

Questions and Perspectives in Education

**Edited by
János Tibor KARLOVITZ**

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I. Philosophies and Education

Phenomenology in the Philosophy of Education and Educational Practice

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In this enunciation, I would like to present two areas, in which phenomenological method can be applied. The subject, which combines them, is the universal experience of education. The first one is the philosophy of education, *paideia*; the second one the education practice, *pedagogistia*. In the first area scientist performs systematical and methodically developed reflections over phenomena of the educational reality of a human. This area is “located” exclusively in the mind of the reflecting subject, whose task is to search and consider non-empiric conditions and sources of the empiric matter (Anzenbacher, 1987:26). In the second area the scientist participates in a present reality, remains in a permanent, conscious confrontation with the occurring phenomena. He or she is physically present “at the matter”, at the phenomenon, combining in his or her subjective consciousness both sides of the experienced reality: objective (external) and subjective (internal).

Phenomenology was supposed to perform the function similar to the function of logic and mathematics, as formal sciences unveiling the internal, ideal structure and organization of the world of nature and “the world” of mind, that is to provide knowledge of the clear, ideal states of many and diverse material properties, allowing to recognise a specific material property, as this particular one, and not another one. In the world of diversified meanings of the widely understood human culture (both creations, as well as bio-psychical and spiritual states), recognising the substance of phenomenon, experience conditions the reconciliation process. I understand “reconciliation” not as “consent” and blurring any differences, but as the process of qualitative isolation of differences and similarities. The condition indispensable for performing such process is interlocutor’s (including the researcher, as: the cultural interlocutor) keeping “at the matter”, by applying the phenomenological cognitive method for this purpose.

“The matter”, which is interesting for pedagogist is obviously the phenomenon of education, in the widest meaning of this term. Namely, the phenomenon of the inter-generational message of life in all the forms characteristic for a human being. The condition allowing for such message is a particular qualification, distinguishing humans among other creatures, that is *dialectics of the ability to learn, collect, select and arrange what has learnt and teaching it to other people, with the ability to learn*. One more

qualification should be added to this one, namely *the ability to individually process information*. It is manifested by creative activity.

Before I go on to presenting the example of possible applications of the results of the phenomenological research (the below part of the text was partially presented in the work entitled *The Phenomenological Method in the Phenomenological Research and Teaching Pedagogists. Methodical Depiction*, prepared for the conference in Lviv, Ukraine in April 2013) conducted by the philosophers, and draw your attention to the possibility of applying the phenomenological cognition method in an everyday educational practice, I would like to present its methodological assumptions in more detail (e.g. Ingarden, 1963; Martel, 1967; Ablewicz, 1994; Moustakas, 2001).

Phenomenology. The science of phenomena. The Greek word *phainomenon* includes the core *phos*, meaning the light. The light, thanks to which a phenomenon unveils itself, “presents itself” and in such presentation it “allows” to be cognized by the cognizer. The famous saying of Edmund Husserl “zurück zu den Sachen” („back to the subject matter”) constitutes the core of the phenomenological cognition. It consists in consistent keeping attention on the object and describing it in the way it presents itself.

1. *Phenomenological experience*. It is strictly associated with the engagement of consciousness of cognizer in the process of cognizing the phenomenon. It includes both the a priori, as well as a posteriori notions. It includes within its scope any visually presented data of consciousness, which can become the subject of phenomenological insight. These can be physical states, ideas, values, works of art and conscious experience. Józef Tischner emphasised in his lectures, that human consciousness is always a consciousness of *something*, that it has its object, sometimes quite concrete, given to the human in his or her own experience. Consciousness of oneself, is e.g. consciousness of own thoughts and processes associated with them, feelings, emotions, bodily sensations, silence and sound, taste and touch. Thanks to the phenomenological method, one can slowly and patiently make conscious what is unconscious, what is obvious, imperceptible (e.g.: Hernas, 2005). Something that builds structure of my world of everyday life, maybe it founds its sense, or maybe nonsense? The condition for acquiring phenomenological experience is the manner, in which cognizing subject participates in it.
2. *Lebenswelt*. This is the world of everyday life or the experienced world. This is a human pre-scientific experience, this is the *doxa*, which is not despised anymore (see: Waldenfelds, 1993), as the source of essential knowledge about human and his existence. This is the life “here and now”, together with the past and future included in them. This is the experience “straight from everyday life”, which gives human knowledge about who he is, as a human being. Every human lives and writes his or her story. Does this story, however, have any hidden structure,

according to which human life runs. Is there any essence in it, any universal sense among so many existential possibilities?

3. *Epoche* and reductions. This is a concrete scientific attitude and the method for mental conduct, which are designed to unveil the essence of the studied phenomenon. When maintaining the *epoche* attitude, the researcher is obliged to “hold on” to the object, which he or she describes with the task of presenting it as it is in its presentation, phenomenon, and appearance. Being aware of what meta-consciousness is already now, and that the appearance of phenomenon is presented in many scenes, tries to suspend what he or she recognizes as secondary, equivocally defining a given phenomenon. It includes first of all cultural “data” originating from primal, unconscious obviousness of the meanings of objects, events and experiences rooted in everyday routine and cultural “data” originating from methodically developed reality, occurred in the consciousness as a scientific knowledge. The reduction method, whose immanent “technique” is *epoche*, consists in gradual release of consciousness from that, which is not an essence of phenomenon, that is from that, which casual, temporary, sometimes illusory, falsified (e.g. current behaviour of an adult falsified by unrealised needs of the child, or non-straightforward pronouncements). This is the process of transition in the researcher’s making aware of what comes from the theoretical world and from the everyday world.
4. *Phenomenological description*. Description. Consist in recording progress of the data reduction process and the effects of such process. Its important feature is absence of evaluation and application of any external criteria. When describing connotations and relations, for example the conditions characterising a specific phenomenon, or resulting in variability, are presented. All possible intuitive manifestations of the sensed substance, *eidos* are studied. The procedure called making variable or *imaginative variation* is helpful in obtaining it (Martel, 1967:61).
5. *Intuition and eidos*. Intuition has an a priori character and leads the researcher to non-empirical *eidos* of the phenomenon. Occurring “insight” into the essence (sometimes also called “the sense”) allows for defining the conditions indispensable for existence of a given phenomenon. They present themselves to the researcher with all obviousness and peremptory nature, not submitting themselves to any further reductions.

The Example of Philosophical Research

Among the Polish philosophers, classicists using in their studies phenomenological method and results of the research, which are quite widely used by Polish general pedagogists, dealing with philosophy of education, we may certainly name: Roman Ingarden, Władysław Stróżewski, Józef Tischner, Władysław Cichoń, Jacek Filek (see also: Ryk, 2011; Gara, 2009). The works of these authors are also used in the program of education implemented at the pedagogical studies organised by the Institute of Pedagogics at the Jagiellonian University in Krakow.

Selected example: R. Ingarden, *O odpowiedzialności i jej podstawach ontycznych*. (Ingarden, 1973:77-185) Ingarden began his studies with distinguishing four *situations*, in which the phenomenon of responsibility occurs. These situations are at the same time close to the experience of human responsibility, potentially every human being. The first situation is bearing responsibility (someone is responsible for something). The second situation is when someone “undertakes responsibility for something”. The third situation occurs when someone is held responsible for something. The fourth situation occurs, when someone “acts responsibly”. Further on Ingarden analyses relations between these situations and concludes, that these are not the cause & effect, but sense based relations. It means, that, e.g. from the fact that someone is responsible for something, it does not arise that he or she would perform what he or she is responsible for. It can also happen, that someone undertakes responsibility for something, for which he or she is not responsible; or that someone may be responsible for something and not be held responsible, or that someone would undertake responsibility and would not act responsibly.

Bearing responsibility as such is a passive state, born by the doer. Undertaking responsibility is an active reference to it, which, although it does not guarantee “relief”, is the condition for occurrence of the action situation. The fact, however, if it runs responsibly depends on classification of the doer. Thus Ingarden asks a question, if every human can be a responsible doer? And his answer is negative: no, however only a human can become one.

At the same time Ingarden defines more precisely the qualifications of a human acting responsibly, by specifying certain conditions (Ingarden, 1973).

Decision is acted upon “not blindly”, but in a fully conscious way. The doer comprehends the consequences and at the same time is aware of the limitations to his or her own predictions and plans.

The doers tasks include identifying “*situation, perceived in the aspect of values*”, which realization simultaneously becomes the objective of his or her actions. Identifying “*situation, perceived in the aspect of values*” imposes on the doer two kinds of abilities. On one hand, he or she needs to isolate and name the values, which should be realised. On the other hand, he or she should be able to do it not only at the beginning of his or

her action, but also should have the ability and openness for repeating such action, taking into consideration changing present circumstances. They can, by introducing an unplanned factor, make previously assumed value impossible to realise. Here not only axiological preparation of the doer and concrete substantial preparation within the scope of the specific action are needed, but also awareness that the progress of life and events is influenced by objective, random circumstances. In the comment on the Ingarden's text, one may state that also the will is needed to consistently make an effort of checking if, despite various unforeseeable circumstances, it is still possible to realize the assumed initial value. Thus, the doer at every moment of realizing undertaken by him or her action of analysing the situation with the structure of hermeneutical spiral, and moves within his or her analyses from the entirety to the part and from the part to the entirety. According to the rule of hermeneutics, each change, which occurs in the part, or between the parts, each intervention of a new factor in the entirety results in deconstruction and "forces" upon the entirety its own reorganization and reconstruction.

The above formal philosophical and phenomenological deliberations can be used in a functional way, as the interpretation structure for single situations, e.g. in educational situations. I will take as an example a trip of some young people to the mountains. Educator aware of his or her profession, while preparing such activity with the young people – depending on participants' age, their developmental and personal competences or, speaking in the Ingarden's language: personal qualifications considered in the context of values, which need to be experienced by the young people under his or her care and, which he or she considers as supporting their development in various aspects of personality. Wandering offers a possibility of experiencing such values as satisfaction from overcoming "weaknesses" of the body and mind (pain, fear, resignation, discouragement, but also controlling euphoria, carelessness); as learning about current possibilities and limitations; as experiencing community and exchanging the energy mutually supporting members of the group, or disorganising it; as the sense of autonomy and responsibility for every step taken; as experiencing the choice between someone's own needs and the needs of other members of the group; as experiencing "roughness" of the external world of nature and its natural laws, or feeling delight, fear; as becoming aware of being "a guest" in the world, which will develop regardless presence or absence of humans in it, as learning respect for this world and at the same time care for preserving it in its natural state – being aware that the human – as its natural part, owes it health and life. Another contribution is enthusiasm of the young people, expectations, common projects, joy. During the trip each of them will fulfil his or her "field" of responsibility. Whereas the educator, responsible for all didactic and educational objectives of the trip, for organizing it and managing its organization, also shares his or her responsibility with all the participants (in a limited sense, however). This is

the "burden" which he or she *bears*, which he or she *undertook* and made all necessary preparations (anticipating possible consequences of certain situations, their sequences) intended to fulfil the obligation and "shake off" the burden. Now there is a time for responsible action, which is a process and progresses over time. In each consecutive second and minute new circumstances are added to the things, which has been planned, which could not have been anticipated. Even, if something has been imagined and known earlier, each moment of confrontation with the reality "here and now" is different. Occurring changes, or events creating consecutive "here and now" may have different meaning from the viewpoint of organised trip. A situation may occur, that one person forgets to take shoes ensuring foot stability, and high probability of preserving the health or maybe even life. It can be "unplanned" earlier cloud in the sky, about which the highlanders say that it is going to bring the storm. Although there was no information about it in the weather forecast heard in the radio earlier in the morning. These are various factors, which must be taken into account in making decisions. It means that the person responsible for the entire project is at that time obliged to deconstruct and reconstruct the situation perceived in the aspect of value. And first of all "dig out" the basic value, founding the sense of all other actions. This value will also become the context or, in other words, the reference horizon in making decisions. One may say that decision will be made in relation to it. The value, which comes here in the first plan is the value regulating the sequence of carrying out the remaining ones, is the value of health and life. All educational and didactic objectives fade away. The objective of action is the value of safety. Therefore, it may be necessary to stay all day in the mountain lodge, because how could we leave our friend alone? Maybe the group should be divided? In general, how many emergency plans have been prepared by the educator being aware of potential situations? If he or she – just in case – checked before leaving, if all persons have a proper equipment, or maybe took an extra pair of shoes, and maybe knows where to borrow or buy it...?

Consciousness of own field of responsibility is thus extended by the doer in line with the experience gained during action. His or her actual enrichment occurs, however, when the doer has the will and readiness both of conscious participation, as well as revising in relation to the new events any hitherto axiological assumptions and plans of actions. Obviously mistakes are still possible. In this respect, however, human responsibility includes both knowledge of the objective rules, as well as honest recognition of own capabilities. Neither reduced by exaggerated modesty, sometimes combined with fear, nor expanded with excessive sense of own doer's potential, which can also be remains of child's sense of own omnipotence.

Empirical Phenomenology – Outline of Possibilities

At this moment I am going to interrupt this analysis carried out on the basis of Roman Ingarden's texts, and indicate the "transition", which occurs between – let us call them for the working purposes – philosophical phenomenology and empirical phenomenology. Universality of deliberations in the human sciences maintains its appropriateness only on the level of "non-concreteness". When they are used as the structure for thinking over concrete cases of empirical reality, the same methodological problem must be faced, as in case of applicability of the principles of physics or chemistry. They will work out on condition, that no other circumstances will occur, than the ones which have been maintained in the primarily carried out experiment. Making something concrete assumes dynamics and diversity, which lie both on the side of what is objective in the event, as well as what is subjective in the event. One should, however, be aware that all thinking and reasoning, any unveiling of the a priori matter is carried out through the human mind, and it is always unique and belongs to a single human being with his or her specific – his or her own – biography and mentality. Cognition is a social, inter-subjective phenomenon, and what we can mutually do for each other in this process, is guiding each other to such experiences, which have become the object of individual consciousness of each of us.

Thus for the pedagogist, who works with humans not in the sphere of mental project of his or her development, or order of obligation, but direct, carnal confrontation, in which feelings and emotions, and all possible internal and external physical sensations participate, and in which recognition is equally conditioned by discursive knowledge, as by intuition – in the phenomenological experience he or she must particularly "hold on" to the reality, which is experienced "here and now", because consecutive situations of life occur only "here and now". Thus, there is a need to keep in "the database" of his or her intellectual education the phenomenological output of the philosophers, and use it for checking the sense of situation in the analyses carried out by him or her. Thus, the skill, which pedagogist should be equipped with is the skill of using the method of phenomenological description in carrying out everyday diagnosis of situation, i.e. using the essentials research in carrying out qualitative analyses. This method allows at the same time for keeping the mind active, because careful participation is its first and basic principle. Persons, who are faithful to this method and combined it with his or her personal way for "being in the world", should not be afraid of routine and developmental stagnation.

In this case I feel closely connected with the way of analysing the phenomenon of education, which in the German pedagogics was represented, as its precursor in fact, by Martinus J. Langeveld (Ablewicz, 2003:73-79). Educated as a developmental psychologist, he paid a special attention to using results of research in this particular discipline in the

studies on educational situation. He considered it as the main subject of pedagogical research, and as such "element" (aspect) of human reality, which cannot be reduced to the subject of other sciences. Obviously, it is necessary for the educational situation to be diagnosed and reflected on from the perspective of the philosophical, legal, sociological or philosophical knowledge, but it combines them all in *a unique quality of the empiric combination* of circumstances, events and persons – their knowledge, experience, conditions, limitations, etc. They, in their dynamics and mosaic-like character, face the pedagogist with a challenge of finding *this and not the other* solution, most beneficial from the viewpoint of developmental needs of a student under care. These can be: actions, words, gestures, attitude, feelings, atmosphere, etc.

The phenomenological description method is quite strongly rooted in the work of the humanistic & existential psychotherapists, especially in the Gestalt therapy, whose anthropological assumptions and some methodological actions already earned a strong position in the psycho-educational projects (Żłobicki, 2009) If, however, we agree with Langeveld, that *the education consists in making real the sense of human existence, in beneficial circumstances* (Ablewicz, 2003:75), then using the phenomenological method is very helpful in finding it, both by the educator in the course of his or her work, as well as by any human being in the course of his or her life.

Pedagogist is like a traveller who, being excellently prepared for the trip, also has the skill of gaining an insight into the essence of the matter, thanks to which he or she can find directions for conscious and reasonable arrangement of educational situations. Ability of gaining material and at the same time essential insight in connection with own experience reflected on by pedagogist allows for, e.g. making a basic differentiation between something objective and difficult to change, and something, which can be changed by a doer, such as his or her student. In the applied, empirical phenomenology the "here and now" principle applies, this is so because a human bound by the physical limitations of time and space, lives only in successive fragments of "here and now". Thus the key and directional methodological question is: what am I experiencing here and now, and in what way am I experiencing it? What do I have at my disposal. Mind, sensations and body, which reacts both to my thoughts and feelings. Conscious and unconscious memory of events records them not only in "the head", but also in "the heart" and the body and its dynamics are their material evidence. Pedagogist, when working with his or her entire person and personality, works also with his or her body. One may also say – taking into consideration how many reactions of the body and feelings escape the attention "observing" own "being in the world", that the body itself "works" in an educational situation and co-creates its conditions. Therefore, phenomenological cognition excellently works out in the process of intrapersonal cognition. Whereas, in the interpersonal

cognition it allows, among others, for unveiling and recognizing particular interests, irregularities, falsehood and pathology.

Conclusions

Consciousness data is the subject of phenomenological studies, regardless if it is imagined or actually existing data. Therefore, also a human being and the world of his values is the subject of its studies. Human being in all his aspects, which could be shortly called a holistic concept of a human being, in its interpretation life, mind, experiences and bodily sensations become the object of the view of transcendental consciousness, embracing and perceiving them as a whole and organizing them. This is where self-awareness is born and mature responsibility for oneself. For own thought, word, gesture, experience, quality of sensations. (In this process the principle of “learning from own experience” applies, with no evasions and coquetry, also towards oneself. At the same time for the pedagogist this is the way of personal development, expanding own consciousness and an ally of creativity.) It can also be extended by using the *epochē*, other reductions and the process of making changeable, and further on heading – with participation of the intuition – to view the *eidos*.

The method of phenomenological description may thus be taught as the method of philosophical cognition and taught as “the life tool” supporting the ability of being. This is the method, thanks to which human being enhances experiencing of himself or herself, and own identity. Therefore, it teaches a mature responsibility, which may begin only in an individual experience of freedom, as the indispensable condition of existence (Ingarden, 1973:82). At the same time the consequence of naming and making concrete of realized own needs is the possibility of noticing the things that are not mine, that belong to another person, where extraordinary care should be taken when stepping in. In particular, when the identity of the other person is in course of the constitution and creation process. We must be very careful during the process of education to avoid transferring to students too much from our own life project, and consequently make realization of student’s own project of their life.

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Formation of Cross-Cultural Competence of Students in Context of Dialogue of Cultures

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The cross-cultural communication is becoming increasingly important. Different situations inevitably bring us into contact with other ways of speaking, other models of behaviour and views of life. In the research we examine how the communication across cultures can be affected by participants' interpretations, assumptions and expectations which largely derive from their own cultural background. Cross-cultural communication often involves difficulties but fundamentally it is an opportunity for learning and development.

The notion "cross-cultural" implies interaction with persons of different cultural, ethnic, racial, gender, sexual orientation, religious, and age and class backgrounds. Cross-cultural communication is a process of exchanging, negotiating, and mediating one's cultural differences through language, non-verbal gestures, and space relationships. It is also the process by which people express their openness to an intercultural experience.

In the literature on cross-cultural communication, the terms "cross-cultural communication", "intercultural communication" and "cross-national communication" are frequently used interchangeably. Although "cross-cultural communication" and "intercultural communication" can be treated synonymously, an important distinction needs to be made between "cross-cultural communication" and "cross-national communication".

"Cross-national communication" takes place across political or national borders while "cross-cultural communication" takes place across cultures. Both terms have their usefulness. If one is talking about communications between a multinational organization and its subsidiaries located in other countries, either "cross-national communication" or "cross-cultural communication" can be used. However, if one is speaking of communications between colleagues working in a multicultural organization located in a certain country, the term "cross-cultural communication" is obviously more appropriate. In this research the term "cross-cultural competence" is used.

The scope for cross-cultural communication is extremely wide. It is a multidisciplinary field of study with roots in anthropology, sociology, psychology, and linguistics, among other disciplines.

In the situations of cross-cultural communication it is not only what happens or what is said that is important; it is how participants interpret the interaction. It is the interpretation which guides our perception of

meaning and our memory about other people. Most of us draw conclusions about others from what they say, or rather from what we think they mean. The gap between what we think, other people mean and what they intend to say can occur in any communication. This gap is often wider in the cross-cultural contexts. This is evident when there is a lack of knowledge of the common language of communication, for example English, which may be the second or the foreign language to one or both sides. The gap is often wider because in intercultural communication participants may not realize that they are using language in different ways which go beyond purely linguistic competence. Our study of cross-cultural competence includes:

- discourse competence in which conversations or texts may be structured using different principles;
- sociolinguistic competence in which language users may draw on differing ideas about who may speak to whom, on what sorts of topics, on what kinds of occasion, in what manner and for what purposes;
- cultural competence in which cultural norms and beliefs are used to interpret actions and language behavior.

The problem is that our own perception of these aspects of language use is influenced by our own cultural background.

In learning English, students need to be constantly alert for shifts in meaning as participants use varying systems and principles of interpretation. Different contexts lead to different expectations which in turn lead to different interpretations of the same object. Similarly, the context of our own culture may lead us to interpret another person's words, behaviour or attitude quite differently from the way in which that person intends them to be interpreted. We may not be aware of the patterns of interpretation which members of a particular culture use.

In our own culture we can afford to take much communication for granted. Since childhood we have learned what word, normally mean, how and why they are said. Our own culture has provided us with a framework of working principles and systems of interpretation which most of us automatically use every day. We do not need to think out how to use greetings or apologies, how to respond to invitations or compliments, or what silences might mean. In learning to use the foreign language, however, we need to be aware that speakers of the target language may be using quite different assumptions and systems for such ways of using language. We need to become aware of alternatives. We need to expect the unexpected and to check our interpretations of what is obvious.

For many students learning a foreign language is learning of words. The students' aim seems to be largely to acquire knowledge of a wide vocabulary, concentrating on new and difficult words. We may not realize the importance of learning of new meanings to the well-known words,

especially simple words. However, simple words often turn out to have unexpected cultural meanings.

Speakers' or hearers' attitudes can be influenced by their interpretations, which in turn can be influenced by their own cultural systems. There can be a vicious circle here: cultural expectations can lead to different language use, which can lead to miscommunication. This in turn can lead to wrong assessments and stereotypes of participants from other cultures, which can reinforce or mould cultural expectations and so on. However, a major way to break such vicious circles is to be aware of possible difficulties, to have some knowledge of other cultures, and to try to develop intercultural skills.

Effective communication with people of different cultures is especially challenging. Cultures provide people with ways of thinking: ways of seeing, hearing and interpreting the world. Thus the same words can mean different things to people from different cultures, even when they talk the same language. When the languages are different, and translation has to be used to communicate, the potential for misunderstandings increases.

There are three ways in which culture interferes with effective cross-cultural competence.

1. *Cognitive constraints* — the frames of reference or world views that provide a backdrop that all new information is compared to or inserted into.
2. *Behavior constraints*. Each culture has its own rules about proper behavior which affect verbal and nonverbal communication. Whether one looks the other person in the eye or not; whether one says what one means overtly or talks around the issue; how close the people stand to each other when they are talking — all of these and many more are rules of politeness which differ from culture to culture.
3. *Emotional constraints*. Different cultures regulate the display of emotion differently. Some cultures get very emotional when they are debating an issue. They yell, cry, exhibit their anger, fear, frustration, and other feelings openly. Other cultures try to keep their emotions hidden, sharing only factual aspects of the situation.

All of these differences tend to lead to communication problems. The same gestures or body language may express quite different meanings in different cultures. In Northern Europe “yes” is generally signalled by a downward head movement or up-and-down nodding. In contrast, in Turkey and neighbouring countries a common gesture for “no” is an upward movement of the head, easily mistaken for the European “yes” by those who are unfamiliar with Turkish people. Further scope for misunderstanding arises because the Turkish “no” is often accompanied by a click of the tongue. This noise and the upward head movement means “you are stupid” in Britain.

There are cultural differences in the use of space, e.g. how close to others people expect to stand or sit. Many Latin Americans or people from the Middle East prefer to come quite close to their hearers when talking. This shows friendliness and solidarity. North Americans or Northern Europeans, on the other hand, tend to keep more space between themselves and hearers. This shows their awareness of the other persons' individuality and need for personal space.

Cross-cultural mismatches can occur in eye contact. Whether or how listeners look at a speaker's eyes varies from culture to culture. One contrast seems to be that in Britain and the Middle East listeners gaze at a speaker's eyes to show that they are listening and showing respect whereas in many parts of Africa and Asia this can signify disrespect or anger and be interpreted as insulting.

Sociolinguistic uses of language relate closely to discourse patterns, but there is greater emphasis on the social context and variation. For instance, to ask a person's age, how much they earn or whether they are married is acceptable in all cultures, but in very different circumstances. To ask such questions of a stranger is normal in Turkey or sometimes in Ukraine but quite unexpected in Britain. They would prefer to talk about the weather or their jobs (but these may not be such interesting topics in Ukraine).

While considering the cross-cultural communication it is necessary to study the cross-cultural differences but we should remember that cultures have much in common: we are all members of humanity, there has been extensive interaction between cultural groups for centuries and for most of the time most people get along very well with each other. Differences and problems should not obscure common elements.

Finally, cultures are always changing, especially as they interact with each other. Even from within, cultures move and flow and change through time, even when they think they don't. But the pace of change is accelerated when cultures that reinforce different styles of communication, and which accent different binding customs and values, interact with each other. The result is often disorienting (to say the least), but the result is inevitably that both cultures change in the process.

We have looked at cross-cultural communication from a foreign language perspective. We have emphasized that it is not only cross-cultural language and behaviour which count but also participants' interpretations of situations and people, since this interpretation often frames perceived meaning. Our own culture provides us with systems of interpreting language and interaction and in cross-cultural situations we need to be aware of these systems and endeavour to transcend them.

During the past decades the growth of globalization, immigration and international tourism has involved a big amount of people in the cross-cultural interaction whether they like it or not. This has led to an increased desire and need for knowledge regarding cross-cultural competence on many levels: the theoretical field of cross-cultural communication and the

applied field of cross-cultural training that are the goals of the further research.

Culture and Ideology

Hungarian Cultural Concepts in the First Half of the 20th Century

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Hungarian philosophy was two-faced in the early years of the 20th century. Besides the official philosophy there was an alternative community which intended to find alternative ways of self-expression.

The official philosophy was based on Hegelian thinking: the men were regarded a form of the spirit (Geist), and the culture was equal to the objective formation of the spirit. The outstanding figure of this philosophy was *Lajos Prohászka* (Professor of Education at the Pázmány Péter University Budapest), member of the Hungarian Academy of Sciences, Chairman of the Hungarian Philosophical Society and Professor of Education (University of Budapest).

The representative figure of the alternative philosophical community (the so called Sunday Circle) was Karl Mannheim (Hungarian-born philosopher, sociologist; Professor at the University of Frankfurt, University of London; he was one of the key figures in the invention of the field sociology of knowledge), besides of course György Lukács. Karl Mannheim is a well-known figure of political philosophy and sociology. Less well-known is the fact that the last period of his active life was organized around educational issues and Mannheim himself was Professor of Education at the University of London from 1945 until his death. The Mannheim-research is waiting for a re-discovery nowadays.

Besides these two formations there was a “third way” cultural philosophy: the thinking of Sándor Karácsony (Professor of Education at the University of Debrecen). It was formed around protestant communal considerations, and was very popular in the eastern area of the country.

We will analyze Prohászka’s and Karácsony’s cultural studies and Mannheim’s early work (at the Free School of Intellectual Sciences, Budapest) and his early writings (Soul and Culture), in which the strictly philosophical and epistemological issues could be understood in the context of education.

I. The cultural philosophy of Prohászka Lajos is (hopelessly and in an old-fashioned way) Hegelian, we might say it is just an applied metaphysics (Prohászka, 1929). Prohászka’s intention was to defend the scientific knowledge against the dangers of their era, the first half of the 20th century. The dangers are the following:

1. Updating the closed forms: the life triumphs over theory, the main initiative is the pragmatic consideration- states Prohászka. Theory is just

instrumental: tool of the research which can make the human life productive.

2. The other tendency is the emerging role of romanticism and mysticism. In an age of the missing unity Prohászka can see strong and widespread desire for a new renaissance. The practical approach and the mystical disposition finally lead to a strange cultural eschatology: to misty dreams, to uncertain hopes, to a discredited and weak scientific thought.

Despite of the dangerous tendencies the age of the autonomous science didn't vanish into the air because science is still an objective element – states Prohászka. That is why his philosophy of culture is rooted in the concept of literacy. But the starting point is not the epistemological analysis of the subject-object relation: Prohászka suggests a metaphysics based on the phenomenology of the object. As he observes the object is (1) separated from all receptive souls and (2) recognizable as independent substance and (3) could play the role of the root cause of experience and (4) works as limitation of being of the subject. Prohászka separates two types of objects: the *individual-objective* and the *interpersonal-objective* objects. The first type is closely attached to the soul which created it. This type of object can exist only within the framework of individual existence. The intentional connection between the soul and the object is the *responsibility*.

The other type (the interpersonal-objective object) is independent from the creating soul. After the moment of creation its substance is not bound to the creator, its existence is substantive, but the souls are tempted by their force. The characteristic of the system of the interpersonal – objective object is the so called *structure*. It is not an organic formula – states Prohászka – but a systemic notion; it refers to a network of references and aspects. In this sense independent structures are for example the system of law, art, science or religion. And so the culture as a whole could be understood as the structure of structures, as the absolute structure. And therefore the culture never could be subjective (as Georg Simmel thinks): it is always objective and structural. The subjective aspect is the phenomenon of the encounter between humans and the culture. This phenomenon is known as the process of education (and the result of this process is the individual-objective *literacy*). The soul in this context is a *form*, in the sense of the Aristotelian philosophy. It is the dynamic agent which gives universal validity and ontological limitation to the organically developing materials.

Thus we might say that in the process of the formation of culture the active element is the *Objective Spirit*. This Hegelian concept defines the culture as the dialectics of structures which moves through the context of responsibility defined aspects.

II. After György Lukács (who was a Hungarian philosopher, aesthetician, art historian, Marxist politician. He was the Hungarian Minister of Culture of the government of the Hungarian Soviet Republic in

1919) returned home from Heidelberg (in 1915) an intellectual salon was formed around his person: the *Sunday Circle*. The group met every Sunday at Lukács's house or Béla Balázs's apartment to discuss cultural, political, philosophical issues. The model of the Sunday Circle was the philosophical group formed around Max Weber in Heidelberg and the Stefan George Circle also in Heidelberg. The topics of discussions were the problems of Hungarian non-conservative urban intellectuals. The cultural themes were derived mainly from Dostoyevsky's and Kierkegaard's existentialism, from German idealist philosophy and from the fields of ethics and aesthetics.

The founders of the *Sunday Circle* were – among others – Béla Balázs (aesthete and film critic), Arnold Hauser (art historian), Anna Lesznay (poet and painter), Béla Bartók and Zoltán Kodály (musicians), Michael Polányi (philosopher of science), Karl Polányi (political economist, social philosopher) Lajos Fülep (art historian) and Karl Mannheim. The discussions in the *Circle* were high-toned and passionate. Every member had the right to form and express an opinion in every debate. But soon—in 1917—the private sphere of the *Circle* already proved to be inadequate and too narrow for the ambitions of the members. The *Circle* realized its true function: to become a determining agent of Hungarian cultural life. To fulfill this role the *Circle* established the *Free School of Intellectual Sciences*. The first activity of the school was the organization of a lecture series under the title: *Lectures about the Intellectual Sciences*.

The program of the school was the dissemination of the ideology of *new spirituality and metaphysical idealism*. The intention of the lectures was serious consistency and not popularization. The program of the first semester was the following:

Béla Balázs: Dramaturgy

Béla Fogarasi: Theory of Philosophical Thinking

Lajos Fülep: The Problem of National Character in Hungarian Art

Arnold Hauser: The Problems of Post-Kantian Aesthetics

György Lukács: Ethics

Károly Mannheim: Logical and Epistemological Problems

Emma Ritoók: The Problems of the Aesthetical Impression

The first lecture of the second semester was Mannheim's programmatic talk under the title: *Soul and Culture*. (It was published in 1918, under the title: *Lélek és kultúra – Benkő Gyula Könyvkereskedése*, Budapest.) The first question of the lecture was the problem of unity in the activity of the *School*: whether the lectures of the first semester form a unity or not? As Mannheim states, the unity of the lectures derived from the objective of the *School*: to convey culture to the audience in an organic, cross-sectional view and by doing this to fertilize the need for culture.

What kind of unity represents the *School*? Their main points of reference were the following: in the field of world view – Dostoyevsky; in the field of ethics – Kierkegaard; aesthetics – Paul Ernst, Cezanne, the

Nouvelle Revue Francoise, Bartók, Ady and the Thalia movement; philosophy – the circle of the *Logos* and *A szellem*. But they were fully aware of the fact that this is just a section of culture as a whole: a singular perspective. Culture needs deeper theoretical analysis.

Mannheim divides the field of culture into two parts: subjective and objective culture. Objective culture corresponds with all objectivations of the spirit (*Geist*), as they were preserved by the human race through its history. Subjective culture means the relation between individuals and objective culture, when the soul can find its improvement and expansion not in itself (like the case of ascetics) but through the by-pass of the goods of objective culture.

Mannheim states that the distance between the two fields became huge. And therefore it became an issue for intellectuals (for groups like the *Sunday Circle* or the *Free School of Intellectual Sciences*) to handle these phenomena, to understand and promote the connection between subjective and objective culture.

What makes this connection possible? In Mannheim's opinion the key element is the notion of the '*Werk*'. This notion originates in medieval German mysticism and means no less than manifestations of the soul. Through the process of manifestation the soul becomes social and historical—in other words it turns into a fact of culture. (The elements of cult, representation, thought or action are examples of that kind of fact.) Doing so the '*Werk*' enables us to access the inaccessible: to access ourselves (or other people) as souls.

The '*Werk*' is less than the soul – states Mannheim – because it always refers back to its creator and to the process of its creation. But for that very reason it could just be seen as an artificial separation from the unlimited possibilities of the soul. And in the same time the '*Werk*' is more than the soul since it has its own law which articulates its nature and function. Mannheim mentions the following three principles according to the law of the '*Werk*':

First of all if one man can do something, it will be possible for everyone – in other words: it is easier to learn something than to invent it again. A cultural fact cannot be singular: it is as far significant as it is universal. The second principle (as a consequence of the first one) is the continuity of culture, regarding techniques and messages also. However, it should be noted that we can find some discontinuity in the cultural process: when new impressions appear the old contents and old forms become inadequate. And finally (third principle): even a form with a very strange content can be readable for every person.

Mannheim suggests that according to the three cultural principles we can presume three types of human intentionality. In the first case only the soul (the message) is presented *in itself* – this is the age of the new beginning. Mannheim named this as '*the religious culture*' which is aimed at the unreachable. The second intentionality is '*the artificial culture*' which is focused on the best elaboration of the material, but in an unconscious

manner. The third intentionality is the so called '*culture of critical research*' which deals with the difference of form and matter (the message). Creation here turns into the subject of the clear theory.

As we can see, in the early years of his active period Mannheim speaks as a genuine teacher who believes in the efficiency of the lectures, of the school when he in his programmatic lecture states that his age belongs to the third category. That is why he can state that the adequate form of culture is analytical thinking and the dissemination of scientific achievements – i.e. the adequate forms of creating culture are discussion groups as the *Sunday Circle* or communities like the *Free School of Intellectual Sciences*. The responsibility of groups and communities of this nature is monumental: they must help people to understand the new culture through the understanding of the old one. Hereby secure the continuity of culture as such and the propitiation of the subject.

III. The so called 'third way concept' of cultural philosophy was originated from the work of *Karácsony Sándor* (1939). The elements of this concept are the following: (1) regional (local) identity, (2) protestant commitment, and (3) the sense of a cultural mission.

(1) Karácsony was professor of the University of Debrecen. According to the observations of his *social psychology*, culture is a common product. Every community has its own culture with special characteristics and local validity which is originated from the mutual activities and from the interactions of cooperative people.

(2) In Debrecen (in the so called Calvinist Rome) the protestant influence was always very strong – the Transtibiscan Reformed Church District was the prior and most influential environment of the University of Debrecen. The most significant specialties of this environment are the strong social and political engagement of the protestant intellectuals, the special orientation (Anglo-Saxon, Swiss and Dutch), moreover an anti-monarchistic, independent political thought. On this secular ground the religious life in the protestant community has a specific nature. The respect for historical tradition and the democratic skepticism (towards the ecclesial hierarchy) are rooted in the sense of community.

(3) In the context of the presbyterian self-government the regional identity has special consequences. The frontier- or peripheral-being is associated with the need for the self-support. The university plays a specific role in this story as the key-point of the regional network of the intellectuals. The cultural-political engagement is completed with a culture-creating (and preserving) mission (like the work of the *Free-Education Society* in the region under the influence of professor Karácsony) and with the belief in the youth generation, the students. The mission of the University has been no more just the specialized academic training, but the participation in a community aimed at scientific-critical thinking. It is an existential problem – states Karácsony: education is the meeting of future and past in the present.

Karácsony's social-psychological analysis is strongly bound to this context. According to his statements the human soul has on the one hand somatic bonding and on the other transcendent or sacral nature. As the individual is autonomous – a closed system – the only possibility to expand its boundaries is the origination of a social relationship. A signal system (the language) enables the soul to preserve and to transfer or even to process the cultural elements. So in this sense the language is the first and most fundamental tool of understanding.

According to the social-psychological cultural theory of Karácsony, we might say that in the human world there are some ever-present elements, some basic objectivation forms such as the law, the religion (or art and science). In this context education is no more (or less) than the social relation itself. However, the culture is praxis in this case. The mission is – says Karácsony – to transform it to a (1) modern, (2) Hungarian, (3) and effective culture.

What means to be Hungarian? The problem of nationality is not racial or ethnic problem, but a cultural one. To be Hungarian means to share a way of thinking. And the Hungarian way of thinking means dealing with our own autonomy while we are granting our partners autonomy. So the culture makes society evident and understandable. And the quality of a society depends on the culture of its members and the culture of the groups or classes which constitute this society. So the function of education turns into cultural and social task, and into the problem of language pragmatics.

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Pragmatical and Pedagogical Analysis of Teachers' Turns in Classroom Discourse

© **Ágnes ANTALNÉ SZABÓ**

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The present study is part of a major research project on teacher communication in classroom discourse. Classroom communication is an important scene of language use both from a linguistic and a pedagogical point of view. The topic of the study is a pragmatical and pedagogical analysis of teachers' turns in classroom discourse. The present study is based on empirical research, the corpus of which consist of digital recordings and transcribed Hungarian language lessons. The aim of the research is to reveal the general characteristics and occurrence of teachers' turns. The research results show that teachers' turns are much longer than students' turns in classroom discourse. The factors influencing teachers' turns are the occurrence of different types of teacher utterances, and their repetitions. This study cannot deal with certain factors influencing teacher communication, such as the character of the teacher and the teaching context. The study deals with the rate of Teacher Talking Time (TTT) and Student Talking Time (STT) in the classroom, as well as with its main pedagogical consequences.

Introduction

Despite new technologies spoken language is still considered an important form of education in the classroom. Effective teacher communication plays a substantial role in the development of students' skills (Ur, 1991; Apel, 1997; Herbszt, 2010). The European Union adopted its work programme 'Education and Training 2020' (1). The document makes proposals for key tasks, objectives and priorities valid at every level of education. The EU considers the development of teacher training crucial to make education and training more effective. The development of effective communication in teaching is an important part of teacher training, since the success of teaching is largely determined by the teachers' communication skills (Falus, 2004).

The topic of the study is a pragmatical and pedagogical analysis of teachers' turns during classroom discourse. The framework and the scientific base of the research are provided by the following disciplines: mother tongue pedagogy, didactics, classroom discourse analysis and psycholinguistics.

General characteristics of classroom discourse

The typical structure of classroom discourse

The teacher and the students are traditionally the main participants of communication in the classroom. Teachers' speech features individual specialities, as well as the general characteristics of teachers' communication. Results of discourse analyses indicate that the structure of classroom discourse is different from other types of discourse (Hámori, 2006; Boronkai, 2009; Herbszt, 2010; Pléh, 2012).

Traditional classroom discourse has a typical pattern and structure. Teachers' turns and students' turns create a ternary sequence, an IRF model (= teacher initiation – student response – teacher feedback) (Cazden, 1986; Clarke & Argyle, 1997; Antalné, 2006; Walsh, 2006). An example of the IRF model in classroom discourse is as follows:

1.

T: Köszönöm szépen. [...] Milyen kommunikációs cél jellemző erre az adott szövegre? Kérem szépen az ötleteket. [...] Miket írtatok? Eszter!

D: Szerintem ismeretterjesztő.

T: Ismeretterjesztő. Jó.

T: Thank you very much. [...] What is the purpose of communication in this text? Let me hear the ideas. [...] What did you write? Esther...

St: I think documentary.

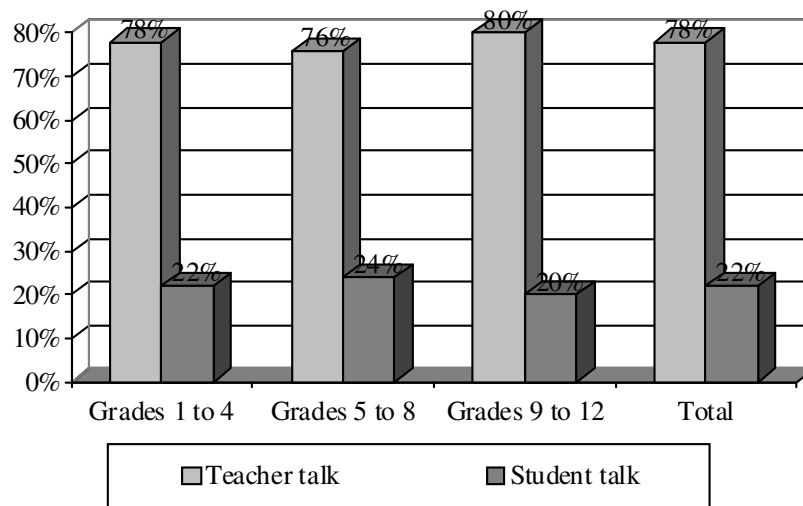
T: Yes, documentary, good.

Both the teacher turn initiating communication and students' response can either be verbal or nonverbal. The above example also demonstrates a typical turn preferred by teachers in which the teacher will repeat a student's response, also adding evaluation to it.

The rate of Teacher Talking Time (TTT) and Student Talking Time (STT) in classroom discourse

This example is going to show the proportion of Teacher Talking Time (TTT) and Student Talking Time (STT) in the classroom discourse. The results of the research in 2005, based on 50 video lessons, proved that Teacher Talking Time makes up 78% of the lessons (Antalné, 2006). The data indicate that there is no significant difference between different types of schools.

Figure 1. *The rate of TTT and STT based on digitally recorded lessons (N = 50 lessons, Antalné 2006)*



An illuminating example from the corpus of the research in 2005 is as follows:

2.

T: Apróhirdetést biztos mindenki látott már. Helyi újságban, az Expresszben. Mi, mi jellemzi még egyébként? Látunk mellette képet vagy, vagy bármit? [...] Nem. Nem? Ugye, nem látunk? Akkor elmondhatjuk, hogy mivel dolgozik csak?

D: Szöveggel.

T: Everyone must have seen a classified ad before. In the local paper, in 'Expressz'. How would you describe such an ad? Can we see pictures or anything else next to it? [...] No, we can't. Right? We don't see anything there, do we? So what can we say, only what does it operate with?

S: Text.

The data and the examples indicate that the students are not given enough time to talk during the lessons. The rate of Teacher Talking Time (TTT) and Student Talking Time (STT) in the classroom has pedagogical consequences. It is highly important to give students the opportunity to talk in the classroom. It is motivating for the student to be able to express their opinion and share their experience with the others – if they are given enough time to do so.

Pragmatical and pedagogical analysis of teachers' turns *The aims, methods and corpus of the research in 2011*

The new research in 2011 provides new data about the proportion of Teacher Talking Time (TTT) and Student Talking Time (STT) in the classroom, as well as different types of new examples of teacher utterances in classroom discourse. The aim of the research in 2011 is to reveal the general characteristics and structure of teachers' turns. These are the hypotheses of the research:

- Teachers' turns are longer than students' turns in classroom discourse.
- There are different types of teacher turns.
- The factors influencing teachers' turns are the occurrence of different types of teacher utterances and their repetitions.

The corpus of the empirical study consists of 16 digital recordings, as well as transcripts of Hungarian language lessons with frontal classroom work. The research was based on a non-representative sample. The research will be continued including a larger sample, as well as relevant statistical calculations. The main parameters of the participants of the research:

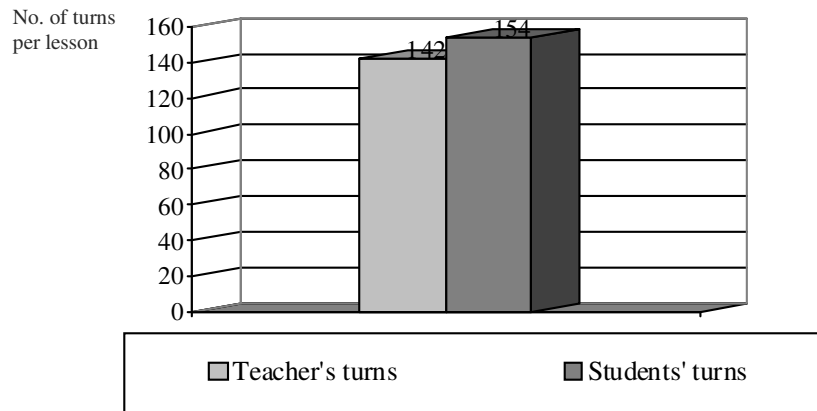
- Location of schools: 50% Budapest, 50% country;
- Type of school: 50% higher primary school, 50% secondary school;
- Teachers' gender: 81% female, 19% male;
- Teachers' age: 50% 22-25, 50% 30-60 years;
- Types of lessons: first language (Hungarian) lessons.

The encoding of the 45-minute lessons is based on the BUSZI (= Budapest Sociolinguistic Interview) code system (Váradi, 1998).

Research results

I have measured the rate of TTT and STT in the classroom in 2011 using a different method than in 2005. The chart indicates the number of teacher turns and student turns during 16 recorded lessons based on their transcripts.

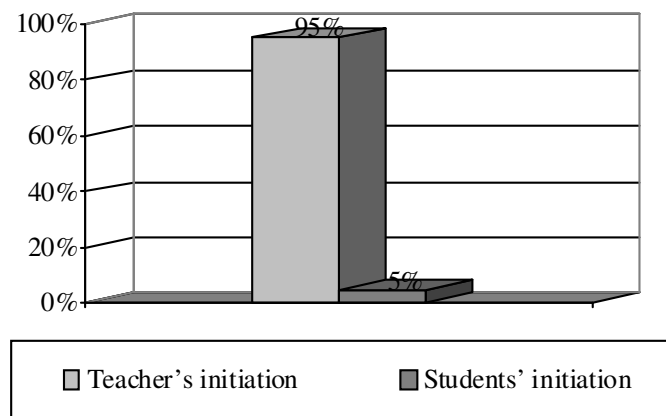
Figure 2. *The number of teacher turns and student turns per lesson (N = 16 lessons)*



The research results from 2011 are as follows: during a 45-minute lesson there are a little bit less teacher turns than student turns. However, if we take into consideration that student turns include all the students' turns in the whole class, the situation becomes a little bit worrying. The teacher is the key person during the classroom discourse, which is confirmed by the data.

The next chart indicates who initiates communication during lessons. According to the data only in 5% percent of cases is communication initiated by students.

Figure 3. *Initiative teacher and student turns featuring frontal classroom work (N = 16 lessons)*

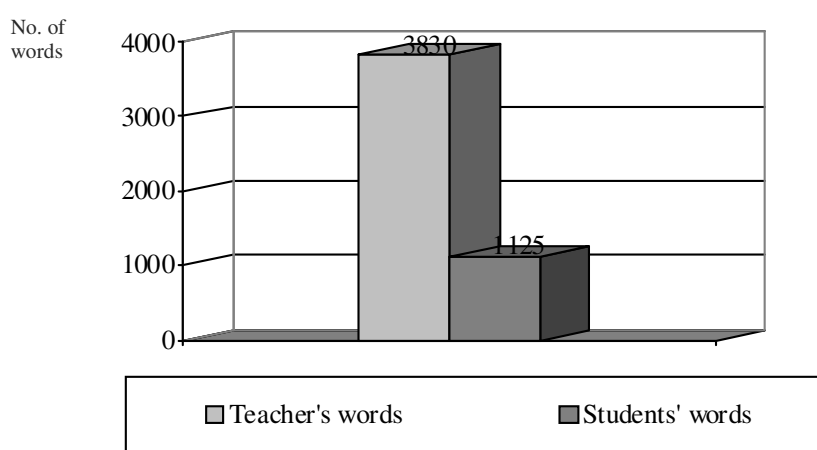


According to the video lessons students do not ask questions about the topic of the lesson. It is not the student but the teacher who asks questions, the teacher is the key person during lessons. Actually, even when the students do ask questions, they do so because they did not

understand the teacher's questions or instructions and not because they are interested.

The data from the following research show that teacher turns are much longer than student turns. The chart shows that teacher turns contain much more words than student turns. These results are based on the lesson transcripts.

Figure 4. *The number of words in teacher turns and student turns*
(N = 16 lessons)



According to the research data, teachers use 27 words/teacher turn on average during a 45-minute lesson, while students only use 7 words/student turn. The next picture visualizes the significant difference between teacher turns and student turns.

Types of teacher utterances in teachers' turns

Teacher turns consist of teacher utterances, the different types of which are linked together in many different ways in teachers' speech, forming a variety of discourse patterns (Antalné, 2010; Schirm, 2010). The next hypotheses of my research are the following: There are different types of teacher turns. The factors influencing teacher turns are the occurrence of different types of teacher utterances, and their repetitions. Below are the main types of teacher utterances based on speech acts:

- Addressive utterances (*Kati! Figyelsz? Kati! Are you listening?*)
- Questions (*Mi hiányzik a rajzon? What is missing from the drawing?*)
- Instructions (*Egészítsétek ki a szöveget! Complete the text!*)
- Kijelentő megnyilatkozások (*A tulajdonneveket nagy kezdőbetűvel írjuk... Names start with a capital letter...*)

- Explanation utterances (*Azért érvelünk, hogy... We reason in order to...*)
- Feedback, evaluation utterances (*Ügyesek vagytok. Well done!*)
- Classroom management utterances (*Párban dolgozzatok! Work in pairs!*)
- Discourse marking utterances etc. (*Na? Jó? Jó. Well? OK? Good.*)

The clean-cut categorization of teacher utterances is very difficult with some groups overlapping with one another. The types of utterances within teacher turns determine the patterns of the turns. The results of the research prove the truth of my hypotheses. The different utterances form a complex network in classroom discourse. The coherence of classroom discourse, as well as that of teachers' communication is based on the complex system of teacher and student turns and utterances related to different kinds of speech acts (Labov & Fanchel, 1997; Szili, 2004).

The reasons for teachers' talkativeness

There are many reasons and sources of teachers' talkativeness, unfortunately the study cannot deal with all of them. The first reason is the high number of different types of utterances within teacher turns, and their repetitions.

Teachers ask many questions during the lessons. The number of teacher questions, based on 50 recorded lessons, is about 135 questions during a 45-minute-long lesson (Antalné, 2006). This kind of statistics cannot be completely accurate. As it is difficult to articulate spoken language, it is difficult to isolate different types of utterances (Németh T., 1997; Iványi, 2001; Gósy, 2004). Despite all that, this number is significant. However, not all questions are inquiries by function, since there are other possible speech acts connected with questions, such as demand, encouragement, declaration or turn-taking. The study does not deal with this topic, it could not introduce the various verbal forms of different types of teacher utterances. Below is a short list of research results about the occurrence of different types of teacher utterances:

- About 135 teacher questions per lesson (Antalné, 2006)
- About 157 teacher questions per lesson (Scheuring, 2011)
- About 145 teacher instructions per lesson (Antalné, 2006)
- About 85 teacher feedbacks per lesson (Antalné, 2011)

The type of questioning is another source of teachers' talkativeness. Another reason is that only a very few open questions are asked by the teachers during the lessons. Teachers ask a lot of factual questions. These questions are rather lengthy and are repeated several times, but the students' responses to them consist of merely one or two words.

3.

T: Tehát mit tartalmazott ez a kísérőlevél? Mit olvastam? Milyen... mi volt ez? Mi volt benne? Mit tartalmazott? Attila?

T: So, what did the cover letter say? What did I read? What kind... what was it? What was in it? What did it say? Attila?

Students answer yes–no and factual questions very briefly, usually with one expression only. Students may choose various answers to open-ended questions and they can formulate longer sentences, since open-ended questions are thought-provoking and creative.

A specific type of teachers' nonverbal utterances is the silence after a question. The research in 2005 measured the occurrence of silences longer than 2 seconds. The results proved that teachers can hardly stay quiet 7 times for more than 2 seconds during a 45-minute-long lesson (Antalné, 2006). Then teachers either repeat the question, or they call a student by his or her name, or they pressure students to give an answer. That is one of the reasons why students' responses are often fragmentary and unfinished.

Factors influencing teacher communication

This study cannot deal with certain factors influencing teacher communication, such as the character of the teacher and the teaching context (Gósy, 2005; Antalné, 2006; Ежова, 2006). The personal features determining teacher communication can be as follows:

- personality of the teacher,
- the teacher's speaking skills,
- the teacher's methodological culture,
- the teacher's characteristics,
- the students' characteristics,
- the relationship between the teacher and the students etc.

There are teaching context features determining teacher communication:

- subject,
- course material,
- classroom,
- number of students in the class,
- type of lesson
- teaching methodology,
- work type,
- educational tools etc.

