, da samo dobrih 55 % proučevanih vodij meni, da niso občutljivi na neodobravanje drugih. Več kot 11 % vodij pa je občutljivih na neodobravanje drugih. Določena občutljivost vodij na neodobravanje drugih je potrebna, saj na tak način vodje tudi začutijo in pokažejo svoja čustva. Toda bolj kot njihova občutljivost na neodobravanje drugih je pomembna empatija oziroma sposobnost "vživljanja" v vodene oziroma zaznavanja čustev in potreb vodenih. Določeno (ne)občutljivost vodij na (ne)odobravanje drugih se lahko razume tudi na način, da želijo vodje ugajati drugim in ker jih nekateri drugi ne odobravajo, se pri vodjih pojavljajo določena občutenja in nekateri so na takšna občutenja občutljivi bolj kot drugi. Analiza rezultatov tudi kaže, da dobrih 87 % ocenjevanih vodij ne razmišlja o tem, da niso nič vredni. Dobrih 4 % vodij pa razmišlja o tem, da niso nič vredni. 52 % vodij hkrati meni, da ne razmišlja o tem, da niso nič vredni, in tudi misli, da niso pretirano občutljivi na neodobravanje drugih. Dobrih 9 % tistih vodij, ki ne razmišlja o tem, da niso nič vredni, pa misli, da so pretirano občutljivi na neodobravanje drugih.

V okviru emocionalne samopodobe so bile na podlagi T-testa zaznane statistično značilne razlike tudi med spremenljivkama, ki se nanašata na depresivnost in napetost ter zaskrbljenost (cf. grafikon 4).

**Grafikon 4: Primerjava dveh spremenljivk v sklopu emocionalne samopodobe**

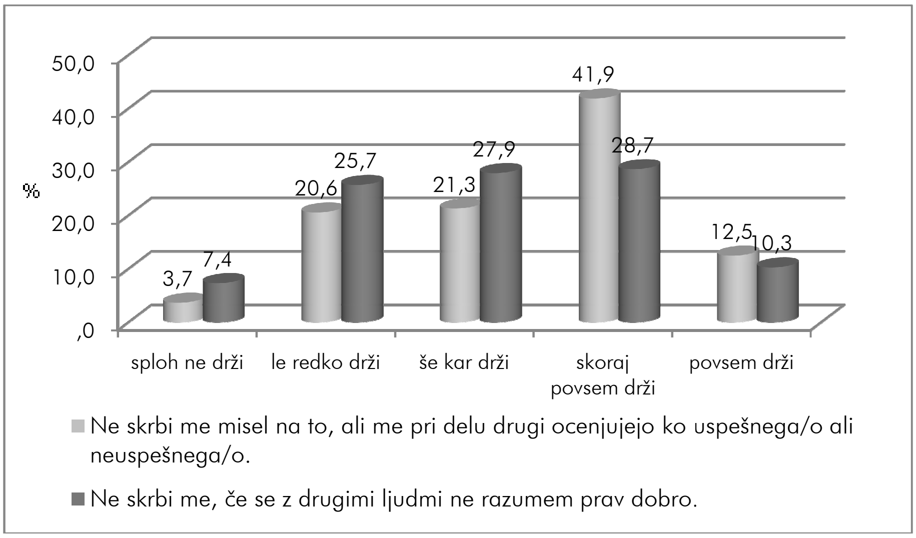



Vir: lastni

Rezultati, ki so prikazani v grafikonu 4, kažejo, da dobrih 86 % vodij meni, da nima težav z depresivnostjo. Pričakovali bi, da bodo enaki odstotki tudi pri trditvi nisem napet in zaskrbljen, ki je vsebinsko tesno povezana z depresivnostjo – toda kot kažejo rezultati, samo 64 % vodij meni, da niso napeti in zaskrbljeni. Dobrih 61 % vodij, ki meni, da niso napeti in zaskrbljeni, hkrati tudi meni, da nima težav z depresivnostjo. Slabih 3 % ocenjenih vodij, ki hkrati meni, da nima težav z depresivnostjo, pa sebe ocenjuje kot napete in zaskrbljene. Dobra 2 % ocenjevanih vodij pa je takšnih, ki meni, da imajo težave z depresivnostjo in so hkrati napeti in zaskrbljeni.

Rezultati spremenljivk socialne samopodobe kažejo, da socialna samopodoba vodij ni visoko izražena oziroma je zmerno izražena, kar zbuja skrb. Preverjanje s T-testi kaže, da obstajajo med nekaterimi spremenljivkami statistično značilne razlike. Statistično značilna razlika obstaja med spremenljivkama "ne skrbi me, če se z drugimi ljudmi ne razumem prav dobro" in "ne skrbi me misel na to, ali me pri delu drugi ocenjujejo kot uspešnega/o ali neuspešnega/o" (cf. grafikon 5).

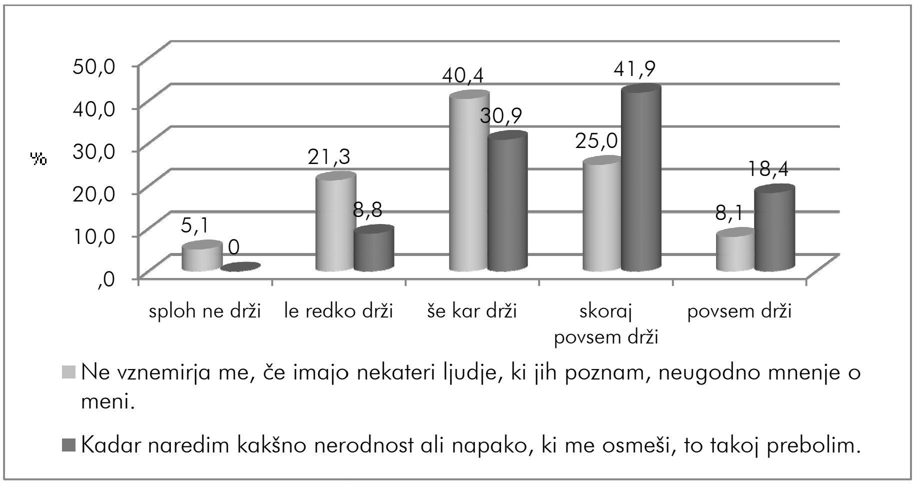
**Grafikon 5: Primerjava dveh spremenljivk socialne samopodobe**




Vir: lastni

Rezultati v grafikonu 5 kažejo, da dobrih 54 % ocenjevanih vodij meni, da jih ne skrbi misel na to, ali jih pri delu drugi ocenjujejo kot uspešnega/o ali neuspešnega/o. Slabih 24 % vodij pa skrbi, če jih drugi pri delu ocenjujejo kot uspešne oziroma neuspešne. Analiza rezultatov tudi kaže, da samo 36 % vodij, ki meni, da jih ne skrbi misel na to, ali jih drugi pri delu ocenjujejo kot uspešnega ali neuspešnega, hkrati tudi meni, da jih ne skrbi, če se z drugimi ne razumejo prav dobro. 21 % ocenjevanih vodij pa hkrati meni, da jih skrbi misel na to, ali jih drugi pri delu ocenjujejo kot (ne)uspešne, in da jih tudi skrbi, če se z drugimi ljudmi ne razumejo prav dobro.

**Grafikon 6: Primerjava dveh spremenljivk socialne samopodobe**

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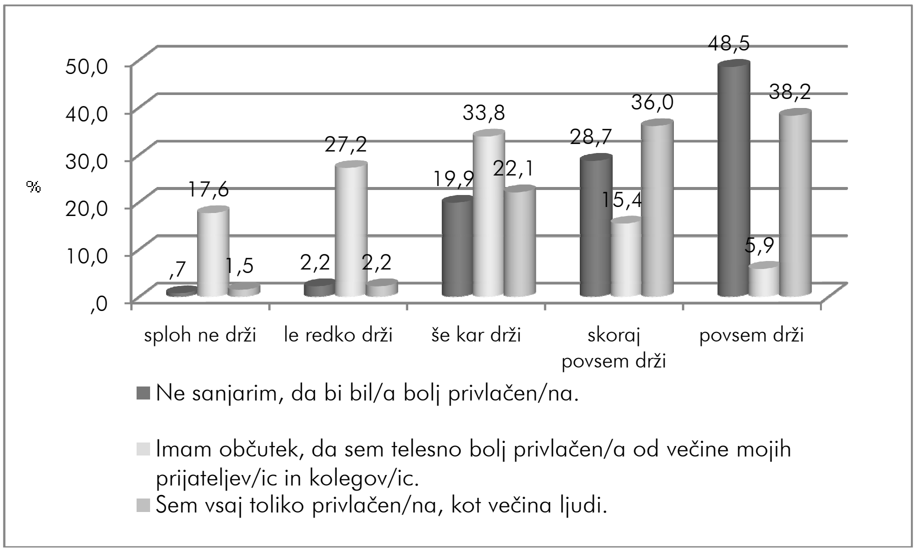
Rezultati, ki so prikazani v grafikonu 6, kažejo, da 60 % proučevanih vodij meni, da če naredijo kakšno nerodnost ali napako, ki jih osmeši, to takoj prebolijo. Slabih 9 % vodij pa meni, da napake ali nerodnosti, ki jih osmeši, ne prebolijo takoj. Analiza rezultatov je tudi pokazala, da 25 % proučevanih vodij, ki takoj prebolijo napako ali nerodnost, ki jih osmeši, hkrati tudi meni, da jih ne vznemirja, če imajo nekateri ljudje, ki jih poznajo, neugodno mnenje o njih. Slabih 6 % vodij pa hkrati meni, da jih vznemirja, če imajo ljudje o njih neugodno mnenje in tudi ne morejo takoj preboleti napake, ki jih osmeši. Preverjanje s T-testom med spremenljivkama, ki sta prikazani grafikonu 6, je pokazalo, da so med spremenljivkama zaznane statistično značilne razlike.

Tudi področje telesne samopodobe je za vodje pomembno, saj se nanaša na notranje predstave vodij o njihovem o zunanjem videzu. Rezultati posameznih spremenljivk za področje telesne samopodobe kažejo, da je samopodoba vodij v upravnih enotah zmerno izražena in da je med spremenljivkami v okviru telesne samopodobe zaznati nekaj statistično značilnih razlik. V sklopu spremenljivk telesne samopodobe preverba s T-testom kaže, da so bile zaznane statistično značilne razlike med nekaterimi pari spremenljivk, ki so prikazani v grafikonu 7.

Rezultati, ki so prikazani v grafikonu 7, kažejo, da 74 % ocenjevanih vodij meni, da so bolj privlačni kot večina ljudi. Dobrih 44 % vodij pa meni, da imajo občutek, da sploh niso telesno bolj privlačni od večine prijateljev in kolegov. Takšni rezultati so zanimivi in to še posebej, ker so prijatelji in kolegi tisti, ki najbolj vplivajo na posameznika, oziroma po katerih se posameznik zgleduje in najbolj občuteno doživlja njihove komentarje. In če so prijatelji in kolegi v veliki večini bolj telesno privlačni od vodij, vpliva to na njihove občutke oziroma zaznavanja telesnega videza ter posledično vpliva na slabši pogled na svoje telo (je razvidno v zmerno izraženi telesni samopodobi). Slabih 3 % vodij pa sanjari[20], da bi bili bolj privlačni.

**Grafikon 7: Primerjava treh spremenljivk telesne samopodobe**

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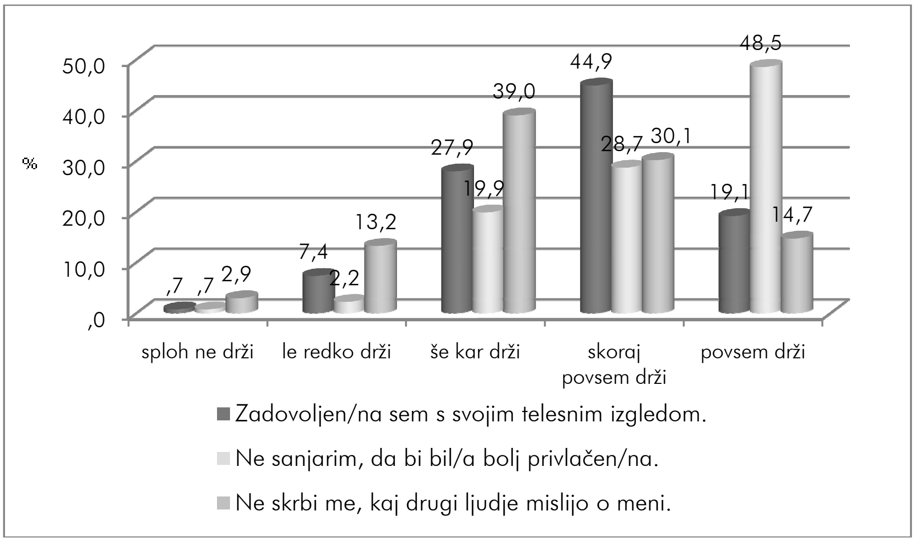
Rezultati, ki so prikazani v grafikonu 8, pa kažejo, da 64 % proučevanih vodij trdi, da so zadovoljni s svojim telesnim videzom. 8,1 % vodij v upravnih enotah pa nima najboljšega pogleda na svoj telesni videz – to posledično pomeni, da lahko takšen pogled slabo vpliva na njihovo vedenje do vodenih oziroma na medosebne odnose.

Rezultati, ki so prikazani v grafikonu 8, tudi kažejo, da dobrih 77 % proučevanih vodij meni, da ne sanjarijo o tem, da bi bili bolj privlačni. Precej manj vodij v primerjavi z tistimi, ki ne sanjarijo, da bi bili bolj privlačni, pa skrbi kaj si drugi mislijo o njih. Samo dobrih 44 % proučevanih vodij meni, da jih ne skrbi kaj drugi mislijo o njih. Takšen rezultat je smiselno primerjati tudi s podobnimi rezultati spremenljivk, ki so

**20** Samo 2 % vodij hkrati meni, da sanjarijo, da bi bili bolj privlačni in imajo kar precej močan občutek, da niso telesno bolj privlačni od svojih prijateljev/ic in kolegov/ic.

prikazane v sklopu socialne samopodobe. V primerjavi se ugotovi, da odstotek ne preseneča, saj tudi dobrih 38 % vodij ne vznemirja, če imajo nekateri ljudje, ki jih poznajo, neugodno mnenje o njih in 39 % vodij tudi meni, da jih ne skrbi, če se z drugimi ljudmi ne razumejo prav dobro.

**Grafikon 8: Primerjava treh trditev telesne samopodobe**

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## 4.2 Razprava

Rezultati opravljene raziskave o samopodobi vodij na upravnih enotah kažejo, da sta najnižje izraženi področji socialne in telesne samopodobe. Za vodje je pomembno, da imajo visoko izraženo samopodobo na socialnem področju, saj je to področje samopodobe povezano s tem, kakšno predstavo oziroma prepričanja ima posameznik o sebi na področju odnosov z ljudmi (npr. vodenimi). Gre za predstave oziroma zaznave vodij o njihovi priljubljenosti in njihovih lastnih sposobnostih sklepanja dobrih odnosov z vodenimi, njihovega motiviranja, sposobnosti prepričevanja vodenih in vključevanja v socialno okolje. Če je samopodoba na t.i. socialnem področju nizko izražena oziroma slaba – pomeni to, da imajo vodje slab pogled na sebe na področju odnosov oziroma začnejo dvomiti v same sebe v razmerju do drugih. Ker niso tako priljubljeni v družbi, kot si želijo biti oziroma ker mogoče vodeni bolj zaznavajo druge kot pa njih, jih to v odnosu do vodenih ovira in pri njih se pojavlja občutek negotovosti, ali bodo res zmogli vzpostaviti primeren odnos z vodenimi, tako da jih bodo vodeni sprejeli in jim zaupali. Gre tudi za predstave vodij o tem, kakšno mnenje imajo vodeni o njih in kako naj sebe prikažejo na socialnem prizorišču.

Rezultati raziskave za področje socialne samopodobe za proučevane vodje kažejo, da je socialna samopodoba zmerno izražena. Nekatere spremenljivke kažejo skrb zbujajoče rezultate in to v povezavi s tem, da se od vodij pričakuje, da so sposobni sklepati dobre odnose z vodenimi in jih vodeni spoštujejo oziroma v njih vidijo vzornike, ki so jim zgled s svojimi sposobnostmi in načelnostjo. Na podlagi rezultata se lahko sklepa, da je vedenje vodij do vodenih omejeno in vpliva na odnos do vodenih, ker če vodje dvomijo v svoje sposobnosti vzpostavljanja odnosa z vodenimi – bodo imeli vodje manj uspešnega odnosa z vodenimi (prisoten je lahko tudi strah ali bom uspešen) in pri vodenih se bo pojavil občutek dvoma v avtoriteto oziroma sposobnost, resnost vodij. Rezultati socialne samopodobe tudi nakazujejo, da se pri veliki večini vodij ne pojavlja t.i. generalizirana anksioznost, ki pomeni motnjo s tesnobnostjo, zaskrbljenostjo in napetostjo, povezano s strahom pred nesrečami ali z neustrezno zaskrbljenostjo zaradi zdravja, družine ali službe. Pri tistih nekaj odstotkih (7,4 %) vodij, ki pa menijo, da so napeti in zaskrbljeni, in tistih, ki menijo, da imajo težave z depresivnostjo (3,7 %), pa se lahko sklepa, da se ubadajo z generalizirano anksioznostjo. Na podlagi vseh rezultatov v sklopu socialne samopodobe se predvideva, da velika večina vodij ne trpi zaradi socialne anksioznosti, oziroma ne doživljajo nenehnega in neracionalnega strahu pred družabnimi (socialnimi) situacijami, v katerih bi jih drugi ljudje lahko ocenjevali ali obsojali, oziroma se ne bojijo lastnega neuspeha zaradi kakšne lastne napake.

Podobno kot socialna samopodoba je tudi telesna samopodoba najnižje izražena med samopodobami, ki so bile merjene v raziskavi. Telesna samopodoba je za vodje pomembna in to predvsem v smislu, da si ustvarijo pozitiven pogled na svoj zunanji (telesni) videz in da množične sugestije medijev o idealnem telesu ne zaznavajo na negativen način oziroma na način, ki bi imel za posledico slabo lastno samopodobo, saj lahko le ta slabo vpliva na njihovo vedenje in odnos z vodenimi. Na uspešno vzpostavljanje odnosa z vodenimi oziroma z drugimi ljudmi lahko pomembno vpliva predvsem pozitivna telesna samopodoba, saj lahko zviša samospoštovanje in prispeva k uspešnosti odnosov. Negativen pogled na lastno telo lahko zniža samozavest in to tako, da si posameznik ne upa v družbo ljudi. Torej je za vodje še posebej zaželena pozitivna telesna samopodoba, saj vpliva na samospoštovanje in prispeva k dobrim medosebnim odnosom. Rezultati opravljene raziskave kažejo, da so točkovne ocene nekaterih spremenljivk telesne samopodobe nizke. Tako na primer 44 % vodij meni, da imajo občutek, da telesno niso bolj privlačni od svojih prijateljev in kolegov. To lahko pomeni, da v kolikor so vodje veliko v družbi svojih prijateljev in kolegov, ki so telesno bolj privlačni od njih, se lahko pojavijo določene posledice pri vodjih. To pa predvsem v obliki nekega ljubosumja vodij in v obliki občutka manjvrednosti oziroma neprivlačnosti. Kljub temu, da so vodje privlačni, ampak ker je moč vpliva prijateljev in kolegov v primerjavi z drugimi ljudmi tako močna, je mogoče, da se pojavijo negativni pogledi na svoj zunanji (telesni) videz. Vsi ti občutki, ki se lahko pojavijo pri vodjih, so predvsem povezani z željo, da ne bi slabo izstopali iz kroga svojih prijateljev in kolegov. Zato mogoče tudi sanjarijo, da bi bili bolj privlačni.

## 5 Zaključek

Pomemben vidik vodje, ki vpliva na njegovo vedenje in posledično na vedenje vodenih, je tudi vidik osebnosti vodje oziroma iz tega izhajajoč vidik dojemanje, sprejemanja vodje samega sebe. Pozitiven odnos vodje do sebe pomeni, da je zadovoljen s sabo in svojim življenjem. Torej, da vodja lahko razume druge, mora najprej razumeti sebe. Vsak vodja si izoblikuje tudi določeno predstavo o sebi, o tem kakšen je in kakšen bi želel biti. V strokovni literaturi se je za takšno opredeljevanje izoblikoval pojem samopodoba. Pri samopodobi gre torej za določene odnose oziroma predstave, ki jih oblikuje posameznik do samega sebe in to na ravni zavestnega in nezavednega, pri čemer nezavedno prekriva plašč obrambnih mehanizmov, ki omogočajo "jazu" (zavestnemu vidiku), da nadzoruje "ono" (nezavednemu) in s tem preprečuje vdor nezaželenih nagonskih impulzov. Toda pri samopodobi ne gre samo za običajne predstave posameznika o samem sebi, ampak gre za zelo zapletene notranje procese, ki so povezani z idealnim oziroma s tem, kako naj posameznik sebe predstavi na socialnem prizorišču pred pomembnimi drugimi ljudmi.

V procesu vodenja je pomembna predvsem pozitivna samopodoba vodje. Vodja s pozitivno ali negativno samopodobo vpliva na vedenje vodenih in s tem posledično na zadovoljstvo vodenih in uspešnost vodenja. Tisti vodja, ki nima pozitivnega mnenja oziroma pogleda na samega sebe, ima določene lastnosti, ki jih vodeni občutijo, in če vodja z negativno oziroma nizko samopodobo ne zaupa vase, sebe ne spoštuje, se ne ceni, je zaprt vase, se boji stikov z ljudmi, se boji soočenja z ljudmi – ne more učinkovito vplivati na vodene, saj vodeni to občutijo. Konstrukt samopodobe je predmet številnih raziskav med različnimi skupinami ljudmi. Povezanosti vsebin samopodobe z vsebinami vodenja so pomembne v odnosu do ljudi oziroma še posebej pri ključnem dejavniku v procesu vodenja, in sicer pri vodji.

Rezultati raziskave o samopodobi vodij v upravnih enotah kažejo izraženost splošne, emocionalne, socialne in telesne samopodobe in nakazujejo potrebo po nadaljnjem raziskovanju, saj so bila z raziskavo preverjana samo nekatera področja. Vsekakor bi bilo smiselno nadaljnja raziskovanja samopodobe vodij povezati z uspešnostjo vodenja oziroma s tem, kako izraženost samopodobe vpliva na uspešnost vodenja.

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*1.01 Original scientific article*

# Self-Concept of Leaders in Administrative Units

UDK: 35-057.17

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ABSTRACT

**Within the leadership process, the positive self-concept of a leader can have an impact on quality reciprocal relations with subordinates and on the conduct of the leader and the subordinates. The results of the research into the self-concept of administrative unit leaders indicate that the most poorly expressed areas of self-concept were the social and physical self-concept, while the highest was the general self-concept. Since it is important for leaders to have well developed skills, especially social skills and skills for working with people, the result of the research into the social self-concept of leaders in central government bodies (administrative units) is an important indicator of leaders' concepts of their own social image. The paper focuses on the self-concept of administrative unit leaders and presents results of research carried out in that field.**

*Key words: leader, social self-concept, physical self-concept, self-respect, administrative unit*

*JEL: Z00*

## 1 Introduction

Increasing attention is being paid to the importance of leading people and the adequacy of leadership both in the field of research as well as in practical implementation. The key factor in leadership is the leader, as the leader is the central point in relation to the people being led. Successful leadership of people requires leaders to have appropriate skills or competences, which have a significant impact on whether set objectives will be realised. Research confirms that leader personality has an effect on leadership effectiveness – and also that leaders form their self-image on the basis of their personality. This means their self-image or how they imagine themselves, their abilities, traits, their body, chances in life, successes and failures. The professional literature uses the term "self-concept" to describe such traits. The leadership process is influenced by leaders' personality and their self-concept, since the self-image of leaders affects how they act, which is transferred to subordinates and their conduct.

## 2 Leadership and leaders

The literature indicates that there are various[1] definitions of leadership that approach leadership from differing[2] points of view. In this paper, leadership is understood as the influence of leaders on the people they lead with the aim of ensuring that those people would like (want) to carry out the tasks agreed with the leaders. Hellriegel & Slocum (1996, pp. 445) offer a similar view, as they see leadership as influencing employees to act towards the realisation of objectives. Brajša (1983, p. 187) defines leadership as a complex, interpersonal process, since it involves working with people who are complex and demanding beings.

Northouse (2007, p. 3) clarifies that the leadership is a process[3] in which a series of activities occur, as stated by Hočevar (2003, pp. 130–131) and others »in a process in which leaders, the people led, and circumstances contribute equally«. The subordinates within an organisation or a social situation force the leaders to select an appropriate style of leadership – but leaders adapt their leadership style to the circumstances or situation in which activities take place in order to successfully realise an agreed or set task. Leadership is therefore a process that is defined by relations or interactions between the leader, subordinates and circumstances. The key factor in leadership is therefore a leader who, »setting an example and giving advice and instructions, ensures co-workers achieve a set organisational objective« (Stare & Seljak,

1 Such as Bass, Antonakis, Yukl, Avolio, Bennis, Gardner, Kotter, Kovač, Mayer, etc.

2 Leadership can be addressed in terms of anthropology, psychology, sociology, technology, economics, or organisational, cultural or other studies

3 Similar views are offered by Bass (1990), Mayer (2004), Možina (1994), etc.

2006, p. 89). Gibb (in: Nastran Ule, 1994, p. 237) states that a leader is:

- a dominant person with power and influence, with which he or she affects the behaviour and activity of others
- the "central person" for members of a group, an ego-ideal group
- the person who has most influence on others, and whose influence the group accepts voluntarily.

A leader defines important tasks in the leadership process and has a central role in an organisation or group. The leader's role is important, since leaders not only influence people in their achievement of objectives, but also act as an example to people (even in the field of morale and ethical standards). This is confirmed by Branden (2000, p. 61), who states that »too few leaders understand and appreciate the level to which they are an example to others. They do not recognise in how much detail the people around them sometimes unconsciously observe and take on their slight movements and how much their influence is expressed throughout the entire organisation.« What leaders do and say can often be detected in feedback in the conduct of the subordinates. This conduct is important and through experience we find that leaders must recognise and improve this kind of conduct. Leaders can affect conduct and leadership effectiveness via their abilities, knowledge and traits.[4] Yet Stare (2005, p. 86) considers the abilities that an individual leader needs for successful leadership are difficult to unequivocally define, due in part to the influence of subordinates and individual situations.

Yukl (2002, p. 195) considers that human skills [5] are vital to influencing people. These skills constitute knowledge and abilities needed to work in a group or the abilities needed to lead a specific group. They include skills[6] held (or that should be held) by a leader in order to work with people, since they enable a leader to work more effectively with subordinates or the people they lead, all with the aim of achieving organisational objectives. Leaders with well-developed skills or abilities

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**4** Knowledge, skills and traits (personal, social) can be seen as comprising human potential.

**5** In contrast to technical and conceptual skill.

**6** Bass (1990, p. 195) defines them as "social skills" and considers that they refer to abilities that enable people to understand the feelings, mood and motives of subordinates and the abilities of good communication and persuasion.

are aware of their own attitude and the doubts and convictions of other (subordinate) individuals and groups. They create a positive climate or atmosphere of trust in which employees (subordinates) feel comfortable and secure. These skills are important because they include motivating and understanding subordinates (according to Katz, 1955, pp. 34–35). Bass (1990, p. 110) states that research has indicated that such skills are extremely important and affect the performance and progress of leaders and leadership effectiveness. This is also confirmed by research carried out by Boyatzis (1982), which indicates that successful leaders are distinguished from unsuccessful leaders on the basis of human skills. Nastran Ule (1994, p. 237) clarifies that leaders' skills are linked to the tasks they must carry out and that important tasks are primarily psychological, social and professional.

Leadership performance is not only affected by leaders' skills and knowledge, but also by the leaders' traits. A review of the literature indicates that each individual author defines the traits typical of a successful leader from their own point of view. Table 1 sets out the views of a number of authors on the traits that a successful author should have.

**Table 1: Key traits of successful leaders**

| Northouse (2007) | Kirkpatrick in Locke (1991) | Stogdill (1974) | Mayer (2004) |
|---|---|---|---|
| - intelligence<br>- initiative<br>- decisiveness<br>- integrity<br>- sociability | - drive<br>- motivation<br>- integrity<br>- confidence<br>- cognitive ability<br>- task knowledge | - achievement<br>- persistence<br>- insight<br>- initiative<br>- responsibility<br>- cooperativeness<br>- tolerance<br>- influence<br>- sociability | - intelligence<br>- personality in a narrow sense<br>- creativity<br>- expressiveness<br>- empathy<br>- positive self-concept<br>- decisiveness<br>- ethical principles<br>- altruism and philanthropy |

Source: Northouse (2007, pp. 18–19), Mayer (2004, pp. 53–56)

Maxwell (2007, p. 10) identifies 21 important traits that successful leaders should have: character, charisma, commitment, communication, competence, courage, discernment, focus, generosity, initiative, listening, passion, positive attitude, problem-solving, relationships, responsibility, security, self-discipline, servanthood, teachability, and vision. Comparing traits indicates that all authors emphasize the trait of leaders' self-confidence or respect for themselves and their abilities. According to Maxwell (2007, p. 101) a leader is someone who masters the "laws of leadership", but leaders only become effective because of what is within them. Leaders are therefore important as people with a clear understanding of themselves and what they want to achieve and with self-belief. It is also important for leaders to have formulated an image of themselves.

## 3 Self-concept

The self-image of leaders or their self-concept in relation to subordinates is primarily important because it influences the leaders' conduct and consequently also influences the conduct of subordinates and the self-awareness and self-confidence of leaders within the framework of individual dimensions of their self-concept. Nastran Ule (1994, p. 238) clarifies that experts[7] have found through research that good leaders have a well-constructed and realistic self-concept.

An individual creates a self-concept as a unique personality, which in Allport's opinion (Samuel, 1981, p. 3) represents the dynamic organisation of individual psychodynamic systems that define an individual's typical conduct and thoughts. And since people are social beings, since they establish relations with other people, the personality of each individual and the related self-concept influence the quality of establishing and maintaining relations with others. This is affirmed by Musek (2005, str. 1), who states that »only on the basis of an appropriate recognition of personality can we function well in mutual relations and order them as we want.«

The leadership process also includes interaction between the leader and subordinates, i.e. relations between various personalities. Therefore an individual's personality and self-concept are important to the leadership process. Stare & Seljak (2006, p. 189) clarify that »determining leadership potential is based on knowing personality or individual aspects of personality.« Rogers (in: Kohont, 2005, p. 36) states that an individual's conduct as a unique personality depends on what the individual thinks of his or herself and his or her experiences of self.

7 Nastran Ule (1994, p. 238) cites the following authors: Bird (1940), Mann (1959), Sorrentino and Boutillier (1975).

There are numerous expressions used to define the idea of self-concept in the Slovenian literature (according to Kobal, 2000, p. 17). Some use the term *samoidentiteta* (self-identity) (Musek, 1993a, p. 359), *identiteta* (identity) (Zupančič, 1993, p. 208), *socialni jaz* (social ego) (see Nastran Ule, 1994, pp. 292–302), *samopercepcija* (self-perception) (Ferbežer, 2008, p. 25). In the literature in English one finds self (James, 1890, Cooley, 1902), self-actualisation (Rogers, 1951, Maslow, 1954), self-image (Offer et al, 1988), self-concept (Shavelson & Bolus, 1982), self-esteem (Rosenberg, 1965), identity (Kroger, 1989) and others.

The self-concept construct is addressed by numerous[8] experts, and that is the reason for the plethora[9] of terms used to define self-concept. What all these terms share according to Nastran Ule (1994, p. 296) is that the construct involves the many attitudes that individuals have towards themselves[10]. Individuals gradually enter these relationships via their feelings, impressions, assessments and evaluations of themselves, their typical social tendencies, which they develop from birth onward, first through a primal object, and later via the broader social environment. This is their sense of their own continuity in space and time and the fact that others also recognise that continuity. According to Kobal (2000, p. 24) the Slovenian term samopodoba is understood as combining two different concepts, the American self-concept and European self-image. Self-concept is defined as the conscious, conceptual and, therefore the logical and rational, while self-image emphasises the unconscious, instinctive and emotional. Both are a combination of the psychosocial, physical and behavioural dimensions of personality – self-concept. Tohme defines self-concept in a similar manner (Kobal, 1994, p. 31), as he clarifies that it entails a set of actions, images, characteristics, tastes, values, expectations and so on, which individuals are aware of to various degrees of clarity within themselves and appropriately organise and coordinate in relation to others and their own social roles.

Burns (1979) states that the »self-concept is an assembled image of what we think of what we are, what we think we could be or what

**8** Shavelson, Marsh, Offer, Rogers, Markus, Wurf, Fleming, Watkins, Kobal Grum, Avsec etc.

**9** This is also confirmed by Ahmed and Bruinsma (2006, p. 554).

**10** The concept is described in a similar manner by Akram & Akram Naseem (2010, p. 78).

we could achieve, and what we think others think of us, and what we would like to be or what we would like to become«. Burnett (1999, p. 2) and others state that »self-concepts are the multidimensional descriptive, evaluative, comparative, cognitive beliefs that people have about specific characteristics. The three major characteristic areas are physical, social and academic.« Zimbardo & Gerrig (1996, p. 528) state that self-concept is a dynamic structure as it contains many components such as:

- people's own memories of themselves
- convictions or confidence in own traits, motives, values and abilities
- ideal "ego" or ideal self-concept, which they would like to achieve or acquire, and a potential "ego" or self-concept that they would like to act upon
- positive and negative evaluations of themselves
- and convictions about what others think of them.

To a considerable extent, self-concept is the product of social construction and social reflection – statements others make about us are like a mirror, in which we see ourselves. For this reason, Adlešič (1999, p. 5) states that »at the self-concept level, various socio-psychological processes have an impact such as receiving information from significant others, social comparison with others, assuming the roles, values and stances of the social environment in which the individual lives, and identification with a model.« Nastran Ule (2004, p. 296) also considers that »our self-concept is only confirmed by other people that we find interesting or important in some way. But they must do this without pressure or manipulation. Positive self-concepts that people gain by "bribing" others do not have sufficient value, since they can often be threatened by more autonomous and critical observers.« The importance of the environment or other people on the development of the self-concept is also defined by Musek (1993b, pp. 348-349), as he states that statements by others, such as how "good", "naughty" or "lively" we are, are imprinted into our self-concept. All these messages more or less "grip" our psyche and become part of the impression we cultivate about ourselves.