There are two more reasons for teachers' talkativeness: the improper selection of teaching methods and work types. Discussion in Hungary is based on questions asked by the teacher, who takes the lead during lessons. Debating and cooperative learning are seldomly used teaching methods. The rate of frontal work is the highest in Hungary, even if frontal work de-emphasizes individual work and students' communication (Antalné, 2006; Falus, 2004). Only a few students take actively part in classroom work, students cannot communicate with each other and they cannot formulate and share their personal ideas.

Summary

Classroom communication is an important scene of language use both from a linguistic and a pedagogical point of view. The research data have proven that both the content and the rate of teachers' communication have an important role in education. What could be the solution? The most important thing for teachers to do is change their attitude. They should create situations that make it possible for students to talk more in the classroom. The teacher must accept that it is no longer the teacher but the students who are the main characters of the lesson.

The research results can contribute to future studies of classroom discourse analysis in Hungary. The development of effective teacher communication is an important part of teacher training, which is why the results of the research can be put to practical use in the education system.

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What can we Call Success? Identifying Success Criteria for Science Learning in Public Education Using Delphi Method

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Hungarian Institute for Educational Research and Development

What is success? What is success in science education? Everybody has an opinion: but who is right? Different social communities have different aims and expectations towards science education. As until now in Hungary, science teaching efficiency or evaluations of learning outcomes have been based on a set of standpoints often influenced by interests and ideals of specific stakeholder groups involved in expert work, therefore such comprehensive studies might be characterized by biased concepts on the purpose of science education in general. We claim that one can get closer to a widely accepted set of criteria considering a base-line which contains all stakeholders' points of view and prosperous compromises. We think that parents, prospective employers, science experts, engineering professionals represent stakeholder groups despite the fact that in the Hungarian pedagogical research practice they are usually not target groups.

Our research is framed by a project aiming to establish complex educational programs for comprehensive schools in primary – lower secondary level public education in Hungary, supported by the “21st Century Public Education: Development and Coordination” umbrella project within the 3.1.1 Social Renewal Programme. There are 7 teams in the “all-day school” project with different themes. Our team is responsible for developing complex science education programs. Other teams (engaged in developing similar programs in the field of arts, home economics, sustainability education as well as an overarching framework for grade 1-8 comprehensive, all-day school education) use various approaches in the research and development. These educational programs (or pedagogical systems) to be brought about contain the following seven elements also determined by the Act on Public Education: (1) pedagogical concept; (2) learning program; (3) elaborate description of modules of the learning program; (4) instruments, tools and infrastructural requirements; (5) assessment tools and evaluation; (6) teacher in-service professional development programs (supporting the implementation of the educational program); (7) follow-up, mentoring and advisory systems (forums, guidance) and maintenance of the programme.

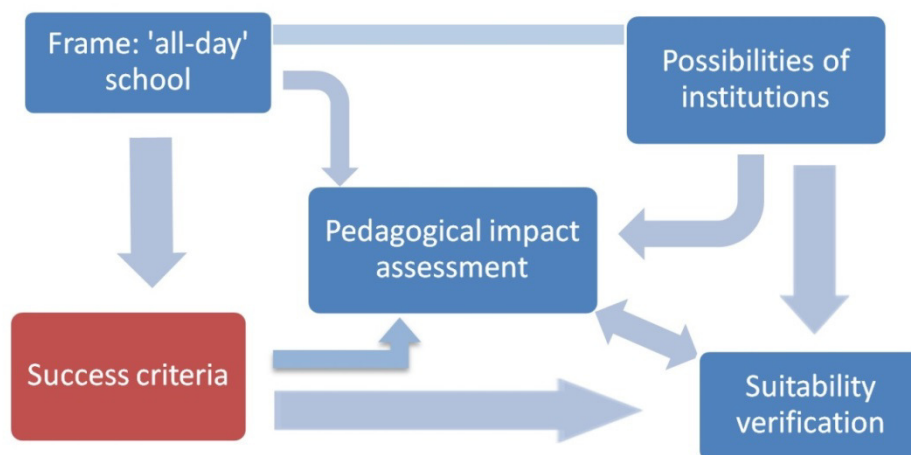
We suppose that the “all-day school” provides more time and more flexible frames for teachers and in consequence it offers good opportunities to promote and disseminate new educational methods, for

example the inquiry based science education, which has been successfully introduced in many countries, but which still lacks relevant practical experience and therefore need efforts to implement in Hungary.

Using qualitative and quantitative methods, we also gained information on the overall frames of the all-day schools and the needs, expectations and possibilities of educational facilities present in the system. These data complement the framework of success criteria in a multifold way throughout the development process:

- in the preparatory phase they provide guidelines for elaborating the pedagogical concept and defining priorities for the development activities;
- serving as a compass, they orient the content, the context and the didactics of the modules;
- they add to the reflective approach in the assessment of the pilot phase (triallying the modules in classroom environments);
- for the suitability verification, they maintain an overarching framework expressing systemic needs and a wide compromise of prospects.

Figure 1: *Relationships between the project elements*



Modules of the educational program will be elaborated in close collaboration with teachers from 10 partner schools. Teachers developing modules will also be involved piloting them as well as adapting modules worked out by their colleagues from the partner network, some observable impacts of which will be assessed using participative action research.

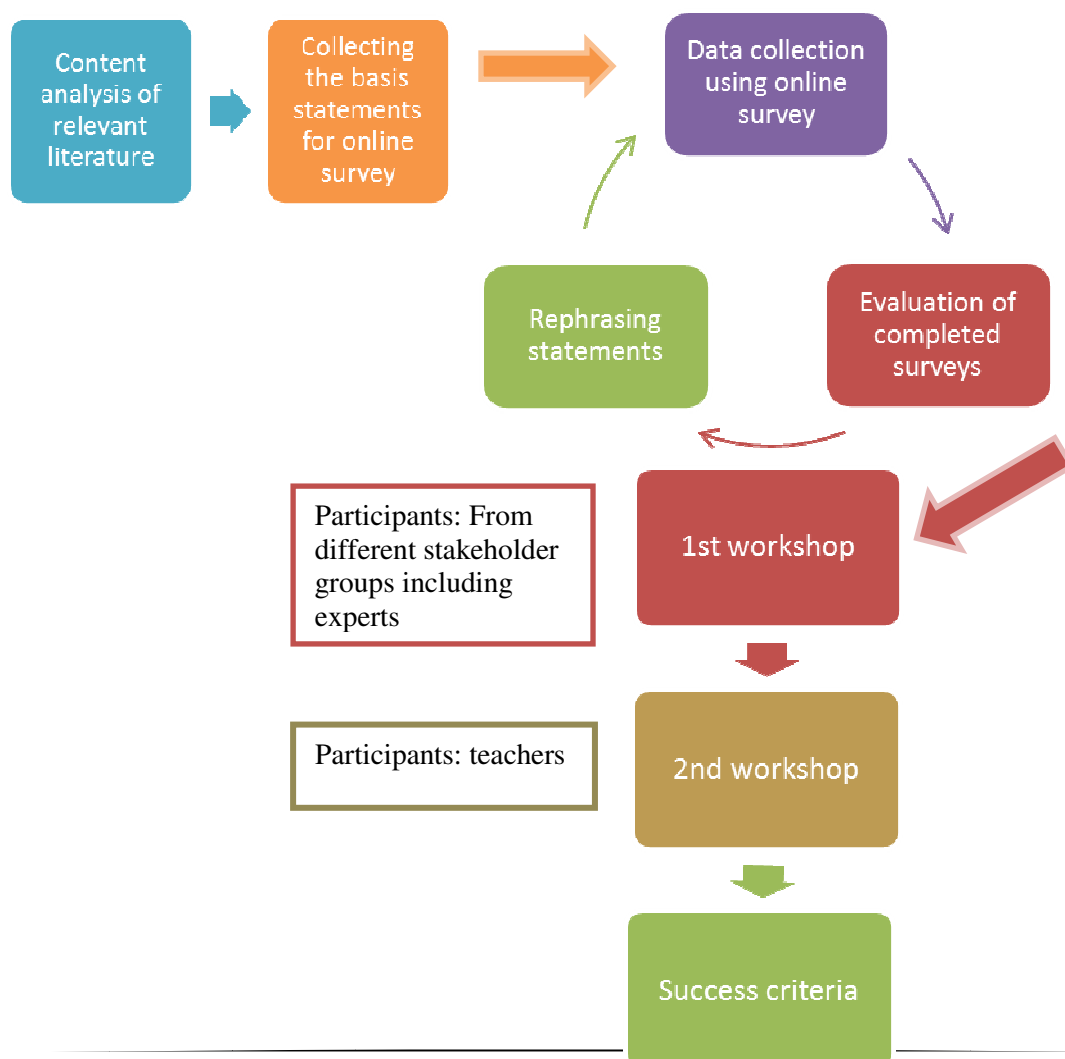
According to our concept of participatory development of the educational program, elements of the existing good practice identified along success criteria in the professional activities and approach of teachers at partner schools could be integrated into the new program, and accordingly the new science education program could unify practical experience (and tacit knowledge originating from teachers) and theoretical evidence (explicit knowledge from research).

In order to evaluate the success of the program (as a part of suitability verification) we also need a well-defined success criteria system which should be determined with considering the opinion of the stakeholder groups and the scientific basis as well.

Methodology

In order to support innovative approaches and develop materials that are in line with the widely accepted targets of science education, we carried out a public Delphi survey. The advantage of Delphi, being a systematic, interactive forecasting method is that one can obtain the opinion of experts without bringing them together face to face. Delphi is especially suitable for surveys when there are limited data from previous researches or where divergent and diverse points of views and values co-exist. Therefore it is a good approach in our case as well because stakeholders have conflicting interests. The steps of a Delphi survey are shown in Figure 1.

Figure 2: Process of a Delphi survey



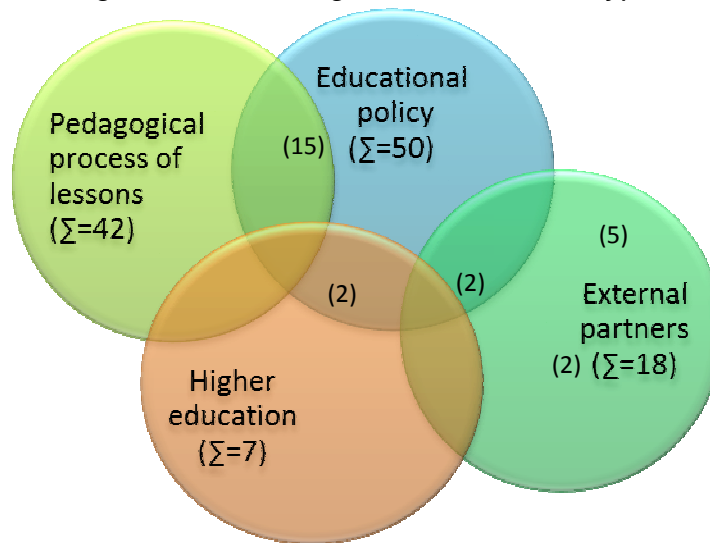
The first step of Delphi is a desk research, followed by two online survey cycles. After the second cycle of online data collection, two groups of experts were invited to clarify different standpoints and in two separate workshops: one for diverse stakeholder groups, the other for practitioners of science education (teachers from various schools). Workshops were meant to clarify the misunderstandings between the representatives of different stakeholder groups and to uncover the underlying correlations. By analysis of the results emerging from the Delphi survey, we concluded 10 criteria and established the success criteria system that we aim to use for elaborating the science education program for all-day schools.

Content analysis

The basis of content analysis consisted of papers representing widely known and accepted policy recommendations that shaped the educational policy, the research and development activities and the orientation of teacher professional development countries in several (if not all) European countries: such as the report “Science Education Now: A Renewed Pedagogy for the Future of Europe” (Rocard et al., 2007), or the external expert report to the European Commission “Interim evaluation & assessment of future options for Science in Society Actions” (Technopolis Group & Fraunhofer ISI, 2012) shaping new framework for funding joint activities for international consortiums throughout Europe. Some of the papers we analysed give a well-established overview of the state of science education in Hungary such as “*The state of Hungarian science education*” (Ádám et al., 2008a) or “*Wings and Weights. Background studies*” (Réti, 2009). Some other documents with visions on science education influenced policy directions or represent a large-scale compromise of experts, such as “Recommendations on improving science public education in Hungary” (Ádám et al., 2008b) and “Wings and Weights – Proposals for rebuilding the education system of Hungary and combating corruption” (Csermely et al., 2009). We also considered basic educational policy documents such as the *National Core Curriculum of Hungary* (2012) and the frame curricula for science education (2012).

Following thorough procession of these documents, 92 basic statement were gathered and clustered. The figure below shows the number of key statements related to the main thematic fields.

Figure 3: Venn diagram of statement types



Source: own illustration

The quantitative analysis shows that most of the claims relate to education policy proposals (50), and the practice of teaching lessons (42). In the view of the resources the most effective and urgent areas of intervention are “Lessons” and “Educational policy” (certainly not underestimating the impact of the other areas either). It also shows that the two dominant areas overlap, as there are 15 statements in their intersection. Many aspects show the importance of external partners (social, industrial actors) in the science education. Although in the present Hungarian educational practice it is quite rare to have a closer, long-term co-operation between schools and external partners. We ignored statements of field where we have no impacts (e.g.: More museums of science should be established). We focused on methodological, attitudinal recommendations and from these 25 basic statements were emerged on the survey. A few examples for the basis statements:

- Science education is successful, if broad range of students evaluates the subject positively.
- Science education is successful, if it provides useful knowledge in everyday life.
- Science education is successful, if it focuses on understanding instead of memorizing.
- The success of science education depends on how the societies aim to form our scientific knowledge on a long term.
- Science education is successful, if it can change the students’ negative attitudes.
- Science education is successful, if it builds on the best practice of talent-care in the school practice.

- Science education is successful, if it demonstrates the process, method and results of modern science.

Surveys

In the first cycle an online survey was built up with 4-point Likert scale statements. Data collection was undertaken using snowball sampling. As a result, we received 199 completely filled answers. The distribution of respondents' age and their level of education were fortunate.

Figure 4: *Educational level of respondents*

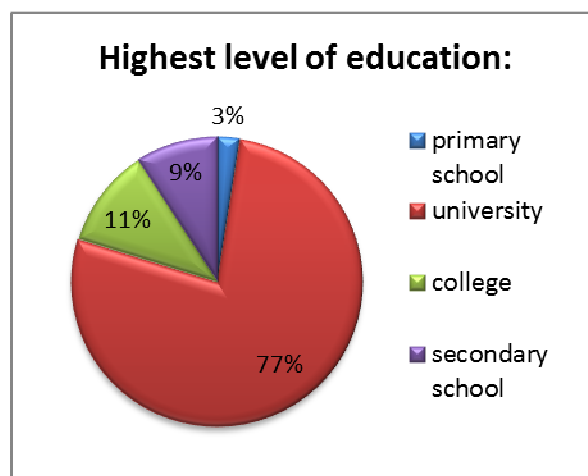
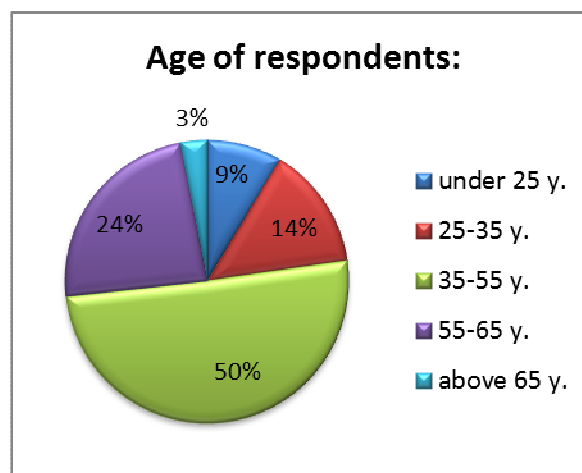


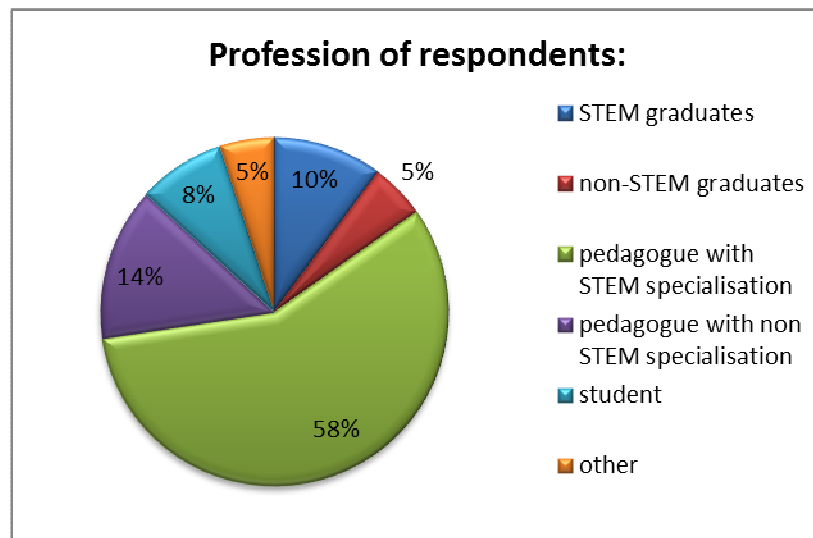
Figure 5: *Age of respondents*



More than three-quarters of respondents have university degrees and other 11% college degrees. 3% have only primary school educational level which was the percentage of students asked to participate in the survey. Half of the respondents are between 35-55 years old. This data correlated

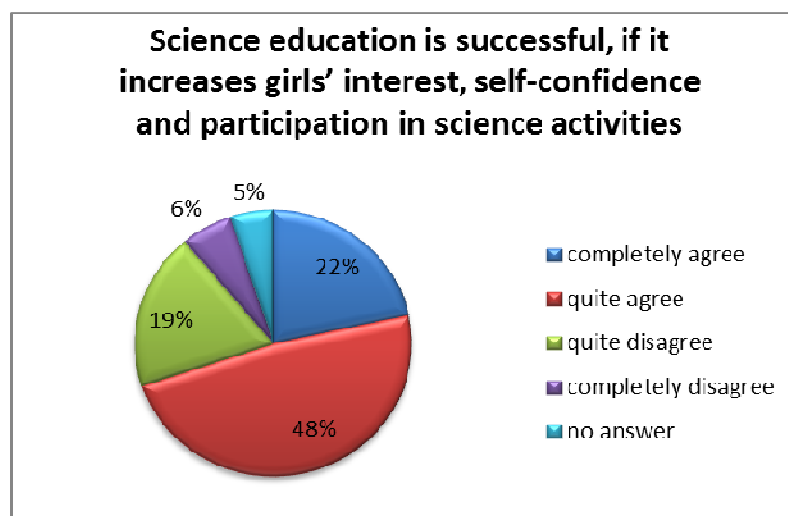
with the average age of Hungarian science teachers. A quarter of the questionnaires was filled out by 55-65 year old, probably highly experienced people. Another quarter was the younger age group therefore the sample is quite representative.

Figure 6: *Profession of respondents*



As shown above almost three-quarters of respondents were educational professionals, 58% were science teachers, 14% were teachers with other subjects. 10% of respondents were science, technology, engineering, and mathematics related experts, and 8% students. Accordingly we could involve the stakeholder groups in the survey. The results highlighted some conflicting points of views. The most “disagreed” answers (25%) were on the statement about girls.

Figure 7: *Results of the first survey 1.*

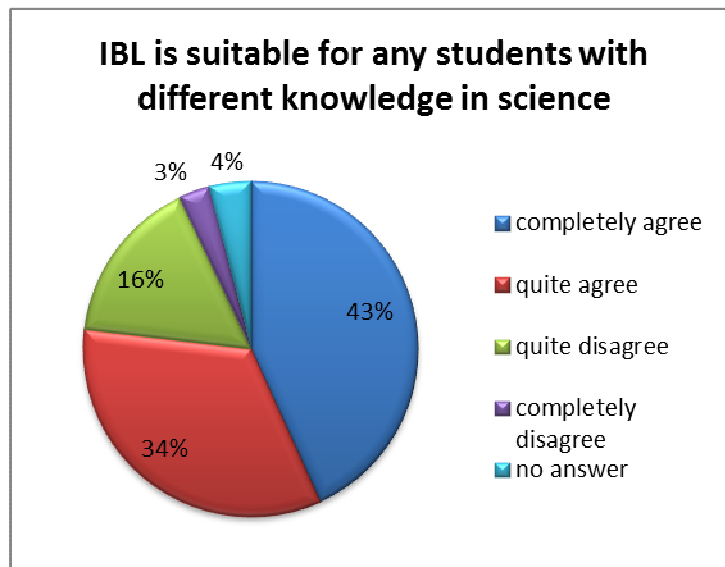


Several explanations are possible to this fact. International surveys explored that the girls' participations in science lessons is not ensured with the same depth as the boys. Educational recommendations at European level pay attention to the girls attitude to science (Rocard at al., 2007). In Hungarian educational recommendations this appears a problem too. The Hungarian science schoolbooks reflect masculine nature- and science philosophy (inclusion in the secrets of nature, conquer, defeat, etc.). This aggressive approach is unacceptable nowadays for the young people especially for the girls. The deterministic aspect, the closed mentality can easily lead to racist, sexist thoughts. Wide range of students would like to answer complex problems – especially the girls – but these are missing from the school practice (Réti, 2009). Maybe the respondents were not aware of these results and impacts.

On the other hand some respondents probably wanted to avoid breaching the principle of equal treatment. However the question is, that equality means that everybody has to work on the same exercise, or everybody has the right to their interest related exercise.

Also it has a different result from the average the statement about the applicability of IBL. 19% disagreed that 'IBL techniques are effective on most talented student groups and on the weakest student groups too'.43% completely agreed with this statement.

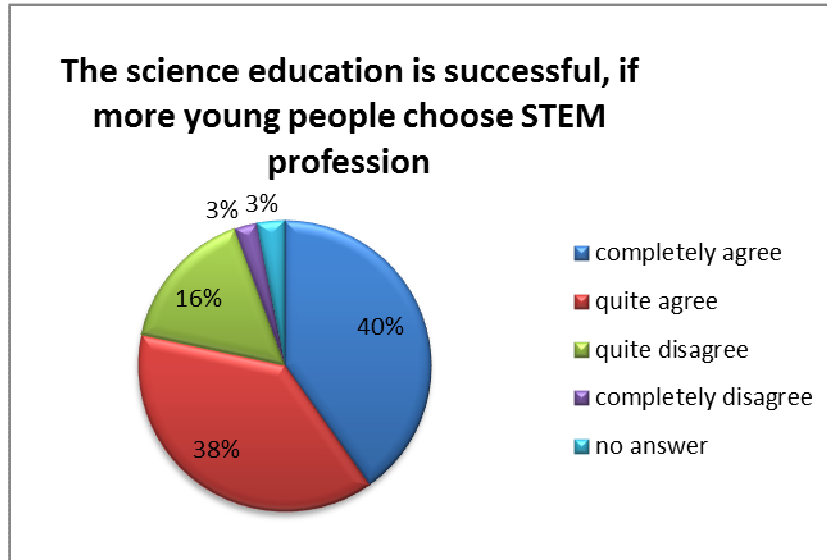
Figure 8: *Results of the first survey 2*



The discrepancy of answers concerning inquiry based science education might originate from the disparity of views on efficient use of inquiry based instruction for talent support or for working with mixed student groups including low-achievers. Also it could be interesting whether the respondents who completely agreed have tried any IBL

methods in their everyday school practice? Clarifying these questions was the main challenge for the expert workshops.

Figure 9: *Results of the first survey 3*



Similarly, 19% of the respondents disagreed with the statement that the number of STEM profession choosing young people is success criteria of science education. Only 40% completely agreed, and 38 % agreed. One might wonder, which part of the statement agreeing respondents felt disaccordance with that could result in a higher proportion of answers “quite agree”. In order to learn more about the possible reasons for not considering students’ higher STEM career choices as a success criterion for science education, one can compare this figure with the answers of similar statements.

Figure 10: *Results of the first survey 4*

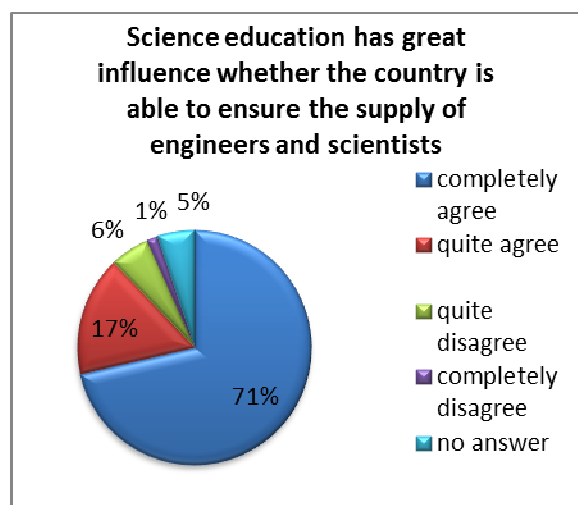
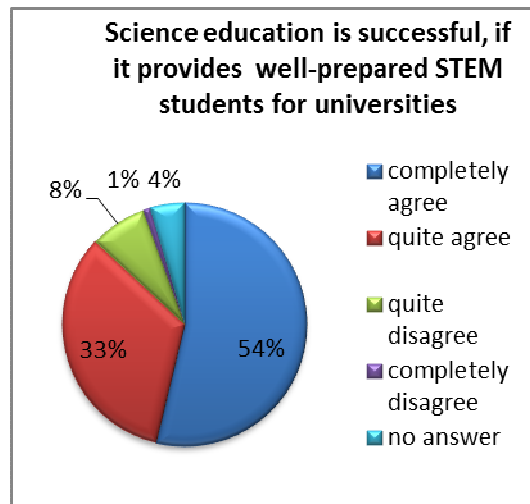


Figure 11: *Results of the first survey 5*



One of the similar statements is “Science education is successful, if it provides well-prepared STEM students for universities”. More than half of the respondents completely agreed with this statement, and only 9 % disagreed. In consequence, stakeholders may think that successful science teaching would not produce more STEM graduates but better-prepared STEM students for universities. This emphasizes the quality against the quantity. Although there is a contradiction within the statement “Science education has great influence on the country’s potential to ensure the supply of engineers and scientists” 71% almost three-quarters completely agreed and only 7% disagreed. If one considers the high accordance with the statement indicating covering economy’s need for STEM jobs, the low acceptance of the statement about the number of applicants (or student career choice) indicates a discordance as the number of applicants should become a success criterion in order to ensure to supply enough STEM professionals. Such misunderstandings or covered correlations should come to light during the workshops.

It is equally worth to compare another two statements about external partners. “Science education is successful, if it involves external partners” evokes a relatively high resistance, as 16% of respondents disagreed with it, and only 33% of them completely agreed. On the other side, with the statement “With IBL we can involve external partners in education” 58% completely agreed and only 11% disagreed.

Figure 12: *Results of the first survey 6*

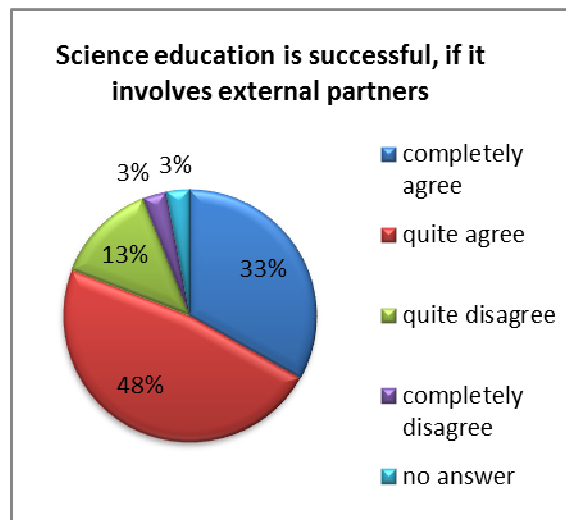
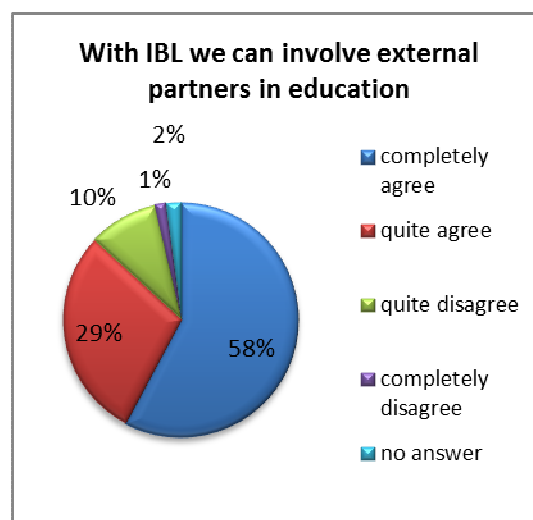


Figure 13: *Results of the first survey 7*



Maybe the whys and wherefores were unclear at this point. Therefore we rephrased this statement in the second online survey as “Science education could become successful, if it involves external partners (research, industry, applied science).”

The second cycle of online surveys was prepared in the light of the results above. This time, only invited experts participated and short replies in textboxes were allowed. Participants were asked to evaluate statements which proved to be the most dissentious in the first cycle as well as the only statement with which nobody could completely disagree. We rephrased some other statements to refine the opinions. The final form of the second online survey is shown below:

Please evaluate the following statements in brief.

1. Science should be taught with integrated approach.
2. Science education is successful if it provides a good basis for sustainability, democratic education and healthy, environmentally conscious life skills.
3. Science education is successful if it develops positive attitudes towards science learning.
4. Science education is successful if both genders are equally involved and invited.
5. Science education is successful if it increases girls' self-confidence in science activities.
6. Science education can become successful if it involves external partners (research, industry, applied science).

Workshops

In the first workshop experts from divergent fields of science related professions (chosen based on a matrix containing science education experts (teacher trainers, policy advisors, researchers), practitioners of STEM jobs (including experienced employees and young professionals), representatives of the business sector as well as NGOs (working for promoting innovation or gender parity), educational policymakers) shared their opinion about science education's success criteria:

- The importance of inclusive approach and promoting scientific inquiry was brought out in strong relief: on the other hand, participants drew our attention to the risk of making any teaching method exclusively.
- Examining complex problems collected from everyday life in science lessons is necessary to keep students attention and motivation.
- Inquiries about the nature of science should be imparted to the students instead of merely memorizing a lot of facts.
- Teaching boys and girls with the same method is ineffective.
- Teachers are the cornerstones of the methodological renewal although not all of them are ready to handle the complex approach yet and need long-term motivation and own emprises to try new methods. The curriculum, which is saturated in terms of content, inhibits teachers too.

In the second workshop teachers were chosen based on a matrix of school types, experience (including age groups or subject taught, involvement in talent support or inclusive education), age and gender. The participants of the second workshop were especially motivated and active. The importance of the complex approach in teaching science subjects was

highlighted, but the experts warned us against an integrated science subject. Primary school pupils need especially exciting experiences to establish a positive attitude about learning science and to preserve the natural curiosity of children. Teaching should become an elite profession and teacher training should contain more inquiry based methods and experiences.

Results

Finally on the base of the summarized results of the whole Delphi survey the following criteria in science education emerged.

Science education is successful, if it...

- develops positive attitudes towards science learning;
- provides opportunities for the students to gain direct experiences on scientific inquiry;
- improves the scientific way of thinking of students;
- preserves or increases the natural curiosity of students about the phenomena of nature and STEM problems;
- opportunities must be provided to the students to try the scientific work without preliminary requirements;
 - demonstrates the process, method and results of modern science;
- provides students with applicable knowledge in everyday life establishing firm basis for sustainability, civic competencies and healthy, environmentally conscious life skills.
- provides practical experience on the use of school knowledge in everyday life;
- focuses on understanding instead of memorizing.
- involves a wide range of students (especially marginal groups including low-achievers and girls) into the science activities.

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General Education In Pedagogical School Documents In Kosovo And Metohija

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Faculty of teacher education Prizren

A term that has been frequently used in recent years by participants in pedagogical and educational work and which has become more important every day in Kosovo and Metohija is *curriculum*. It actually represents the overall course of education. In primary and general education curriculum originates from various sources: science, technology, manufacture, culture, understanding of nature, and understanding of people, pedagogical and psychological knowledge.

General education programs in Kosovo and Metohija try to cover as many areas as possible and they are frequently overloaded with complex contents and with contents of secondary importance since they are not taking into account the knowledge economy instead of choosing basic facts and leading ideas.

Contents of general education should stimulate the students, encourage them to do research, to ask relevant questions, to participate in the process of creative research in different areas using carefully chosen and correct data and information. As such, they have to be flexible, more frequently revised and they have to prepare students for practical implementation of acquired knowledge.

Introduction

Curriculum represents the overall flow of education process. "*School curriculum is usually composed of the subjects studied*" (Marsh, 1994:93). It implies a sort of a criticism of the existing school curricula and activities being studied at school. One of the key issues related to the curriculum is the question of content of general education which should be selected and included in the curriculum. Another issue is the question of how selected content is organised.

The curriculum in primary and general education in Kosovo and Metohija includes several components: the system of knowledge, skills and habits from certain areas (literature and language culture, art, understanding of nature and society, health and hygiene education), it forms the starting point for independent (individual) learning, and it includes the fundamentals of ethics and ways of life, and emotional judgments towards nature and other people. A child's personality is

prepared for maintaining and developing culture (in a broad sense) through adopting a curriculum. That is why a curriculum has to have different sources starting from high school: science, technology, production, culture, understanding nature, understanding people, pedagogical and psychological knowledge. In any case, when selecting a curriculum related to general education in elementary schools, maximum criteria should be strived for (everything that a child could acquire); rather, it should be observed how the given curriculum corresponds to the given age, what it provides as a basis for further growth, and what are the possible options for including it into teaching process.

The curricula of general education in primary schools in Kosovo and Metohija

Curriculum is “a document that contains: beginning and end of a school year, the length of the quarters and breaks; subjects which are being studied in elementary schools, distribution of subjects per years, number of lessons for a particular subject and number of lessons in a class, as well as the number of lessons in a week” (Подласый, 2000:82). It is an official school document concerning school organisation.

Curriculum “teaching program curriculum; учебная программа” is an “official document which is prescribed by educational authorities and which determines the content for each teaching subject, i.e. the range of knowledge that students should acquire in certain grades” (Potkonjak, 1997:82). That is also an official school document concerning school organisation.

First such documents related to general education were based solely on practical teaching experience, on the elements of human labour, on everyday needs of a man, and their desire to be involved in social life. However, as the society was getting more developed, man’s knowledge was getting richer in new contents, rules of conduct, customs, education, etc. thus reaching today’s level of development which implies the presence of content from almost all areas of human life and work.

A major problem in defining the concept, the essence and importance of curricula in Kosovo and Metohija which include general education in elementary schools is the fact that they have not yet been studied sufficiently. This is the reason why there are so many disagreements during the implementation of such documents. However, there are some strong views that the study of curricula should be interdisciplinary, that is, wide (Makevic, 2001:36).

When making a curriculum, a school uses all the resources available, especially its professional staff. All the participants in educational process are involved in the development of the curriculum. Schools have full autonomy and initiative when organising and regulating the process of

school curriculum development. "Development of programs should not be characterised by strictness; students undergo transformation and their development is not always predictable; program has to take into account these changes and it should constantly adapt to them...The reality in which children live outside school is a part of that program; important facts from national and international life are integrated with various disciplines giving them a more realistic meaning (Djelpi, 1976:100).

The society in which this process takes place has a great impact on general education and on the development of curriculum (Knezevic, 1987:21).

What is important in today's curricula are integrative structures, that is, those structures that cover the widest fields of human thought. They are becoming the leading concept of the content of general education. Proper presentation of these structures in the curriculum helps to develop the scientific view of the world.

Content of general education in elementary school curriculum in Kosovo and Metohija

Since general and compulsory education in Kosovo and Metohija represents the beginning of continuous, lifelong learning process, and since we are aware of the fact that it cannot secure the development of all the knowledge, skills, attitudes, and values necessary for an active life in society and for individual development and improvement, it should at least develop a student's overall disposition, ability, openness, and willingness to learn. Such a process should contain adequate contents in teaching curricula which will enable the realisation of all the above mentioned. From the point of view of curriculum, teaching process and education are understood as processes which influence overall student's personality. "A good curriculum is the one which, among other things, secures proper development of all the aspects of students' personality" (Ministry of Education and Sport, 2003:11).

Development and bloom of science and technology have a direct impact on general knowledge, its content, application, methods and techniques, as well as on the overall organisation of teaching process. Since every change in society is necessarily reflected on general education, we are then aware of the need to constantly change the curriculum. Curriculum always represents a more or less successful picture of what the society was yesterday, what it is today, and what it will be tomorrow.

The content of curriculum is a part of means used to achieve the objectives. Therefore, the content and goal clearly differ, and formulation of goals precedes the description of curriculum content.

Getting the content of a general education school subject closer to science has become a complex or from time to time even unfeasible job, because in many cases some scientific data has to be simply omitted when the curriculum is made. However, it is difficult to decide what data can be omitted and what data must be entered.

Okon (1969:566) believes that an important element in a curriculum is the one of relation between the science content and education content. He suggests converging or even merging the structure of curriculum content with the structure and content of modern science, and he believes that this is the highest perfection.

General education content should stimulate students, and encourage them to do research, to ask relevant questions, to be involved in a process of creative research in various fields using carefully chosen and precise data and information. Learning will be less focused on the adoption of facts, and more on the ability to interpret the facts, to evaluate them and assess their real value. The content of general education curriculum must be flexible, frequently revised and it must prepare students for practical implementation. What has to be taken into account as well are the effects of different changes on the multiplication of facts and data.

Novelties will have to be included more which will result in more frequent and faster change in general education content as a reaction to newly discovered information and to the level of our knowledge in relation to which we decide what, how and to what extent should be changed. Contemporary concepts of selecting teaching content emphasise the role of *basic and essential* knowledge which all students need. This knowledge is *basic* because it provides a basis which will later be supplemented and enriched with some new, more complex skills; and it is *essential* because it provides effective learning in social and cultural life, which represents the right but also the need of each individual. General education content should be adapted to the age and abilities of students.

Current problem in the content of general education in Kosovo and Metohija is how to overcome current fragmentation of teaching content into a large number of subjects. Nowadays, a great importance is given to reducing and modernising information that students should acquire. It is important that students fully understand teaching material, and to get into its structure. Therefore, it is necessary to make general education programs so that students can understand basic concepts and relations among them. This statement leads us to Skatkin and his *pyramid of data*.

When talking about content analysis, Skatkin (1968:67) emphasises that a certain *pyramid of data* should be made that would include the most important ideas and scientific theories on the top, while the basis would involve typical individual subjects. That is why he suggests “*creating several different versions of curriculum which would differ in scope and thoroughness, and in the level of processing*” (Djordjevic, 1984:19). Space between the base and the top would include different levels of interrelated data and principles, with broader and more general information on the

higher levels of the pyramid. In this way, everyone can determine the position and importance of data, facts and laws in the overall pattern of knowledge. Thus, in practical teaching, an individual could choose facts, data and laws which represent the basis of the most important scientific theories which one must be familiar with in order to be able to understand them. The main criterion for determining general education content according to Skatkin is the extent to which it secures overall personality development. He also talked about the selection of knowledge that should be included in the program of teaching subjects, i.e. he defined the criteria for selecting programs used in the analysis of the achievements of science, that is, branches of science. These criteria are:

1. How important that knowledge is from the scientific point of view;
2. How important it is in relation to society;
3. What its role is when establishing the correct view of the world for a student;
4. What the possibility is for acquiring this type of knowledge.

A certain number of important details that give vivacity to teaching and learning should also be addressed, but in a manner that will emphasise the important aspects. This could be achieved if teaching program as well as teaching itself would be liberated from obsolete and irrelevant details, and if the focus was on basic conceptual structure of teaching material. What is implied is an approach which *“reduces an excessive number of historical facts (but which does not remove them completely) and which modernizes teaching material”* (Djordjevic, 1984:19). Certain psychological studies have shown that the material learned with understanding its sense is memorised better than when learning individual, unrelated facts; that is why it is necessary to pay attention to the basic conceptual structure of teaching material related to general education, as well as on separating important facts from those which are less important or unimportant. When developing general education teaching program it is necessary to take into consideration the relatedness of those concepts with the concepts students had already mastered in previous grades, as well as the concepts students will encounter in higher grades. It should be also tried to connect the concepts from different subjects of the same grade (which includes vertical and horizontal connections).

Some experts are looking for solutions to free curriculum of broad, complex and secondary material and content, to single out basic data and principles in different subjects, as well as basic, leading ideas, and the optimum amount of knowledge and practices from a given subject for the given age of a student. That is a general program in all school systems, and this is the reason why there is a constant tendency to innovate and reform the existing general education content; because general education is a *“process of transferring scientific and everyday knowledge to younger generation, and a process of thinking creatively is based on these, as well as on man’s theoretical and practical approach to the world which includes*

the knowledge from different fields of life and work” (Baturina & Kuzina, 1999:48). Therefore, it is necessary to relieve the existing curriculum, but at the same time make sure not to leave out important elements from existing areas.

The creator of program content on the level of modern science is expected to make a curriculum so that *“its structure is characterised by science, scientific correctness and certainty, that it expresses the state of modern scientific achievements, which should be set within pedagogical and didactic basis, principles and criteria in order to choose the structure of program content.”* (Makevic, 2001:97-98). The structure of program is not only a sum of data, but it should also express logic of science and scientific disciplines from which the program content was selected. It should also stimulate the development of students’ abilities, to represent a valid basis for creating a system of knowledge, values, skills and habits.

In terms of the educational content of subjects in general education schools in Kosovo and Metohija, it is obvious that the tendency exhibited in the new curriculum, which is reflected in efforts to provide solid elementary education will be even more present in the future.

When preparing new curriculum, it was necessary to give an answer to questions such as *“what material, what elementary knowledge and what skills must be acquired in a general education school”* (Neuner, 1969:593). Taking into consideration the importance of this problem, we must always bear in mind the adequacy of selected content because the realisation of the goal of education process depends on it.

General education content structure in elementary schools in Kosovo and Metohija

School program in the area concerned consists of *general and special* parts which make a single whole. *General part* in lower grades of compulsory elementary education includes:

- 1) main (basic) subjects,
- 2) compulsory subjects,
- 3) elective subjects.

Higher grades of compulsory elementary education include:

- 1) basic subjects,
- 2) compulsory subjects,
- 3) a part of elective subjects.

Special part of the program contains:

- 1) optional subjects, contents and activities through which school, in accordance with its capabilities, responds to specific needs and interests of its students, parents and local community.
- 2) A part of elective and optional subjects, contents and activities through which school, in accordance with its capabilities, responds

to specific needs and interests of its students, parents and local community.

Subject teaching is carried out through:

1. Basic subjects (which are compulsory for every student in all the grades of compulsory elementary education)
2. Compulsory subjects (which are compulsory for all the students in a certain grade of compulsory elementary education)
3. Elective subjects (which are compulsory for all the students which elect these in a certain grade)
4. Optional subjects (subjects that a school offers as special part of teaching program in a certain grade).

There is a possibility nowadays to create differentiated programs for higher grade students in elementary schools, which are designed for students with different interests, abilities and aspiration in particular teaching subjects. *“Since today there are no conditions for a ‘one student – one program’ concept to exist, the experts opt for differentiated programs on three levels (lower, medium and higher)”* (Kocic, 1984:204).

Programs at the earliest stage of primary education are realised through classroom teaching, where the emphasis is on the development of basic skills and knowledge. At this age, the process of systematic knowledge relies on experience, knowledge and skills that a child has acquired in different contexts, and in everyday preschool and extra-curricular life. 90% of recommended number of lessons at this period of education is realised through basic, compulsory and optional subjects. The remaining 10% are planned for the implementation of a special part of school program, which is also compulsory.

At the next level of education in elementary schools children execute a number of actions and acquire a variety of thematic knowledge. However, cognitive functions and potential have not yet reached the full level of logical abstraction, so the knowledge range is mainly limited to specific, real and material concepts. Therefore, teaching process begins with introducing children with phenomena that are close to them, conditions are created and a child is encouraged to explore these phenomena in different ways, to see them in different contexts and under different circumstances, and to integrate this new knowledge into what they already know. At this period of education, the emphasis is on enrichment, extension and integration of existing knowledge. 80% of recommended number of lessons at this period of education is realised through basic, compulsory and optional subjects. The remaining 20% are planned for a part of optional subjects, and for the realisation of school's program which is also compulsory.

Final stage of primary education involves cognitive abilities entering into the final, highest development stage, i.e., forming the ability of abstract thinking. This allows children to understand and develop concepts and conceptual systems, and to control the system of basic scientific

knowledge. At this age students are able to master the patterns of thinking, and to explore and solve problems specific to particular disciplines which they will use in their further education. 70% of recommended number of lessons at this period of education is realised through basic, compulsory and a part of optional subjects. The remaining 20% are planned for a part of optional subjects, and for the realisation of school's program which is also compulsory.

There are 5 education areas through which the content of general education is presented:

- 1) The area of language, literature and communication,
- 2) The area of social science and philosophy,
- 3) The area of mathematics, natural science and technology,
- 4) The area of art,
- 5) The area of physical and health education.

The area of language, literature and communication intends to allow individuals to gain awareness of themselves, their nation and their community, thus enabling them to make a comparison with other languages and cultures.

The area of social science and philosophy critically examines, evaluates and assesses both their own and other people values.

The area of mathematics, natural science and philosophy contributes to the development of logical thinking, recognising patterns and symmetry, understanding symbols, images, etc.

The area of art involves understanding the world around us, developing emotions, intellects and imagination.

The area of physical and health education intends to enable children to acquire knowledge, skills and values necessary for preserving and improving health and a healthy way of living.

Closing remarks

As a very important part of education, general education in Kosovo and Metohija is present from the beginning to the end of schooling. In elementary schools it is carried out with reference to school program whose nature must be integrated (these are the structures which cover the widest field of human thought).

The content of general education changes with the development of human society. It is influenced by many factors. What should be mentioned first are the changes taking place in a given society, influenced by the development of industry, technology, political structures, etc. We live in the period full of turbulent (explosive) changes, in the period of haste and new inventions which change the pace of our life and work every day. This is the reason why general education program content in elementary schools must be flexible, stimulated, adapted to the age and

abilities of students, adequate, open to change, and, as such, it has to enable students to implement the knowledge acquired.

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Social Cultural Activity and Capital Theories

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At the start of our study – but beyond it as well – we assume that community places, institutions, houses of social cultural activity and communities working within their frames not only possess social capital but they also develop and generate it. We believe that social capital occurring in the institutional system of social cultural activity is an essential condition of social cohesion, integration, the development of civil society, thus the working of a democratic state. We see that this is especially true regarding Roma community places. We also assume that the existence and strength of the social capital of individual cultural communities (cultural communities, committees of social cultural activity, and groups of cultural managers) could be measured while examining the nature and decisions of cultural politics regarding them. The other way round, the lack and weakness of social capital could (also) be the reason why these organizations could not take part in the preparation of decisions affecting them.

First, the cultural aspects of classical capital theories are presented. The basic issues and connections of social capital are introduced, as well as those authors who have previously dealt with the connection of social cultural activity and capital theories. Finally, we make an attempt to delineate the directions and syllabi of possible empirical research.

Economics have recorded several capital theories for centuries retrospectively. For a long time, besides land and labor, capital appeared as one type of factor of production. It was at the beginning of the 20th century, and later in the 50s and 60s, that by derogation from this tradition, ideas placing the concept of capital in other dimensions were articulated (Schultz, 1988; Becker, 1998).

Shultz names such theoreticians as the historical founders of these ideas as Adam Smith, H. Von Thünen and Irving Fisher. As soon as in the 18th century, Smith interpreted the acquired and utile abilities of the population as part of the capital. In his work *The Wealth of Nations*, Smith pointed out that the development of the workers' qualification is the basic condition for economic development and well-being (Smith, 1959/1992). Fisher shared the idea that human beings are also a part of the concept of capital. Basically, Schultz went along the same path, since he recognized that investing in human resources is in close connection with economic growth. Education for him means a kind of investment, and its result could be seen as a form of capital. This is built into the personality and becomes human capital, as long as it is able to provide valuable services. From the aspect of our study as well as social cultural activity, it is important to note

that according to Schultz, adult educational programs not organized by firms are also among the factors that increase human activity – Schultz also mentions in this context healthcare institutions and services, trainings while work, formal elementary, secondary and higher education, as well as the migration of individuals and families orientating according to the changing workplace (Schultz, 1988). From another approach, human capital consists of the individual's abilities and productive knowledge (Rosen, 1998).

Among others, Bourdieu (1998), Coleman (1998, 2001) and Becker (1997, 1998) made an attempt to subsume the different, however, tightly cohering forms of capital. Based on all this, there are several approaches to the concept of social capital. On the whole, social capital could be grasped as a relative concept that mainly emerges from the relation of the individual and some kind of community. Some kind of interaction is always assumed between the individual and the community (Coleman, 1998, 2001; Fukuyama, 1997, 1999, 2000; Becker, 1997, 1998). An individual's actions can mean not only keeping the sources, but also trying to get hold of them (Lin, 1997). It is based on exchange-relations working in networks (Becker, 1998, Bourdieu, 1998, Coleman, 1998), and is capable of institutionalization through organizations (Bourdieu, 1998). It has to do with authority, since it is a type of authority (Weber, 1987; Orbán & Szántó, 2005; Flap & DeGraf, 1998; Coleman, 2001). It is interpreted as public good (Bourdieu, 1998; Putnam, 1993), as well as a cultural phenomenon (Becker, 1998; Bourdieu, 1998; Coleman, 1998), and as such, its social integrating effect is especially strong. It is also characteristic of it that in its appearance and functioning, norms and sanctions are crucial (Coleman, 1998, 2001). A fundamental condition for its functioning regarding individuals is trust (Fukuyama, 1997; Csermely, 2005). All these approaches are encapsulated by Orbán and Szántó in their summary study, stating that social capital is the complexity of "mobilized" informal social norms and values that enhance social cooperation among people, starting with reciprocity and trust, all through religious morals.

The concept of social capital as a synonym was first used by Hanifan during World War I, to depict the features of individuals' everyday relations: friendship, good-will, caring, sensitivity. Loury, in his studies written at the end of the 1970s, calls the resources of individuals social capital. According to him, this resource could be found mainly in families, and community and social organizations.

In the 1970s, Becker made an attempt to typify human capital in the dimension of preferences and values. In his opinion, personal and social capitals are both parts of human capital. Personal capital means consumption in the past as well as personal experiences that influence current and future-oriented preferences and values. For him social capital is the effect of the activities of individuals or others belonging to a given group, which occurs in the individual's social network and control system.

Becker basically interprets social capital based on its utility. He notes that the extent of the individual's social capital does not depend on the individual, but rather on the choices of the team members who build up the given network. Becker believes that culture is a type of social capital. Culture and economy also have a great impact on preferences, individual behavior and taste, since they are capable of changing personal and social capital. Economic capital serves as the foundation for all the other capitals, and with its help one can get hold of other types of capital, too. Economic capital can influence taste and preferences with its ability to change human capital (personal, social) (Becker, 1998).

In 1983 Bourdieu oversteps the traditional theories of Economics and distinguishes three forms of capital – cultural, social and economic capital. He also draws up three major groups within cultural capital, which capital is of great importance in our study. Incorporated cultural capital (1) is individualistic and assumes some kind of incorporation. The accumulation of this incorporated culture is preceded by an acquisition process, for which learning time is needed. The objectified cultural capital (2) is concrete, can be visualized (paintings, writings, musical instruments). Institutionalized cultural capital (3) is usually realized in forms of titles and positions, e.g. school qualification or academic degree. The acquisition of cultural capital could take place entirely unwittingly, even with the total lack of planning. Bourdieu, like Becker, states that economic capital is the foundation of all the other capitals and with its help we can acquire other capitals as well. Both social and cultural capital – given certain conditions – can be transformed into economic capital. It can mean financial income and other economic, financial sources, too (Bourdieu, 1998).

The condition of its functioning is that the individual belongs to some kind of a group. The capital possessed by the individuals in the group is accumulated, and serves as a resource for each group member. The social capital of the individual depends on two factors – on the one hand, on the extent of social network possessed by the individual, and on the other, on the size of the capital (cultural, economic, symbolic) that those have who are in connection with this individual. Bourdieu defines symbolic capital as latent or not recognized, that is, a capital whose nature is not known or hidden. The existence of social networks means the perpetual communication of the group members, the way they “institutionalize” social capital. The direct profit is the target of the individual's activity. In this process the relations formed by chance transform into lasting, important and valuable relationships that also carry certain obligations. Its essential characteristic is continuous exchange (gifts, words), and the condition of this exchange is to be known and acknowledged. This institutionalized social network ensures places and social happenings as well. Another important specialty of it is delegation, which means that with its help social capital possessed by the group is concentrated in the hands of only one person or a few.

According to Weber social capital can be seen as a type of authority, thus social capital can be interpreted from the aspect of authority and political power as well (Orbán & Szántó, 2005). In *Flap and De Graaf's reading* (1998) social authority is the synonym of social capital: it means the personal social networks of people and the resources obtained through them. Flap and De Graaf refers to Weber, who distinguishes three types of authority: economic, political and symbolic (Weber, 1987). According to the co-authors social authority (capital) is the fourth besides the above mentioned three (Flap & De Graaf, 1998). Based on their study, social capital makes the individual more marketable on the labor market, helps in getting better jobs in less time than usual, and keeping the job for longer. According to Coleman (1998, 2001) the two basic characteristics of social capital is that it can always be interpreted in some kind of social structure, and that it helps the activities of the actors within the given structure. It appears when the relations of interactions between persons change. Responsibilities and the expectations deriving from them, as well as the reliability of the structure are resources that can create social capital for the individual. Coleman believes that an important form of social capital is the informational potential that lies in social relations, and also the system of norms and sanctions, in which the individual can de-emphasize his interests from time to time for the good of the community. It has beneficial effects on the evolving of the forms of social capital when social networks are being closed – *Coleman* claims that being closed is a characteristic of social relations, on which effective norms are based (1998:23) –, and also the ability of monopolized social organizations that they can create social capital. This can be information or obligation, too. It is important to note that social capital occurring in the family and in other communities plays an essential role especially in the development of the new generations' human capital. It is significant to mention that social capital can be found in the dimensions outside the family, thus in education or in social cultural activity as well. This is affirmed in the remark that social capital applies to institutions, relationships and norms that determine the quantity and quality of society's interactions (World Bank, 1999).