After reviewing the literature, we found that authors[11] largely pointed to childhood or adolescence as the key to the development of

11 For example Kobal, Jurišević, Lewis, Adams and Hurlock.

self-concept. Adlešič (1999, p. 2) considers that self-concept development is continuous and typical of every period of development. This also means that despite the fact that childhood and adolescence are key periods for the development of the self-concept, adulthood is a period in which many new areas of self-concept are established, which are closely linked to the development of personality during adulthood. Kobal (2000, p. 89) states that self-concept develops with age, and as research shows, also changes and structures itself. It does not develop as a whole, but with age very different areas form, from physical and social to academic and emotional self-concepts and more. This is also affirmed by Shavelson (in: Adlešič, 1999, p. 4), who states that a self-concept forms gradually during human development – mainly on the transfer from childhood to adulthood; with age it becomes increasingly layered. The extent to which individuals structure or delimit their self-concept in individual areas depends on their adult lifestyle, their obligations, interests, social roles and engagement in reciprocal relations (see Kobal Grum, 2004, p. 99).

### 3.1 Self-concept and self-respect

Self-respect is an important correlate of self-concept representing its value aspects (according to Potočnik, 2003, p. 6). Kobal Grum (2003, p. 20) even considers that self-respect is the most important correlate of self-concept. If self-concept covers primarily neutral self-descriptions, then self-respect relates to value-based self-description, including extremely emotional attitudes to oneself. Self-respect is therefore a value-based attitude to oneself, and primarily covers the emotions people feel for themselves. There is also a positive correlation between self-concept and self-respect – a person who has a very positive self-concept (particularly in general), also has high self-respect. And the opposite applies; people who do not have a high opinion of themselves, do not value themselves much (Kobal Grum, 2003, p. 21).

Self-respect is a complex concept that includes attitudes, convictions, disposition, desires, expectations, emotions and acts that express or generate a feeling of personal value. It includes recognising and understanding personal value as well as the desire and disposition to protect and maintain that value (Marčič, 2006, p. 66). Rosenberg (Kobal, 2000, p. 154) describes self-respect as a positive or negative attitude to oneself. A positive attitude or high self-respect means that individuals accept themselves as they are, value themselves, are satisfied with themselves, and feel worthy of respect. People with low self-respect or a negative attitude to themselves do not value themselves, do not seem themselves as worthy and do not value their own traits. Self-respect is an attitude to oneself, and primarily covers the emotions people feel for themselves.

Rosenberg (1965) in one research work also proves that low self-respect is linked to symptoms typical of anxiety: trembling hands, headache, increased heart-rate, etc. (Rosenberg in: Avsec, 2010, p. 98). Signs typical of people with a poor self-concept or low self-respect are jealousy, speaking negatively about themselves, feelings of guilt, inability to offer compliments, not taking account of own need, inability to ask for what they want, inability to express affection to others, a critical attitude to others, comparison with others, ongoing deterioration in health (Račnik, 2008).

Kobal (2000, p. 165) states that numerous researchers have found that the link between self-concept (self-respect) and anxiety are inversely proportional – the more an individual has a positively formulated self-concept and high self-respect, the lower the level of anxiety. And conversely, the less a person values his or herself and feels valued, able and successful, the greater the anxiety.

## 3.2 Areas of self-concept

The structural models of self-concept of various authors[12] indicate that self-concept is a psychological construct composed of differing areas or sub-areas. After reviewing the literature, we found that authors[13] divide self-concept into areas such as general, social, physical, emotional, religious, academic, family self-concept, etc. The areas that comprise the self-concept differ with the individual's age and circumstances in which the individual operates or may differ[14] from individual to individual. Through experience one can ascertain that the self-concept of each individual and hence the self-concept of each leader is comprised

12 Shavelson, Bolus, Offer, Tam, Watkins etc.

13 E.g. James (1980), Fleming and Elovson (1988), Kobal (2000), Hattie (2003) etc.

14 Hattie (2003, p. 7) lists 18 sub-areas for academic self-concept alone and states that there may be many more.

primarily of general, academic, social, physical and emotional self-concept.[15]

Emotional self-concept represents people's sense and conviction of the expression, understanding and control of their emotions. The individuals, for example, conceive of and see themselves as peaceful or not, relaxed or not and emotionally balanced or imbalanced. They also have a view on whether they are generally in a good or bad mood, whether they are deeply agitated and how they control their emotions (see Kobal, 2000, pp. 205–220). Social self-concept includes the perceptions,[16] convictions and judgement individuals hold about relations with peers and other important "others", such as parents, siblings, partner and colleagues. These are their perceptions of their own friendship-making abilities and popularity and the quality of their relations with others. Part of the self-concept relates to individuals' influence on the broader community or their experience of their attitude to the law and social moral norms (Kobal, 2000, pp. 171–200). Musek (1993a, p. 345) ascribes considerable importance to the social self-concept and explains that part of the self-concept comes from the understanding and image people have of what others think of them and how they present and portray themselves to others socially – the social ego. Hattie (2003, p. 18) states that the social self-concept is important for individuals and that a great deal of information about each individual comes from social circumstances. Most people are frequently in the presence of others and their personality is also presented by others to third parties – on the basis of which the person builds and recognises him or herself in social situations and forms a self-image.

The sign of a good social self-concept in a leader is that they can easily form and maintain quality relations with subordinates. Leaders have a clearly formulated image of themselves and are not sensitive to the disproval of others, are not obsessed with how best to present themselves to the social environment. Leaders with a highly expressed or positive social self-concept do not have problems with anxiety or above all social anxiety, which means that people experience continual (unexplained) fear

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**15** The display of individual sub-areas comprising the self-concept differrs from individual to individual, as the number of areas may differ.

**16** James (in: Hattie, 2003, p. 17) defined the social ego as a form of "acknowledgement" that we gain from those close to us (e.g. family, friends).

of social situations in which others could assess or judge them. Fear of that kind increases, if they feel that they could be humiliated in front of such people. Leaders with social anxiety are unsuccessful in relations with people and frequently feel anxiety, tension and upset.

In Schilder's opinion (Fisher, 1990, p. 8) »physical self-concept [is] an individual's body image, created in their own thoughts.« Thompson (in: Kuhar, 2004, p. 84) and others have stated that »physical self-concept is a terminological symbol for a person's internal image of their own external appearance. This internal image or mental picture is linked to feelings and thoughts that affect conduct in certain situations. In some cases the feelings coming from the assessment of appearance are positive, in other cases they may be negative, which can even lead to depression.« »A positive physical self-concept can even increase self-respect and contribute to more successful reciprocal or business contacts, while a negative image of one's own body reduces self-confidence to such an extent that a person is not willing to leave the safe haven of their home« (Kuhar, 2004, pp. 84–85). Grogon (Kuhar, 2004, p. 86) considers that the physical self-concept involves »human perceptions, thoughts or feelings about their body. Perceptions relate to assessment of body size, evaluating physical attractiveness and feelings about the emotions linked to body shape and size.«

Mutual experiences, e.g. socialising, evaluating, even minor comments on appearance have a significant impact on the development of the physical self-concept. People subjected to frequent criticisms and teasing during childhood and youth due to their appearance develop a more negative physical self-concept, because one does not forget one's physical self-concept. Specific events and situations that lead to specific feelings and thoughts about appearance can also lead to a negative self-concept (Kuhar, 2004, p. 87). Kobal (2000, p. 65) explains that if the formation of physical self-concept during adolescence is disturbed, then the general self-concept and self-respect cannot develop appropriately.

## 4 Research on the self-concept of administrative unit leaders

The purpose of the research presented in the paper was to emphasise the importance of leaders' self-concept. Leaders are people whose conduct affects the functioning (conduct) of employees and therefore the efficiency and effectiveness of the administrative unit. The main objective of the research or study was to determine the self-concept of administrative unit leaders and the areas of self-concept in which they scored relatively highest and lowest. The target group participating in the research were leaders performing similar tasks in central government bodies and performing them around the entire country. These conditions were met by administrative unit leaders and therefore leaders from Slovenian administrative units were included in the research sample.

The research was carried out across 57 administrative units (only one administrative unit decided not to participate) and 136 leaders took part in the research, of which fewer than 5% were both expert technical staff (civil servants) and heads of organisational units. The highest proportion, over 66%, were officials or organisational unit heads with up to 30 employees. Half of all the administrative unit heads in Slovenia took part in the research or 21% of all surveyed leaders. Organisational unit heads with over 30 employees represent 8% of leaders assessed in the research.

The Questionnaire[17] created as part of the research included 45 questions and measured four aspects of self-concept: general, social, physical and emotional self-concept. The concept for designed the question came from the Self-Respect Scale[18] by Tanja Lamovec and the SDQIII[19] questionnaire (questions used to define general self-concept). A high number of points or high average for each individual dimension of self-concept indicates that the self-concept is strongly expressed in this area.

## 4.1 Research results

The research was intended to determine how individual areas of self-concept are expressed by leaders, and namely: general, emotional, social and physical self-concept. The research indicated that the social and physical self-concept areas scored relatively lower than general and emotional self-concept. The use of a *t*-test indicated that the only pair of self-concept areas that did not have a statistically significant difference was social and physical self-concept. Statistically significant differences were found for all other pairs of self-concept areas.

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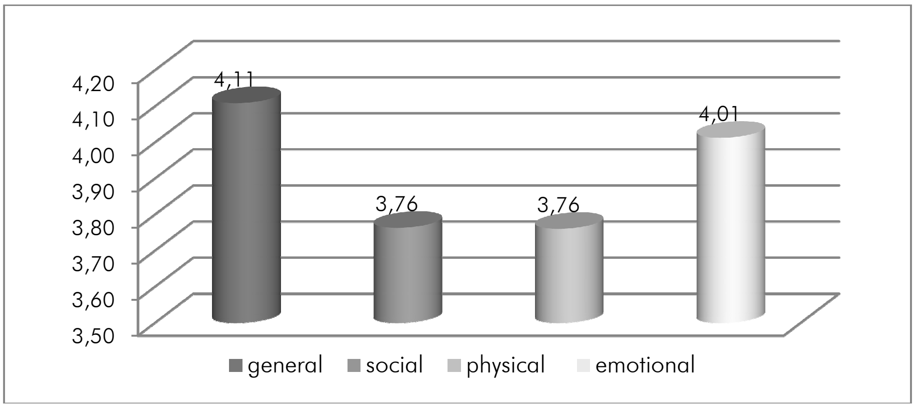
**17** Called the Self-Concept Scale Questionnaire.

**18** Abbreviated SRS.

**19** Self Description Questionnaire III (Marsh, 1992)

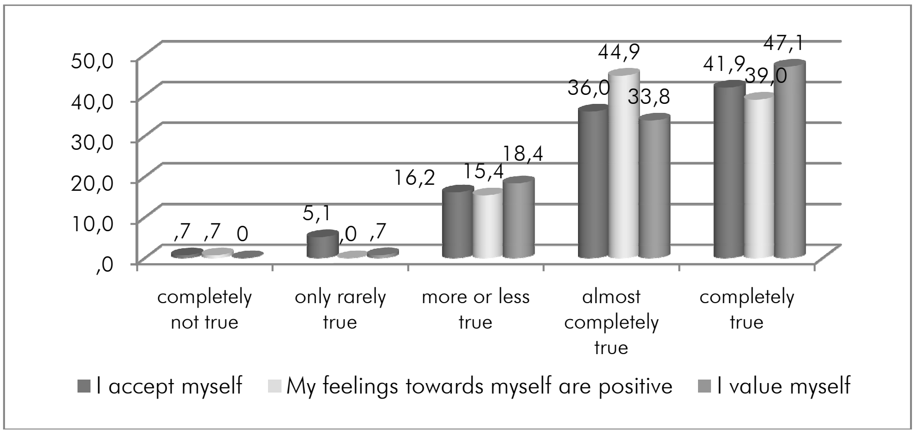
**Graph 1: Self-concept areas for administrative unit leaders (average score)**




Source: own data

The research results (cf. Graph 1) indicate that the physical and social self-concept were the lowest scoring areas measured by the research, as the average leader score for both areas was 3.76. This result indicates a moderate expression of social and physical self-concept in the administrative unit leaders studied.

**Graph 2: Comparison of three statements as part of general self-concept**

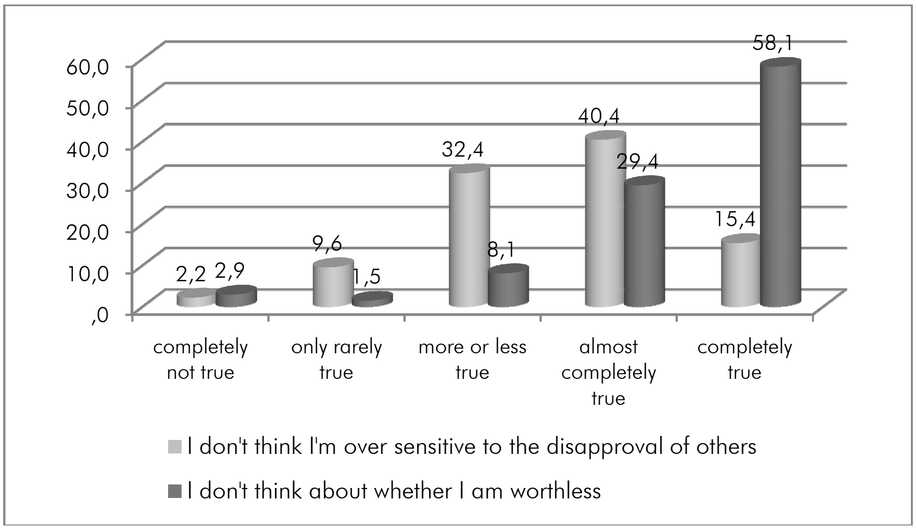



Source: own data

Among the general self-concept variables (cf. Graph 2), a statistically significant difference was found between two variables: "I accept myself" and "I value myself". No statistically significant difference was found between the remaining pairs of variables. The results for the pair with a statistically significant difference indicate that just under 67% of leaders studied stating they accept themselves, also stated that they value themselves, while 11% of leaders who accepted themselves considered at the same time that although they value themselves somewhat, they do not do so completely. Over 67% of leaders considered that they both accept themselves and also have positive feelings towards themselves.

Among the emotional self-concept variables, the highest scoring were "I don't think that I'm worthless" (4.38) and "I have no problems with depression" (4.32). The lowest scoring variables were "I think that I'm not excessively sensitive to the disapproval of others" with an average score of 3.57 and "I'm satisfied with myself" with an average score of 3.69. The *t*-test indicates that a statistically significant difference is found between the highest scoring variable and the lowest (cf. Graph 3).

**Graph 3: Comparison of two emotional self-concept variables**

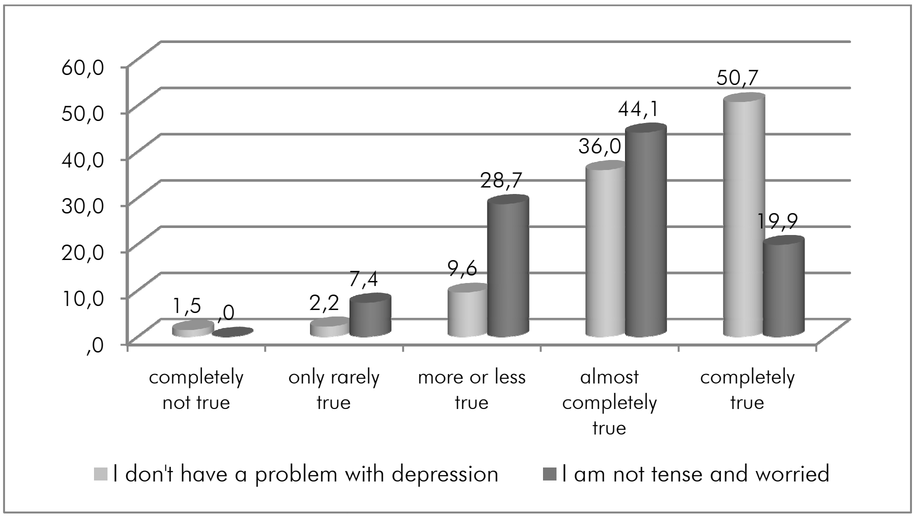



Source: own data

The results given in Graph 3 indicate that only just over 55% of leaders consider that they are not sensitive to the disapproval of others. Over 11% of leaders are sensitive to the disapproval of others. A certain amount of leader sensitivity to the disapproval of others is necessary, since in that way leaders also sense and display their own emotions. However, what is more important than sensitivity to the disapproval of others is empathy or the ability to "put themselves in the shoes of" subordinates or recognise their emotions and needs. A certain level of sensitivity (or lack thereof) to the approval (or disapproval) of others can also be understood in this manner: leaders want to please others and since some others do not approve of them this will elicit certain feelings in leaders, and some are more sensitive to these feelings than others. An analysis of results also indicates that over 87% of leaders do not think about whether they are worthless. However, over 4% of leaders do think about whether they are worthless. Meanwhile, 52% of leaders consider that they do not think about whether they are worthless, and also think they are not oversensitive to the disapproval of others. Over 9% of leaders, who do not think about whether they are worthless, do think they are oversensitive to the disapproval of others.

The *t*-test indicates that there is a statistically significant difference between the emotional self-concept variables that relate to depression and to tension and worry (cf. Graph 4).

**Graph 4: Comparison of two emotional self-concept variables**

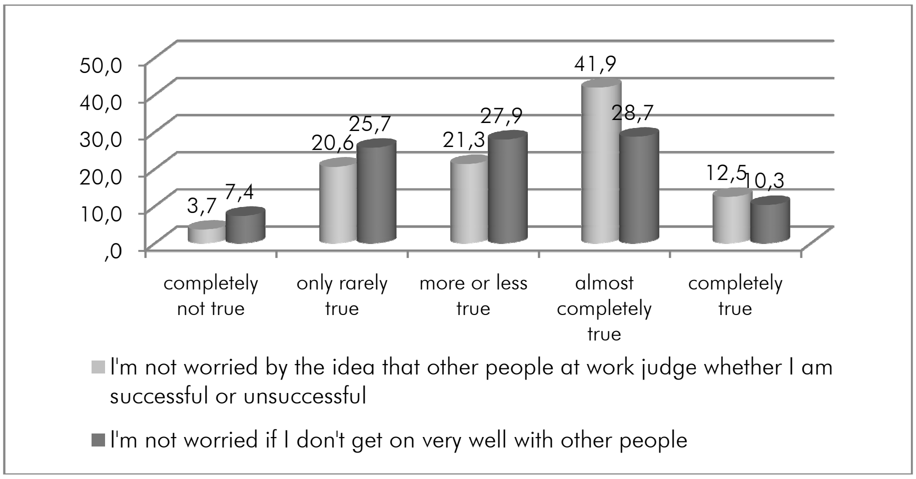



Source: own data

The results given in Graph 4 indicate that over 86% of leaders consider that they do not have problems with depression. One would expect that the percentage would be about the same for the statement "I am not tense and worried", the content of which is closely linked to depression, however, as the results indicate, only 64% of leaders consider that they are not tense and worried. Over 61% of leaders who said they were not tense and worried also said they had no problems with depression. Under 3% of leaders who stated that they had no problems with depression assessed themselves as tense and worried. Over 2% of assessed leaders considered they had problems with depression and that they were also tense and worried.

The results for the social self-concept variables indicate that the social self-concept of leaders is not highly expressed or scores moderately, which is cause for concern. The *t*-test indicated that statistically significant differences exist between some variables. A statistically significant difference exists between the variables "I'm not worried if I don't get on very well with other people" and "I'm not worried by the thought of people at work judging me as successful or unsuccessful" (cf. Graph 5).

**Graph 5: Comparison of two social self-concept variables**

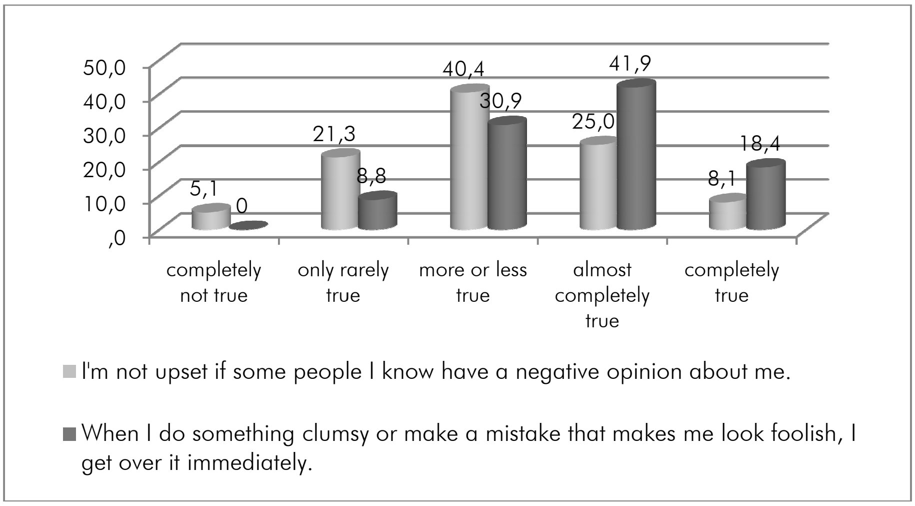



Source: own data

The results in Graph 5 indicate that over 54% of assessed leaders stated that they are not worried by the thought of people at work judging them as successful or unsuccessful. Just under 24% of leaders are worried by the thought that people at work judge them as successful or unsuccessful. The analysis of results also indicates that just 36% said that were not worried whether people at work judged them as successful or unsuccessful while also stating that they were not worried if they do not get on very well with other people. Twenty-one per cent of leaders said that they were worried by the both thought that people at work judged them as successful or unsuccessful, and if they did not get on very well with other people.

The results given in Graph 6 indicate that 60% of studied leaders agreed that if they make a mistake or do something clumsy that makes them look foolish, they get over it immediately. Just under 9% of leaders said they do not immediately get over making themselves look foolish. Analysing the results also indicated that 25% of studied leaders who immediately get over a mistake that makes them look foolish also agreed that they are not upset if some people they know have a negative opinion of them. Just under 6% of leaders said they were upset if people they knew had a negative opinion of them and that they did not immediately get over a mistake that made them look foolish. The *t*-test indicated that there was a statistically significant difference between the two variables given in Graph 6.

**Graph 6: Comparison of two social self-concept variables**

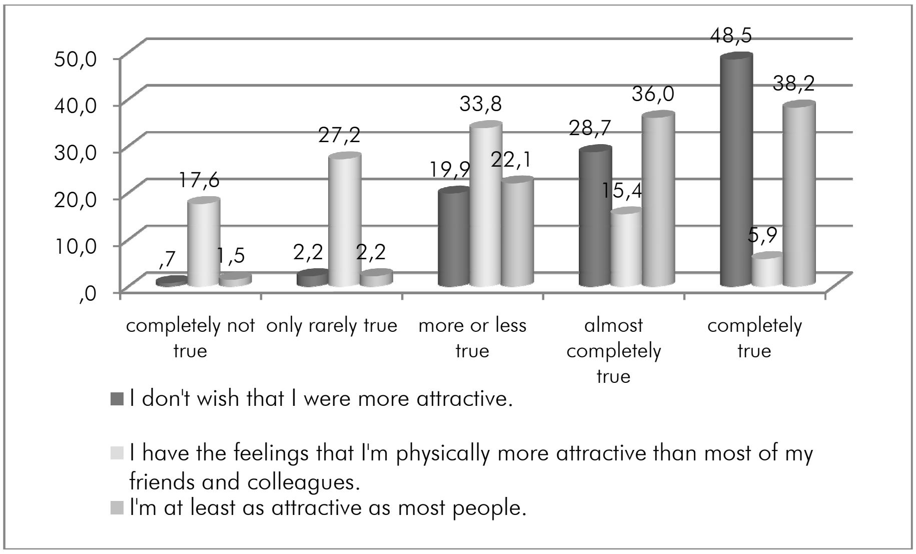



Source: own data

Physical self-concept is also important for leaders, as it relates to their internal impression of their external appearance. The results of individual variables for physical self-concept indicate that the physical self-concept of administrative unit leaders is moderately expressed and that some statistically significant differences exist between physical self-concept variables. The use of the *t*-test on physical self-concept variables indicates that statistically significant differences are found between some pairs of the variables given in Graph 7.

The results given in Graph 7 indicate that over 74% of leaders consider that they are more attractive than most people. Just over 44% said they felt they were not physically more attractive than most of their friends and colleagues. These results are interesting, particularly since friends and colleagues are the people who most affect an individual or whom an individual takes as a model, and to whose comments they are most sensitive. And if friends and colleagues are largely more physically attractive that the leaders, this affects their feelings or perceptions of physical attractiveness and hence effects a negative view of their body (is reflected in a moderately expressed physical self-concept). Just under 3% of leaders wish[20] they were more attractive.

**Graph 7: Comparison of three physical self-concept variables**




Source: own data

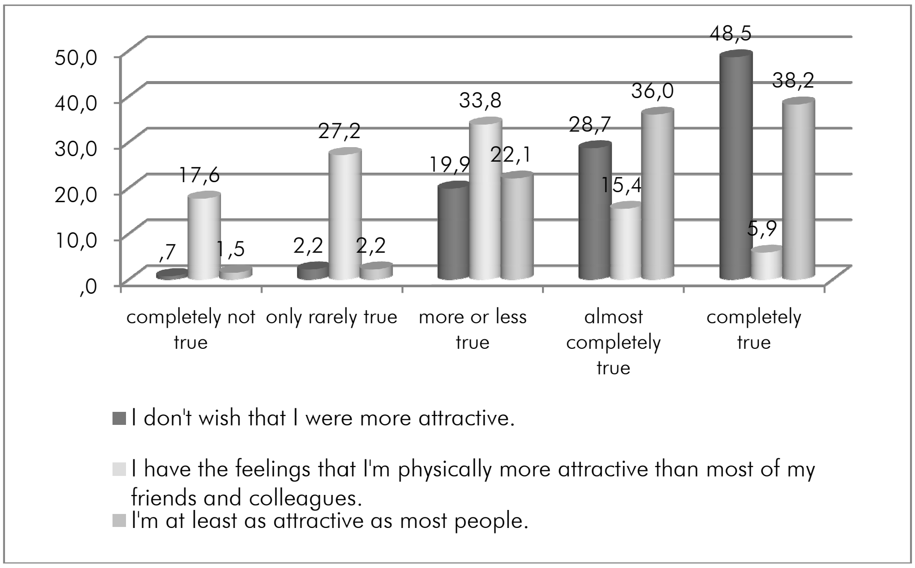
The results given in Graph 8 indicate that over 64% of studied leaders consider that they are satisfied with their physical appearance, while 8.1% of administrative unit leaders did not have the best possible view of their physical appearance, which means that this view could have a negative impact on their conduct towards subordinates or on reciprocal relations.

The results given in Graph 8 indicate that over 77% of studied leaders said that they do not wish they were more attractive. Considerably fewer leaders (than those who do not wish they were more attractive) stated that they worried what others think of them. Only just over 44% of the studied leaders agreed that they are not worried what others think of them. It is logical to compare this result with the similar results achieved for the social self-concept variables. The comparative percentages are not surprising, since 38% of leaders are not upset if some people they know

**20** Only 2% of leaders agreed that they wish they were more attractive and that they had a strong sense that they are not physically more attractive than their friends and colleagues.

have a negative opinion of them, and 39% of leaders also stated that they are not worried if they do not get on very well with other people.

**Graph 8: Comparison of three physical self-concept statements**




Source: own data

## 4.2 Discussion

The results of the research into the self-concept of administrative unit leaders indicate that the social and physical self-concept are the most poorly expressed (scored least). It is important for leaders to have a high score on the social self-concept scale, since this area of self-concept is linked to the image or convictions that individuals have about themselves in relations with other people (e.g. subordinates). This involves the leaders' impressions or perceptions of their popularity and their personal ability to form friendships with subordinates, their motivation and persuasion of subordinates and ability to engage with the social environment. If social self-concept is low or poor, this means that the leaders have a poor impression of themselves in relationships or begin to doubt themselves in relations to others. Since they are not as popular in society as they would like to be or perhaps subordinates rate others more highly than them, their attitude to their subordinates is harmed and they begin to question whether they are really capable of establishing relations with subordinates that are adequate for ensuring that subordinates accept and trust them. It also entails the leaders' impression of their subordinates' opinions of them, and how they should present themselves in social contexts.

The research results on the social self-concept of the leaders studied indicate a moderate score on the social self-concept scale. Some variables indicate results that are a cause for concern, given that leaders are expected to be capable of forming good relations with subordinates, to be respected by their subordinates and be seen as examples by them because of their skills and principles. Based on this result, one can conclude that leaders' conduct towards subordinates is limited and affects attitudes to subordinates, since if leaders doubt their own ability to establish relations with subordinates, their relations will be less successful (constant fear of whether they will be successful), while subordinates will have doubts about the leader's authority, ability and seriousness. The social self-concept results also indicate that most leaders are not subject to generalised anxiety, which consists of anxiety, worry and tension linked to the fear of accidents or unrealistic worries about health, family or work. One can conclude that those leaders (7.4%) who state that they are tense and worried and those who consider that they have problems with depression (3.7%) are dealing with generalised anxiety. The overall results for social self-concept indicate that the majority of leaders do not suffer from social anxiety or do not experience continual and irrational fear of social situations, in which other people could evaluate or judge them or they are not afraid of personal failure due to their mistakes.

Physical self-concept was the most poorly expressed area of self-concept measured by the research, together with social self-concept. Physical self-concept is important for leaders, primarily in the sense that they gain a positive view of their external (physical) appearance and that they do not perceive mass media suggestions about the ideal body negatively, or in a way that could lead to a poor self-concept, since that could have a negative impact on their conduct and relations with subordinates. A positive physical self-concept can have an important impact on the formation of relations with subordinates or other people, since it can increase self-respect and contribute to successful relations. Having a negative view of one's body can lower self-confidence to the extent that people become uncomfortable with other people. A positive self-concept is desirable for leaders, since it affects self-respect and contributes to good mutual relations. The results of the research are low points scores for some physical self-concept variables. For example, 44% of leaders said they felt they were not physically more attractive than most of their friends and colleagues. This could mean that if leaders are generally in the company of friends and colleagues that are more attractive than them, this may have consequences for them. It can lead to jealousy and feelings of less worth or unattractiveness. Despite the fact that a leader may be attractive, it is possible the influence of friends and colleagues could be so strong compared to that of others, that the leader develops negative views of his or her external (physical) appearance. All these feelings that leaders may experience are primarily linked to a desire not to stand out in a negative manner from one's circle of friends and colleagues. This is perhaps the reason they even wish to be more attractive.

## 5 Conclusion

An important aspect of leaders, influencing their conduct and hence the conduct of their subordinates is their personality and – arising from that – their understanding and acceptance of themselves. If leaders have a positive attitude to themselves, it means they are satisfied with themselves and their life. If leaders are to understand others, they must first understand themselves. All leaders form a particular image of themselves, who they are and what they want to be. The term self-concept has been coined in the academic literature to fit this definition. Self-concept therefore means a set of attitudes or perceptions of self that individuals form at the conscious and unconscious level, where the unconscious is covered by a layer of defence mechanisms that allow the "ego" (the conscious) to monitor the "id" (the unconscious) and creates a barrier against undesirable drives. Yet the self-concept is not just an individual's typical perception of self, but a set of complex internal processes linked to an ideal and how individuals should present themselves socially before important other people.

It is important to have a largely positive self-concept within the leadership process. By either a positive or negative self-concept, leaders affect the conduct of their subordinates and hence subordinates' satisfaction and leadership performance. Leaders who do not have a positive opinion or image of themselves have certain traits that subordinates feel. If leaders have a negative or low self-concept and do not trust, respect or value themselves, they are closed within themselves and fear contact or confrontation with people, then they will not be able to effectively influence subordinates. The self-concept construct has been the subject of a great deal of research work among varied groups. The related content of the self-concept construct and leadership is important in human relations and particularly in a key factor in the leadership process – the leader.

The results of this research into the self-concept of administrative unit leaders indicate their level of expression of general, emotional, social and physical self-concept and also suggest the need for further research, since only a number of areas have so far been researched. Nevertheless, it is logical that further research into self-concept should address leadership performance, and how it is influenced by self-concept.

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*1.02 Review article*

# Social Responsibility and Governance-Management Process as a Basis of Excellence in Public Administration

UDK: 35:005.6

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ABSTRACT

**An increasing number of public administration organisations are already aware of the fact that excellence is not only the domain of private sector organisations. They are looking for up-to-date management tools with which they would like to continuously improve operations and increase stakeholder satisfaction. This confirms the belief that approaches for managing private organisations are the same as for public organisations, the only difference (by now) being in the basic goal(s) of private and public sector organisations. The article presents definitions and descriptions of key fields whose understanding is important for the logical and systematic formation and use of an up-to-date excellence model for public administration. The proposed excellence model was formed and tested with the objective to contribute to the development of Slovenian public administration and a state as a whole.**

*Key words: governance-management process, public administration, stakeholders, social responsibility, excellence*

*JEL: M10*

## 1 Introduction

The efficiency and effectiveness of public administration organisations play an important role in success of the public sector and consequently in the competitiveness of a country as a whole. The awareness of this fact is particularly important in the current economic crisis, when many reforms are targeted towards the public sector and its efficiency. The exit from

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the crisis and further development of a country are therefore tightly linked to specific actions taken in the public administration in the short and long term.

Unfortunately, many practicians as well theorists working and writing in the field of organisation and management of public administration have very different as well as rather partial views of this subject. This means that there are many models and many trials on how to manage an organisation as efficiently and effectively as possible. If any of these offers significant improvements to public administration during the term-in-office of one political side, it may be ignored and/or forgotten when a new political group comes to power.

The majority of quality/excellence models, used either as management tools or as frameworks for self-assessment alongside national quality/excellence awards assessments, have been designed by managers and quality experts primarily on the basis of experience and best practice of successful organisations. They do not embody the logic of organisation theory and therefore are not always systematic and consistent. They also do not facilitate their own development in the long term. This is mainly due to unclear and incomprehensible basic definitions of terms in different fields, such as management, organisation, social responsibility, excellence, etc. and inappropriate application of individual areas of theory in practice.

The purpose of the paper is to contribute to the development of public administration by a design of an excellence model for public administration and to raise awareness of the fact that managers of public administration organisations have an important influence on the future of Slovenian public administration.

The main objective of the article is therefore to explain the connection between areas such as the governance-management process, social responsibility and excellence, and to present a proposal for an excellence model for public administration. The paper in its final part presents also a description of the research based on the proposed model, which was carried out in Slovenian public administration organisations in 2009.

## 2 Connection of governance-management process, social responsibility and excellence

Discovering the connection between the concepts of governance-management process, social responsibility and excellence, first requires a definition of terms. In the most general way the management process consists of the following phases: planning, organising, leading and control. Many plans are well prepared but in reality, the execution fails. Moreover, there is usually insufficient control to identify problems and seek potential solutions.

Management should assure rational (efficient) activities and behaviour of employees as well as rational achievement of organisations' (as social unit) goals. This explains why we later discuss also about effectiveness and efficiency in the context of management process and social responsibility. The term "social unit" is used for any private or public organisation since we would like to emphasise that by organisation we understand a set of relationships, not an institution.

Based on the theory of organisation developed by the Slovenian author Lipovec (1987), Rozman (in Rozman & Sitar, 2007, p. 12) claimed that improvements in the management process must be made in the fields of organisation and leadership and that individual levels must be separated from the level of a social unit as a whole. Rozman therefore set out a governance-management process comprising the following phases (Rozman, 2010, pp. 11–13):

1. planning the business
2. planning the organisation
3. actuating the organisation
4. controlling the organisation and
5. controlling the business.

Governance-management is mentioned because the activities start by governance (owners) and they continue in management. Since the major part of excellence in public administration is in close connection with management the term "management process" will be used in the following text.

All of the phases have to be performed before (1 to 3) or after (4 and 5) the execution phase, which is deeply dependent on the enumerated phases of the management process. The importance of this arrangement of the management process lies in the distinction between the phases that cover the business part of a social unit's function (1 and 5) and those covering the organisational part (2, 3 and 4). Through the first part the organisation ensures the effectiveness and through the second the efficiency.

Social responsibility is the second phenomenon that has to be described and positioned within the management process in order to understand how to achieve excellence. The definitions of social responsibility are numerous and, in general, the majority of them are oriented in some kind of philanthropy (donations, sponsoring, etc.) or care about the environment. The concept of social responsibility is also often connected to or substituted for other similar phenomena such as business ethics, social responsiveness, corporate citizenship, good governance etc.

Traditional authors, e.g. Friedman (1962, p. 113) claim that maximizing profit is the only social responsibility of managers since the interests of owners are thus satisfied in the best way. Efforts towards social responsibility instead of towards the profit would cause the end of capitalism and of free capitalistic society. On the other hand the socio-economic view of social responsibility advocates social responsibility as more than achieving profit and incorporates the protection and amplification of social welfare since social units are not independent institutions, responsible only to the owners (Robbins & Coulter, 2005, p. 10). This is connected to stakeholder theory in which other indicators taking other stakeholders (besides owners) and their interests into account are important when measuring performance, in addition to financial indicators. The modern approach to performance measurement is based on the hypothesis that satisfying the interests of stakeholders leads to satisfactory financial results (Lahovnik, 2006, p. 20).

A new definition of social responsibility can be designed on the basis of the stakeholder theory of Crane & Matten (2007, p. 60), in which the authors take a wider perspective on who the stakeholders in a social unit are, since stakeholders also have relationships with their own stakeholders who indirectly influence the social unit and vice versa. Social responsibility could be understood as a way of systematic thinking and acting to achieve the mission and the strategic and tactical goals of the social unit where the basic activities are directed towards coordinating and satisfying the needs and expectations of all of a social unit's stakeholders. Such an approach is therefore wider than philanthropic activities alone on one hand, and including society as a whole (as an abstract notion) on the other. A systematic approach to considering and satisfying the interests of all stakeholders could be of key importance for both a social unit's financial and non-financial performance and its long-term development.

Public administration organisations are by nature directed towards social responsibility as a basic principle of their operations. In the private sector, the existing socio-economic system still does not allow many people to believe and function in that way but the situation in global and national economies in the last few years indicates that major changes will be needed in order to assure the existence of society and the environment in the long term.

In that stage the management process and social responsibility can be connected in a manner that must be understood in order to create a basis for the excellence model for public administration. This means that care for all stakeholders has to be incorporated into each phase of the management process. Different indicators (objectives) have to be determined in both planning phases (business and organisation). Following the definition of social responsibility above, this should be done for different groups of stakeholders. Indicators therefore measure the satisfaction of each stakeholder group.

The processes for acquiring, motivating, rewarding and communicating with each stakeholder group have to be executed in the actuating the organisation phase. Controlling the business and controlling the organisation phases give opportunities to check whether the objectives have been met and to seek potential discrepancies between the planned goals and actual results. If there are gaps between the planned and actual results, management has to look for causes and solutions. This brings the management process to the planning phases again and a new cycle can be started for the next short or long-term period.

The final area to be discussed is the area of excellence and how it is connected with the management process. Excellence is defined by many authors as "exceeding the average" or "exceeding expected quality" or "something above quality". We will be more precise. Based on the management process as discussed above, excellence can be understood as a function of both efficiency and effectiveness. Effectiveness is meant as the social responsibility (as fulfilment of the interests of stakeholders) to different stakeholders and is assured through the part of the management process that relates to the business of social unit as a whole and is planned before and controlled after execution. However, the execution can not be efficient if there is no organisation in the sense of setting up relationships within and outside the social unit, through which the different groups of stakeholders are involved in the social unit's functioning. Efficiency can therefore be assured through planning the organisation, actuating the organisation and controlling the organisation. The specifics of each particular phase of management process will be described within the proposed excellence model for public administration.

## 3 Critiques of EFQM model and proposal for improved excellence model for public administration

The EFQM model (EFQM, 2010) and CAF 2006 (Ministrstvo za javno upravo RS, 2010), on the basis of which it was designed, are forms (as a tool for external assessment or for self-assessment) of the most frequently used excellence tools in Slovenian public administration. The 2004 and 2008 period was a time of increasing interest in the rapid development of excellence in Slovenian public administration organisations. They were acquiring new knowledge, sharing best practice, and taking part in different projects and conferences. There was considerable enthusiasm for either the EFQM model (in the framework of PRSPO – Slovenian national business excellence award) or for CAF 2006, mostly as a self-assessment tool.

The global economic crisis shifted the focus of the new government to short-term measures, focused particularly on cost cutting. There are also some long-term reforms being prepared but none of them is directed towards the excellence of public administration or other kind of improvements in the field of managing the public administration or public sector organisations. This is mainly due to the thinking that excellence is something that has to be dealt with in addition to the "normal" functioning of organisations. In that sense the use of excellence models is often perceived as an additional "burden/load" on the managers and other employees.

This is how the majority of organisations view the EFQM model or CAF 2006. Frequently, some of the excellence tools/approaches are prescribed by senior organisations to others, which is worse from an internal decision of the organisation's management to introduce them. It is also not unusual that one management team introduces a tool, only for the next management team to completely ignore its predecessors' efforts.

The EFQM model was designed by practitioners on the basis of experience in real-case business situations but has revealed a need for some theoretical ground in order to be useful and fruitful in the long term. The need for a scientifically founded model resulted in the proposal of a new excellence model for public administration (EMPA). The main idea behind that was to overcome partially inadequate understandings of management, quality/excellence and social responsibility, and to enable further development in the fields of management and organisation.

The "classical" management process, consisting of planning, organising, leading and control was and still is a basis of existing management/excellence models. This represents a main barrier to a more scientific approach. A proposed excellence model for public administration is based on governance-management process with 5 phases (as proposed by Rozman) and its detailed and sound elaboration offer an important contribution to the organisational science. The model (see Figure 1) is divided into two main parts.

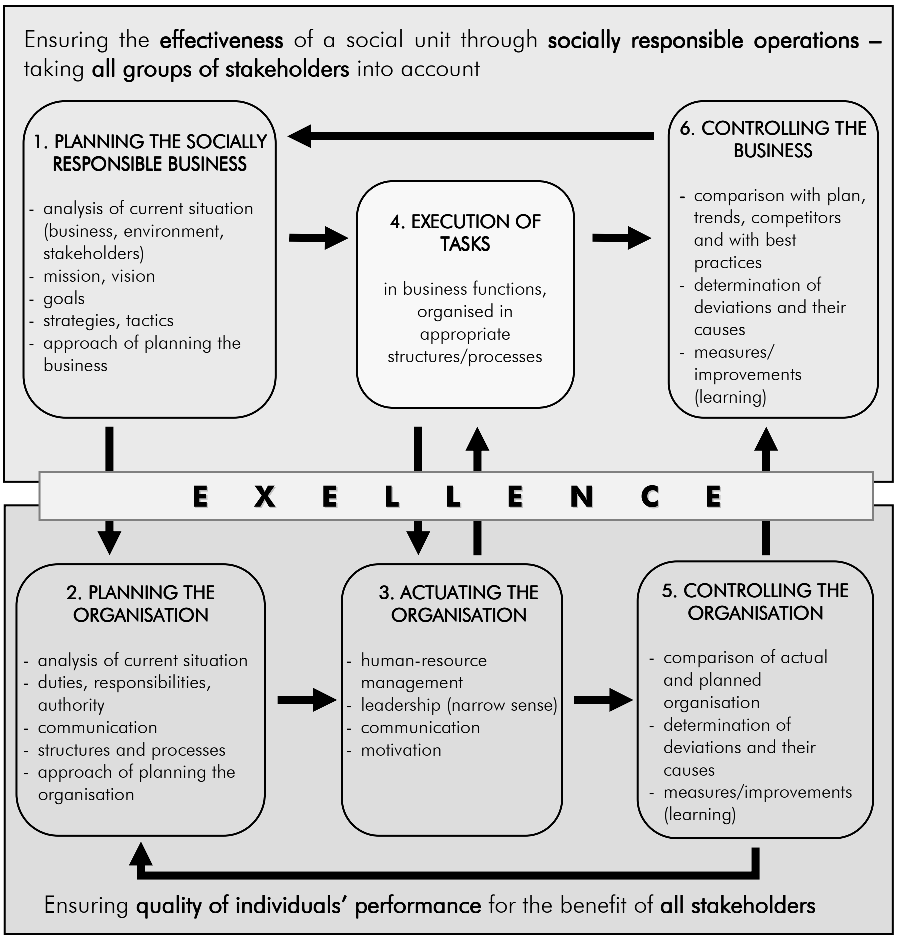
The first (upper) part comprises management functions which relate to the operations of a social unit as a whole (planning and controlling the business) and are connected with effectiveness through socially responsible business. The second (lower) part represents the individual level (employees and other stakeholder groups) and comprises the functions of planning the organisation, actuating the organisation and controlling the organisation.

Each of the five phases of the management process within EMPA is broken up into a number of approaches. These approaches represent the basic steps each manager should carry out in order to implement systematic, professional and transparent management and consequently to assure efficient achievement of the social unit's goals. The examples of the first three approaches within the model are:

- periodical analysis of business,
- periodical analysis of mission and vision,
- periodical analysis of strategic and yearly goals, etc.

There are 74 approaches defined in the initial model. This does not rule out more detailed or additional approaches being determined for an organisation or organisations of a specific type from the public or private sector. At the same time, it is anticipated that all functions and therefore all approaches are implemented within the framework of social responsibility (i.e. taking all stakeholders into account).

**Figure 1: The Excellence Model for Public Administration (EMPA)**




Source: Author – based on Rozman & Sitar, 2007, p. 12

Although not denoted separately in the figure, the proposed model also includes 51 indicators that constitute the third part. These should be used by social units to periodically measure the satisfaction of specific stakeholder groups (e.g. employees, customers, owners – the state for public sector organisations and others) on one side, and the efficiency of key processes on the other. The indicators and their expected values should be set in the planning socially responsible business and planning the organisation phases. Their attainability should be checked in the controlling the business and controlling the organisation phases so that potential deviations could be identified and then abolished in subsequent periods, some in the short term and others in the long term.

The list of approaches (74) and indicators (51) is comprehensive and took quite an effort in order to connect the organisational theory with the best management practices and to assure the coverage of all the basic fields but still make the list not too long. The main intention was to make a model simple and transparent. Some approaches can further be decomposed in specific activities and some indicators could be upgraded, depending on purpose of use of the model and the needs and maturity of organisation.

Table 1 presents the distribution of weighting given to specific phases of the management process and execution (column 1 and 3) as well as to the groups of specific indicators (column 4 and 6), connected with the types of stakeholder in the case of a public administration organisation. Since the major emphasis is given to the organisational aspect, the weights are higher in the case of phases, connected with organisation. The managers of public organisations have also more influence on them compared to planning the business part where the majority of goals and directions are given by superior organisations. The second column indicates the number of approaches defined for each phase of the EMPA model. The fifth column gives the number of indicators defined for each stakeholder group (employees, customers, state/owners and other stakeholders) and for two additional important areas: measuring the efficiency of processes for actuating the organisation and efficiency of processes in execution.

**Table 1: Number of approaches/indicators and weights within the excellence model for public administration**

| Phases of (governance)-management process and execution | No of approaches in EMPA | Weight (%) | Indicators | No of indicators in EMPA | Weight (%) |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Planning the business | 18 | 8 | Employees | 10 | 8 |
| Planning the organisation | 19 | 10 | Customers | 7 | 8 |
| Actuating the organisation | 24 | 16 | State (owners) | 10 | 5 |
| Controlling the organisation | 3 | 10 | Other stakeholders | 6 | 6 |
| Controlling the business | 4 | 8 | Efficiency of processes of actuating the organisation | 11 | 7 |
| Execution-operations | 6 | 8 | Efficiency of processes in execution | 7 | 6 |
| Total | **74** | **60** | Total | **51** | **40** |

Source: Author, 2009

The logic of the proposed model of excellence for public administration (EMPA) is based on the management fundamentals that are systematically set up within a model based on theory and prepared for practical application. The major improvements in comparison to the EFQM model are made in the following fields:

- EMPA is designed on the basis of theoretical knowledge and practical experience in management of private organisations and assessments of public administration organisations with CAF and EFQM
- EMPA is suitable for any type of organisation (private or public), regardless of its maturity
- EMPA systematically covers all (five) successive phases of the governance-management process
- each phase of EMPA is based on social responsibility

- the indicators in planning/controlling business (upper part of the model) direct and measure the satisfaction of stakeholders whereas indicators in planning/controlling organisation (lower part o the model) measure the efficiency of processes within the phases of actuating the organisation and execution of tasks
- there is a clear connection between stakeholders (their satisfaction) and effectiveness on one hand and organisation and efficiency on the other
- EMPA can be used either as a general management tool or (only) as a tool for the analysis of the current situation with the aim to find the ideas for specific improvements or even to stimulate the generation of innovative ideas and their implementation. When using EFQM and CAF, many organisations have concluded that they need different models, more relevant to their specific needs. In that sense, the proposed model is also useful if the organisation wishes to use it only as a framework which could be adjusted in details if required by the individual organisation (taking into account a type and maturity of the specific social unit in public administration).

## 4 Empirical study of assessing business excellence in Slovenian public administration

The main purpose of the research was to gain insight into the use of excellence tools, awards, events, approaches and indicators in Slovenian public administration. The data was collected for 2008 and the addressees were asked to give the estimations for the same data for 2011 as well. The objective of the research was to thoroughly analyse the studied area and to look for eventual differences between the specific sectors of Slovenian public administration as well as to form the guidelines for improvements in the field of management and the development of excellence in our public administration.

The proposed excellence model for public administration (EMPA) formed a basis for a comprehensive questionnaire, which was sent to selected Slovenian public administration organisations in May 2009. In order to ensure integrity and a systematic approach during verification of the situation and of plans in the field of excellence in Slovenian public administration organisations, the entire model was transferred to the questionnaire. There was, of course, the risk that there would be fewer responses and a lower quality of answers than would be the case with a shorter questionnaire, but the results have shown the opposite.

The 8-page questionnaire on social responsibility and excellence in the Slovenian public administration was divided into sections:

- Section A: basic data on the organisation and the respondent
- Section B: evaluation of the use of quality/excellence tools, participation in different awards and events in the field of quality/excellence
- Section C: evaluation of use of approaches
- Section D: evaluation of use of indicators
- Section E: questions on plans for specific parameters in 2011.

The decision to choose 2011 estimates for comparison with 2008 data was made on the basis of EFQM, which suggests these time intervals for similar analyses. Furthermore, it was estimated that at that time 2010 was too close for planning significant changes in the studied fields since they are not of an operative nature, but require longer time periods for gaining the support, making decisions and their introduction into practice.

**Table 2: The number and the share of organisations included in research**

| Type of organisation | Sent | Responded | Responded (%) |
|---|---|---|---|
| Ministries | 15 | 7 | 46.7 |
| Bodies within ministries | 40 | 19 | 47.5 |
| Government offices | 13 | 6 | 46.2 |
| Administrative units | 58 | 50 | 86.2 |
| Social work centres | 62 | 17 | 27.4 |
| Municipalities | 11 | 3 | 27.3 |
| Other | 4 | 2 | 50.0 |
| Total | 203 | 104 | 51.2 |

Source: Author, June 2009

The questionnaire was sent for completion to the representatives (senior managers) of 203 organisations in Slovenian public administration. The distribution of invited and responding organisations is presented in Table 2.

The response rate was above expected. The questionnaire was sent to the senior managers, while the question on the respondent offered three answers. Table 3 shows who were the real respondents (senior managers, quality managers, other).

**Table 3: The number and the share of respondents**

| Role in an organisation | Number | % |
|---|---|---|
| Senior management | 69 | 66.3 |
| Quality Manager | 23 | 22.2 |
| Other | 12 | 11.5 |
| Total | 104 | 100.0 |

Source: Author, June 2009

The statistical methods with which the data was processed, included frequencies, arithmetic mean, ANOVA (F-test) and Pearson Correlation Coefficient. After completing the basic data, the organisations were asked about their use of quality/excellence tools in 2008 and plans for 2011. They could reply on a scale of 0 to 5, as follows:

0 – we do not know the tool

1 – we do not use the tool

2 – we use the tool every 4 years or more

3 – we use the tool every 3 years

4 – we use the tool every 2 years

5 – we use the tool every year.

In all of the following tables the marks given by respondents were turned into value 1 if they were marked as 0. The data about the number of organisations and the arithmetic means are presented in Table 4.

Although the tools are not quite comparable (ISO standards are on quality, EFQM and CAF on excellence, benchmarking is suggested within EFQM or CAF etc.), the listed ones are those, which are most commonly used by organisations in Slovenian public administration. They were put under a term "tool" because in practice all of them are called "tools".

Table 4: Use of quality/excellence tools

| Year | 2008 | | 2011 estimate | | Difference 2008-2011 |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| TOOL | No of org. | Arith. mean | No of org. | Arith. mean | |
| ISO standards | 97 | 2.41 | 88 | 2.98 | 0.57 |
| EFQM self-assessment | 92 | 1.25 | 86 | 1.78 | 0.53 |
| CAF self-assessment | 100 | 2.95 | 95 | 3.33 | 0.38 |
| CAF external assessment | 94 | 1.39 | 91 | 2.21 | 0.82 |
| Investors in people | 93 | 1.18 | 88 | 1.62 | 0.44 |
| Balanced Scorecard | 93 | 1.18 | 88 | 1.66 | 0.48 |
| Benchmarking | 91 | 1.77 | 85 | 2.15 | 0.38 |

Source: Author, June 2009

The data shows that the most frequently used tools are the CAF model for self-assessment and the ISO standards, and that the use of EFQM model is very rare. In future, the organisations would like to increase the use of the CAF model for external assessment as well as the use of the EFQM model and ISO standards.

The core part of the questionnaire was dedicated to 74 approaches and 51 indicators. The respondents marked the frequency of use for each of them for 2008 and 2011. The average marks for tools, approaches and indicators are presented in Table 5.

The overall average mark regarding the use of excellence/quality tools is relatively low. A major increase in the use of tools is planned by 2011. The average marks for approaches and indicators are much higher. Positive changes are also planned in all areas by 2011 compared to 2008. As a rule the increases are higher where the mark in 2008 is lower and vice versa, they are lower where the mark in 2008 is higher. This indicates that the organisations are ready to improve their operations in any area for which there were deficiencies in 2008. Since the concept of excellence is based on awareness of deficiencies and the active efforts to reduce or even eliminate them, it is positive to note that representatives of Slovenian public administration organisations are thinking in this manner.

**Table 5: Summarized average marks**

| Year | 2008 | | 2011 estimate | | Difference 2008-2011 |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | No of org. | Arith. mean | No of org. | Arith. mean | |
| TOOLS | 104 | 1.89 | 100 | 2.44 | 0.55 |
| **EXCELLENCE – Total – APPROACHES AND INDICATORS** | **104** | **3.78** | **104** | **4.19** | **0.41** |
| **APPROACHES – TOTAL** | **104** | **3.82** | **104** | **4.26** | **0.45** |
| PLANNING THE BUSINESS | 104 | 3.85 | 104 | 4.25 | 0.39 |
| PLANNING THE ORGANISATION | 104 | 3.78 | 104 | 4.21 | 0.42 |
| ACTUATING THE ORGANISATION | 104 | 3.88 | 103 | 4.29 | 0.41 |
| CONTROLLING THE ORGANISATION | 103 | 3.87 | 102 | 4.37 | 0.50 |
| CONTROLLING THE BUSINESS | 102 | 3.73 | 101 | 4.33 | 0.60 |
| EXECUTION | 104 | 3.84 | 104 | 4.40 | 0.56 |
| **INDICATORS – TOTAL** | **104** | **3.74** | **104** | **4.09** | **0.36** |
| INDICATORS – EMPLOYEES | 103 | 3.82 | 102 | 4.30 | 0.48 |
| INDICATORS – CUSTOMERS | 102 | 4.29 | 101 | 4.55 | 0.26 |
| INDICATORS – STATE | 104 | 4.13 | 103 | 4.38 | 0.25 |
| INDICATORS – OTHER STAKEHOLDERS | 103 | 3.16 | 102 | 3.64 | 0.47 |
| INDICATORS – EFFICIENCY OF PROCESSES IN ACTUATING THE ORGANISATION | 103 | 3.77 | 101 | 4.20 | 0.43 |
| INDICATORS – EFFICIENCY OF PROCESSES IN EXECUTION | 103 | 3.35 | 101 | 3.92 | 0.58 |

Source: Author, June 2009

The organisations were asked about their plans for 2011, since the author was interested in the motives that would be the drivers of future change. There were nine possible answers and the option "other" and the organisations could choose a maximum of three answers. The results are presented in the Table 6.

**Table 6: Motives for the introduction of changes, 2008 to 2011**

| MOTIVES | No of organisations | Share (%) |
|---|---|---|
| Rational use of resources | 79 | 77.5 |
| Requirements of senior bodies, e.g. EU | 10 | 9.8 |
| Demographic changes | 0 | 0 |
| Introduction of regions | 4 | 3.9 |
| Increasing customer satisfaction | 81 | 79.4 |
| Increasing employee satisfaction | 75 | 73.5 |
| Impacts of global economic crisis | 7 | 6.9 |
| Environmental issues | 4 | 3.9 |
| Trends in public and private sector (e.g. 'coaching', competency models, CAF, etc.) | 35 | 34.3 |
| Other | 2 | 2.0 |

Source: Author, June 2009

The data shows that the main three motives are increase of customer satisfaction, rational use of resources and increasing employee satisfaction. No organisation chose demographic changes. Two chose "other" and explained it with:

- image (1x)
- efficiency (1x).

One question was aimed at discovering what organisations would need in order to bring their plans into fruition and use the tools, approaches and indicators more frequently. The respondents could choose a maximum of three answers (see Table 7).

Table 7: Infrastructure needed to realise plans for innovations by 2011

| INFRASTRUCTURE | No of organisations | Share (%) |
|---|---|---|
| Finance | 73 | 71.6 |
| People | 75 | 73.5 |
| Information | 13 | 12.7 |
| Time | 47 | 46.1 |
| Knowledge about tools/approaches/indicators | 30 | 29.4 |
| Systemic initiatives – which? | 15 | 14.7 |
| Support of senior organisations – which? | 18 | 17.6 |
| Other | 4 | 3.9 |

Source: Author, June 2009

The majority of respondents (73.5%) answered that they would need additional employees; 71.6% selected the answer "finance" and 46.1% stated they would need more time. Less frequently used answers were "information" (12.7%) and "other" (3.9%).

The results of the research confirmed most of the hypotheses. These were:

- modern tools, approaches and management indicators can be used in an excellence model for public administration
- there are differences between public administration organisations in terms of activity in the field of excellence
- all organisations studied want to develop the field of excellence further in future but require additional funds, time and knowledge, and the support of senior institutions.

There was also more data collected on differences between the types of organisation and on the connections between the studied areas. The data shows that organisations are more active in some areas and less in others. The latter is true mainly for those tools and awards that have not been promoted and supported by senior organisations, e.g. ministries. For approaches and indicators, lower marks were given to the involvement of stakeholders, which is connected to social responsibility. This was expected since the concept is relatively new. The areas that are more developed and used more frequently are those with a longer tradition or for which organisations have a statutory obligation to implement and report on. The data also shows that all organisations plan to make improvements in all studied areas by 2011.

The research opened many new areas of discovery, such as testing the importance of specific parts of the model, designing and testing indicator values, testing the model in other parts of the public sector, in the private sector and in other countries and in 2012 verifying what has been realised in 2011 against what was estimated.

## 5 Conclusions

The model of excellence for public administration (EMPA) was developed with a desire to offer a simple, logical, transparent, systematic and adaptable management tool, based on theory and praxis. It has been primarily designed for use in public administration but with some modifications it can be applied to any type of organisation, regardless of its maturity. In all of its elements (phases) social responsibility plays an important role in the sense of taking into account all stakeholders connected with the operations of an organisation. On the basis of EMPA, research work was carried out in Slovenian public administration in 2009.

Results have shown that Slovenian public administration organisations are aware of the importance of excellence and that they are eager to develop in this direction in future (comparison of the data for 2008 and plans for 2011). In that sense they expect senior institutions to support them (financially, with knowledge, etc.) and lead by example. The first research using EMPA showed that the parts of the model (approaches and indicators) are feasible for use in Slovenian public administration. Further research should be made in future in order to gain estimations from those who are familiar with the existing models and to acquire comparisons of EMPA with EFQM/CAF and their impact on excellence in public administration organisations.

The theoretical and empirical study also revealed that there are still several opportunities for further research and other scientific and practical work in the area of excellence and social responsibility in Slovenian public administration. However, the research was carried out before the main actors started to indicate that the crisis was coming and that it would heavily influence the public sector. A few months later long-term development plans were forgotten and since autumn 2009 priority has been given to short-sighted cost cutting and other short-term measures. This has caused a slowdown in the constructive development of the Slovenian public administration. In case the crisis was used to spur radical reforms to ensure the long-term excellence (effectiveness and efficiency) of public administration and consequently of the whole public sector, this could have an important positive effect on the competitiveness of a country as a whole. The fact is that such steps are hard to measure in the short term and are not of sufficient interest to the governing powers that demand unequivocal data to put before the public before the next elections. Hopefully the research described in the paper will motivate the responsible institutions and individuals to act in time and in the right way to the benefit of all and of future generations.

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POVZETEK

# DRUŽBENA ODGOVORNOST IN UPRAVLJALNO-RAVNALNI PROCES KOT PODLAGA ZA ODLIČNOST V JAVNI UPRAVI

Družbena odgovornost in odličnost sta aktualni temi tako v strokovnih kot v laičnih krogih. Avtorji ju obravnavajo v številnih teoretičnih prispevkih, v praksi pa ju mnoge združbe poskušajo uvesti v svoje delovanje. Gre za pojma, ki se tako v teoriji kot v praksi uporabljata (včasih celo zlorabljata) na zelo različne načine, v zelo različnih obsegih in z zelo različnimi posledicami. Podobno kot pri pojmih s področij ravnanja (ang. *management*), organizacije in kakovosti, se tudi vsebina družbene odgovornosti in odličnosti pogosto obravnava s premalo dognanimi logičnimi osnovami v teoriji ter premalo sistematično in dosledno interpretacijo ter uporabo v praksi, tako v zasebnem kot v javnem sektorju.

Nejasne in nerazumljene osnovne opredelitve ter neustrezna uvedba posameznih področij v praksi ne morejo zagotoviti dolgoročne uspešnosti posameznih subjektov znotraj gospodarstva ali države kot celote. Podrobno proučevanje omenjenih področij kaže na to, da niti avtorji teoretičnih prispevkov niti praktiki v zvezi z družbeno odgovornostjo in odličnostjo še niso prišli do enotnih pogledov oz. opredelitev, ki bi bili zastavljeni dosledno ob temeljitem razumevanju ozadij, dejavnikov in posledic, ki se nanašajo na omenjeni področji. Predvsem razmere svetovne gospodarske krize bi morale biti spodbuda za to, da se dosedanje načine razmišljanja in delovanja v prihodnje korenito spremeni.

Razumevanje ter sistematično in dosledno uvajanje v prispevku obravnavanih področij v prakso bosta ključnega pomena za prihodnji razvoj združb in drugih družbenih sistemov. Prvi del prispevka je ravno iz tega razloga namenjen opredelitvam posameznih pojmov. Tako so med pomembnejšimi cilji prispevka prav predstavitev obstoječih opredelitev in predlogi "novih" – z namenom, pojasniti vsebine posameznih pojmov za potrebe čim bolj enotnega razumevanja obravnavanih področij in zagotoviti čistost jezika, tako v teoriji kot v praksi.

V prispevku so torej podrobno obravnavani in pojasnjeni pojmi upravljalno-ravnalni proces, družbena odgovornost in odličnost. Opredelitev upravljalno-ravnalnega procesa v okviru faz planiranja poslovanja, planiranja organizacije, uveljavljanja organizacije, kontrole organizacije in kontrole poslovanja je podlaga za opredelitve družbene odgovornosti in odličnosti ter predlaganega modela odličnosti, ki so ključne novosti v okviru obstoječih znanosti.

Družbena odgovornost je razumljena, opredeljena in kasneje v modelu odličnosti upoštevana kot način sistematičnega strateškega razmišljanja in ravnanja v smeri doseganja poslanstva ter strateških in taktičnih (delnih) ciljev združbe, vključujoč usmeritev na usklajevanje ter zadovoljevanje potreb in pričakovanj vseh udeležencev (ang. *stakeholders*). Tako je razumevanje družbene odgovornosti z družbeno-ekonomskega vidika (kot temeljni cilj v jutrišnjem družbenem sistemu), medtem ko učinkovitost, zagotovljena z organizacijo, ni družbeno-ekonomsko dana.

Odličnost kot je opredeljena v prispevku ne pomeni le nadgradnje kakovosti ali preseganja povprečja, ampak pomeni koncept razmišljanja in delovanja vseh udeležencev v smeri doseganja ciljev združbe - tako uspešnega poslovanja na ravni celotne združbe kot zagotavljanja smotrnosti pri usklajevanju interesov posameznih vrst udeležencev, kar je hkrati tudi družbeno odgovorni vidik ravnanja.

Na podlagi ugotovitev v teoriji in izkušenj avtorice iz prakse je kot osrednji del prispevka predstavljen model odličnosti javne uprave. Razdeljen je na dva dela, in sicer na funkcije ravnanja, ki se nanašajo na poslovanje združbe kot celote (planiranje poslovanja in kontrola poslovanja) ter na raven posameznikov (zaposlenih in drugih skupin udeležencev), ki vključuje funkcije planiranja organizacije, uveljavljanja organizacije ter kontrole organizacije. Za vsako od posameznih funkcij so v okviru modela opredeljeni pristopi (ang. *approaches*), ki naj bi bili izvedeni, če želi združba biti odlična. Obenem je za vse funkcije predvideno, da se izvajajo družbeno odgovorno, torej ob upoštevanju interesov vseh udeležencev. S kazalniki (ang. *indicators*), ki predstavljajo tretji del modela, družbe obdobno merijo zadovoljstvo konkretnih skupin udeležencev na eni strani, na drugi strani pa učinkovitost nekaterih ključih procesov.

Model odličnosti lahko služi ravnateljem pri njihovem delovanju v vsakdanjem življenju v dejanskih poslovnih okoljih ali pa kot orodje za ocenjevanje odličnosti poslovanja konkretnih združb. V osnovi je zastavljen dovolj široko, da ga je mogoče uporabiti tako v zasebnem kot javnem sektorju, obenem pa so na vseh njegovih delih mogoče nadaljnje razgradnje in dodelave v podrobnosti, odvisno od potreb in zrelosti posamezne združbe. Ključnega pomena je predvsem to, da ne gre za še za eno formalistično orodje za potrebe kakršnegakoli certificiranja, ampak za praktičen "ključ" za sistematično, profesionalno in pregledno ravnanje v katerikoli združbi.

Na podlagi predlaganega modela odličnosti v javni upravi je bil za potrebe empiričnega raziskovanja oblikovan obsežen vprašalnik, ki je bil poslan v izpolnitev predstavnikom vodstev 203 organizacij slovenske javne uprave. Rezultati raziskave so potrdili večino postavljenih hipotez, predvsem v smeri, da je v okviru modela odličnosti javne uprave mogoče uporabljati sodobna orodja, pristope in kazalnike ravnanja, da glede aktivnosti na področju odličnosti obstajajo razlike med raznovrstnimi organizacijami javne uprave in se vse proučevane organizacije na področju odličnosti želijo razvijati tudi v prihodnje, vendar v ta namen potrebujejo dodatna finančna sredstva, čas, znanje in podporo krovnih institucij.

Glede na to, da v slovenskem prostoru kljub že zastavljenim strategijam in programom na področju kakovosti/odličnosti ni bilo narejenih še nobenih konkretnih in podrobnih raziskav, lahko rezultati raziskovanja neposredno služijo takoj kot podlaga za odločitve vseh, ki so odgovorni za razvoj tega področja, posredno pa je potencialnih uporabnikov izsledkov raziskave kot tudi modela odličnosti še več. Model je mogoče prenesti tako v druge dele javnega sektorja kot v zasebni sektor. Koncept razmišljanja o družbeni odgovornosti in odličnosti je mogoče uporabiti pri vsakodnevnih aktivnosti tistih ravnateljev, ki želijo dosegati odlične rezultate z dolgotrajnimi koristnimi posledicami za celotno družbo. Ugotovitve tako teoretičnega kot empiričnega raziskovanja so namreč pokazale, da bo odličnost posameznih združb in drugih družbenih sistemov mogoče doseči le s sistematičnim, profesionalnim, preglednim in družbeno odgovornim ravnanjem.

*1.02 Review article*

# Towards Excellence in Public Administration Education and Training: an African and South African Experience*

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ABSTRACT

**Not only did globalization bring about profound changes to public administration worldwide, but it also challenged the implementation of the New Public Management (NPM) paradigm in terms of service delivery, posing the question whether public administration must reinvent itself to address these challenges more effectively. Many changes that have been implemented in the public sector have not been based on evidence that change would benefit those using the services, those working in them and the community as a whole. Taking cognizance of especially the current African and South African higher education environment, it became clear that in order to move towards excellence in public administration education and training, the curricula must be amended and should the focus be on particular skills to be transferred to learners to address the above- mentioned situation. The question arises whether the nature of these developments would be relevant to the needs of both the learner as well as public institutions.**

*Key words: globalization, public administration, new public management, training, training and education challenges, quality assurance, curriculum content, institutions of higher learning, Africa, South Africa*

*JEL: H11, H83, I23*

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# 1 Introduction

Although globalization means different things to different people, the debate between its advocates and detractors about its significance continues to be emotionally charged and intellectually vigorous. New challenges of governing, the growing complexity of policy issues and low public administration productivity came to the fore, more so in developing countries. The public sector should play a particularly important role in developing countries, working to extend services and reduce inequalities, and demonstrating to citizens that their society is capable of organizing itself in an efficient way. In Africa and specifically South Africa the public service is unfortunately rapidly gaining a reputation for inefficiency, corruption and incompetence as governmental institutions routinely receive qualified audits, thereby undermining, rather than maximizing, the developmental potential of the country.