Social capital in Fukuyama's dimension has three main functions – economic, political and social (Fukuyama, 1999, 2000). The most important economic function is the cutting down of expenses occurring during transactions (e.g. finding appropriate work force, purchasing business information in case of economic coordination procedures) (Fukuyama, 1999; Lengyel & Szántó, 2005). The main political function is to develop civil society, since Fukuyama believes that the existence of social capital is the basis for the working of communities and civil organization systems. And civil society is one of the most important factors of the working of a democratic state. In its social function, social capital strengthens social cohesion and integration in a period of time when the

lack of social capital (among others) deepens those crises that characterize the 20th and 21st centuries (Fukuyama, 2000; Csaba, 2006).

According to *Coleman* (1998:14-17) social capital could be found outside the family. Based on Coleman's ideas we can say that the institution system of social cultural activity and the network of community places and the cultural communities functioning within them can also mean social capital, because they can provide similar circumstances and social relations like a school or even a hometown can. It is needless to prove that clubs, associations, cultural communities existing within the frames of the institution system of social cultural activity indicate the form and frame of forming a group. Within the profession it also seems to be evident that community places, based on their fundamental activities, make it possible for cultural and social capital to be institutionalized, since they create opportunities, places and practices described by Bourdieu earlier for the individual's merging into communities (Bourdieu, 1998:168). Cultural events (such as workshops, clubs, events of cultural communities) are suitable for the acquisition of cultural capital in Bourdieu's conception, since on the one hand they are proven to be fields of non-formal education, and on the other, they provide an opportunity for informal learning as well.

Social cultural activity, as an institutional system and also as a cultural-social practice, provides time and space for the acquisition of the incorporated culture described by Bourdieu. This process, for which learning time is also needed, could be understood as the procedure of adult education and adult learning at community places.

It also seems to be evident that the mediation of the objectified cultural capital is basically an activity that is one of social cultural activity's major forms of activity (exhibitions, art theaters, author-reader get-together, organizing theatrical performances, etc.). The acquisition-process of cultural capital takes place not only in the family and at school, but beyond that as well. The adequate places for these acquisition procedures are social cultural activity institutions. The social capital appearing among the multiple relations (individual – individual; individual – community, community – community) of social cultural activity institution systems develop human capital after all, and does it through improving the quality of life, expanding social relations and developing individual competences. Members of different communities can be parents, colleagues, church members at the same time, therefore, the individual can make use of his social capital in more than one relationship (Coleman, 1998).

On the whole community-educating activities at social cultural activity institutions, informal learning, non-formal and formal trainings, adult educational programmes mean social capital, they develop it and after all, they contribute to the enrichment of human capital. As we have already pointed it out, it is important to come up with further theoretical and empirical research as well as provide a methodological background to be able to scientifically justify all these.

Several theoretical thinkers and practitioners have dealt with the relationship of social cultural activity and capital theories. The local society's state of development depends on its symbolic, social and informational capital. In essence, local knowledge is the symbolic, social and informational capital. According to this theory, the most important task of social cultural activity is to care for the local symbolic, social and informational capital. According to *F. Gál* civil organizations insure social capital. It is the task of social cultural activity to provide the conditions of information and service centers necessary for the working of civil organizations. In an exploratory research community developers wanted to know something about the state of social capital in Hungarian small towns and Budapest, and within that the existence of trust and cooperation. It is important to mention Zsuzsa Hunyadi's study, which displays sociological aspects as well, and which discusses the concepts of social capital in detail, and depicts the research that were carried out in the region earlier (Hunyadi, 2006). The most recent study is by János István Németh, who – following Fukuyama – makes an attempt to define the characteristic conditions of social cultural activity's social capital-generating ability by looking at the concepts of cooperation, cohesion and quality, thus indicating a possible empirical research (Németh, 2011).

Erika Juhász denotes in the adult education domains of unemployment that the unemployed, with the help of their social capital endure the crisis of unemployment better (Juhász, 2006). Basically social cultural activity is thought to be an important tool for enduring and weathering unemployment by Gábor Koncz. Besides this he believes that the field plays a major role in accepting and harmonizing the culture of gypsies (Koncz, 2011). It should be noted that Roma community houses are also important locations of gypsies' social capital development, integration and adult educational activities affecting them.

Unfortunately, the relationship between social cultural activity and capital theories has not yet been properly revealed. The conceptual tools sufficient for the field are still missing, which later could serve as the basis for an adequate research method. According to Zsuzsa Hunyadi, we should clearly define for social cultural activity as well what we should consider as social capital, what preconditions it has, and measurably in what this particular type of capital result. It is also a question whether the establishment of social capital is the result of collective actions or the precondition of them. It is a further dilemma if trust, in case of social capital, is input, output or both (Hunyadi, 2006).

Based on what has been mentioned, such research directions could emerge regarding types of capital and social cultural activity like the examination of communities and/or institutions that serve as the basis for social capital, the studying of financial and intellectual resources in communities or institutions, or the analysis of norms, trust and inner values. The collective action's scope, extension and frequency, the social networks of people working in communities, or the exchange processes,

and the question of being known and acknowledged could also be important research fields. The problem of delegation (when social capital is accumulated in one or more person's hand), multiple relations, relationships, the social capital of communities, and the analysis of the relations of political power could also be a possible ground for examinations (social power-political authority, the utilization of the social capital of the committees of social cultural activity in the political decision making process, the relationship between educating civil communities and cultural politics).

We believe that our study – along with other cited authors – attempts to provide the basis of future research which can increase the importance of social cultural activity and its social significance. With the help of future research such an argument-kit will be available that can prove to the profession and others how important, working and non-replaceable role this field of culture plays in the development of civil society and social integration.

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Education for Democratic Governance and Social Responsibility. A case study

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The paper emphasizes the importance of education for Democratic Governance and Social Responsibility in preparing the young generation for a better and secure Europe. This kind of education is topical and justifies the need for connecting students as future workforce and also as future decision-makers to the European reality, especially in the light of the latest developments in areas as: stability, security and governance. Training the youngsters for Democratic Governance and Social Responsibility fits perfectly on the effects of the “Treaty on Stability, Coordination and Governance (TSCG)”, signed by 25 European leaders on 2nd of March 2012.

Hence, the need for high quality training of future specialists in the field of national security, in all economic sector and in politics for a real democracy, for sound governance and for a stable, secure and sustainable socio-political environment all over Europe. The paper presents a case study on the implementation of the Erasmus IP project “Democratic governance and social responsibility for a better and more secure Europe” at the University of Pitești. It describes the main pedagogical and didactical approaches used in implementing an intensive course for students of the 1st cycle (BA) and/or 2nd cycle (MA), the learning outcomes, the teaching methods, the taught modules and the practical/applicative activities. Student’s evaluation and assessment procedures will be equally presented in the paper. The conclusions will focus on the benefits at the level of both the participating students and the society.

Introduction

“For fifty years the European Union, its institutions and Member States have promoted and provided freedom and security. Europe guarantees respect for human rights, the rule of law and solidarity. As Europeans, we enjoy the right to live, work and study in European countries other than our own. The removal of internal border controls in the Schengen area was an especially great step forward for Europe. In addition, technological advances have revolutionised the modes and speed of communications, with the result that not only our borders, but also our societies have

opened up. Through unity in diversity, this free and prosperous Europe continues to facilitate and enrich peoples' lives. For citizens of the European Union, security is one of the main priorities. Europe must consolidate a security model, based on the principles and values of the Union: respect for human rights and fundamental freedoms, the rule of law, democracy, dialogue, tolerance, transparency and solidarity. The quality of our democracy and public confidence in the Union will depend to a large extent on our ability to guarantee security and stability in Europe (...)". (Council of the EU, Internal Security Strategy for the European Union: "Towards a European Security Model", 2010.)

The theme „Education for Democratic Governance and Social Responsibility” is very topical and justifies the need for connecting students as future workforce and also as future decision-makers to the European reality, especially in the light of the latest developments in the areas envisaging stability, security and governance. And that fits perfectly on the effects of “Treaty on Stability, Coordination and Governance (TSCG)”, signed by 25 European leaders on 2nd of March 2012.

Hence, the need for high quality training of future specialists in the field of national security, in all economic sector and in politics for a real democracy, for sound governance and for a stable, secure and sustainable socio-political environment all over Europe.

Within this context, the complex, combined training of the students as future experts and the multidisciplinary approach of the topic “Democratic governance and social responsibility for a better and more secure Europe” provided to them through an Erasmus Intensive Programme (Erasmus IP) reveals an increased importance.

The idea and content of this study programme took into account the trends in the European governance determined by the economic crisis, the credit crisis, the weak points of EU Treaties, the social unrest, the need of changing the Union’s Treaties. All these have been identified by study and analysis upon the EU programmatic documents and reports of different EU specialized commissions. Thus, training the future specialists has to take into consideration a potential different EU future form and structure.

The Project

“DEMOcratic governance and Social responsibility for a better and more secure EUROPE” (reference number 12-EIP-RO PITESTI01-bis) is an Erasmus IP project implemented by the University of Pitești. The project is financed by the Education, Audiovisual and Culture Executive Agency (EACEA) of the European Commission through the Romanian Agency for Community Programmes in the Field of Education and Vocational Training (ANPCDEFP).

The project aims to better prepare students for professional life, as future European labor force, in different fields of expertise, through a modern multidisciplinary approach.

The project objectives are:

- ✓ To provide students with *know-how*, stimulate the exchange of best practices and deepen their understanding of key concepts for the targeted theme and topics;
- ✓ To create at students appropriate theoretical and practical skills, necessary for their future professional interventions in the thematic areas of political science, methodology of the scientific research, medialogy, public administration;
- ✓ To stimulate students' understanding of the current challenges regarding democracy, governance, social responsibility and security;
- ✓ To develop students' creativity and innovations skills by using non-formal learning methods: group-work, multimedia presentations, simulation exercises and role play, public speaking and outdoor activities.
- ✓ To enable students to plan and develop activities specific to scientific research;
- ✓ To support students in further developing their potential as learners and researchers;
- ✓ To set-up a sustainable cooperation between European HEIs;
- ✓ To raise awareness towards the project's theme and to disseminate its outcomes.

The project is addressed to students enrolled in Bachelor (first cycle) and Master (second cycle) study programmes in different fields of study, in 5 EU countries. The universities participating in this intensive study programme are: the University of Pitești – Romania (the promoter and coordinator of the project), Lillebaelt Academy of Professional Higher Education – Denmark, University of Studies of Macerata – Italy, Lower Silesian College of Entrepreneurship and Technology – Poland and the Polytechnic Institute of Bragança – Portugal.

The intensive study programme was implemented between 12th and 26th of may 2013, at the University of Pitești and gathered 20 foreign students (5 students per each guest country) and 10 Romanian students. The courses have been held by professors from all participating universities.

The study programme comprised theoretical courses as well as practical activities and group work (indoors and outdoors), as described under the next section (III. APPROACHES AND OUTCOMES). The group activities were performed in national and transnational teams, depending on the activity type and on the tasks allocated by each teacher.

The IP course which is ECTS based, was recognized by all participating institutions. All registered students have completed the IP (attendance,

active participation and fulfillment of the evaluation criteria) and they have been awarded with certificate. DEMOS EUROPE course is credited with 6 ECTS which will be written in the Diploma Supplement of each graduating student, at their university of origin.

The attribution of the 6 ECTS has been made on the following basis: 1 ECTS is equivalent to 20 hours. Therefore, 6 ECTS correspond to a total of 120 workload hours: 60 contact hours (12 lecture hours; 48 hours of field research, problem-solving, case studies, debates, design, in situ experimentation;) and 60 hours of self dependent study. In addition to these, it was performed an evaluation and assessment through students' scientific competition to allow them presenting the research results.

The teaching-learning activities were complemented by socio-cultural activities (trips to Bran Castle, Râșnov fortress, Vidraru Lake and Dam, the Palace of the Parliament in Bucharest, visit of Ștefănești Vine & Wine Research Centre, walking tours in the city centre and surroundings). All these have had the role to consolidate the relationship between the students, to achieve the team spirit, allow the foreign students to get an image about Romania, its traditions, heritage and values.

Approaches and Outcomes

The study programme was from the beginning thought and designed as a complex and combined one. It contained 8 *modules* and 60 direct contact hours, as rendered below:

No.	Title of the module	Hours distribution	Total number of hours
1	Module 1: Political Sciences <i>“Basic terms and conceptual delimitations on European and national democratic governance”</i>	3 hrs course 3 hrs applications	6
2	Module 2: Sociology/psychology <i>“Practicing democracy: values and social behavior in governance”</i>	3 hrs course 3 hrs applications	6
3	Module 3: Methodology of scientific research: theory and practice (part I) <i>“Scientific research on democratic governance and social responsibility – part I”</i>	3 hrs course 3 hrs applications	6
4	Module 4: <i>In situ</i> experimentation	6 hrs	6
5	Module 5: Methodology of scientific research: design (part II) <i>“Scientific research on democratic governance and social responsibility – part II”</i>	6 hrs	6
6	Module 6: Scientific research: implementation	12 hrs	12
7	Module 7: Dissemination of research outcomes <i>“IT and web-based technologies to design dissemination products”</i>	3 hrs course 9 hrs applications	12
8	Module 8: Contest/competition: presentation of research results by all teams. Evaluation.	6 hrs	6
			60 direct contact hours

The main *pedagogical and didactical approaches* used in implementing the IP comprised: teaching activities (the modules, which included lectures and practical activities, debates, analyses and discussions); students’ research achieved through desk research and field research; *in situ* experimentation through meetings of the students with the stakeholders of the Argeş County; transfer of know-how on scientific research methodology; students’ contest/competition to present their research results.

More precisely, the teachers taught the students basic and specific notions and concepts about state, democracy, governance, EU institutions, stability, security, European security, moral and ethical values, character, personality, behavior, social/anti-social behavior, (democratic) beliefs and values, social and corporate responsibility, mental processes in stereotypes and prejudices development.

Then the scientific research on democratic governance and social responsibility was achieved through two different types of research: desk and field research.

For the *desk research* the students received from the organizers a common template and explanations and they have been requested to work in national groups (prior to their arrival in Romania) to prepare a report on the project's topic. Then in Romania, before achieving the field research, the students have been taught about the steps of the scientific research, types of research, instruments, methods of analysis. For this phase they worked in transnational groups.

Then the students performed the *in situ* experimentation: they had meetings with the Romanian stakeholders (representatives of authorities, decision-makers, administration, NGOs and enterprises) in order to better substantiate the tools of the field research (observing the current practices regarding social responsibility and democratic governance, seeking examples of good practice, getting suggestions and recommendations).

Working again in the university, the transnational groups of students elaborated the instrument for the field research: a questionnaire.

During the *implementation phase* they applied the questionnaires (face-to-face to Romanian target group and by email to the target groups previously selected and prepared in their countries of origin). The *field research* was continued by data collecting, processing and interpreting. The result was a Research Report for each transnational group, which combined the information and outputs of the desk and field research as well.

The *dissemination phase* contained training and certain practical activities on how to use IT and web-based technologies to design dissemination products. Thus, the students have learned to create dissemination materials (movies, photos, advertising, PPT, etc.) to better present their "products": the Research Reports.

The final phase consisted in an open competition among all transnational teams. The assessment was done by a jury of teachers and students. An evaluation methodology with clear assessment criteria and an evaluation sheet were delivered to the members of the jury. Based on the scores granted by the jury, the winning team could be identified!

The teaching methods used during the IP implementation were diverse and they have been rotated depending on the teaching-learning objectives of each teacher. Thus, some teachers used lecture and explanation, other preferred the brainstorming, the problem-solving or the case study. Group

and pair-work were equally used, as well as the role play, the controversial debate or the critical thinking.

As explained above, *the practical/applicative activities* envisaged applying questionnaire, meeting with the stakeholders, interviewing representatives of the administrative system, taking photos, making short professional movies, processing ICT-based materials, designing PPT presentations.

The student's evaluation and assessment was realized through the evaluation of their Research Reports but also through the "performance" achieved during the competition among the transnational teams (evaluation of the Research Reports' quality and the way in which the students acted/performed during the public defense of these reports; questions and answers were allowed after each presentation and this generated fruitful debates).

DEMOS EUROPE project succeeded to achieve at its students the following *learning outcomes*:

(a) *Subject-related*:

- ⇒ understanding the process of democratic governance, knowing its features, actors, mechanisms and relations among participants, determining factors,
- ⇒ being able to describe the security environment, its connection with governing system and social responsibility and to formulate its possible evolutions,
- ⇒ understanding social and psychological processes that influence the social groups' behavior and thus democracy, governance, security.

(b) *Transversal*:

- ⇒ acquiring theoretical and practical skills specific to scientific research, being able to use and apply them,
- ⇒ being able to design research strategy for an imposed topic, within a structured approach and to assess its implementation potential,
- ⇒ being able to select the best and most appropriate types of dissemination and to design appropriate tools to disseminate the research outcomes,
- ⇒ being able to prepare and present research results within a scientific contest/competition,
- ⇒ being able to work in transnational groups.

Conclusions

DEMOS EUROPE used as innovative practice a balanced and adapted combination of *theoretical methods* regarding the analysis of current status in the European democracies (desk research, case studies, comparative research, bibliographic survey) and *practical approaches* (field research). The practical part encompassed direct interference with administration,

authorities, stakeholders, citizens, decision-makers (through questionnaires, interviews, debates), but also dissemination and medialogy activities in which the students' artistic skills, audio-visual techniques, media production, psychology and technology were extensively involved. These represented success factors for our IP project, factors that have "equipped" the students with the skills necessary in the competitive environment in which they live and work.

This kind of training is in a way unique by its emphasis on developing interpersonal skills and enhancing the self-confidence of participants, whether students or teachers. The IP project DEMOS EUROPE presents a strong multidisciplinary approach based on its combination of personal skills, political sciences, social sciences, psychology, methodology of the scientific research and medialogy subject areas.

The students enjoyed benefits at personal and professional level: improvement of the personal and professional skills, working in transnational team, meeting new people, getting new friends, finding out about new cultures, mentalities and traditions – in brief, embracing the multicultural Europe and its values!

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Evaluation of pedagogical innovation as an important part of the expert functions of innovative management in preschools

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Innovative activities cannot proceed without an objective monitoring, analysis of results, evaluation and self-evaluation of teachers and supervisors. The pedagogical monitoring as a way to track the impact of innovation on the quality of education should play an important role.

At the modern stage of the development of the theory of educational monitoring a variety interpretations of the phenomenon, that is being discussed, coexist, supplementing each other. Scientists consider it in the following contexts:

- *activity* — as a universal type of scientific activity (G. Kopylov, M. Oizenman, M. Ratz, B. Sleptsov and others); as the highest form of organization of informational activity (V. Lohanova and others); as the generalizing type of management with tracking of subordinates of the educational subsystems (A. Sevruk, I. Filimonov, Y. Yunina and others);

- *explorative* — as a set of systematic observations of certain social objects in space and time of their evolution by pre-determined indicators (I. Gavrylenko and others); as a systematic standardized observation of a certain object or process, assessment and prediction of its further condition (P. Golubkov, V. Popov and others); as a long-term monitoring of integrating of the psychological and pedagogical knowledge in all its conditions and manifestations, a correlation of the received information with a specified standard and prediction based on the new technological providing of this process (L. Kachalova and others); as a continuous monitoring of an environment in order to prevent unwanted deviations (A. Mitin, N. Reimers and others);

- *system-defined* — as a system of organization, search, collection, processing and use of the information concerning the educational system functioning (E. Borovs'ka), as multilevel hierarchical system of inspection (Y. Isayev); as a system of monitoring and diagnostics of the educational process, that is due to the goal-setting and provide the control of the dynamics of mastering level of the educational material by students and its correction (V. Kal'nei, S. Shishov); as a system of collecting, processing, storing and disseminating of information about the educational system (or some elements) that focuses on the informational maintenance of management and provides a picture of the state of the object in any time and enables the opportunity to predict its development (A. Maiorov); as a

nonstandard information system that allows someone to conduct long-term monitoring of any objects or phenomena of the pedagogical activity (O.Orlov); as an integrated system of monitoring of condition and changes, assessment and prediction of the quality of education (N. Selezniova and others);

- *procedural* – as a set of procedures for monitoring, the current assessment of the changes of the object and the direction of these changes on achievement of the specified parameters of the object (G. Yelnykova); as a procedure of systematic collection of data on important aspects at the national, regional or local levels (T. Nevill, A. Taydzhnman and others);

- *processing* – a process of continuous scientifically grounded, diagnostic, prognostic monitoring of the development the of educational system in order to optimize the selection of goals, objectives and means to solve them (A. Belkin and others.); as a process of observation, measurement and formulation on this basis of the conclusions about the state of the object in order to model, to predict and to make a decision (O.Kasyanova); as a process of formulating of the specific, current knowledge about the state of the system or the environment, where the specific activity is carried out with the following interpretation of the knowledge in management decision language (S. Podmazin and others).

However, despite the coexistence of a variety of rather different interpretations of the category "pedagogical monitoring", we can note the similarities inherent them. Thus, the discussed phenomenon is under the consideration of the majority of scientists as an activity in substance (system, processes, procedures, etc.) of collection, storage, data processing of the functional of the educational system, thus ensuring continuous monitoring of its condition and the future predictions.

A similar approach to defining the essence of the notion "monitoring in the system of pre-school education" we find in the works of the pre-school education expert – K. Krutiy , Z. Ryabova and others. K. Krutiy interprets the phenomenon as a "specially organized, integral, systematic monitoring of the quality of pre-school education that allow to track the deviation from the educational standards, as well as the level of satisfaction of educational needs of population"; R.Nazaryan and Z. Ryabova – as "informational system that is constantly changing due to continuity (cycling) tracking of a certain object of preschools management based on qualimetric approach".

Therefore, we define *the monitoring of the innovational development of preschools* as a system of continual scientifically based, diagnostic-prognostic collection, processing and storage of information on the implementation of innovative educational activity in preschool education.

The analysis of scientific sources of our problem enabled us to make a conclusion and to distinguish three most sufficient approaches to the definition of the objects of the educational monitoring:

- ✓ resultant, which monitors only the results of the educational process;
- ✓ system, under the conditions of use of which the monitoring objects are expanding, including such components as resources and the educational process;
- ✓ integrated, which together with the study of resources, quality of the educational process and its results there is obligatory consideration of the contextual educational situation.

We define the objects of monitoring of the innovative development of preschools from the point of view of the integrated approach.

Pedagogical monitoring is characterized by broad features that are explained by the complexity of its objects and diversity of applications of the results. In connection with this special importance is the determination of its *principles*. The principles of the pedagogical monitoring:

- ✓ coordination of legal, organizational and scientific methods of monitoring components;
- ✓ objectivity of the process of obtaining and processing of information;
- ✓ the integrity of studying of various aspects of the pedagogical process, processing and analysis of the results;
- ✓ continuity and duration of monitoring of the educational system;
- ✓ timely obtain, processing and use of information about the state of the educational system;
- ✓ perspective of the planned monitoring procedures, their focusing on solving of the actual problems of the educational system;
- ✓ reflective;
- ✓ humanistic orientation;
- ✓ transparency;
- ✓ efficient proving of the monitoring results to teachers, community, parents, relevant education authorities.

These principles we considered as the assumptions in the development of a range of monitoring procedures to determine the effectiveness of innovative development of preschool institutions in general and its individual stages in particular.

The monitoring of effectiveness of the kindergarten innovative development belongs to complex cyclic process because it requires:

- ✓ analysis of all its structural components based on a set of indicators and efficiency criteria;
- ✓ determination of the innovative potential of a preschool educational institution;
- ✓ clarifying of the factors cause positive (negative) results.

Therefore, in the monitoring studies of innovative development of a kindergarten we can distinguish the following stages: the preparatory phase, the accumulation stage, recording analysis and interpretation of the

data, as well as the stage of decision making on actions to improve the innovation.

Of course the monitoring study will be effective only if it's careful prepared. Herewith this should be done under to the following conditions:

- ✓ clear definition of the object of monitoring, formulation of the desired outcomes and objectives in the parameters and categories which can be measured with a high degree of objectivity;
- ✓ selection of such indicators and evaluation criteria that fully characterize the object of monitoring, and are sufficient to draw conclusions about its current state;
- ✓ development of the special standardized tools and techniques to measure the basic characteristics and parameters of the monitoring object, which would provide an opportunity to obtain a sound and credible information about its condition.

Therefore, on *the preparatory stage* of monitoring of kindergarten innovative development we have planned to solve the following tasks:

1. Definition of the object, purpose and objectives of monitoring.
2. Designing of the monitoring tools.
3. Planning of monitoring research.

As the *object* of monitoring we have determined the effectiveness of the innovative development of preschool education establishments.

Based on these definitions, we consider the notion of "efficiency of innovative development of a kindergarten" as an integrated description of the actual results of innovation in accordance with the social request of society, the conception and the objectives of the innovative changes in preschools.

We defined *the aim* of the monitoring of the effectiveness of the kindergarten innovative development as information and analytical support to the process of measuring and improving of the effectiveness of innovational activity of preschool teaching staff.

The objectives of the monitoring of the effectiveness of innovative kindergarten are:

1. Diagnostic of innovative development of kindergarten in the end of the certain stage.
2. Creation of information database on innovation efficiency in preschools.
3. Identification of factors that inhibit the development of innovative kindergarten.
4. Determination of the dynamics of the innovation development of kindergarten.
5. Deciding on the development and implementation of measures aimed at improving of the development of innovative kindergarten.

Development of *the tools* for monitoring of the effectiveness of innovative kindergarten was carried out on the basis of the educational qualimetry because its use makes possible to measure the innovation activity of the institution at any time, to determine the degree of deviation of its educational system from planned results and to prevent problems or to overcome the shortcomings.

The pedagogical qualimetry is the branch of knowledge that studies the methodology and theory of the system-integrated quantitative mechanisms of assessments of the quality of educational processes and the phenomena. Its system characteristics include the following:

1. Informativeness — comprehensive descriptions and ideas of the studied object (the educational process and its components).
2. Integrativity provides the implementation of multidisciplinary relations of pedagogics with other sciences.
3. Optimality is ensured by minimization of time, means, outlay for the research through the use of reliable technology and techniques.
4. Exactitude is an integral indicator of metric, logical-mathematical and semantic components that determines the validity of scientific knowledge.
5. Evidence is found in the representativeness of the material, based on monitoring, obtained sufficient power of logical criteria for evaluating of the educational research, in the integrity of quantitative and qualitative research methods and criteria, in stepwise control of the results with the possibility to correct the following stages of the study.

Processability is provided by compliance with requirements of the algorithm of both a process and methods of the research, the main ones of which are: discreteness, division into elementary steps, determinism, reproducibility, and predictability of outcome.

Revealing the technology of pedagogical innovation assessment through a variety of indicators and parameters, we substantiate the importance of the humanitarian approach to such an evaluation, in which the leading role is played by an expert — someone who assesses the innovation. The evaluation of the innovation is largely dependent upon the human merits of an expert. We draw attention to the fact that self expertise of the innovation by the teacher himself/herself is a stimulating factor of the self-perfection, contributes to the overall culture of a teacher as well as his/her professional competence.

Our study found that the pedagogical monitoring of innovative activity in preschool educational institution acquires the qualities of effective technology and has a positive effect on educational outcomes, if the object of monitoring (innovation) is perceived as a system with the formation of its goals of structural components, principles, functions, pedagogical conditions, and when diagnosing the level of education and teaching skills of the subjects of innovative activity it is taken into account the changes in

the quality of education (due to innovation) and monitoring is not a one-time discrete control, but a systemic continuous technological impact on innovation with the implementation of a set of integrative, diagnostic, prognostic features. In order the results of the monitoring become the basis for the correction of innovative activity, they have to be predicted and designed. Only in that case monitoring acquires manageable, transforming, developing character, a positive impact on innovation, guides their development. Strengthening of only a supervisory function of monitoring may discredit the meaning of innovation for education.

Valuing Gender in Education

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Gender roles, representing a crucial part of the identity and individuality of each person, are formed through socialization. This illustrates the importance of developing policies to promote gender equality in all spheres of education, because education strongly influences the socialization process and opportunities for students to build a career. Although policies to promote gender equality in education can have significant consequences, education systems tend to give less importance to issues related to gender equality in education compared to the labor market. This article aims to examine gender issues exclusively in schools, precisely in the curriculum implemented, indicating that, due to the content conveyed, the methods used and the specific educational relations, there is a big risk of induction, directly or indirectly, of stereotypes and gender bias.

Introduction

The officially stated educational ideal of the Romanian school is free and integrated development of human individuality, assuming a system of values for social inclusion, tolerance and combating discrimination. The principle of fairness, equal opportunities, training critical thinking, valuing differences and multiculturalism are values which should be found in the content being taught.

An important aspect of social integration and professional development of individuals is related to the exploitation of gender in education. Although in Romania there have been investigations in this regard, there is a big gap in the educational level concerning gender awareness by the actors involved, gender partnership, information and training on the consequences of gender discrimination practices, involving young people and teachers in actions to promote and support gender equality. Internalization of gender is both a psychological process (filtered through the individual characteristics of students, psycho-intellectual profile, interests and abilities of each student), and social (permanently built in the social interactions in which the student is an actor).

Education on gender issues, particularly when addressing both boys and girls, can be an important tool for promoting equality between women and men in modern society. Its objective is to change the roles associated with girls and boys, women and men in public and private life. Reducing

stereotypes associated with these roles, this education supports the installation of civic equality in children, in which women and men live in a relationship of cooperation and mutual respect.

Most European states mention equal opportunity in their Constitution. From the point of view of the integration of the concepts of equality within the legal frame of education we distinguish three legislative models (Grünberg, 2001):

- Equal opportunities and equal treatment as it is generally held
- Equal treatment and equal opportunities in education
- Gender equality in education.

In the first model, gender equality in education is based on the general anti-discrimination provisions on equal treatment and equal opportunities for both men and women. Gender equality in this case is not part of sector regulations such as educational institutions' internal regulations. Specific education laws do not mention gender equality as an objective.

In the second model, there is specific legislation on equal opportunities and equal treatment for girls/women and boys/men in the education sector. Education Law also contains specific references on the objectives of equality of opportunity and treatment. These, however, do not contain specific provisions on the role of education in combating inequalities in society. This pattern is found in Romania as well.

In these two models, the main responsibility for developing policies that promote gender equality in education lies with the central authorities in the field of gender equality / equal opportunity.

The third model represents the active promotion of gender equality in education. Gender equality is framed in specific provisions of anti-discrimination as one of the objectives of the education system. In this model, the Ministry of Education is the main authority that sets policy priorities for gender equality in education.

It is considered that legislative regulations can have both a positive and a negative impact. As a positive impact, legislative regulations have the potential to generate policies that contribute to the development of gender equality in education. References to gender equality may signal political commitment while their absence or non-specificity may indicate a lack of attention to this problem. As a negative impact, legislation can transform concepts of gender equality and can even annihilate their effect less, which, in turn, prevents the political action (Stratigaki, 2004).

The legal framework governing education in Romania is limited to the assertion of equal access to education, maintaining neutrality in this regard.

Law no 202/2002 on equality between women and men contains explicit provisions on access to lifelong learning, including gender issues in the curriculum and the respect for equal opportunities in education. The draft Law no 15 amending and supplementing the Law no 202/2002 regarding equality of opportunity and treatment between men and women adds in

2007 new provisions that forces authorities in education domain to promote equality between women and men.

Thus, one of the newly introduced provisions is that according to which "The Ministry of Education shall ensure, by specific means, instruction, training and information for teachers of all forms of education, public and private, on equal opportunities for women and men" (art. 16, paragraph 1). Also, based on the changes introduced by the draft law, the same ministry through school inspectorates should include in curricula and current activity of schools compliance measures with the principle of equal opportunities and treatment between men and women (art. 16 and art.15).

The main tool in terms of gender policy in education in Romania is the gender dimension in education is the project conducted by the Institute of Education Sciences, in cooperation with UNICEF Romania. Within this project there have been published since 2006, several guides and information leaflets. They were used in the training program for the inspectors who coordinate at the county level the teacher training sessions regarding teaching methods receptive to gender (Chira, 2012). Besides these, teachers are provided with a "*Compendium of gender in education*", which provides a set of specific tools for evaluation and self-evaluation of educational institutions from a gender perspective and a set of indicators for evaluating textbooks from the same gender perspective. The Compendium also provides a glossary of definitions for a number of basic concepts related to gender education (Eurydice, 2010, p 66).

Review of policies and programs promoted nationally dedicated to gender issues has already outlined the framework of our research on awareness of gender issues in the school space.

Method and results

The hypothesis behind this study was that in education, due to the content conveyed, the methods used and the specific educational relations, there is a risk of induction, directly or indirectly, of gender stereotypes and prejudices.

Investigative approach on gender in education research has used a complex strategy that combined both quantitative and qualitative research methods: document analysis (educational framework policy documents, papers and studies on gender in education), content analysis of textbooks used within the Romanian education system (paying special attention to language and literature textbooks) and questionnaire survey.

Given the fact that the study intended to examine gender issues exclusively in schools, with a focus on the implemented curriculum, there were not analyzed other potential extracurricular factors with impact on the construction of gender identity, gender networking, counseling and professional orientation, etc.

The questionnaire survey was addressed to teachers. There were questioned 100 teachers from urban and rural areas, women and men (75% women and 25% men, because women predominate in education) of different categories: teachers in primary schools/gymnasium, teachers who teach subjects with high potential of gender: Romanian language and literature, foreign languages, social and human disciplines, history, religion, physical education, drawing, counseling).

The issues pursued were: What is the attitude of teachers towards the use of gender perspectives in education? How well do teachers know gender and what importance does it have in the discipline they teach? What are the main reasons that teachers give for introducing/avoiding gender perspectives in education? How open are teachers to become familiar with gender issues and to introduce gender in the discipline they teach?

It should be noticed that teachers' attitudes to the subject of our investigation, gender and education were very different. Depending on their familiarity with gender perspectives and gender in education, teachers expressed surprise reactions, indifference, curiosity, misunderstanding or support. For some subjects, the present study was the first opportunity to "initiate" on gender issues and reflect on the relevance of this dimension to the educational process.

In the view of nearly half of the teachers investigated, gender perspectives should be an indispensable part of the educational process. The arguments raised in this respect refers mainly to the benefits that including gender perspectives in education has for students who come to "better understand gender identity," "to know the different gender roles promoted in society" "to identify and eliminate gender prejudices," "to work better with colleagues" etc. Other arguments relate to teachers ("gender perspective helps teachers to know students characteristics better ") or to the aims of education ("an educational process that focuses on gender helps students better adapt to real life" "promotes a set of specific values").

Other academics have argued that the gender perspective does not have an important role in education. The arguments in this case, less developed compared to the pros, are based primarily on either denying the usefulness of this approach for students, either distrusting the ability of teachers to use this perspective in teaching. There have been a number of responses which denied the school's role in influencing the process of customizing the genre or have argued that an approach that takes into account gender differences has a negative impact on the principle of equal opportunities in education.

A significant number of teachers from the investigated group states that they do not use in any circumstance gender perspectives in teaching, and many of those who say that they use this approach have in fact a very limited representation of gender perspectives. Classroom observations

support this idea, most teachers rarely exploiting high educational potential situations from a gender perspective.

We can mention the use of certain teaching methods that focus on gender relations (eg. teamwork, using different cognitive or interactive methods) or in certain disciplines, which require a discussion of the contents of this perspective (eg civic culture, Philosophy – when we talk about equality, human rights, psychology – when we talk about interpersonal relations, literature, counseling) and where it is possible to use life experiences of girls/boys respectively).

As far as content analysis of textbooks is concerned, this targeted gender perspective in the proposed texts for study. We granted an important role to Romanian language and literature textbooks from primary school, middle school and high school. Analyzing the characters distribution by gender, 60% of the characters are male, 5% female, and the rest falls into the category of characters which can not be assigned a certain type and, therefore, are not bearing such messages (general collective characters, nonhuman characters etc.).

The characters in the texts are often associated with different gender characteristics. Data analysis leads to the conclusion that the attributes associated with characters correspond to a largely traditional gender patterns. Male characters are characterized by a larger number of attributes, such as the desire for affirmation, capacity of analysis, strong, brave, warriors, brave and aggressive, rude, stubborn, authoritarian. In the texts, the girls have propensities towards human science, capacity to synthesize, are well behaved, gentle, sensitive, supportive and flexible, but also weak, gullible, obedient.

A relevant aspect for us was to analyze texts in Romanian language and literature textbooks for high school. The number of female characters is small (9, compared to the male, 47). But all these female characters are characterized by the following features: naive, jealous, humble, liberal, capricious, materialistic, adulterous, indecisive, vengeful, able to love unconditionally devoted, enticing, shallow, non-conformist, emancipated, incapable of taking their own decisions, disguised, compassionate etc.

On the other hand the texts, written by female writers are almost entirely missing (there are only a few authors of some volumes of poetry for children 3 in -secondary school textbooks, and only one in high school textbooks, Simona Popescu, representing the contemporary literature).

The situation is somewhat reversed in the textbooks for the first grade, adult female characters (mother, grandmother, teacher, etc.) are more present and important compared to adult male characters. It should be specified, however, that women's role is circumscribed particularly to the care sphere. Also, many of the texts in this field of study do not refer to any character, being descriptions of some aspects of nature, places, animals, etc.

In most cases, the male characters are performing in public. These characters have important roles in the historical and political field (they

conquer territories, fight, lead nations and states, alliances) in social contexts (they deliver speeches, participate to the community life), economically (they perform challenging activities that require physical power: working in agriculture, industry, building, etc.) and cultural life (they are specialists in various fields, they invent, research, develop, create artistic, musical or literary works, write etc.). In some cases, the male characters show their aggression by the reprehensible behavior in social situations: they are thieves, beat, steal. In cases of boys, they always play with the ball or with cars. Very few texts present the male characters engaged in domestic activities (doing household repairs, painting the rooms, cleaning the garden). Compared with male characters, female characters are less active in public.

The analyzed texts refer to the activities performed by women especially in the domestic sphere: cook, wash, water plants, feed children and animals etc. They also present them as emotionally sensitive structures (they are excited, glad, superstitious or they cry), and support compliance (they scold, punish for mistakes, say the truth in a confrontation). Girls are playing most times with dolls or practicing certain sports, such as skating, ballet and gymnastics.

Thus, it can be concluded that in most cases, traditional gender roles are differentiated between the public and private sectors. Men perform traditionally male activities, particularly in the public sphere. Women are present mainly in the domestic sector, where they perform traditionally female activities.

Another line of research was the gender dimension in the organization of the physical environment of learning, especially in the classroom. This perspective assumes that "to an outside observer, information on how the school space is organized, richness and relevance of visual stimuli in the classroom and the school, the nature and representation of the component physical space is a mirror of the school culture. School physical environment is a carrier of meaning, stimulating and messaging on gender. According to this perspective, for students, school physical space exerts multiple influences, more or less direct, explicit or acknowledged.

What is almost absent from all classes visited are real life images of students and student work products are rarely displayed (most commonly in primary and nursery and rarely in secondary school and high school). There is not a concern for the class design; students are not stimulated to such an initiative. Almost half of the classrooms visited were decorated with pictures which did not portray characters. The images shown had mostly abstract content (formulas, geometric figures rules, flowcharts, etc.). Almost without exception, Romanian literature rooms have walls filled with portraits of the great Romanian writers without even one being of a woman. The results show that textbooks transmit unequal gender representation, constructed based on different features of the characters.

This leads to a double distortion: first, a mismatch between the discourse on the importance of girls' education, which is the subject of an

international consensus, and the messages conveyed by the textbooks, and secondly a mismatch between current social realities and those that are addressed in textbooks. They have lagged behind in comparison with social and economic developments, especially the roles of women in various fields, including public life.

The "*manual does not represent so much a reflection but an ordering of representations of a society which it legitimizes*" (Grünberg, 2001). It can provide models of social behavior, individual and collective identities, values – that respects gender equality. All representations must be embodied by characters of both sexes and should be diversified models for each sex: both female characters and male may have domestic occupations and may exercise a professional activity. Emphasis should be placed on the common features of both sexes and not on differences, developing traits identical blades which do not exclude or give preference to any of the sexes. The exchange of roles, rather than their complementarity should be highlighted.

In many cases, gender stereotypes are not understood and critically surveyed by teachers, but act as a bias, prejudices. Thus, gender attributes associated with girls or boys can become *labels* with negative impact not only on the development of gender identity but also on self-image in general. Our analysis showed that there is still a superficial understanding of how gender specific recommendations can be used in the classroom, which rises important questions about the ability of taking distance/having a critical rapport of teachers to their gender stereotypes.

Therefore, we believe that education for gender discrimination must be an explicit objective in planning the school curriculum: specific content units must be included in school curricula and methodological suggestions for textbook authors should make reference to the genre approach.

Conclusions

The research results reveal the need for increased attention to this aspect by teachers in all learning experiences, both in terms of content and the patterns of cognitive activity and social interaction they imply, because they can exert significant influence on gender awareness and internalizing, on assuming and bearing gender roles. In this regard, it must be borne in mind: fostering dialogue about gender in the lessons, focusing on promoting gender equality and partnership, active involvement of students in learning with a focus on students' interests and previous experience: what they want to learn what they want to read, what they talk about, creating a bond between the learning environment of the school and the usual environment they live outside school, diversifying learning resources, recommendation of bibliography or other literature sources covering different perspectives: gender, male and female, ethnic, religious minorities, different historical periods, organizing circles or voluntary

activities which give students the chance to perform activities traditionally associated with the feminine and the masculine, diversification of education through non-formal and informal activities value various special skills, talents of children, regardless of their membership in one sex or another, stimulating students' critical attitude in the analysis of texts hidden messages, including those related to gender, etc.

The ways in which students' social identities are constructed are clearly defined by gender and compliance models according to their school environment. The school environment thus appears as a stage on which gender identities are built and performed in relation to practices that seem exterior to school process, but in fact, very important to how these students are integrated and activate in the education system. In turn, gender stereotypes restrict educational/professional opportunities of students. Due to social and cultural capital and to the different socialization that boys and girls they receive, the educational path is different. If students are instilled qualities such as competition, career prospects, desire to succeed, domination, school, girls are directed towards jobs that have traits considered feminine (gentleness, patience, care, obedience).

In order to eliminate teachers' gender stereotypes in professional orientation of students, evaluation and training expectations are required in order to achieve gender awareness in the subjects they teach. Thus, they should pursue (Balica et al., 2004) career counseling based on neutral terms, highlighting qualities, performance and specific personality traits and socially valued, providing support to overcome barriers personal, family, social standing in the way of professional achievement, encouraging students to develop career plan in response to an internal need for self and not by "obedience" to some external pressure or compliance with the others, valuing, for each student, gender specific traits and positive characteristics that "belong" to the other gender, illustrating the paths of education, training and successful career with autonomy and independence models both male and female, etc. (Balica et al., 2004:119).

Inclusion in the continuous training of teachers of a training module on gender and education that will enable improving the information activity, advice and career guidance (*ibid.*) could be the solution for a number of these suggestions.

Last but not least, training courses and training programs for teachers on gender awareness must consider the effect of gender in student assessment and training strategies / methods to avoid discrimination based on gender, ethnicity, environment residence, socio-economical status, disability etc.

As a consequence, gender remains an important part of achieving success in school and intersects all aspects of the educational path and roles of the family, teachers and peers, but also a specific determinant of career choices, educational assessment, classroom management,

extracurricular activities, as well as of the training patterns and cultural identity of students.

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II. Good Practices

Structural and Systemic Paradigm of Preparing Students for Humanistic Upbringing of Senior Preschool Age Children

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We classify the problems of training of future teachers to the humanistic upbringing of children, depending on the level of the scientific knowledge and the semantic significance, into the following groups: methodological, interdisciplinary, scientific, organizational and scientific-educational.

The subject-categorical definition of the basic concept "humanistic upbringing" belongs to the initial among *the methodological problems*. The analyzed concept reflects the priority factors of axiology in modern philosophy of education and the concept of the dialog interaction of the subjects in cognition of the world in the philosophical content; the social content of humanization of education is connected with the spiritual improvement of a society and the harmonization of interrelations between people; the pedagogical content of the humanistic upbringing in the broad sense is focused on the development of a child as the goal of education in which a teacher and a child are acting as subjects. In a special pedagogical sense the humanistic upbringing is considered as the interaction of children and tutors in the poly-subjective educational environment. The semantic concepts of the teacher training to the humanistic upbringing of children of the senior preschool age are related to the manifestation of the spiritual and moral paradigm and demanded by the contemporary challenges, as the base for all components of the education of children and decisive in the formation of a personality and training of teachers.

The interdisciplinary problems are the integration of knowledge (philosophy, sociology, history of pedagogic, psychology, pedagogics, and methodology of preschool and special pedagogical education) in the definition of the purpose and means of humanization of education and the creation of means of the multicultural educational environment.

The scientific and organizational aspects: the embodiment of the humanistic paradigm in the scientific and normative guidelines (the concept of pre-school and teacher education, the state standards of the higher education, the Base component of preschool education in Ukraine, training programs, educational qualification characteristics, educational and vocational programs) is connected with practical reform of preschool education in the principles of personality-oriented approach and the variability of educational space of preschool education, and also with the need for changes in the content and methods of forming the readiness of

teachers to fulfill these challenges in the training on the principles of paradigmatic approach.

The scientific and pedagogical principles, which serve as conceptual in this research, are: subjectness (an identity of a student is both as a subject of teaching activities and a subject of self-development); poly-subjectiveness (interaction of all subjects of education); poly-aspects (training covers axiological, organizational, methodical, efficient units), systemic (training becomes effective if it is implemented as a system, which provides direct and indirect interaction of the factors of personal-professional development of teachers), the intellectual integrity and the structural completeness (implementation of preparing based on the humanistic paradigm in accordance with the stages of professional development of the future tutors).

The modern variation of tasks and the content of education is due to the new realities in the development of society and the re-orientation in the subject of philosophy, psychology and pedagogy from the paradigm of "society-person" on the paradigm of "man-humanity", in which a child is considered as a unity of genetic, cultural, historical, biological, social and spiritual, and concerning the system of education – both as the object and the subject of self-development. The humanistic paradigm of personal-oriented training and education in which knowledge and skills are the means but not the goal of a child's development is coming to replace the sociocentric one.

The role of the humanistic values – of education is increasing, as the spiritual and moral state of modern society is of great concern to sociologists, psychologists, and educators. Features of modern socialization impact negatively on the physical, mental and social health of a child: factors of value uncertainty and the rapid change of the social situation of development, the increase in the volume and nature of information flow, the instability of a family, the weakening of family ties. Children are increasingly exposed to the influence of the media, which increases the risk of creating a distorted picture of the world in which moral values are inferior to material interests. As a result the shapes of a child's activity are changing: a plot and role-playing game, that has always been the spokesman of interest to the society and the indicator of the level of its mastering by a preschooler, is depleting; the share of self-employment of children both in the family and in the kindergarten is reducing; ties between different ages are declining in the children's community.

Finding of ways to humanization of education is connected with a new conceptualization of the relationship between man and the world. Pedagogical humanism is defined as a modern strategy of activity based on the system of humanistic knowledge, views, ideas, beliefs, and realized in the process of education. Noting the role of the humanistic pedagogical values in education, scholars attach special importance to the problem of the humanistic value orientations of an educator, in the structure of which

the priority values are self-acceptance and adoption of a child. After all, for the full development a child must have the positive attitude towards himself or herself, the sense of value of the ego, the faith in his/her abilities and capabilities, which are confirmed by the attitude of adults, their adoption of a developing person, that is not in the capability of every educator, but only of those who have the corresponding ratio toward themselves.

The study of the features of the socio-emotional development of a child enables us to identify a number of controversies related to the nature of the interaction of the inner world of a child and the social environment, the most important of which is the openness of a child to the surrounding, aspiration to trust, to the adoption by adults and peers, on the one hand, and the injustice and even violence of people towards nature, other people, themselves, what a child has often been watching since childhood, on the other. Under these conditions the role of a teacher as an example of the socially justifiable ways of interacting with others, and the direct organizer of the humanistic educational environment in which he or she interacts with a child, children's groups, and their parents is increasing.

Humanism should be the value, the norm and the principle of the pedagogical activity (Amonashvili, 1995; Slastyenin & Podimova, 1997; Chizhakova, 1999). Only focused on the values – of humanism educator can generate human values – in children. In the humanistic oriented pedagogical process the personal and the professional qualities of a teacher are interdependent (I. Bekh, A. Kolesnikova, E. Shiyanov). A teacher with a positive self-concept is not only an example of an optimistic perception of the world for children, but is able to take mature professional solutions, to find adequate alternatives to behavior, to show the real care and attention of a growing personality.

A child is an active participant in the educational process. In the construction of the research we proceed from the fundamental framework of humanistic psychology and pedagogy: in the personal position an educator always deals not with the "object", but with a person, and in the pedagogical process – with the conditions of his or her formation and development (Bekh, 2006). Therefore, it is important to lay the humanistic potential as early as in the process of professional training of a teacher.

The model of training of future teachers to the humanistic education has such blocks: methodological (scientific philosophical, psychological, pedagogical framework, basic concepts and the concept of training), target (the goal, objectives, content of the training), organizational and technological (software, tools, forms, methods and techniques of preparation).

The main components of the preparation of students for the humanistic education of senior preschool children:

- the target (range goals for the development of the pedagogical competence);
- the intensional (the construction of the relationship and updating of the psycho-pedagogical and the methodological cycles, the introduction of special courses on the issue, the inclusion of the humanistic problems in the content of the pedagogical practice and research work of students);
- procedural (the use of the modern technology of interaction of an educator and students).

The readiness to the humanistic education of children in the process of training is influenced by the subjective (internal) and the objective (external) factors. The internal characterize the level of professional and personal development of future teachers: personal motivation with humanistic content for educational activity; formation of a positive self-concept, mastery of professional knowledge about the nature and mechanisms of the humanistic education of children; awareness of the subjective experience of interaction with a child and children's groups. The external characterize the interaction of the future teachers with the vocational education system: the priorities of the humanistic values in the content of the vocational training, the creation of the humanistic educational environment in a university; the actualization of the humanistic component of the pedagogical practice and research activities of students).

The structure of the readiness of the future teachers to the humanistic education of senior preschool children has those components and characteristics:

- motivational (the desire to become a teacher-humanist, a high level of the professional and the pedagogical motivation; priority of the humanistic values – as the leading objectives, contents and methods of the pedagogical activities);
- cognitive (acquisition of the theoretical and the methodological knowledge in pedagogy, psychology, understanding the need of humanization of the educational process, the methodological competence);
- activity (formation of the professional skills of the humanistic interaction with children, the ability to organize relations between kids);
- reflexive (self-awareness as an author of humane actions and an organizer of humanistic educational environment; the experience of the importance of the humane education activities as a process of subject-subjective interaction; the analysis of contradictions that arise in the process of humanistic education, and the ways to overcome them; and the ability to assess their role in the humanization of the educational process, the intension to self-improvement).

In the research process we have provided the following pedagogical conditions of formation of students' readiness to the humanistic education of senior preschool children: designing of the psychological and pedagogical training courses based on the humanistic paradigm in order to unite the intellectual and emotional-motivational mastering of the pedagogical reality by students; accessing the humanistic axiology into the content and organization of communication of the subjects of the professional training, the professional competence of teachers in the implementation of the subject-subjective interaction with students; educational and professional activity of students in order to approbate and consolidate the humanistic values in the activity of the future teachers; diagnosis and self-diagnosis of the valuable orientations and experience of students as members of the pedagogical system.

Our research leads to the following conclusions. The restructuring of the content of training students to the humanistic education of preschool children should be directed to: ensuring the integrity of the system of training of future teachers to the humanistic education of children, which involves the inclusion of their social and pedagogical practice in addition to mastering the theoretical principles; reorientation from a monosubject on a polysubject paradigm, mastering of the humanistic teaching values and methodical skills to humanize the educational process; ensuring the interrelations of the subjects of the educational process in the organic unity of the theoretical, cognitive and practical activities; organization of joint activity of teachers and students in order to actualize the individual creativity, transformation of the valuable pedagogical orientations in the humanistic personal and professional position; implementation of the purposeful development of positive self-concept of a personality of the future teachers.

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The Problem of Mastering Scientific Concepts by Primary School Students

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The article focused on learning the process of students mastering scientific concepts at elementary schools in psychological and educational research. There is the basic definition of the “concept” in different scientific branches. Also the article refers to the investigation about understanding scientific concepts by primary school students in psychology and pedagogy.

Today’s informational richness actively promotes vocabulary enrichment of both adults and very young, especially students of elementary school-level education. Such informative saturation dictates new requirements of the learning process. Primary school pupils often enrich unwillingly broadcasting with new concepts without understanding their meaning. Educational programs also aim to expand the student's vocabulary by theoretical concepts, but due to unawareness of the meaning of the word what it denotes, those concepts can be used incorrectly or can escape from the students’ everyday language.

Misunderstanding of words content and inability to use them in speech most negatively affects the children’s cognitive activity and their language development. Children who do not dive deeper into the meaning of the word understand it with difficulties or do not understand its true value. As a result, pupils are free to use his skills in writing or orally.

The aim of the paper is to review the psychological and educational researches about students mastering scientific concepts at elementary school.

The concept and its formation in the mind is the subject of linguistics, logic, psychology, philosophy studies and other branches of science.

There are such works, devoted to the problem of mastering scientific concepts: the researches of Vygotskyi who firstly introduced in psychology the separation of concepts into scientific and spontaneous; V. Androsyuk, paid attention to the understanding of scientific texts; N. Zhyhailo wrote about mathematical concepts; I. Synytsia researches the students mastering of unknown words in fiction etc.

The problem of improving the process of forming concepts at schools and universities was analyzed in the didactics studies of A. Aleksyuk, A. Zak, I. Lerner, M. Makhmutov, V. Onyschuk, B. Palamarchuck, M. Skatkin and others. A. Usova reviewed and corroborated the psycho-didactic principles of the scientific concepts’ formation in her works.

The "concept" definitions what consider the term from various viewpoints we can find in different scientific branches. "The Encyclopedic Dictionary of Philosophy" gives such description: "Concept – a view that displays objects and phenomena of reality and communication between them in aggregate form through fixation of general and specific signs, which are mainly the properties of objects and phenomena, the relationship between them."(Encyclopedic Dictionary of Philosophy, 1983:479).