A fundamental challenge to rectify the above-mentioned situation is to provide top, scarce skills and leading technology in preparing individuals for the public service, as the situation cannot be solely blamed on the public service *per se*. The array of public policy documents which were introduced to address these challenges confirmed global experiences that it is a complicated process which requires not just the generation of creative ideas and their formulation in policy documents, but the implementation of these ideas into practice to ensure excellence. As the implementation of these policies requires highly professional staff at all spheres of public institutions, the role of education and training in building these capacities has unfortunately not been taken seriously. Those involved in training the future generation of public servants should therefore critically assess the nature of their activities in order to ensure that excellence in public administration education and training can be promoted. Regarding the research method, a literature study of appropriate primary sources containing authoritative publications, books, journals, the internet and official documents such as departmental policies was conducted to gather information, while the field operations included interviews with practitioners and academics in the field of public administration and management. In the article attention will *inter alia* be focused on globalization and the changing face of public administration and management, challenges facing higher education in Africa and South Africa and arrangements to ensure excellence in public administration and management education and training to ensure global competitiveness.

## 2 Globalisation and the changing face of public administration and management

Globalization, with its emphasis on the growing interdependence between nations and its economies, is bringing profound changes in international relations. Driven mainly by the precepts of the private sector and the tenets of the market economy, globalization engages and at times collides with international, national, regional and local systems of government, with the resultant consequences for an accountable and competent public sector. Farazmand & Pinkovski (2007, p. 9) are, however, of the opinion that given the competitive nature of globalization, it did not have the transformational impact envisaged and that it did not lead to the building of effective governance systems, with competent bureaucracies concerned mainly with how they can most effectively serve citizens, promote the common good, and be accountable for the policy choices. Globalization has also seen a declining faith in the state and public administration with management being regarded as the key to improved public administration. Private sector management is seen as the inspiration for improved public management, in the context of a shift in focus from administration to delivery, and can be summed up by the term New Public Management (NPM). Generally speaking, this trend could be described as a transformation from public bureaucracy to one model of administration that is business like, but is not like a business. New Public Management highlights the adoption of a business outlook and this is manifested through a set of techniques and methods related to performance evaluation and measurement and by a set of values such as productivity, competitiveness and quality. Business logic is the dominant one which underlines in the core values of administrative culture (efficiency, effectiveness and economy) without replacing the traditional values of legality, impartiality and equality (Van Dyk-Robertson, 2010, p. 4).

The new environment has aimed at producing a more responsible and efficient customer-focused service. These reforms, largely influenced by the market model, are founded on the following two postulates: that management methods originating in the private sector are superior to those traditionally used in the public sector, and that the management of the economy must gradually give way to market forces (Argyriades, 2006, p. 159). The demand for NPM therefore aimed to not only improve administrative output technically, but also to develop public relations techniques based on communication skills, simplified administrative formalities and procedures, cooperation in public affairs, safeguarding the public interest, developing partnership practices, transparency, fighting corruption, promoting a code of ethics, citizen participation in public affairs and consultation. The objective therefore was to turn administration into a tool for development and social change, imbued with a concern for performance and greater consideration for the general interest in order to give priority to the interest of citizens by promoting moral values and civic trends.

Argyriades (2006, p. 155), however, is of the opinion that developing countries have been victims of one-dimensional thinking which was sold to the world as the definite answer to public sector reform. The market model sought to convert the government to private sector ways and purported to develop a science of administration with principles of universal validity. The result has been a decline of public integrity and quality of performance. The observable erosion of public professionalism was also aggravated (Fraser-Moleketi, 2007, p. 3). To advance social justice, enhance the quality of life and effectively fulfill its civilizing mission, public administration must, according to Bourgon, 2007, p. 15) reinvent itself, rescue the public sector and restore to the institutions of government and governance the capacity to plan, to think, to "weave the future" and to lead responsibly. It is thus imperative to redefine the basic values underlying the system of government and to base these elements on solid foundations. Values are central to any far-reaching government modernization process to ensure that quality service delivery takes place (Van Dyk-Robertson, 2010, p. 5).

As a result of these trends, the options open to governments are narrowing at a time when the pressure to be internationally competitive intensifies. Although states retain their sovereignty, their governments continue to suffer an erosion of their authority, i.e. being less able to control the movement of money, information and people. Governments now have to deal with the pressures of globalization at one level and at another, the demands of grassroots movements such as labor market policies and practices.

Global competitiveness, coupled with technological innovation, has thus shifted economies from industrial production to knowledge based production of goods and services. Knowledge based capital concretely means acquiring or generating patents and products through research and development, which in turn requires ensuring increasingly sophisticated skills and knowledge levels of human resources. While institutions are applying varied strategies to stay ahead of global competition, the value of human capital would be put in jeopardy without continuously investing in the skills and knowledge capital of the workforce through *inter alia* training. Fraser-Moleketi, (2007, p. 2) is of the opinion that African countries, including South Africa, must improve the performance of their public sector if they are to achieve their goals of providing better services to their citizens and be globally competitive. According to the Public Service Commission (PSC, 2007, p. 8) the functioning of the machinery of government needs to be strengthened through the development of appropriate skills to ensure that institutional capacity is built and services can be delivered optimally.

To therefore be globally competitive and to deal with the demands being brought about by the above-mentioned changes, it will necessitate new types of skills and specialized knowledge of various kinds which politicians/public servants do not at present possess and may not be able to acquire. In this regard, public sector education and training play a meaningful role and should attention be focused on higher education in Africa and Southern Africa.

## 3 African higher education: Challenges in the 21st century

African higher education faces unprecedented challenges. Not only is the demand for access unstoppable, especially in the context of Africa's traditionally low post-secondary attendance levels, but higher education is recognized as a key force for modernization and development. African higher education has furthermore become a complex undertaking due to the prevailing complexity, magnitude and diversity of the problems to be tackled, and often contradictory and vague policy guidelines being pursued by various role-players. The system is also fettered by limited resources, stifling creativity through excessive state control and lack of vision (Teferra & Altbach, 2004, p. 24; Blaine, 2009, p. 1). The problems encountered at policy and practice levels are complicated by a lack of theoretical perspectives that can guide the analysis of the current situation and provide pointers for the future. The theoretical crisis facing higher education is not unique to this sector, but pervasive to all fields of development as a result of the global changes and theoretical discourses which have occurred. African higher education is therefore facing the double crisis of theory and practice, coupled with the challenges of poverty, rising unemployment, a high rate of population growth, political instability and conflicts, falling commodity prices, foreign indebteness, a rising tide of democratization which impinges on the growth and operation of the education and learning processes, cultural issues and the capacity to benefit (Lwendo, 2009, p. 1; Kirkland, 2009, p. 34).

The decline of state capability to provide meaningful and relevant education to those who need it has been one of the major disappointments among some African states, for example Ghana, Ethiopia, Zimbabwe and Tanzania (Acemoglu et al., 2010, p. 23). The tension of rising demand at all levels in the midst of declining public resources allocated for education, and prospects of unemployment has left many disillusioned by the education system leading to a loss of the legitimacy by the state and the ruling classes, and particularly those with responsibilities for management of the system. Levels of knowledge and skills in the populations at large need to be increased, and to bring about greater openness to technological change and behaviors required for these countries to enter the virtuous circle of education development (Lwendo, 2009, p. 2).

It can thus be deduced that there are three broad areas of concern which pose as dilemmas and challenges to policy-makers, communities, researchers and practitioners. The first is related to social, cultural, economic and political contexts which have to be addressed appropriately. Secondly, the consequences of this context of learning processes have to be analyzed and understood. This will facilitate the emergence of policies and responses necessary to resolve the prevailing contradictions, and face up to challenges existing in the higher education sector. Thirdly, in dealing with the above concerns, there is an overriding question as to what assumption and theoretical frameworks are to be utilized in search of openings out of current dilemmas, controversies and challenges.

A serious consequence of the above-mentioned conditions is the impact on higher education as characterized by increased enrolments, erosion of the autonomy of IHL (Institutions of Higher Learning), deterioration of libraries and teaching facilities, and the overall decay of intellectual and professional life. Institutions of higher learning are therefore marginalized in terms of production of research knowledge and data that impact on the development of their societies (Acemoglu & Robinson, 2010, p. 23). To therefore address the challenges highlighted above, attention will be focused on the arrangements to ensure excellence in public administration education and training.

## 4 Arrangements to ensure excellence in public administration education and training

The crucial question for public administration professionals is whether the conventional pattern of adult training provides a practical, contextualized form of rationality to meet the above-mentioned objectives and which makes learning of the necessary skills possible as a response to reform efforts. In South Africa, for example, the answer to this question is unfortunately negative. The reason being that the systems and practices of training with reference to the government do not appropriately address the increasing demand for high-level, up-to-date knowledge and skills, due to its mission and purpose, the criteria for success and its learning structures (Wessels, 2006, p. 1507; Nzimande, 2010, p. 67). This is supported by the Public Service Commission (PSC, 2010, p. 8) stating that the functioning of the machinery of government needs to be strengthened through the development of appropriate skills to ensure that institutional capacity is built and services can be delivered optimally.

In the field of public administration and management the Public Administration Leadership and Management Academy (PALAMA) is currently charged with building the capacity of public servants in the work sphere in South Africa. The goal of PALAMA is to foster and co-ordinate the delivery of training in practical management skills and in the common ethos and values required for a professional public service. As such, two major objectives will be strived towards, i.e. executive-level management development for the Senior Management Service (SMS) and the "massification" of middle and junior management (PALAMA, 2009, p. 11). However, the training assistance of institutions of higher learning and provincial academies are necessary to equip potential public servants with relevant skills before they get to the work sphere.

A factor which should be considered when dealing with the transfer of the skills and the impact of training in the public sector is the quality of the work of the service provider. Quality of work relates *inter alia* to the qualifications, skills and experience of teaching staff and the relevance of the information being shared (compare Smith, 2003, p. 41). In the field of higher education in South Africa a host of legislation and policy initiatives were promulgated to implement reform in the areas of planning, finances and quality assurance. In the case of the latter, the Higher Education Quality Committee (HEQC) has been working on implementing a national system of quality assurance based on both (i) an understanding of quality as higher education institutions' main responsibility, and (ii) of the influence that the different historical trajectories, missions and aspirations of each institution have had on the current state of the higher education system and its future possibilities (HEQC, 2004, p. 3; HEQF, 2007, p. 5).

Simultaneously, the approach of the HEQC to quality assurance is premised on the view that facilitating the achievement of improved quality in higher education is a powerful way of giving effect to the reform objectives of equitable access with success and enhanced social responsiveness by universities. Taking this into account the HEQC has designed a system of quality assurance in which program accreditation, institutional audits and quality promotion and development, support and interact with each other as parts of an integrated system (HEQC, 2004, p. 5; HEQF, 2007, p. 8). The implementation of a quality management system is seen from a process perspective that takes into account the relationship between inputs, processes, outcomes and outputs in a developmental trajectory that has improvement goals (HEQC ,2004, p. 6; HEQF, 2007, p. 10; CHE, 2010, p. 1). In the field of public administration and management, quality assurance should be linked to the following issues associated with the curriculum in order to prepare future public servants to deliver efficient and responsive public services:

- a reorientation of the curriculum, especially for senior administrators and political executives, to emphasize the regional and international context of public administration and management;
- more emphasis in the curriculum (for public servants at all levels) on the issues of economy, productivity and efficiency, concerns for a social safety net, effectiveness of stated policy objectives and responsiveness to clientele groups; and
- public servants should not only be trained in "how to do more with less", but also be familiarized with the new socio-economic

development strategies, including new areas such as the environment and foreign trade, and investigate their administrative implications (Llorens et al., 2010, p. 123).

The National Association for Schools of Public Affairs and Administration (NASPAA, 2009, p. 16), an accreditation body for public administration/affairs programs in the United States of America (USA), proposes that public servants should have the required skills in the ability to manage in public organizations, to participate and contribute to the policy process, and to analyze, synthesize, think critically, solve problems and make decisions, and communicate and interact in diverse groups and in diverse settings. In contrast to this relatively broad, skills-based approach to the subject matter and expertise required by public affairs programs, the American Society for Public Administration (ASPA) identified subject matter areas that it deemed critical to quality education as follows:

»organizational concepts and institutions, policy evaluation, budgeting and finance, public administration, ethics, and politics and legal institutions . . . public human resources management, information resources and management, and intergovernmental/intersectoral relations« (Henry et al., 2008, p. 21).

The United Nations Department of Economic and Social Affairs/International Association of Schools and Institutes of Administration (UNDESA/IASIA) Standards of Excellence for Public Administration Education and Training (2010, p. 10) suggests that the program content of training programs of universities should reflect

- international state-of-the-art concepts and insights, theories and methods;
- the methods/procedures/policies taught should be "evidence-based";
- a multi-disciplinary basis;
- consultation about the needs of the organizations for which the individual is being prepared; and
- specific components which shall enhance the student's competencies, values, knowledge, and skills to act ethically, equitably, effectively and with efficiency.

These components should include

- the management of public service organizations, that is human resource management; budgeting and financial processes; administrative and constitutional law; effective communication skills; information management and new technology applications. Van Jaarsveld (2010, p. 4) classified the information technology skills into three areas, namely
  - information and communication technology skills needed for modern life outside the workplace, known as digital literacy or e-literacy;
  - information and communication skills in the workplace necessary for responding to changes in business and industry; and
  - information and communication technology skills for specialists in the information technology industry.
- improvement of public sector processes focusing on the development of high performing organizations; management of networks and partnerships; the delivery of public goods and services; management of projects and contracts; supporting workforce diversity; motivation and design of public sector organizations;
- leadership in the public sector through *inter alia* creative and innovative problem solving; leading institutional and organizational transformation; conflict prevention and resolution strategies; promoting equity in service delivery; developing approaches to poverty alleviation; promoting democratic institutional development; public sector ethics;
- the application of quantitative and qualitative techniques of analysis focusing on institutional and developmental economics; policy and program formulation, analysis, implementation and evaluation; decision-making and problem-solving; and strategic planning;
- understanding public policy and the organizational environment, that is political and legal institutions and processes; economic and social institutions and processes; historical and cultural context; the management of economic development; and acknowledging and reconciling cultural diversity; and

- public sector ethos including being knowledgeable about and understanding democratic values; respect for individual and basic human rights; social equity and the equitable distribution of goods and services; social and cultural diversity; transparency and accountability; sustainable development; organizational justice and fairness; recognition of global interdependence; and civic engagement.

However, according to Bekker (2010) can the policy frameworks and procedures to ensure improved service delivery in South Africa be regarded as one of the best globally, but that the problem lies in the apparent inability among scholars in public administration to equip learners with the required skills to perform their responsibilities in accordance with the sometimes sophisticated procedural demands and the challenges for compliance with the prescriptions of all spheres of public institutions. It can therefore be deduced that training programs should capacitate future public servants to think analytically and critically; deal with complexities, uncertainty and ambiguity; be flexible; involve other groups and institutions in society to realize policy goals; and apply life experiences to academic and training activities. In this endeavor, cognizance must be taken of the above-mentioned components and should institutions of higher learning adapt their programs to reflect the new demands and realities facing those who are and will be guiding the public sector in the future to ensure that these institutions play their rightful role in ensuring efficient and responsive public services. This exercise must, however, according to Green et al. (2009, p. 18) not be equated to curriculum maps, which show areas of skills development within existing curricula, as such curriculum mapping has the potential to foster superficial and ineffective approaches to the development of the required skills.

## 5 Conclusion

From the discussion it can be deduced that although the envisaged advantages of globalization did not materialized under all circumstances, the constant questioning and striving to find better ways of delivering improved services must continue. To prepare public servants to adapt to these changing circumstances, it is clear that training is the mechanism which, if properly utilized, could bring about a visible change in the performance of the public service. The support of institutions of higher learning is crucial in this regard, and should these institutions critically assess the nature of their activities to assist in developing innovative professionals and to determine whether they play their rightful role in ensuring efficient and responsive public services. To address this situation, specific components which would enhance the student's values, knowledge, and skills to act ethically, equitably, effectively and with efficiency were proposed. These included *inter alia* the management of public service organizations, improvement of public sector processes, leadership in the public sector, the application of quantitative and qualitative techniques of analysis. Personal capacities to thus be analytical, flexible, applying life experiences to academic and training activities and dealing with ambiguity and uncertainty would therefore be transferred through these endeavors. Cognizance should, however, be taken that the proof of the success lies with the implementation of those actions to achieve the envisaged objectives.

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POVZETEK

# K ODLIČNOSTI V VZGOJI IN IZOBRAŽEVANJU V JAVNI UPRAVI: IZKUŠNJE V AFRIKI IN JUŽNI AFRIKI

Globalizacija, ki prinaša naraščajočo medsebojno odvisnost med narodi in njihovimi gospodarstvi, povzroča globoke spremembe v mednarodnih odnosih in hkrati poudarja nove izzive upravljanja, vedno večjo kompleksnost vprašanj politike in slabo produktivnost javne uprave, zlasti v državah v razvoju. Žal globalizacija do zdaj ni imela pričakovanih transformacijskih učinkov in ni vodila k oblikovanju uspešnih upravljalnih sistemov, s sposobnimi uradniki, ki bi se trudili predvsem kako najbolj uspešno služiti občanom, kako pospeševati javne dobrine in sprejemati odgovornost za politične odločitve. Hkrati z globalizacijo se je zmanjšalo zaupanje v državo in javno upravo, ko se je upravljanje obravnavalo kot ključno za izboljšanje delovanja javne uprave. Zgledovali naj bi se po upravljanju v zasebnem sektorju, osredotočali naj bi se predvsem na rezultate storitev. Ta koncept se je uveljavil kot novi javni menedžment (New Public Management, NPM).

Za novi javni menedžment je najpomembnejši poslovni pristop, kar se kaže v številnih tehnikah in metodah, ki se nanašajo na vrednotenje in merjenje zmogljivosti, in v značilnostih kot so produktivost, tekmovalnost ter kakovost. Prevladuje naj poslovna logika, ki v osnovi upošteva vrednote poslovne kulture (učinkovitost, uspešnost in gospodarnost), ne da bi pri tem zamenjala tradicionalne vrline zakonitosti, nepristranosti in enakosti. Uprava naj bi torej postala orodje za razvoj in spreminjanje družbe, ob tem pa naj bi s pospeševanjem moralnih vrednot in smernic družbenega razvoja skrbela za zmogljivost in večje upoštevanje splošnih koristi, ob prednostnem upoštevanju koristi državljanov.

Kritiki novega javnega menedžmenta trdijo, da so bile države v razvoju žrtve eno-dimenzionalnega razmišljanja, ki so ga prodajali svetu kot končni odgovor na reforme javnega sektorja. Tržni model je poskušal spremeniti delovanje države v poslovanje zasebnega sektorja in je razglašal, da z univerzalnim in znanstvenim pristopom razvija upravo. Rezultat je bil, da sta se zmanjšali integriteta in kakovost delovanja javne uprave. Opazen je razkroj strokovnosti v javni upravi. Za rešitev nastalega stanja se bi morala javna uprava ponovno opredeliti, obnoviti bi bilo

treba javni sektor in povrniti institucijam države in uprave sposobnost načrtovanja, razmišljanja, "tkanja prihodnosti" in odgovornega vodenja. Torej je nujno potrebno ponovno opredeliti osnovne vrednote upravljalskega sistema in jih postaviti na trdne temelje. Vrednote so bistvene za katerikoli daljnosežni process modernizacije države, če naj bi uresničili želeno kakovost storitev.

Javni sektor bi moral odigrati posebno pomembno vlogo v državah v razvoju, tako da bi povečeval storitve in zmanjševal neenakost ter dokazoval državljanom, da se je njihova družba sposobna organizirati na učinkovit način. V afriških državah, tako tudi v Južni Afriki, bi se moralo delovanje javnega sektorja izboljšati, če naj se dosežejo cilji boljših storitev državljanom in hkrati globalna konkurenčnost. Afriški sistem izobraževanja pa je postal zapleten zaradi velikosti in različnosti problemov, ki jih je treba rešiti, in pogosto nasprotujočih si in nejasnih smernic politike, ki jih uresničujejo različni subjekti. Sistem je vklenjen zaradi omejenih finančnih sredstev, hkrati pa pretirani nadzor države in pomanjkanje vizije dušita vsako ustvarjalnost. Problemi, ki nastajajo na ravni politike in prakse, se zapletajo zaradi pomanjkanja teoretične perspektive, ki bi lahko usmerjala analizo sedanje situacije in ponudila smernice za prihodnost. Teoretična kriza, s katero se srečuje visokošolsko izobraževanje, ni omejena na ta sektor, temveč se pojavlja na vseh razvojnih področjih kot rezultat globalnih sprememb in teoretičnih razprav, ki se dogajajo. Afriško visoko izobraževanje se torej sooča z dvojno krizo teorije in prakse, ki se ji pridružujejo problemi revščine, naraščajoča brezposlenost, visoka stopnja rasti prebivalstva, politična nestabilnost in konflikti.

Delovanje državne uprave je torej treba okrepiti z razvojem ustreznih veščin, ki bi zagotavljale, da se gradi insitucionalna zmogljivost in je mogoče storitve opravljati optimalno. To je nujno potrebno, zato ker sedaj sistem in praksa izbraževanja v javni upravi v Afriki in Južni Afriki ne zadovoljujeta naraščajočega povpraševanja po visokošolskem, sodobnem znanju in veščinah. Če naj bi upoštevali svoje poslanstvo in smotre, kriterije za uspeh in učne strukture, bi se bilo treba osredotočiti na kakovost ponudnika storitev, na usposobljenost, veščine in izkušnje učnega osebja in pomembnost informacij v sistemu zagotavljanja kakovosti. Uvesti bi morali akreditacijo programov, revizijo institucij, pospeševanje in razvoj kakovosti.

Zagotavljanje kakovosti v kurikulu vzgoje in izobraževanja za javno upravo bi morali povezati s spreminjanjem usmerjenosti kurikula, zlasti za vodilne uslužbence in voditelje v politiki, tako da bi poudarili regionalni in internacionalni kontekst javne uprave in njenega upravljanja: za javne uslužbence na vseh ravneh bi morali bolj poudariti vprašanja socialne varnosti, uspešnosti potrjenih ciljev politike in odzivnosti na potrebe skupin uporabnikov. Javnih uslužbencev ne bi smeli usposabljati samo za "kako z manj narediti več", temveč bi jih morali seznanjati z novimi strategijami socialno-ekonomskega razvoja, pa tudi z novimi področji kot sta okolje in zunanja trgovina, in jih usmeriti v raziskovanje, kako se ta področja povezujejo z delovanjem javne uprave. Vsebina izobraževalnih programov institucij visokega šolstva bi razen tega morala upoštevati najsodobnejše mednarodne koncepte in vidike, teorije in metode; metode, postopke, politike naj bi poučevali na temelju primerov iz prakse. Vsebina naj bo multidiscinarna in naj upošteva svetovanje o potrebah organizacije, za katero se posameznik pripravlja, in specifične komponente, ki povečujejo sposobnosti učečega, njegove vrednote, znanje in veščine, tako da bo ravnal etično, pravilno, uspešno in učinkovito. Vsebina naj zajema med drugim upravljanje organizacij javnega sektorja, izboljšanje procesov v javnem sektorju, voditeljstvo v javnem sektorju, uporabo kvantitativnih in kvalitativnih tehnik analize in razumevanje javne politike ter organizacijskega okolja. Sposobnosti zaposlenih naj bi bile torej analitične, prilagodljive, povezovale naj bi življenjske izkušnje z aktivnostmi med visokošolskim študijem, tudi npr. kako odločati v okolju nejasnosti in negotovosti. Tega usposabljanja ne bi smeli enačiti z obstoječimi predmetniki, ki omogočajo sedanji razvoj veščin v kurikulu. Tako programiranje kurikula bi spodbujalo površen in neuspešen pristop k razvoju potrebnih znanj. Na koncu pa bo pravi dokaz o uspehu šele uvedba tistih dejanj, ki bodo dosegla načrtovane cilje.

1.04 Professional article

# The Pressure on Higher Education Performance and the Process of Lifelong Learning

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ABSTRACT

**Knowledge has become the central resource in the economy of the "information" or "post-industrial" society. Therefore, analysis in the article elaborates European higher education system and the relationship between educational attainment and the employment rate in EU countries and their position in world leading markets. Enclosed, the study analyses the progress and current trends of lifelong learning (LLL) performance in EU and Croatia. The research analyses five EU benchmarks for education and training system set by the European Council, and their implications' on labour market performance. Some synthesis of previous studies is also used. The methodological approach uses the worldwide UN Education Index, the European Commission data on higher education, Eurostat LFS data, and Cedefop data of Vocational Training.**

*Key words: benchmarks for education and training, higher education, lifelong learning, EU*

*JEL: I21, J20, J23*

## 1 Introduction

In the information society knowledge has become the principle force of production and central resource in the economy over the last few decades. Knowledge can only be effectively accumulated through education. Consequently, the education process and the lifelong learning (LLL) processes are a prerequisite without which it is impossible to succeed in the modern post-industrial world. Technical and professional workers play a significant role in modern information societies. It is expected that such trends will increase the pressure on the tertiary levels of education. This leads to the need for more universities and university-based students. For that reason, the analysis in this article involves higher education system and relationship between educational attainment and the employment rate in the world and European leading countries.

As European countries started to lag behind to their main competitors during the last few decades of $20^{th}$ century, the Lisbon strategy was launched. One of the main Lisbon’s’ economic concepts was "learning economy" or "knowledge economy", which should be based on improving the European education system and increasing the participation in LLL. The central part of the article analyses the progress towards meeting the five benchmarks set for education and training systems of the EU. Further on, education performance in European countries and their position in world leading markets are analysed. An overall evaluation of the EU performance is compared to the rest of the World by looking at the UN Education Index.

According to some projections, in 2015 around 30% of all jobs will need high qualifications where almost half will require medium qualifications, including vocational qualifications. That will increase the pressure on tertiary education. Enclosed, the research also elaborates the progress and current trends of LLL performance in EU and Croatia. Increasing participation in lifelong learning for adults remains a main challenge in many European countries.

The article is divided into five main parts. After the introduction, Section 2 provides some theoretical background of "information society" from the nineteenth century to the modern competitive world. Further on, the analysis presents higher education and the labour market performance in European and World leading countries in Section 3. The LLL process of adult population as one of the five benchmarks for education and training is investigated in Section 4. The most important conclusions are presented in the last part of the paper.

## 2 Theoretical background

Speaking about the higher education development, it is important to stress the importance of information and knowledge. When did people first begin to perceive that information was so important? In the nineteenth century, John Shaw Billings spoke of geometric progression in the growth of medical literature. And certainly, after World War II, there was much discussion on the "information explosion" or the "exponential growth" of publications. But they did not yet use the terms "information society" and "information revolution" with all of their global implications (Crawford, 1983, p. 380) were not used yet.

One of the earliest writers to introduce this concept was Fritz Machlup, who published a book in 1962 called *The Production and Distribution of Knowledge in the United States*[1]. Machlup began with a study of the theory of competition and monopoly and ended up with a statistical investigation of knowledge production in the United States. Machlup called the aggregate effort the "knowledge industry" and, by implication, the university that is at the centre of knowledge production and teaching was equated to an industry. Machlup's work led to publications by a series of other authors. In 1969, Peter Drucker, in his best-selling book *The Age of Discontinuity*[2], wrote a section on "The Knowledge Society", based upon Machlup's data and projections (Crawford, 1983, p. 381).

The *Coming of the Post-Industrial Society*, by Daniel Bell, issued in 1973[3], was an immensely popular book. In the postindustrial society, the providing of services made disappear agriculture and manufacturing as a proportion of the GNP. Central to the post-industrial society are the appearance of knowledge, information, and planning as finest activities. A post-industrial society is a society in which an economic conversion has arisen from industrialized based economy to a service based economy. The prerequisites to this economic shift are the processes of industrialization and liberalization. The Bell's theory critique relates to the term "post-industrial". Namely, when historians and sociologists considered the revolution which followed the agricultural society they did not call it "post-agricultural" society/revolution. Instead, they tried to identify the most significant aspect of the new revolution and coined the

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**1** Machlup, F. (1962). *The production and distribution of knowledge in the United States*. Princeton, NJ: Princeton University Press. In this study he analyzed the effect of patents on research.

**2** Drucker, P. (1968). *The age of discontinuity*. New York: Harper & Row.

**3** Bell, D. (1976). *The Coming of Post-Industrial Society*. New York: Basic Books.

term "industrial". Therefore, the term "post-industrial" is problematic, because it implies only a departure, not a direction, and an alternative term should be sought. As a result, the term "information society" is more acceptable.

The prerequisite of successful information society is knowledge that could not be effective in a modern competitive world without the implementation of lifelong learning process. Paul Bélanger (the former Director of the UNESCO Institute for Education) is very familiar with the recent origins of lifelong learning, particularly in the context of education policy, and has made the following observation about the early stages of lifelong learning in the 1970s: »The lifelong education in the early seventies was a euphoria built on the post-war belief in an endless prosperity. But the petrol crisis together with the decline of the welfare state brought rapidly the euphoria to a bottleneck«, (Knoll, 2009, p. 104). The process of lifelong learning embraces »the totality of all formal, non-formal and informal learning throughout a person's entire life cycle«. But, the concept itself must be regarded as inherent to Judaism, and this refers to the area of legend present-day assumptions that lifelong learning is a modern trend (Knoll, 2009, p. 104). Today, we are encouraged, particularly by the EU and the OECD, to regard adult education as an element of lifelong learning, as a process that continuous throughout individual lives and learning biographies.

Machlup, Porat, and Bell argue that we shifted from an agricultural economy to industrial economy during the nineteenth century. After World War II, they continue, we evolved into a service economy. Now, we have become an information economy (Crawford, 1983, p. 382). When economy shifts from industrial economy to a service economy, services make up the largest portion of the GNP[4]. The question that can be set up: Has there been a shift from service economy to the information economy? In other words, do information activities now make up a larger portion of the GNP than do services?

The next part of the article, analyses higher education and the labour market performance in European countries and their position in the world

**4** Early in the history of the United States, agriculture and mining were the major industries; later, manufacturing surpassed agriculture as a portion of the GNP, and after World War II, services in turn surpassed manufacturing. Looking at employment trends, at the end of fifths in the US, the total number of service workers exceeded the total number of industrial workers (Crawford, 1983, p. 382).

leading markets and specifies connection between educational attainment and employment rates.

## 3 Higher education and labour market performance

Western industrialised countries are moving on a well-established trajectory of increased knowledge intensity. This is represented by the rise in the proportion of higher education participants and more workers employed in technical and professional occupations (Kaivo-Oja et al., 2002). The results indicate that on the whole the information economy is growing faster than the aggregate economy. Within the information economy, it is the service category that is growing at the highest rate; and among the service industries, the most dynamic industries are the "business services", and "medical, educational, and non-profit organizations" (Apte & Nath, 2004).

### 3.1 Education systems and graduates in higher education

European countries started to lag behind their main competitors during last few decades of 20th century. Therefore, in 2000 the Lisbon strategy[5] was launched, the main aim of which was economic, social, and environmental renewal and sustainability – building of "knowledge economy". Since 2000, educational performance has improved considerably in most areas identified by European Education ministers as central for achieving the Lisbon goal. In order to achieve the objectives set for education and training systems of the EU, the Council adopted in May 2003 five benchmarks to be achieved by 2010 and in May 2009, five benchmarks for 2020 (see Table 1)[6]. However, the 2010 benchmarks for education and training set by Council are not likely to be achieved, apart from the benchmark on increasing the number of mathematics, science and technology graduates (European Commission, 2009, p. 11).

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5 Its aim was to make the EU »the most competitive and dynamic knowledge-based economy in the world capable of sustainable economic growth with more and better jobs and greater social cohesion,« by 2010.
See more detailed: http://europa.eu/scadplus/glossary/lisbon_strategy_en.htm.

6 See Council Conclusions on *Reference Levels of European Average Performance in Education and Training (Benchmarks)*:
http://ec.europa.eu/education/policies/2010/doc/after-council-meeting_en.pdf.

**Table 1: Five EU benchmarks for 2010 and 2020**

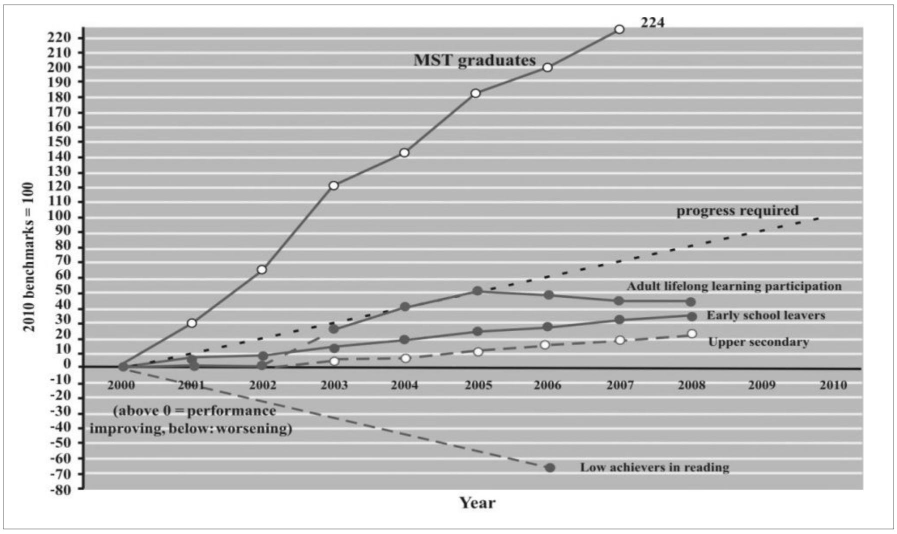
| 2010 | 2020 |
|---|---|
| -No more than 10% early school leavers<br>-Decrease of at least 20% in the % of low-achieving pupils in reading literacy<br>-At least 85% of young people should have completed upper secondary education<br>-Increase of at least 15% in the number of tertiary graduates in Mathematics, Science and Technology (MST), with a simultaneous decrease in the gender imbalance<br>-12.5% of the adult population should participate in lifelong learning | -At least 95% of children between 4 years old and the age of starting compulsory primary education should participate in early childhood education<br>-The share of early leavers from education and training should be less tha 10%<br>-The share of low-achieving 15-years olds in reading, mathematics and science should be less than 15%<br>-The share of 30–34 years olds with tertiary educational attainment should be at leas 40%<br>-An average of at least 15% of adults should participate in lifelong learning |

Source: European Commission (2009, p. 14).