According to the "Russian-Ukrainian Explanatory Dictionary of psychological terms" (Brodivska et al., 2007:252) "concept" is the highest form of thinking that reflects the most significant in objects, relations and relationships. Also the "concept" defined as a word or phrase that represents a phenomenon or idea.

Logic explains "concept" as one of the major logical methods of knowledge the inner world and spiritual beliefs (Riashko, 2009:328).

From the standpoint of didactics "concept" is a form of reality reflection, the meaning of which is generally defined by essential features of material objects and relations between them.

Referring to "Ukrainian Language Dictionary", we find several definitions of the term "concept": 1) one of the forms of thought, the result of summarizing the essential features of the reality objects; 2) someone's understanding of something that happened on the basis of some information or its own experience; 3) the thought about something, the view at something; 4) the complex of views about anything, the level of understanding something (Ukrainian Language Dictionary in 11 Volumes, 1976:168).

"The Longman Dictionary of Contemporary English" has such meaning of that word : "Concept" is an idea of how something is or how something should be done" (Duckett, 2009:344).

In the works of such philosophers as A. Arseniev, V. Bibler, A. Getmanova, D. Gorski, V. Gott, B. Kedrov, E. Khomenko and their colleagues emphasize that the "concept" is as an object of knowledge, a way of understanding, means of knowledge, an implement of mental activity.

In modern literature, the "concept" is often interpreted as a form of abstract thinking, reproduction of objects and phenomena of reality in thinking (I. Voishvylo, V. Kirillov, A. Starchenko, A. Sheptulin etc.).

However, summing up all the definitions of the concept, we can conclude that the term was created to denote an idea, opinion, what was formed in the process of mental activity, an acquirement the experience by person etc.

Child begins to learn and master the concepts from the childhood and reinforces the knowledge during the lifetime. School years are the period of active assimilation of concepts. Students acquire knowledge of new concepts and expand the previous knowledge. Children begin to get acquainted increasingly with scientific concepts even at school.

The soviet scientist Vygotsky has identified spontaneous and scientific concepts in his research called "Thinking and Speaking". The researcher interprets spontaneous concepts as such that are learnt and used in everyday life, in daily communication. The author interprets scientific concepts as words that a child learns in school, the terms are inserted in a system of knowledge and related to the other terms (Vygotsky, 1996).

The scientist pointed to the child's compulsory awareness of scientific concepts.

If the students associate spontaneous concepts with a particular object or phenomenon, the scientific ones need explanation, understanding and awareness for use of obtained knowledge about the concepts and the further development of it.

In the Gordon Wells article were pointed that in contrast to the assigning of everyday concepts, which he considered took place spontaneously in the course of naturally occurring activities in the home and community, scientific concepts could only be mastered with the aid of instruction, which, in his opinion, is both systematic and teacher-directed (Gordon Wells, 1994).

Therefore, the formation of scientific concepts at school is one of the most difficult teacher skills objects and requires the knowledge of philosophy, logic, psychology and pedagogics. Formation of basic general scientific concepts is one of the most important tasks for every teacher during the process of foundation the students' scientific outlook.

The main regularity of the mastering process is that cognitive activity and knowledge inserted into it get noetic forms, but aren't summarized at once – only in turn through passing a series of stages. If the teacher builds a learning process which is based on their sequence, he increases significantly the chance of achieving the goal by all the students. The process of assimilation is the procedure of implementation the certain actions by students, the method of resolving by them appropriate tasks. Formation the concept in the student's mind and information about that notion precedes the process of assimilation.

Vygotsky (1996), Kostjuk (1989) and other famous psychologists indicate in his works that the formation of concepts is achieved inherently in the process of communication with other people who know these concepts.

The communication with teachers, their work with textbooks and other reference books is typical for school students. The result is a complex process of development correct concepts, understanding by students. The term "concept formation" reflects the educational work essence which aim is the aid for students to understand, master and be fluent in concepts and terms. The formation and learning scientific and theoretical concepts by primary school students' based on a number of mental procedures, including processes of perception, understanding, thinking, imagination and awareness.

Understanding is the basis of mastering the scientific and theoretical concepts. Psychology defines this phenomenon as a kind of thinking: penetration into the essence of the phenomenon by establishing relationships between the elements that are displayed by system of concepts. In understanding statements are directly matched with subjective thesaurus.

The problem of understanding was actively studied by great number of scientists. Psychological characteristics of understanding were in sight of such scientists, as G. Kostiuk, V. Znakov, L. Balatska, I. Kornilov, S. Rubinshtein, T. Kosma, V. Zinchenko, V. Moliako, N. Chepelieva etc.

So, L. Balatska investigated the problem of pupils' understanding the riddles and metaphors. The author proved that understanding depends on students' task. The harder the task, the more precise and clear should be the question to the students. That tasks in question form can be an instrument of promoting the child to a higher level of understanding (Balatska, 1956).

T. Cosma studied the features of understanding allegories and poems by primary school students. The research of I. Sinitsia gives information how to guide the understanding process using teacher's questions. B. Praisman studied the junior pupils understanding the behavior motives of literary characters. However, the problem of understanding scientific concepts by students of primary level education is paid less attention, instead of understanding at high school.

P. Lindsey and D. Norman researched the aspects of understanding scientific concepts. They defined the criteria for understanding speech material, comparing the processing of information in the human and computer. The authors suggested that human memory retains the core of the material, but not material of our experience (Lindsay & Norman, 1974).

The scientist P. Blonsky compared understanding "with a lightning. He identified four stages of understanding. The first stage is the stage of identification, name, including to a general concept, i.e. generalization, the second is the specification of concepts, which reveals the content what is happened, the third is an explanation by "reduction to the well-known" and the fourth is an explanation what is based on the "genesis", finding the causes of what is happening (Blonsky, 1979).

The scientist used the results of the experiment and organized qualitative indicators of children's understanding the essence of images and texts. He showed the possible levels of understanding related to the child's mental development. From these statements it can be summarized that the child understands only the following explanation, which correspond to the personal level. So, we can affirm that effectiveness of understanding scientific concepts by primary school students depends on the teacher's attention to the psychological and mental abilities of pupils, providing the principle of sequence – "from the known to the unknown". It is important to use well-known for explaining unfamiliar scientific

concepts.. The familiar material becomes the foundation for obtaining new knowledge.

The research about children 7-17 years concept formation was conducted by investigator R. Natadze (Natadze, 1976). He considered, that the main condition of full mastering the concept was the "functional time" of mutual understanding. With the development of the concept a specific psychological search operation occurs and displays the essential features of the object in the notion. And then the full knowledge of the subject is happened. but it doesn't coincide psychologically with the release of a general category of objects for some features, when minor indications usually are discarded. Such concept differs from word's understanding by awareness at the practical level mastery of it in the speech. The R. Natadze data shows that, as child as an adult may have the different levels of concept knowledge, and therefore the level of reality understanding will be different. The author argued the necessity of using differentiated approach to students, including the work with scientific concepts in elementary school, regardless of the subject what was studied.

In the research about studying the scientific text the scientist R. Taraschanska indicates the effectiveness of the isolation semantic anchor points by pupils, applying the teacher's plan to the text for its correct interpretation.

It should pay attention to the investigations about revitalization the pupils' mental activity and their interest in understanding scientific concepts, which are mastered. N. Chepelieva investigated the effectiveness of cognitive dialogue, what ensuring penetration of human into semantic structure of the message. The researcher identified, that the basic condition for such dialogue was discrepancy in knowledge of the author and the reader. This difference leads to the informative "gaps", which can stimulate the reader's question. However N. Chepelieva notes that such "gaps" in knowledge should not be absolute. Otherwise the dialogue becomes impossible (Chepelieva, 1992).

It is important to ensure understanding the meaning of the concept from the beginning of students' learning activities and studying scientific concepts, because understanding is the basis for the personality development, support the efficiency of learning process. And from the position of speech development it helps to enrich the child's vocabulary and to use learning concepts consciously in the various branches of life. Also understanding expands knowledge about the concept and pupil's outlook in general.

Understanding is the bridge between the unexplained concept as a general scientific statement to the scientific concept as an element of knowledge enrichment and the area of the student's interest, the child's awareness of phenomena, what is the result of thinking. The role of the teacher is important, as he should organize training and educational activities, including the principles of sequence and continuity. Also he

should be able to use an advanced teaching method what is suitable for learning of scientific concepts. Such concepts will become the basis for the study the next topics, subjects etc.

Understanding the material shall be the basis of the primary school students' speech. Psychological and pedagogical researches about mastering scientific and theoretical concepts at primary school are an important foundation for the methodology to study this kind of concepts. But such basis requires the adaptation to specific subjects and taking into account the mental activity of students during studying at elementary school.

So, outlining and analyzing the main research directions about mastering scientific concepts of primary school pupils and understanding process as a basis for learning, it should be noted that it is paid the considerable attention to this problem. In the scientific literature the various aspects of the problem are studied: the formation and learning scientific concepts by exact subject, the criteria of understanding concepts, and necessary conditions of understanding. However, the process of scientific concepts understanding at elementary school is paid less attention instead of other school levels. There are the researches about understanding various problems of literary texts, literary agents (allegories, metaphors), icons, understanding the scientific texts by high school students, etc.

Understanding the learning material is the basis of pupils' verbal and logical memory which is closely linked to theoretical thinking. The mastering of scientific concepts at primary school can enrich the younger pupil's vocabulary by scientific terms that facilitate the study of subjects in high school. Learning the terms is a step up to the child's interests in science from primary school age and development their outlook.

The research perspectives of this problem are: the general understanding theory development, namely the investigation of those aspects that relate directly to the question of understanding scientific concepts by primary school pupils; the research of mastering scientific concepts methods with primary school age children.

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How can we create an equitable classroom?

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Studies confirm that group-work contributes effectively to the knowledge acquisition of children in heterogeneous classrooms. Sharan (1995) and Slavin (1995) agree that the diversity of the pupils is an advantage both in case of learning new information, and in terms of social behaviour. Many would not agree with this statement. For them, the question is whether the heterogeneous pupil composition ensures that all children have equal access to the progress of knowledge and to the curriculum (Cohen, 1994). This paper aims to demonstrate what the equitable classroom means and why it is necessary to equally access the curriculum for both the individual and the society and how this can be accomplished during group-work in a heterogeneous pupil group.

First we have to make clear what an equitable classroom looks like, how would we know one when we see one. One of the features of an equitable classroom (Lotan, 2006) is that all students have access to quality curriculum, intellectually challenging tasks, equal status interaction with their peers, with the teachers and with the text of schools. A classroom, where the students can see each other as competent; contributing; learning; colleagues and peers, while engaging in serious content, is the ideal. They solve problems that are similar to real-life problems, they address dilemmas and they have interesting topics to talk about. The aim is that they do that democratically and equitably (Caro-Bruce et. al., 2007).

What people sometimes mistake equity for is 'friendliness'. We have to look for the answer in the group-work. We do see classrooms that use group-work that are indeed friendlier, because pupils know each other names, and they talk to one another a little bit more, but that still does not address the issue of the equal status interaction. They can be friendly but they don't necessarily see particular students as competent. Therefore they are not seen as contributing to them or contributing to the group task.

We have to look for the suitable methods which are good to treat heterogeneous classroom. One of them is *complex instruction*, which is a status treating special cooperative work. The theoretical basis for the *complex instruction* particularly comes from a theory called expectation states theory. Status characteristics (Melamed, 2011) are features where society agrees that it is better to be in the high state than in the low state. The society agrees or society knows that it is probably be better to be rich than poor. More power and prestige is related to the high status characteristics if you are the member of the majority of the society.

In classrooms, particularly elementary ones, reading ability is such a status characteristic. If we ask children to rank each other and themselves on their reading ability in classrooms, the children are able to rank themselves, where their ranking corresponded to the teacher's ranking.

Status generalization (Oldmeadow, 2006) means that we come to a situation and all we know about it is that somebody is a good reader. But the task that we have to do has nothing to do with reading – we should make a present for our friends, a model airplane with legos for example – we would still generalize from the fact that somebody is a good reader to his or her competence to building for example.

Teachers should explain to the pupils that the task requires multiple intellectual abilities, hence in order to be able to complete a particular task, they need to make sure that they understand the text; they talk about the ideas; they summarize them in ways that make sense; they can explain it; they can synthesize; they can make a visual representation of the poem that they read; or they can paint a beautiful painting out of it. This particular task requires so many different things to do, that a single person will have a hard time doing it by themselves during the lesson; so the individual will need everybody and everybody's expertise. There is no one person that is always successful at everything, which is a huge problem for the children who are always successful at everything in schools. The reason why they are always successful is that the tasks are so narrow. On these multi-dimensional, broad, rich tasks the pupils need many different ways of being smart.

Howard Gardner (2003) talks about multiple intelligences. The most important thing that he did was that he made intelligence plural. He made 'intelligences', not only one intelligence. It is important to make the pupils aware that there are different pupils of capabilities, strengths and talents that they can contribute with. That comes from school, but also from our outside experiences.

Children come to school with such rich repertoires that the teachers never take advantage of, they never mind, they never give them opportunities to show how smart they are. When the students are actually working on these tasks and they require the multiply abilities, than the teacher can go around to observe and give specific feedback to all students particularly to the students who have never before been seen by their peers as contributors or as smart. So, the teachers can change expectations by praising a student more and more. The result of this is that when a student enters a new situation, he won't automatically say that 'this person is going to be the one who will solve the problem and I can just sit back'. They'll all have to perform and do something to produce the task (Lotan, 2004).

The message that we are trying to give is counter normative for schools where everything is so narrow, it is counter normative for teachers and it is counter cultural in many ways. The teachers always aim to find the best person in everything. In case of the *complex instruction* method, it is more

about looking at the richness. The advantage is that in the end, the pupils have the reading- the writing-, and the test taking skills as well. If the teachers have a rich task and they teach the pupils higher order thinking and deep conversation skills, they will do well on the test, too.

In the equitable classroom the children have access to a quality curriculum. All the children understand that they will have an opportunity to demonstrate their smarts in different ways by different means and at different occasions. They understand that being smart can be learnt that is incremental and multi-dimensional. In an equitable classroom – and the teachers know that that's where they get the most resistance, and also probably a lack of understanding – the achievement is clustered around a narrow, acceptable mean, meaning that there are only a very few children who are just below and some children who are above. It's not a normal curve. The achievement in an equitable classroom is not the normal curve, because in the normal curve only 60 percent of the classroom are around the acceptable mean (Bauman et al, 2005). We talk about achievement where we demonstrate what students know, what *all students know* in this graph. A standardized test does not discriminate because we have to have a normal curve.

Complex Instruction (K. Nagy, 2012) is a program which can be used successfully in heterogeneous classroom. It is an instructional approach that allows teachers to use cooperative group-work to teach at a high level in academically diverse classroom. The goal of this instruction is to provide academic access and success for all students in heterogeneous classrooms.

The features of the program is that multiple ability curricula are designed to foster the development of higher-order thinking skills through group-work activities organized around a central concept or big idea. The tasks are open-ended, requiring students to work interdependently to solve problems. Most importantly, the tasks require a wide array of intellectual abilities so that students from diverse backgrounds and different levels of academic proficiency can make meaningful contributions to the group task.

Using special instructional strategies, the teacher trains the students to use cooperative norms and specific roles to manage their own groups. The teacher is free to observe groups carefully, to provide specific feedback, and to treat status problems which cause unequal participation among group members.

To ensure equal access to learning, teachers learn to recognize and treat status problems. In Complex Instruction Program the more the students talk and work together, the more they learn. Students, who are social isolated or students who are seen as lacking academic skills often fail to participate and thus learn less than they would if they were more active in the groups. In Complex Instruction Program teachers use status treatments to broaden students' perceptions of what it means to be smart,

and to convince students that they each have important intellectual contributions to make to the multiple ability task.

In schools where students are tracked into high and low level science courses, they have different educational experiences in terms of access to scientific materials, information and instruction. In essence, tracking denies low-tracked students' access to the knowledge and skills needed to pursue scientific careers or to become informed, productive members of an increasingly technological society.

Complex Instruction Program permits teachers to teach at a high intellectual level while reaching a wide range of students. Traditional classroom tasks use a narrow range of intellectual abilities. When asked to describe their middle grades science experiences, most students mention listening to lectures, reading textbooks, highlighting key passages and sentences and memorising information.

To develop scientific thinking skills, group activities need to incorporate a wide range of intellectual abilities. Multiple-ability group tasks a prerequisite for Complex Instruction. Students use different intellectual abilities as they rotate through the different tasks.

The multiple representations provide students with additional opportunities to access ideas and information, as well as opportunities to demonstrate multiple intellectual abilities. When such abilities are necessary to complete the tasks, more students have the opportunity to make substantial contributions to the group and to be recognised for these contributions.

The feature of group-work tasks is positive interdependence. When tasks are complex, rich and demanding, a single students will not be able to complete it in a timely fashion by himself or herself. In Complex Instruction, designing tasks that are multiple-ability and open-ended fosters interdependence.

Teachers must hold each student personally accountable for contributing to the group's success and for mastering the concepts or the big idea of the unit. Students are required to complete individual reports after the group's discussion and presentation.

Teachers must realised that when students work in groups, direct instruction is no longer practical. When instruction shifts to small groups, both teacher and student behave differently than during traditional, whole-class instruction. Teachers delegate authority to the students so that they will take responsibility for their own behaviour and learning. When teachers delegate authority, they often worry about losing control of the classroom.

Norms are written or unwritten rules for how one ought to behave. Cooperative norms control student behaviour in groups and ensure that group-work work. But following rules doesn't always come naturally for students – skill-building activities at the start of the year help develop these new behaviours students need to use.

Delegation of authority is supposed by specific student roles (facilitator, reporter, timer, materials manager...). These roles give each person in the group a task to accomplish. This reduces the probability of one person in the group doing all the work.

Delegation of authority doesn't mean that the teacher withdraws from the class or completely stays out of the action. The nature of the activities as well as the system of norms and roles relieve the teacher of the mundane tasks of classroom management. By making students responsible for their own learning, the teacher has a new role as facilitator. While the students are at learning stations, the teacher is freed up to engage students in higher-order questions, to stimulate and extend their thinking, to provide specific feedback, and to deal with problems of unequal participation. By delegating authority to the groups, teachers can do what they like to do the best: teach. In classroom where teachers delegate authority, the proportion of students talking and working together increases.

Teachers who have used cooperative learning know that students within a group do not participate equally. Unequal participation leads to unequal learning. It is a problem rooted in the students' perceptions of themselves and each other.

The classroom is a social system in which students' perceptions of themselves and their classmates dictate relative status and participation. In classrooms children are constantly evaluated by both their peers and their teacher. Teachers and students form a social ranking (status order). Social theory suggests that when students work together on a group task, those perceived as high achievers dominate the group interaction. The high-status students are more influential in group decisions, low-status students barely participate. This is called a status problem.

Status problems lead to unequal opportunities for learning. Since high-status students interact more in the group, they learn more from the tasks, since low-status students participate less, they learn less.

We confirm that group-work contributes effectively to the knowledge acquisition of children in heterogeneous classrooms. We agree with Sharan and Slavin that the diversity of the pupils is an advantage both in case of learning new information, and in terms of social behaviour. The aim of this paper was to demonstrate what the equitable classroom means and why it is necessary to equally access the curriculum for both the individual and the society. We think that if teachers do not create equitable classrooms, the democracy will not come.

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A good practice is that works

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The qualification and adaptation of good practices

The general goal of NDA (TÁMOP) 3.1.1. project of special importance is to develop public education, to provide support in expertise and information technology in addition to secure standards and follow up. The first phase passed from 2008 until 2012. Presently, we are in phase two, which started in August, 2012 and will finish in January, 2015. Within project NDA 3.1.1 the question of Good Practice is dealt with in the 3rd subproject, which targets the development of teaching, education, and as such it takes part in the elaboration of complex pilot programs. The areas of development include programs in science education, in arts and crafts, and practical workshops for everyday life for the full day elementary schools. In junior high school the programs are developed for those students who need to catch up as well as there is an eco-school program. Subproject No. 7 aims at collecting Good Practices from the extracurricular activities in school, to further structure and develop Good Practices, implementing and spreading them, as well as to follow up adaptations of Good Practices.

The challenges of the 21st century posed by the open information society and the need for life-long learning desire the application of new skills. The modern concept of education, the emphasis on the quantity of knowledge is replaced with an emphasis on the quality and so-called „know-how”. Therefore, the role of the school changes, instead of handing down information in class, the development of learning, communication and social skills become of importance. Practical, everyday knowledge, higher levels of thinking and the need for new competences expect a change in the role and the attitude of the teachers.

Besides fulfilling the role of information handler, the teacher also needs to professionally organize the study process, which requires new working methods and techniques. All these need not occur from one day to the next but they must be emphasized, because they highlight the need for a collection of Good Practices, as well as the importance of networking. Good Practice may also prove advantageous for healthy competition among the institutions.

About the Principles of Good Practices

There are several descriptions for Good Practices; there is not one, consensually accepted description. However, the creators and the developers agree that the question *How to teach* fundamentally defines Good Practices.

Good Practices build bottom up from experiences proved efficient by results in the education system. The design, build-up, the possibility to reproduce and hand them over are all essential parts in the mechanism of Good Practices. It is typical to find models, which mean both, for students and teachers innovation, qualitative change, sustainability on individual or institutional level. In short, Good Practice is defined by „what works well“.

Internationally, there are a wide range of adaptation techniques. Sometimes we see a top-down approach but often the bottom up initiatives of teachers and schools seem to operate successfully. We find equally, the publication of Good Practices approved by pedagogical experts and collections of Good Practices published without any qualification procedure. However, the basic conditions to spread Good Practices is that a given institution may access Good Practices aimed at the challenges of institutional systems, also they are motivated to use it, so a new culture of learning from one another may take root.

The definitions of Good Practice

It is widely accepted that the common denominator of the otherwise diverse Good Practices is that results are produced. The question is where and when. This is why we defined not only one but four different categories. These four categories differentiate Good Practices based on the areas used. Good Practices must be useful and effective on all levels and for all the participants in the educational system. The different outcomes of different categories make them easy to handle thus it helps that most Good Practices are available for users needing simple ideas to the most complex systems.

Individual Good Practice Individual Good Practice in public education appears as a group of method, action and use of tools on a personal development level that partially or wholly produces a positive effect on the classes taught by the teacher participating in the development work.

Institutional Good Practice Institutional Good Practice in public education appears as a group of method, action and use of tools on the level of the given institution, which can be collected and documented. It is efficient and produces success. Thus it fits into the description of Good Practices as it exceeds the regular pedagogical basic tasks and partially or wholly produces a positive effect on the professional development work.

Proven Good Practice Proven Good Practice in public education appears as a group of innovative process, method, action and use of tools experienced in the institution for a number of years on a number of places. As such, it has been efficient, successful and proven, therefore can be adapted, sustained, further developed and documented. Proven Good Practice in public education thus fits into the educational description of Good Practice as it partially or wholly produces a positive effect on the professional development work and exceeds the fulfillment of regular pedagogical basic tasks in the institution.

Exemplary Good Practice Exemplary Good Practice is a group of democratic, holistic, horizontal, cooperation and communication-based, creative and innovative process experienced in various institutions for a number of years on a number of places. This has been efficient, successful, proven, and effectively applied in a network of institutions, therefore it can be adapted sustained, further developed and documented. Exemplary Good Practice in public education thus fits the educational description of Good Practice as it partially or wholly produces a positive effect on the professional development work and exceeds the regular pedagogical basic tasks in the institutions.

The assessment of Good Practices along qualified standards

It is essential to make assessments. Assessment helps make the description of Good Practices available, and make materials developed by teachers accessible. Therefore, materials tried and considered successful by them, can be used by others. The four component system may seem complex but it is not complicated, moreover it makes the presently different content more transparent as it classifies the elements. We find it essential to introduce an established, acknowledged, professionally qualified verification, which serves as a guarantee for practicing teachers. This now is almost entirely missing from the system.

The last procedures of the quality control examine the content, the professional fit, and the interaction of elements. We suggest a checklist for the quality control process, which secures the possibility of checking, opinion, and overview of the system. This last constituent is crucial for checking the interaction of the elements. The procedure is completed in one-step; however, it also yields to further corrections.

Publication of Good Practices

In the 21st century, in public education system Good Practices need to be available on-line. The idea of our on-line surface is based on international research. Our aim is to make its structure accessible for all target groups: the directors of the institutions, teachers and students alike. According to the expectations of Web2, the users may interact with one another; share ideas and opinions, and may upload materials. Thus an open community is created sharing ideas, being able to develop, spreading, which can self-reflect democratically and interactively.

However, by simply disseminating Good Practices we will not be able to reach the real goal. It would be a mistake to think that the descriptions of Good Practices are „ready to serve”. Only because similar problems concerning development arise in two different institutions does not mean the solution is going to be the same. Let us not only offer a product but also guidelines for its application. Both, the developer and the user must be open for adaptations.

We expect teachers to change from a handler of information to a person with qualities of organizing, helping, giving incentives. Instead of merely grading, the teacher also needs to evaluate and motivate. His authoritarian role has to be replaced with a role of a counselor in partnership. We must acknowledge that instead of the old fashioned directing teacher it brings more result when the teacher has an original view, and teaches autonomy to students.

Helping adaptations

Adaptations are an important part of Good Practices as their efficiency and good result depend on successful accommodation. A successful adaptation of Good Practices works on several dimensions, as it does not only bring about success for specific aims of the given program but may indicate positive change for the entire institution as well as its future. The process of adaptation is also a learning process, and may result in the Good Practice becoming of influence thus used more widespread than the program it originally aimed at. A possible lack of success or failure may be an obstacle to further initiatives, yet, let us take into account that success often comes on a bumpy road, and an efficient adaptation-functioning can strengthen the implementation of the idea of a creative-innovative school.

While planning the process of adaptation we must have the right track of thinking with which to avoid failure. According to our hypothesis, the underlying causes of failure are the following: lack of support from directors, lack of teachers' commitment, choice of inappropriate tools, inaccurately conceived goals, missed conclusions, and insecure funding. While adapting, we need to find solutions for these problems. To give general examples: teachers come from all walks of life, therefore, the

system needs to build in seminars and trainings for professional advancement, for spreading methodology, for changing attitudes and raising awareness. The precarious financial situation of institutions makes it desirable to raise awareness, and to increase involvement-influence, motivation, and commitment. „Adaptation” does not equal with „copy-paste” but rather means that we initiate something. The process needs commitment, or support if only active participation. Participants need to acknowledge that in the beginning.

It cannot be stressed enough how important the implementation of developed programs are for certain schools, so as to not to reinvent the wheel. However adapting those to the given school's specific needs must not be a lonely route, as exchange of information and networking may kick off upon the handing over-receiving of the organizational forms.

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Formation of Communicative Abilities and Skills in the Children of Primary School

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The article dwells upon the problem of formation of communicative skills and abilities of junior schoolchildren. In addition, the importance of formation of communicativeness in modern trends of social development has been defined. Peculiarities of linguistic and didactic opportunities aimed at the development of communicative skill of junior schoolchildren, have been highlighted. Different methods and approaches to the development of communicativeness have been specified, and the forms and methods of involving pupils in creative activity have been emphasized.

The Urgency of the Issue under Study

Communication is a necessary condition of human existence, without which a complete formation of not just individual psychical functions, processes and features of a human, but also its peculiarity as a whole, is impossible. It is in the middle childhood that communication and interaction with the others come to the fore. The researchers are the only ones to acknowledge the great importance of communication of junior schoolchildren with their peers, as it is in the centre of their life and determines all the sides of behaviour and activity in many aspects. However, as life practice and scientific research show, far not every junior schoolchild is able to efficiently establish and maintain relationships with other people. And this, definitely, affects not only well-being, but also the quality of their relations with peers, parents and teachers, their behaviour, actions and personal realization as a whole.

The urgency of the issue of formation of communicative skills and abilities of the schoolchildren depends on modern trends in education. Dynamic factor of social and economic and mental processes taking place in the background of scientific and technical, information revolution globally, lead to that a human nowadays has to communicate straight with people of different professions, using verbal and nonverbal communication means, enter into a dialogue with virtual partners, search for the necessary information in the Internet with the aid of the computer communication means. Because of that, the research on the study of the peculiarities of preparation of a future person, able to solve modern communicative problems, are becoming more intense. All this requires

development of different approaches to learning, encouraging the researchers and experts in the educational sphere to conduct thorough studies of significant peculiarities of communicativeness formation, the essence, and structure of the methods of its formation. That is why in modern pedagogy prevail those forms and methods of education and teaching, which are pupil-oriented, taking into account their interests, demands and values as a subject of the educational process. The school should not just give pupils some scope of knowledge, but also raise a human ability to think creatively, make decisions, have one's own viewpoint, bear responsibility, adapt to mobile conditions, quick change of social roles, i.e., a human competent in the sphere of professional activities and communication.

Analysis of the Most Recent Research and Publications

The problem of formation of communicative skills and abilities and interrelation of linguistic education at school with the real needs of life has been studied by prominent teachers and linguists of the 19th-21st centuries, such as M. Bunakov, F. Buslaev, V. Vodovozov, Ya. Hrot, O. Potebnia, F. Fortunatov, N. Maretska, L. Bachman, M. Halliday, G. Manby, and others.

According to O. Kalmykova, the formation of communicative and speech skills is one of the main problems of modern methodology of language teaching, as the lack of duly correlation between theory and practical speech skills affects quantitative and qualitative features of speech, and brings speech errors and drawbacks of different types (Kalmykova 2003). In order to prevent them, apart from mastering the linguistic theory, schoolchildren should be taught how to act properly in a specific linguistic situation, select content and linguistic means to express opinion, and have a command of the rules of linguistic behaviour in different communicative conditions.

The analysis of the problem under study shows that communicative and speech skills as the object of study are complex psychophysiological and information and activity-related phenomena (Kalmykova 2003). Comparison of different definitions of communicative and speech skill allowed for the following generalization: communicative and speech skills are the ability of the speaker to guarantee correct usage of verbal and nonverbal means in order to efficiently interact with the participants of a speech act. Although, notwithstanding the theoretical and practical achievements in solving the problem under consideration, the issue of a system of communicative development methods of pupils and efficient techniques of forming of speech skill is discussed insufficiently.

The aim of the article is to determine the role and linguistic and didactic opportunities to use communicative methods in the process of

development of pupil's linguistic personality; determine the most efficient means of formation of the pupils' communicative competence.

Summary of the Main Material of the Research

Analysis of theory and practice of linguistic education proves that the formation of communicative skills is determined by other trends, principles, than mastering a language or speech development as such, and that is why development of skills of efficient communication cannot take place using only traditional methods of language teaching. In this process should prevail methods based on interactive activity (verbal and nonverbal), for example: group discussion of educational and topical issues; discussion; dramatizing the texts from dialogues and real-life situations; communicative trainings, etc.

Such methods set the tone of communication to the educational process, help pupils to work out the ability to perform different communicative functions – informational, motivational, cognitive, regulatory, emotional, value-oriented, etc. In general, they are subject to educational and communicational aims – establishing, maintaining, retaining the contact, persuading of the interlocutor, motivating him to accept a certain offer, etc.

Thus, formation of pupils' communicative skill is based on the communicative function of language, i.e., its intent to be a communicative means, communication, and self-expression. Communicative skills in the methodology include the following:

- Ability to define a topic of an utterance and adhere to its borders;
- Build utterances according to their aim, the main idea and the addresser of the speech;
- Use powerful evidences and facts for expansion of the topic and the main idea of the utterance;
- Build utterances logically (to infer cause-and-effect relationships between facts and phenomena, make generalizations and conclusions);
- Select the type and the style of speech depending on the aim and the communicative situation;
- Use different linguistic means according to the type, style, and genre of the utterance;
- Improve utterances (correct and edit the written ones) (Kowal 2008).

To this should be added to the main communicative features of speech: correctness, clearness, accurateness, consistency, conciseness, figurativeness, accessibility, efficiency, and reasonability (Ivanova 2000). The above features of speech can be viewed as a linguistic interpretation of typology of communicative and speech skills, based on informative,

compositional and functional speech aspects. Formation of communicative skills is one of the aspects of the development of a pupil's creative personality, characterized by the knowledge, skills and abilities, necessary to understand the other's and to build one's own programmes of speech behaviour corresponding to communicative situations.

Communicative and speech skills are necessary for the efficient fulfilment of speech activity in the conditions of interpersonal interaction, i.e., in different communicative situations: with different aim, in different conditions, with different interlocutors (acquaintances, strangers; by age: older, younger; by social role: someone of the nearest people, a teacher, a schoolmate, a friend, etc.). The basis of communicative and speech skills are speech skills (pronunciation, orthoepic, lexical and grammatical) and general speech skills (the ability to listen and understand, speak, read and write).

Speech game situations, encouraging children to utterances and direct communication, further the efficient formation of communicative skills. A part of such situations are put into the system of exercises comprised in textbooks. Apart from that, a teacher has to work on such tasks individually, taking into account the topic of the lesson and a character of possible communicative situations (Kowal 2008).

Work on the formation of communicative skills and abilities is the work on the content of educational text, its logical structure, and linguistic arrangement. In order to communicate a human should learn to: quickly and correctly act in the communicative conditions; be able to correctly plan one's speech; to find corresponding means for conveying the intended content; be able to provide for a feedback.

In order to acquire corresponding skills, different methods are used: creation of speech situation (a phone call); introduction of didactic games (educational issues); socio-dramatic plays (in public transport, in a store); dramatization of situations (on a lesson of physical education, in a canteen); dialogues with peers and adults; dramatization based on the given texts; analysis of examples of oral utterances; learning the examples of oral folk tales (rehearsal of the known tales); stories based on the content and illustrations (series of narrative drawings); telling the individually composed tales; composing stories with further collective analysis, etc. (Kowal, 2008).

Advantages of communicational methods in the practice of linguistic education are that they are oriented towards simultaneous development of the main educational and subject skills (oral and written speech, reading, listening comprehension, grammatical, intonational, etc.) in the process of educational communication. At that, linguistic material is delivered in a context of real, emotionally coloured situation, which furthers a quick and strong memorizing of topical linguistic data. Cooperation of subjects of education – work in pairs and groups is a feature of realization of these methods. Communicative methods presuppose a range of demands:

- 1) All the pupils' utterances should be motivated – emerge in case of necessity of saying, writing anything, getting in touch with anyone, sharing one's thoughts and feelings. This necessity emerges during natural or artificial (with educational purpose) speech situations: dialogues, arguments, discussions, role-plays, correspondence, and talks during excursions and walks;
- 2) The author of the utterance (oral and written) should understand well what he/she is going to talk about, i.e., to possess sufficient, true and important information. It should be selected, systematized, structured, and brought under the author's intent;
- 3) The aim of communication shall be reached in case of sufficient mastering by its participants of linguistic means: rich active vocabulary, the ability to quickly and correctly create grammatical forms, build sentences and connect them into text, select the best linguistic means for a certain communicative situation;
- 4) The pupil's utterance should be necessary to anyone, i.e., have an addressee. Thus, they should receive the answer to each question, their story should be heard, at least one person should read a written story, the expressed opinion should be discussed, a letter should be read and the answer should be estimated (Vashulenko, 2011).

Communicative and speech aspect becomes more important in the process of pupils' education and lies in the formation of different types of communicative competencies, which further the development of interpersonal communication. Speech can be communicatively helpful in case of containing such features as accurateness, conciseness, and figurativeness. The level of formation of communicative skills depends on the richness of the vocabulary of a junior schoolchild and the ability of using all the variety of grammatical means of a language while building one's own utterances.

Under the guidance of personal and oriented education, it is necessary to provide to emotional well-being of the pupils at the lesson, which further a successful realization of the tasks of communicative skills formation and speech culture of junior schoolchildren. At that, it has been proven that the efficient means of development of communicational skills are exercises, during the fulfilment of which pupils acquire necessary elementary communicative information on the text, enrich their vocabulary, and develop communicative and speech skills generally.

In general, methods of communicative skills formation and abilities include methods, oriented towards the development of knowledge and artistic skills to use efficient communicative strategies and tactics in different communicative situations. Among communicative skills one can emphasize the following: the ability to rise the listeners' and readers' interest in what the pupil has said as a speaker, use the craft of linguistic information encoding, act properly in a communicative situation, establish

contact with an interlocutor, sustain a conversation, hold a discussion politely, select verbal and nonverbal means of speech communication justified as to communication, the ability to change one's strategies of speech impact and communicative behaviour, depending on a communicative situation, and other corresponding educational methods allow realization of the pupil's need in communication, increase motivation towards the school subject, enrich social and communicative experience, form the readiness to performing different communicative roles in the process of vital activity.

It is worth mentioning that communicative methods allow the formation of not just communicative but also cultural competence. Successful formation of communicative competence is predetermined by the topic of texts and situations, which, in their turn, presupposes integration of linguistic, cognitive and interpretational, social and cultural knowledge and skills in different communicative situations.

The use of communicative methods in addition activates emotional and semantic search for the reason of living, understanding the inner world of the other personality, understanding the individual peculiarities of an interlocutor due to the creation of educational and communicative situations, in a context of sense perception (acceptance, transformation of verbal information), creation, and transfer of an utterance.

Having analysed the peculiarities of formation of communicative skills of junior schoolchildren, one can make a conclusion that communication development takes place not via accumulation of quantitative changes in this activity, but as a qualitative change of some complete forms of communicative activity, which are characterized foremost by their needs, and then by predominance of these or that operations and acts of communication. The analysis of works is indicative of the fact that communication development takes place in a close relation with changes of general vital activity, change of its main activity and its place in interrelations with the natural and social environment.

It is worth mentioning that communicative competence serves the formation of vital skills, furthering social well-being:

- ⇒ Skills of efficient communication;
- ⇒ Ability to listen;
- ⇒ Ability to express one's thoughts clearly;
- ⇒ Ability to express one's feelings openly, without anxiety and blaming;
- ⇒ Mastering nonverbal speech (gestures, mimics, intonation, etc.);
- ⇒ Adequate reaction on the critic;
- ⇒ Ability to ask for a favour or help.

Thus, the high level of mastering communicative and speech skills of a native language provides for the basis of further education and teaching in an educational establishment and leads to successful professional activity in the future career of a person.

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Peer Nomination: Who is Gifted among Classmates?

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Instead of Introduction

We asked 403 elementary and secondary school students about whom they found gifted among their classmates. And the result was: they were able to answer this question with good precision. In short this is the point of our study which we want to show in this paper.

Identifying Giftedness

Before going into details, it is important to make it clear that here in this paper giftedness is discussed as intellectual giftedness, and so we will not reveal information about any specific giftedness. The main difference between intellectual and specific giftedness is, that in the background of the intellectual giftedness general cognitive abilities are assumed, whereas specific giftedness is made up by one or more special abilities beyond general cognitive abilities (Gyarmathy, 2006/2011).

In most cases psychologists measure IQ based on the implicit or explicit concept, that high ability makes giftedness. Or they measure different cognitive skills such as verbal analogous thinking, nonverbal categorising, thinking in mathematical sequences, or short term memory, etc. (Dávid, 2000; Tóth, 1996, s. a.). These and similar skills are involved also in given IQ tests as well. Whatever we measure: IQ or cognitive skills, measuring them is a good start point in the process of the identification of giftedness, and this process may be continued for example by measuring creativity, motivation (see Renzulli's Three-Ring-Model of Giftedness – Renzulli, 1978, 1986); or it may involve measuring beyond or instead of the former factors many other qualities according to the psychologist's concept of giftedness.

When operating a program for gifted children it is a good practice when teachers tell which students are highly able, since teachers may have years of educational experience, they have an overview of which signs may reveal the students' abilities. In other cases parents are those who know the best that their children have abilities above the average, since they know their children the most. And what about the peers? Are they able to tell who is gifted among the classmates?

Telling about my classmates...

There is a popular method used by psychologists and teachers which can help us getting more information about students. This is sociometry (Méri, 1996). Mostly it is used when we want to know something about relationships in the class. For example when we want to arrange the sitting-order in the classroom. In this case we only have to ask the students three so called 'likes and dislikes' questions. These may be:

- *If the class would go for a trip by train, with whom would you like share the compartment? (And with whom would you not like to share it?)*
- *If you won four cinema tickets, with whom would you like to go to see a film? (And with whom would you not go with?)*
- *Who are the classmates with whom you would like to keep contact also after finishing school? (And with whom would you not keep contact?)*

The sitting order in the classroom is important. But could we apply this method also for more important (at least important from the point of view of our research) issues? The answer is also in Mérei's approach, since Mérei (1996) developed further Moreno's method and he introduced the so called 'function' questions beyond the 'likes and dislikes' ones. In this way we can learn which student is trustworthy, fair-minded, who is a good organizer, who is leader? We can also learn who is gifted, at least in the students' opinions.

Do students really know who is gifted among the classmates?

In our research we applied the questionnaire of sociometry, and as Mérei (1996) suggests, we formed also 'function' questions in it. Two of these questions are the following:

- *Who do you think is smart among your classmates?*
- *Who do you think is gifted among your classmates?*

We also asked the form-teachers of the examined classes about whom they find gifted among their students? We were interested whether there is a coincidence between the teachers' and the students' answers. And if there is, to what extent are opinions similar?

The Reader might form the next scientific question whether the teachers' or rather the students' opinions about gifted persons in the class show any coincidence with the parents' opinions in the same topic. The

question is evident, but not is the answer! We did not undertake collecting data in order to be able to answer this latter question, because this is not the mainstream in our research. However we would be also interested in the answer. But anyone who has ever tried to involve the students' parents into any research by asking them to fill in only a short questionnaire knows it is almost an impossible mission, or at least it is difficult. Consequently we can inform the Reader only about the results of the question about the coincidence between the students' and the teachers' opinions. Before showing these result let us take a sight at the sample itself.

We involved in our research three school-years: 3rd, 7th, and 11th years. Table 1 shows the main parameters of the sample.

Table 1: *Components of the sample*

	<i>number of school-classes</i>	<i>number of students</i>
<i>3rd year</i>	6	140
<i>7th year</i>	5	130
<i>11th year</i>	5	133
Σ	16	403

The statistics show more or less different patterns according to the examined years, so in the following we show the results also for the sub-samples (ie for the different years) especially as the sub-samples consist of more than one hundred persons. These results are shown in tables 2, 3, and 4.

Table 2: *Who is gifted and smart? – The coincidence of the answers in the 3rd year (number of students)*

		gifted in the students' opinions			
		no		yes	
		gifted in the teachers' opinions		gifted in the teachers' opinions	
		no	yes	no	yes
smart in the students' opinions	no	90	15	3	2
	yes	0	0	5	12

Before analysing the data for the separate years we had to add here some information about the students' and teachers' opinions. At the time of testing the students we asked the form-teachers directly about which students in their classes they think that they are gifted whatever giftedness might mean. Of course if the teachers had questions in connection with giftedness, we helped them. Those students who are named by their form-teachers as gifted are the ones, about whom the teachers think that they are gifted. This is evident. Dealing the students' answers to the questions

'who is gifted and who is smart among the classmates?' is more complex. We used the sociometric techniques (Méri, 1996) to make up the list of those, who are gifted and smart in the classmates' opinions. To say in short we only regarded those as gifted and smart in the classmates' opinions, who got the most votes in their classes to these questions.

Table 2 is a crosstab that shows the relationship between the students' opinion about giftedness and cleverness and the teachers' opinion about giftedness. Most of the 3rd year students (90 persons) are not thought to be smart or gifted either by the students or by the teachers. There are only 12 students about whom the classmates think they are smart and gifted, and about whom also the form-teachers think that they are gifted. There is no one student who would be smart but not gifted. That is if a student is thought to be smart, he or she is thought to be gifted too.

Table 3: *Who is gifted and smart? – The coincidence of the answers in the 7th year (number of students)*

		gifted in the students' opinions			
		no		yes	
		gifted in the teachers' opinions		gifted in the teachers' opinions	
		no	yes	no	yes
smart in the students' opinions	no	103	4	5	3
	yes	1	2	4	8

Table 3 shows the results of the test of the relationship concerning the 7th year students. These results are similar to those concerning the 3rd year students, but there is a striking difference: there are some students who are not thought to be gifted, but they are thought to be smart by the classmates. There are only 3 such students, but it is a fact, that this category exists in this grade.

Table 4: *Who is gifted and smart? – The coincidence of the answers in the 11th year (number of students)*

		gifted in the students' opinions			
		no		yes	
		gifted in the teachers' opinions		gifted in the teachers' opinions	
		no	yes	no	yes
smart in the students' opinions	no	103	6	5	0
	yes	0	4	1	10

Table 4 shows the results of the test of the relationship concerning the 11th year students. These results show similarity with those concerning the 7th year. There are 4 students who are thought to be smart, but not gifted by the classmates. It is interesting however that the form-teachers think about these 4 students, that they are gifted.

If we have a look at the previous results concerning one year after the other, a manifestation of tendency can be observed: the younger the students, the more they depend on their teachers; and consequently the older the students grow, the more independently they form their opinions also in topics of school. Of course it is not surprising: it is the part of the healthy development (see e.g. Cole & Cole, 1997; Kozéki, 1990).

We also examined the relationship between opinions – which might be more subjective assessments – and between the Grade Point Average (GPA), and the scores on IQ test – these latter data seem to be more objective (see e.g. Mező, 2004).

Table 5: *Relationship between opinions and Grade Point Average in the 3rd year (GPA)*

		gifted in the students' opinions			
		no		yes	
		gifted in the teachers' opinions		gifted in the teachers' opinions	
		no	yes	no	yes
smart in the students' opinions	no	3,4	4,4	4,2	4,8
	yes			5,0	5,0

Table 5 is a crosstab where we show what GPA our sub-groups in the 3rd year have. (In Hungary at the time of the research 5 is the highest grade.) The lowest GPA (3,4) can be seen for those who are not thought to be either smart or gifted by the classmates, and neither are they thought to be gifted by the teachers. The highest GPA (5,0) is owned by those who are thought to be smart and gifted by the classmates, independently from the teachers' opinion in connection with giftedness. We got similar results for examining scores in the IQ test (see Table 6.)

Table 6: *Relationship between opinions and scores in IQ test in the 3rd year (Average of the IQ score – Raven)*

		gifted in the students' opinions			
		no		yes	
		gifted in the teachers' opinions		gifted in the teachers' opinions	
		no	yes	no	yes
smart in the students' opinions	no	26,5	32,5	32,0	36,5
	yes			34,0	40,8

The 3rd year students filled in the Raven's Progressive Matrices Test with 60 items (Szegedi, 1998). Those who are not thought to be either smart or gifted by the classmates, and neither are they thought to be gifted by the teachers have the lowest IQ – they could solve less than the half of the tasks in the test on average (26,5 scores). The highest IQ goes for those who are thought to be smart and gifted by the classmates, and also the teachers think they are gifted – this sub-group solved more than the two third of the tasks correctly on average (40,8 scores).

The students in the 7th year filled in also the Raven's Progressive Matrices Test. The students in the 11th year filled in a more difficult version of this test: the Raven's Advanced Matrices, which test consists of 12 plus 36 tasks. Although these are two different tests, resulting that the scores in them cannot be compared with each other directly, the 7th and 11th year students are examined together, because their data in the examined connection are very similar, however they have a different pattern in comparison to the 3rd year results. In the higher years 'being smart' is the so called key-position according to the log-linear statistics. That is, those who are thought to be smart by the classmates have a higher GPA and they reached higher IQ scores as well.

Summary

Students have opinions about their classmates. They have also opinions about their cognitive abilities. In this essay we have proved that these opinions are valuable. On the one hand students' opinions reflex their teachers' opinions: the younger the student, the more it is characteristic of them. On the second hand there is a strong relationship between these students' opinions and the achievement, ie GPA and IQ.

Sequitur

If we know the method of sociometry, and if we like using it, it is worth asking the students not only about friendship, trustworthiness, but also about abilities, such as being smart or being gifted as we did in our research. We can get valuable information about our students.

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“Future in their Mind” – Adolescents’ Career Concepts

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The economic and social changes of the past two decades have demonstrated that the country’s economic growth and the success of future generations are tightly linked to knowledge and the development of knowledge and skill based industries. In this spirit, several initiations, programs and measurements have been launched for the past 5 years, both on a national (e.g.) and on a local and regional level. These initiations strongly focus on the young and adolescent population, since their conscious socialization built on desirable values is an essential factor for long-term achievement and success. Two institutions play a crucial role in supporting the internalization of the attitudes desirable for efficient learning, working, consistent performance, effort-driven results and accepting responsibility. These are the educational institutes and the families where children spend the majority of their times, learning about the values and expectations of both these environments. The initiations aiming for advancing the successful internalization of desirable values via supporting these environments and the children living in them may prove to be very capable to provide a firm ground for the achievement of long-term goals, to incite building preferable behavior patterns, and to facilitate the establishment of communities that may become exemplary in their own fields.

Personal and environmental factors in career planning

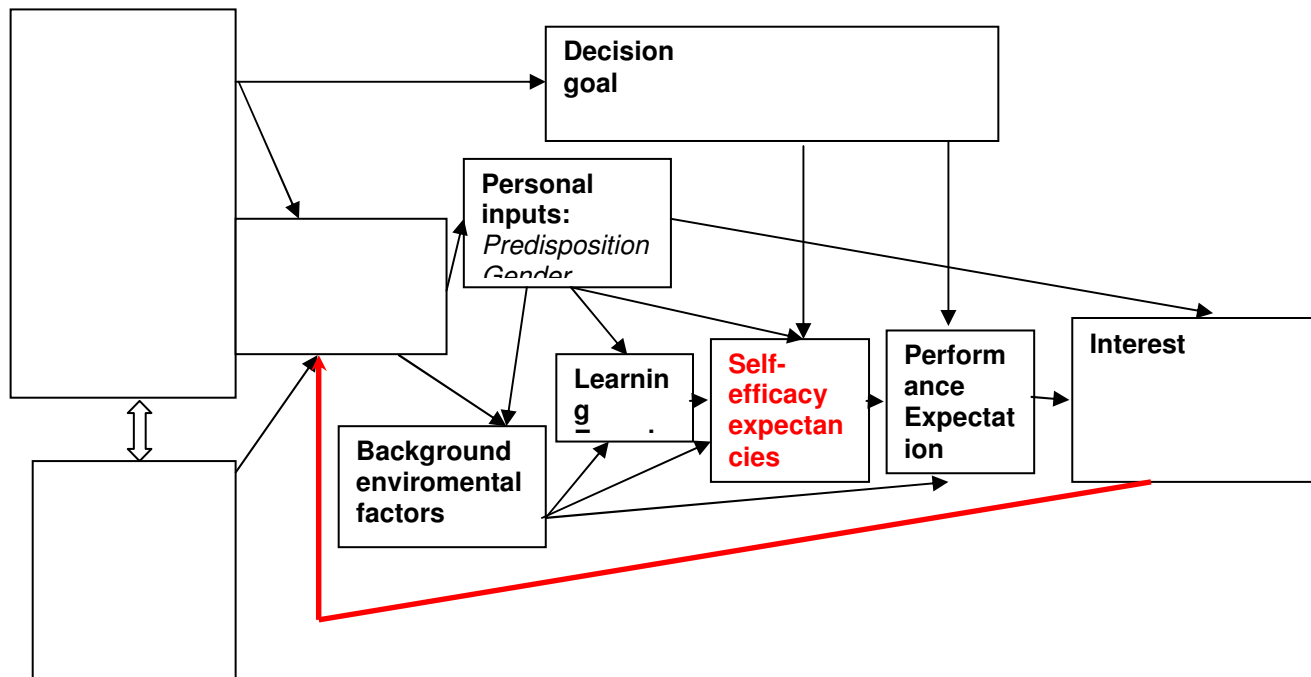
For the scientific study of all the factor affecting adolescents’ career decisions, we have turned to an integrative framework based on the cognitive information processing model. It’s called Social-Cognitive Theory (SCCT) and its central construct is self-efficacy.

Through the work of *Lent, Brown and Hackett* (1994), the concept of career self-efficacy has found its way into the group of basic concepts in modern career theories. The notion of career self-efficacy refers to the personal experience an individual has about how efficient he or she is in building a successful career. Lent et al. theorized that self-efficacy in career building can best be described by the level of conscious effort in career building. This concept was later proved to be correct by empirical

studies. According to the social learning theory, our perceived self-efficacy influences our cognitions, motivations, emotions and our behavior.

Social-Cognitive Career Theory (SCCT)

Figure 1: *The social-cognitive career model*



(Source: Lent, Brown & Hackett, 1994)

SCCT (social-cognitive career theory) states that if we wish to analyze career decisions we must take into consideration such properties of the individual as gender, ethnicity, health condition, skills and limits as well as the scope of opportunities and limits stemming from the person's socio-economic status.

The learning experiences a person can gain during his/her career is determined by the mutual effect of the individual's personal input and various factors in the environment. Furthermore, the body of experiences acquired by the individual acts as a moderator shaping the person's self-efficacy expectancies and thus directly influences the person's performance expectancies about future challenges.

It's important to point out that besides influencing a person's self-efficacy, the various performance expectations also affect the individual's interests, goals as well as his/her career choices and decisions. Our decisions are strongly shaped by how we anticipate our future possibilities

(supportive or restrictive) (J. Klér, 2012). Content-specific self-efficacy has been found to serve as a good predictor of school career (Lent, Brown & Hackett, 2000).

According to the model, the complex system of all these factors is what determines from the onset how we choose to build our career. We explore the world of employment, seek out important information, set and achieve goals under the influence of these factors. The circular nature of the career model visually represents that repeating the process is not only possible but also often necessary. Any changes in the elements of the system (e.g. changes in interest or physical condition) calls for the re-evaluation and revision of previous decisions (Gianakos, 2001).

According to the model, the role of career counseling is best utilized by supporting the cognitive evaluation process which aims for the maximization of the experience of self-efficacy.

By examining each piece of the model it's easy to recognize how numerous are those mediating factors that play a major role in creating and maintaining the despairing conditions of socially disadvantaged young people in the labor market (Ochs et al., 2004). At the same time, they can also direct our attention to where corrective interventions are possible. By re-evaluating the situation, taking account of available resources, and developing more preferable environmental conditions, young people can have the chance to be socialized under circumstances where, compared to the academic and work career of their parents and grandparent, they can develop a skills allowing for greater forward mobility in their career path.

Introduction of the study

In this study we aim to analyze the effects of a particular scholarship program launched a few years ago in a certain Hungarian town to support the school career of financially disadvantaged adolescent youth. Living in families with low socio-economic status, more than 500 children and adolescent students with excellent school records have been granted scholarships for over the past 5 years. In this article, we present only a part of our results, namely those that demonstrate the concepts our young subjects have about their own career paths, and what they think about their own role in achieving their goals.