Member States are supported in achieving these objectives through the open method of coordination, which uses indicators and benchmarks to inform evidence-based policy making and monitoring progress. Conclusions on progress towards the European benchmarks clearly show that the EU benchmark on mathematics, science and technology (MST) graduates was already reached before 2005. Although there was broad progress of performance, the benchmarks on early school leaving, achievement of upper secondary education and lifelong learning (LLL) are with the current trends not likely to be reached by 2010 (see Figure 1).

Attaining these benchmarks will in many countries demand more effective national initiatives. The figure 1 shows that in the period 2000–2008 performance even deteriorated for reading literacy of young people. Performance and progress on the Adult LLL Participation benchmark shows many countries are catching up and increasing their performance, even though not yet at the 2010 benchmark level (12.5% of participation). More about process of LLL will be elaborated in the fourth part of the paper.

Figure 1: Progress towards meeting the five benchmarks (EU average) for 2010 (2000-2008)




MST – mathematics, science and technology.
In this chart the starting point (in 2000) is set at zero and the 2020 benchmark at 100.

Source: According to European Commission (2009).

Further on, education performance in European countries and their position in world leading markets are analysed. An overall evaluation of the EU performance compared to the rest of the World can be made by looking at the UN Education Index – one of the three dimensions of the UN Human Development Index (HDI)[7]. Education index gives a statistical picture of a country's relative performances in school enrolment and basic literacy domains. It is constructed based on the adult literacy rate (with two-thirds weighting) and on the gross enrolment rate in the primary, secondary and tertiary levels of education combined (with one-third weighting).

The education index obviously places the EU as a whole among the world's best performers. Australia, New Zealand, Republic of Korea and

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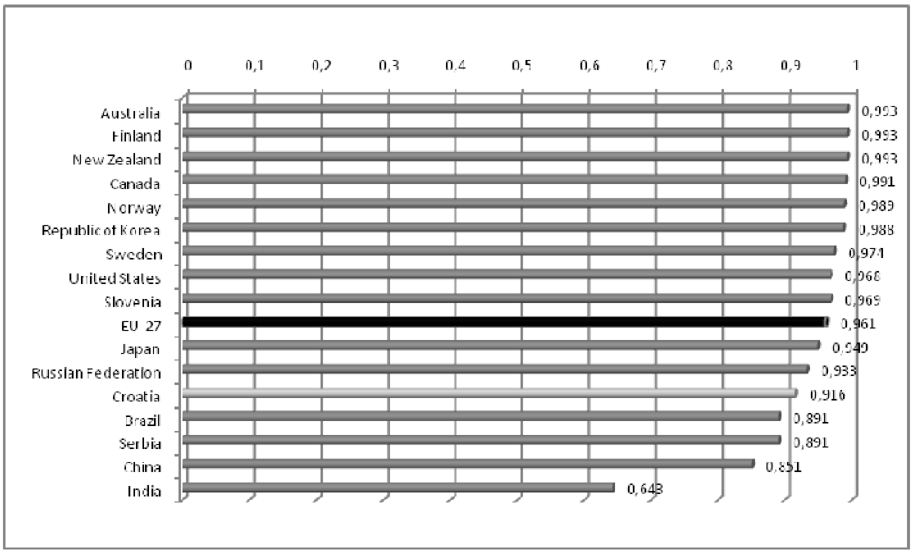
7 The HDI – *Human Development Index* – is a summary composite index that measures a country's average achievements in three basic aspects of human development: health, knowledge, and a decent standard of living. Health is measured by life expectancy at birth; knowledge is measured by a combination of the adult literacy rate and the combined primary, secondary, and tertiary gross enrolment ratio; and standard of living by GDP per capita (PPP US$). See more detailed at:
http://hdr.undp.org/en/media/HDR_20072008_Tech_Note_1.pdf.

the US perform slightly better whereas Japan, Brazil, Russian Federation, India and China show lower values of the index (see Figure 2).

**Figure 2: Worldwide UN Education Index (in 2007)**




Source: UNDP (2009).

UN Education Index also shows that while the north-eastern EU neighbours are mostly around an equivalent level of the EU average, it's sought eastern and southern neighbours are clearly some way behind.

The emerging knowledge-based information society requires a high supply of highly skilled people. There is a strong demand for tertiary graduates (especially in the field of science and engineering, but also in other fields like languages and economics). As a result, in May 2009 the Council adopted a benchmark on the tertiary attainment of the population: 40% of 30–34 year olds should by 2020 have tertiary attainment. In 2008, 31% of 30–34 years old in the EU had tertiary attainment, compared to only 22% in 2000. In 2008, Cyprus, Denmark, Norway, Finland and Ireland showed the highest tertiary attainment, with rates of over 45%. In general Nordic countries perform well in tertiary attainment of young adults while Southern European countries (with the exception of Spain) and Central European countries with a strong vocational tradition tend to lag behind. The EU countries with the lowest tertiary attainment rates are the Czech Republic, Italy, Romania and Slovakia. The world tertiary graduates have grown by a third since 2000 to reach about 150 million in 2007. Growth has been particularly strong in China, where the number of tertiary students has tripled since 2000. China now has more students than EU or North America. The total number of tertiary graduates has increased in the EU-27 in the period 2000-2007 by 35% or 4.3% per year. Countries that produce a high number of graduates per 1000 young people (> 80) include Denmark, Lithuania and the UK, while at the same time Germany, Italy, Cyprus and Austria produce relatively few each year (< 40/1000 young people), (European Commission, 2009, p. 61).

Technical and professional workers play a significant role in modern information societies (Kaivo-oja et al., 2002). Science and technology are vital to the knowledge based and increasingly digital economy. Therefore, European Council adopted a benchmark on the total number of graduates in Mathematics, Science and Technology (MST) in the EU which should increase by at least 15% by 2010. The number of tertiary MST students has increased by about 16% since 2000, or on average by 2.1% per year. Growth has been particularly strong in Malta, Cyprus and Romania. For some countries, however, the number of MST students stagnated or even declined. The latter was the case in Austria (partly a result of the introduction of tuition fees in 2001/02), Ireland, Belgium, Spain, Bulgaria and Sweden. With a growth of over 33% in the number of MST graduates in the period 2000–2007, the EU has already progressed with more than twice the rate of the EU benchmark for 2010 in the field (European Commission, 2009, p. 104).

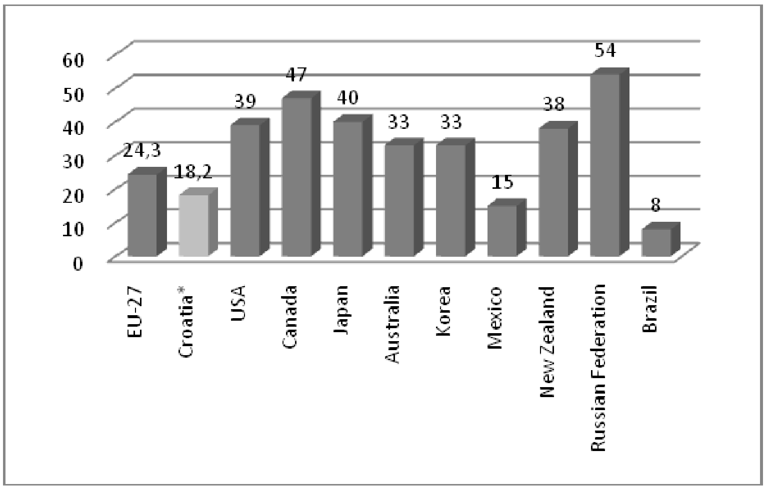
In order to overcome the ICT skills shortage in Europe, seven major ICT companies in Europe (IBM Europe, Nokia Telecommunications, Philips Semiconductors, Thomson CSF, Siemens AG, Microsoft Europe and British Telecommunication Plc.) with the support of the European Commission have formed an "ICT Consortium" and embarked on a pilot project to explore new ways of addressing the skills shortage. The objective of the project is to put in place a framework for students, education and training institutions and governments that describe the skills and competencies required by the ICT industry in Europe[8].

**8** Source: Career Space web site at www.career-space.com/project_desc/serv.htm.

### 3.2 Labour Market Implications – relation between educational attainment and employment rates

Research over the past decade has produced sufficient evidence that the monetary and non-monetary prosperity of individuals is related to their level of education and training. Education yields substantial returns to the individual in terms of earnings and employability and significant gains in economic growth and wider social benefits. Therefore, there is in general, a positive relationship between educational attainment and employment rate. Yet, employment rates for the population with low level of education are significantly different among EU countries (European Commission, 2009, p. 65–66). The share of the EU's adult population with high educational attainment is still clearly below key competitors (see Figure 3).

Figure 3: Adult high educational attainment[9] of 25–64 year olds (in %), 2008




* Data refers to year 2005.

Source: OECD and Eurostat database. LFS data.

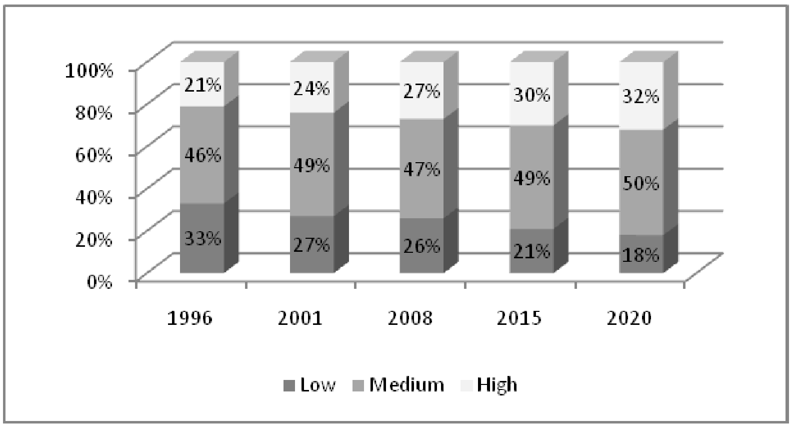
The Russian Federation is the best performer at 54% (though figures might be overstated), Canada second best at 47%, US and Japan both have a share of around 40% of 25–64 years old with higher education while Croatia, Mexico and Brazil perform at substantially lower levels than EU-27. The cause of the increase in the share of the population with high educational attainment is that younger generations are better educated than older ones.

9 As a percentage of labour force.

There is also evidence that young people in some countries are seeking to prolong their stay in education as a way of postponing labour market entry. In Britain, applications to attend university increased by 22% between 2009 and 2010, with increases for those aged 21 to 24 up by 44.8% and 63.4% for those aged over 25 (Bell & Blanchflower, 2010, p. 16).

The first results of the skill needs forecasts at the EU level (undertaken before the unset of the financial and economic crisis) show that the demand for skills and qualifications is being driven upwards in most occupations including in the so-called elementary jobs, by the continuing rise of the service sector and sweeping technological and organisational changes. (Levy & Murnane, 2005). The forecast, made by European Centre for the Development of Vocational Training, suggests that the total employment increase in Europe between 2006 and 2015 of around 13,5 million new jobs comprises more than 12,5 million additional jobs at the highest qualification level (tertiary education) and almost 9,5 million jobs at the medium level whereas the demand for jobs requiring low qualifications (at most lower secondary education) will fall by 8.5 million. Jobs requiring only low level qualifications will have decreased from around a third in 1996 to around 20% of the working age population in 2015 (CEDEFOP, 2008).

**Figure 4: Past and anticipated employment shares by education attainment level in EU-27**




Source: CEDEFOP (2008), http://www.cedefop.europa.eu/default.asp.

Based on the Cedefop projections, in 2015 around 30% of all jobs will need high qualifications whereas almost half will require medium qualifications, including vocational qualifications. It is expected that this will increase the pressure on the upper and postsecondary levels of education (see Figure 4). The challenge will be to improve the quality (and also the access) at these two levels of education (European Commission, 2009, p. 69).

**Table 2: Change in employment in selected European countries in Europe classified into educational status 2008 Q1 to 2009 Q3, in %**

| | Primary, lower secondary | Upper secondary and post-secondary | Tertiary |
|---|---|---|---|
| EU-27 | -6.3 | -0.98 | 4.71 |
| Czech Republic | -8.95 | -2.63 | 11.17 |
| Estonia | -18.10 | -14.43 | 3.62 |
| Ireland | -24.17 | -12.10 | 2.01 |
| Spain | -14.00 | -5.08 | -0.86 |
| Austria | -6.32 | 2.38 | 10.19 |
| Poland | -1.55 | 0.06 | 14.59 |
| Slovenia | -6.12 | 0.47 | 8.85 |
| Sweden | -1.60 | -1.68 | 2.91 |
| UK | -8.27 | -3.70 | 4.54 |
| Croatia | -0.04 | -1.00 | 6.80 |
| Turkey | 9.34 | 5.07 | 14.52 |

Source: Eurostat.

There have also been marked changes in employment by educational status. These are shown in table 2, which uses Eurostat data to track how changes in employment have been distributed across International Standard Classification of Education (ISCED). What is evident is that recession has reduced employment more among those with low qualifications than among those with intermediate or higher qualifications. In the EU as whole, employment among those with qualifications up to ISCED Level 2 (lower secondary school) fell by 3.2 million (6.3%), while for those with tertiary education, employment levels actually increased by 4.7%. The recession appears to have moved Europe towards forms of production that are more human capital intensive (Bell & Blanchflower, 2010, p. 17).

The most dramatic falls in low skilled employment have been experienced in countries that experienced house price bubbles, notably including Ireland, the Baltic States and Spain. Employment declined for all levels of education in countries where there were very large falls in output. In general, it could be concluded that there is a general trend to relative worsening of employment prospects for those with low levels of qualifications (Bell & Blanchflower, 2010, p. 18). The next part of the paper elaborates more about process of lifelong learning.

## 4 Process of lifelong learning

In 2002, the Member States of the European Union committed themselves to develop national lifelong learning strategies (Council Resolution, 2002) covering all contexts (formal, non-formal, informal) and levels (pre-primary, primary, secondary, tertiary, adult) of education and training and all learning activities undertaken through life, with the aim of improving knowledge, skills and competences with a personal, civic, social or employment-related perspective[10]. Following proposals from the Commission, the Council has recommended that monitoring progress in lifelong learning will be covered by indicators on participation of adults in lifelong learning (already available) and on adult skills (which will be available through the new surveys). The benchmark is that 12.5% of the population aged 25–64 should participate in lifelong learning by 2010 (Badescu, Saisana, 2008, p. 10).

In 2009 close to 10% of adults in European countries participated in lifelong learning over a four week period. There is clear progress since 2000. However, this is not sufficient to achieve the benchmark of 12.5% by 2010 – or the 2020 benchmark of 15%. Increasing participation in lifelong learning for adults remains a main challenge in many European countries (European Commission, 2009, p. 33). To a certain extent the slow progress between 2000 and 2005 in the participation of adults in education and training activities is confirmed by the provisional results of the Continuing Vocational Training Survey – CVTS. Participation in continuing vocational training measured by the number of participants

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**10** Lifelong learning comprises all phases and forms of learning from pre-school to post-retirement (European Commission, 2001).

in CVT courses as percentage of employees has decreased in 2005 compared to 1999 in nine countries for which data exists (Belgium, Denmark, Germany, Greece, the Netherlands, Finland, Sweden, United Kingdom and Norway). There are also different patterns of participation among Member States; an increased proportion of employees participate in CVT courses in most of the new Member States which are now catching up in participation with old member states (Badescu & Saisana, 2008, p. 11).

A new benchmark on lifelong learning has been adopted by the Council (Education) in May 2009: setting the objective of 15% participation of adults in lifelong learning, by 2020. However, because lifelong learning strategies address the full range of learning from "cradle to grave" – and not just adult education – other European benchmarks, such as participation in preschool education, early leavers from education after compulsory schooling as well as higher education graduation, all support the aim of making lifelong learning a reality (European Commission, 2009, p. 34).

Labour Force Survey shows, that 9.5% of 25–64 year olds in 2008 in European countries participate in education and training in the four weeks preceding the survey [11]. Even if there has been slow but continuous progress, this is still some way short of the benchmark of 12.5% for 2010. Only 7 Member States exceeded the benchmark 2020. There are large differences in participation between Member States; the Scandinavian countries and the UK, the best performers, achieve systematically high and increasing participation rates, reaching 20–30% (see Figure 5).

Data put the Netherlands, Slovenia, Austria, Spain and Ireland in the next group, with participation rates between 10–20% whereas Estonia, Cyprus, Luxembourg, Germany, Czech Republic and France are at 7–10% participation rate. Bulgaria, Greece and Romania as well as Croatia and Turkey have recorded little or no progress in improving their extremely low levels of participation. There are different patterns of adult

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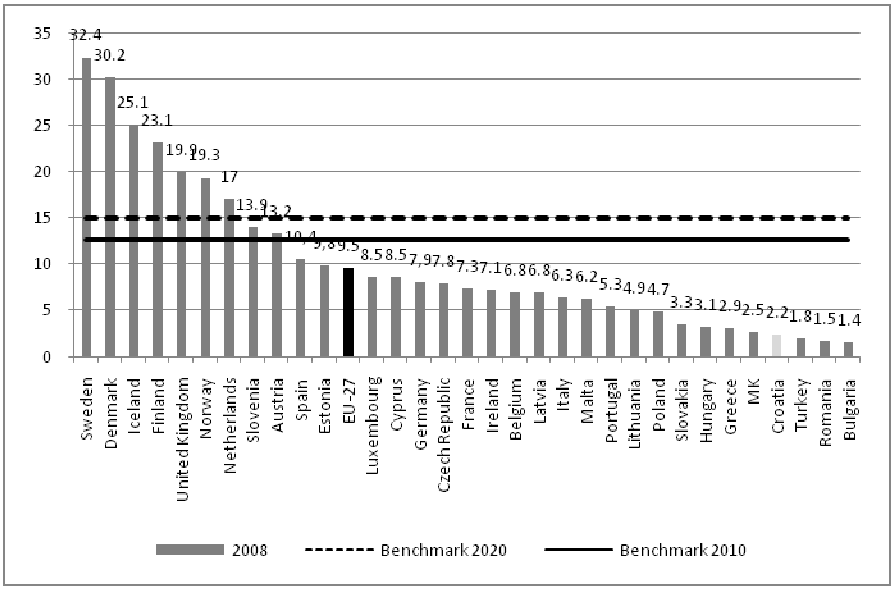
**11** This indicator refers to persons aged 25 to 64 who stated that they received education or training in the four weeks preceding the survey (numerator). The denominator consists of the total population of the same age group, excluding those who did not answer to the question "participation to education and training". Both the numerator and the denominator come from the EU Labour Force Survey. The information collected relates to all education or training whether or not relevant to the respondent's current or possible future job.

participation in lifelong learning by age-group. Participation of adults aged 50-to-64 is considerably lower. Four member states: Denmark, Finland, United Kingdom, and Netherlands along with Iceland and Norway – which are the best performers in Europe for adult participation in lifelong learning overall – are also the best performers but with considerably lower participation rates as concerns this age-group.

**Figure 5: Percentage of the adult population aged 25 to 64 participating in education and training (2008)**




Source: Eurostat (LFS database), October 2009.

All Member States can learn from the best performers in the Union. Therefore, it is important to complete the analysis above by looking at the details in the benchmark areas and in other core indicator areas. This is why the Council asked for the three best performing countries in specific policy areas to be identified (see Table 3).

Half the Member States are best performers in at least one benchmark area. There is therefore a relative big spread of good practice and expertise in the EU among member states (European Commission, 2009, p. 29). The highest percentage of MST graduates per 1000 inhabitants (aged 20–29) in 2007 have France, Finland and Ireland. Second benchmark area – higher education attainment, shows that some countries (Cyprus, Denmark and Finland) already reached a benchmark for 2020. Adult Lifelong learning participation benchmark for 2020 (at least 15%) was already exceeded in 2007 in Sweden, Denmark and Finland. So, it could be concluded that the best performing countries relating to higher education and lifelong learning are Nordic and Scandinavian countries, while South-eastern and Central European countries tend to lag behind.

**Table 3: Best performing countries on benchmark relating to higher education and lifelong learning**

| | 2010 target for EU | Best performing countries in the EU | | | EU | USA | Japan |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Graduates in Mathematics Science Technology (per 1000 young people) | 2010: Increase of at least 15% graduates | *Average annual increase 2000-2007* | | | | | |
| | | Portugal +14.9% | Slovakia +12.6% | Poland +12.2% | +4.2% | +2.0% | -1.0% |
| | | MST Graduates per 1000 inhabitants (aged 20–29) in 2007 | | | | | |
| | | France 20.5 | Finland 18.8 | Ireland 18.7 | 13.4 | 10.1 | 14.4 |
| | | *% of female graduates in 2007* | | | | | |
| | | Greece 44.2% | Romania 40.4% | Bulgaria 39.3% | 31.3% | 31.0% | 14.4% |
| Higher education attainment (age 30–34) | 2010: – 2020: at least 40% | *Higher education attainment, 2008* | | | | | |
| | | Cyprus 47.1% | Denmark 46.3% | Finland 45.7% | 31,1% Aged 25–34: 30.9% | (2007) Aged 25–34: 40% | Aged 25–34: 54% |
| Adult Lifelong Learning participation (25–64, %) | 2010: at least 12.5% 2020: at least 15% | *2008* | | | | | |
| | | Sweden 32.4% (2007) | Denmark 30.2% | Finland 23.1% | 9.5% | – | – |

Source: European Commission (2009, p. 21).

## 5 Concluding remarks

The emerging knowledge-based information society requires a high supply of highly skilled people, so there is a strong demand for tertiary graduates. This is characterized by the rise in the proportion of higher education participants and more workers employed in technical and professional occupations. Education process and learning process are prerequisite without which it is impossible to succeed in the modern post-industrial world. UN Education index places the EU as a whole among the world's best performance. The world tertiary graduates have grown by a third since 2000 to reach about 150 million in 2007. Growth has been particularly strong in China, where the number of tertiary students has tripled since 2000. China now has more students than EU or North America.

It is evident that recession has reduced employment among those with low qualifications more than among those with intermediate or higher qualifications. Therefore, there is in general, a positive relationship between educational attainment and employment rate. The analysis of five EU benchmarks for education and training systems shows good results in mathematics, science and technology (MST) graduates while for example results in the process of lifelong learning are not satisfactory and not sufficient to achieve the benchmark of 12.5% by 2010. Therefore, increasing participation in lifelong learning for adults remains a main challenge in many European countries, although Scandinavian countries and the UK have already reached 20–30% participants in LLL.

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POVZETEK

## PRITISKI NA USPEŠNOST VISOKEGA ŠOLSTVA IN PROCES VSEŽIVLJENJSKEGA UČENJA

V informacijski družbi je znanje v zadnjih nekaj desetletjih postalo osnovni produkcijski tvorec in osrednji vir v gospodarstvu. Znanje se lahko uspešno akumulira samo z izobraževanjem. Torej sta izobraževalni process in vseživljenjsko učenje osnovna pogoja, brez katerih napredek v poindustrijski družbi ni mogoč. Tehnični in strokovni delavci imajo pomembno vlogo v sodobnih informacijskih družbah. Pričakujemo, da bodo ti trendi povečevali pritiske na terciarno izobraževanje. To hkrati pomeni, da bo potrebnih več univerz in več univerzitetno izobraženih študentov. Članek analizira sistem visokega šolstva in odnos med doseganjem izobraževalnih ciljev in stopnjo zaposlenosti v svetu in v vodilnih evropskih državah.

Ker so evropske države v zadnjih desetletjih dvajsetega stoletja pričele zaostajati za svojimi glavnimi tekmeci, so oblikovale Lizbonsko strategijo. Eden glavnih lizbonskih ekonomskih konceptov je bila "učeča se ekonomija" ali "ekonomija znanja", ki naj bi temeljila na izboljšanju evropskega izobraževalnega sistema in naj bi povečala udeležbo v vseživljenskem učenju. Osrednji del članka analizira napredovanje k doseganju petih ciljev meril uspešnosti, ki so bili dogovorjeni za sisteme vzgoje in izobraževanja v državah EU. Nato analizira uspešnost izobraževanja v teh državah in njihov položaj na vodilnih svetovnih trgih. Splošno oceno uspešnosti v EU primerja z rezultati preostalega sveta z uporabo Indeksa izobraževanja Organizacije Združenih narodov (United Nations Education Index).

Indeks izobraževanja očitno postavlja EU kot celoto med najbolj uspešne na svetu. Avstralija, Nova Zelandija, Republika Koreja in ZDA so za malenkost boljši, medtem ko Japonska, Brazilija, Ruska federacija, Indija in Kitajska kažejo nižje vrednosti indeksa. Indeks tudi kaže, da so severovzhodne članice EU pretežno blizu ustrezne ravni evropskega povprečja, izbrane vzhodne in južne sosede EU pa očitno malo zaostajajo.

Glede na nekatere napovedi bo leta 2015 približno 30 % vseh poklicev zahtevalo visoko izobrazbo, skoraj polovica pa naj bi jih imela srednjo, vključno poklicno izobrazbo. To bo povečalo udeležbo v

terciarnem izobraževanju. Raziskava, ki je predstavljena v članku, tudi opisuje napredek in sedanje smernice vseživljenjskega učenja v evropskih državah in na Hrvaškem. Povečana udeležba v vseživljenjskem učenju za odrasle ostaja med glavnimi izzivi v mnogih evropskih državah.

Raziskave so v zadnjem desetletju prinesle dovolj dokazov o tem, da je finančno in ne-finančno blagostanje posameznikov povezano z njihovo ravnjo izobrazbe in veščin. Izobrazba omogoča znatno donosnost posameznikom glede zaslužka in zaposljivosti ter hkrati povečuje njihovo ekonomsko rast in širše družbene koristi. Na splošno je zato odnos med doseženo izobrazbo in stopjo zaposlenosti pozitiven. Vendar se stopnje zaposlenosti za populacijo z nizko izobrazbo med evropskimi državami značilno razlikujejo. Delež odraslih z visoko izobrazbo v EU je še zmeraj očitno pod njihovimi ključnimi tekmeci. Ruska federacija z 54 % (čeprav je morda ta števika pretirana) dosega najvišjo stopnjo, Kanada je druga najboljša z 47 %, ZDA in Japonska imata obe stopnjo okrog 40 % 25–64 let starih z visoko izobrazbo, medtem ko dosegajo Hrvaška, Mehika in Brazilija znatno nižje stopnje kot EU-27. Povečanje deleža populacije z visoko izobrazbo se kaže zato, ker so mlajše generacije bolje izobražene kot starejše.

Razlike so opazne tudi v zaposlenosti glede na stopnjo izobrazbe. Očitno je, da je recesija zmanjšala zaposlenost bolj med tistimi z nizkimi kvalifikacijasmi kot s tistimi s srednjimi in z visokimi kvalifikacijami. V EU kot celoti je zaposlenost med tistimi s kvalifikacijami do ISCED Level 2 (nižja srednja šola) padla za 3,2 milijone (6,3 %), medtem ko je za tiste s terciarno izobrazbo pravzaprav narastla za 4,7 %. Kaže torej, da je recesija povzročila v Evropi premik k proizvodnji, ki zaposluje več človeškega kapitala. Najbolj dramatičen padec zaposlenosti pri populaciji z nizko izobrazbo so doživele države, v katerih so bile razne finančne špekulacije, kot npr. Irska, Baltske države in Španija. Zaposlenost se je zmanjšala za vse ravni izobrazbe v državah, kjer se je zelo zmanjšal BDP. Na splošno lahko sklenemo, da obstaja splošen trend glede sorazmernega poslabšanja možnosti zaposlitve za ljudi z nižjo izobrazbo.

Očitno je, da je recesija zmanjšala zaposlenost med tistimi z nižjo izobrazbo bolj kot s tistimi s srednjo in visoko izobrazbo. Zato ugotavljamo pozitiven odnos med doseganjem stopnje izobrazbe in stopnjo zaposlenosti. Analiza petih meril EU za sisteme izobraževanja in usposabljanja kaže dobre rezultate za študente, ki so diplomirali iz matematike, znanosti in tehnologije, medtem ko npr. rezultati za proces vseživljenjskega učenja niso zadovoljivi in ne dosegajo cilja uspešnosti 12,5 % v letu 2010. Zato ostaja za večino evropskih držav glavni izziv povečana udeležba v vseživljenjskem učenju za odrasle, čeprav imajo v skandinavskih državah in v Združenem kraljestvu že zdaj 20–30 % udeležencev v vseživljenjskem učenju.

*1.04 Strokovni članek*

# Analiza brezposelnosti v času zadnje gospodarske krize v nekaterih državah z uvedenimi koncepti varne prožnosti

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IZVLEČEK

V času gospodarske krize je pomen pravšnjega razmerja med prožnostjo in varnostjo še bolj v ospredju, saj lahko prevelika prožnost pripelje do velikih socialnih sprememb, prevelika varnost pa povzroči togost trga dela in s tem ovira prilagajanje zaposlenosti razmeram v gospodarstvu. Kot odziv na krizo države sprejemajo različne ukrepe z namenom preprečevanja izgube delovnih mest, pri uvajanju sprememb pa je bistveno, da so sprejeti ukrepi predvsem pravočasni ter osredotočeni na ciljne skupine. Mednarodne organizacije za izračunavanje togosti delovne zakonodaje uporabljajo različne pristope. V prispevku je prikazana analiza brezposelnosti v času zadnje gospodarske krize v štirih državah, ki imajo uspešno uvedene koncepte varne prožnosti (to so Danska, Nizozemska, Švedska in Avstrija), za analizo so bili uporabljeni podatki kazalnikov zaposlovanja, ki jih izračunava Svetovna banka.

*Ključne besede: analiza, brezposelnost, gospodarska kriza, koncept, varna prožnost, kazalnik zaposlovanja*

*JEL: 60*

## 1 Uvod

Kriza oziroma stanje, ko se ugodne razmere za razvoj v gospodarstvu začnejo slabšati, vpliva tudi na ljudi, kajti negotovost v njih vzbudi strah, da se bodo razmere zanje poslabšale. Zaposleni želijo kar se da visoko socialno varnost, organizacije pa želijo hitro reagirati na nepričakovane spremembe na področju povpraševanja, se prilagajati novim tehnologijam in drugim spremembam, želijo imeti prožno delovno-pravno zakonodajo, ki bi jim dopuščala tudi prilagajanje števila zaposlenih.

Skandinavske države so vodilne na področju urejanja razmerja med prožnostjo na trgu dela in socialno varnostjo zaposlenih oziroma na področju tako imenovane varne prožnosti. Tros in Wilthagen (2004, str. 66–169) navajata, da koncept varne prožnosti temelji na ideji, da si dimenziji prožnosti in varnosti nista nasprotujoči, ampak vzajemno podporni, in varno prožnost opredelita kot politično strategijo, ki hkrati na eni strani spodbuja prožnost na trgu dela in na drugi strani v organizaciji in delovnih razmerjih poveča varnost zaposlitve ter socialno varnost (predvsem za šibkejše skupine znotraj in izven trga dela). Avtorja pa varne prožnosti ne vidita le kot politike in strategije trga dela, ampak tudi kot določeno stanje na trgu dela. V tem primeru pa varno prožnost opredelita kot tipično obliko varnosti in kot tipično obliko prožnosti in pravita, da je varna prožnost stopnja zaposlitvene, dohodkovne varnosti, ki omogoča kariero delavcev z relativno skromno pozicijo na trgu dela ter aktivnost in socialno vključenost. Trdita tudi, da je varna prožnost stopnja numerične prožnosti in plačne prožnosti, ki omogoča trgu dela in posamezni organizaciji hitro in ustrezno prilagoditev spremenjenim pogojem, z namenom ohranitve konkurenčnosti in produktivnosti.

Reforme, vpeljane v različnih državah, so v zadnjih dveh desetletjih kljub različnim ekonomskim pogojem pripomogle k zmanjšanju brezposelnosti in stimuliranju rasti produktivnosti. Prispevek prikazuje primere uvedbe koncepta varne prožnosti treh skandinavskih držav Danske, Nizozemske ter Švedske in koncept varne prožnosti v Avstriji, ki je med državami z uvedenim konceptom varne prožnosti geografsko in kulturno najbolj podobna Sloveniji, ter analizo in primerjavo brezposelnosti ter kazalnikov zaposlovanja v času zadnje gospodarske krize v omenjenih državah.

## 2 Kratek zgodovinski okvir

Obdobje poslabšanja gospodarskih razmer v razvitih družbah se je začelo tudi že konec šestdesetih in začetek sedemdesetih let prejšnjega stoletja, katerega temeljne značilnosti so bile:

- relativno nizka gospodarska rast;
- globalizacija kapitala, proizvodnje in trgovine;
- prestrukturiranje gospodarskih dejavnosti (prenos proizvodnje v države tretjega sveta s cenejšo delovno silo);
- naraščajoči storitveni sektor in hitrejše tehnološke spremembe;

- strukturna brezposelnost;
- povečane potrebe po izobraženi delovni sili oziroma na znanju temelječa družba;
- demografsko spreminjanje značilnosti populacije in delovne sile razvitih držav (povečana aktivnost prebivalstva predvsem na račun večje participacije žensk, mladih, imigracije delovne sile iz manj razvitih držav);
- zmanjšana varnost zaposlitve (Ignjatović, 2002, str. 17).

Avtor trdi, da so navedene značilnosti vplivale na spreminjanje celostne podobe razvitih družb. Raven socialnega tveganja in negotovosti se je povečala, meje med zaposlenostjo in brezposelnostjo so postale bolj zabrisane, tokovi na trgu dela bolj dinamični, kar se kaže tudi v povečanju števila prožnih oblik zaposlovanja (npr.: zaposlovanje za določen čas, skrajševanja delovnega časa); v odpuščanju presežnih delavcev; v naraščanju števila brezposelnih; v podaljševanju trajanja brezposelnosti; v naraščanju deleža neformalnih oblik dela in podobno. Delovanje trga dela se je poslabšalo v primerjavi s stabilnim okoljem rasti pred začetkom sedemdesetih let v vseh razvitih družbah ne glede na razlike v regulaciji trga dela po posameznih državah. Najbolj prizadete so bile industrije z masovno proizvodnjo, ki so zaposlovale največ delavcev. V sedemdesetih letih sta dva naftna šoka še pospešila nenadzorovano rast cen in splošno poslabšanje gospodarskega položaja, kar je države prisililo v reševanje problemov naraščajoče inflacije in ohranjanje navidezno polne zaposlenosti. V večini držav je bilo reševanje krize usmerjeno v obvladovanje inflacije, kar je pomenilo opuščanje koncepta polne zaposlenosti oziroma naraščanje števila brezposelnosti.

Za vzorčni primer uspešne uvedbe koncepta varne prožnosti po svetu velja danski koncept, katerega prikaz sledi v nadaljevanju. Za primerjavo pa so prikazani tudi koncepti, ki so jih vzpostavili na Nizozemskem, Švedskem in v Avstriji.

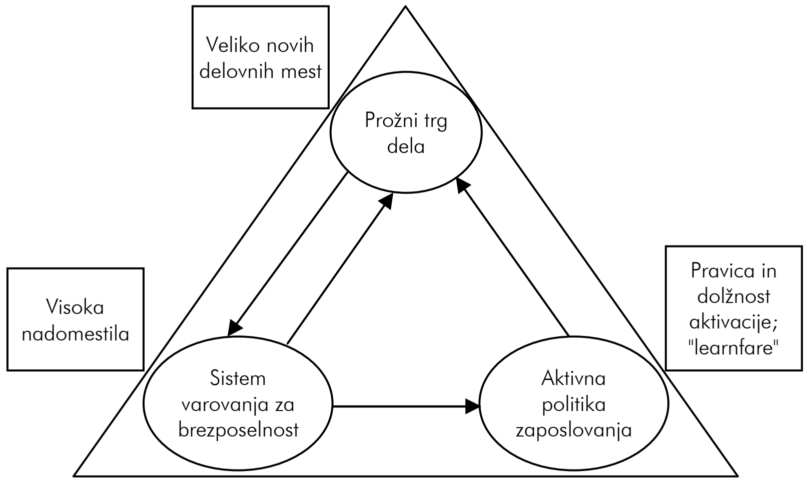
## 3 Koncept varne prožnosti na Danskem, Nizozemskem, Švedskem, v Avstriji

Danska ima učinkovito kombinacijo prožnosti (velika zaposlitvena mobilnost kot posledica relativno nizke stopnje varnosti zaposlitve), socialne varnosti (radodaren sistem zavarovanja za brezposelnost) in aktivne politike trga dela (Lang, 2006, str. 3). Madsen (2002, str. 51) navaja, da danski zlati trikotnik trga dela sestavljajo trije segmenti:

- visoka eksterna numerična prožnost (prožno zaposlovanje, ki omogoča delodajalcem hitro prilagajanje potrebam trga dela in s tem konkurenčnost);
- visoke ravni dohodkovne varnosti (sistem socialne varnosti, ki preprečuje, da bi visoka mobilnost zaposlenih pri le-teh povzročala občutek negotovosti ali marginalizacijo);
- visoka stopnja zaposlitvene varnosti (aktivna politika zaposlovanja, ki temelji na usposabljanju in izobraževanju kot temelju zaposljivosti).

Na sliki 1 je prikazan tako imenovani zlati trikotnik varne prožnosti danskega trga dela.

**Slika 1: Zlati trikotnik danskega trga dela**




Vir: Madsen, 2002, str. 51

Puščici, ki povezujeta prožni trg dela in sistem zavarovanja za brezposelnost, ponazarjata, da veliko število delavcev vsako leto prizadene brezposelnost, toda večina se jih vrne na delo po kratkem obdobju brezposelnosti. Tistim, ki se ne vrnejo hitro v zaposlitev, pomagajo z aktivnimi programi na trgu dela. Argument, ki podpira koncept zlatega trikotnika, je, da je uspeh danskega zaposlitvenega sistema rezultat edinstvene kombinacije prožnosti (merjeno z visoko stopnjo mobilnosti služb), socialne varnosti (radodarni sistem socialne pomoči in nadomestil za brezposelnost) in aktivnih programov trga dela, ki podpirajo trajajočo transformacijo ekonomije (Bredgaard et al., 2005, str. 3).

Drugi primer uspešne uvedbe koncepta varne prožnosti je Nizozemska. Značilnost Nizozemske je, da se pogodbe o začasnem delu lahko sklepajo največ za obdobje dveh let, pogodbe za določen čas pa za obdobje treh. Delodajalec lahko sklene pogodbo za določen čas le trikrat zaporedoma, naslednja pogodba pa mora biti sklenjena za nedoločen čas. Pri tem so mogoča odstopanja glede na veljavno kolektivno pogodbo in dogovor (Van Oorshot, 2001, str. 9). V obdobju recesije lahko delodajalec delavce odpusti, dokler se razmere v organizaciji ne izboljšajo, delodajalec pa ima možnost, da delavca na čakanju začasno pokliče na delo. Za te primere je določen minimalni prihodek in minimalno število ur, ki jih mora delodajalec plačati delavcu. Denarna nadomestila so zagotovljena tudi za tiste, ki so pripravljeni sprejeti nižje plačano delovno mesto. Uzakonili so tudi izenačenje pravic zaposlenih z atipičnimi oblikami pogodb s pravicami redno zaposlenih (Clasen et al., 2001, str. 161, 162).

Skupna značilnost Nizozemske in Danske je velika vloga socialnih partnerjev in pripravljenost tako delodajalcev kot delojemalcev na popuščanje.

Tudi Švedska si je pri uvedbi modela varne prožnosti za vzor vzela Dansko. Na Švedskem večina kolektivnih pogajanj poteka na lokalni in ne na državni ravni. Plače in delovni pogoji so predpisani v kolektivnih pogodbah in Zakonu o varovanju zaposlitve. Pomemben del tega določa, da delodajalec ne more prosto izbirati, koga odpusti v času zaposlitve. Zakon namreč navaja, da je v času zmanjševanja števila zaposlenih treba najprej odpustiti zaposlene, ki so dobili zaposlitev zadnji. Obstajajo pa nekatere izjeme, ki so uvedene predvsem zaradi prilagodljivosti zakona, in veljajo za mala in srednje velika podjetja. Vloga socialnih partnerjev pri pogodbenih dogovorih je velika. Pobude k varni prožnosti dajejo organizacije delodajalcev in sindikati skupaj, v okviru različnih sporazumov v zvezi z znižanjem števila zaposlenih ter finančnih spodbud. Sporazumi v zvezi z zniževanjem števila zaposlenih se dogovarjajo v okviru kolektivnih pogodb. Cilj teh sporazumov je izpolniti zahteve tako delodajalcev kot potreb presežnih delavcev. Obstaja osem upokojitvenih programov, kar zajame 50 % delovne sile.

Na Švedskem obstajata dva velika sklada: Fundacija za varovanje zaposlitve in Varnostni svet zaposlenih. Fundacija za varovanje zaposlitve pomaga presežnim delavcem pri iskanju nove zaposlitve. Ustanovljena je bila z Zakonom o varovanju zaposlitve za zaposlene v javnem sektorju. Zakon o varovanju zaposlitve pokriva zaposlene, katerih pogoji zaposlitve so urejeni s kolektivnimi pogodbami med švedsko vlado za delodajalce na strani vlade in strankami na strani zaposlenih. Sporazum vključuje zaposlene, ki imajo pravico do odpravnine in imajo vsaj eno leto delovnih izkušenj na položaju. Z nekaterimi izjemami so upravičeni do odpravnine v znesku, ki skupaj s koristmi iz zavarovanja za primer brezposelnosti omogoča do 80 odstotkov plače v prvih 200 dneh in 70 odstotkov v naslednjih 100 dneh za zaposlene z dohodki nad zgornjo mejo zavarovanja za primer brezposelnosti. Varnostni svet zaposlenih pa je združenje v lasti Konfederacije švedskih podjetij in Sveta za pogajanje in sodelovanje. Člani so običajno vodstveni delavci v zasebnem sektorju. Varnostni svet zaposlenih pomaga presežnim delavcem pri iskanju nove zaposlitve in zagotavlja odpravnino in finančno podporo za usposabljanje posameznikov, starejših od 40 in z najmanj pet let izkušenj na položaju. Ti programi podpirajo tudi zaposlene, ki želijo ustanoviti lastna podjetja (Thorsen & Brunk, 2009, str. 1).

V Avstriji pa so uvedli sklade, ki so orodje za vzpostavitev potencialne delovne sile na prožen in smiseln način in s tem podpirajo strukturne spremembe. Finančno so podprti predvsem iz evropskih virov, posebej iz Evropskega socialnega sklada. Brezposelni dobijo priložnost za delo, medtem ko dobivajo socialno varnost v obliki nadomestil za brezposelnost, povezanih z izobraževanjem, nadaljnjim izobraževanjem ali usposabljanjem ob delu. Posebnosti teh skladov so njihova dolgoročna naravnanost in njihovi posledično vzdržni učinki na zaposlovanje. Spodbujajo večjo poklicno, plačno in geografsko mobilnost. S tega vidika so ukrep, ki cilja na ravnotežje med prožnostjo in socialno varnostjo. V smernicah sklada avstrijskega zavoda za zaposlovanje so zapisali naslednje:

- vključevanje organizacij, ki iščejo zaposlene, v usposabljanje brezposelnih glede na obstoječe potrebe;
- premoščanje vrzeli med zahtevanimi in obstoječimi kvalifikacijami brezposelnih;
- podpiranje strukturnih sprememb;

- izboljševanje možnosti za zaposlovanje žensk (European Communities, 2008, str. 30–35).

## 4 Ukrepi na trgu dela v času zadnje gospodarske krize

V skladu s strategijo OECD (2006) za delovna mesta naj bi politika trga dela zmanjševala ovire za povpraševanje po delu, zagotavljala razvoj potrebnih znanj in kompetenc delovne sile, oblikovala učinkovit sistem nadomestil za primer brezposelnosti in učinkovite programe aktivne politike zaposlovanja. V kriznih časih je še posebej pomembno, da politika trga dela zagotavlja zadostno dohodkovno podporo brezposelnim in jim hkrati nudi možnosti za ohranjanje in izboljšanje znanj in kompetenc, delodajalcem pa pomaga prebroditi čas začasnega pomanjkanja naročil. Vlade želijo pri ukrepanju na trgu dela doseči hkrati tri cilje: minimizirati množično odpuščanje, omogočati prestrukturiranje in zagotavljati ustrezno dohodkovno podporo.

Osrednje sporočilo evropskega vrha o zaposlovanju v maju 2009 je bilo, da je v času gospodarske krize pomembno:

- ohranjati in ustvarjati nova delovna mesta;
- povečevati dostopnosti zaposlitev predvsem za mlade;
- nadgraditi znanja in kompetence, ki bodo ustrezala potrebam trga in spodbujala mobilnost (Employment summit, 2009, str. 1).

Urad za makroekonomske analize in razvoj (UMAR, 2010, str. 87–91) poudarja, da države v kriznih časih:

- posodabljajo delovanje zavodov za zaposlovanje (za primer navaja Dansko, Grčijo, Finsko in Združeno kraljestvo). Za uspešno in učinkovito svetovanje in pomoč brezposelnim (nujno potrebno hitro nudenje ustreznih informacij in priprava zaposlitvenega načrta brezposelne osebe) je med drugim potrebno zadostno število ustrezno usposobljenih svetovalcev zaposlitve na zavodih za zaposlovanje. Nizozemska je povečala število svetovalcev za zaposlitev s pomočjo javno-zasebnega partnerstva z oblikovanjem tako imenovanih centrov mobilnosti, ki skušajo pri iskanju zaposlitve pomagati še zaposlenim osebam, ki jim preti izguba dela. Nemčija je v času krize povečala število svetovalcev na javnih zavodih za zaposlovanje za 5.000 svetovalcev. Pomena ustreznega obsega in kakovosti človeških virov v javnih zavodih za učinkovito izvajanje storitev in programov politike zaposlovanja se bolj zavedajo v razvitejših državah Evropske unije.

- Krepijo izvajanje programov aktivne politike zaposlovanja, ki zajema programe izobraževanja in usposabljanja brezposelnih in zaposlenih, programe za spodbujanje zaposlovanja in ustvarjanje delovnih mest in programe pomoči pri iskanju zaposlitve. Programi izobraževanja in usposabljanja so v kriznih razmerah pomembni, ker lahko z njihovo pravilno izbiro brezposelni ali zaposleni osebi omogočijo izboljšanje položaja na trgu dela. Finančna podpora in možnosti za dostop do izobraževanja in usposabljanje so bile povečane v Avstriji, na Švedskem in Portugalskem. Nemčija je poleg razširitve posebnih programov za izobraževanje in usposabljanje starejših in manj izobraženih za začasno zaposlene pripravila tudi nov program kuponov za usposabljanje.
- Uvajajo spodbude za fleksibilni delovni čas in krajšanje delovnega časa. Uvedba subvencioniranja krajšega delovnega časa v dvanajstih državah članicah naj bi doprinesla k ohranjanju delovnih mest. Ob uvajanju tega ukrepa nekatere države spodbujajo tudi dodatno usposabljanje za delavce s skrajšanim delovnim časom. Evropska komisija poudarja, da je subvencioniranje krajšega delovnega časa lahko le začasen ukrep in je namenjen samo premagovanju krize, saj ima lahko dolgoročno velike posledice na gospodarstvo.
- Povečujejo dostopnost do nadomestil za brezposelnost.
- Spodbujajo zaposlovanje in vključevanje brezposelnih z zmanjševanjem stroškov dela, s spremembami obdavčevanja in sistema socialnih transferjev.
- Uvajajo spremembe na področju zavarovanja za primer brezposelnosti (nadomestil za brezposelnost), pri čemer povečujejo trajanje prejemanja nadomestila ali omilijo pogoje za dostop do nadomestila (na primer Švedska, Finska).

## 5 Analiza brezposelnosti na Danskem, Švedskem, Nizozemskem in v Avstriji

V poročilu Urada za makro ekonomske analize in razvoj (UMAR, 2009, str. 87) je navedeno, da je gospodarska kriza v Evropski uniji s časovnim zamikom vplivala na gibanja na trgu dela. Razmere so se začele močneje poslabševati proti koncu leta 2008. Povprečna stopnja brezposelnosti v Evropski uniji naj bi po ocenah Evropske komisije v letu 2010 znašla 10,9 odstotkov (v letu 2008 je znašala 7 odstotkov). Po napovedih naj bi bilo v letu 2010 v Evropski uniji 26,3 milijona brezposelnih oseb, kar je za 9,5 milijona več kot leta 2008.

Divjak in ostali (2009, str. 2) navajajo, da je najvišjo stopnjo delovne aktivnosti med državami članicami Evropske unije dosegla Nizozemska v četrtem četrtletju leta 2008, ko je presegla 65 odstotkov, sledili sta Danska s 63,8 odstotki ter Ciper z 62 odstotno stopnjo delovne aktivnosti. Tudi stopnja brezposelnosti je bila najnižja na Nizozemskem in sicer v tretjem četrtletju leta 2008, ko so zabeležili 2,5 odstotno stopnjo brezposelnosti. Drugo mesto sta si delili Danska in Ciper, ki sta v drugem četrtletju 2008 dosegli 3,1 odstotno stopnjo brezposelnosti, s 3,4 odstotki pa jima je sledila Avstrija.

V nadaljevanju so prikazane značilnosti držav, ki so na področju varne prožnosti naredile že veliko oziroma veljajo za vzorčne, z namenom ugotovitve ali in kakšen vpliv ima koncept varne prožnosti v času krize. Kot je bilo že omenjeno, so za primerjavo vzete Danska, Nizozemska, Švedska in Avstrija.

V tabelah, prikazanih v nadaljevanju, so analizirani kazalniki zaposlovanja delavcev, kot jih izračunava Svetovna banka, in stopnje brezposelnosti v posameznih državah, ki jih je predstavila organizacija Economist Intelligence Unit (v nadaljevanju EIU).

Za lažje razumevanje podatkov si najprej poglejmo opredelitve kazalnikov, ki jih proučuje in izračunava Svetovna Banka.

Kazalniki zaposlovanja delavcev temeljijo na podrobni raziskavi zaposlitvenih zakonov, predpisov in drugih aktov, ki jih Svetovna banka pregleda, da zagotovi točnost podatkov.

Indeks togosti zaposlovanja predstavlja povprečje vseh treh indeksov in se meri na lestvici od 0 do 100, kjer višja vrednost predstavlja večjo togost predpisov. Indeksi so naslednji:

- indeks težavnosti zaposlovanja delavcev, ki meri uporabo in najdaljše trajanje pogodb za določen čas in minimalne plače pripravnikov oziroma prvič zaposlenih;
- indeks togosti delovnih ur, ki meri načrtovanje nestandardnih ur dela in plačanega letnega dopusta;

- indeks težavnosti odpuščanja delavcev, ki meri obveščanje in odobritev zahtev za prenehanje presežnega delavca ali skupino presežnih delavcev, obveznost o prerazporeditvi ali prekvalifikaciji in prednostnih pravilih za presežne delavce in prezaposlene.

V okviru kazalnikov zaposlovanja pa Svetovna banka meri tudi stroške zaposlovanja, ki vključujejo zahteve glede obvestil, odpravnin in kazni ob odpovedi presežnega delavca (odpravnine in kazni so izražene v tedenskih plačah).

Po podatkih Svetovne banke je Danska na področju zaposlovanja delavcev v letu 2008 zabeležila indeks težavnosti zaposlovanja 0, indeks težavnosti odpuščanja 0 ter indeks togosti zaposlovanja 7. V letu 2009 je dosegla 10. mesto med 183 državami (indeksa težavnosti zaposlovanja in odpuščanja ter indeks togosti zaposlovanja so ostali nespremenjeni). V letu 2010 pa je Danska zasedla 9. mesto, pri čemer pa so se vrednosti indeksov spremenile in sicer je indeks težavnosti zaposlovanja narastel na 17, indeks težavnosti odpuščanja na 70 ter indeks togosti zaposlovanja na 42[1].

Stopnja brezposelnosti je v letu 2008 znašala 3,3 odstotke, v letu 2009 je bila zaradi posledic svetovne gospodarske krize višja, in sicer 3,9 odstotkov, v 2010 pa naj bi bila po predvidevanjih Economist Intelligence Unit (EIU) še višja in sicer naj bi znašala 5,1 odstotek[2].

Podatki o brezposelnosti na Danskem od leta 2004 do leta 2009 so prikazani tudi v tabeli 1.

**Tabela 1: Brezposelnost na Danskem**

| | 2004 | 2005 | 2006 | 2007 | 2008 | 2009 |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Število prebivalcev (v mio) | 5,4 | 5,4 | 5,4 | 5,4 | 5,5 | 5,5 |
| Stopnja brezposelnosti (v %) | 6,4 | 4,8 | 3,9 | 3,8 | 3,3 | 3,9 |

Po podatkih Svetovne banke je Nizozemska na področju zaposlovanja delavcev v letu 2008 zabeležila indeks težavnosti zaposlovanja 17, indeks težavnosti odpuščanja 70 ter indeks togosti

**1** http://www.doingbusiness.org/ExploreEconomies/?economyid=56, 09. 07. 2010

**2** http://store.eiu.com/countries.html, 09. 07. 2010 zaposlovanja 42. V letu 2009 je zasedla 120. mesto med 183 državami in v letu 2010 123. mesto, pri čemer pa se indeksi v primerjavi z letom 2008 niso spremenili[3].

Stopnja brezposelnosti je v letu 2008 znašala 2,8 odstotka, v letu 2009 4,9 odstotke[4] .

Podatki o brezposelnosti na Nizozemskem od leta 2004 do leta 2009 so prikazani tudi v tabeli 2.

**Tabela 2: Brezposelnost na Nizozemskem**

| | 2004 | 2005 | 2006 | 2007 | 2008 | 2009 |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Število prebivalcev (v mio) | 16,3 | 16,3 | 16,3 | 16,4 | 16,7 | 16,5 |
| Stopnja brezposelnosti (v %) | 6,5 | 4,7 | 5,5 | 3,2 | 2,8 | 4,9 |

Po podatkih Svetovne banke je Švedska na področju zaposlovanja delavcev v letu 2008 zabeležila indeks težavnosti zaposlovanja 17, indeks težavnosti odpuščanja 70 ter indeks togosti zaposlovanja 32. V letu 2009 je zasedla 112. mesto med 183 državami z indeksom težavnosti zaposlovanja 33, indeksom težavnosti odpuščanja 40 ter indeksom togosti zaposlovanja 38. V letu 2010 je zasedla 117. mesto, pri čemer se indeksi niso spremenili[5].

Tudi Švedska se ni mogla izogniti višanju stopnje brezposelnosti v času recesije. V letu 2008 je ta stopnja znašala 6,2 odstotka, v letu 2009 je narastla na 8,3 odstotka.

Podatki o brezposelnosti na Švedskem od leta 2004 do leta 2009 so prikazani tudi v tabeli 3.

**3** URL: http://www.doingbusiness.org/ExploreEconomies/?economyid=137, 09. 07. 2010

[4] http://store.eiu.com/countries.html, 09. 07. 2010

**5** URL: http://www.doingbusiness.org/ExploreEconomies/?economyid=181., 09. 07. 2010

**Tabela 3: Brezposelnost na Švedskem**

| | 2004 | 2005 | 2006 | 2007 | 2008 | 2009 |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Število prebivalcev (v mio) | 9,0 | 9,0 | 9,1 | 9,2 | 9,2 | 9,3 |
| Stopnja brezposelnosti (v %): | 6,3 | 7,5 | 7,1 | 6,1 | 6,2 | 8,3 |

Po ocenah Svetovne banke je Avstrija na področju zaposlovanja delavcev v letu 2008 zabeležila indeks težavnosti zaposlovanja 0, indeks težavnosti odpuščanja 40 ter indeks togosti zaposlovanja 24. V letu 2009 je dosegla 56. mesto v letu 2010 pa 60. mesto med 183 državami, pri čemer se indeksi niso spremenili[6].

Stopnja brezposelnosti se je v letu 2008 znižala na 3,8 odstotke (v primerjavi z letom 2007, ko je bila stopnja brezposelnosti 4,4 odstotna), vendar pa se je v letu 2009 zvišala na 7,2 odstotke.

Podatki o brezposelnosti v Avstriji od leta 2004 do leta 2009 so prikazani tudi v tabeli 4.

**Tabela 4: Brezposelnost v Avstriji**

| | 2004 | 2005 | 2006 | 2007 | 2008 | 2009 |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Število prebivalcev (v mio) | 8,2 | 8,2 | 8,2 | 8,3 | 8,3 | 8,4 |
| Stopnja brezposelnosti (v %) | 4,9 | 5,2 | 4,8 | 4,4 | 3,8 | 7,2 |

Iz zgornjih podatkov je razvidno, da je imela ob nastopu zadnje gospodarske krize v letu 2008 najnižjo stopnjo brezposelnosti Nizozemska z 2,8 odstotka, sledita ji Danska s 3,5 odstotki in Avstrija s 3,8 odstotki brezposelnih. Po odstotku brezposelnih pa izstopa Švedska, kjer je brezposelnost kar 6,2 odstotna. V letu 2009 je najnižjo stopnjo brezposelnosti beležila Danska, kjer se v primerjavi z letom 2008 odstotek brezposelnih ni spremenil, sledi Nizozemska, kjer je v primerjavi z letom 2008 odstotek brezposelnih narastel za 2,1 odstotek, velik odstotek brezposelnih, v primerjavi z letom 2008, pa je bilo v letu 2009 v Avstriji, kjer je brezposelnost narastla za 3,4 odstotke na 7,2 odstotka. Tudi

**6** URL: http://www.doingbusiness.org/ExploreEconomies/?economyid=13, 09. 02. 2010 na Švedskem so zabeležili nekoliko višji odstotek brezposelnih, odstotek se je namreč v primerjavi z letom 2008 povišal za 2,1 in je znašal 8,3.

**Tabela 5: Primerjava kazalnikov zaposlovanja v izbranih državah v letu 2008**

| Država | Indeks težavnosti zaposlovanja (0–100) | Indeks togosti delovnih ur (0–100) | Indeks težavnosti odpuščanja (0–100) | Indeks togosti zaposlovanja (0–100) | Stroški zaposlovanja (tedenska plača) |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Danska | 0 | 20 | 0 | 7 | 0 |
| Nizozemska | 17 | 40 | 70 | 42 | 17 |
| Švedska | 17 | 40 | 40 | 32 | 26 |
| Avstrija | 0 | 33 | 40 | 24 | 2 |

Če primerjamo kazalnike zaposlovanja, ki jih izračunava Svetovna banka, vidimo, da je vrednost indeksa težavnosti zaposlovanja v letu 2008 na Danskem in v Avstriji znašala 0, na Nizozemskem in Švedskem pa 17. Glede na to, da se vrednosti indeksa beležijo na lestvici od 0 do 100, organizacije v omenjenih državah v letu 2008 niso imele večjih zakonskih omejitev pri zaposlovanju novih delavcev. Danska je država, ki je imela v letu 2008 med izbranimi državami tudi najnižjo vrednost indeksa težavnosti odpuščanja, in sicer vrednost 0. Indeks težavnosti odpuščanja na Švedskem in v Avstriji je zavzel vrednost 40, na Nizozemskem pa kar 70, kar je zelo visoko in pomeni, da je imela Nizozemska dokaj visoke zakonske omejitve glede odpuščanja. V letu 2008 je imel indeks togosti zaposlovanja najnižjo vrednost na Danskem, in sicer 7, sledi Avstrija z indeksom 14, nato Švedska z indeksom 32 ter kot najslabša Nizozemska z indeksom 42. Torej so imeli v letu 2008 najmanj togo zaposlitveno zakonodajo med izbranimi državami na Danskem in najbolj togo na Nizozemskem.

**Tabela 6: Primerjava kazalnikov zaposlovanja v izbranih državah v letu 2009**

| Država | Indeks težavnosti zaposlovanja (0–100) | Indeks togosti delovnih ur (0–100) | Indeks težavnosti odpuščanja (0–100) | Indeks togosti zaposlovanja (0–100) | Stroški zaposlovanja (tedenska plača) |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Danska | 0 | 20 | 0 | 7 | 0 |
| Nizozemska | 17 | 40 | 70 | 42 | 17 |
| Švedska | 33 | 40 | 40 | 38 | 26 |
| Avstrija | 0 | 33 | 40 | 24 | 2 |

V letu 2009 so spremembe kazalnikov zaposlovanja, ki jih meri Svetovna banka, nastale le na Švedskem, kjer je vrednost indeksa težavnosti zaposlovanja s 17 narastla na 33, vrednost indeksa težavnosti odpuščanja je ostala nespremenjena 40, vrednost indeksa togosti zaposlovanja pa je z 32 narastla na 38, kar pomeni, da je zaposlitvena zakonodaja, v primerjavi z letom 2008, postala nekoliko bolj toga.

V letu 2010 so spremembe kazalnikov zaposlovanja, ki jih meri Svetovna banka, v primerjanih državah ostale nespremenjene.

**Tabela 7: Primerjava kazalnikov zaposlovanja v izbranih državah v letu 2010**

| Država | Indeks težavnosti zaposlovanja | Indeks togosti delovnih ur | Indeks težavnosti odpuščanja | Indeks togosti zaposlovanja | Stroški zaposlovanja (tedenska plača) |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Danska | 0 | 20 | 0 | 7 | 0 |
| Nizozemska | 17 | 40 | 70 | 42 | 17 |
| Švedska | 33 | 40 | 40 | 38 | 26 |
| Avstrija | 0 | 33 | 40 | 24 | 2 |

Izvedena analiza in primerjava kazalnikov zaposlovanja je pokazala, da je imela v času zadnje gospodarske krize najmanj togo delovno zakonodajo Danska, prav tako pa se je tudi stopnja brezposelnosti v tem času najmanj zvišala prav v omenjeni državi. Iz tega lahko sklepamo, da uvedeni koncept varne prožnosti na Danskem uspešno deluje. Uspeh danskega koncepta varne prožnosti je namreč rezultat edinstvene kombinacije prožnosti, socialne varnosti in aktivnih programov trga dela. Tudi na Danskem vsakodnevno ostane veliko število ljudi brezposelnih, vendar danski koncept varne prožnosti mogoča, da se večina brezposelnih vrne na delo po kratkem obdobju brezposelnosti, tistim, ki imajo težave z zaposlitvijo, pa pomagajo z aktivnimi programi na trgu dela.

Uvedba koncepta varne prožnosti torej omogoča zmanjšanje brezposelnosti, predvsem zaradi zmanjšanja ovir pri zaposlovanju, zagotavljanju razvoja potrebnih znanj, sposobnosti, zmožnosti ter kompetenc človeških virov, učinkovitih programov aktivne politike zaposlovanja, ohranjanja in ustvarjanja novih delovnih mest ter zagotavljanja zadostne dohodkovne podpore brezposelnih.

## 6 Zaključek

V času recesije je pomen pravšnjega razmerja med prožnostjo in varnostjo še bolj v ospredju, saj lahko prevelika prožnost pripelje do velikih socialnih sprememb, prevelika varnost pa povzroči togost trga dela in s tem ovira prilagajanje zaposlenosti razmeram v gospodarstvu.

Kot odziv na zadnjo gospodarsko krizo so države sprejele različne ukrepe z namenom preprečevanja izgube delovnih mest. Države so tako: posodobile delovanje zavodov za zaposlovanje in zaposlile ljudi, za uspešno in učinkovito svetovanje in pomoč brezposelnim; izvedle programe aktivne politike zaposlovanja, ki zajemajo programe izobraževanja in usposabljanja brezposelnih in zaposlenih, programe za spodbujanje zaposlovanja in ustvarjanje delovnih mest in programe pomoči pri iskanju zaposlitve; uvedle spodbude za fleksibilni delovni čas in krajšanje delovnega časa; povečale dostopnost do nadomestil za brezposelnost; spodbujale zaposlovanje in vključevanje brezposelnih z zmanjševanjem stroškov dela, s spremembami obdavčevanja in sistema socialnih transferjev; uvedle spremembe na področju zavarovanja za primer brezposelnosti, pri čemer so povečale trajanje prejemanja nadomestila ali omilile pogoje za dostop do nadomestila za brezposelnost in drugo. Pri uvajanju sprememb je bilo bistveno, da so bili sprejeti ukrepi predvsem pravočasni ter osredotočeni na ciljne skupine.

Države bi morale slediti vzoru držav, ki so na področju varne prožnosti do sedaj naredile že veliko, ter zagotoviti prožno zaposlovanje, ki bi omogočalo hitro prilagajanje potrebam trga dela in s tem konkurenčnost; uveljaviti bi bilo treba sistem socialne varnosti, ki bi preprečeval, da bi visoka mobilnost zaposlenih povzročala občutek negotovosti ali marginalizacijo, ter sprejeti aktivno politiko zaposlovanja, ki bi temeljila na usposabljanju in izobraževanju kot temelju zaposljivosti. Pri uvedbi koncepta varne prožnosti pa bi bilo treba upoštevati potrebe in specifičnosti trga dela ter ureditev prilagoditi družbenemu, socialnemu, gospodarskemu, zgodovinskemu, kulturnemu kontekstu in potrebam, saj enostavno kopiranje konceptov uspešnih držav, prav zaradi že omenjenih razlogov ne more prinesti pozitivnih učinkov.

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SUMMARY

# ANALYSIS OF UNEMPLOYMENT AT THE TIME OF THE ECONOMIC CRISIS IN SOME OF THE COUNTRIES WITH ESTABLISHED FLEXICURITY CONCEPT

The crisis or a situation when economy development conditions begin to deteriorate, impacts on many people. Employees want to have as high social security as possible, organisations on the other hand want to quickly react to unexpected changes in demand, to adapt to new technologies and other changes, they need a flexible working legislation that would allow them also to adjust the number of employees.

The Scandinavian countries are leaders in the field of spatial relationships between labour market flexibility and social security of employees (so-called flexicurity). Despite the differences in economic conditions the reforms introduced in various countries over the past two decades, contributed to reduce unemployment and stimulated productivity growth. The article presents some examples of the flexicurity concepts in three Scandinavian countries (Denmark, the Netherlands and Sweden) and in Austria, which is geographically and culturally similar to Slovenia, illustrated by the analysis and comparison of unemployment and employment indicators during the recent economic crisis.

In response to the economic crisis, countries have adopted various measures to prevent job loss. They follow the change of employment rate and offer a successful and effective advice or assistance to the unemployed, they implement active employment policy programs, including education and training of unemployed and programs to promote job creation and assistance programs in job search, they introduce incentives for flexible working hours and reduced working time, they enhance access to unemployment benefit and they promote the employment of unemployed persons by reducing labour costs, changes in tax and social transfer system, they introduce changes in unemployment insurance, and increase the duration of compensation or relax the conditions for access to unemployment benefits. When introducing change it is essential that the measures are timely and focused on target groups.

The central message of the European Employment Summit in May 2009 was that during the recession, the importance of perfect balance between flexibility and security must be in the forefront; too much flexibility will lead to excessive social change, increased security on the other hand will lead to labour market rigidities and thus hinder adjustment of employment conditions in the economy.

The paper presents the characteristics of the countries that in the field of flexicurity have already done a lot, with a view to determining what effect the concept of flexicurity has in times of crisis. The paper shows an analysis of employment indicators calculated by the World Bank. The unemployment rate in each country is presented by the organisation of the Economist Intelligence Unit. Indicators of employment are based on a detailed study of employment laws, regulations and other acts.

The analysis and comparison of the employment indicators show that during the last economic crisis Denmark has had the least rigid labour laws and also the least increasing unemployment rate. Therefore it can be concluded that the flexicurity concept in Denmark has been operating successfully. The success of the Danish flexicurity concept is the result of a unique combination of flexibility, social protection and active labour market programs. In Denmark, many people lose their job, but the Danish flexicurity concept allows that most of the unemployed return to work after a short period of unemployment, those who remain unemployed are helped with active labour market programs.

The introduction of the flexicurity concept allows a reduction of unemployment, mainly due to the reduction of employment barriers, ensuring the development of necessary knowledge, skills, abilities and competencies of human resources, preserving effective active employment policy programs and creating new jobs and ensuring adequate income support for unemployed people.

Countries should follow the example of those that in the field of flexicurity already managed to introduce flexible employment, allowing a rapid adaptation to the needs of the labour market. The social security system should assure a high staff mobility, without causing a feeling of insecurity or marginalisation; it should take an active employment policy, based on training and education as the foundation of employability. The flexicurity concept must account for the needs and specificities of the labour market and organisations and adapt social, economic, historical, cultural context and needs.

*1.04 Strokovni članek*

# Moški in zaposlovanje v predšolski vzgoji

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IZVLEČEK

**Strokovnjaki opozarjajo na problem zaposlovanjna moških v predšolski vzgoji, ki je problem tako v slovenski kot širši družbi. Zaradi patrialhalnega pogleda na svet in delitve na "moško in žensko" delo ter predsodkov in stereotipnih predstav, se moški ne odločajo za zaposlovanje v predšolski vzgoji, saj v takem poklicu veliko izgubijo in malo pridobijo. Evropska Unija bi želela moške veliko bolj aktivno vključiti v ta segment dela, zato si je postavila ambiciozni cilj 20 % moških zaposlenih v predšolski vzgoji in izobraževanju[1]. Te številke niso bile dosežene, število zaposlenih moških je med 1 % in 2 %. V prispevku je prikazano stanje v svetu in stanje v Sloveniji. Predstavljeni so izsledki ankete o mnenju uporabnikov storitev in zaposlenih o tej problematiki.**

*Ključne besede: diskriminacija, moški delavci v predšolski vzgoji*

*JEL: I21*

## 1 Uvod

Med branjem literature na temo *Human resource management* (upravljanje človeških virov) sem zasledila članke (Bailyn, 2003; Walby, 2004; Stratigaki, 2004), ki opozarjajo na probleme spolne diskriminacije pri zaposlovanju. Vedno poudarjamo diskriminacijo žensk, medtem ko se o diskriminaciji moških ne govori. O tem, kako so ženske vključene v zaposlovanje in kakšen je njihov status je bilo napisanih veliko študij[2],

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1 *The European Commission Network on Childcare*; leta 1996 so v Mreži za varstvo otrok postavili kot cilj št. 29 20 % udeležbo moških v predšolski vzgoji. Ta cilj naj bi dosegli do leta 2006.