The goal of the study, hypotheses

Our goal was to identify and analyze the interaction among factors that contribute to the academic success of the children and to the internalization of values that on the long-term serve as a ground for persistent and ethical work, making a foundation for conscious career-building (Ritoók, 1989). Hypotheses:

- In the life of the parents whose child was granted a scholarship, learning, improving knowledge, and self-actualization as life-goals are highly valued
- Among children with scholarships, the order of preferred life-goals shows great similarity with those of their parents (like Csehné Papp I. stated in 2012, in her study)
- Among children with scholarships, self-confidence and self-efficacy are strong, and the scholarship plays an important role in maintaining this positive state

Subjects

During the sampling process we aimed for so-called full sampling, i.e. we tried to gather data from families whose children has been granted scholarships for any period of time during the past 5 years, and who could provide data from the beginning stage of our research. Among the families we contacted, there were 269 individuals from whom we received data. There were a total of 21 individuals participating in testing and interviews. The initial contact with the families, the recording of the interviews and the distribution of tests took place during February and March, 2013.

Measurements and methods

In our research methodology we applied paper-based tests and recorded structured deep interviews, and both children with scholarships and their parents participated in the study. We intended to shed light on the different viewpoints and priorities of both parties.

Experiences with children with scholarship

In order to gain insight into personal experiences we utilized the interview method for both children and their parents, where the interviews with the two parties were independently recorded to eliminate interference between them.

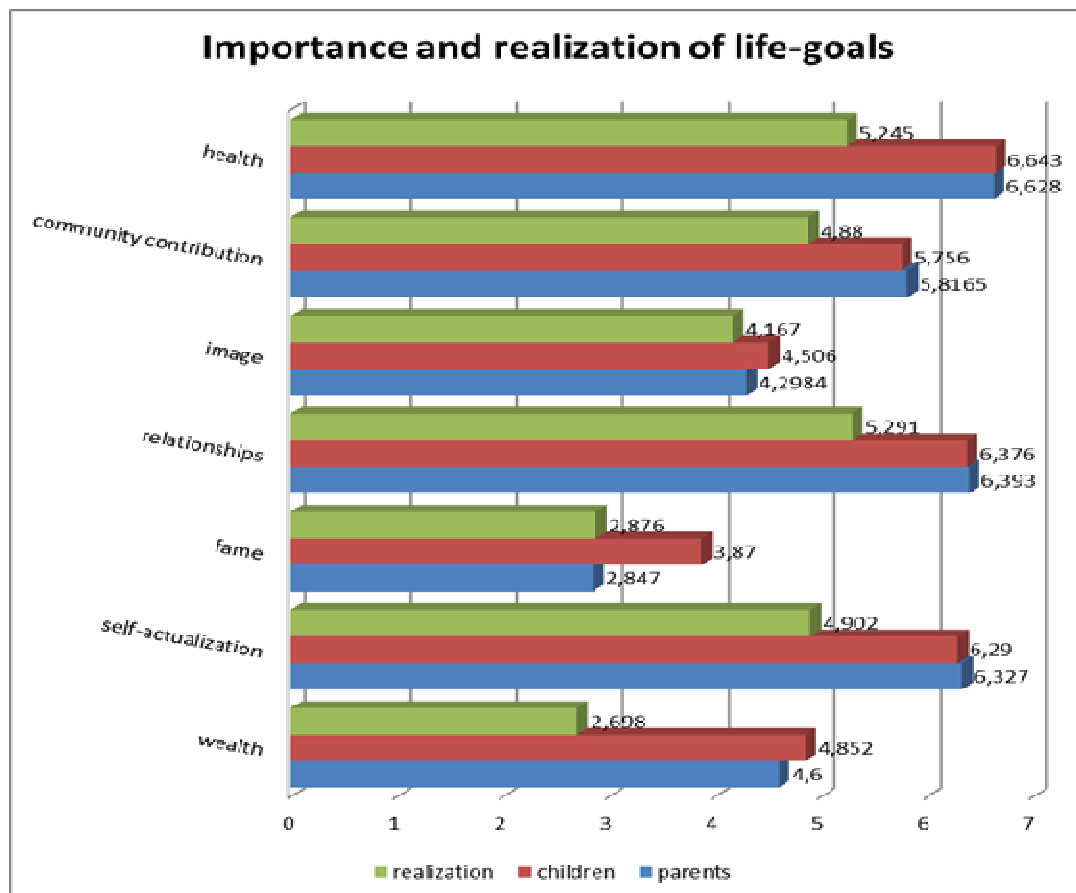
Study of life-goals – Aspiration Index (Kasser & Ryan 1993)

By the application of the Aspiration Index, we intended to find out how important it is for the respondents to achieve various life goals. The Index was designed to measure 35 long-term goals/motives that are organized around 7 distinct categories of life-goals. These 7 life-goals are represented in seven sub-scales (wealth, fame, image, personal growth, meaningful relationships, community contributions and health) each containing 5 items. Subjects had to score each aspiration on a Likert-scale from 0 to 7, judging how important the given aspiration is for them. During the Hungarian adaptation of the index, V. Komlósi et al. (2006) found that the reliability of the scales were excellent (Cronbach α : 0.72-0.91).

Results

The following diagram shows how parents rate the importance of life-goals for themselves, the degree they think they realized these goals and how their children think of their own life-goals.

Figure 2.



What becomes evident from looking at the diagram is that there is a very close match in the strength of preferred life-goals between parents and their child. For both parties, health is the most important value followed very closely by relationships, while striving for self-actualization took third place. All three leading values received very high scores, averaging above 6. These results imply that our subjects consciously accept responsibility for their own physical and psychological well-being and thus they can be described as individuals with an inner locus of control who want to take their life into their own hands. The value of community contribution came in fourth place, which is a surprisingly high position compared to the results of previous studies in Hungary, which had shown that among both youth and adults (including a large number of university students and people with higher education degrees) this life-goal generally receives a much lower average score, i.e. it is much less important.

Wealth as a life-goal is an external motivation, meaning the realization of such a goal depends more on the environment than on the skills and diligence of the individual. Even though the life standard of these families are probably below the level they consider desirable due to their financial situation, wealth as a life-goal is not prominent in their responses, as if they were continuously re-enforcing their belief that their happiness is not primarily dependent on the possession of material goods. The fact that their standard of living is below the desirable level is clearly evident since we have found that among parent the greatest discrepancy is between the importance and the realization of this goal (4.6 average for importance while only 2.69 for realization). The fact that children scored higher on the wealth sub-scale implies that they, because of the characteristics of their age, have more difficulty accepting the limits set by tight finances. In other words they would not like to compromise their own aspirations because of financial limits. Yet another characteristic of the adolescent youth is that even though fame as a life-goal is not a leading value, they still consider fame more desirable than they parents. Two external motives, image and fame received the least scores on the 7 scale index of preferred life-goals, showing that in the case of both children and parents, the activity itself is what's rewarding, not how the activity is judged by others. This predicts a positive tendency in a sense that our subjects don't put their trust into short-lived, shallow success but rather in meaningful, internally driven activities, like learning and diligent work. Not only the destination, but the quality and substance of the path leading up to it also has great importance to them, so they stay loyal to their inner motives regarding their values even in the face of difficulties.

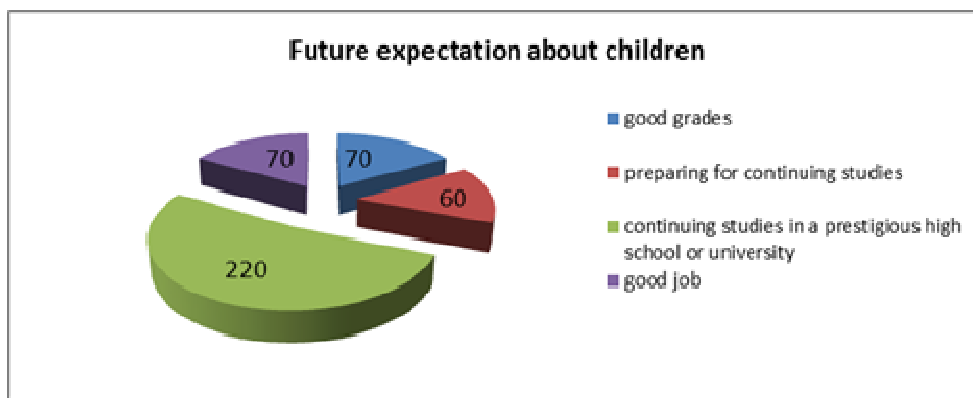
Judging positively the commitments of such families, we conclude that the external re-enforcement that they receive in the form of scholarships may prove to be useful, further strengthening the skills of these young

people to resist the temptations of external rewards (e.g. motives of those who seek a career abroad).

The most important results from the interviews with parents

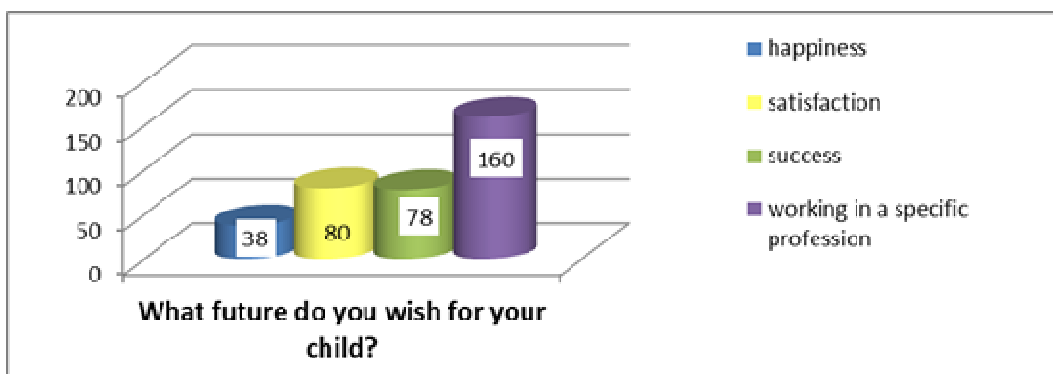
We asked questions about the parents' expectations about their children who received scholarship. The following diagram shows the distribution of responses.

Figure 3.



Some parents tentatively talked about their hope for their child to continue his/her studies, while most of the parents expressed a very definite expectation for their child to continue studies and acquire a good job. In the families of high achieving children the continuing of studies and choosing a prestigious institute is a very definite expectations.

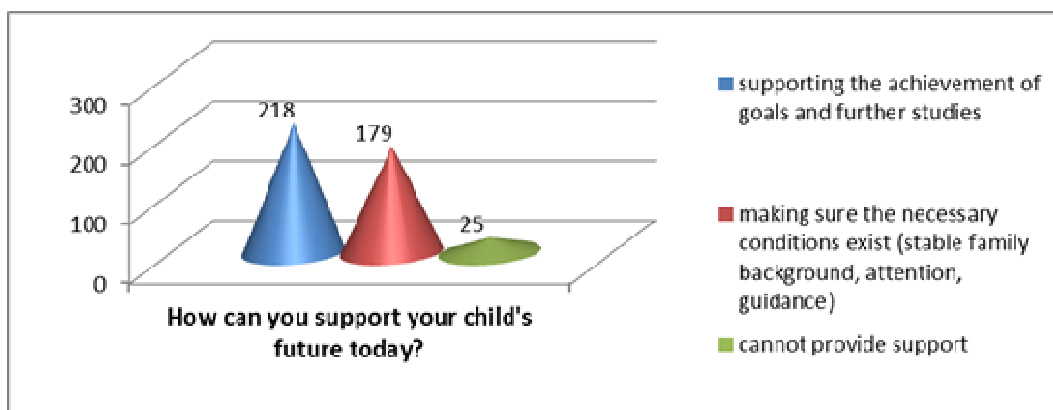
Figure 4.



For some parents, finding happiness and satisfaction is what's most important for the future of their child. However the majority of parents

named very concrete career paths (psychologist, medical doctor, lawyer, musician, tour guide, veterinary, etc.) which are all *considered highly desirable careers these days*. Over half of the parents had very conscious and concrete career expectations for which a college or university degree is absolutely necessary. About one third of the responses, however, stated that a satisfied and successful life was of the highest importance while every seventh respondent hopes that his/her child would lead a happy life as an adult. How parents perceive their own responsibilities and role in their child's career development was also something we considered important to examine. The following diagram shows the responses.

Figure 5.



Most of the parents perceive that providing concrete support is the best way for advancing the future of their children. Moreover, they think that providing support is not only a possibility but rather an obligation towards their children, so they may have a better life than they used to have. The majority of parents also emphasized the importance of assuming responsibility for providing the right background so that the child can persistently focus on his/her studies in a peaceful and stable environment.

We also asked what kind of changes they saw in their children that can be attributed to the scholarship. About half of the parents reported that they noticed changes while the other half did not. Those who noticed changes in their children (201 children) said that after receiving the scholarship their child started to study more, do more sports, spend more on him- or herself, is more diligent, has a stronger self-esteem, and treats money in a more mature way, i.e. perceives money as value. Those parents who didn't notice any changes (185 children) stated that: "our child has always been diligent and his/her self-esteem hasn't changed."

Another important mediating factor is the presence of siblings. As several respondents told us, receiving scholarship may have changed the roles among siblings in a positive way, which then can further strengthen the motivation to study. An attention worthy result of our research is that according to many parents their child's self-esteem, proud, self-confidence

became stronger after receiving scholarship, and the child realizes that it's worth putting effort into studying (215 children). Those parents who did not notice any changes said that their child has always been successful and diligent.

The most important results from the interviews with the children

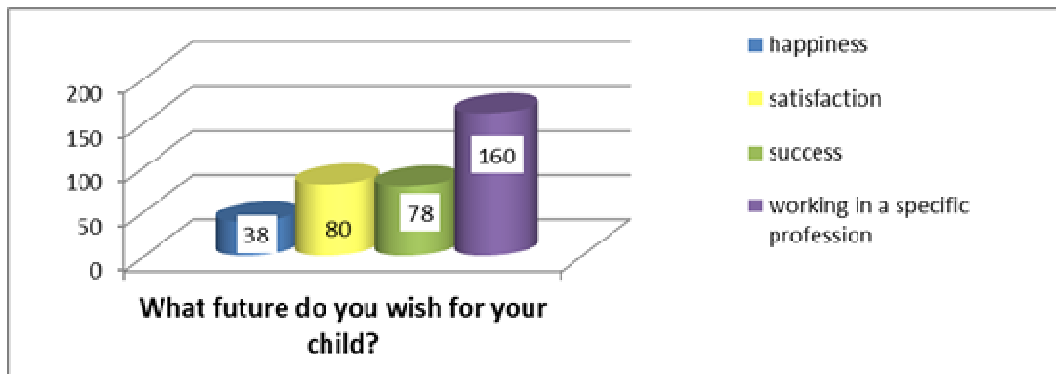
90% of the teenagers were proud about their scholarship which means that it has a distinct positive effect on their self-efficacy. Again, 90% of them require increased attention while 70% responded that they did not notice any change in their teachers' attitudes towards them. 100% emphasized the importance of studying, which indicates the internalization of learning as a value. However, it's somewhat thought provoking that 20% of these teenagers said that the main reason they study so hard is that they would like to build a career abroad. 60% also encourages others (girlfriend, brother, etc.) to apply for scholarship, so these young people not only show good example but actively try to motivate others as well.

40% of the teenagers said that they were more persistent than their peers, 30% considered themselves more diligent and another 30% believed that they were better at certain skills (mathematics, languages, information technology, communication, etc.) than others in their age group. In line with what their parents said, their self-efficacy and self-confidence were stronger compared to their peers. 60% said the source of their good performance is their talent, 20% said it was diligence while another 20% accounted their success for both talent and diligence.

We noticed the following tendencies about their expectations of future: 40% would like to have a family, own a house and a car and get a good job, 20% wants mainly a good job, another 20% would like to make lots of money, while every fifth of them sees him- or herself living in a foreign country in the future. To achieve all these goals, they believe they need to do the followings: 70% thinks they need to study more, become more diligent and work hard, while the remaining 30% believes that saving up enough money is what they need to do. 50% would like have a better standard of life and financial situation than their parents had, 20% wants to realize their special career goals, 15% is willing to obtain a university degree to achieve this, while a family house and a happy life were chosen by 20-20% as their main expectations for their future. To the question "What are your plans for the next 10 years?" we received the following answers: 50% would like to pass language exams, 40% would like to obtain a degree in a field of specialty (actor, veterinary, psychologist, football player, pilot, basketball player, etc.), 30% would like to get a good job, and 20% wishes for a happy family.

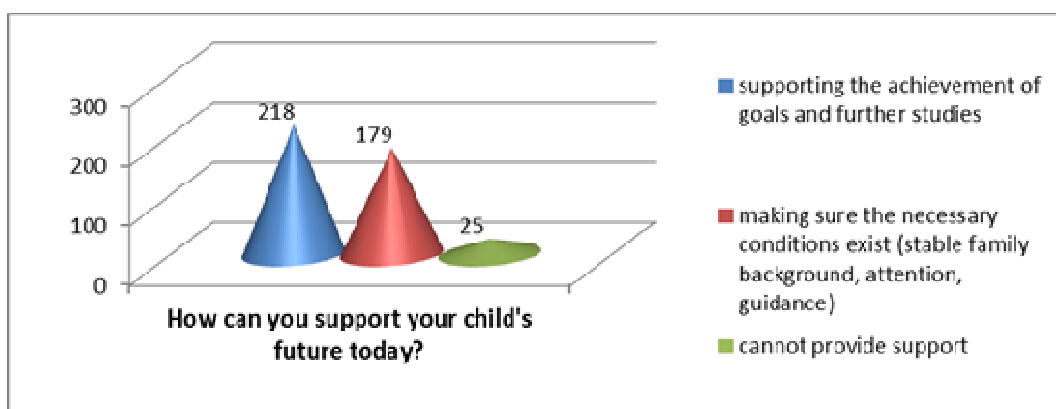
Community contribution as an important value was also evident during the interviews, since there were many respondents for whom it's a natural to give back to their community, and to the limit of their possibilities they are actually doing it (e.g. taking part in school competitions, sport events, public appearances, etc.)

Figure 6.



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Summary

The results of our research have proven the relevancy of the social-cognitive career model within our target group. Adolescents possessing healthy self-confidence, a well defined image of their future in which inner life-goals play a major role, and as a result persistently and successfully tackle the tasks related to their current state in career development, have a good chance to become capable of overcoming the limits of their socio-economic disadvantages, and build a productive career path on the solid ground of both intellectual and financial support from their environment.

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Multicultural Education with the Help of Gypsy Tales

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The status of minorities has always been a crucial point in the life of a nation. There are more and more nationalities in Hungary with whom we should work and live with peacefully. Some nationalities suffer from the prejudicial behaviour of the majority, they are judged by stereotypes and not by themselves. The biggest minority in Hungary is the Gypsies' however they are in the worst situation.

A 2010 research showed that even those pupils in the primary school junior section pupils were prejudicial against Gypsies who had never had a Gypsy classmate. With the help of multicultural education we can educate tolerant, open minded members of the society. Tales are very good tools in multicultural education, which help to understand cultural diversity. This study present an education programme in which pupils get information about the Gypsy minority, their traditions and lifestyle through Gypsy tales.

The main idea behind multicultural education with the help of tales is that pupils would accept and be tolerant with such members of the society who are in a disadvantageous status. The pedagogical approach of the programme helps to accept Gypsy minority.

Introduction

The status of minorities is an important factor of a country. There are more and more nationalities in Hungary with whom we should work and live with peacefully. Some nationalities suffer from the prejudicial behaviour of the majority, they are judged by stereotypes and not by themselves. The biggest minority in Hungary is the Gypsies' however they are in the worst situation.

A 2010 research showed that even those pupils in the primary school junior section pupils were prejudicial against Gypsies who had never had a Gypsy classmate. With the help of multicultural education we can educate tolerant, open minded members of the society. Tales are very good tools in multicultural education, which help to understand cultural diversity.

Bias and stereotypes

Social conflicts and disagreements affect school atmosphere. Gypsy-Hungarian conflicts generate in bias and are emphasised in adulthood. There are many prejudices against the Gypsy but they cannot be blamed for everything because of their origin. However we must not forget that our culture, traditions and habits are different therefore integration is difficult (Allport, 1977). Ethnic prejudice is antipathy based on wrong generalisation. It may affect individuals or a group. Because of the prejudice the individual or the group is not judged by their own behaviour. We may call it prejudice if the attitude based on false generalisation stays permanent (Raicsné-Dömény, 2010). Prejudices are mostly against minority groups Csepeli (1993). states that prejudices can be positive or negative, however negative is more frequent. Prejudice has a strong connection with stereotypes. Stereotyping means that each member of a group is described with the same characteristics and peculiarities independent from the fact that the members can differ. Teachers, school and society could do against it (Torgyik, 2005:143-145).

My questionnaire examined prejudicial behaviour in childhood. How adolescents think about the Gypsy? Do they stigmatize their peers for their language, colour or it occurs in later years? I examined pupils with Gypsy classmates and pupils who don't have direct relation with them.

The research was conducted in 2009-2010 among 10-12 years old pupils. I chose this group because it is the age when they are interested in the other's opinions and values but has own ideas too. 78 boys and girls filled the questionnaire from urban and rural area as well. It was a random choice. 53% of the pupils do not have Gypsy classmates.

68% of the pupils didn't answer what comes to their mind when they hear the word 'Gypsy', only 3% gave positive answer. These pupils mentioned the Gypsy flavours, their big families, strong ties and their music. 29% gave negative answers; some of them were extremely rude. These pupils mainly emphasis the Gypsies' appearance: dirty clothes, colour; too many children, homelessness and their being unemployment. They are criminals.

The next question focused on the Gypsies' good and bad characteristics. 3% didn't answer, 33% listed only negative things, and 64% listed good and bad things. Good characteristics: religious, believer, hardworking, nice, happy and good musician. Bad characteristics: alcoholics, liar, dirty, criminal.

Very disappointing but my hypothesis was right: even the young are prejudicial. It is shocking that half of the 10-12 years olds do not have Gypsy classmates but they think about them negatively. There are so many questions: When and how does it generate? Whose fault is it? Is it the society or the close relationships? Media have an important role in opinion forming. In my third question I was interested how well they knew Gypsy culture, if they could mention any famous Gypsy people. Number 1

was Győzike who appeared in his family reality show and other TV shows. Among the others were mainly musicians and singers: L. L. Junior, Bunyós Pityu, Dögös Robi, Bódi Guszti. The ones who present real value were last in row: Mága Zoltán and the 100-Member Gypsy Orchestra.

Some other interesting things turned out from the answers. Boys have more conflicts with Gypsies than girls, girls are more tolerant. Pupils do not want to sit next to a Gypsy pupil. They think a Gypsy pupil would not let them work would disturb them during the lesson and even steal their belongings. It is only a supposition as more than half of the pupils do not have a Gypsy classmate. In their answers we may see how the society depicts Gypsies.

Pupils are neither willing to spend their free time with Gypsies nor make a relationship with them. 70% wouldn't dance with them, 46% wouldn't accept a birthday party invitation from them. While 66% of the boys wouldn't enter a Gypsy family's home, 71% of the girls would. 57% wouldn't help a Gypsy peer in need and 58% wouldn't accept help from a Gypsy classmate.

The questionnaire ended with an open question about their opinion on the topic. Surprisingly in this part they wrote many more positive thoughts about the Gypsy: 'If someone is nice we shouldn't consider he/she is Gypsy.', 'There are good and bad people among Gypsies just like among whites.' Every pupil mentioned that they are not Gypsy and they do not have any Gypsy relatives. These answers show that they are very uncertain about Gypsies; they don't know what they can think about this group of people. Teachers could have a major role in presenting the reality to pupils.

Multicultural education in kindergarten and in primary education would be the first step to end social prejudice. Such school project should be organised where pupils could learn the other culture. Gypsy families should be given the possibility to show their traditions, habits, tales, songs dances etc. Common experiences build a bridge between different cultures. If pupils are brought up by this approach they will be more tolerant adults (Bencéné, 2010:117-124).

Multicultural education to prevent discrimination

Kindergarten and primary education can do a lot to prevent discrimination as stereotypes start to be formed at the age of 5. The base of integration is a receptive, non-discriminative atmosphere.

Integrating pupils from minorities, other cultures, with different colour is always a problem. We can help them with introducing these cultures to the pupils. Children are naturally opened minded and teachers should keep it. Project method is ideal for this. When a theme is given, parents can join the project. Project weeks should be organised by pupils and parents together and theme must fit the peculiarities of the group. Children should

be given the multicultural aspect that they have to accept people who are different than themselves. Tolerance and accepting differences must be experienced by adults as well. It is of vital importance that parents take part in presentations and trainings in the topic.

Evening and weekend events would help to make relationships among the participants. The common work and experience can lead to mutual understanding. Tales could start discussion among cultures. They could help children to learn and understand things that are unusual for them. Everybody should be given equal opportunities to enter the adults' world. Every child needs help to fight against the disadvantageous status he/she was born in. Tales can help to discover the unknown in early childhood.

Educate to tolerance with tales about Gypsies

Tale is a wonderful tool in multicultural education which helps to understand and accept cultural diversity. There are two kinds of Gypsy tales: the ones that are about them and the ones that are by them. The latter are usually orally spread stories. In this study I present such tales which are not predominantly fairy tales with happy ending but represents reality.

In the first part of the research I examined the primary school readers by Apáczai Kiadó. The readings show the environment of the children involving the necessary pieces of knowledge. Pupils can learn about school and everyday life, seasons, plants and animals and also about moral norms from classical authors. However there were not any readings about the Gypsy and their traditions, culture or history.

In Gypsy tales we might find the traditions of those cultures which the Gypsy met during their migration. Their fate is present in other nations' tales. In a Russian folk tale the sky-high beanstalk symbolizes Heaven, in the Gypsy tales it does with a tree.

Tales are used as educational tools but for this aim it is necessary to talk about the children's feelings. It is vital in the case of Gypsy tales where violent words and phrases depict activities. We might find similar in the Hungarian tales but the composition is different.

Szécsi Magda's (2010) tale about the orphaned Radazána is an excellent one to present the life of the migrating Gypsies who live in tents and have a nomadic lifestyle (Oláh, 2012). It is well depicted that family is of major importance in their life. It doesn't say about marriage as in their community if a girl moves into the boy's family house they are considered a couple forever. One for all, all for one is a very important law of them.

The tale has a happy ending, Radazána is sure about Sóberjani's love, the poor beats the wealthy, love beats parental wish. Their love story is similar to a Hungarian one as money matters. In the old times parents decided about their children's marriage in childhood and it lasts for a lifetime (Wittner, 2007). The story contains several references about faith,

superstitions, anathematisation and magical events. Emphasis is on given word, everything must happen as we say (Németh, 2009).

It is very soothing for the children that even the Gypsy adults have fears (fear of the unknown, reptilian, death). The characteristics of the Gypsy present that there are different people in the world but we all share universal characteristics: poor, beautiful, rich, handsome, obedient or loving. Diversity is present in tales, in languages, in culture and traditions. It is important to children to learn how to accept other culture, other people and children who don't have an everyday family.

In the tale 'Agárdi and the Gypsy' wealth and poverty are central elements however negative characteristics of the Gypsy are present: they are unsophisticated and lazy. There are hints about the unpredictable, nomadic lifestyle. Negative characteristics are presented in a humorous way so children can easily like these people.

'The drain digger and his son' introduces the most important value of life: family. The son has a strong relationship with his father, plays the violin just like his father and does the same job like his father. This tale ideally presents some typical Gypsy jobs: drain digging, tub graving, basket weaving and playing the music. It also helps to show the children some Gypsy songs and dances.

Folk humour balances unsophisticated acts in 'Three Gypsies on the tree'. Gypsy people are depicted naive, simple but likable (Pallag, 1988; Csepeli, 1997).

'Gypsy vulpinism' is a Hungarian folk tale that shows the Gypsy and the Hungarian have been living together for many centuries. It is sure that both folks have their own idea of the other and are prejudicial. This tale tells two stories about the Gypsy. The main characters don't have names, they are therefore stereotyped. One is an unsophisticated Gypsy the other is the sedulous farmer.

The first story is negative; it assumes that a Gypsy is lazy. He works for the farmer but he has nothing to eat. We should explain the kids that it is not possible to do physical work hungry. He is so hungry that he steals a piece of bacon from the farmer. It is also stereotypical: the Gypsy steal. But we can show that hunger is the reason. The farmer uses the Gypsy word 'more'. It also assumes they live quite close that they even know some words in the other language. (We might teach some words to the kids with this tale.) The tale honestly presents people in need, we can teach that they can donate but it is normal that they work as well.

The other story tells that the Gypsy go to church. It is positive: they belong to the religious majority who take part in the Sunday mess with the other people of the village. This tale presents problems how the Hungarian see it, a lesson should be devoted to the Gypsy side (Romankovics & Romankovicsné, 2000).

Tasks to the tales

It is essential that we help the children understand the multicultural aim of the lesson with carefully chosen tasks. Children can search for typical Gypsy jobs, they can draw the stories or we can dramatize it together.

The main aim of my work is to bridge the gap between the Gypsy and the non-Gypsy children. They can compare the different lifestyles, culture and traditions. Up-to-date idea about multicultural education is a must in this case.

Talking is followed by dramatization. Children can be in the position of the other culture. This pedagogical programme might help to accept Gypsy minority.

The aim of this education is to learn the diversity of cultural codes which are essential elements to learn their own cultural identity. Multicultural education does not only deal with culture but also deals with subcultures, with different people. A certain part of it is the difference on social or geographical aspects or age (Nanszákné, 2008:8).

Multicultural education starts in entering the society but first it depends on the family. Parents are crucial elements in it. Starting kindergarten opens a new world. However many children arrive with ethnocentric view and accepts only his/her norms. These children are aggressive. Their feelings generates in family so with the kids' help we should form the parents' views as well.

Multicultural kindergartens offer equal opportunities regardless of race, subculture, gender, social status etc. Cooperation among children, parents and kindergarten teachers are evident. Being multicultural does not mean that several subcultures are present. It rather means that it cares about heterogeneity and children with different background than the majority (Torgyik, 2005:40-41).

Project pedagogy is ideal to educate in a multicultural environment because it is all about cooperation. The common aim forms responsibility towards others (Nanszákné, 2008:8). Multicultural education can reduce social conflicts. This might be the way to a peaceful and tolerant world.

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The Teacher's Role in Roma Children's School Mobility

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This paper discusses the role of the teacher, that is the person having the most profound influence on school mobility, who can facilitate the performance of Roma children at school by fostering a positive attitude to learning and encourage positive relationships in and with the institution and by encouraging and helping Roma children cross boundaries between social groups, thereby enhancing their overall social mobility. The research underlying this particular study is made up of analyses of the life stories Roma individuals holding or about to obtain university degrees, who have been particularly successful – by the standards of the Roma community – in the mobility channel of the education system. Social factors enabling as well as those impeding the progress of the individual, preselecting the high contingency process of social action, are highlighted in this paper.

From among the available qualitative techniques the author used the narrative interview method worked out primarily by Gabriele Rosenthal on the basis of Oevermann's objective hermeneutics. The goal of the analysis was to integrate the typical coping strategies and patterns of adaptation obtained from hermeneutical case reconstruction in studying successful mobility at school. Particular attention was paid in the analysis to the microsocial relationships affecting the school performance of Roma students as well as to the question of secondary socialisation.

Introduction

According to Hungarian analyses one of the key obstacles to the social integration of the Roma minority in Hungary is the low levels of schooling attainment in the Roma population (Kemény & Havas, 1996; Liskó, 2003; Székelyi et al., 2005). Since the system change, the gap between the schooling attainment of Roma children and the non-Roma children has grown wider. Today this inequality appears most saliently in continued studies in secondary schools. So it is of high priority to study the life story of those members of the Roma community who have been particularly successful in the mobility channel of the educational system and start off the social integration. By analysing of the successful life stories of the

Roma individuals we might be able to understand the background of school failures what affect the majority of Roma students.

The background of this study is based on fieldwork and on in-depth interviews and narrative interviews carried out in the course of the fieldwork in different regions of Hungary. This paper is a summary of my qualitative research of the action strategies relating to the school mobility of Roma students with the aid of the narrative interview technique. The life stories of interviewees are those Roma individuals holding or about to obtain university degrees, who have been particularly successful – by the standards of the Roma community – in the mobility channel of the education system and who openly expressed their belonging to the Roma community, coming from exclusively Roma families. Research based on narrative interviews helps exploring the society in its complexity through studying diverse life careers that are characteristic of modern societies. The narrative analysis of the research is based on hermeneutic case reconstruction which makes it possible to grasp highly complex social and mental structures. The underlying motive of the analysis of the life stories was a search for the typical patterns that can be identified in the road to success in the various narratives while also laying emphasis on the way the individual experienced the events of his or her life. The purpose of the analysis that various segments of the system of relationships between individual and society can be reconstructed in an analysis that provides a detailed view of the varied relationship between individual and his or her social environment (e.g. Kovács & Vajda, 1994).

This study is aimed at highlighting the segments of school mobility from the interacting relationship between individual and society which emphasise the significant role of the teacher. Drawing attention to the importance of the teacher who can affect young people's motivation levels, performance in their studies, their possible micro-societal relationships with the members of their peer groups and consequently even their social integration.

The social tasks of teacher and school

As a consequence of changes in legislation and demographic processes the presence of the members of Hungary's largest ethnic minority – the Roma minority – in public education is on the increase. This trend is imposing additional tasks on teachers which they find difficult to tackle. If they are to be successful in their teaching efforts they need to know who they are teaching, along with the problems faced by those children day after day. However, teachers know very little about the Hungarian Roma population, a minority of an extremely heterogeneous composition in terms of wealth, social structures and cultural standards and values. The different features of ethnic culture and poverty culture are present in various combinations whereas such differences could help understand the

behaviour of students. This lack or shortage of knowledge forms an obstacle in developing contacts and communication with parents too, because of the misconceptions about the family's motivation in relation to the school. In order however, for Roma children's school mobility and thereby their social integration to be achieved, teachers should not only know a lot more about the 'Roma culture' but they should also make efforts to get to know the children together with their families, i.e. they should be communicating continuously with the families concerned. In other words, when children of the schooling age are enrolled, the schools should admit not only the children themselves but their families as well. Along with children's integration in the life of the school the families also need to be similarly integrated. This of course assigns yet another task and a different type of a role to teachers, as a consequence of which the teachers' personality should be more prominently present in the life of the school.

As a result of processes that have taken place during recent decades the Hungarian schools have been increasingly turning from teaching type institutions into institutions testing performance. Schools are increasingly limited to intermediating the knowledge elements to be acquired by the children but they have been becoming less and less able to actually transfer knowledge. Teachers' energy is wasted on grading and evaluating and they are losing their capacities for eliminating or reducing differences between levels of knowledge caused by social inequalities. Thereby the Hungarian schooling system is confirming Pierre Bourdieu's capital principle, according to which the schooling system effectively legitimates the reproduction of cultural capital and thereby it helps the passing down of the social positions developing on the basis of one's share of the different types of capital (Bourdieu, 1978a).

Bourdieu's theory is confirmed by those mobility research programmes scrutinising inequalities in schools in Hungary (Róbert, 2001; Bukodi, 2000), that highlight the fact that in the relationship between the individual's origins and schooling attainment cultural capital is a more dominant intermediating variable than is economic capital. It is important to mention that according to Bourdieu's capital theory the amount of cultural capital determines even one's strategies governing his investment in his studies and education, thereby creating a special habitus comprising the relation of the given social class to school-gained knowledge as well as its inclination to actually use school services. Bourdieu's theory regards cognitive factors also as hard structuring factors, considering them as manifestations of reconversion strategies (Bourdieu, 1978b). Accordingly, to ensure successful social integration of Roma children the Hungarian schooling system should increasingly strengthen their willingness to participate and perform at school. This can only be achieved through successful secondary socialisation. Unfortunately, this process is not facilitated by the process of segregation observed in Hungarian schools, whereby the education institutions of the lower social classes and the

Roma population are becoming separated or detached from the education system.

One of the key conclusions of a segregation research programme carried out in 2004 by Havas and Liskó was that selection among schools is becoming an increasingly strong trend among primary schools in Hungary, as a consequence of which a substantial proportion of Roma students are being concentrated in a given number of schools, i.e. the segregation of Roma children at school is a consequence of selection among schools (Havas & Liskó, 2005). The findings of other research conducted by István Kemény and his team also confirm this process, supplementing the conclusions by adding that there has been a number of schools – attended by families of Roma and non-Roma poor families – that can be regarded as ‘ethnic and social ghettos’ where as a consequence of selection among schools and other negative social processes (factories being closed down, decrease in the demand for unskilled labour). A survey conducted by Havas, Kemény and Liskó in 2000 which covered segregation within schools as well, found that segregation appears within schools as well, when higher standard education is provided in certain classes for children of a higher social status, which classes are made up of children of the best social positions and some Roma children from the more integrated groups. Then there is a parallel class made up of Roma children and children of low social status and low income non-Roma families (Havas, Kemény & Liskó, 2002).

A study of the qualifications of the teachers concerned found that the less highly qualified the teacher is (in terms of their specific fields and in terms of pedagogical skills), the more frequently Roma students are negatively discriminated by teachers and the worse those children feel at school (Havas & Liskó, 2005). In the schools reviewed teachers explained Roma children’s poor performance at school by short cut answers, blaming the Roma families’ socio-cultural environment, i.e. they were not aware of how much the relationship between child and teacher affects the children’s motivation to study. By adopting this schematic explanation teachers transfer the responsibility that the primary school should undertake to facilitate the social integration of the Roma. Where the efforts aimed at enabling students to catch up fail despite the adoption of special curricula and methods, the student is relieved from the obligation to regularly attend school. This occurs twice as frequently in the case of Roma children than among non-Roma students.

It is easy to see that it is difficult to create in the above social environment the conditions for successful secondary socialisation which could facilitate an increase in Roma children’s school mobility.

The importance of the teacher's personality in secondary socialisation

The identity perspectives of the 'successful' narratives analysed in the research drew attention to the importance of secondary socialisation. According to Berger – Luckmann the secondary socialisation introduced the already socialised individual into another, new segment of the objective world of society (Berger & Luckmann, 1998). The process of secondary socialisation is entirely based on primary socialisation, relying on its personal and social identity, as it cannot build up a subjective reality out of nothing (Berger & Luckmann, 1998:183). At this point therefore, there is theoretically little chance of any major change occurring in primary socialisation that can be observed in Roma communities, which can be only superficially linked to the majority society. Such a change is made even less likely because primary socialisation takes place through deeply emotional communication, through communication with the parents, predominantly with the mother, the 'significant other' (Mead, 1934). Since primary socialisation entails a strong emotional identification, a process by the end of which the individual's perspective, value system, semantics and ideology, primary socialisation cannot, in the majority of cases, be altered by secondary socialisation.

In its institutionalised form secondary socialisation takes place in the education system while in a non-institutionalised form it may be linked to the peer group and/or the mass media (Bognár, 2010). Accordingly, there is a chance of altering the socio-cultural patterns of primary socialisation and of encouraging successful Roma mobility where the features and perspective of the developing personality is shaped by an emotional content similar to that of primary socialisation. This is why those teachers tend to produce results who can develop emotional relationships with their pupils whereby they turn into 'significant others' and can influence the social and personal identity of primary socialisation. If the relationship between the teacher and the student is formalised and anonymous, it is a lot easier to brush aside and eliminate the reality weight of secondary socialisation when, for instance, the student leaves school (Berger & Luckmann, 1998:198).

The 'conventional' teacher's role that turns the child into a passive 'recipient' and that is focused to some extent on creating and maintaining order, formalises the relationship between student and teacher. This type of teacher's role leaves little room for the relationship to be enriched by emotions or for the teacher to become a 'significant other'. In other words, successful secondary socialisation is not facilitated by the strengthening of the 'conventional' teacher's role in the Hungarian education system. This relationship is characterised by excessive controls, a definite structuring of the children's time and the exclusion of natural impulses. The 'conventional' teacher's primary task is to prescribe the children's thinking

processes and to turn them into passive recipients which can only be achieved by a very strong emphasis on discipline. This then precludes spontaneity and creativity which should, in the case of the teaching and education of Roma children, be of paramount importance for successful secondary socialisation. The conclusion is that there seems to be a need for such a reform pedagogical approach in the first four classes of primary school that would give preference to creativity and spontaneity, providing at the same time positive feedback to the student.

The reality of secondary socialisation – in this case the school – is an ‘artificial’ reality which, even if only on account of its secondary nature, is less deeply rooted in awareness, i.e. it is easy to uproot. The ‘confidential’ atmosphere created by the teacher may, however, change this when it evokes the ‘confidential’ world of primary socialisation, alluring the child to turn his ‘attention from the natural objects’ to these ‘artificial’ ones (Berger & Luckmann, 1998:200). Accordingly, building up a relationship based on mutual confidence – today the objective of ‘reform pedagogy’ – the education of personality, emphasising the importance of getting to know the pupils, seem to be the keys to successful secondary socialisation. This assumes a teacher’s role of a different quality, where the teacher needs to be present in the teaching and education process ‘in a creative way’, with the whole of his or her personality. A teacher not only needs to educate but he or she should transfer knowledge with the intent to help and understand the pupils. The narratives of the Roma interviewees in the research also confirmed the above. School as a mobility channel is particularly dominant for Roma interviewees, as the majority of the families have hardly any economic or relationship capital that they could draw on to facilitate upward progress on the social ladder. This is why encounter with school without frustration, i.e. successful school career, is so particularly important for Roma youth. The narratives revealed that the majority of the successful Roma individuals involved in my research had not faced negative discrimination at school, indeed, they had been specifically assisted by teachers who had done their best to help them catch up and who continued to help their later school careers.

“... Right from the first grade on, up to the eighth my average grade was between 4.5 and 5.0 all along. Er... it was himself, my class master himself suggested that I should go on to study in a secondary school providing GCSE, well, that was something indeed, back in those days. A ... primarily among gipsies as it was back in 1979. In 1979...” (Interview 2)

“... On top, on top, on top of the fact that the school I liked very much. I went to a small village school, there were ten of us to a class, when the flu came there were only four of us, so this was a little “funny” (giggling), it was pretty funny at times but it was good. So to me the school was, I came to realise, the family. So ... I fled into it, by

the way, so for me, well, that was the very reason why I could study ...” (Interview 1)

There was at least one teacher in the narrative of each of the interviewees who encouraged, assisted and helped with advice the interviewees in their studies in both primary school and in secondary school. Besides, in several narratives in the research civil experts, civil society organisations appear in the Roma programmes that opened new perspectives and helped at the time of going on to secondary school with advice and positive confirmation and also later on during the university studies. Accordingly, teachers not only need to adopt a helpful and understanding attitude in the process of teaching itself – helping to create an atmosphere of trust and confidence between teacher and student and being capable of turning the transfer of ‘artificial knowledge’ into a natural process – but the role of the pedagogue must also be supplemented by something of a ‘therapist’ role. This is a particularly urgent need in the case of children facing multiple disadvantages with a variety of uncertainties – emotional, economic etc. – in regard to their family relationships. If, however, the teacher fails to contribute to a positive change in the child’s position within the class, he or she – lagging more and more behind the class community – may lose motivation for studying and may even become attached to communities that reject the values embraced by the school. Consequently, another key momentum of Roma integration is comprised of the pattern of individual relationship networks and the values they transmit.

The importance of the personality of the teacher in shaping the micro societal relationships of Roma students

According to the analyses of networks of relationships the people are living embedded in networks of relationships (e.g. family, schoolmates, colleagues at work, neighbours, people one spends one’s spare time with etc.) which turn into social facts in the course of daily life (Angelusz & Tardos, 1991). According to the consequence of the international studies in the world of individual-focused networks the pattern and quality of relationships affect the individual’s position, behaviour (Coleman, 1988), social mobility (Lin, 1990, 2001) and school performance (Hoffer, Greeley & Coleman, 1985; Stanton-Salazar & Dornbusch, 1995; Carbonaro, 1998).

Among domestic research projects it was a series of quantitative analyses performed by Gabriella Pusztai among students of secondary schools run by religious denominations that highlighted the relationships between social capital and success at school as well as the intent to pursue further studies (Fényes & Pusztai, 2004; Pusztai & Verdes, 2002;

Pusztai, 2009). The findings of her research underlined the importance of social capital – in addition to cultural capital – along with the role of strong and weak ties between success at school and the intent to go on studying and they point to the fact that the resources inherent in this do support the intents of disadvantaged students to go on to tertiary education.

My research is therefore also aimed at working out an interpretation of the impacts of social capital through encouraging and discouraging social mobility. The mobility perspectives of the different courses of life increasingly highlighted the role of Granovetter's weak and strong ties as well as their perspectives determining courses of lives. According to Granovetter (1982) the strength of relationships is determined by the time, emotions and intimacy invested in them. Weak ties can bridge large social distances and they are crucial from the aspect of mobility. Close friendly or closed family relationships – strong ties – are not suitable for the channelling of external information. Therefore individuals with few weak ties are at a disadvantage, because they remain excluded from flows of information as they are isolated by a cocoon of strong ties. In this way, isolation can keep them in a disadvantaged situation when they wish to change their social position. The interviewees in the research talked about these things as follows:

“...And they keep criticising and taunting one even because of her studying. Why, I say, why did you not study too, when you should have? You are old and all ...” (Interview 4)

„And then sometimes it is one's own family that is like a burden, in that they criticise me the most. And the problem is that, in fact, they never have anything good to say, others do but not my family. I do not know what more I could say about this. ...It is often so bad. Difficult childhood. It was very, very difficult ...” (Interview 4)

“ ...My foster parents did not like it, by the way. And when they did not like that I was studying, they never sat down besides me to hold my hand. Me, never! So I am dead serious when I tell you that they never asked me questions to check what I had learned ... Never, ever! Understand? They never, ever asked me about my grades or anything else. And yet, I was still a good student. Indeed. And I was thus happy about it. And it was as though I felt envy. And I did feel envy too. I am sure I trained well ...” (Interview 1)

“... So they were working folks. And so though they did not impede my studying but when I told them, shortly before the secondary final examinations, that I would like to go on studying, then they did ask me how much more I would want to keep on studying. But without any ill feeling. But then the main thing was that after the final exams I worked in my trade... “(Interview 2)

Field experience and the analyses of narrative life career interviews prove that the relationships developed at school with the members of the peer groups of the majority society are predominant from the aspect of school mobility and social integration.

“Well, at that time I did not even think about my being in class ‘a’. That there was class ‘a’ and class ‘b’. Nearly everyone I knew was in class ‘b’. So I got to know those in class ‘a’, as time passed by. For they were not, that is, I was the only Roma child. Now then, this was then, that is, or whatever it was, on the basis of which it was decided so by the teachers, I don’t know. One thing is sure, most of the kids in that class were good at their studies, they did get prepared, so it was not cool not to learn or not to get prepared. Well, I do not really have very negative memories. So what I also know, like things that used to be or that tend to take place at school like this.” (Interview 2)

In other words, the integration of Roma children and at the same time the termination of segregation are paramount from the aspect of facilitating school mobility. The above part of an interview is taken from the narrative of a Roma man living in disadvantaged conditions, in a Roma settlement, who had never attended any pre-school institution. The success of this particular man – now holder of a university degree – was enabled by his teacher’s efforts. The interviewee learned how to learn, how to tolerate the monotony of the learning process and found that work invested in learning leads to success. It was the consequence of successful secondary socialisation enabled by his teachers that he was accepted in class ‘a’ by his classmates as the only Roma child and he was also tied to the peer group by multiple heterogeneous weak ties. School was followed directly in this life career as well by secondary school and the secondary school final examination but, for lack of family back-up, it was not until a few decades later that he got to university as a result of an ‘event of fate’ (Tengelyi, 1998).

Conclusion

In this research we studied different upwards mobility paths in detail, some of which were intergeneration and the others were intrageneration mobility paths. A hermeneutical analysis of the narrative makes it possible to highlight those typical action strategies which open the door to the successful school mobility. Our research on Roma youth of successful school mobility also confirmed the conclusions of Bourdieu’s social theory, in that inequalities among social strata exist not only in terms of economic and cultural capital but social capital as well. Linking up with networks rich in resources is typical of those in higher statuses because they have more network connections that are richer in resources, more extensive and

more socially heterogeneous as well. Accordingly, the social capital of the higher social classes provides access to more information and it results in greater influence. Consequently, the social capital of people in lower statuses will yield less of these, which means that they can cross boundaries between social strata only in exceptional cases. At the same time, the findings of our research point to the same direction that the school performance of Roma youngsters can be inseparable from their microsocial relationships.

The findings of our research also indicate that upwards mobility processes are not a random phenomenon, indeed, the life stories reveal that they are related to a number of social facts and sociological dimensions. The mobility processes were found to have been equally affected by macro and micro factors. A look at the most important micro factors reveals that the mobility processes could not have taken place without, on the one hand, successful secondary socialisation in which the 'artificial reality' of internalised knowledge is confirmed by means of pedagogy. It is clear from the narratives of the research underlying this study that the school had been an integrating space for Roma people who have managed to finish university studies, the space where their social integration got underway. One key element of successful school mobility is effective secondary socialisation which requires an active teacher's role. This does not only necessitate the emphasised presence of personality on the part of the teacher but also the adoption of a creative attitude that does not tolerate impersonality or a 'policeman's role' on the part of the teacher. Another important element of successful school mobility is the significant role of micro-societal relationships and their weak ties which students develop not only with adults but with the members of their peer groups. The weak ties with the adult society assist students to make better decisions on further studies through providing advice and transmitting information. The weak ties with members of the peer group help the individual's social integration and the mobility of a young person having such relationships entail fewer conflicts. Besides this, it is very significant those macro factors such as institutional regulations, scholarship systems and civil society organisation etc. that provide the external requisites for successful school mobility for the young people concerned.

The results of this research undertaking confirm the significant importance of the school as an institution and of its participants in the school mobility and consequently in the social integration of Roma students. They draw attention to the fact that the future of the lower social classes and so that of the Roma population is determined at school, for lack of social and economic capital. This should warrant reforms in the Hungarian schooling system, calling for well-equipped schools where highly trained teachers can positively shape the students' relationship to culture and knowledge, devoting all their energy to the children under their care.

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Best Practices for Using Mind Map in the Higher Education

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Buzan and the mind mapping

Tony Buzan was deeply researching the methods of learning and note taking processes and also the connection between the brain functioning and learning, and as a result he invented “mind mapping” (1974)

Gabriel Racle wrote a detailed report about one of Buzan`s experiments in his book called *La pédagogie interactive* in 1983. The experiment was made in a primary school in East London and the subjects were children with weak learning performances (some of them could hardly read). He asked the children to make a short composition within 30 minutes and they also got paper and pencils in different colours. The children used only the black pencils, they were struggling with the task and the results were miserable. Some of them did nothing; others made either a simple drawing or a short text. Their performance was despondent and they were disappointed as well. Then Buzan changed the method, he tried to convince them that they were able to do this and they knew a lot more than they think. He read different words to them for a few minutes and the children raised their hands if they knew that word he read them. Then he explained to the children how the words connect and create a whole sentence, the sentences then create a whole text, which would form to a book etc. He compared our brain functioning to a tree, because our brain creates the chain of association of words, pictures and impulses, just as the root of a tree connects to the branches and the leaves. After some practicing, he gave the same task to the children as at the beginning. The children could use the previously showed associations and this time they their performance was ten times better than at the first time. They used different colours and they also enjoyed the exercise, they were enthusiastic and self-confident.

According to Buzan the usage of the non-verbal emotional skills enhanced the functioning of the verbal skills. With the activity of the right part of the brain spontaneous thinking, association, intuition can start and they can play a huge role in creativity (Racle, 1983:162). The children stimulated their entire brain with this activity, because both parts of the brain were involved. The invention that the two parts of the brain is asymmetric, changed the epistemology about the brain only in the beginning of the 60`s, when Roger Sperry got a medical Nobel Prize for

this. There were some relevant researches done by Robert Ornstein, Eran Zaidel and some others as well. Sperry and Ornstein discovered that the two parts of the brain have different functions.

From a pedagogic aspect, it is very important in this revelation that the learning effectiveness can be increased if we use both parts of our brain (Buzan, 2007:27). The brain can handle information with a greater activity, if it is prepared for the “integration” (Buzan, 2007:127). Other sources also confirm in connection with the information storing that the memory records structures, as in the entire system of knowledge, instead of just unconnected facts. The new data has to be integrated into a coherent system in order to be able record it for long term (Chevalier, 1993:102-125). The Mind Map is a memory-compatible methodological tool in education for processing, understanding, recording and recalling information.

The theory of Concept Map can be linked to Joseph D. Novak and David Paul Ausubel psychologists. According to different views, this is different from Buzan`s theory, because it is used for other exercises, but it is undisputable that the basic idea comes from Buzan. Both build to the same thinking process and in the visual system independently whether we start from an abstract or from a specific thought.

Pedagogic proceeds

The advantages of mind mapping from a pedagogic point of view can be observed at the most subjects, because it makes the class more interesting, increases the activity during the class, helps the students with ideas and makes them more creative. As a method, mind mapping helps with thinking in a different way; it helps highlighting the central thought, structures the topic, separates the secondary, less important information, shows the connections and widens the thinking both vertically and horizontally. Through mind mapping the learning process matches the brain mechanisms more, this improves and accelerates imprinting and recalling the memory. Mind mapping can also be integrated to more phases of the learning process and to the improvement of more skills, such as broadening the vocabulary, receiving information, listening and reading or presentations as follows:

- ✓ Collecting the words,
- ✓ Reading and interpreting a text or a topic,
- ✓ Highlighting the essential points of a text,
- ✓ Understanding the content of a text,
- ✓ Structuring a topic or a text from different point of views,
- ✓ Collecting ideas (writing, presentation),
- ✓ Creating ideas in connection with a topic,
- ✓ Solving a problem or a task,
- ✓ Repeating, memorizing words or a text,

- ✓ Presenting a topic in writing or orally,
- ✓ Note taking (of a read or a heard text) etc.

With creating a mind map, every student has the opportunity to take part actively in the class, to present, because they can work either individually or in team, to improve their autonomy and to build their knowledge. The students can find “the creative joy” this way and they can find interest in the given topic very easily, which releases positive emotions during the class. The positive experience and feeling gives success for the students, which increases the self-confidence and develops the performance (Jármai, 2005).

Mind map application during the class – Higher education

The usage of the mind map matches the material of different subjects; it can be applied as teaching-learning method both at full time and at part time education. The aim of the application can be various depending on what our aim either to make the students repeat or to synthesize the lessons, or the heuristic process of the lessons. The “by-product” is always the development of the co-operative skills during the teamwork, and this works automatically. It is very important that the lesson will be followed by a self-reflective stage, when the students can think over and evaluate what happened and what they learnt about themselves during the class and the teamwork. This is also relevant, because issues that seemed useless or less important at first sight can make sense and be significant. The “thinking about me” stage can be reached with the homework, when students make a summary about their experience during the class. If there is enough time available, this can be done orally during the class as well.

Experiences at full-time classes – Teacher`s report

We applied mind-mapping at two classes with different aims. First-year students of the Faculty of Civil Service accomplish general legal studies in two semesters. In the second semester I could have summarized the material of the first semester and taken presentations with slides, where the students could have been sitting in silence and listening. The theme of the legal lessons is quite dry and detailed; it is extremely hard to follow and look through all the little correspondences and connections, the audience can get tired easily.

I achieved a great result with the usage of mind mapping. I divided the group into three parts, so that everyone could actively take part in the class and repeat, practice the material of the first semester. Three mind

maps were made, which is significant, because the material is very massive and complicated to classify according to syllabus. The students could do all of that with mind mapping and they used successfully their common knowledge. It is very important for them to see the structure of the basic material, because the specifications build on the basics. They discussed the topics then they made their own mind maps at home. This meant to be the second thinking about the curriculum, because the specifications had to be built into it with the reveal of the logical correlations. There is no wrong or good answer, because basically everything is related in the law and the connections between the different areas had to be searched and found by the students.

With the application of mind mapping we not only synthesized and summarized the studies, but also the students could think about the deeper correlations.

Mind mapping was applied at the economic legal classes of the second- and third-year students of the Faculty of Economy Management. They have never participated in a class like that before, where they worked with similar methods. As a start we invited a guest presenter and a liquidator, who explained them the liquidation process. At the next class the students had to construe the topic of the “Transformation and termination of the commercial corporations” according to their own point of view and the level of their knowledge, but not following the textbook. This was important, because the presentation covered only a small part of the lesson, which is one-third of the textbook.

The students could use their own notes and the related books from the library, where we were. My aim was that the students could take and understand the key points and they could build up the process. They pictured the liquidation process, bankruptcy and merges etc. with the mixture of the mind map and flowcharts. They could perfectly visualize the differences and creatively look for symbols.

It was even more interesting that the boys and the girls were working in two separate groups and started to compete with each other, which increased their motivation as well. It was not said out loud, but could be seen that they were interested in which group the more creative was and was able to see the key points sooner and easier. They were working with a great enthusiasm. They could not finish the work by the end of the class, so the rest had to be done at home as homework. They organized a meeting out of the class and worked in teams, and they made substantive and meaningful solutions for the next class.

In the self-reflection phase they told that they were keen on this method, because it was easier to process and understand the material, they could discuss it and it was less tiring than just listening to a presentation where they cannot participate actively. They could manage the timing and the working process without arguments; they could ask questions and divide the tasks individually. There was no leader at the girls, so they divided the material equally. At the boys everyone read the

entire curriculum, therefore they were able to see through the whole of it and were able to highlight the key points better. The girls were more creative. The works of both groups were very interesting and special from different point of views.

The pedagogical value is undisputable: their co-operative and organization skills have developed; they enjoyed the work and also learnt the material. It was a great and new experience for me that I could see their enthusiasm and motivation instead of the bored and yawning faces counting the minutes left from the class that I had seen before on the classes.

Experiences at part-time classes – with students` narratives

Part-time classes only consist of consultations 2-3 times per semester depending on the subjects. It makes the organization of the classes more difficult that the participation is not compulsory; therefore it is hard to predict or estimate the exact number of the students at the classes. If the number of students is enough for teamwork, the class can be made more practical. The students more appreciate the interactive classes rather than just sitting and listening to the presentation and its interpretation.

We would like to introduce some views and opinions from students` side, what they think about the importance of teamwork and the application of the mind map.

“The teamwork with the others was very exciting, but a bit strange, because we did not know each other. There are students, who I do not know at all, because we do not meet at the part-time classes. I think that this kind of activities at the classes would bring the students closer, it is a great opportunity to know each other a bit more...” (Bernadett B. part-time student)

*“I really enjoyed the class, I liked the *teamwork*. I liked the most that we made not only the mind map together, but we presented it together as well. We agreed on who tells what about the topic. The other groups usually chose one person who took the entire presentation, but we thought that we had to present together once if we made the *mind map* together as well.”* (Bernadett B. part-time student)

*“...I have already met Tony Buzan`s method about the *mind map*. I also tried this method and found really useful, so I would definitely use it for my studies.”* (Gabriella T. part-time student)

*“I think the mind map is very helpful, especially if I add graphics to it, because I am a visual type of person and I can recall and remember the pictures at the exams a lot easier. (...) The *teamwork* was also*

very useful, because the students could know each other a lot better. I was the leader of our team. The others were not very active at the beginning, but they became very enthusiastic and opened as soon as we got to know each other a bit better.” (Adrienn H. part-time student)

“I think that despite the fact that we did not know each other very well, we could co-operate as a real team; everyone could tell and add their own views and opinions to the presentation. Nobody felt restricted and everyone could share the work equally. We divided the material equally and we presented our work together as well.” (Réka K. part-time student)

We introduced the mind map at the “Learning- and Research Methodology” part-time classes, which is a skill developing subject. We prepared two types of class choreography, because we did not know, how many students would take part in the consultation. The number of students were enough for the teamwork, so after a short theoretical introduction, we started the actual teamwork. The teacher had to be inactive and observe the formation and the work of the teams, and if they saw some difficulties than the teacher should help with clever questions to overstep the problems.

1We would like to introduce the method of mind mapping through the reports and talks of the students, because it can be clearly followed step by step, how they lived and what they experienced during the entire process of the teamwork. They wrote not only about their experiences, but also about their opinion and thoughts, how they came to certain consequences, why the class and the new method were useful and what they learnt.

Detailed descriptions of the mind mapping process

1st Report. “It was not important how we create the teams, because nobody knew each other. With the teamwork we had the opportunity to get to know each other. I was a bit nervous at the beginning, not because of the task, but how the team members could work together. We divided the tasks according to who would draw the mind map and who would present it. Before the final mind map, we discussed the topic and the content of the mind map; we collected the material and the thoughts together. We listened to each other`s opinion, collected the common thought about how to plan to build up the topic. While listening to the others, it was easy to recognize what is important to the others and share the expectations. *This task was a perfect starting point to know the team members better. This exercise was not only about creating a mind map and a presentation, but also*

about to accept and to adapt the others' thoughts and opinions, because we were a team and it depended on us, what the presentation would look like. This is not easy to accomplish a task with people, who we hardly know. Even it is a challenge to work with people who we know. During the teamwork we could know the strong and weak points of the others. It was clearly seen that those people became leaders, who are dominant characters in real life as well, and they strongly kept the team together. The mind map was a great reflection of the team, we could gain lots of information from it regarding the characteristics of the team, the structure of the *mind map*, the colours all referred to the team. Since it was teamwork, the chance of the individual work was very small, but everyone did their best to perform well. The exercise required us to co-operate, to adapt, to be understanding with the others and to be able to listen to the others. After drawing our mind map, we had to present it, which also showed the difference between the other teams with regard to creativity, evaluation and thinking. We could gain great ideas from the other presentations such as what was missing from our *mind map*, what else we could have used. We were paying attention carefully to the others, because their mind map was a kind of reflection of their personality as well. The class was very effective and useful to get to know each other." (János B. part-time student)

2nd Report. "I would write a few words about the class exercise as well. I was in the same team with a boy, a man and a girl. First I thought that it would be a bad idea. *We did not even take the task serious at the beginning, we were just giggling the whole time.* Then we realized that the other groups started working with a great enthusiasm, and then we started to work as well. We had no idea how to start the whole thing, we just wrote the word "learning" in the middle and slowly everyone had the first few thoughts. Anyone had an idea, the other 3 persons added something to it, so we could do it step by step and we helped each other. *It was that point when I realized, how enjoyable is to work in a team.* We had such ideas that I would have never ever thought by myself. It was a lot better than to create something individually. It was very disappointing that we did not have enough time to finish it, because I had so many ideas that I could add that that enormous piece of paper would not have been enough to write them all. I would honestly like to say thank you for this great experience and for drawing our attention to the importance of the teamwork, because it is a lot easier to learn and we can also help each other. I hope that we will have the opportunity to do this at other classes as well. Unfortunately part-time courses do not give the chance for the students to sit together and to work and think in a team, to spend more time together and to get to know each other better, because of the lack of the time." (Renáta P. part-time student)

3rd Report. “At the first Learning- and Research Methodology class we had a nice surprise. The teacher encouraged us to participate in teamwork instead of just listening to the dry material. Since the very first class was at the beginning of the semester, we did not really know each other in the group. At the beginning everyone in our team was a bit shy and impeccable. Then suddenly one of us – who was not me – started to motivate the team saying that we are able to do this. After a while everyone started to be much opened and less shy. Everyone told their opinion, thoughts, ideas, so we had enough information to build up our own mind map. I think, everyone expected from each other to add their idea, but we never argued. I am very happy that I participated in this and that I got to know the other 3 people in my team, however I have never seen one of them at the next consultations. In the high school where I used to go it was a kind of compulsory task to work in a team. Probably that is why I have always been against it. But now thank to the teacher, I have a completely different point of view about learning with others, and I truly believe that it’s a great lesson and experience for everyone for the future. I really enjoyed the teamwork even if it seemed very strange at the beginning. Since that time I have had the opportunity to learn together with one of my classmates, which was also a very useful experience.” (Cintia Cs. Part-time student)

4th Report. “At the latest class we had the opportunity to *work in teams*. Basically I support teamwork or learning in a group, so I was happy with the idea. The task suited the teams, everyone had the chance to express their own opinion, views, to share their thoughts, so we could approach the topic from different point of views and we could discover idea that the other would have never thought about. The result was just as we expected: it reflected the attitude of the team, it was colourful and interesting and we exchanged a lot of ideas that we could use. It was very interesting to co-operate with my classmates, who I had not known before. We had not talked to each other and I had a very positive opinion about them. The form of the teamwork helped with the communication as well. At the beginning everyone was a bit shy, they did not know what to do, how to start. They were very sceptic and showed less interest. Somebody was needed to be initiative and to motivate the others to start the common thinking. I think, I was this initiative person in our team; however it was completely unconscious. I just thought that this first negative attitude was a bit embarrassing and I felt that the others are waiting for me to show the way, because nobody wanted to do the first step. After all everyone took part in the work actively and enjoyed it. As a summary, it was a great experience and I would be happy if we had more similar opportunities like that at the classes. We can get to know each other a lot better. It is true that we are part-time students, but still we meet a few times during the semester and this is a perfect

time to speak with each other and it gives the chance to work together in the future as well.” (Eszter T. part-time student)

Summary

The reports below highlight the fact that any type of subject can be connected to the competency-development simply with organizing the work and using simple methods. The European framework determines the competencies as the combination of knowledge, skills and attitudes within the appropriate context. The European states build the key competencies determined by the reference framework in different ways into their national education system, but the preparation, views and thinking of the teachers is that basic condition without which the competency development cannot be successfully achieved. The knowledge is beyond knowing just the facts and the subject material, it includes the 3 dimension of knowledge, thinking and acting (see Lindqvist, 2011; O`Shea-Dempsey, 2011). According to the results of researches accomplished in more countries the teachers accepting and applying the methods of competency development state that this kind of approach in education is more effective and makes both students and teachers happy and enthusiastic. Mind map is a simple practical tool, it does not require special preparation and it is perfectly suitable for the improvement of the key skills.

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Adult Learning: A Pleasant Experience or a Necessity?

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A lot of research has been carried out in Hungary in order to find out the reasons why only a small percentage of the Hungarian adult population takes part in learning. Research findings show that the main reason why most adults are reluctant to continue their studies later in life is often connected to their earlier negative learning experiences gained during their school years or certain gaps in the public education system. On examining this issue more closely, we should take into consideration that adult education in Hungary typically plays a supplementary or "gap-filling" role instead of providing the opportunity for personal development by building on the learners' previous knowledge and experience (Lannert et al., 2006).

Unfortunately, on the basis of research (Nikolov, 2008, Nikolov, Ottó & Öveges, 2008), this critical statement can especially be applied to language teaching. Negative experience with language learning usually starts accumulating at the beginning of one's school years and this may have an adverse effect on the whole language learning process further in adulthood, too. We just have to think about typical classroom situations with long and detailed grammatical explanations, monotonous language drills or unimaginative exercises which are often not adapted to children's cognitive development and make them bored instead of raising their curiosity. Such unsuitable methodological approach can easily lead to children's long-term loss of interest in language studies. In the course of a research (Nikolov, 2008:17-18) which involved monitoring teachers during 60 language lessons in primary education the "good teaching example" i.e. the use of suitable methodology occurred only in exceptional cases. Most of the monitored lessons lacked any motivating, challenging or varied tasks which could have had a positive effect on the children or which could have given them some feeling of success. Another characteristic problem was that the teachers did not even explain their pupils any useful language learning techniques or strategies which could help them improve their skills in the future.

Such negative language learning experiences can multiply in secondary schools, too. Therefore it is no wonder that language teachers in higher education usually complain about their difficulties with students whose basic language skills do not meet the required standards to continue learning the language for specific purposes, e.g. business, tourism, etc. These students should attend additional "gap-filling" lessons to catch up

with others and/or need special attention and differentiated treatment by teachers all through the special purpose language courses. Students on distance education or correspondence courses are at an even greater disadvantage because their curriculum contains much fewer language lessons as compared to Bsc/BA courses. These difficulties can be tackled by teachers only with a carefully selected methodological approach so that they can help students achieve long-term success and turn the language learning process into a positive experience for all age-groups.

Research

As part of a preliminary research, prior to a planned research later on a big sample population, we used a mixed method of questionnaire and interview surveys in the spring semester of 2013. We asked a small sample population of 67 students (N=67) studying mainly English in higher education BSc/BA, distance and correspondence education language courses in a questionnaire survey and interviewed 10 adults attending either higher education formal or non-formal adult education language classes.

Our aim was to find and identify those factors which usually develop a positive attitude towards learning and especially motivate people to learn languages. We asked learners – among other questions – about their motivations and any positive and/or negative and discouraging language learning experiences. We also wanted to know if their expectations or needs were fully met during the lessons they (had) attended. The questionnaires were anonymous.

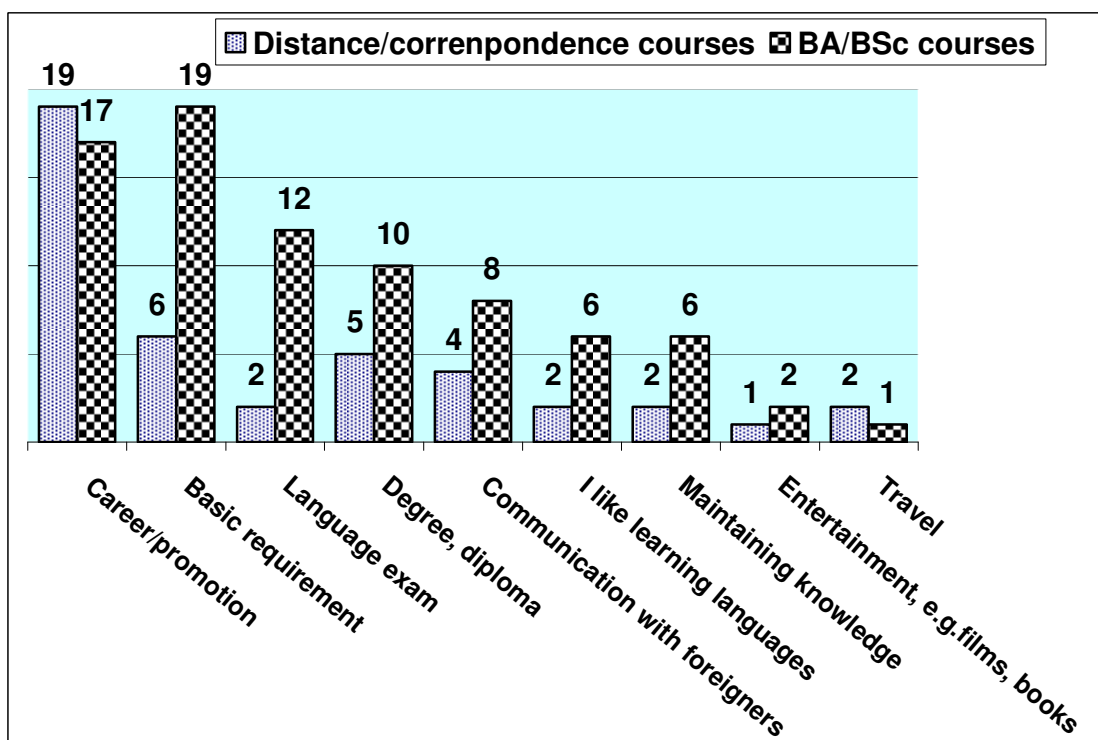
Age data of the sample population of the questionnaire survey are as follows				
Age group	18-20	18-28	29-38	39-55
Bsc/BA courses	42 students			
Distance courses		15 students	8 students	2 students
Correspondence courses				
All of the 10 interviewed language learners were over 30-35 years.				

In our opinion, if we get to know the main factors that typically motivate some or most of the people to re-start and/or continue learning after compulsory school age, we can find out possible ways of „winning” other people to the cause as well, i.e. find some methods to attract also those people to continue their studies who currently do not take part in adult education for some reason. When trying to find and select the most suitable teaching strategy and methods to meet adult learners’ expectations better, language teachers need not only be aware of

learners' aims and motivations but also consider their characteristic features and skills that they would like to improve or develop. It seems, adults are usually able to assess their own knowledge and the progress they are making in their studies quite well and they can also say if and/or how far their needs are/have been met during the courses they attend.

Evidence shows that career-related aims like getting better jobs or promotion seem to be the most characteristic motivating factors for learning in adulthood. However, in this case, the real aim or motivation to learn is not learning in the sense of gaining knowledge but learning is rather seen as the means of achieving one's goals, for example, to get or keep a job or move higher up on the career ladder. We should be aware that adults' participation in education does not necessarily mean that they really want to learn or they are interested in the subject itself (Maróti, 2006:4). This kind of interest is extrinsic, driven by outside factors, while a person's "real" personal interest, or intrinsic motivation means curiosity, the wish to learn and understand something or achieve better performance.

Figure 1: *Motivating factors of language learning for specific purposes in higher education courses (N=67) (frequency of remarks)*



Among the answers to the question "Why are you studying foreign languages?" extrinsic motivational factors dominate. First of all, job-related motives, passing a language exam and taking a degree are mentioned as students' primary language learning purposes. This seems to be quite

acceptable because the younger adult generation's focus on better career opportunities to reach a higher standard of living arises naturally from their characteristic age-specific life-role (Szilágyi, 2007:76). Young adults hardly mention any affective, emotional elements that encourage them to study languages. Several students enlist a number of factors connected to better work opportunities, promotional prospects, higher salary in the first place and only a few of them mention the enjoyment of learning languages as an important factor. A neglectable minority of students mentioned that they wanted to study foreign languages in order to achieve enjoyment by reading authentic literature, watching movies or using the language while travelling. The results found in this small sample population clearly show that career-related motives come first on the list.

The open-ended question (*"Has language learning ever caused any enjoyment or feeling of success to you?"*) about any enjoyment and/or positive experience connected to language learning in general or during the language lesson elicited very few comments by the students who answered the questionnaires.

Five learners did not answer this question (N=67), four learners definitely said they had never had any such experience. On the basis of the answers, we can draw the conclusion that this question will probably have to be more focused in the final research version of the questionnaire. Only six learners mentioned they had already had pleasant experiences while learning languages any time before or during the lessons. Let us quote some of their remarks:

"I was very glad when the teacher praised me and was satisfied with my performance." – Three students made similar remarks"

"Learning the language itself is an enjoyable activity for me." – Only one student mentioned this.

„I enjoyed solving interesting tasks allocated by the teacher during the lesson" – One student mentioned it.

However, much more students remarked they had a feeling of success as a result of achieving their aim, for example, passing language exams.

"I succeeded in passing the language exam which made me happy" – Ten students mentioned this.

Most of the students mentioned that language-learning caused them happiness when they travelled abroad and could use the language there. This is interesting because travelling as a motivational factor for learning languages was mentioned only by three students in response to the previous question. The second most frequently occurring answer to the question about positive experiences was the pleasure of communicating with foreigners either in Hungary or abroad. The third category of answers covered watching original native language movies, reading authentic literature and understanding song lyrics as possible sources of enjoyable experience. They specifically mentioned Erasmus scholarship or taking

part in international student-exchange programs which belonged to the first two categories, i.e. authentic language usage causing a positive experience. Some of the most characteristic remarks were as follows:

"It's a good feeling that I can make myself understood abroad."

"I can make myself understood by anybody any time abroad."

"It's good to survive with my language knowledge while I stay abroad."

„It's always good to help foreign tourists."

Those positive experiences that can be connected directly to work, or successful job interviews were mentioned only six times. Although this small sample population of 67 people cannot allow us to draw far-reaching conclusions, the results have directed our attention more closely to the methodology used by language teachers which, as we think, might require some kind of "refreshment". We hold the view that it would be worth including much more varied and engaging activities, challenging and communicative tasks to offer learners the chance to use the language for real communication. Students should go through positive and motivating experiences already during the lessons to improve their language skills e.g. in role-play tasks, group discussions or pairwork.

The answers elicited by the next question about negative experiences ("Has language learning ever caused any negative experiences to you which may have affected your language learning process badly afterwards? Please, mention some examples.") indirectly prove that teachers play a major role in people's language learning failures and definitely affect their attitudes to learning. Although only a few learners mentioned any negative experiences, the ones who did, blamed mostly the teachers or their methods for this negative feeling. 17 students did not answer this question, 23 definitely said they had never had any negative experiences at all. The remaining 27 students, i.e. approximately 40 % of the sample population explained their negative experiences in much greater detail as compared to comments on positive experiences. Here are some examples:

"I used to have a very bad English teacher at secondary school so we didn't learn too much for six years. We never wrote any tests, there wasn't any motivation to learn."

"The teacher's character, her/his lack of competence had a very negative effect on my studies and performance."

"My secondary school teacher could not help me pass at least an intermediate level language exam after seven years' of studies."

"Unfortunately, we were not even taught the basics of the language in secondary school."

"The grammar rules of German are too hard and "dry" and I didn't have a good teacher to help me learn it. I think, everything depends on the teacher. If he/she doesn't enjoy teaching or even looks bored, the students will lose their interest, too."

"The too many tenses of English always make me frustrated".

"At secondary school I was not satisfied with my English teacher, she didn't motivate us and we made very slow progress. I started to attend private lessons which of course cost a lot of money. Money and time!"

"I had a rather "weird" language teacher whose knowledge was OK but he couldn't teach well. He didn't use the right methods."

"At school we never used the language for speaking."

"The methods in the language school were not suitable for me. The tempo that the teacher dictated was all too fast for me and I couldn't catch up with the other students. "

"A bad teacher can do a lot of harm to students and can even spoil our interest in learning any languages."

In conclusion, there were only two learners who found the language itself too difficult to study and also two of them attributed their failures or negative experiences to their own personal faults. While the teacher's role in achieving success and good results is not mentioned by the learners at all, negative experiences are mostly attributed to the teachers because they are usually connected to classroom experiences and the teachers' methods.

Interviews

The other part of our pre-research involved ten half-structured interviews (N=10) made with adult learners focusing on their positive and negative language learning experiences both in formal (higher education distance and correspondence courses) and non-formal adult education language courses.

Extracts from the interviews with students of higher education distance and correspondence courses. We hold the view that a conscientious teacher of any subject is aware of his/her duty to give advice and guidance on self-study to all age-groups of learners. Adult learners need this help and will accept the advice and follow the teachers' instructions even more carefully because they usually have to make much more concentrated effort to learn efficiently in addition to being full-time workers because they have less time to learn. This idea is recurring in the following interviews.

"I carefully examined my learning habits. I should be more focused when I study to save some time for recreation as well. This is a good motivation for me *for better time management*." (T. András, correspondence student)

„Now it is a new experience for me to study as a correspondent student, i.e. not on a BSc course. It means I have to face several unusual things. For example, there is much more emphasis on self-study and we even have search for all the resource books and study

materials on our own. During this stage of our life our main activity is working and not learning so we need to learn how *to manage our time* well or else we can't cope with so many tasks." (K. Réka, correspondence student)

In the methodological preparation process, teachers should be aware of the differences in students' learning styles and should consider the application of varied methods during the lessons to deal with the different types of learners and help all of them make progress. Nowadays it is getting more and more common to take advantage of ICT during the lessons which can support learning, too. Another useful visual technique to help us understand and process information is creating and using conceptual maps, or mind maps. Even adults who have not known this "learning tool" before can easily get accustomed to using it. The application of this technique can offer a positive feeling of success to any level language learners at any stage of their studies. It can be used both for individual or group work and if it is used for group work it can develop cooperation skills, too. This is illustrated by the following extracts from interviews:

"When I learn, it is very important for me to visualise things so that I can understand everything. Without this method I can't learn. I am unable to learn by monotonously reading or cramming things." (T. András, correspondence student)

"I just *find it very difficult to learn on my own*, so it is very important for me to attend the lessons because it is easier for me to learn things by hearing and talking about them. It is very useful for me if the teacher explains things, shows diagrams on the OHP, for example, and I can memorise things much more easily in this way. After the lesson I know that at home I will not have to spend so much time on studying." (S. Beáta, correspondence student)

"Although I can learn quite well on my own I still prefer learning in a group, together with my peers. The best method for me seems to be when I can tell other students the material and they ask me questions which I answer. If it is not possible to learn together in the group, I usually tell the lesson to anybody who is willing to listen, or just to myself. I often read aloud which helps me memorise things better. I can use this *method for language learning*, too, because it develops my speaking skills better." (T. Eszter, correspondence student)

Students usually like any kind of unusual, creative and innovative teaching methods that will give them positive learning experiences or which will prove useful for them. If these methods can involve the students better and make them more actively engaged in the learning process by making them speak, perform tasks, develop their social skills, they will feel more motivated as well.

"The language lesson was much different in character from other seminars or lectures. We dealt with the tasks in small groups. The members of the group were different from each other in several ways, e.g. motivation levels, area of interest, level of skills and knowledge of the subject. The learners could all contribute to the solution of the tasks with their own individual approach and methods. I think, this kind of learning activity can be especially advantageous because all the members of the group can learn from each other in some way, everybody is involved and actively participates and has a chance to share their opinions. My peers were all very much open, active and creative during the activity. We got on very well and found they best way to cooperate. There was a pleasant atmosphere all through the lesson and I enjoyed myself." (L. Csilla, correspondence student)

"I think, I have been getting on quite well and I could say I have been lucky with almost all the teachers so far because they could make me like the subject they were teaching. Just with one exception, and, unfortunately, with one very important exception. And this is my secondary school teacher of English, a nervous, rude and arrogant man who discouraged me from speaking English so much that now, even if I know something I hardly dare to say it. So this is a great disadvantage for me in life. I'm sure I will need to work hard to dare to start using the language again, which I still like very much. Because I need to pass a language exam for my degree I will have to try again, so I hope this time I will have a friendlier teacher." (P. Renáta, correspondence student)

Extracts from interviews with older-generation adult language learners. Adult learners of over 50 years represented a minority in our sample population. However, their comments were really remarkable. They shared with us their experience gained mostly on language courses of various adult training institutions and language schools. They were more or less characterised by their intrinsic motivation to learn. It was not their employer who made them study although some of them started their studies with the aim of taking a language exam and get promotion at work.

On the basis of topic-related literature we can say that the main motivational factors why older-generation adults usually go back to "school" are the ones that can meet their requirements for communication, acquiring knowledge, spending leisure time in a useful way, keeping contact with colleagues and health reasons (Csoma, 2005; Bajusz, 2008). As far as language learning motivation is concerned, it is worth mentioning another new phenomenon which has recently occurred. With the rising number of young Hungarians moving to live and work abroad in the long term, their parents often start learning a foreign language to be able to communicate with their children's new foreign partners, friends and families.

As we can see, older-generation adults' motivations to learn greatly differ from those of the younger generations, especially in case of language learning. This is the reason why even more importance is attached to the teachers' methodological knowledge and well-selected tools. Teachers must be able to create a friendly atmosphere with a good teacher-learner relationship and communication by setting relevant, customised and challenging tasks to engage learners in a pleasant experience all through the lessons. The following extracts are taken from the interviews:

"On the course which was attended only by adults and where children were not even allowed to enrol, I think, the teacher did not have a suitable teaching style. He seemed to be arrogant already on the first occasion and week by week his behaviour got even worse. I usually feel frustrated if I am forced to study fast. I wanted to study in a more leisurely manner as I was not in a hurry, I didn't need to pass any exams or reach any other target. I just wanted to study the language at my own tempo and taste. Whenever I made a mistake I was told off like a child and rudely scolded for not paying attention. As I grow older and reach almost "grandmother's" age I do not find this treatment acceptable especially when I think I should be encouraged instead. I enrolled in this course because I wanted to have a good time and I stayed also for the sake of the group members whom I liked, but at last I gave up attending the course because of the teacher. It was really a great relief for me to get rid of the stressful atmosphere of these evening lessons." (T. L. 58-year-old language learner at a language school)

In Hungary, as it seems, the culture and methodology of teaching adults differently on the basis of their special learning characteristics have not yet been given enough attention. However, we can see some favourable developments as well because now there are certain language schools which also run specifically senior courses (Kaczor, 2011:15). It often occurs that people enrolling in these courses specifically look for the opportunity and prefer to study with people of the same age, who probably have similar expectations and requirements. We needn't forget that several of these elderly language learners are fully aware of the fact that their learning characteristics must have changed with age. It is commonly known that changes in perceptive and memory functions may cause difficulties for older people. However, we should also note that learning abilities depend on other factors, too, including one's previous learning and work experience, frequency of learning situations, the environment, and last but not least, on one's motivations to learn. Therefore we can conclude that adult learning abilities and characteristics are just influenced but not determined by the age of learners (Bajusz, 2008).

"I specifically selected a language course where I could study together with adults of my age-group. I waited until the language

school started a so-called "senior" course. I didn't want to compete with or feel embarrassed among 20-year-olds. I don't want to take any language exams, I want to study for my own pleasure and don't want to be pushed for great achievements. I'd like to take my time, if I learn slowly it doesn't matter as I find enjoyment in learning the language and get acquainted with other cultures. Luckily the teacher is open to our needs and understands us, she is very enthusiastic and at the same time patient so she can motivate us very well. We have a very good time laughing and chatting. Who cares that we sometimes make mistakes? The main thing is that we use the language and can communicate...." (W. V. 62-year-old learner)

In our opinion, age-adapted methods can help to maintain or even increase adult learners' motivation to learn even if their motivation is extrinsic, e.g. they take part in a language course because they have to meet certain requirements set by others. As we think, the more pleasant atmosphere and the more positive experiences the language lessons provide, the higher the learners' motivation to learn will be and the more improvement in the learners' language skills will occur.

„I had to enrol in an English language course because my daughter got married to an Englishman. I always felt so frustrated when I could not communicate just smile when I was with my son-in-law and his family. Now I'd like to learn the basics of the language to be able to talk with them at least about everyday matters. Now I can even say that I enjoy the language lessons. We speak a lot and make progress just like at school. I do not find the lessons so difficult because I studied other languages earlier so I have some language learning experience. There are lots of international words in English which help me, too. Now I can easily make simple sentences and can catch more and more English words on TV, too. The teacher uses very creative teaching methods so the lessons are not boring at all. Time flies so fast during these lessons because there is a great variety of activities. Sometimes we work in pairs, too. I find these lessons much less exhausting than I expected." (Z. A. 56-year-old learner)

We can see that in case of older adult language learners it is first of all the teacher who can make the language lesson enjoyable by creating the conditions and environment for a pleasant experience, using well-known pedagogical tools: good teacher-learner relationship, encouraging attitude, motivating environment, group dynamics, suitable, varied and motivating teaching methods.

„Our language teacher, B., if I can say, is an extraordinary man. He could create such a good atmosphere in our language group that whenever you couldn't go to the lesson you were definitely sorry for missing it! We all made quite good progress although we were on very different levels when we started to attend the course. B. had

unlimited patience. None of us ever felt ashamed when we made mistakes in this group because of the friendly atmosphere. B. helped everybody and he repeated things several times if it was necessary. He knew we all studied in the evening after work so he understood how difficult it was for us to learn. I think he is an excellent teacher and a remarkable personality. The size of the group of 10 people was ideal for making fairly good progress with all the members being actively involved. I am very grateful for the opportunity to have been part of these lessons. I even made good friends with the members of the group. There were lots of lessons when we could share with each other our personal experiences and we even organised „special occasions” as if we had a dinner party three times during the course. I didn't find learning difficult at all because I had a personal motivation to learn and it was enhanced by the teacher and also the group atmosphere. I wouldn't dare to say I can speak English well but I can definitely say I would surely get along with this knowledge if I had to. This was my original aim when I enrolled in the course and I think I've managed to achieve it.” (B. A. 50-year-old learner)

On the basis of evidence, older adults tend to be more sensitive than younger learners when it comes to specific teaching techniques and activities during the lessons. Therefore, it is worth selecting such teachers for them who have more professional knowledge and experience, if possible, with some qualifications in andragogy, who surely know more about the characteristics and treatment of the different generations of adults.

„I had been planning for a long time to start learning English. However, I didn't look around carefully to select the best course to suit my needs as I was always very busy at work so when I learnt about a free 30-lesson English course (probably financed by some project) to be organised by the local government, I just grasped the opportunity to join it without thinking. I remember how much I was looking forward to it, anxious to start the first lesson with child-like curiosity. We were about 20 in the group of adults of varying ages from a 19-year-old university student to a 65-year-old grandpa with myself somewhere in the middle age-range. We had a 20-year-old teacher, a young girl who set about teaching us cheerfully with great enthusiasm. She didn't hesitate a moment if she should treat the ”grandpa” maybe more formally. On the whole, she treated all of us as if we were in the kindergarten. First she asked why we joined the course. The older members of the group said they only needed some basic knowledge to be at least able to help foreign tourists in the street if they were asked. We thought this was an achievable target to achieve in 30 lessons. Unfortunately, we were wrong. I don't say it was all useless because we learnt the numbers, the alphabet which, I know, is very important in English but we spent weeks, for example,

on learning the names of countries. We simply translated the dialogues of the book but we never did any role-play tasks or we didn't use the words, or phrases in speech either. We just crammed words and did vocabulary tests. The teacher even brought some crossword puzzles to make the lessons enjoyable but in spite of her efforts she couldn't motivate us successfully. As the end of the course was approaching I was still looking forward to learning something useful at least during the remaining few lessons but unfortunately it didn't happen. I still have this feeling of dissatisfaction because I didn't get what I expected. I'm happy, however, that at least I didn't lose my interest in learning." (T. E. 51-year learner)

The findings of both the questionnaire survey and the interviews confirm our belief that it is the teacher who plays a key role in raising and maintaining adults' interest in language learning. We must keep in mind that the target group of adult education is very heterogeneous for several reasons: adult learners are of different ages, different expectations, diverse interests, motivations and, last but not least, they belong to various social strata. Therefore, teachers have to find and select the best methods and style of communication to meet the expectations of all this heterogeneous group of adult learners by identifying their common aim: they all want to go through pleasant experiences while gaining knowledge and improving their skills, i.e. they all want to enjoy learning. We believe, teachers are expected to create the most favourable learning environment to offer learners such pleasant experiences in the learning process. This can lead to a higher level of motivation and efficiency as well as increased interest in adult education in general.

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Communication Skills as the Key to Success in Professional Activity of Manager of Tourism

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At the end of the twentieth century tourism is becoming more and more popular. A lot of people spend their free time traveling, getting to know the world. In recent years, tourism has become a mass, democratic, appropriate for different interests, tastes, income. Tourism in Ukraine is one of the main industries. Our country has everything to become a leading tourist state in Europe: stunning natural resources, the presence of unique climatic, spa and ski resorts, endless opportunities for green tourism. National identity, food, interesting historical and architectural heritage, world-famous monasteries, temples, theaters and museums attract tourists. Ukraine has become a popular tourist country, and tourism has become a priority in economic development. Tourism is one of the most dynamic and profitable sectors of the economy. In the world over the past half earnings from tourism increased by 300 times. Studies from the World Tourism Organization, and forecast data developed on their results show the enormous prospects of tourism.

Taking into the consideration the place and role of tourism in society, the government has declared tourism a priority direction of development of economy and culture and creates conditions for tourism. Therefore, one of the most important tasks today is training a specialist of a new profile – competent and sociable tourism managers with professional and various skills and knowledge, capable to make decisions independently, ready to creative solving of typical and atypical occupational tasks aimed at meeting the needs and preferences of consumers. That's why the requirements to the manager of tourism are constantly increasing. A highly qualified specialist in tourism is increasingly associated with the mastery of language and professional communication.

Communicative activity considers to be leading for the future manager of tourism, because communication is the main instrument of work. Excellence in profession of tourism manager is closely connected with the ability of artistic ownership of linguistic means and techniques of communication. Therefore, communication skills are of great interest among other general skills of a professional in tourism.

Communication skills are the ability to establish and maintain the necessary contacts with other people, a set of ways of expressing ideas, thoughts, feelings, ways of influence on partner and companion.

Communication skills are used in the process of communicating for the purposes of communication and they are the experience of relation between people as they are formed during the interaction.

The development of communication skills is an important scientific problem that is important both for human in particular and society in general.

Objective: to study the communicative skills necessary for tourism managers for success in professional activity.

An important contribution to the study of communicative skills was made – by such well-known domestic and foreign scholars as S. Bondarenko, I. Bruslova, F. Honobolin, I. Zyazyun, V. Kan-Kalyk, G. Kytaygorodska, A. Leontiev, N. Pleshkova, N. Kuzmina etc. Attempts to classify communication skills were made by L. Savenkova, N. Nykandrov, V. Naumov. Works dedicated to the formation of communicative skills belong to M. Vasilenko, M. Isaienko, V. Kruchek, A. Area, L. Sikorski, T. Shepelenko A. Yanyshyn and many others.

In traditional pedagogy there is no single definition of communicative skills, so let's consider the points of view of some scholars for the determined phenomenon. O. Leontyev says that communication skills are the ability to use different language skills or their sequence for different communicative purposes. S. Shatilovym defines communication skill as a "possession of different types of speech activity as a means of communication at different levels of perfection".

Most researchers (M. Baranov, M. Vashulenko, L. Vygotsky, P. Halperin, B. Holovin, L. Hraudina, I. Hudzyk, M. Lvov, H. Lyublinska, Ye. Passov, S. Rubinshteyn, O. Khoroshkovska, etc.) believe that communication skills is a complicated system-integrative concept, which reflects the ability of the individual to exercise communicative activity, ability to perceive and produce coherent speech utterance (text) according to the specific communicative situation and has creative nature.

Researchers (A. Bobrova, S. Vysotska, V. Krajewskij, N. Loshkarova, V. Onischuk, A. Usova, V. Shubynskij) tend to view ability as the capacity to perform difficult integrated actions according to acquired knowledge, skills and experience.

Foreign scientists refer communication skills to the transferable skills, which are formed during academic study at university, and later moved to the professional sphere and is the most popular in society (Yanyshyn, 2012).

In the scientific literature, often along with the term "skill" is used the term "practice". Researchers of two groups tried to find out if there is a relationship between these terms. Representatives of the first (I. Ilyina, E. Kabanova-Meller, G. Kostyuk, L. Shvarts etc.) consider practice to be the formation of a higher level and skill – the initial stage of mastering the act. A person who is having practice is at a higher level than someone who has the appropriate skills. By this logic, skill becomes a practice eventually. The second group of scholars considers practice to be the

primary (L. Spirin, O. Barabanschykov, Ye. Boyko, K. Platonov, E. Milyeryan, V. Kaplynsky, N. Pleshkova). The study, which was conducted, based on the notion of skills as a person's ability to carry out certain activities on the basis of the acquired knowledge. And practice, the final stage of formation, the mastery of which can switch from one mode of action to another, diversifying methods.

Communication skills of tourism manager are understood as the ability to establish and maintain the necessary contacts with other people in the process of communication based on knowledge and skills learned during studying.

The effectiveness of the professional activity of manager of tourism depends directly on the development of communicative skills. Each employee has different abilities in communication: one can easily establish contact with others, effortlessly influence people, others bring tension and provoke negative emotions. Researchers T. Olhovetska and S. Olhovetsky emphasize that the initiative serves as a means to control communication. Ability to communicate is multifaceted trait that has several components: the ability to experience pleasure in the process of communication and the desire to be among other people, altruistic tendencies (Olhovetska, 2000).

Formation of communicative skills of manager of tourism depends directly on the professional responsibilities, content of activity and the ability necessary to have to perform professional duties effectively. An important remark was made by K. Abulkhanova-Slavskaya: "Undeveloped in time communication skills affect the subsequent stages of the life of the individual in the communicative activities as a failure to combine his/her activity with the activity of others. So without mastering communication skills, any activity can't be effective (Abulkhanova-Slavskaya, 1980).

Communication skills should be formed deliberately because as E. Kosylo notes in his studies, spontaneous formation of communication skills often leads to authoritarian behaviors, conflicts, tension and confusion in professional relationships. E. Kosylo defines communication skills as a system of action, social perception possession, adequate usage of means of communication, the ability to transfer the rational and irrational emotional information, the ability to use verbal and non-verbal communication tools, the ability to conduct a dialogue, to transfer knowledge to life situations, etc. (Kosylo, 2003).

Thus, the formation of the communicative skills of future managers of tourism should be targeted and implemented in professional activity at which there is a need to solve professional problems.

Communication skills ensure the efficiency and effectiveness of communication. Communicative activity is a purposeful process of exchanging information with the existence of feedback. It is the basis of professional activity of manager of tourism of the development of interpersonal relationships. Communicative activity is not independent and autonomous, because it is influenced by external (environmental, partners

in communication) and internal (acceptance, awareness of the communicative task) conditions. Communicative activity of tourism manager is usually a motivated interaction in order to:

- obtain, provide, and explain the information necessary for the effective performing of professional duties;
- influence, persuasion, encouragement of a man, a client, a employee to a certain type of interaction;
- meet the needs of people in communication.

Thus, communicative activity of tourism manager carries out in conjunction with a professional and can not be considered separately, respectively, and communication skills will be considered in unity with professional.

Communicative skills of workers differ depending on the professional activity. To find out the communicative skills that manager of tourism should possess for success, let's consider the skills classification offered by prominent scientists. Thus, analysis of the psychological and educational literature has allowed to distinguish different approaches to the classification of communicative skills. One of the first, who singled out communication skills, was A. Leontiev. He defined: volitional qualities, i.e. the ability to control their behavior; quality of attention (observation, flexibility of thinking); skills of social perception; the ability to understand, that's to model adequately the identity of the interlocutor, his mental condition by their appearance; the ability to present himself in communication with interlocutor; the ability to build optimally the speech in psychological terms, i.e., verbal communication skills; the ability of verbal and non-verbal contact (Leontiev, 1979) .

Another classification was given by V. Naumov Author distinguishes generalized communication skills: oriental-evaluated skills, the ability to start conversation, the ability of information exchange, prognostic-regulatory, creative-communicative, the ability of control and self-control, organizational skills. L. Savenkova distinguishes only four groups of skills: the ability to make contact, organizational, communicative, interactive. (Naumov, 1989).

On the basis of given classifications and review of psychological and educational literature we have defined a system of communication skills required by future managers of tourism for successful professional activity. It includes the following groups of skills:

- ✓ *strategic* – ability to plan the talk in order to achieve maximum impact on the interlocutor (the ability to orient quickly and correctly in changing terms of communication, to plan and implement the impact of speech skillfully; the ability to predict the partner's behavior; ability to initiate communication; the ability to establish a business contact);
- ✓ *interactive* – the ability to build relationships with the communicative partners, to achieve effective interaction based on the shared

interests (to show tolerance, empathy; to feel and support feedback in communication, to create an atmosphere of goodwill, mutual understanding, trust; to listen to your partner; to prevent and resolve interpersonal conflicts, to negotiate);

- ✓ *perceptive* – the ability to perceive personal characteristics and behavior of partners in communication adequately, fairly and accurately, understand their motivations and experiences, individual characteristics properly (ability to differentiate non-verbal behavior of the partner, the ability to estimate the behavior of the partner adequately);
- ✓ *lingo-communicative* – the ability to express thoughts and feelings clearly and correctly, to possess lexical richness of language (following linguistic rules, using communication features of speech).

Communicative skills are formed directly in the process of professional interaction and are the result of communication experience between people. The high level of communication skills of tourism manager involves the ability to orient quickly in difficult situations, the ability to get in touch with different people; resolve conflict situations, to show kindness in communication, has a well-developed language skills. Such manager shows initiative both in communication and in work, he can defend his viewpoint and take independent decisions.

So, the level of development of communicative skills influences the effectiveness of the work, the ability to defend their position, establishment of positive relationships with people, creation a warm atmosphere of communication. And at the same time errors in communication cause serious failures in the professional activity. The reason of many conflicts in the tourism industry in many cases is a low level of communicative competence, due to the lack of specific communicative practice and appropriate communicative skills.

Thus, a high level of communication skills is the key to success both in professional activity and in everyday life. They contribute not only to communicative activity, but also enhance the culture of the individual, his perception of others.

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III. Health of the Childrens

School Absenteeism – A Major Risk in Personal Pupils’ Development

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School absenteeism is one of the most important factors that can negatively affect scholar and students' personal evolution. This implies a temporary leave of classes by students, during which they attend places and activities that normally would be carried out at their leisure. School absenteeism is consecutively appearing after running from school, and if it exceeds 80 units can turn into dropout. This study is a part of a larger research from a project entitled School, my chance! co-financed by European Commission through European Social Fund. The objective of this study was represented by identifying students who significantly reduce their number of scholar absence after pedagogical intervention during our project and analyze variables that can influence this. The lot of subjects was represented by 100 students identified with risk of dropout from 5 rural schools in Bihor County, Romania. The research methodology was the statistical analysis and interpretation of the number of school absences recorded in school grade books at the beginning and the end of the educational intervention developed within the project. The research results indicated that after three scholar semesters of project implementation, 60% of participating students have significantly reduced the number of school absences, diminishing their number from an average of 28.59 in 2010 to an average of 10.61 in 2012. Also, in this study we will analyze the factors determining this situation and their impact on student development.

The problem

One of the most complex problems that can affect in a negative way pupils' scholar evolution is represented by school absenteeism. The major risk of pupils' absenteeism is that it can conduct toward scholar dropout, if it overcomes a large limit. In a very short definition, scholar absenteeism means pupils' leaving of learning institution without teachers' permission, for a longer or shorter period. If the number of scholar absences is more than 80 ones per academic year, we can talk about „massive school absenteeism” or „scholar dropout disguise” (Blândul, 2012). Scholar absenteeism could be produced with parents' consent, or, conversely, without their knowledge, which has very serious effects, both in personal and social education (Neamțu, 2003).

The causality of school absenteeism is extremely diverse and includes a number of factors, out of which Mihaela Jigău (1998) mentions the socio-cultural, economic, psychological and pedagogical ones. A transnational study conducted in 2000 and published in 2005 (the YOUNG project, p. 59) shows that the highest rate of school absenteeism was recorded in Denmark (24%), Austria was placed at the middle of the list with 14%, while the lowest values were recorded in Belgium (9%) and in Luxembourg (8%). The least punctual pupils are those from Finland and Sweden, while the Austrians and Germans are the strictest ones about observing the school timetable. Nearly 56% of the Italian pupils skip school with their parents' consent, while Austrian pupils take again a position at the middle of the list. The study also showed that in France school absenteeism increases together with the pupils' age, with values of 2% for those at the age of 13.7 for those at the age of 17 and 9% for those at the age of 19. In Italy, the minimum of compulsory school days is 200, and school attendance is mandatory in percentage of 50-70%. Finally, in England, data for the 2001-2002 school year showed that the minimum of school absenteeism rate was approximately 7.3%, with 5.9% for primary school and 8.7% for secondary school. It is possible, of course, to have differences between official statistics and the real ones (the reasons could be both objective and subjective) and thus question the above figures (Kempes et al., 2005).

Beyond the figures that express in absolute values the rate of school absenteeism, there are two explanatory theories of this phenomenon that are worth mentioning (Kerbs et al., 2007). On the first hand, the traditional school's viewpoint projects the entire "guilt" of early school leaving on the pupil, invoking as possible causes their inadequate behavior, moderate school performance, their psychological state and level of intellectual development, as well as unfavorable socio-economic parameters. According to *Andrea Fabian* (2006:55), the simplest explanatory mechanism starts from a pupil's IQ below the average, poor school performance, associating with pupils that have similar psycho-educational profile, school dropout, as well as delinquency. On the other hand, the second viewpoint is the exact opposite of the first one. It "blames" school for the pupils' failure, considering them "excluded". The main reason seems to be related to the pupil's negative school experiences, against a background of questionable quality educational programmes, unsatisfactory relations with the other educational agents involved, the pupil's intellectual and emotional immaturity, which prevents them from understanding the need to complete their studies and receive a certificate, and so on (Bartollar, 1997). It is interesting to notice that the two theories exclude by no means each other, but, on the contrary, they are complementary and can be found in the majority of schools that face school dropout. The common point of these theories is given by the process of disengagement, regarded as the phenomenon of mutual rejection between school and pupil. Thus, the pupil's intellectual and

emotional interest in school gradually decreases, while on the side of school rejection develops as a result of failure to produce positive educational experiences (Fullerton, 2010).

Trying to solve this complicate problem, University of Oradea and Scholar Inspectorate from Bihor County, Romania, implemented from 1 July 2010 for 2 years a project entitled "*School, My Chance!*", co-financed by the European Social Fund by the Sectorial Operational Programme Human Resources Development 2007-2013. The main objective of this project is to prevent and correct early school pupils leaving in such areas where exist a major risk in this sense, by facilitating them access to quality formal education. The target group of the project is pupils who studying in inferior secondary scholar cycle in schools with classes I-VIII of Avram Iancu, Boge, Carasau, Les, and Șuncuiuș, Bihor County, Romania, their parents and teachers.

One of the main activities of the project was *Implementation of A and B Cognitive Therapy for pupils presenting high risk of early school leaving*. Thus, from the first day of the second semester of scholar year 2010 / 2011 started specific A and B Cognitive activities, after a schedule and and for some specific academic disciplines selected for each school. The program ran from Monday to Thursday, after mandatory classes and academic disciplines covered were: S08 Avram Iancu - English and Mathematics; S08 Boge - Romanian and English; S08 Carasau - Romanian and Mathematics, S08 Les - Romanian and Mathematics; GRI Șuncuiuș - English and History. Overall, the activities involved students' homework for the next day, or to enhance knowledge and skills acquired in the mentioned scholar disciplines. At the beginning, middle and end of the first year of the program, students involved in the target group were evaluated using oral examination, to determine the acquisition of knowledge for each subject. Also, it was monitored the number of absences that was recorded in the scholar grade book for each student from target group, aiming to increase or decrease them, in parallel with the involvement of students in the program. Another important activity was represented by development of students' social skills, because we consider that one of the most important way to convince them to remain in school is to offer them the opportunity to exchange experience with other colleagues who have similar problems and with others as well, that can create the possibility for an effective integration of students with large number of school absences in learning environment. Concrete, this activity included sports games, drawing competition, volunteering activities, ecological ones and so on (Blândul et al., 2010).

The objectives

Starting with previous theoretical considerations and from our implemented project, the main purpose of present research was represented by our intention to identify the level in which implementing of extracurricular activities can contribute at prevention and correction of school absenteeism. Concretely, we intended to analyze the number of students' school absences registered in scholar grade books and, also, the impact of A and B Cognitive Therapy Programme upon students with high risk of scholar dropout' evolution. In this sense, the specific hypothesis of our research was the following one: the implication of students in any extracurricular activities organized by school after compulsory classes will increase their scholar motivation and, also, will reduce the number of absences registered in scholar grade books for them.

Lot of subjects

Lot of subjects was represented by 100 students (N = 100) with risk of early scholar leaving in 5 schools: S08 Avram Iancu and S08 Bogei - with 20 students, S08 Carasau and S08 Les –15 students and GRI Șuncuiuș - 30 students. Students, whose chronological age was between 11 and 14 years old, were 72 girls and 28 boys.

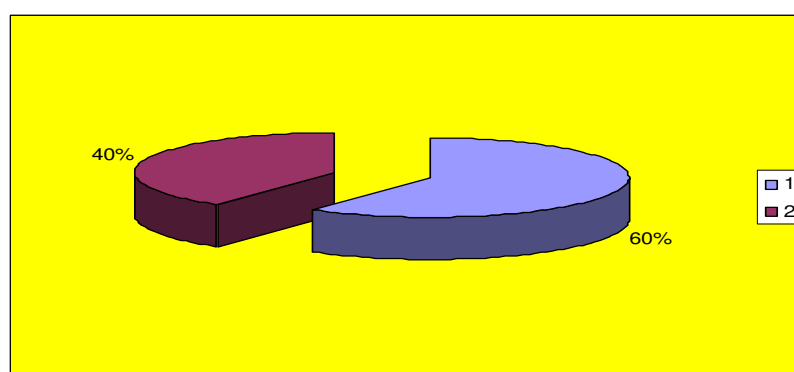
The methodology

The main research methodology was represented by psycho-pedagogical experiment. So, in pre-test, we evaluated the number of pupils' school absences registered in school grade books. This stage took place at the beginning of academic year 2010 / 2011. The specific psycho-pedagogical intervention took place during following 2 years of the project (2010-2012) and supposed the implementation of supplementary classes at any scholar disciplines like: Romanian, Mathematics, English and History. The main content of these lessons was represented by homework, solving exercises and problems, supplementary reading some books, games, competitions, documentary trips, volunteering in local community and so on. In post-test, we evaluated once again the number of pupils' school absences from grade books. The present stage took place twice, first at the end of academic years 2010 / 2011 and second one year later, at the end of the whole project. The quantitative interpretation was consisted by computing total number of school absences, maximum and minimum its values, namely correlation between these obtained values at the beginning, middle and the end of project, using Bravais-Pearson quotient.