2 International Labour Organization (2010): *Women in labour markets: Measuring progress and identifying challenges*; *Resolucija o nacionalnem programu za enake možnosti žensk in moških (2005-2013)*, Ur.l. RS, št. 100/2005; *Gender Loops Toolbox for gender-conscious and equitable early childhood centres,* dostopno na:

s tem problemom se ukvarja kar nekaj organizacij[3]. Med iskanjem literature sem ugotovila, da se tudi moški srečujejo z diskriminacijo pri zaposlovanju, zato bom v nadaljevanju predstavila zaposlovanje moških v predšolski vzgoji. Da bi izvedela, kaj meni slovenska javnost o zaposlovanju moških na predšolski vzgoji, sem med zaposlenimi v predšolski vzgoji in uporabniki storitev izvedla anketo.

Strokovnjaki na ravni EU ugotavljajo, da se vedno več žensk odloča za "moške" poklice, saj jim ti prinašajo boljši status in več denarja, hkrati se vedno manj odločajo za poklice nege in vzgoje (Jensen v Peeters, 2007). Moški, ki bi želeli delati v "ženskih" poklicih, se znajdejo pred velikimi izzivi, ki jim ne prinašajo niti statusa niti denarja. Slovenska ustava[4] vsem ženskam in moškim zagotavlja svobodo dela, prosto izbiro zaposlitve in dostopnost do vseh delovnih mest. Tudi eden od ciljev Nacionalnega programa razvoja trga dela in zaposlovanja[5] se osredotoča na povečanje enakih možnosti žensk pri iskanju zaposlitve, pri vstopu v zaposlitev, pri napredovanju, izobraževanju in usposabljanju, podjetništvu ter dostopu do pravic in ugodnosti iz delovnega razmerja. Z vidika enakih možnosti spolov je zelo pomembna tudi strukturna enakost znotraj učiteljskega oziroma izobraževalnega poklica. Mnenje učiteljev o moškem in ženskem "načinu" je ključnega pomena za njihove odnose z učenci in je lahko pomemben dejavnik pri ustvarjanju enakosti spolov v šolah. Spolne stereotipe bi bilo treba okrepiti ali oslabiti z besedilom v knjigah in gradivu za šolsko branje (Education, Audiovisual and Culture Executive Agency, 2010). Šolske in predšolske vsebine in način podajanja teh vsebin lahko utrjujejo prevladujoče stereotipe o vlogah žensk in moških v

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www.genderloops.eu; *Gender Differences in Educational Outcomes: Study on the Measures* Taken and the Current Situation in Europe, dostopno na: http://www.eurydice.org.

**3** International Labour Organization; Evropska komisija; Education, Audiovisual and Culture Executive Agency

**4** V 14. členu Ustave Republike Slovenije je določeno, da so v Sloveniji vsakomur zagotovljene enake človekove pravice in temeljne svoboščine, ne glede na narodnost, raso spol, jezik, vero, politično ali drugo prepričanje, gmotno stanje, rojstvo, izobrazbo, družbeni položaj ali katerokoli drugo osebno okoliščino. Pred zakonom so vsi enaki. (Ustava Republike Slovenije. Ur. l. RS, št. 33I/1991-I, Ur. l. RS, št. 42/1997, 66/2000, 24/2003, 69/2004, 69/2004, 69/2004, 68/2006).

**5** Nacionalni program trga dela in zaposlovanja do leta 2006, Uradni list RS, št. 92-4597/2001.

družbi ali pa služijo kot vstopna točka za njihovo preseganje in spremembo. Kot kažejo nekatere raziskave[6], učni programi in učbeniki vloge spolov večinoma upodabljajo zelo rigidno in stereotipno. Ženske se večinoma pojavljajo v vlogah mater, gospodinj, skrbnic, prevladujejo pa lastnosti kot so čustvenost in stereotipna lepota, na drugi strani pa pasivnost, zlo in škodoželjnost. Pri moških so pomembne lastnosti kot so moč in postavnost, intelektualna dejavnost, predstavljeni so kot junaki, kralji in vladarji, med negativnimi stereotipi pa so preklinjanje, pretepanje, pijančevanje td. (Vlada RS, Urad za enake možnosti, 2005). Po podatkih Analize stanja Urada za enake možnosti med strokovnim osebjem tudi v slovenskih vrtcih in osnovnih šolah prevladujejo ženske. Zanimiv je podatek, da se delež moških povečuje z višanjem stopnje izobraževanja. Delež žensk med osebjem za nego in vzgojo v vrtcih je 98,3 %, med strokovnimi delavkami in delavci v osnovnih šolah je 85,8 %, žensk na srednješolski stopnji 65,4 %, v visokošolskih zavodih pa je med strokovnim osebjem le 36,7 % žensk. Glede na pretežno žensko strukturo vzgojiteljskega in učiteljskega kadra je očitno močno nesorazmerje med ženskami in moškimi na vodstvenih položajih. Na osnovnih šolah je 44 % ravnateljic, na srednjih 40,2 %, na fakultetah pa je manj kot 10 % dekanic[7]. Nesorazmerje med zaposlenimi na nivoju visokega šolstva je prikazano v tabeli 1.

Kot podlaga za zakonske in sistemske spremembe izobraževalnega sistema v Sloveniji, je služila Bela knjiga o vzgoji in izobraževanju v RS[8], ki v temeljnih načelih opredeljuje enake možnosti in nediskriminiranost ter možnost izbire in spodbujanje izvrstnosti. Tudi eno od načel sistemske in kurikularne prenove v Slovenij so enake možnosti vzgoje in izobraževanja glede na spol. Podlago za sistematično uvedbo izobraževanja za enakost

**6** Različne analize so nastale v okviru raziskovalnega projekta Jezik in spolna razlika I.: Podoba ženske v učbenikih in literaturi. Pedagoški inštitut in ISH – Fakulteta za podiplomski humanistični študij. 1996–1998. Glej tudi: Women in Transition. The MONEE Project CEE/CIS/Baltics Regional Monitoring Report No. 6. UNICEF, 1999

**7** Podatki za leto 2001. Po podatkih Statističnega urada Slovenije med visokošolskimi učitelji še vedno prevladujejo moški. Med visokošolskimi učitelji, zaposlenimi za polni delovni čas, je bilo v v študijskem letu 2009/10 35,3 % žensk, to je za 3,3 odstotnih točk več kot pred petimi leti. Na višjih strokovnih šolah je razmerje med spoloma bolj izenačeno, med predavatelji, ki so zaposleni za polni delovni čas, je namreč skoraj polovica žensk. Vir: SURS, 2010. Pedagoško osebje na visokošolskih zavodih in višjih strokovnih šolah, Slovenija, študijsko leto 2009/10 – končni podatki

**8** Bela knjiga o vzgoji in izobraževanju v Republiki Sloveniji. Ministrstvo za šolstvo, znanost in šport. 1995 spolov na vseh ravneh šolanja in izobraževanja ter s tem postopno odpravljanje stereotipne miselnosti o vlogah spolov v družbi daje Zakon o enakih možnostih žensk in moških[9], saj določa, da je izobraževanje za enakost spolov sestavni del sistema vzgoje in izobraževanja ter poklicnega usposabljanja, ki med drugim vključuje pripravo obeh spolov za aktivno in enako sodelovanje na vseh področjih družbenega življenja. Na področju visokega šolstva ter znanosti in raziskovanja sta temeljna dokumenta državne politike Nacionalni program visokega šolstva RS[10] in Nacionalni raziskovalni program[11], ki pa v svoje dokumente, programske cilje in ukrepe ne vključujeta načela enakosti spolov.

**Tabela 1: Skupno število visokošolskih učiteljev in visokošolskih sodelavcev ter znanstvenih delavcev, ki poučujejo ali sodelujejo v pedagoškem procesu na visokošolskih zavodih v Republiki Sloveniji od leta 2002 do 2008**

| Leto | 2002 | 2003 | 2004 | 2005 | 2006 | 2007 | 2008 |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Skupaj zaposleni | 5.162 | 5.673 | 6.137 | 6.896 | 7.273 | 7.547 | 7.580 |
| Od tega ženske | 1.892 | 2.031 | 2.234 | 2.584 | 2.818 | 3.023 | 2.852 |

Vir: MVZT 2010

## 2 Diskriminacija, stereotipi

Diskriminacija je eden od najpogosteje uporabljenih terminov v kontekstu razprav o človekovih pravicah, neenakosti in zaščiti manjšin. Beseda izvira iz latinske besede "discriminare", kar pomeni "medsebojno ločevanje". V izvornem pomenu diskriminacija pomeni ločevanje med različnimi možnostmi, pomeni dajati prednost določeni izbiri, pa naj gre za osebo ali predmet (Harper, 2001). Če v pravnem pomenu diskriminacijo lahko označimo kot z zakonom prepovedano neenako obravnavanje osebe ali skupine v primerjavi z drugo osebo ali skupino zaradi ene ali več osebnih okoliščin, pa je v širšem sociološkem smislu diskriminacija oblika družbene prakse, ki praviloma temelji na predsodkih

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**9** Zakon o enakih možnostih žensk in moških (ZEMŽM) Ur.l. RS, št. 59/2002 Spremembe: Ur.l. RS, št. 61/2007-ZUNEO-A

**10** Nacionalni program visokega šolstva Republike Slovenije (NPVS) Ur.l. RS, št. 20/2002

**11** Nacionalni raziskovalni program Ur.l. RS, št. 8/1995 in stereotipih, globoko zakoreninjenih v kulturi družbe (Kuhar, 2009, str. 14–16). Kuhar (2009, str. 36–37) poudarja, da se razlogi za diskriminacijo skrivajo v razlogih za nestrpnost, pri čemer ključno vlogo odigrajo predsodki in stereotipi, ki so oblike kognitivnih oziroma miselnih shem, s katerimi si urejamo razvejanost vsakdanjega življenja. Stereotipi so tipizirane sodbe, v katerih niso upoštevane individualne razlike med posamezniki, pač pa ljudi na osnovi delnih in površinskih sodb razvrščajo v posamezne skupine. Kuhar (2009, str. 36–37) ugotavlja, da stereotipi vodijo do dveh vrst napak: ljudi, o katerih imamo stereotipne predstave, obravnavamo kot bolj podobne skupini, ki ji pripadajo, in kot bolj različne od članov drugih skupin, kot v resnici so. Druga napaka, ki je hkrati izhodišče diskriminatorne obravnave, pa je ta, da praviloma skupino, ki ji pripadamo, ocenjujemo kot boljšo od tistih, ki jim ne pripadamo.

V Eurydice[12] poudarjajo, da raziskave kažejo, da je težko ločiti med prirojenim in naučenim vedenjem, ali razumeti, v kolikšni meri vplivajo stereotipne predstave na posameznikovo dojemanje vedenjskih in kognitivnih spolnih razlik. Razlike med spoloma so majhne v primerjavi podobnostmi, ki so med njima. V Eurydice opozarjajo tudi na to, da so v večini evropskih držav zaskrbljeni zaradi neenakosti med spoloma v izobraževanju. Vendar pa se zakonodajni in politični okviri za reševanje te neenakosti med državami močno razlikujejo. Po eni strani se razlikujejo glede stopnje, do katere so koncepti enakost spolov vgrajeni v zakonodajne akte, po drugi strani pa se lahko okvir enakosti med spoloma osredotoča na različne koncepte, ki so povezani z enakim obravnavanjem in enakimi možnostmi.

## 3 Stanje v zaposlovanju na predšolski vzgoji – izkušnje Evropske unije

Strokovnjaki[13] ugotavljajo, da je po vsej Evropi le nekaj središč, kjer moški sestavljajo velik del delovne sile v predšolski vzgoji. V večini

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**12** Education, Audiovisual and Culture Executive, 2010. *Agency Gender Differences in Educational Outcomes: Study on the Measures Taken and the Current Situation in Europe* (http://www.eurydice.org).

**13** Leta 1993 je Mreža za varstvo otrok (Childcare Network) povabila v Ravenno (Italija) evropske strokovjake, da bi da bi razpravljali o vlogi moških kot negovalcih otrok. Strokovnjaki so se strinjali, da bi ukrepi za večje vključevanje očetov v skrb za majhne otroke imeli malo učinka, če ne bi bilo moških zaposlenih v otroškem varstvu. Moški kot strokovnjaki za otroke, so lahko vzor mladim očetom, vrtci pa imajo pomembno vlogo pri nastajanju nove kulture otroškega varstva; kulture v kateri je prostor tudi za moške.

evropskih držav je na tem področju moških delavcev v med 1 % in 3 % (Peeters, 2007). Zato so na ravni EU želeli poiskati najboljši pristop, ki bi pripomogel k drastičnemu povečanju zaposlovanja moških v sektorju predšolske vzgoje in varstva (Peeters, 2007).

Jensen (Jensen v Peeters, 2007) ugotavlja, da so se številne pobude in akcije, ki ciljajo na zaposlovanje moških v sektorju predšolske vzgoje in varstva, razvile predvsem v nordijskih državah. V začetku devetdesetih let je bila pri tem dokaj uspešna Danska, ki je v starostnem obdobju od 0 do 3 let dosegla 5 % zaposlenosti moških, v starostnem obdobju od 3 do 6 let 9 % zaposlenosti moških, in 25 % zaposlenosti moških v izven šolskih centrih.

Dejavnost Mreže za varstvo otrok, ki je potekala pod okriljem Evropske komisije, so leta 1996 ustavili, vendar je vprašanje spola pri zaposlovanju v zgodnjem varstvu in izobraževanju otrok v politični agendi v več evropskih državah[14]. Evropski socialni sklad financira v državah članicah več projektov, s katerimi naj bi privabili moške na delovna mesta v vzgoji in izobraževanju otrok v zgodnjem otroštvu. Projekt "Moški v Skrbi za otroke" (*Mannen voor Kinderopvang*), ki je potekal od leta 2001 do leta 2003 v Belgiji, je primer programa, ki ga je financiral Evropski socialni sklad. Vendar pa je bilo zaslediti še druge [15] nacionalne programe, ki so jih financirale posamezne držav, v katerih so bili sprejeti tudi ustrezni ukrepi in akcije.

Kljub osredotočenosti na vprašanje spola vseevropski cilj 20 % moških zaposlenih v predšolski vzgoji in izobraževanju ni bil dosežen v nobeni od držav članic EU. Na Danskem, ki je imela v devetdesetih letih najvišje število moških zaposlenih v otroškem varstvu, se je to število v starostnem obdobju od 0 do 3 let dejansko zmanjšalo s 5 % na 3 %.

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**14** Kot je navedeno kasneje, želi kar nekaj evropskih držav vključiti večje število moških v predšolsko vzgojo. Med njimi prednjačijo: Danska, Norveška, Anglija, Nemčija in Španija.

**15** Norveška: *An Action Plan for Gender Equality in Kindergarten and Basic Education 2008–2010*; Nemčija: *Qualification for unemployed men and men interested in retraining in Brandenburg*; EU-Leonardo Da Vinci program: *The Gender Loops project*, projekt je potekal med 1. 10. 2006 in 30. 9. 2008 s pomočjo partnerskih organizacij iz Nemčije, Norveške, Španije, Turčije in Litve; Evropska Komisija je financirala projekt: Gender Loops – Gender reform of the curriculum, poročilo projekta je bilo objavljeno leta 2008; Belgija: *Research project: the gender bias in the initial childcare training in Flanders*, Belgium 2006-2008, Vandenbroeck, M., Peeters, J. (2008); Anglija: *Men in Early Childhood UK* (MiECUK): A National Network for Men in Early Childhood (podatki in poročila projektov so dostopni na: http://www.meninchildcare.com/global)

Ženske so nadpovprečno zastopane tako v zgodnjem otroškem varstvu in izobraževanju kot tudi v osnovnem šolstvu. Na Nizozemskem je 85 % učiteljev žensk, v Veliki Britaniji jih je 86 % in na Danskem 76 % (Peeters, 2007).

Moss (Moss v Peeters, 2007) v skladu s tem ugotavlja, da je razlikovanje (diskriminacija) po spolu, pri zaposlovanju na tem področju povezano s starostjo otrok: mlajši kot je otrok, večje je razlikovanje po spolu.

Simpson (Simpson v Peeters, 2007) ugotavlja, da ženske opravljajo moške poklice, saj ti ponujajo prestiž, višjo plačo in priložnosti za napredovanje, moški pa bi v netradicionalnih poklicih manj pridobili in veliko izgubili (slabša plača in status, kot tudi porajajoče se vprašanje moškosti in primernosti za delovno mesto). Čeprav igrajo plača in delovni pogoji pomembno vlogo, to niso glavni razlogi za to, da se moški ne odločajo za ta poklic. V več državah z visoko stopnjo strokovnosti, kot so Nova Zelandija, Danska in Švedska, je delovna sila še vedno zelo deljena po spolu. Tudi visoka raven strokovnosti ne vodi k po spolu mešani delovni sili (Peeters, 2007). Trenutno je na Novi Zelandiji malo manj kot 1 % moških, ki so zaposleni v predšolski vzgoji. To je najnižje zabeležena številka in pričakuje se, da se bo delež moških, še zmanjšal (Farquhar et al., 2006).

Cameron, Moss in Owen (v Peeters, 2007) ugotavljajo, da so bile v preteklosti v predšolsko otroško varstvo in izobraževanje vključene le ženske zato, ker so to delo videli in dojemali kot "žensko delo", ki ga imajo ženske že v svoji naravi. Dodaten razlog je v tem, da po spolu predpostavljeno delo zaposljuje le žensko delovno silo in s tem stalno ponavlja vzorce zaposlovanja in usposabljanja. Poklicno ali volontersko otroško varstvo se je obravnavalo kot delo žensk, nekaj, kar ženske naravno počnejo in zato to delo opravljajo bolje. Zgodnje otroško varstvo in izobraževanje v Evropi je temeljilo na konceptu posebno pozorne "matere negovalke", kar je po mnenju Cameron, Moss in Owen (v Peeters, 2007) glavni razlog za izredno majhno število moških v predšolski vzgoji in izobraževanju. V naši družbi še danes očetje niso "ocenjeni" glede na vlogo, ki jo imajo pri vzgoji otrok (to je še vedno naloga matere). V Mreži za varstvo otrok ugotavljajo, da je pojem "spolne identitete" zgrajen na podlagi razlik, ki temelji na označevanje drugih kot drugačnih in zato uporablja načelo izključitve: moški se razlikuje od ženske (Mreža za varstvo otrok v Peeters, 2007).

Pomembno je, da vse ustrezne organizacije in institucije[16] sodelujejo pri ukrepih za spremembo ravnotežja med spoloma. Da bi dosegli spremembe, so potrebne pobude na vseh ravneh: na ravni politike, medijskih kampanj, ukrepi za delodajalce pri zaposlovanju, ustrezne spodbude in ukrepi v izobraževalnih ustanovah.

V devetdesetih letih je bila Danska vlada prva, ki je vprašanje spola v sektorju zgodnjega otroštva postavila na politični dnevni red. Britanska vlada je v letu 2000 sprožila nacionalno akcijo Zaposlovanje v otroškem varstvu, ki je bila usmerjena na moške, z osnovnim ciljem 6 % moških delavcev do leta 2004. Vendar do sedaj cilj 6 % ni bil dosežen. Norveška vlada je bila na tem področju uspešnejša. Kljub temu 20 % moških v sektorju otroškega varstva niso dosegli. Konec leta 2006 je bilo na Norveškem v sektorju otroškega varstva zaposlenih 9 % moških, kar je bil najboljši rezultat v Evropi (Johanssen v Peeters, 2007).

Strokovnjaki se strinjajo, da je pomembno povečati poklicni status otroškega varstva, s poudarkom na usposabljanju in usposobljenosti. Po njihovem mnenju je eden od faktorjev, ki v predšolsko vzgojo in izobraževanje ne privablja moške delovne sile, tudi plača. Vendar je v Skandinavskih državah in v Belgiji – kjer vzgojitelji v vrtcih (2,5 do 6 let) zaslužijo enako plačo kot učitelji v srednjih šolah – več kot 90 % delovne sile še vedno ženskega spola. Farquhar (Farquhar et al., 2006) ugotavlja, da je boljše plačilo pomemben pogoj, vendar to ni dovolj, da bi spremenili ravnovesje med spoloma.

Nacionalne kampanje, naravnane na to, da bi pritegnili več moških, so bile uspešne na Danskem, Norveškem, v Združenem kraljestvu in Belgiji. V flamskem delu Belgije je kampanja povečala število moških, ki delajo v otroškem varstvu, iz 0,9 % pred kampanjo na 2,08 % v letu 2005 in na 2,3 % v letu 2006 (od 142 moških v letu 2002 na 415 moških v letu 2006) (Kind en Gezin v Peeters, 2007).

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**16** Ministrstvo za šolstvo in šport (oziroma druga ministrstva pristojna za vzgojo in izobraževanje), izobraževalne institucije (srednješolske in visokošolske institucije, ki se ukvarjajo z izobraževanjem kadrov za predšolsko vzgojo lahko s promocijo in pripravo programov, ki bi pritegnili tudi moške, vplivajo na spremembo ravnotežja med vpisanimi dijaki/študenti), vrtci (organizacije, ki izvajajo predšolsko vzgojo in izobraževanje lahko vplivajo na spremembo zaposlitvene strukture)

## 4 Stanje v Sloveniji

Če trdimo, da upravljanje človeških virov vključuje delovanje izbirnih postopkov pri zaposlovanju, uvajanje nagrajevanja in spodbud ter predvsem upravljanje razvoja in usposabljanja, pridobivanje in skrb za talente, učenje in razvoj, je zelo pomembno, kaj organizacija opredeli kot svoj "človeški potencial". Koga bodo izbrali kot ustreznega kandidata in kako bodo načrtovali nadaljnji razvoj njegovih potencialov in talentov in ali bodo le-te sploh prepoznali. Ker je delo v vrtcih po svoje specifično, saj zaposleni vzgajajo in izobražujejo prihodnje "človeške potenciale", bi se morali vprašati, kdo je tisti, ki bo znal svoje znanje in talente prenesti na prihodnje rodove. Ali so res samo ženske tega sposobne? Ali imajo samo ženske res vsa "ustrezna" znanja, sposobnosti in talente? Ali pa lahko trdimo, da bi z vključitvijo čim večjega števila moških lahko otrokom dali kar največ? Vrtci so tudi idealno področje, kjer se lahko prične odpravljati stereotipe, otroci pa imajo neki notranji senzor in so na različnost zelo pozorni in občutljivi[17].

Da bi ugotovila, kakšno je stanje v predšolski vzgoji v Sloveniji, sem poiskala statistične podatke in za informacije prosila tudi slovenske univerze, ki izvajajo programe predšolske vzgoje. Na mojo prošnjo se je odzvala le Univerza na Primorskem in mi posredovala podatke o številu vpisanih študentov na tej smeri. Po podatkih PF Univerze na Primorskem je v letošnjem letu (2010) vpisanih na smeri predšolska vzgoja 7 moških študentov, v letu 2009 sta na tej smeri diplomirala 2 študenta, leta 2008 pa 3 (Univerza na Primorskem, Pedagoška fakulteta Koper. Krmac, L. Samostojna strokovna delavka za kadrovske zadeve).

V tabeli 2 je predstavljena razlika v številu moških in ženskih vzgojiteljev in pomočnikov vzgojiteljev. Še posebaj je to odstopanje veliko v prvem starostnem obdobju (od 11 mesecev do 3 let starosti otrok), ko vidimo, da je zaposlenih čez 1.000 vzgojiteljic in 5 vzgojiteljev. Nekoliko več je pomočnikov vzgojitelja – to so običajno moški, ki so končali neko

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17 Vrtec je idealno okolje v katerem lahko vplivamo na odpravo tudi drugih oblik diskriminacije. Eden od ciljev Kurikula za vrtce je oblikovanje pogojev za večje izražanje in ozaveščanje skupinskih razlik (nediskriminiranost glede na spol, socialno in kulturno poreklo, svetovni nazor, narodno pripadnost, telesno in duševno konstitucijo). Kurikul za vrtce je nacionalni dokument, ki je namenjen zaposlenim v predšolski vzgoji in strokovnem načrtovanju kakovostne predšolske vzgoje. Celotno besedilo kurikula za vrtce je dostopno na:
http://www.mss.gov.si/fileadmin/mss.gov.si/pageuploads/podrocje/vrtci/pdf/vrtci_kur.pdf

drugo poklicno smer ter nato opravili prekvalifikacijo za delo pomočnika vzgojitelja.

**Tabela 2: Ševilo zaposlenih v predšolski vzgoji v Sloveniji v letih 2006–2008, po spolu**

| | 2006 | | | | 2007 | | | | 2008 | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | Vzgojitelj | | Pomočnik vzgojitelja | | Vzgojitelj | | Pomočnik vzgojitelja | | Vzgojitelj | | Pomočnik vzgojitelja | |
| | M | Ž | M | Ž | M | Ž | M | Ž | M | Ž | M | Ž |
| 1. starostno obdobje | 2 | 1.215 | 17 | 1.396 | 2 | 1.302 | 22 | 1.497 | 5 | 1.455 | 24 | 1.672 |
| 2. starostno obdobje | 14 | 2.375 | 58 | 2.269 | 13 | 2.457 | 69 | 2.346 | 17 | 2.516 | 76 | 2.458 |

Vir: SURS, 14. 05. 2010

Iz podatkov, pridobljenih na Statističnem uradu Republike Slovenije (SURS), lahko vidimo, da narašča število moških, ki se zaposlujejo v predšolski vzgoji, vendar je njihov procent zelo majhen (tabela 3). V primerjavi z državami EU, je ta procent (1,51 % v letu 2008) še vedno močno prenizek.

**Tabela 3: Odstotek moških zaposlenih v predšolski vzgoji v letih 2006–2008**

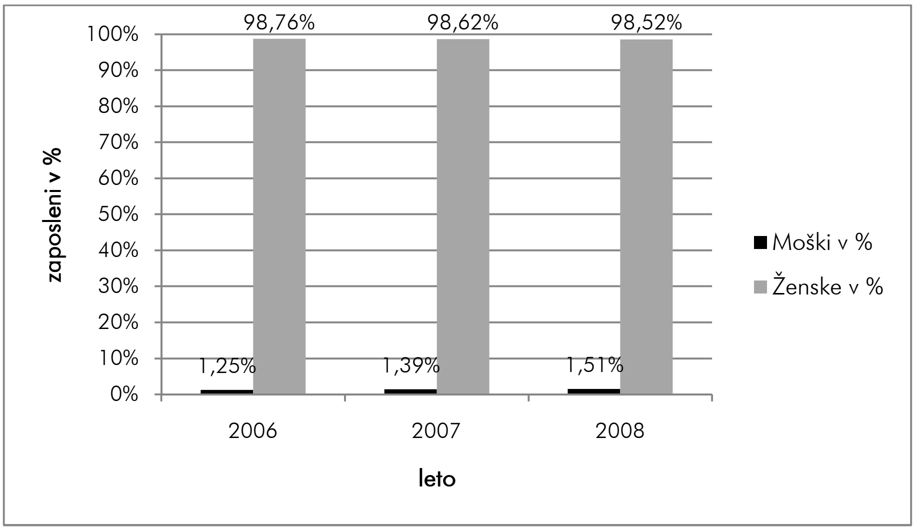
| Leto | Moški skupaj | Ženske skupaj | Skupaj zaposleni | Moški v % | Ženske v % |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| **2006** | 91 | 7.255 | 7.346 | 1,25 % | 98,76 % |
| **2007** | 106 | 7.602 | 7.708 | 1,39 % | 98,62 % |
| **2008** | 122 | 8.101 | 8.223 | 1,51 % | 98,52 % |

Vir: SURS, 14. 05. 2010

Sprejem in spoštovanje raznolikosti je bistvenega pomena. Reševanje diskriminacije s pomočjo prizadevanja vseh sodelavcev in z nadaljnjimi raziskavami je zato pomembna prednostna naloga, saj naj bi vzgojitelji v predšolski vzgoji prispevali k drugačnem videnju vlog spolov in tako prispevali k dolgoročnim družbenim spremembam.

Sama sem prepričana, da je zaposlovanje moških v predšolski vzgoji odvisno tudi od vodstva, torej menedžerjev v predšolski vzgoji. To so ženske, zato je pomembno, ali se pri zaposlovanju in kasneje, ko je delavec že zaposlen, odločajo na podlagi strokovnosti, znajo prisluhniti njihovim specifičnim problemom in jih znajo pomagati rešiti.

**Grafikon 1: Prikaz razmerja med zaposlenimi po spolu v %**




Vir: Tabela 3

Kot je razvidno iz tabele 4, je bilo v slovenskih vrtcih v šolskem letu 2009/10 zaposlenih 15 ravnateljev in 295 ravnateljic.

Craig d'Arcy (2004) je izpostavil nekaj izzivov, s katerimi se soočajo delodajalci:

- Starši (ki so v vlogi stranke, ki prejemajo storitev) izražajo strah ali negativen odnos do moških delavcev.
- Nekatere delavke še vedno vidijo predšolsko vzgojo kot področje "žensk", zato je zaposlovanje moškega in vključitev v žensko ekipo v taki situaciji težko.
- Obstajata dve strani (moška in ženska), kar je izziv za delodajalce. Moški delavec je lahko deležen dobronamernega in pokroviteljskega vedenja svojih sodelavk, zato je spoštovan član ekipe in je omogočena njegova strokovna rast. Po drugi strani pa je lahko moški v tem okolju onemogočen in se počuti izoliranega, kar mu povzroča frustracije in morda tudi njegov odstop/odpoved.

**Tabela 4: Strokovni delavci v vrtcih v šolskem letu 2009/10**

| | Skupaj | Moški | Ženske |
|---|---|---|---|
| Zaposleni | 9.501 | 185 | 9.316 |
| Vzgojitelji - skupaj | 4.300 | 27 | 4.273 |
| Vzgojitelji v oddelkih 1. starostnega obdobja | 1.639 | 4 | 1.635 |
| Vzgojitelji v oddelkih 2. starostnega obdobja | 2.661 | 23 | 2.638 |
| Pomočniki vzgojitelja - skupaj | 4.606 | 125 | 4.481 |
| Pomočniki vzgojitelja v oddelkih 1. starostnega obdobja | 1.937 | 32 | 105 |
| Pomočniki vzgojitelja v oddelkih 2. starostnega obdobja | 2.669 | 93 | 2.576 |
| Vodstveni delavci – ravnatelji | 310 | 15 | 295 |
| Svetovalni delavci | 109 | 4 | 105 |
| Drugi strokovni delavci | 176 | 14 | 162 |

Vir: SURS, 21.10.2010

Delodajalci morajo preučiti svojo politiko in prakso, da zagotovijo zaposlitev, ki bo moškim prijazna. V te ugotovitve bi morali vključiti odnos zaposlenih do moških, okolje, uporabo komunikacijskih metod storitev in vsega, kar bi bilo moškim v pomoč, da bi se počutili sprejeti (Farquhar et al. 2006).

Kot glavne razloge, zakaj moški niso zastopani kot zaposleni v predšolskem varstvu in vzgoji otrok, pa d'Arcy (2004) navaja:

- Negativni odzivi skupnosti, s katerimi se srečujejo moški, vključno strah pred obtožbo zlorabe otrok ali pa z označbo pedofil.
- Nizka plača in slabi delovni pogoji za varstvo otrok.
- Stereotipne ideje, da je poučevanje majhnih otrok le za ženske, ter sta predšolska vzgoja in izobraževanje le malo več kot varstvo. Sedanja podoba slika otroškega varstva v tem pogledu ni ugodna.
- Otroške vzgojno-varstvene ustanove in ustanove za usposabljanje izjavljajo, da bi želele vključiti moške, sprejeti pristopi pa pogosto kažejo na pomanjkanje razumevanja kako zaposliti, kako nuditi podporo in ohraniti moške kot delavce ali študente.

- Moški vzgojitelji so sprejeti kot novost, opaženi so zaradi njihovega spola, ne zaradi njihovega znanja/kvalifikacij.
- Moški vzgojitelji najdejo lahko izjemno majhno število drugih moških v poklicu, ki bi jih lahko imeli za vzor.

Poučevanje v evropskih državah je zelo ženski poklic zlasti na nižjih ravneh izobraževanja. Politike na področju izobraževanja učiteljev ne upoštevajo vidika enakosti spolov v dejavnosti, v okviru stalnega strokovnega razvoja učiteljev in ravnateljev šol. Usposabljanje za vprašanje enakosti med spoloma je v veliki meri odvisno od pobude posameznega učitelja. Skoraj vse politike in projekti za zagotovitev enakosti med spoloma so usmerjeni le na dekleta ali ženske (Gender Differences in Educational Outcomes, 2010). Wallaby (Wallaby v Gender Differences in Educational Outcomes, 2010) opozarja, da tudi zakonodaja v različnih državah članicah EU, temelji na že obstoječih tradicionalnih spolnih režimih, ki so odvisni od moči feminističnih lobijev. Tudi Evropska komisija (European Commission, 2009 v Gender Differences in Educational Outcomes, 2010) je opozorila na to, da se delitev družinskih obveznosti med moškimi in ženskami še vedno zelo razlikuje. Enakost kot izobraževalni cilj je v veliki meri pojav dvajsetega stoletja. Pred tem je bilo izobraževanje pojmovano kot sredstvo za pripravo različnih skupin za njihovo poslanstvo v življenju (kot je biti voditelji, birokrat, delavec in mati).

## 5 Moški in zaposlovanje v predšolski vzgoji v RS – rezultati ankete

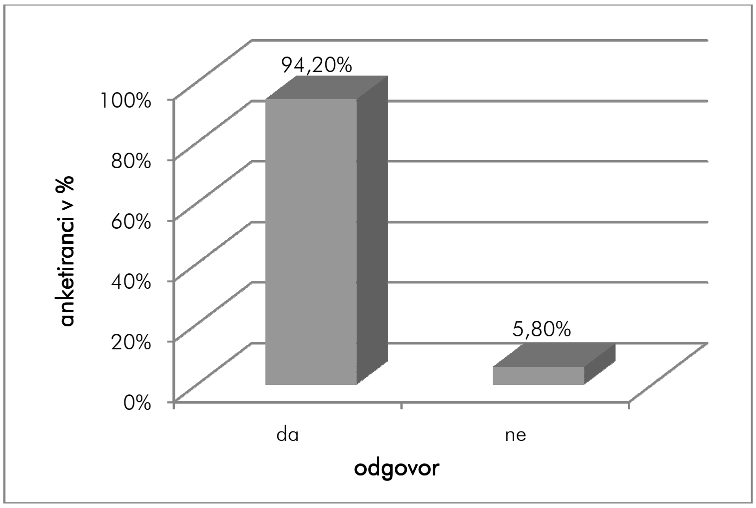
Ker sem želela ugotoviti, kaj o zaposlovanju moških v slovenske vrtce menijo tako zaposleni kot uporabniki storitev, sem izvedla anketo. Pripravila sem jo na podlagi ankete, ki sem jo zasledila v avstralskem članku "Tertiary students perceptions of male workers in the early childhood field in Australia" (Clyde, 1993). Anketirance sem razdelila na dve skupini in sicer po spolu, vendar je na ankete odgovarjala pretežno ženska populacija, zato primerjave odgovorov po spolu nisem upoštevala. Ankete sem razdelila 120 anketirancem, vrnilo pa jih je 114, kar pomeni 95 % anketiranih. V anketi sem postavila enaka vprašanja za vzgojiteljico in vzgojitelja, saj me je zanimalo, ali bodo odgovori/pričakovanja za ženske in moške zaposlene v predšolski vzgoji enaki ali različni.