The results

A first criterion function of which we evaluated the progress of psycho-pedagogical experiment organized by us during the project was represented by evolution of pupils' school absences registered in scholar grade books. The obtained results show us that, at the end of the project, 60% from pupils who composed our focus-group reduced the number of scholar absences under 20 and do not present any risk of school dropout from this point of view (Picture no. 1).

Picture 1: *Percentage of pupils who significantly reduced their school absences at the end of the project*



Where (1) represent pupils who significantly reduced their school absences and (2) those pupils who do not this thing.

A second interesting observation is about statistical means of school absences values registered by pupils at the beginning, after first year of implementation and at the end of psycho-pedagogical intervention. The obtained data can be seen in Table no 1.

Table 1: *The evolution of pupils' school absenteeism during the psycho-pedagogical intervention*

	<i>Beginning of psycho-pedagogical intervention</i>	<i>Middle of psycho-pedagogical intervention</i>	<i>End of psycho-pedagogical intervention</i>
<i>Statistical mean</i>	28,59	25,65	17,98
<i>Highest value of school absences</i>	89	61	41
<i>Lowest value of school absences</i>	20	20	10

The results are extremely interesting and prove a decreasing of pupils school absenteeism registered in scholar grade books, from viewpoint of its statistical means and its highest / lowest values. So, at the beginning of academic year 2010 / 2011, the pupils who composed our focus-group had a mean of 28,59 school absences, their highest number was 89 and lowest one – 20. At the middle of implementation period for psycho-pedagogical intervention (at the end of academic year 2010 / 2011), the statistic mean of pupils' school absenteeism was 25,65, their extremely values being 61 and 20. Finally, at the end of project, the statistical mean of pupils' scholar absenteeism decrease at 17,98, with it maximum value 41 and minimum one 10. It can be observed a significantly reducing of school absences for pupils from project focus-group, especially in the second part of the intervention. These results prove that pupils' involvement in A and B Cognitive Therapy can obtain positive academic performances, able to determine them to remain in formal educational system.

Finally, the third aspect put in discussion its referrers at statistical correlation between number of pupils' school absences at the beginning, middle and end of our project (Table no. 2). Thus, it was processed Bravais-Pearson quotient between input and middle of project (r_{1-2}), input and output (r_{1-3}) and middle of project and output (r_{2-3}).

Table 2: *Statistical correlation regarding pupils' school absenteeism evolution during the project*

$r_{1-2} = 0,67$	$r_{1-3} = 0,72$	$r_{2-3} = 0,64$
$p < 0,01$	$p < 0,01$	$p < 0,01$

Analysing the results presented in previous table, we can observe that between number of pupils' school absences registered in the most important moments of project was established a strong statistical correlation at threshold of meaning under 0,01. This fact validate the specific hypothesis of our experiment, which means that, by offering support and trust for pupils who temporary pass any difficult moments, they can remain in formal education and, moreover, can obtain positive scholar results.

Discussion

A first issue that can be put in discussion is represented by role of A and B Cognitive Therapy in prevention and correction pupils' school absenteeism. By those activities, we intended to convince pupils to remain in formal educational system as long as necessary, offering them the opportunity to make their homework or to improve their knowledge and skills acquired during compulsory classes. According with the last point, in

our psycho-pedagogical intervention pupils made different vocabulary or mathematic exercises, supplementary read books, play different thematic games, involve in general culture competitions, listen to music, play songs and so on. Those kinds of activities had an important impact, helping pupils to obtain good scholar marks and to modify their attitude regarding education. One of the major problems that are confronting pupils with high school dropout risk is about lack of valorisation for formal education, which can determine them to involve in other extra-scholar activities considered more profitable, especially from economical point of view (Ortan et al., 2012). We consider that, offering support for these kind of pupils and the opportunity to have good academic results, they and their families will be able to change their priorities regarding scholar education, will better understand its special importance in students' personality development and will decide to remain in school until will graduate with diploma the begun scholar cycle.

Another relevant aspect is about the role of non-formal education in prevention and correction of pupils' school absenteeism. In the present project, we implemented some extracurricular activities, which tried to develop pupils' social and communicative skills. In this sense, we could mention: ecological activities in area around schools, different sports, drawing competitions, helping families with social or financial problems, celebration together of some important events from pupils or school' life etc. By its nature, non-formal education has a special role to complete in practice theoretical knowledge acquired by pupils during the formal lessons, contributing, also, at development for a harmonious students' personality (Bradea et al., 2012). By our proposed extracurricular activities, we consider that school could become a pleasant and attractive place where pupils have the opportunity to learn many useful things for their further scholar and social integration. In this way, it would be create a strong motivation of pupils with high scholar dropout risk to remain in formal educational system until graduation with diploma of begun scholar cycle.

A third relevant aspect is about the interdependence between previous mentioned factors, which must act to prevent and correct school absenteeism. To solve social or economical problems that many pupils are confronting is sometimes more important comparing with their education and for this reason; they should temporary leave the school. If the educational offer is attractive and come together with a financial support from community and school, it would be created the good premises for those pupils with such kind of difficulties to reduce their school registered absences in grade books and continue the formal education. But is very important as well, that those extra-educational programmes offered by schools to act in a unitary way, involving at the same level pupils, families, school and the whole local community. Moreover, the last mentioned one should become aware about social benefits of remaining of these pupils in

formal education until they will graduate with diploma the begun scholar cycle.

Conclusion

A first important conclusion is that after our psycho-pedagogical intervention, 60% from pupils who composed the project focus-group significantly reduced fewer than 20 their scholar absences registered in grade books. This means that A and B Cognitive Therapy and extracurricular proposed activities by us had integral accomplish their aim, being created the premises for scholar success of those pupils.

For those mentioned 60 pupils, the statistical average of scholar absences registered in scholar grade books was constantly diminish, from 28,59 at the beginning of project, to 25,65 at middle of the intervention and 17,98 at its final. Moreover, the same decreasing trend was available for maximum and minimum number of pupils' school absences registered in school grade books. The obtained results confirm that involved pupils in support programmes specific for non-formal education can contribute at prevention and correction of school absenteeism.

The obtained data after statistical processing of pupils' school absences evolution validated the specific hypothesis of our experiment. According with it, the involvement of pupils in extracurricular activities can significantly reduce their school absences. Thus, the statistical correlation between number of school registered absences in the main moments of our experiments are relevant at threshold of meaning under 0,01, which confirm the specific hypothesis.

Unfortunately, the obtained results give not any guarantees for pupils staying in school, but only create the premises for this. Therefore, it is very important that all educational agents to act in an interdependent way, being involved pupils, their families, school and the entire community as well. They must be aware that, by remaining pupils in formal education, will depends their evolution from all points of view.

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Comparative Study of the Family Structure of Asthmatic and Panic Disorder Young People

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The dynamic system approach offers a good framework for better understanding the operation of families. However, the member's involvement in the events is hierarchical. The ability to change also has an important role in the life of the family. The damage or lack of this flexibility can lead to symptoms by members. „*The symptom is talking about something... expresses a kind of symbolic meaning*” (Onnis, 1993:10). The child's illness is not simply the manifestation of symptoms, but it is also a solution to some kind of a problem within the structure (Bárdos, 2003). The four-dimension model of coping by Bárdos (2003) gives us a good interpretation of somatization and psychosomatic disorders. Asthma is a classic psychosomatic disorder, while panic disorder is on the border of psychosomatic disorder and somatization problems. In my research I used Gehring's (2010) Family System Test (FAST) to explore the family structure of asthmatic and panic disorder young people in different kinds of situations. In most cases cohesion was the highest in the healthy population, while hierarchy was increased in the case of asthmatic patients. The flexibility of cohesion and hierarchy shows a tendency among the groups. Both factors are inflexible in the asthmatic patients' families. So what conclusions can be drawn from these observations? The stress within the family was embodied in different but related forms by the members and manifested in various symptoms. Patients with asthma can be characterized by inward orientation and repression, while patients with panic disorder can rather be characterized by outward orientation and panic attacks. The typical and ideal family representations show that asthmatics patients can balance conflicts within the family, while people with panic disorder increasingly tried to get their freedom (detachment). Adolescence is the first period when panic attacks can occur for the first time in a person's life, and this is the stage in life when the young person has to be independent. However, the poor conditions and learned helplessness versus developing (and distorted) cognition cannot support the individual to cope with his/her buried issues and the desire for liberation. Thus the crisis can lead only to a desperate attack. However, further investigation is necessary in order to interpret the results in a broader context, by means of which a more effective intervention can be planned.

Human behaviours were interpreted by science through linear process models over a long period. However, over time it became clear that

dynamic system-based models seem to offer a better framework to understand a number of phenomena. The systems thinking is useful in the field of short-term (e.g. dyadic interactions) and long-term (e.g. changes of interactional patterns) processes occurring in the life of the family (Geert & Lichtwarck-Aschoff, 2005), and it has therapeutic implications, too (Minuchin, Rosman & Baker, 1995; Bárdos, 2003). After all, just as the change of the part affects the whole and thus specific internal dynamics is manifested between the parents and the children (Dallos & Procter, 2001; Bárdos, 2003), the internal states of the organism also result from the dynamics of the particular situation (Szokolszky, 1998). Thus the system-oriented perspective of the family and its holistic approach provide us with the opportunity to understand the members' mental states on a deeper level (Watzlawick, Beavin & Jackson, 2009).

Development and change are important characteristics of open systems. Off-balanced systems seek to re-organize as soon as possible, or to create a more modern design of the pattern, which facilitates better adaptation to the changed environment (Minuchin, 1985). However, the paths of the stages of the individual life cycles and the development of the family cross each other in a very complex way. While well-functioning families undergo certain changes during their life, dysfunctional families are characterized by the deficit of dynamic transformation, the problem of conflict management, the uncertainty of the boundaries between the subsystems, furthermore the overprotection of the child(ren) is also observable (Minuchin, 1985). *Gehring and Marti* (1993) compared family structure representations of psychiatric outpatients and people with healthy status with each other. They found a lower level of coherence and a higher level of hierarchy in the clinical respondents' group.

Both the intra- and interpersonal processes can be manifested in symptoms in the form of "words" with a symbolic or metaphoric meaning, expressed through the language of the body (Onnis, 2008; Csabai & Molnár, 2009). After all, interpersonal communication is indispensable among people (Buda, 1994). The family has a significant role – especially in childhood – in the development of the symptoms/syndrome (Bárdos, 2003).

Asthma (asthma bronchiale), a widespread disease in our days – the disorder which is in the focus of my research and which can be characterized by heavy breathing – is one of the "classic seven" known psychosomatic disorders. Asthma is not a single disease, it is rather said to be the final stage of different psychical and somatic factors. Its common symptom with panic disorder is heavy breathing. It is remarkable that the most frequent psychiatric disorder among patients with asthma is panic disorder with 6.5 to 24% prevalence (Peski-Oosterbaan et al., 1996; Szendi, 2009).

In the opinion of *Bárdos* (2003), the individual's coping strategies have a great importance in the development of the disease. Stress is a major factor in asthma and panic disorder, too. However, while asthma is a pure

psychosomatic disorder, panic disorder is partly regarded as a somatic disorder, which is clearly shown by Bárdos's (2003) four-dimension coping model. So while asthma is a more inwardly oriented, suppression-based disease, panic disorder is rather an outwardly oriented disease with the elements of awareness.

But what about the family structure and its perception? Is it different for people with psychosomatic (asthma) and somatic disorders (panic disorder)? I am interested in exploring the factors which are obviously in close interaction with each other and influence whether asthma turns into panic disorder over time. In my study I would like to explore the new aspects of these disorders and extend our existing knowledge with the comparison of the mental representations of the family structures between the two groups of patients.

Hypotheses (1,2)

On the basis of similar earlier studies it was assumed that the members of the groups of patients consider their families more incoherent and more hierarchical than healthy individuals. Furthermore, these families were presumed to be more inflexible with unbalanced family structures (H1), and I also assumed that the representations of the patients with panic disorder would be rather unbalanced compared with either the other patient group or the healthy population (H2).

Methods

Participants

Twelve young people with asthma (without familial clustering of asthma) (age: 19.5 to 28 years, M: 21.625 SD: 2.2475; 1 man/11 women) and twelve young people with panic disorder (and asthmatic history) (age: 19.5 to 26 years, M: 21.917 SD: 1.9521; 12 women) participated in the experimental groups. The criterion of inclusion in the study was the previous medical diagnosis. In the control group there were 57 young people (age: 17.5 to 29 years, M: 21.474 SD: 1.6351; 3 men/ 54 women). The criterion of inclusion in the study was the healthy status. The participants are currently students in higher education and volunteered for the study.

Material

In my research I used *Gehring's* (2010) Family System Test (FAST), which allows the qualitative and quantitative exploration of key concepts of family dynamics such as cohesion and hierarchical relationships. The available test material contains test forms and supplementary forms for the study director.

The respondent represents his/her family members on a rectangular board, which is divided into a 9X9 coordinate system. There are three represented situations: (1) a typical (2) an ideal and (3) a conflict one. The participants first use natural coloured wooden figures (6 male and 6 female figures) to symbolize the family members and the cohesion between them.

Then the family members' power and influence can be represented with 1-2-3-level height extension discs. The respondent puts these discs under the wooden figures which have already been put on the board.

Finally, as a subtest, the family members' personal attributes are expressed by changing the natural coloured wooden figures for orange, blue or pink characters (Fig. 1, 2).

In the presented study FAST was used by the persons in an individual form. First of all, participants represented their family structures in the three situations (typical, ideal, conflict) (in about 5 to 15 minutes) and later short, semi-structured interviews (in about 40 to 60 minutes) were made for the better understanding of the subjective meaning of the represented configurations (Gehring, 2010).

Figure 1: *Test materials: 6-6 natural coloured wooden figures, 6-6-6 height extension discs and 2-2-2 colour wooden figures*



Figure 2: An example for a possible family structure representation



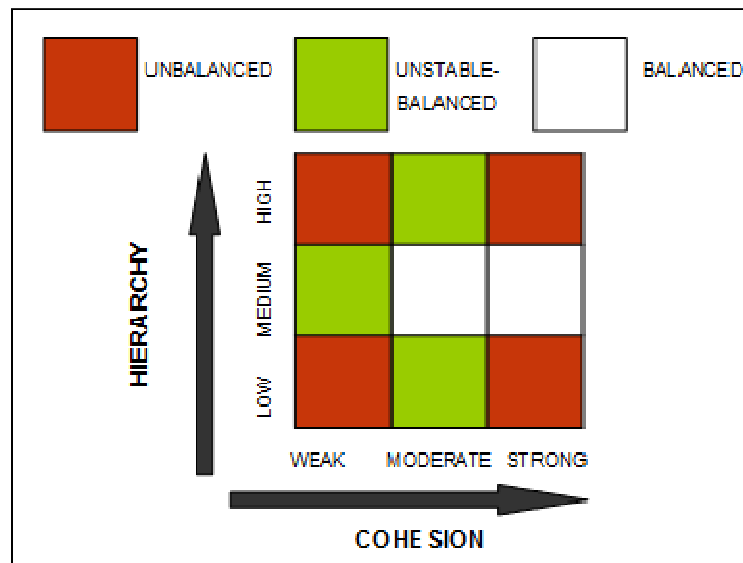
Procedure and scoring

The strength of the cohesion (weak, moderate, strong) was determined with the projection of a 3X3 square on the board. If the imaginary square covered all the figures, the cohesion was considered to be strong. When some figure(s) stood on a neighbouring field(s), the cohesion was only moderate, while figures outside the imaginary square meant weak cohesion.

The hierarchy could be also categorized into three types: (1) low (2) medium and (3) high. If the difference between the height of the highest child-figure and lowest parent-figure was at least 3 discs, the hierarchy was said to be high. When the difference between these figures was 2 discs, the hierarchy was medium. If the figures stood on the same level or the difference between them was only one disc, the hierarchy was said to be low.

The dimensions of cohesion and hierarchy also identified three types of potentially existing family structures: (1) balanced (2) unstable-balanced and (3) unbalanced (Fig. 3).

Figure 3: Types of the family structures (Gehring, 2010:37)



In the interviews the participants' answers gave me the opportunity to obtain more information about their family representations. Accordingly, the stability of the typical situation can be low or high and the difference between the previous and currently represented family structures can be small or large. We can say that the family structure is stable if the displayed conditions have been specific for at least six months, and the difference in the family structures is low if there is only one family member at most whose position is different from the previous one (Gehring, 2010).

The family representation of the ideal situation can be routine or special, and its prevalence can be rare (maximum 5 times per year) or frequent (at least 6 times per year). If this ideal situation has not occurred yet, it has to be indicated in a separate part of the test form, in the comment section (Gehring, 2010).

The conflict situation can be typified by the family members who are the participants of the represented occasion: (1) parents (2) parent-child (3) siblings and (4) other. The situation can also be routine (minor misunderstandings) or special (greater problems such as stealing, taking drugs). Furthermore, the frequency of the conflict situation can be rare or higher. The prevalence of the conflict situation is rare if it occurs no more than once a month and frequent if there is a higher rate of these cases (Gehring, 2010).

Results

Quantitative analysis

The distribution of the mean values, based on the strength of the cohesion, was similar among the groups. It was true at all levels of the system and typical for all the three situations. Nevertheless, there were two cases when I found a statistical tendency for difference among the groups: (1) at the level of the family system, in the typical situation ($\chi^2=9.062$, $df=4$, $p=0.060$) and (2) at the level of the siblings' subsystem, in the ideal situation ($\chi^2=12.541$, $df=6$, $p=0.051$). Thus, the cohesion at the level of the family system, in the typical situation, was perceived stronger in the healthy population, and people with asthma represented stronger relationship with their sibling(s) in the ideal situation. The appearance of the coalition between the generations showed a similar distribution among the subsamples.

The comparison of the distribution of the values based on the levels of the hierarchy showed significant differences at the level of the family system, in the ideal situation ($\chi^2= 12.678$, $df=6$, $p=0.048$) (Fig. 4). According to this, stronger/(more) optimal hierarchy was represented by patients with panic disorder. The Chi-Square Test did not show a significant difference in the distribution concerning the reversal of the hierarchy among the groups.

The mean values of the flexibility of the cohesion and hierarchy among the subsamples were compared with One-Way ANOVA. A significant difference was found only at the level of the siblings' subsystem, based on the difference between the strength of the cohesion in the typical and the ideal situations ($F(2)=3.482$, 3.523 , $p=0.037$) (Fig. 5). Under this arrangement the asthmatic patients „idealized” a closer contact with their sibling(s) than the healthy population, while people with panic disorder detected weaker cohesion with their brother(s) or sister(s) than their healthy or asthmatic peers.

Figure 4: *The hierarchy at the level of the family system in the ideal situation*

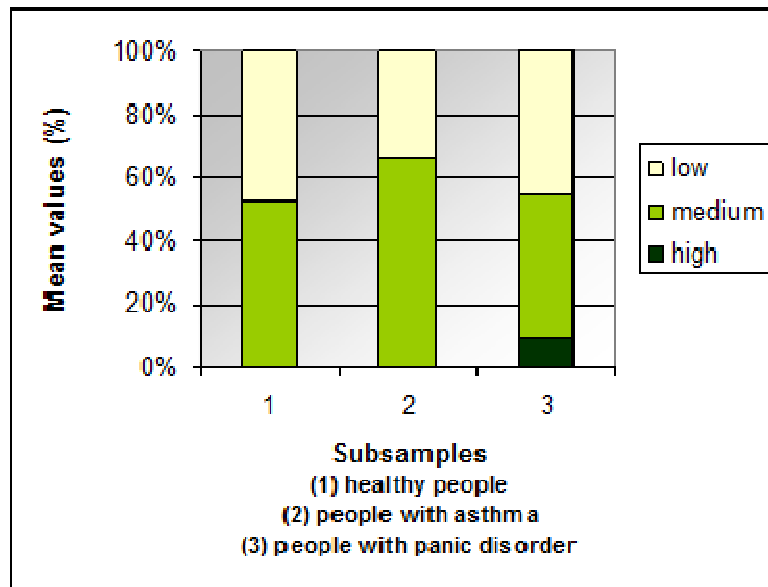
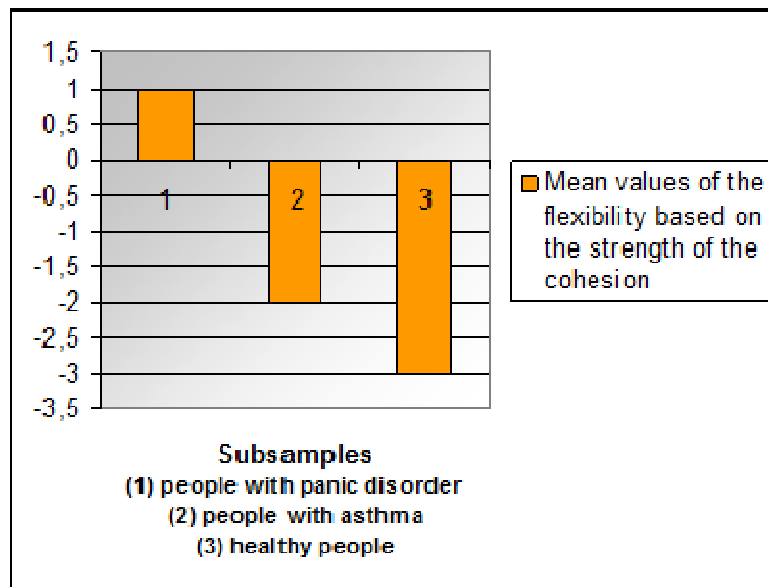


Figure 5: *The flexibility of cohesion at the level of the siblings' subsystem, based on the difference between the strength of the cohesion in the typical and the ideal situations*



Although the flexibility of the cohesion (the difference in the mean values of the cohesion found in the typical and the ideal situations) was not significant, there were statistical tendencies for difference – in absolute terms – at the level of the family system ($F(2)=3.114, 2.662, p=0.050$) and the parents' subsystem ($F(2)=2.842, 3.212, p=0.066$). According to the

results, asthmatic patients represented closer relationships in their representations for the ideal situation than healthy young people or patients with asthma. The represented cohesion between the parents, in the ideal situation, was the strongest in the healthy population, less strong in the group of the asthmatic patients and the weakest in the group of the young people living with panic disorder compared with the typical situation.

The distribution of the types of the family structures was similar in the relation of the three subsamples, although a statistical tendency for difference among the groups can be observed with the Chi-Square Test. The patterns of the relationships of the healthy population can be seen in the following charts at the levels of the (sub)systems in the three situations (Fig. 6, 7, 8).

Figure 6: Family structures in the group of the healthy population

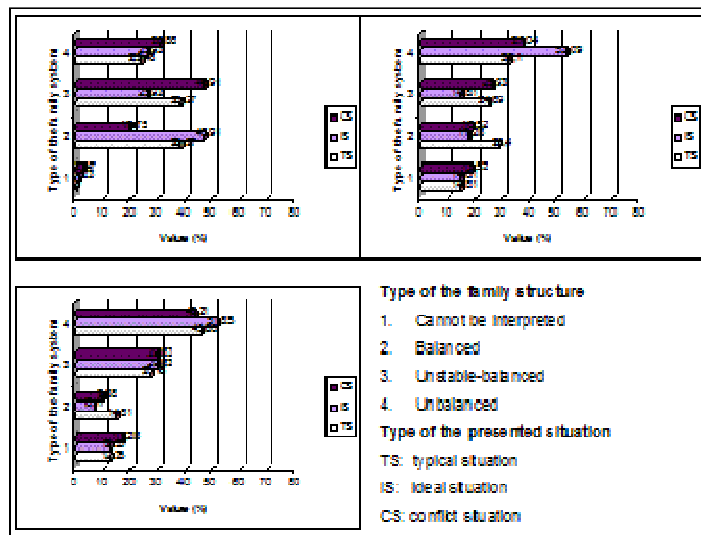


Figure 7: Family structures in the group of the asthmatic patients

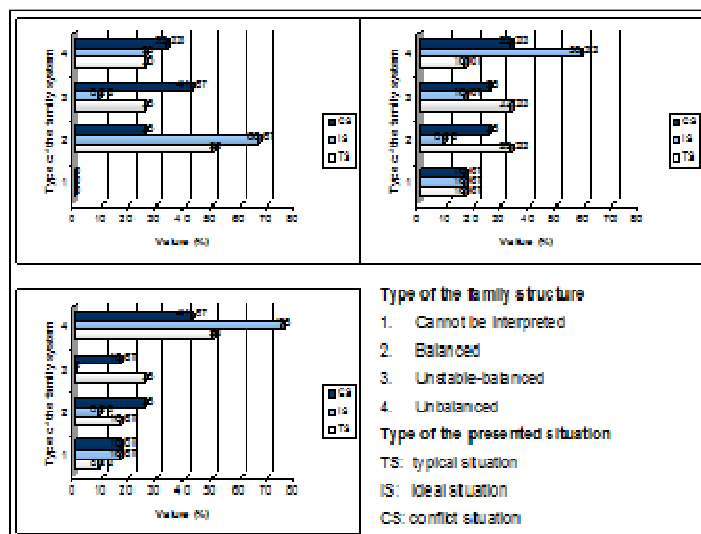
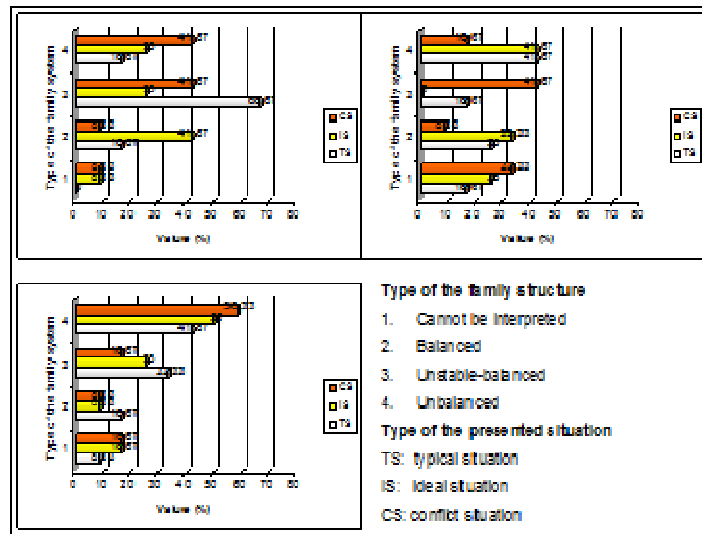


Figure 8: Family structures in the group of the people with panic disorder



The family structure was represented as the most balanced at the level of the family system in all the three situations in the group of the young people with asthma. The distribution of the balanced family structure at the level of the parents' subsystem, in the typical situation, did not show a significant difference among the groups, but while this type of family structure was rather preferred in the group of the people with panic disorder in the ideal situation, patients with asthma detected it in the conflict situation. Although at the level of the siblings' subsystem the balanced family structure did not show a significant difference among the groups either, a higher rate of this structure could be observed in the ideal and conflict situations in the group of the asthmatic patients.

The unstable-balanced family structure was dominant at the level of the family system, in the typical situation in the group of the people with panic disorder, while it was overrepresented in the ideal and conflict situations in the group of the healthy population. A higher rate of this family structure was found at the level of the parents' subsystem, in the typical and the ideal situations in the asthmatic group and in the conflict situation in the group of the people with panic disorder. This family structure was preferred at the level of the siblings' subsystem, in the typical situation in the group of the young adults with panic disorder, while healthy people rather represented an unstable-balanced family structure in the ideal and the conflict situations.

The unbalanced family structure was preferred at the level of the family system, in the typical situation in the group of young people with asthma, in the ideal situation in the group of the healthy population and in the conflict situation in the group of the people with panic disorder. At the level of the parents' subsystem this family structure showed a higher rate in the typical situation in the group of the patients with panic disorder, in the ideal situation in the group of asthmatic patients and in the conflict situation in

the group of the healthy people. People with asthma represented their relationship with their sibling(s) unbalanced in the typical and the ideal situations, while patients with panic disorder preferred this type of structure in the conflict situation.

Qualitative analysis

Finally, none of the variables related to the qualitative analysis showed a significant difference in the distribution among the three groups. Thus the stability of the typical situation and the difference between the previous and current family structures were similar in the groups as well as the type and the frequency of the ideal and conflict situations and the rate of the changes in the representations done by the members of the different groups. It is remarkable that people with panic disorder slightly preferred their father's figure when locating it as compared to the members of the other groups.

Discussion

The aim of my study was to explore the representations of the family structure in the groups of people with asthma and panic disorder. I compared these results with the indicators of the healthy population. The perceived degree of the coherence of the families showed a statistical tendency for difference among the three groups. People with panic disorder rather expressed their need for a stronger hierarchy among the family members, which can be the sign of the need for clarifying family roles and designation of place in the family system, which can lead to the individuals' better adaptation. Twinning seemed to be particularly significant for asthmatic patients and these young people were the most likely to represent their family structures as balanced, compared to the groups of the people with panic disorder and healthy status, too. However, this behaviour was rather the manifestation of the rigid family structure, which is one of the characteristics of the dysfunctional family systems. So my first hypothesis was partly verified.

In accordance with my second hypothesis, people with panic disorder did not idealize their families because unstable-balanced family structures could also appear among their representations, which can be the expression of the more conscious and critical perception of the surrounding world. Therefore the displayed family representations are consistent with Bárdos's (2003) coping model, because patients with asthma seem to be more inclined to conceal the problems of the family system and try to show an ideal picture of their family for the outside world. By contrast, people with panic disorder – during the process of becoming an adult – try to find the way of their individual prosperity with increasing awareness, and these persons seem to have a slightly higher

level of ability to conflict with reality. The desire of leaving/breaking out of the family system may also be expressed in this patient group. However, the recognition is not associated with successful coping, so the attempt for separation ends in a panic attack/disorder.

However, further studies are necessary for the understanding and better interpretation of the correlations among the factors.

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The Examination of Early Stuttering by Speech and Language Therapist

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With the increase of equal opportunities and the integration approach it has become necessary to get to know the children who have speech impediment more, and to define the language profile. According to a speech pathological definition, stuttering is a communication disorder. Stuttering has an influence on the social behavior and activity, too. The environment is an important factor in the development and maintenance of the symptoms. It can intensify or reduce the social inclusion, the participation of the people with communication disabilities. Several investigations deal with the symptoms, therapies of stuttering, but the early stuttering, the development of the disorder is the subject of just few studies in Hungary. We do not possess a suitable testing method and tool for getting to know the characteristics of communication, but it may be important to construct a more effective therapeutic programme, to facilitate the social integration of the stuttering people.

The study has two aims, first to summarize the current Hungarian and foreign investigations in the stuttering subject. On the other hand we would like to present the result of our „pilot” research, in which our aim was to get to know the stutterer child-mother interaction in Hungary.

The definitions of stuttering

This traditional definitions interpret the stuttering narrowly, highlighting the speech symptoms, which are perceived by the partner during the communication with a stutterer person. However, the symptoms in the speech is one characteristic in the multifactorial syndrome, which appears because of specific predisposition and complex effects (Vékássy, 1987). The definitions of stuttering can be divided into two parts (Lajos, 2009). One of it describes the symptoms which are perceived by the partners, but they don't deal with the etiology, the symptomatic background. It is called symptomatic definitions. Other part of the definitions tries to give an explanation to the background of the stuttering by describing the causative factors. According to a causal definition, stuttering is specified by the temperament, it is a speech neurosis, which is triggered by psychological factors. It affects the personality in many ways (Mérei & Bíró Vincze, 1991:6).

The Hungarian legislation regards the stutterer children and pupils to be persons with speech disabilities and their care is a part of the competence of speech and language therapy. The receptive and expressive speech/language system is organized atypically, the symptoms are more different and the social inclusion of these pupils is more difficult. Especially the speech disabilities are not the consequences of hearing impairment; it may be associated with the disabilities of cognitive skills and behavior, and verbal learning disabilities in the area of reading/writing/calculation in the school age children.

In Hungary the special need education is determined by a special expert team using a diagnostic protocol in a complex measurement. The above symptoms may have different levels of severity, from mild, formal difference to the incomprehensible speech. Because of the communicational disorders, several secondary psychic and behavioral disorders may develop in pupils with severe speech disabilities. The above symptoms may “trigger learning disabilities” (32/2012. [X. 8.] EMMI rendelet).

Experts use a lot of notions in the speech and language therapy in Hungary: speech disorder, pupils with speech disabilities, speech-impaired people. They appear because of different impairment and it can impair the interaction of person–environment. According to Luchsinger’s allocation, stuttering is a type of rhythm disorder, and separates stuttering and cluttering (Kovács Fehér, 2001:68).

The science of speech therapy interprets stuttering as a complex phenomenon, where the symptoms extend to the all characteristics of the speech, to speech, reading, writing and nonverbal forms of social interaction.

The symptoms are varied, the spasms occur in the respiration, utterance and in the fluency of the speech. The harmony of the language is broken up by the repetitions of sound, syllable, blocks, specific rhythms, irregular breaks. The environment has a determinative effect in the prevention and development (Kovács Fehér, 2001:71).

According to another definition, “the stuttering is a communication disorder, it is a difficulty, which prohibits the connections with another people” (Balás Schmidt, 2004:55).

The prevalence of stuttering

A general opinion is that the prevalence of stuttering is 1% in the population. Stuttering appears in 88% before the age of 7-8 (Lajos, 2009). The earliest age at which stuttering is reported is 18 months, with the beginning of grammatical development. The age at which most onset of stuttering is reported is 2-5 years, when children acquire syntax (Bloodstein, 2006). The correct definition is very difficult, because the

occurrence is varied in the different ages, and there is spontaneously recovery is frequent.

According to Craig et al. (2002) the prevalence of stuttering (the stuttering people at a given point in time) appears to be somewhat lower than 1%. According to Yairi (2005) the actual incidence (how many people have ever stuttered in their life) is approximately 5%, and 2.5% of children under age 5 stutter.

1300 stuturer children are registered by speech and language therapist in Hungary according to the educational statistics. This data is the number of those children who take part in therapy by speech and language therapist (from preschool children to ninth grade student).

Out of the 1300 stuturer children 650 children is preschool aged, but in fact probably there are more stuturer children in Hungary. Another interesting data is that just the 10% of the treated children are regarded as asymptomatic by experts after the therapy (Statisztikai tájékoztató. Oktatási Évkönyvek, 2002-2012). These results are not satisfactory, but we know the cause of stuttering is multifactorial. The data of statistics justify the new researches about stuttering.

The etiology and reasons

Stuttering is a multifactorial phenomenon, many fields of science focus on the development of it. We don't know the reasons of stuttering exactly, but the experts and the investigators examine the development and its process in many ways. The reasons are often different and controversial. I present from these investigations and reasons in this part of the study. According to the hypothesis of the investigators there are a lot of different factors in the background of the stuttering. One part of it is associated with the skills of the stuturer person, language abilities, genetic factors, another hypothesis emphasize the environment factors. We present such theories, investigations in this study which deal with the language factor (1) and the environment (family) factor (2), in particular the mother's communications.

Bloodstein interprets stuttering as a type of language difficulty, and more factors contribute to the development (Bloodstein, 2002). The delay of language development, the articulation problems, lisping, reading difficulties, cluttering, vocal disorders predispose the children for the spasm and blocks in the fluency of speech. A strong communication pressure presses the children, who have a disposition for stuttering. The parents have high, unrealistic expectations and often compare the stuturer child to the brother or sister who can speak correctly. The disposition factors and the communication pressure together create the stuttering.

According to Yairi there is association between stuttering and several linguistic variables, but so far no clear causal relations have been

established, and there is no consensus on their precise role or contributions as risk factors for the onset of stuttering and its persistence or the influence on the recovery. They have found that near the stuttering onset the child falls within normal range, often well above normal (Yairi, 2006). No consensus have been reached concerning advanced language skills as a risk factor in early childhood stuttering.

In Hungary Lajos and Lőrík examined the hypothesis that stuttering occurs because of the difficulty of the expressive language. The study highlights that results, that there are no different in the linguistic performance of the stutterer and control, fluent school children, but in the preschool children effectively may irregularities. They gathered data from the passive and active vocabulary, morphologic skills, the verbal memory, the metalinguistic knowledge of the stutterer and fluent preschool children. It is revealed in this study that there are no different between the two groups, furthermore the resorts of the stutterer children are better in some tasks (sentence construal, auditory discrimination) (Lajos & Lőrík, 2002).

The personality and attitude of parents have an influence on the children during the interaction. The relation of the parents to the child and his speech difficulties may reflect in the interaction and in the conversation with the children. If she accepts him/her she looks at her son and listens to him patiently. If she can't accept him she doesn't look at her son, interrupts and corrects the speech impatiently. Mérei and Bíró Vincze emphasize the reactions of environment to the nonfluent speech in the development of stuttering. According to their theory before the parents diagnose the child's stuttering, the number of the blocks can decrease or increase depending on the reactions of environment. The process is the following: the parents conclude based on the objective and subjective signs that the child stutters. Then they listen continuously how he can speech. The child feels this strong attention, and he knows that there is a trouble in his speech. He hesitates because of this feeling, and he will listen more to his speech. The disturbance in fluency increases and this situation will supports that the diagnosis of stuttering is correct. The child listens to his speech more and more and tries to improve it, accepts the diagnosis of the parents (Mérei & Bíró Vincze, 1991).

Güven and Sar investigated the communication patterns of the Turkish mother and her stuttering child. The control was 20 normally fluent mother-child pair. The mother-child pairs took part in a structured game to facilitate spontaneous speech. The factors of evaluations were: verbal praise and verbal acknowledgement were estimated as positive statements, while the commands, questions, critical statement, no response and interruption were as negative statements. Interaction times and total amount of words were also measured. According to the results there was a significant difference between both mother and children groups only in the total words used. No significant differences were found for any other communication styles (Güven & Sar, 2003).

According to Szabó's *dialogue disturb theory*, the parents of the stutterer children, because of different reasons, have less communication skills. The children's communicational competence can't develop properly in this relationship. They don't know when they may speak and when may not, they can't listen to the partner in the communication, thus can't adapt to him. The child tries to draw attention to himself, speaks loudly, struggles, and it constructs the stuttering. He obtains the attention of family with this diagnosis (Szabó, 1989).

The reasons that are supposed to be in the background of stuttering determine the speech therapist's diagnostic and therapeutic approach, the applied methods and the methods of treatment.

Our research

The aim of our research is to get to know the examination of the stutterer children used by the speech and language therapists in the Hungarian practice with document analysis. We can determine clearer therapeutic direction if we get to know deeper the communication between the stutterer child and his environment and the therapy can be effective. We look for the answer to the question in our search, what kind of instrument is used by the speech and language therapist to get to know the stutterer child-mother interaction.

The work of the speech and language therapist is complex, it consists of prevention, diagnostics and therapy (Kovács Fehér, 2001). The speech and language therapeutic tests are needed to the diagnosis and to choose the most effective therapy. The process of the diagnosis is the following (Kovács Fehér, 2004):

- 1) Screening, applications, anamnesis, observation of the behavior, personality, spontaneous speech.
- 2) Hypothesis.
- 3) Test for the different skills.
- 4) Test for the speech and language.
- 5) The analysis of the mother-child interaction.
- 6) Data analysis. Evaluation. Diagnosis, Prognosis. Determination of the therapeutic direction.

The examination's method, equipment is determined by the child age, the type of the disorder and the severity. The first session may be the motivation of the person and the family, from it we can conclude to the prognosis. The anamnesis is an important part of the diagnostic work, usually it is a structural report with the mother. The anamnesis helps to get to know the reasons, the attenuating and aggravating circumstances. The characteristics of the behavior and the communication is carried out through observation.

The level of the speech and language development is examined with special tests and methods (PPL, Pebody test). Then the speech and language therapist plans the therapy which is based to the data of the anamnesis, observations and the results of the test is determined. The experts use a special questionnaire to recognize the stuttering child-mother interaction in the therapeutic practice. The speech and language therapist signs the characteristics is observed is 3 items in the form:

- a) The child from the parent: separable/no separable /need physical contact.
- b) The parent's behavior: comforting / indifferent / impatient.
- c) The relationship with the child: overprotective/negative/take into account the child's need (Juhász, 2007:39).

After it there are 20 questions on the form: *How does the child initiate interaction and with who? Does he need a physical contact? What type of action does he do after an instruction?* The expert has to summarize the observations in the form. This method gives useful information about the interaction. On the other hand specific knowledge and experience is needed to the sign of the observations. Maybe the method is subjective, and it doesn't provide data to the plan of the therapy and the process diagnostic.

Conclusion

In this study we presented some researches which research the reason of stuttering. One part of the research emphasizes the language skills in the background, another part call the attention to the environment factor, the mother's communication. The speech and language therapist use a special questionnaire to examine the mother-child interaction in the Hungarian practice. This instrument doesn't reveal deeply the characteristics of the interaction. On the other hand we may obtain differentiated picture from the development and the fixing of the stuttering with used the stutterer child-mother interaction. Thus the effect of the therapy may increase. This study draws attention to the continuous reform of the diagnostic and therapeutic methods of the stuttering.

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Health Education in Teacher Education and Professional Development

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The article presents arguments justifying the need for the expansion of education and training programmes for teachers to include issues aimed at both preparing teachers for the implementation of health education in schools, as well as active development of cognitive resources and subjective psychosocial competencies (life skills) in order to maintain and improve health. Teachers, required to act as health promoters at school, should be prepared not only to fulfil educational tasks for their students, but also to preserve and improve their own health. Long-term coping with psychosocial and psychophysical workload and accompanying stress leads to many negative health consequences which are extremely serious in the teaching profession. Many-year research on stress in the teaching profession provides a solid basis for the assertion that it belongs to the group of "high-stress professions." Despite the existence of legislation requiring employers to prevent and mitigate stress hazards in the work environment, the practical solution to this problem cannot be considered sufficient. Systemic solutions are needed to ensure such an organization of the working conditions that would minimize the risk of stress and allow teachers to obtain social support and adequate psychopedagogical assistance. The main postulate of the authors is to equip candidates for the profession and practicing teachers with the basic knowledge, skills and competencies necessary for the proper care for not only pupils' health, but also for their own health, enabling them at the same time to act as promoters of health for their students and for themselves.

Introductory remarks

The field of health education has been clearly noticed and validated in recent decades. Furthermore, the basic concepts defining the scope of health education content, such as health, body, and health awareness, are today granted the status of educational categories (Błajet, 2006; Gaweł, 2011).

The main category of these considerations is "health education", which is grounded in the semantic diversity of the concepts of "upbringing" and "education" (Rubacha, 2003:25-27). This category includes both intentional and unconscious, institutional and individual impact, as well as

"centrifugal" activities expressed with an individual's own activity to develop and form individual health potential and become a conscious creator of one's own health (Gaweł, 2008).

The subject of this discussion is health education of teachers. The preliminary assumption is that health education of teachers can be explained with two kinds of reasons. On the one hand, its mission is to prepare teachers to act as health promoters. On the other hand, its tasks are related to the development of individual health care resources in teachers themselves. It seems to be particularly important to have these resources in the face of specific workload which is the source of factors potentially hazardous to the health of persons engaged in the teaching profession.

Health as a matter of lifelong education

The contemporary image of health education is influenced by recent changes in the human perception of the world, health and the related quality of life, the sources of which are believed to be in the sphere of philosophy, social activities, and the evolution of the concept of education for anti-authoritarian and democratic approach (Krawański, 2003:120-127). These include, first of all, changes in social consciousness expressed with a replacement of biomedical thinking about health based on the Cartesian philosophy with a holistic and systems approach. In this approach, health is recognized as an integral, systematically organized whole covering physical, mental, social and spiritual dimensions, and remains in the inter-relationship with the surrounding biosphere, culture, physical environment and the social context of life. It is generally accepted that the level of health is determined mainly by human lifestyle and health behaviours which are significantly affected by personal determinants and sociocultural factors. The concept of salutogenesis coined by Aaron Antonovsky (1979) is the exemplification of such an approach to health. Its assumptions justify seeking ways to optimize these specific determinants of health through educational practices.

The preamble to the World Health Organization defines health as a sense of human physical and psychosocial well-being. Consequently, the relationship between these values and quality of life has turned up to be very important in discourses on health and welfare. The "quality of life" category has both objective and subjective aspects. The objective quality of life is made up of a set of conditions that determine the physical, material and socio-cultural environment of human life and activities, and on the other hand, biological and psychological properties, including, inter alia, health status and functional capacity. The subjective quality of life is, however, regarded as a cognitive and emotional category which involves the assessment and evaluation of objective conditions of life and personal values, including good physical condition (such as mobility, efficiency),

social contacts, positive emotions, stress resistance and evaluation of personal development and activity (Heszen & Søk, 2007:56-57). From this perspective, health is both an important part of the context of human activity undertaken in various areas of everyday life – family, career, education, leisure and recreation, etc., as well as a subjective indicator of one's attitude towards life as a whole. The reference to the salutogenic thesis about the possibility of obtaining health by an individual in every stage of their life through the development and multiplication of their health resources is a vital prerequisite for admitting the importance of lifelong health education. In this context, individual and community health resources should be considered an essential part of educational practice.

Reference literature presents health resources as subjective and environmental features and capabilities that are involved in achieving health by stimulating adaptive and defensive functions in response to demands of everyday life, especially in stressful interactions (Hobfoll, 1989). At the same time, it is stressed that resources which affect coping with stress may be regarded as resources affecting human health in general (Søk, 2003:18). Among the subjective health resources, high importance is attributed to cognitive-affective and competency elements which include knowledge, health beliefs, valuing health, personality traits (including a sense of coherence), and psychosocial competencies, also known as life skills.

In relation to knowledge as a resource for health, the emphasis is put on the importance of the so-called "health literacy", the improvement of which is considered the basic public health challenge in the twenty-first century. Namely, it is assumed that reaching the highest levels of "health literacy", expressed with the ability to critically evaluate health information coming from different sources, and to take control of a variety of life events, leads to the empowerment of men to define their needs, the satisfaction of which enables physical and psychosocial well-being (Nutbeam, 2000).

A major role is attributed to psychosocial competencies which include a complex collection of various skills used in everyday social situations, adaptation and coping processes. The classification proposed by UNICEF (Wojnarowska, 2002) stresses interpersonal skills (e.g. empathy, active listening, verbal and non-verbal communication, assertiveness, conflict resolution), building self-awareness (self-esteem, building positive self-image, identification of one's own strengths and weaknesses), building personal system of values, making decisions, coping with and managing stress. It is generally accepted that the level of these competencies conditions the efficiency with which an individual copes with a variety of life tasks, whereas the absence or deficits thereof are treated in terms of health risk factors. From the pedagogical point of view, particular attention should be paid to the fact that the level of psychosocial competencies of an individual is not an invariable concomitant of the person's psychosocial functioning, because they can be generated, developed and improved in

every phase of human life. In this context, focusing health education, including that addressed to an adult, on the development of life skills is one of the fundamental challenges of contemporary education.

The literature indicates that the specificity of health education as a type of knowledge makes it an "autonomous science" (Meighan, 1993:224). Attention is paid at the same time to the specificity of health education that results from differences between scientific knowledge about health, its determinants and risks, and colloquial knowledge on this subject. Among the parameters determining the uniqueness of health education are, among other things: a common belief about the usefulness of health knowledge in human life, regardless of social roles one performs; an almost universal belief of all people about their own competencies to introduce others to the problems of health culture; the need to verify, or even deny the potential of health knowledge of educated people, as well as the fact that educated people introduce health-related habits and behaviours established in the socialization process to the educational process (Szewczyk, 2000:190-200). In this context, the paradigm of democratic principles in the implementation of health education should be considered in educational practice in order to achieve educational objectives. This approach assumes that the condition for an individual to make independent choices about their health is to acquire skills necessary to identify the causes of their individual health problems and develop competencies to take action and cope with them in order to improve and strengthen health (Jensen, 1997).

Teacher as a health promoter

Next to the family, the school is the environment most responsible for the implementation and effects of health education of children and adolescents (Wojnarowska, 2007:227).

From the international perspective, systemic solutions for the implementation of health education in schools are quite diverse. In Poland, its status and place in school education is determined by the general education core curriculum. Poland has adopted a systemic solution for the implementation of health education in schools which combines the assumptions of the "dispersed" model (health-related content included in many school subjects) with the "core-subject" model, and thus it complies with the related recommendations of the World Health Organization (WHO, 2003). This solution certainly requires involvement of all teachers in health education, regardless of the type of school subject they teach and their qualifications.

The obligation to implement health education in schools was introduced in Poland in the curriculum in 1997 (Official Journal of the Ministry of Education, 1997, No. 5, item. 23), but its place in the teaching programmes was defined as late as in 1999 through the introduction of

cross-curriculum educational path "pro-health education" (Regulation of the Minister of National Education of 15 February 1999 on the general education core curriculum. Journal of Laws 1999, No. 14, item 129). The current core curriculum, changing the status and place of health education in schools, came into force in 2009 (Regulation of the Minister of National Education of 23 December 2008 on the core curriculum for preschool and general education in particular types of schools. Journal of Laws 2009, No. 4, pos. 17).

Even a prominent representative of the Polish Enlightenment, Grzegorz Piramowicz saw teachers in the role of health culture promoters, expecting them to be authentic models of a healthy lifestyle for their pupils (Piramowicz, 1958:113). Currently, it is emphasized that each teacher is also an educator, health promoter and propagator of health culture (Drabik, 2009:15). Competencies necessary to implement health education can therefore be regarded as a professional duty.

The concept of competencies is sometimes understood as the powers of specific groups, persons or institutions, or as a disposition of an individual achieved by learning specific skills (Czerepaniak-Walczak, 2001:68-69). It is also pointed out that knowledge and skills in a particular field do not exhaust the concept, as it should also be associated with personal experiences, beliefs, attitudes and values (Perzycka, 2002:211). Developing teachers' competencies to carry out health education should therefore be included in both professional training programmes, as well as the concept of postgraduate teacher education programmes. It is worth noting that investing in personal, social and professional development of teachers is considered an important part of school policy supporting health education (Woynarowska & Sokołowska, 2012).

Health risks associated with the teaching profession

The teaching profession belongs to the group of helping professions which involve working in a direct and specific contact with another human being. Jacek Pyżalski writes that the professional role of helping professions is, among other things, to control personal emotions and adjust them to the specific needs of a recipient (Pyżalski, 2008:230). Each of the professions is associated with specific workload which is the source of factors potentially hazardous to their providers.

Workload occurring in the teaching profession has been quite extensively described in the reference literature. In the classification presented in his "Report on the ETUCE survey on teachers' work-related stress" (2007), Henrik Billehøj mentions: workload/working intensity, role overload, increased class size per teacher, unacceptable pupils' behavior, bad school management/lack of support from management, insufficient funding for the school/lack of resources, bad social climate/atmosphere in the school, low social status of teachers, self-defeating beliefs, fear of

conflict, lack of parental support, poor pay, evaluation apprehension, lack of social support from colleagues, lack of job stability and security and lack of career development.

The above-mentioned types of workload can be included to the category of psychosocial workload. It must be noted, however, that teacher's work is inextricably linked to the physical strain. The most obvious workload of this kind are the over-exploitation of the speech organs, especially the respiratory tract and mucous membrane of the glottis and epiglottis, as well as the need to fulfil professional responsibilities in areas with high levels of noise (Śliwińska-Kowalska, 2004:7).

Long-term coping with teachers' work-related stress has specific consequences in different aspects of life and often leads to loss of health. When explaining the regularities, researchers often and eagerly use the theoretical construct that describes a "high degree of emotional tension" caused by bearing a variety of workload – stress theory. Hence, the above-mentioned types of workload related to the professional role of a teacher are sometimes referred to as "stressors".

Psychological literature presents three basic approaches to the definition of stress: it is described in terms of events or changes occurring in the environment, the assessment of which determines the level at which stress is experienced (Terelak, 2008:57.); as a set of non-specific physiological reactions emerging in response to the occurring changes (Selye, 1977:25); as a specific transaction between an individual and the environment (Folkman & Lazarus, 1980).

According to the third approach, currently dominant among psychological approaches to stress, a transaction between an individual and the world constitutes psychological stress for an individual when they evaluate it as threatening, harmful, or challenging because of their subjective sense of well-being or as exceeding their capacity to cope with it.

Health effects of exposure to stress in the teaching profession

According to the definition of age presented in the Encyclopaedia of Education XXI (2006:1053), the concept of teachers' stress is part of school stress, while the term is defined as a condition caused by each new experience or difficult situation due to factors (stressors) associated with the nature of school work, its terms and methods of organization. In the light of the theory of stress, it can be assumed that the mere presence of certain workload does not determine the occurrence of adverse health consequences. Stress occurs as a result of an individual assessment of "stressors" and the related responses of an individual. Thus, health

problems are not so much direct consequences of certain workload, but rather consequences of stress, conceived as a way of coping with the workload.

Among the most important consequences of "teachers' stress" referred to in the reference literature are both somatic health problems and symptoms of mental health disorders. The first group of disorders includes, among other things, sleeping problems/insomnia, cardiovascular disease, high blood pressure, stomach ulcers and/or duodenal ulcers and kidney problems (Pyżalski, 2010; Belcastro & Hays, 1984). Among symptom of psychosocial disorders are: burnout, interpersonal conflicts and depression (Belcastro & Hays, 1984; Pyżalski, 2010). Data presented by *Daniel and Szabo* (1993) show that almost half of teachers show signs of neurosis, 40% consulted a psychiatrist, and 13% were considering suicide.

According to R. Kretschmann who refers to research conducted by Leuschner and Schirmer on the morbidity of teachers in the former East Germany (the sample size was 270 000 people!), the relative risk of neurosis in male teachers is six times higher than that of other members of society (...) (Kretschmann, 2004, pp. 16-17). Numerous studies have shown that the percentage of teachers' early retirement on health grounds is much higher than in other groups of public sector workers (*ibid.*, p. 16). This phenomenon is recognized as a serious problem, and the European Commission is also concerned about that (Supporting the Teaching Professions for Better Learning Outcomes, 2012:15).

The reference literature also presents a number of other workload factors affecting the high level of stress in the teaching profession and the resulting negative health consequences, proving a disturbingly wide range of health risks associated with teachers' work.