Na prvo vprašanje: "Ali menite, da bi večja prisotnost moških vzgojiteljev pozitivno vplivala na vzgojo otrok?" je 94,2 % anketiranih odgovorilo, da bi večja prisotnost moških vzgojiteljev pozitivno vplivala na vzgojo otrok, po mnenju 5,8 % anketiranih pa večja prisotnost moških vzgojiteljev ne bi pozitivno vplivala na vzgojo otrok (grafikon 2).

Pri drugem vprašanju: "Če bi imeli možnost izbirati, v katero skupino boste vpisali svojega otroka, katero skupino bi izbrali?" so imeli anketiranci na izbiro odgovore: (a) tisto, ki jo vodita dve vzgojitejici ženskega spola; (b) tisto, ki jo vodi mešan vzgojiteljski par; (c) tisto, ki jo vodita dva vzgojiteja moškega spola, ali (d) bilo bi mi popolnoma vseeno, katerega spola so vzgojitelji/ce, ki vodijo skupino. Rezultati so prikazni v grafikonu 3.

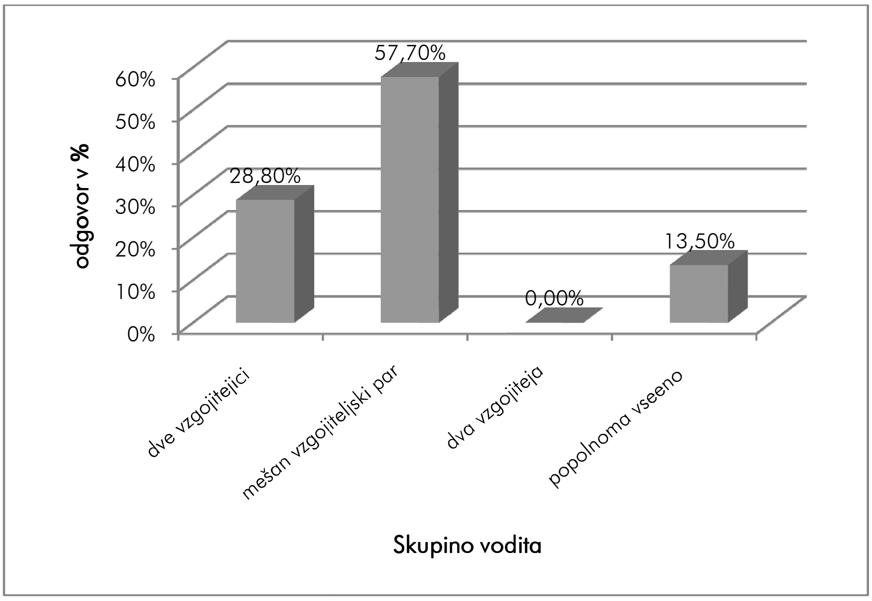
Največ anketiranih in sicer 57,7 % se je odločilo za odgovor (b) tisto, ki jo vodi mešan vzgojiteljski par. Za odgovor (a) tisto, ki jo vodita dve vzgojitejici ženskega spola, se je odločilo 28,8 % anketiranih. Za odgovor (d) bilo bi mi popolnoma vseeno, katerega spola so vzgojitelji/ce, ki vodijo skupino, pa se je odločilo 13,5 % anketiranih. Zanimivo je, da se niti eden od anketirancev ni odločil za možnost, da bi izbral skupino, ki jo vodita dva vzgojitelja.

**Grafikon 2: Večja prisotnost moških vzgojiteljev bi pozitivno vplivala na vzgojo otrok**




Vir: Odgovor št. 1

**Grafikon 3: V katero skupino bi vpisali svojega otroka**




Vir: Odgovor št. 2

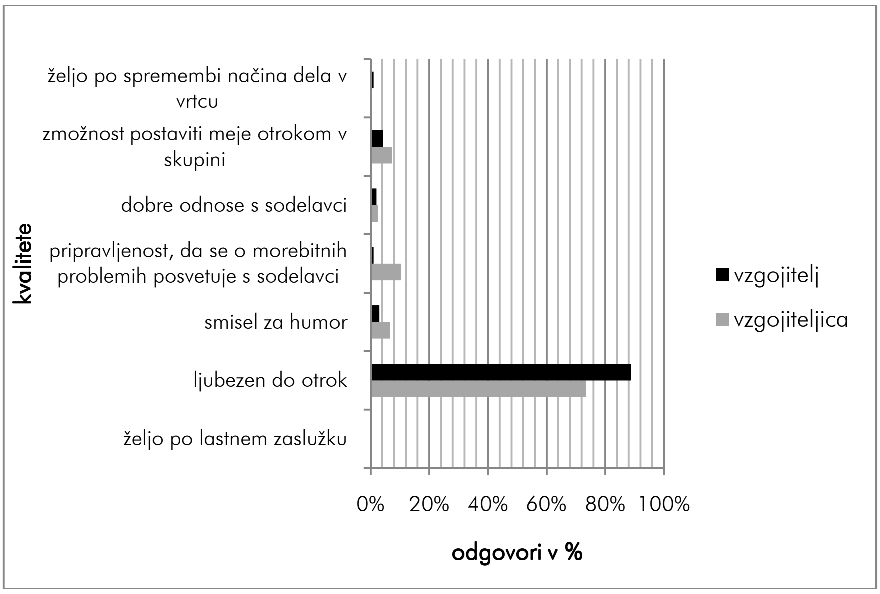
Tretje vprašanje je bilo: "Katero kvaliteto najbolj potrebuje vzgojitelji/ca, da bi bil/a pri svojem delu z otroki uspešen/na?" Anketiranci so izbirali med naslednjimi možnostmi: (a) željo po lastnem zaslužku; (b) ljubezen do otrok; (c) smisel za humor; (d) pripravljenost, da se o morebitnih problemih posvetuje s sodelavci; (e) dobre odnose s sodelavci; (f) zmožnost postaviti meje otrokom v skupini; (g) željo po spremembi načina dela v vrtcu. Rezultati so prikazani v grafikonu 4.

Za ženske vzgojiteljice se je največ anketiranih, in sicer 73,4 %, odločilo za odgovor (b) ljubezen do otrok, odgovor (d) pripravljenost, da se o morebitnih problemih posvetuje s sodelavci, je dobil 10,4 % odgovorov, odgovor (f) zmožnost postaviti meje otrokom v skupini je dobil 7,2 % odgovorov, odgovor (c) smisel za humor je dobil 6,6 %, na zadnjem mestu pa je odgovor (e) dobre odnose s sodelavci, ki je dobil 2,4 % odgovorov. Nihče od anketiranih ne meni, da sta kvaliteti, ki ju potrebuje vzgojiteljica, želja po lastnem zaslužku in želja po spremembi načina dela v vrtcu.

Za moške vzgojitelje pa se je največ anketiranih in sicer 88,8 % odločilo za odgovor (b) ljubezen do otrok, odgovor (f) zmožnost postaviti meje otrokom v skupini je dobil 4,2 % odgovorov, odgovor (c) smisel za humor je dobil 3 %, odgovor (e) dobre odnose s sodelavci, je dobil 2 %

odgovorov, odgovora (d)pripravljenost, da se o morebitnih problemih posvetuje s sodelavci, in (g) želja po spremembi načina dela v vrtcu pa sta dobila po 1 % odgovorov. Nihče od anketiranih ne meni, da je kvaliteta, ki jo potrebuje vzgojitelj, želja po lastnem zaslužku.

**Grafikon 4: Katero kvaliteto najbolj potrebuje vzgojitelj/ica, da bi bil/a pri svojem delu z otroki uspešen/a**

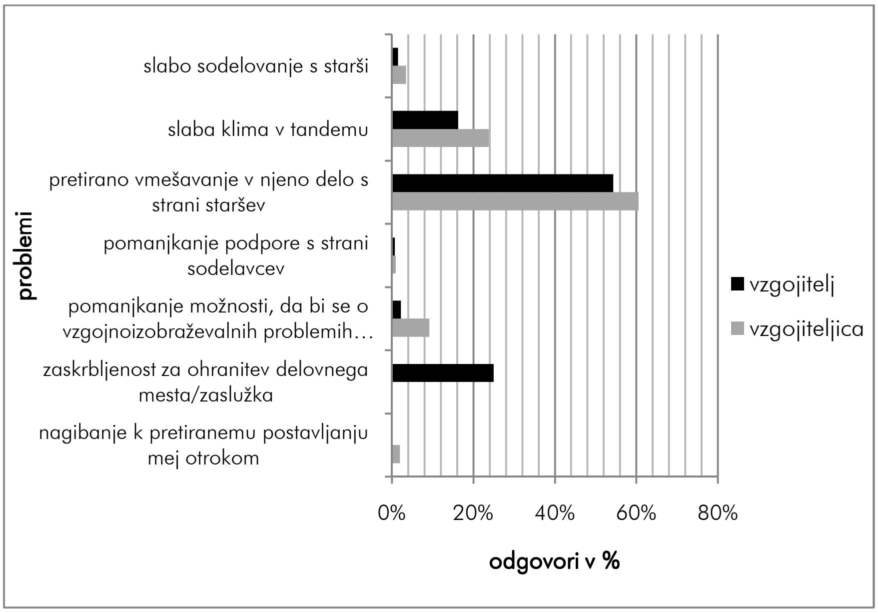



Vir: Odgovor št. 3

Kot je razvidno iz grafikona 4, se ljubezen do otrok bolj pričakuje od moških kot od žensk (88,8 % in 73,4 %). Medtem ko se od vzgojiteljice ne pričakuje želje po spremembi načina dela v vrtcu, se od vzgojitelja to pričakuje. Ravno tako je zanimivo, da se od vzgojiteljice bolj pričakuje, da bo imela zmožnosti postaviti meje otrokom v skupini ter pripravljenost, da se o morebitnih problemih posvetuje s sodelavci.

Četrto vprašanje je bilo: "Kateri je najpomembnejši problem, s katerim se bo pri svojem delu srečal/a vzgojitelj/ica?" Aketiranci so se odločali med naslednjimi možnostmi: (a) nagibanje k pretiranemu postavljanju mej otrokom; (b) zaskrbljenost za ohranitev delovnega mesta/zaslužka; (c) pomanjkanje možnosti, da bi se o vzgojno-izobraževalnih problemih posvetovala s sodelavci; (d) pomanjkanje podpore sodelavcev; (e) pretirano vmešavanje staršev v njeno delo; (f) slaba klima v tandemu in (g) slabo sodelovanje s starši. Rezultati so prikazani v grafikonu 5.

**Grafikon 5: Kateri je najpomembnejši problem s katerim se bo pri svojem delu srečal/a vzgojitelj/ica**




Vir: Odgovor št. 4

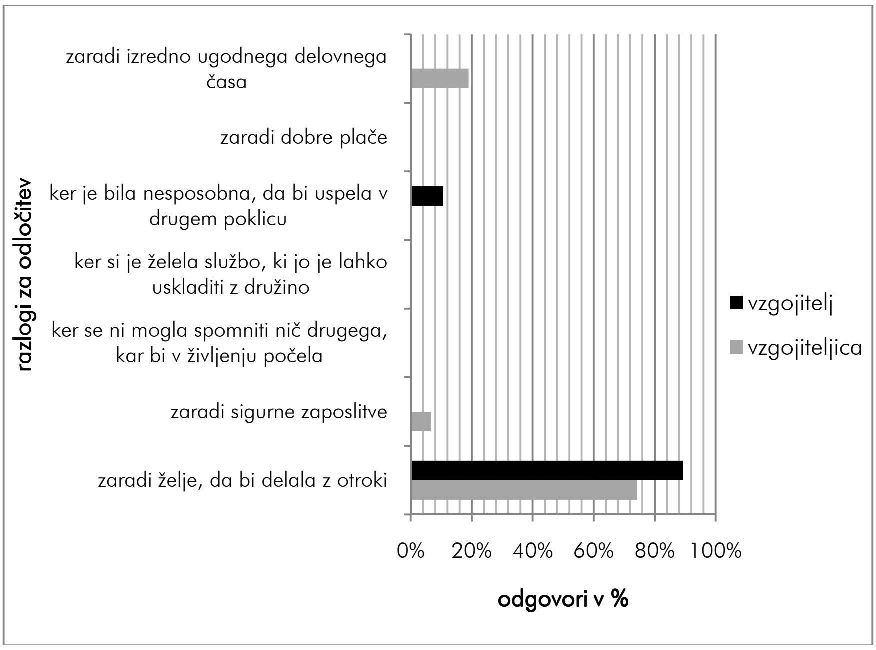
Za žensko vzgojiteljico je največ anketiranih, in sicer 60,5 %, kot najpomembnejši problem, s katerim se bo pri svojem delu srečevala, postavilo odgovor (e) pretirano vmešavanje staršev v njeno delo, sledijo mu odgovor (f) slaba klima v tandemu, ki je dobil 23,8 % odgovorov, (c) pomanjkanje možnosti, da bi se o vzgojno izobraževalnih problemih posvetovala s sodelavci, ki je dobil 9,2 % odgovorov, odgovor (g) slabo sodelovanje s starši, ki je dobil 3,5 %, odgovor (a) nagibanje k pretiranemu postavljanju mej otrokom, ki je dobil 2 % odgovorov in odgovor (d) pomanjkanje podpore s strani sodelavcev, ki je dobil 1 % odgovorov. Nihče od anketiranih ne meni, da se bo vzgojiteljica srečala s problemom zaskrbljenosti za ohranitev delovnega mesta/zaslužka.

Za moškega vzgojitelja je največ anketiranih in sicer 54,3 % kot najpomembnejši problem s katerim se bo pri svojem delu srečal, postavilo odgovor (e) pretirano vmešavanje staršev v njegovo delo, sledijo mu odgovor (b) zaskrbljenost za ohranitev delovnega mesta/zaslužka, ki je dobil 25 % odgovorov, (f) slaba klima v tandemu, ki je dobil 16,3 %, (c) pomanjkanje možnosti, da bi se o vzgojno izobraževalnih problemih posvetoval s sodelavci, ki je dobil 2,2 % odgovorov, odgovor (g) slabo sodelovanje s starši, ki je dobil 1,5 %, in odgovor (d) pomanjkanje podpore sodelavcev, ki je dobil 0,7 % odgovorov. Nihče od anketiranih ne meni, da se bo vzgojitelj srečal s problemom nagibanja k pretiranemu postavljanju mej otrokom.

Poudarila bi zaskrbljenost za ohranitev delovnega mesta/zaslužka, ki je bil pomemben za vzgojitelja (25 %), medtem, ko za vzgojiteljico nihče od anketirancev ni izbral tega odgovora. Slabši je tudi rezultat glede klime v tandemu. Po drugi strani pa je presenetljiv odgovor, da bi se starši bolj pretirano vmešavali v delo vzgojiteljice (60,5 %), kot vzgojitelja (54,3 %), čeprav so ta problem pri obeh postavili na prvo mesto kot najpomembnejši.

Peto vprašanje je bilo: "Zakaj se je vzgojitelj/ica po vašem mnenju odločil/a za delo z otroki?". Aketiranci so se odločali med naslednjimi možnostmi: (a) zaradi želje, da bi delala z otroki; (b) zaradi sigurne zaposlitve; (c) ker se ni mogla spomniti nič drugega, kar bi v življenju počela; (d) ker si je želela službo, ki jo je lahko uskladiti z družino; (e) ker je bila nesposobna, da bi uspela v drugem poklicu; (f) zaradi dobre plače in (g) zaradi izredno ugodnega delovnega časa. Rezultate prikazuje grafikon 6.

**Grafikon 6: Zakaj se je vzgojitelj/ica odločil/a za delo z otroki**




Vir: Odgovor št. 5

Največ anketiranih in sicer 74,3 % meni, da se je ženska vzgojiteljica odločila za delo z otroki zaradi želje, da bi delala z otroki (odgovor a), sledita odgovora (g) zaradi izredno ugodnega delovnega časa, ki je dobil 19 % in odgovor (b) zaradi sigurne zaposlitve, ki je dobil 6,7 % odgovorov. Za druge odgovore se anketirani niso odločili.

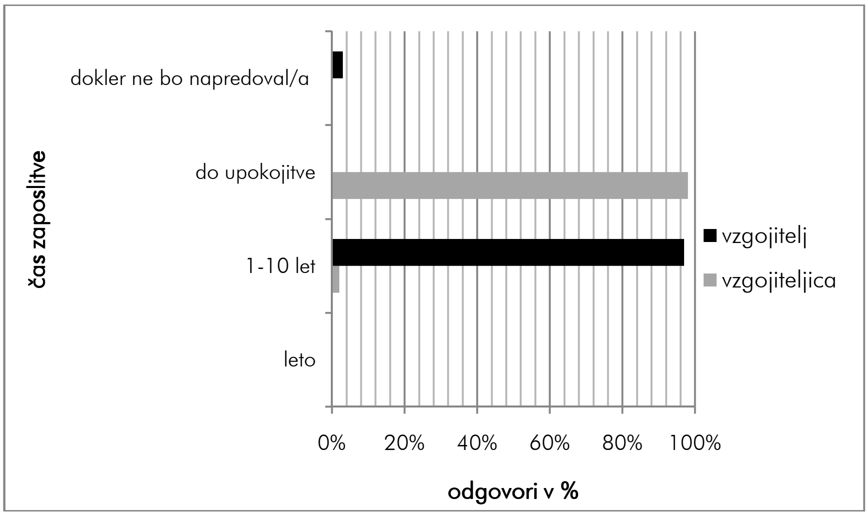
Največ anketiranih in sicer 89,3 % meni, da se je moški vzgojitelj odločil za delo z otroki zaradi želje, da bi delal z otroki (odgovor a), 10,7 % anketiranih pa je bilo mnenja, da se je vzgojitelj odločil za delo z otroki, ker je bil nesposoben, da bi uspel v drugem poklicu (odgovor e). Za druge odgovore se anketirani niso odločili.

Pri obeh (vzgojitelju in vzgojiteljici) so na vprašanje, zakaj sta se odločila za delo z otroki, na prvo mesto postavili zaradi želje, da bi delala z otroki (74,3 % za vzgojiteljico in 89,3 % za vzgojitelja), vendar so za moškega poudarili še, ker je bil nesposoben, da bi uspel v drugem poklicu (10,7 %), česar za vzgojiteljico niso izbrali, medtem ko so za vzgojiteljico izbrali še odgovora zaradi sigurne zaposlitve in zaradi izredno ugodnega delovnega časa, kar pa za vzgojitelja niso izbrali v nobeni od anket. To vprašanje je naletelo na največ kritik zaposlenih v vrtcu, saj so bile nekatere mnenja, da je žaljivo. Najbolj sta jih zbodla možna odgovora (c) in (e), zato tri zaposlene niso želele izpolniti ankete. Vendar pa je to vprašanje pokazalo, da ljudje nimajo enakih meril za moške in ženske, kar je razvidno iz odgovorov. Še vedno je ukoreninjena stereotipna predstava o tem, kaj je primerno delo za moškega. "Normalen" moški si tega dela ne bi izbral, torej je nesposoben za karkoli drugega.

Šesto vprašanje je bilo: "Koliko časa bo vzgojitelj/ica po vaši oceni zaposlen/a v vrtcu?" Aketiranci so se odločali med sledečimi možnostmi: (a) leto; (b) 1–10 let; (c) do upokojitve in (d) dokler ne bo napredovala v podravnateljico/ravnateljico. Rezultati so prikazani v grafikonu 7.

98 % anketiranih je mnenja, da bo ženska vzgojiteljica v vrtcu zaposlena do upokojitve, 2 % pa je mnenja, da bo vzgojiteljica v vrtcu zaposlena 1–10 let. Zanimivo je, da se nihče ni odločil za odgovor (c) dokler ne bo napredovala v podravnateljico /ravnateljico. Hkrati je 97 % anketiranih mnenja, da bo moški vzgojitelj v vrtcu zaposlen 1–10 let, 3 % anketiranih pa je mnenja, da bo vzgojitelji v vrtcu zaposlen, dokler ne bo napredoval v podravnatelja/ ravnateljia. Nihče od zaposlenih ne misli, da bo vzgojitelj zaposlen v vrtcu do upokojitve.

Grafikon 7: Koliko časa bo vzgojitelj/ica zaposlen/a v vrtcu




Vir: Odgovor št. 6

Iz grafikona 7 je razvidno, da se za vzgojiteljico pričakuje, da bo v vrtcu zaposlena do upokojitve (98 %), za vzgojitelja pa se pričakuje, da bo v vrtcu zaposlen 1–10 let (97 %) ali do napredovanja v podravnatelja/ravnatelja, kar pa nihče od anketiranih ni izbral kot možnost za vzgojiteljico. Ti odgovori nam kažejo na to, da moški vendar mora zgraditi kariero, če ne drugače pa naj bo ravnatelj.

## 6 ZAKLJUČEK

Tako v Sloveniji kot na ravni EU, še vedno prevladuje patriarhalni model vzgoje, ki ima močno zakoreninjene vloge, primerne za posamezni spol. Tako je naloga žensk, da skrbijo za varstvo in vzgojo otrok, medtem ko je naloga moških, da družino preskrbijo finančno.

Te stereotipne predstave se sicer počasi spreminjajo, predvsem zaradi "ženskih" zahtev po enakopravnosti in njihovem vključevanju v "moške" poklice, zaradi vse večjega odlašanja z materinstvom (ali se za materinstvo odločajo zelo pozno, ali pa se za otroke ne odločijo)[18] ter vse

**18** Tudi podatki American Society for Reproductive Medicine (ASRM). (American Society for Reproductive Medicine (ASRM). Age and Fertility: A Guide for Patients. ASRM, Birmingham, AL, 2003, accessed 2/5/09.) kažejo, da se starostna meja, pri kateri se ženske odločajo za rojstvo prvega otroka, v večini evropskih držav viša. Medtem, ko je bila povprečna starost matere v letu 1970 med 23 in 25 letom, je sedaj povprečna starost med 26 in 29 letom, v Španiji pa celo nad 30. letom.

manjšega odločanja žensk za tipično "ženske" poklice, kot so vzgoja in izobraževanje in zdravstvena nega. Po podatkih Statističnega urada Slovenije se tudi v letu 2009 odlaganje materinstva na poznejša leta, vsaj za prvega otroka, še ni ustavilo. Povprečna starost žensk, ki so v letu 2009 rodile prvega otroka, se je glede na prejšnje leto (2008), povečala za 0,1 let, in sicer so bile stare 28,5 leta (SURS, Živorojeni otroci, Slovenija, 2009 – končni podatki, 21. 10. 2010). Strokovnjaki opozarjajo, da se bo deficit na tem področju še povečeval in predvsem na področju zdravstvene nege prizadel veliko število ljudi, saj se populacija nezaustavljivo stara, število ljudi, ki se odločajo za take poklice, pa se manjša, kar bo posledično pripeljalo do poslabšanja kvalitete teh storitev.

Moški si želijo delati na področju vzgoje in varstva otrok, vendar je v večini evropskih držav moških delavcev v predšolski vzgoji, med 1 % in 3 %. Sem se uvršča tudi Slovenija (1,51 % v letu 2008). Razlikovanje po spolu pri zaposlovanju na področju predšolske vzgoje in izobraževanja je povezano s starostjo otrok: mlajši kot je otrok, večje je razlikovanje po spolu. To kaže tudi število vzgojiteljev, zaposlenih v prvem starostnem obdobju (5 moških in 1.455 žensk). Strokovnjaki opozarjajo, da je pomembno, da pri ukrepih za spremembo ravnotežja med spoloma sodelujejo vse ustrezne organizacije in institucije. Potrebne so spobude na vseh ravneh: na ravni politike, v medijh, pri zaposlovanju, pri spodbudah in ukrepih v izobraževalnih ustanovah.

Ugotovila sem, da je razmišljanje ljudi po svetu zelo podobno, torej smo žrtve patriarhalne vzgoje in delitve na "moške in ženske". Zaradi tradicionalnega pogleda na vzgojo in vlogo, ki naj bi jo imeli pri tem moški, so v nas globoko zakoreninjeni stereotipi o tem, kakšna je vloga moških in žensk v predšolski vzgoji. Stanje v predšolski vzgoji je zelo podobno, ne glede na državo (vrtimo se okoli 2 %), ta številka in način razmišljanja ljudi pa bi nas morala pravzaprav skrbeti, saj je po mojem mnenju na področju zdravstvene nege in nege starejših stanje še bolj zaskrbljujoče.

Z anketo sem ugotovila, da javnost v Sloveniji ni pripravljena na zaposlovanje moških vzgojiteljev v predšolski vzgoji. To potrjujejo komentarji, ki so bili na nekatere ankete pripisani: »Da se za tak poklic odločijo nekoliko "posebni" moški; da imajo moški radi otroke, vendar to ni poklic zanje; da smo ženske vendarle tiste, ki naj bi otroke vzgajale in jim znale postaviti meje,…«. Iz komentarjev pa tudi anket je razvidno, da imajo anketiranci za moške in ženske, zaposlene v predšolski vzgoji, različne standarde in pričakovanja, od moških pričakujejo, da bodo, kljub temu, da so zaposleni v predšolski vzgoji, gradili kariero, menijo pa tudi, da so moški, ki so zaposleni v predšolski vzgoji, nesposobni za karkoli drugega. Zaradi stereotipne delitve na moške in ženske poklice ter miselnih sodb, v katere smo razvrščeni ljudje in vse, kar se okrog nas dogaja, pa je vztrajanje na delovnem mestu vzgojitelja še toliko težje. Z enakimi problemi se srečujejo moški v drugih državah. Paechter (Paechter, 2010) ugotavlja, da imajo izobraževalni sistemi "uradni" in "prikriti" kurikul. Medtem, ko uradni kurikul redko poudarja, da vsebnost različnih predmetov različno privablja fante in dekleta (npr. naravoslovje, matematika in tehnologija naj bi bolj privabljajo moške dijake in študente), pa se neuradni kurikul nanaša na vse tisto, kar se dogaja v šoli (odnosi v razredu ali na igrišču, prijateljstva, odnosi med učitelji in učenci) in na otroke prenaša zbirko sporočil, ki pogosto krepijo spolne stereotipe in tako ohranja "spolno delitev dela" v družbenem procesu šolanja. Zanimivo je tudi dejstvo, da so poučevanje kot "tipično ženski poklic" dolgo časa videle tudi ženske same, tako feministke kot druge. Feministke so videle poučevanja kot del dolgega boja žensk za dostop do poklicev in udejstvovanja v javni sferi, tiste, ki niso bile feministke, pa kot razširitev vloge ženskega materinstva in skrbi za družino (Gender Differences in Educational Outcomes, 2010). Zato bi se morali na vseh ravneh izobraževanja, začenši na predšolski vzgoji, truditi odpraviti stereotipne predstave o tem, kaj je primerno ali značilno za posamezen spol. Šele drugačno razmišljanje pa bi omogočilo sprejetje moških kot vzgojiteljev v predšolski vzgoji in razvoj nove kulture otroškega varstva.

Mislim, da nas na področju predšolske vzgoje čaka še veliko dela in bi bilo dobro razmisliti, na kakšen način bi vanjo lahko vključili in v njej zadržali moške predstavnike. Veliko lahko naredimo sami pri sebi, s spremembo razmišljanja in z odpravljanjem predsodkov in stereotipov o "moškem in ženskem" načinu, saj lahko tako vsi veliko pridobimo.

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SUMMARY

## MEN IN PRESCHOOL EDUCATION EMPLOYMENT

Experts at the EU level note that more and more women decide to work in the field of "male" occupations, because they bring them a better status and more money, while there is lower interest in the field of nursing and education. Men who would like to work in "female" professions, however, face a major challenge, which does not bring them money or status. Experts note that there are only a few centres across Europe, in which men form a large part of the workforce. In most European countries however, the male workers in primary education represent between 1% and 3% employed. Therefore the EU wants to find the best approach to encourage and promote male employment in the sector of preschool education and care (Peeters, 2007).

In the early nineties Denmark has been quite successful in that, which resulted in male employees working with children aged between 0 to 3 years, reaching 5% in the age from 3 to 6 years, 9% and 25% for men in non-school centres. Despite the focus on gender issues, a pan-European target of 20% men working in preschool child care and education, has not been achieved in any of the EU Member States. In Denmark, which had in the nineties the highest number of men in child care, the number in age period from 0 to 3 years actually dropped from 5% to 3%. At the end of 2006, Norway had 9% male staff in the child care, which is the best result in Europe.

In the past, the main reason why there were only women in the pre-school child care and education was that such work was seen as "women’s work", because being already in their nature. Professional or volunteer child care was considered as women’s work, something that women did naturally, and therefore did this work better. Another reason is that in the past the pre-school child care organizations engaged only female workforce carrying on a constant repetition of the existing patterns of employment and training.

From the information obtained from the Statistical Office of Slovenia, we can see that in Slovenia the number of men employed in the primary education has been increasing, but their percentage is still very small.

In comparison with EU countries, this percentage (1.51% in 2008) is still too low.

To find out what is the Slovenian public opinion on the employment of men in pre-school education, the author conducted a survey. The survey was based on a survey published in the Australian article Tertiary Students perceptions of male Workers and the Early Childhood field, and Australia (Clyde, 08.05.2010). From 120 surveys, 114 were returned, representing 95% of respondents.

Here are some responses:

Presence of male educators: 94.2% of respondents believe that increased presence of male educators has a positive impact on raising children, according to 5.8% of the respondents, the greater presence of male educators would not have a positive impact. Most respondents, (57.7%) opted for the answer "group led by a pair of mixed educators/teachers". 28.8% of respondents decided for the answer "group led by two female educators/teachers". 13.5% of respondents decided for the response: "I could not care less, which is the sex of educators leading a group". It is interesting that none of the respondents chose the option "a group led by two male teachers".

Quality of teachers: here the expectations for men and women are different. The quality of love for children is more expected of men than of women (88.8% and 73.4%). While for the female teacher/educator it is not expected she would desire to change the way she works, for the male teacher/educator it is expected. It is also interesting that it is expected that female educators/teachers have the ability to set limits for children in the group and willingness to consult on any problems with colleagues. Other issues where the responses for men and women have been different were: ability to set limits for children in the group; willingness to consult on any problems with colleagues; maintenance of job/income; parents excessively interfering with the work of teacher/educator; reasons for working with children; how long will male/female teacher/educator work in the kindergarten.

In Slovenia, as at the EU level still dominates patriarch model of education with strong-rooted applications appropriate for each sex. So it is women’s job to care for upbringing of children, while the men’s job is to provide the family financially. These stereotypes are slowly changing, largely due to "female" calls for equality and their involvement in "male" occupations, the increasing delay of motherhood (or they opt late for motherhood, or they do not decide for children), and minor interest for the typical "female" professions such as education and training and care.

By the survey it has been confirmed that the public opinion in Slovenia is still not ready for the recruitment of men as educators/teachers in preschool education. Which is supported by the comments written on some polls, namely that only "special men" choose such a profession, that men like children, but it's not the profession for them; that women are still those who would educate the children and they know how set limits. The survey as well the comments show that the respondents expect different standards and expectations for men and women employed in primary education. For men it is somehow still expected that despite working in preschool education, they will build a career. Others are convinced that men who are engaged in preschool education are not capable of other work. Equal treatment of children by men and women is not expected.

Due to the stereotypical division between male and female occupations, and cognitive judgments, in which people are classified, the existence of male educators/teachers in the pre-school workplace is difficult. The same problems share men in other countries.

It would be good to consider how men could be engaged and incorporated into early childhood education. Much can be done with change in thinking and the elimination of prejudices and stereotypes of "male and female" work. It is important that all relevant organizations and institutions are involved in measures to change the gender balance. In order to achieve the changes it is necessary to have initiatives at all levels: government policy, media campaigns and measures for employers, as well as appropriate incentives and measures in educational institutions.

## Navodila avtorjem

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Znanstvene članke objavljamo v slovenskem in v angleškem jeziku, izjemoma v nemškem ali francoskem jeziku. Druge članke objavljamo v slovenskem, angleškem, nemškem ali francoskem jeziku, z daljšim povzetkom v angleškem oziroma slovenskem jeziku.

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Uredništvo lahko še pred recenzijo zavrne objavo članka, če njegova vsebina ne ustreza najavljeni temi, če je bil podoben članek v reviji že objavljen, ali če članek ne ustreza kriterijem za objavo v reviji. O tem uredništvo pisno obvesti avtorja. Pred sprejemom članka v recenzijo mora avtor podpisati Izjavo o avtorstvu, s katero avtor prenese materialne avtorske pravice na izdajatelja revije in dovoli objavo članka na spletu.

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- kodo iz klasifikacije po Journal of Economic Literature – JEL (http://www.aeaweb.org/journal/jel_classsystem. html)

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- Gilber, G., & Pierre, P. (1996). Incentives and optimal size of local jurisdictions. *European Economic Review* (40), 19–41.

**Knjiga:**

- Katzenbach, J., & Smith, D. (1993). *The wisdom of teams*. Cambridge, MA: Harvard Business School Press.

**Knjiga z urednikom:**

- Keene, E. (Ed.). (1988). *Natural Language*. Cambridge: University of Cambridge Press.

**Prispevek na konferenci:**

- Bugarič, B. (2002). Od hierarhične k participativni (odprti) javni upravi. *IX. dnevi slovenske uprave. Portorož* (pp. 23-29). Ljubljana: Visoka upravna šola.

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- (2001). *World Development Indicators*. Washington: World Bank.

**Disertacija:**

- Richmond, J. (2005). Customer expectations in the world of electronic banking: a case study of the Bank of Britain. *Ph. D.* . Chelmsford: Anglia Ruskin University.

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- Keene, E. (Ed.). (1988). *Natural Language*. Cambridge: University of Cambridge Press.

**Conference contribution:**
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- (2001). *World Development Indicators*. Washington: World Bank.

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- Richmond, J. (2005). Customer expectations in the world of electronic banking: a case study of the Bank of Britain. *Ph. D.* . Chelmsford: Anglia Ruskin University.

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