Legislation against workload in the teaching profession

European legislation is committed to ensuring that all employees have working conditions conducive not only to effective work performance, but also to protection of their own health. A significant achievement in the area of legal regulations in this field is The European Framework Directive on Health and Safety at Work, recognized as an important milestone in the shift from prescriptive to more process-based forms of health and safety regulation in the EU (Regulating Health and Safety Management in the European Union, 2002). Although this document does not include explicit directives on the protection of helping profession employees from strong, long-term stress, it provides principles which include such implicit recommendations (Billehøj, 2007:15). Many European countries have been successfully implementing workplace stress prevention programmes since the 1990s (Merecz 2010:28). These experiences can be a basis for the development of teachers' stress prevention programmes.

Polish labour law contains provisions requiring employers to protect the health of workers by monitoring and eliminating hazards in the working environment, including the risk of psychosocial stressors (*Journal of Laws of 1996, No. 24, and Journal of Laws of 1997, No. 129*). The category of psychosocial harm, however, has not been included in the Labour Code. The Teacher's Charter also explicitly excludes the phenomenon of occupational stress. Among the effects of the implementation of six operational objectives, the National Health Programme for 2007-2015, Section 8, points to the reduction of stressors in the workplace and the negative health effects caused by trauma, mobbing and aggression in the workplace. However, no comprehensive studies showing the status of the nationwide implementation of the programme have been conducted so far.

Educational regulations currently applicable in Poland do not contain extensive systemic solutions to such problems. Teachers can certainly use public health service, but – as shown by J. Pyżalski – they cannot count on assistance or organized support in the workplace (Pyżalski 2008:235).

Conclusion

Each teacher's professional role involves health education of their pupils, in order to develop their competencies to make decisions and choices conducive to their health and harmonious development. On the other hand, there is abundant empirical evidence which suggests that the need to have such competencies is particularly strong in teachers themselves. The teaching profession is among "high-stress professions" (Śliwińska-Kowalska, 2004), the consequences of which can threaten the physical and psychosocial well-being of an individual. Research on the psychological mechanisms and determinants of health in the teaching profession clearly show that a key role in maintaining teachers' health is performed by their subjective cognitive resources. Namely, they determine both, the perception and assessment of stressful situations, as well as the selection of adequate, effective strategies for coping with stress, i.e. the level of health (Wrona-Polańska, 2003:222).

In the context of the findings, it can be reasonably argued that health education of teachers is a prerequisite for the acquisition of teaching and educational competencies in the area of health education, as well as the development of their health resources necessary to effectively cope with teachers' stress. The main postulate of the authors is, therefore, to expand education and training programmes for teachers to include content aimed at both preparing teachers for the implementation of health education in schools, and active development of cognitive resources and subjective psychosocial competencies (life skills) in order to maintain and improve health.

More detailed discussion of the conditions and ways of developing these resources among candidates for the teaching profession and

practicing teachers is beyond the scope of this article, and so it will be the subject of a separate publication.

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The Relation between the Healthy Way of Life and the Media at the Ages of 10-14

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The objective of my research is to find out the relation between the electronic media and the education for healthy lifestyle, that is, how strongly television can influence the frequency of doing sports, and with the help of it how more students could be involved in doing sports regularly.

Today healthy way of life, healthy eating and sport are the main focuses of the media. Media has a significant role of giving people the right information how to form their self-image, to support the process which results in active way of life becoming a natural part of young people's life. Each medium can reach it with different means, but in all cases it is important to pass the information to much wider layers of the target group.

In my questionnaire survey (N=568) I focused on the sport- and viewing habits and their correlations in the junior sections of five schools of the Northern Plain region. The students were chosen by a random sampling procedure. Among the respondents there is a high rate of the ones who do some kind of healthy lifestyle-related activities at least three times a week.

After doing the factor analysis, it turned out that they think that due to exercise they will be much healthier. Based on my research I can state that there is a significant difference between the parents' and children's sports activities. Among the regular sportsmen, the boys do sports twice as much time as the girls do. The ones doing sports are more significantly attracted by sports programmes than their inactive mates and they also visit more healthy lifestyle- and sport- related websites on the internet. Sports activity is mainly influenced by the effects of personal interest, friends, family and the media.

Introduction

Sport stands in the centre of attention from many aspects since it contributes to healthy way of life. In spite of it, it can be found that the Hungarians rarely do sports. Among the leisure time activities many choose to watch television instead of exercise. Therefore today we can meet more and more children suffering from health problems (Keresztes, 2005).

Today sport is an outstanding focus of the media. Media has a significant role of giving people the right information how to form their right self-image, to support the process resulting in the active way of life that becomes a natural part of young people's life.

Physical exercise and Healthy way of life

The elements of healthy way of life are healthy eating and sport (Pikó & Bak, 2005). In my study I deal with sport in what follows. Several researches have already proved that from the point of view of healthy physical development how important the regular physical activity is, and it has a number of beneficial physiological and psychological effects. The studies made with some secondary school students of Szeged show that the physically active youngsters are self-confident, more future-oriented (Pluhár, Keresztes & Pikó, 2003).

Sports Habits in Hungary

The definition of the term 'sport' gives the conceptual frame of this sub-chapter, I regard such a definition competent that also serves the basis of my empirical research.

In my empirical research the respondents regarded regular sports in healthy lifestyle as active exercise within organized ranges beyond the physical education lessons at schools (everyday P.E.).

By analyzing the data of the journal *Ifjúság* 2012 it can be found that the Hungarian youngsters are rather satisfied with their general state of health (73%). It is followed by the satisfaction with their appearance (59%), the level of fitness (52%). It is an important fact that while 81% of the sportsmen are satisfied with their health, so are only 69% of the inactive people. The difference shows what an important role healthy lifestyle and regular exercise may have. In case of the genders girls/women are more critical in connection with their level of fitness than the boys/men. In 2000, 33% of the young people claimed that they do regular sports beyond the compulsory P.E lessons. By 2004 a positive 8% rise can be experienced, but by 2008 there is a 3% fall, and by 2012 this tendency reduced again by 3%. At the same time the rate of inactive people has increased (64%), and unfortunately, regular exercise has not been fashionable recently among the 15-29-year-old people. Considering the genders, we can state that boys/men do sports more than girls/women, in 2012 the rate of the former was 43% and that of the latter was 27%. Among the most important reasons of doing regular exercise 61% chose the answer 'to be fit', it was followed by the answer 'to be healthy' which was chosen by every other youngster. 25% of the youngsters regard 'good company' as another

important reason. Less important reasons are 'to lose weight' or 'for their parents' proposal' (Magyar Ifjúság..., 2012).

The relation between sport and school

Physical education, sport and health belong together, complete one another. Besides the family, the school seems to be the most appropriate place for health education because here the whole youth can be found and in this sensitive period they are the most receptive to acquire knowledge (Telegdi, 2011).

The demand for life-long sport needs to be formed in school years, education for health can be established at school. (Bognár, 2009).

When studying sports at school, it is worth looking at the types of the most popular sports and the reasons or influencing factors for choosing them. In Neulinger's research (2007) riding a bike got the first place (36%), it is followed by football by 32%, then swimming by 27%. Trzaskoma-Bicsérdy (2007) studied primary school students doing sports competitively. They found that most of them play football (32,7%).

In Ács, Pongrác and Rétsági's (2011) study it can be read that when forming and strengthening the dimensions of personality in adolescence, social communities: family, sports circles, sport associations, the media have the most important role. Based on the studies done in year 8 (2008, 2009) they found that boys do more sports beyond the P.E lessons than girls. And they also found that the parents' sports past significantly determines their children's willingness to start doing sports, that is, those children do sports more frequently whose parents used to do sports. Pikó and Keresztes (2007) did a research to study the youngsters' sports habits and it showed that the classmates and friends play the most important role in it.

The electronic media

Today there are several other free time alternatives for the young, which are the competitions of sport (Bicsérdy, 2002).

According to the report of „Magyar Ifjúság 2012” youngsters spend their free time after their duties either at home or at their friend's both at weekends and on weekdays, on the sports field only 4% of them on weekdays, and 5% of them at weekends. Their free time activities have a great variety. While in 2008 the youngsters' free time was ruled by television in 65-68%, in 2012 it was 49-49% both on weekdays and at weekends. Using the computer and the internet became the most important activities. Watching television was followed by listening to music, reading and playing video games (Magyar Ifjúság..., 2012).

It can be seen that among the free time activities media has a great significance, since in case of young people at the ages of 15-19 in 2004 watching television took 143 minutes on weekdays, at weekends it took 235 minutes. In 2008 the same indexes decreased to 107 and 181 minutes, but the remaining time was spent using the computer and the internet so the power of the media has not decreased (Magyar Ifjúság..., 2012).

In my study media refers to the printed press, radio, television and internet in the narrow sense. On the other hand I focus exclusively on electronic media including television and internet.

Even in early childhood sports events and sportsmen who children watch on television influence their decision-making on what sports to choose. It is worth looking at the rate of enrolment after the summer Olympics. Participating in a sport as a child can be a primary factor of the supporting loyalty as an adult. Passion towards sport on television determines the decision-making and preference of millions of people, the way they spend their free time, the products they consume, the words and phrases they use, the way they create an image about themselves, and the way they interact with others (Deninger, 2012).

It would be more important to involve media considerably in education for healthy lifestyle. Television is the number one 'enemy' of physical activity, by broadcasting free time sports activities more often, and by popularizing the different health-protecting campaigns the willingness to do sports could be increased.

It would be particularly important among the young, where the media seems to have been one of the most important socializing agent recently, its model role is unquestionable (Gál, 2008).

Empirical Research

The aim of the empirical research is to discover the relation between the healthy way of life and the media in primary school education.

Description of the Sample, the methods of collecting data

In the sample I had 588 students, out of them 568 could give relevant answers. The respondents were primary school students from years 5, 6 and 7 in a primary school of Nyíregyháza, Nyírtelek, Tiszavasvári, Újfehértó, and primary school students from years 4 and 6 in a primary school of Debrecen, students between the ages of 10-14, 321 boys (54,6%) and 267 girls (45,4%). 37,2% of the respondents do healthy lifestyle-related activities at least three times a week. The rate of the ones doing sports at least twice a week is 59,6%. 48,5% of the boys do sports at least three times a week, but this rate in case of girls is only 26,6%.

Considering the genders there is a significant difference in the category of the regular sportmen/women, because 31,5% of the girls and 68,5% of the boys do sports in such a regular way.

The survey was made in Februar-March of 2013. The questionnaires were filled in anonymously. Close-type of questions can be found in the questionnaire. The own-made questionnaire contained 23 questions.

Hypothesis

1. I assumed that there is a significant difference between the parents' and students' sports activities.
2. When studying the influencing factors of choosing a type of sport, the effects of parents and the media can be rather felt.
3. Based on these I supposed that there may be a significant difference in connection with the tune-in of sports programmes between the students doing sports regularly and the inactive students in the sample.

Results of the Research

In my research first I examined the students' choices of sports, frequency of doing sports, and the influencing factors. The dominance of football also mentioned in the technical literature can be seen when choosing a sport. Considering the types of sports football rockets (28,7 %), it is followed by dancing (18,2 %) and gymnastics (16,3 %). Basketball (13,6%), handball (12,4 %) and volleyball (11,9 %) also belong to the leading groups.

In the following researches I analyzed whether the parents' sports habits may influence their children's frequency of doing sports or not. The obtained results show that in case of children where the father never does any sports, 40,3% of the children do not do any sports either, and among his children only 9,7% do sports regularly (three times a week). If the father does sports regularly, 50,9% of the children do sports at least three times a week, and only 17,6% of them do not do any sports at all. This result showed a significant difference between the two groups.

Considering the mother's sports habits if the mother never does any sports, 21,3% of the students do not do any sports either, and the other 46,8% do it only once or twice a week. 59,6% of the children of the mothers doing sports regularly, 60,5% of the children of the mothers doing sports more frequently, do sports at least three times a week. The correlation between the sports activities of parents and children can be examined with a Chi-Square test which is significant in case of both parents (Pearson Chi-Square_{father}=0,000 és Pearson Chi-Square_{mother} = 0,047), that is the parents' sports habits influence their children's frequency of doing sports. My first hypothesis was proved.

Table 1: *The rank average of the factors influencing the choice of a sport*

	parent	teacher	friend	per- sonal interest	health reasons	free of charge	can be done at school	repu- tation	inc- fluence of TV
once a week	200,97	202,08	196,95	194,46	186,70	217,70	206,20	182,31	192,22
twice a week	240,70	221,15	204,97	194,68	225,54	223,07	192,70	185,49	197,02
three times a week	219,20	222,99	238,78	239,39	217,44	207,94	229,23	232,83	237,53
p =	0,051	0,284	0,006	0,000	0,022	0,496	0,018	0,000	0,001

Next I examined with the Kruskal-Wallis test (on a five-degree scale where 1 means 'did not influence at all', 5 means 'completely influenced') what or who influences children's decision-making about choosing a sport (Table 1). The results of other researches (I mentioned them in the theoretical part) show that the parents' sports habits have a great impact on their children's sports activities, which did not show a significant difference in my research. Interestingly, according to the children's own account it is the friends, personal interest, health reasons, the fact that it can be done at school, or 'because we are world famous' and the television that may influence their decision-making. The sports activity of the ones who do sports at least three times a week is mainly motivated by the personal interest, the friends and the electronic media, and the influencing power of these shows a significant difference in case of the mates doing sports less. I had every reason to assume that personal interest can depend on others' influence but the data did not show it. The second hypothesis was only partly proved, since the effect of television appears significantly, but the parents' influence does not show any significant difference in connection with the children's frequency of doing sports.

After doing the factor analysis it can also be found that based on the frequency of doing sports the children's attitudes towards healthy way of life are different. In case of Question 12 of the questionnaire when they had to agree or disagree with the statements connected to healthy way of life it can be stated that the ones doing sports regularly think that due to exercise they will be healthier.

When studying the third hypothesis I analyzed the students' media and internet-using habits. First I examined the students' habits of watching television. There was not a significant difference in connection with ordinary television watching between the students who do sports regularly and the inactive ones. But the same study in case of boys and girls showed a difference, since it is 65% of the boys who spend more than three hours a week watching Tv and more than 50% of the boys spend more than two hours a day in front of the screen.

Considering the popularity of television programmes when the students had to indicate the popularity of the television programmes on a five-degree scale, I got different results when taking the children's frequency of doing sports into consideration (Table 2).

Table 2: *The frequency of doing sports and the popularity of television programmes (average)*

	cartoon	film	series	quiz show	SPORT	cooking	nature	animation
1	3,24	4,35	3,54	3,03	2,88	2,17	3,82	3,66
2	3,08	4,58	4,00	2,92	3,15	2,28	3,61	3,53
3	2,91	4,64	3,68	3,11	3,92	1,98	3,54	3,54
p =	0,029	0,003	0,044	-	0,000	-	-	-

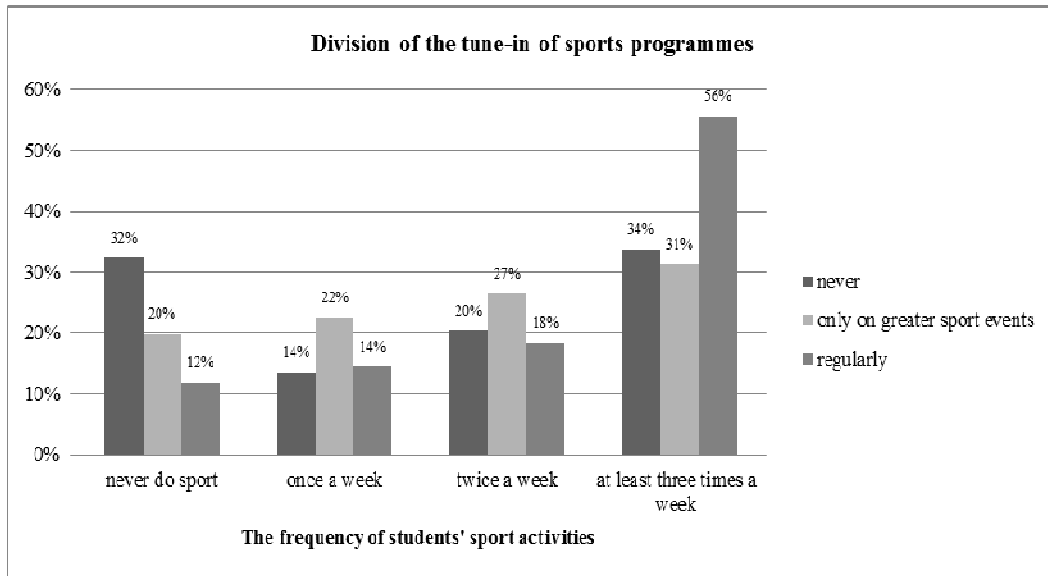
1: never do sports, 2: do sports once or twice a week, 3: do sports three times a week

The data obtained from the Kruskal-Wallis test show that the film as the most preferable television programme in all of the three categories has the highest rate. Considering preferences, however, sport is put on the second place by the ones doing sports at least three times a week, and on the fifth or seventh place by the others. This difference (cartoon, film, series, sport) showed a significant value from the point of view of the frequency of doing sports.

After studying the popularity of the sports programmes, I tried to find out how often the different sports programmes are watched by the students. In case of the tune-in of the sports programmes I also experienced a significant difference considering the frequency of doing sports (Chart 1). 74% of the students who regularly watch sports events on television do sports at least twice a week. But there was not a significant difference considering the frequency of doing sports between the division of the viewers who only watch the greater sports events.

When comparing boys and girls, 71% of the girls watch only the greater sports events on television, 38% of the boys regularly watch sports events and further 48% when there is a bigger event. The difference between the genders showed a significant difference in this case, too ($p=0,001$).

Chart 1: *The frequency of the tune-in of the sports programmes in respect of the students' sports habits*



Next I examined the students' internet using habits. I can find that difference in case of the frequency of doing sports could be experienced only at the frequency of internet using at weekends. 71% of the children doing sports regularly spend more than 2 hours using the internet at weekends and 48% of them on weekdays, but only 55% of the inactive children at weekends and 40% of them on weekdays. It can be stated that the internet using activity of the children doing sports regularly is more intensive than their inactive mates ($p=0,065$).

Question 21 of my questionnaire wanted to know how often the respondents in the sample visited healthy lifestyle-related websites. In a small rate only 27,8% of them read healthy lifestyle-related websites. But 60,3% of the ones searching for such websites do sports at least three times a week. This result shows a significant ($p=0,000$) value, too.

It can be found that the ones doing sports more significantly like watching sports programmes and healthy lifestyle –related websites, the ones never doing any sports do not watch them with pleasure, therefore my third hypothesis was proved.

Conclusion

In the theoretical part of my study with the help of more results of research I found that Hungarian young people do sports very little despite the fact that exercise has several beneficial effects. Therefore it would be extremely important for the young to do sports actively, and to popularize it through the media, too, since its influencing power has already been proved.

In the empirical part of my study I studied first the sports habits. The parents' frequency of doing sports showed a significant correlation with that of the students, that is, the students whose parents do sports regularly also exercise more regularly. I assumed that the parental effect would have an impact on the type of sport their children choose. The sports activity of the ones doing sports at least three times a week is rather motivated by their personal interest, friends, and the effect of television, the parents' influence cannot be shown. Thus my second hypothesis was just partly proved, since my empirical results only confirmed the effect of the television.

I studied the presence of the electronic media in case of the sample students, since its influencing power could be seen when the children chose a type of sport.

Based on my results it can be found that the ones doing sports are more attracted to sports programmes (on television, and also the internet) than their inactive mates. Considering the tune-in of sports programmes the students doing sports regularly watch sports programmes significantly more often than their less active mates who rather prefer films, documentaries and series. The ones doing sports at least three times a week also feel like visiting healthy lifestyle-related websites.

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Theoretical and Practical Relations of Drug Preventive Work in a Student Hostel

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Theoretical background

Introduction

Drug prevention and education for healthy lifestyle are closely related topics. It is not possible to carry out drug preventive activities without referring to health promotion. However, the following question may occur: how far can a teacher extend his/her scope of authority in this field?

The children of drug-taking and/or alcoholic parents, addiction evolved in embryonic age, learning disability, etc. all belong to the extremely high-risk group.

According to the WHO (World Health Organization), drug means all the natural and artificial substances which change the mental and psychic state of mind after taken into human body, and affect mood, consciousness, behaviour, and result in stupor and intoxicated state.

Drug prevention is essential for all the educational institutions during the pedagogic work. This investigation is aimed at the drug preventive activity in a student hostel.

Background in terms of the law

In the 1990s it was necessary to set up a committee to handle drug problems, this is why the Coordinating Committee of Drug Matters (KKB) was founded in 1998 with the approval of Parliament. Both the establishment of a national anti-drug strategy and the continuous monitoring of its implementation can be found among the tasks of this committee (Benkő & Demetrovics, 2001:10). The National Drug Strategy had been worked out by 2000 which has been constantly changed since then in order to be adjusted to the actual phenomena. The fact that both the Health Promotion Department of National Public Health and Medical Officer's Service (ÁNTSZ) and the police take part in drug prevention, shows the importance of the problem. Furthermore, there are teacher trainings and postgraduate trainings as well on this subject. Besides, it is important to mention www.droginfo.hu website which is run by the Ministry of Social Affairs and Labour and on which you can reach a lot of useful and actual information. You can also read here that a specialist book has

been published entitled '*Safer society, keeping community*' and subtitled '*A national strategy for handling drug problems 2010-2018*'. This book is about drug prevention and effective methods. Three types of the prevention are known:

- 1) Primary prevention: it should happen before the problem occurs, it helps the prevention. A student hostel should have the same role.
- 2) Secondary prevention: it incorporates healing.
- 3) Tertiary prevention: it is the rehabilitation of the patient (Strategy of Drug Affairs..., 2005).

The National Drug Strategy strengthens the role of the educational institutions in the preventive work. Accordingly, external experts are also taken into the strategy in order to make it more effective. Students from the age of 15 to 17 (first-, second-, third-year students) are mentioned as the extremely high-risk age group. Between 2013 and 2020, the reinforcement of the following aims and development directions are emphasized:

- 1) Health promotion, drug prevention,
- 2) Treatment, care,
- 3) Supply reduction.

The role of the basic programs concerning student hostels in drug prevention

Collegiate education is an important part of the public educational institution system, this is why the national intention concerning drug prevention are investigated in two basic documents.

National Core Curriculum (NAT). In the core curriculum, published on June 4, 2012, education for physical and mental health is displayed as a priority field. 'Educators should motivate and help young people with the prevention of harmful habits and becoming addicted' (National Core..., 2012).

The National Core Curriculum (NAT) urges the transmission of useful knowledge and activities in connection with the students' physical and mental health. In the 6th point of '*Man and Nature*' educational field, within the article entitled '*Health and knowledge of man*' the harmful effects of alcohol and drug consumption are mentioned for the first-, second-, third-, and fourth-year students (from the age of 15 and 18) (National Core..., 2012).

National Program for Collegiate Education (KNOAP). The 46/2001. (XII. 22.) OM decree regulates the theoretical and practical information about collegiate education. One of the main tasks of collegiate education is health preservation, so the mentioned topic is displayed in the point 2.2.5., in the article entitled '*Healthy lifestyle, environmental behaviour by encouraging*'. 'Students acquire knowledge, practical skills, habits which

help them with maintaining their physical and mental health and refraining from harmful habits’.

Drug preventive activity of the journal entitled Student Hostel

This journal, which may help student hostels with their drug preventive work, has published a lot of information and professional articles since 1990. It is available in approximately 400 secondary schools, this means in more than 90% of the student hostels. This newspaper is published monthly. The aim of the document analysis is to find the answer for how many times and to what extent collegiate drug prevention was mentioned in the journal. The published journals between 1998 and 2011 are available on the official website of Collegiate Association, so it is easy to review how often any articles were published on drug prevention.

Table 1: *The frequency of occurrence of drug prevention in the journal „Kollégium”*

Drug prevention in the journal entitled 'Kollégium'		
Year	Month	Topic/Content
1998	I.	Health as a value – Municipal Student Hostel, Szolnok
	V.	Healthier together – within Phare Programme
	VI.	Hunyadi János Secondary Student Hostel – Healthier together
1999	III.	Students' Page – It is not worth trying out – article on the types and effects of drugs
	V.	Book review - Kurdics Mihály: Drugs are nearby
2000	III.	Book review - Kurdics Mihály: Drugs are nearby
	V.	Health in the student hostel - Bocsor István Secondary Student Hostel
	VII.	Drug risks and Values' study – Municipal Student Hostel, Szolnok
2001	IX.	Survey on youth for the youth
	XI.	Drug prevention day - Dózsa György Secondary Student Hostel, Cegléd
2002	II.	That's how we do it – Interactive anti-drug travelling exhibition, Székesfehérvár
2004	X.	Dr. Barna Viktor – National survey on student hostels, part 1
	XI.	Dr. Barna Viktor - National survey on student hostels, part 2
2005	I.-II.	Dr. Barna Viktor - National survey on student hostels, part 3
	IX.	Development of the culture of collegiate pedagogic methods – Healthy lifestyle advices: Prevention
2006	XI.	Mental days in Kossuth - Kossuth Zsuzsanna Secondary Student Hostel for Girls, Békéscsaba
2007	IX.	Review on moving in - Kurdics Mihály's lecture on drugs - Dózsa Gy. Vocational Student Hostel, Kalocsa
	XI.	Health Education Days – Secondary Sports Student Hostel, Debrecen

2008	XI.-XII.	The role of student hostels in reducing violence in society
2009	I.	Pleyerné Lobogós Judit-Vopaleczky György – Child protection in the secondary student hostels of the capital
	IV.	Health Education Weeks in Kossuth Zsuzsanna Secondary Student Hostel for Girls, Győr
	X.-XI.	Health promotion in Hunyadi János Student Hostel, Kalocsa – lecture
2010	IV.	For your health – lectures
	V.	Strategic planning based on collegiate education on the basis of competence – contacting drug ambulances
	VI.	Mental hygiene weeks – Student Hostel, Tiszaújváros - lecture
	XI.-XII.	Dr. Hoffmann Rózsa's letter to educators – emphasizes the importance of collegiate education, as well as drug prevention
2011	VIII.-IX.	Freshers' camp in student hostels – Freshers arrived – lecture on drug prevention

The result of the investigation shows that the number of articles on drug preventive possibilities have increased in the journal as the number of drug problems have increased. This fact is particularly related to the years 2009 and 2010. The year 2003 is an exception because I have not found any articles on this topic (Table No. 1).

The articles in the table above are mostly reports of various student hostels on healthy lifestyle programs in which drug prevention is also mentioned. These preventions mostly consist of lectures held by specialists and only a few reports inform us specifically of drug preventive programs lasting several days. The surveys have also been published in some of the articles since 2001, as well as methodological recommendations for prevention, book reviews and possibilities for postgraduate training for teachers. From the articles I have read in the journal, the conclusion can be drawn that with a few exceptions, student hostels still prefer traditional preventions combined with lectures and only some of them organize programs lasting several days on behalf of health and prevention.

Presentation of the empirical part of the research

The aim of the research

The aim of the research is to explore whether 14-17 years old young people today have knowledge about drugs, their effects, furthermore whether they have ever used any legal or illegal drugs and if it is so whether they use them regularly and whether they are aware of the dangers of addiction and the consequences. In connection with collegiate education it is important to investigate what kind of preventive work is needed and whether young people get sufficient help in resisting drugs.

The research was made in co-operation with Miss Judit Gecsei collegiate educator.

Hypotheses

Half of the investigated secondary students in their 1st, 2nd and 3rd year have already used some kind of drugs. The students who have tried legal or illegal drugs, have disorganised family background. Young people obtain insufficient knowledge and information about drug problems.

Demonstration of the methods of the research

To verify the hypotheses, questionnaire (among secondary students) and semi-structured interviews (with collegiate educators and the head of crime prevention department of the county police) seemed to be the best choice.

Introduction of those participated in the research

The empirical research takes place in the student hostel of Reguly Antal Secondary Vocational School (15-18 years old students) in the town of Zirc, Veszprém county. The student groups of the hostel is extremely heterogeneous. 60% of the students are Gypsies, most of them take part in SZEK training (pre-vocational and remedial program, exists since 2007) and struggle with learning, integration and behavioral difficulties. The students attend secondary grammar school, secondary technical school or secondary vocational school.

The display of the results of the questionnaires

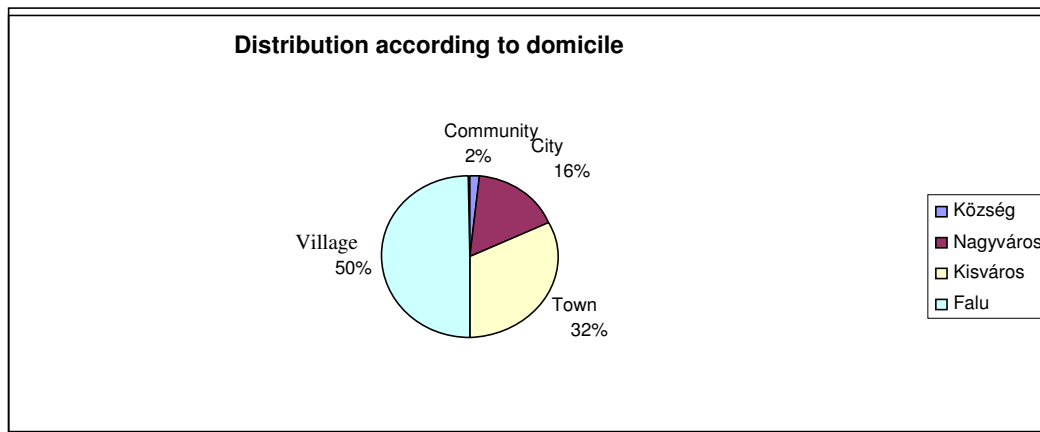
The questionnaire contains 28 questions and can be divided into three units. The first unit contains the demographic data (questions 1-9), the second unit (questions 10-16) provides information on drugs and the students' knowledge of drugs, the third unit (questions 17-28) includes the occurring questions in connection with smoking, alcohol and drug consumption. Altogether 62 students, 36 girls and 26 boys filled in the questionnaire (Table No.2).

Table 2: *The distribution of the investigated students, according to school type and sex(in percentage)*

	Secondary Grammar School	Secondary Technical School	Vocational School
Girls	33%	55%	12%
Boys	11%	50%	39%

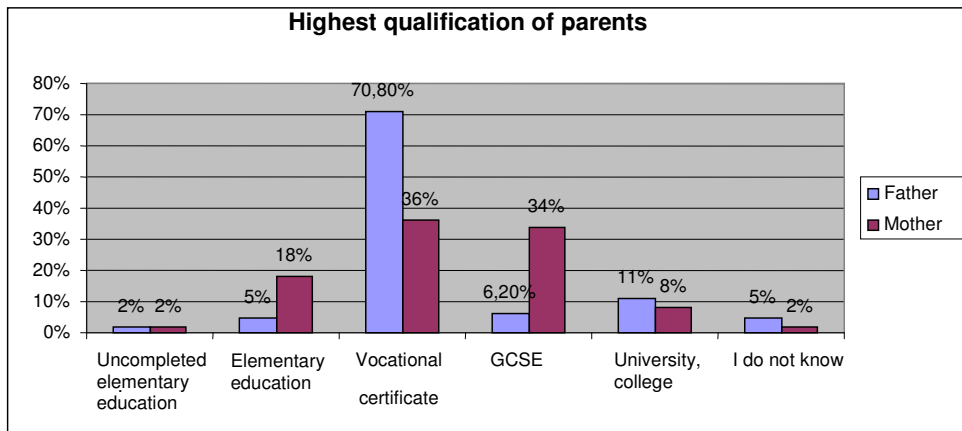
Half of the live-in students come from villages, mostly those parents choose the student hostel for their children who live far from secondary schools. The low percentage (16%) of urban students mostly include students attending the secondary grammar school and the secondary art school in Zirc (Diagram No.1).

Diagram 1: *The distribution of the investigated students according to domicile*



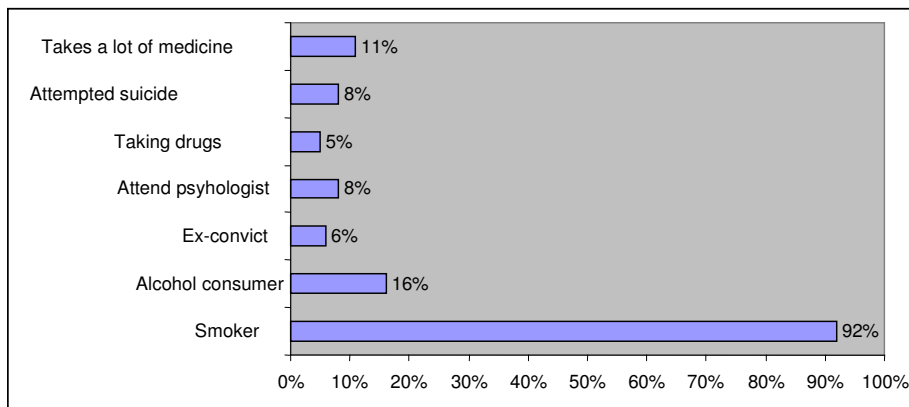
If you have a look at the highest qualification of parents, you can see that vocational qualification has a higher percentage among fathers (70,8%) but the rate between vocational qualification and GCSE (General Certificate of Secondary Education) is very similar among mothers (36% and 34%). The percentage of university or college degree is higher among fathers as you can see it in the diagram. (Diagram No.2.)

Diagram 2: *The qualification of parents*



The harmful habits in the families of the investigated students seem very worrisome: regular smokers occur in 92% of the 62 students' families, in addition 16% regularly consumes alcohol as well. Since it was possible to choose more options in this question, there were some students who have regular smoker, alcoholic and ex-convict family members at the same time (Diagram No.3).

Diagram 3: *Occuring harmful habits in students' families*

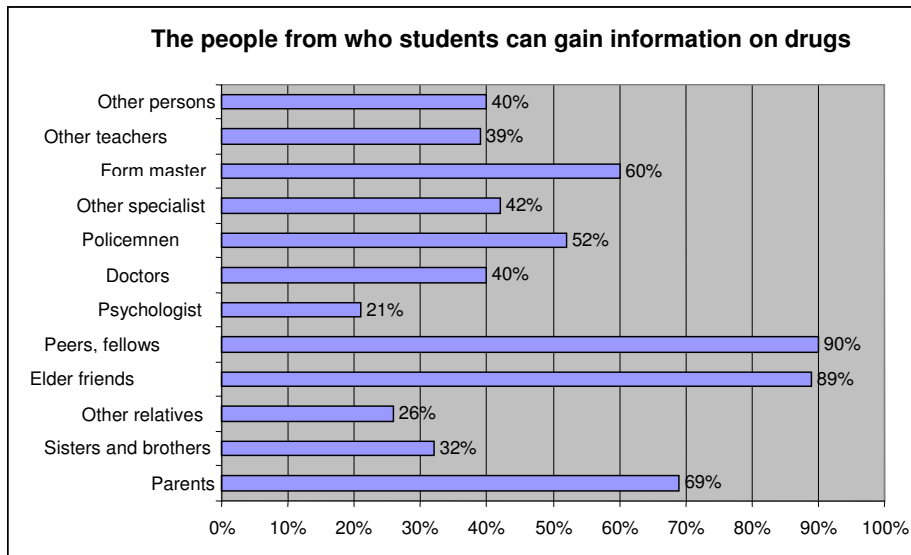


In the second part of the questionnaire I wanted to find the answer to how much information students have on drugs, whether they are aware of the meaning of the word, their effects and whether they have idea about what kind of substances are included in this category. 77% of the students chose the exact definition of drugs (question 10). Only 18% of them felt that drugs are dangerous and we should worry about our children, 82% of them considered drugs are not dangerous. These figures show that prevention is needed and it is important to make them understand the seriousness of the problem. 40% of them consider only illegal substances as drugs. This means they do not rank coffee, cigarettes, tea and

medicine among drugs while 21% of the students consider them as social problems as well.

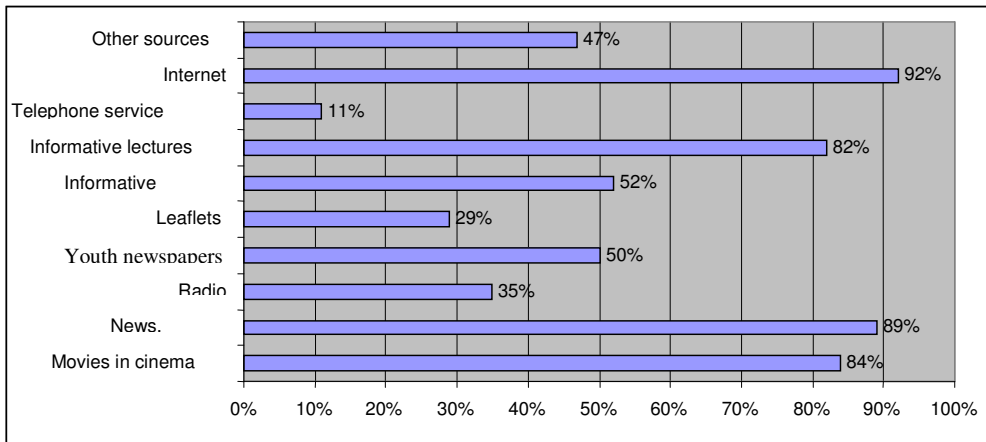
The investigated students know marijuana, extasy, speed, LSD but the name of a new drug has also occurred. It is called 'Gina', as we may know it from the media. The investigation results in 89-90% of the students turn to their peers or elder friends for information, help and solutions on this topic. This figure shows that drugs and drug-related problems are subjects of conversation among students. 60% of them get some help from their form masters as well. 69% of them talk about drugs with their parents. They rarely get information from a psychologist (21%) or other relatives (26%) (Diagram No.4).

Diagram 4: *The distribution of gaining information in percentage*



Apart from school, young people can also get information on drugs from news reports, TV films and programs (84-89%), as well as from internet which may be very risky. This is followed by informative lectures on drug preventive purposes which is organized by the school (82%). (Diagram No.5.)

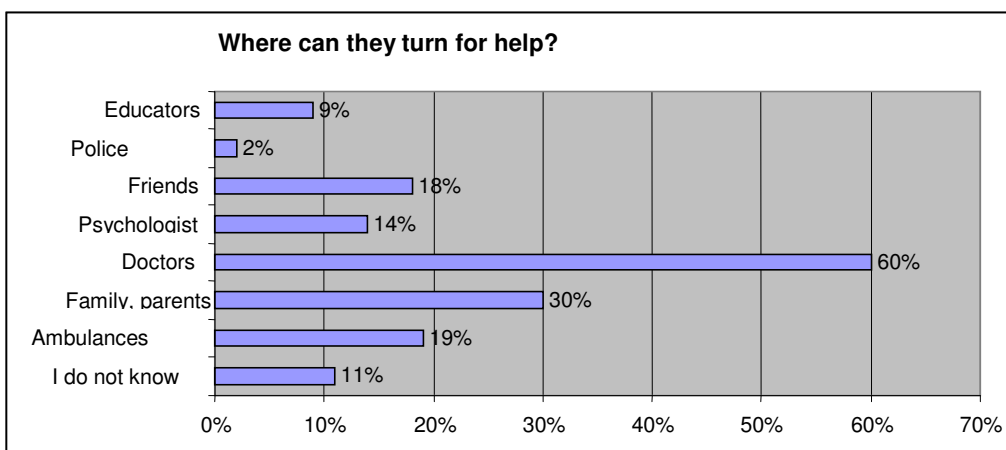
Diagram 5: *The sources of information acquisition out of school*



Based on their knowledge acquired from different sources, almost half of the students (46%) thought they know everything about drugs, while only 3% of them admitted they know almost nothing. 51% of them wanted to gain further information and were interested in this topic.

In case of drug problems, they can get help from professionals as well. 60% of the investigated students chose the doctor and 30% of them chose one of his parents as a person who gives assistance to them. 18% of them chose his/her friends and 9% of them chose one of his/her teachers to provide help. This low rate points out the teacher-student relationship nowadays which is full of conflicts and lacks confidence. 11% of them chose nothing, this means they have no idea where to turn for help. (Diagram No.6.)

Diagram 6: *The distribution of where to turn for help with their drug problems, in percentage*

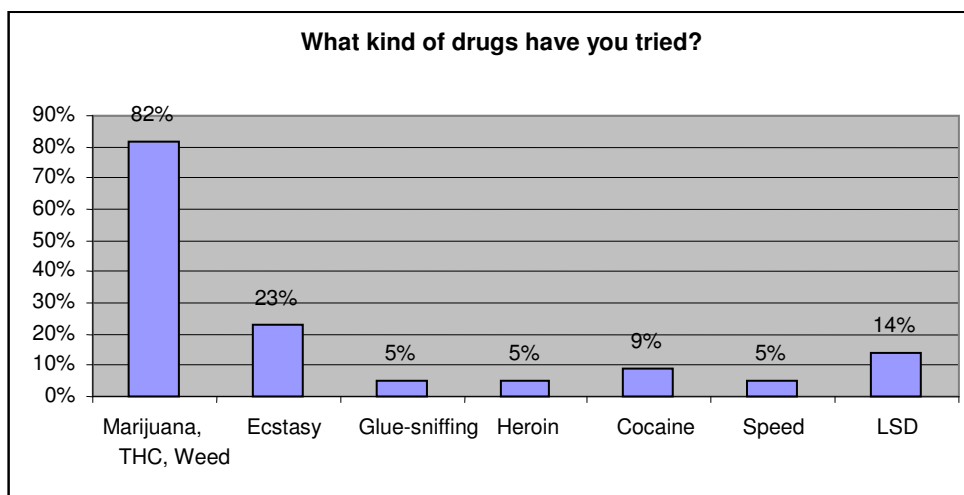


The third part of the questionnaire was intended to measure smoking, consumption of alcohol and drugs among the live-in students of Zirc. This

reflects that 85% of 15-18 years old students (that is 53 persons) have already tried smoking, most of them at the age of 14-18, but 49% of them (which is quite high) admitted they tried cigarettes for the first time earlier, at the age of 10-14. 24 out of 53 students, that is 43% of them, have smoked regularly since then. Alcohol consumption shows a worse picture. 55 students, that is 89% of them, consumes alcohol regularly, 31% of them weekly and 2% of them daily.

22 students (35%) out of the interviewed 62 admitted they had already tried drugs. 86% of them tried it at the age of 14-18, for the first time. 9 students, that is 41% of them, use any illegal drugs regularly.

Diagram 7: *The most frequently used types of drugs, in percentage*



67% of this 9 regular drug users state that they are casual users, 'only' when at parties. 22% of them use drugs weekly.

Summary and evaluation of the interviews

I have interviewed three collegiate educators in the mentioned institution and the head of the crime prevention department at the county police. During the interviews I tried to find an answer for how important they consider drug prevention in the student hostel, to what extent they consider live-in students an extremely high-risk group, as well as how to make drug preventive activities more effective.

With no exception, the interviewees agreed that the most endangered age group consists of young people at the age of 14-16, and on the other hand social and family backgrounds have great influences on alcohol and drug consumption. In their opinion, students with disorganised family background have more chances to become addicted to any substances, as their fellows with organised family background do.

The interviewees considered drug prevention very important in student hostels, and also agreed that current programs are not the most effective. The reason for this is mainly the lack of time, furthermore the lectures do not really arouse students' interest. All of them emphasized continuity in connection with drug prevention, as well as more time should be devoted to this activity. Working out a program lasting a whole school year could also be an option according to the interviewees.

Summary of the results

The theoretical, practical and empirical investigation of the research have pointed to several interesting relations. A strong national intention can be felt in connection with drug prevention but its fulfilment is not always effective.

The empirical investigation has pointed out that at least half of the live-in students in Zirc have already tried some kind of drugs. 54% of them admitted they knew nothing or very little about drugs and 11% of them have no idea where to turn in case of drug problems. Only 18% of the students consider drugs dangerous. The interviewees stated that disorganised family backgrounds were serious risk factors. Furthermore, they emphasized the importance of prevention, although they stated it was not too effective and these programs do not really catch students' attention nowadays.

Theoretical and practical results of the research demonstrate that an effective program is required to develop on institutional level. However, families, parental examples, conventions brought from home, value systems also have big roles, as one of the main reasons for drug addiction is the lack of tolerance and loving, caring human relations.

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Specific Features and Novelty of the Hungarian Lactation Consultant Post Graduate Course

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Semmelweis University

The issue of breastfeeding in Hungary is largely influenced by beliefs, taboos and prejudices –similarly to many other developed countries. As events around the birth, including the initiation of breastfeeding, have a long lasting impact on the mother-infant pair, the family and the society, many beliefs and non-scientific interpretations are connected to it. Therefore it is utmost important to clarify these issues for all levels of the society, including health professionals. The distressing fact is that the views of the health professionals are often based on beliefs and prejudices as well. There is a large body of scientific evidence, proving the importance of the protection, promotion and support of breastfeeding, but the basic training of those health professionals (health visitors, midwives, nurses, obstetricians, pediatricians, surgeons, dentists, dermatologists, etc.) who look after the mother, the infant or the mother-infant pair and deal with breastfeeding issues, have a limited knowledge on the topic, which does not enable many of them to work on the desired level. There are positive signs though: more and more health care workers realize the importance of breastfeeding and their inability to support it and attend trainings to increase their knowledge in this field.

Why do we need lactation consultants?

Breastfeeding had been naturally integrated into the human life cycle for many millenia. The girls had been surrounded by lactating women since their early childhood, breastfeeding was natural part of their life, the questions *why* and *how* were not coming up. The civilization and industrial development, mainly from the turn of the 19th century, reached a point when mankind made themselves to believe that people not only understand the rules of nature, but are able to create a better world. "Science" has substantially restructured and changed the ancient experience of birth, breastfeeding and childrearing. On the one hand it certainly has advantages, but on the other hand the ancient knowledge had almost vanished: in the 1950s breastfeeding rates in the United States had fallen back to about 20% (www.lll.hu). Realizing this harmful process, a small group of mothers founded the La Leche League (LLL) association

in the USA in 1957, in order to put together their knowledge and to give information, encouragement, practical help and moral support to mothers (Lawrence & Lawrence, 2005). This small step resulted in a substantial effect on breastfeeding management and on the wellbeing of families, therefore the previously doubtful professionals started to appreciate the role of LLL in postnatal care. The number of volunteers quickly increased: the new members brought along the methods and requirements of their basic profession, so there was an increasing need for a scientific approach. The LLL released the journal *Breastfeeding Abstracts*, to collect and publish the research studies on breastfeeding. Within a few years it became clear that in addition to the voluntary work there is a need for paid lactation consultants within the health care system, partly because there was an increasing need for their knowledge, but also to get the real appreciation of the profession.

The Lactation Consultant Department was formed in 1982 by the LLL. In 1985 the International Board of Lactation Consultant Examiners was formed as an independent certification board for a voluntary certification program. To assure the up-to-date knowledge of the consultants, the exam must be retaken every five years. Since the first official exams a great number of research studied the effect of lactation specialists on breastfeeding (Riordan & Wambach, 2010). In 2007 Gill, Reifsnider and Lucke carried out a controlled trial in which the intervention group of women met an IBCLC (International Board Certified Lactation Consultant) prenatally twice and was consulted four times postpartum. The control group got the standard education on the benefits of breastfeeding. The intervention group had twice the odds to continue breastfeeding for six months (Gill et al., 2007). In another trial, *de Oliveira* (2006) provided evidence that a single counseling session on breastfeeding techniques for no more than 30 minutes resulted in a 7.5% increase of the rate of those who exclusively breastfed 30 days after delivery (Oliveira et al., 2006).

Breastfeeding management and international politics

The WHO and the UNICEF recognized the harmful effect of not breastfeeding on the global level and took action. They declared the protection, promotion and support of breastfeeding in 1979. To prohibit unethical marketing of breastmilk substitutes the International Code of Marketing of Breast Milk Substitutes was established and has been regularly updated by resolutions since then (International..., 1981). The Innocenti Declaration, issued in 1990 (Innocenti..., 1990), was aiming at breastfeeding support by founding national breastfeeding promotion committees and following the 10 steps for successful breastfeeding in hospitals. Realizing that the good start is a key issue in the success of long-term breastfeeding they launched the Baby-Friendly Hospital Initiative in 1991 (Baby-friendly..., 2009). Those hospitals who follow the 10 steps

of successful breastfeeding and keep to the relevant points of the International Code of Marketing Breast Milk Substitutes, after a rigorous evaluation process are declared to be Baby-friendly Hospitals. The Global Strategy of Infant and Young Child Feeding was published in 2003 (Global..., 2003) and defined optimal nutrition as follows: exclusive breastfeeding for the first 6 months and after that introducing timely, safe and adequate complementary feeding while continuing breastfeeding for 2 years and beyond. To achieve this goal women's confidence has to increase in their ability to breastfeed and get adequate support. The objectives of the Innocenti Declaration should have been attained by 1995. Although certain elements of the aims have been widely accepted, even in 2013 we are far away from their complete realization. The EU adopted the goals of the WHO on Europe and the blueprint on the Protection, Promotion and Support of Breastfeeding in Europe was compiled by a scientific body in 2004 and updated in 2006 (EU Project..., 2004).

The professionalization of lactation counseling in Hungary

The situation, how breastfeeding was appreciated in Hungary, was quite the same as in other western societies. Although health care professionals were not against it, but could not give adequate support to breastfeeding mothers because of their insufficient knowledge due to lacking education on this issue. Additionally, the countries behind the iron curtain had to face a special difficulty: community life was curtailed and families became isolated, the flow of information was scarce. However, Hungarian mothers also felt the need for coming together in a group and exchange their knowledge and experience on breastfeeding. In the early seventies the first mother-to-mother support group was formed, led by Alison Langley, who temporarily lived in Budapest. After the change of the political system in 1989 more and more women became accredited group-leaders and training courses started for health workers (www.ill.hu). The Hungarian branch of the Le Leche League was founded in 1992. As a member state of the WHO/UNICEF Hungary signed the Innocenti Declaration (Innocenti..., 1990) and following its recommendation the Hungarian National Breastfeeding Promotion Committee was founded in 1995. In order to gather all kind of professionals who support breastfeeding, the Hungarian Association for Breastfeeding was founded in 1995 (<http://www.szoptatasert.hu/>). With the help of these organizations Hungary became connected with the international flow of breastfeeding support and in 1999, Katalin Sarlai neonatologist became the first accredited IBCLC. Since then the number of IBCLCs has been increasing. The Hungarian Association of IBCLCs was founded in 2004 (<http://www.szoptatasert.hu/egyesulet/magunkrol?inf=egyesulet>) and since 2006 the exam could be taken in Hungarian. The National Breastfeeding

Promotion Committee has supported the baby-friendly accreditation of hospitals and by 2012 the number of baby-friendly hospitals increased to 17, covering around 20% of annual livebirths of the country (www.sztnb.hu). Despite these developments, the majority of our health care workers still do not appreciate lactation and breastfeeding management as a science. The education of medical doctors and health visitors contains only scarce information on breastfeeding support (<http://www.uni-miskolc.hu/~wwweti/!uj/index.php/oktatas-kepzes/vedono-kepzes-alapkepzes/fobb-tanulmanyi-teruletei>).

A pioneer initiation: counseling course in a university setting

By 2009, 10 years after the first successful exam, the number of the Hungarian IBCLC-s increased to 35. At this time there was still hardly any written material for professionals in Hungarian on lactation management. The conferences and trainings held by the Hungarian Association for Breastfeeding and by the National Breastfeeding Promotion Committee provided an opportunity for those professionals who could not speak foreign languages to learn about breastfeeding related topics. Despite these efforts, the importance of adequate, up-to-date knowledge on lactation and breastfeeding management has remained underestimated in our health care system and the special knowledge of the IBCLCs has not been appreciated. Despite the increasing demand of proper counselling on breastfeeding, lactation consultant positions did not exist in the public sector, and there was no cooperation between IBCLCs and other health care workers.

The Lactation Consultant Post Graduate Course was developed in the Semmelweis Medical University of Budapest in 2009. This was a significant breakthrough in the appreciation of the lactation consultant profession by the health care system. The university signed an official cooperation agreement with the Hungarian Association for Breastfeeding. Following the completion of the accreditation process and the approval of the Educational Authority, the Institute for Mental Health of the Semmelweis University launched the first year of our unique post graduate course in 2010. The University also signed a cooperation agreement with the only baby-friendly hospital in Budapest; the Szent István Hospital, where the students of the course have the opportunity to develop practical skills under supervision. The special and innovative characteristic of the course is that passing the IBLCE (International Board of Lactation Consultant Examiners) exam is one of the conditions of graduation. The reason for this is to prevent different kind of qualifications among lactation consultants of the country. With the help of combining the national and international qualifications, the course gets a quality assurance control

annually; more than 90% of those students who pass the university exam, pass the IBCLC exam too. The course started with 38 students in 2010, and in the first year many elements have been developed during the course. The lectures were compiled and edited in a printed format and in addition to that an e-book on special lactation related issues was published with the help of a European Union education development tender in 2011. This document can be downloaded free of charge (Török & Kun, 2012). This is another great result of the course as the first scientific material in the field of lactation has become available in Hungarian. This way the students can study the written materials prior to the contact hours and there is more time to focus on the problem-based, practical education, communication and case studies.

Presentation of the Lactation Consultant Post Graduate Course

The aim of the two semesters, distance-learning course with 180 contact hours is to help the students to acquire the skills and competences which are essential in lactation counselling. The area of knowledge required for the lactation consultant is complex; anatomy, physiology, biology, chemistry, medicine (mainly obstetrics, neonatology, paediatrics, endocrinology), biology, chemistry, dietetics, psychology, sociology, ethics, legal issues and statistics. During the course the students acquire a holistic approach derived from the above listed fields of science applied to lactation and breastfeeding management. They obtain information about the theoretical basis of lactation, the composition of human milk and the factors influencing the quality and quantity of it, the needs and development of the child, the normal pregnancy, delivery and the pathology during pregnancy, labour and delivery, the various diseases of the mother and child which could affect breastfeeding. During the education they meet the most frequent breastfeeding management problems and the possible solutions for them, get into contact with several professionals. They become familiar with the research methods concerning lactation, and are able to judge the validity of the published results. The students get acquainted with the ethical and legal regulations of the profession. The course shapes the students' proper approach to the mother infant dyad.

In addition the lactation consultant has to become a good counsellor and develop her personality to fulfill this task. To help to achieve this goal, individual counselling is offered for each student.

In 2013 there are 26 173 IBCLCs in 94 countries, most of them working in the United States, Canada and Australia. In Hungary following the first two years of the course, the number of lactation consultants increased from 35 to 75. This number of IBCLCs places us in a leading position in

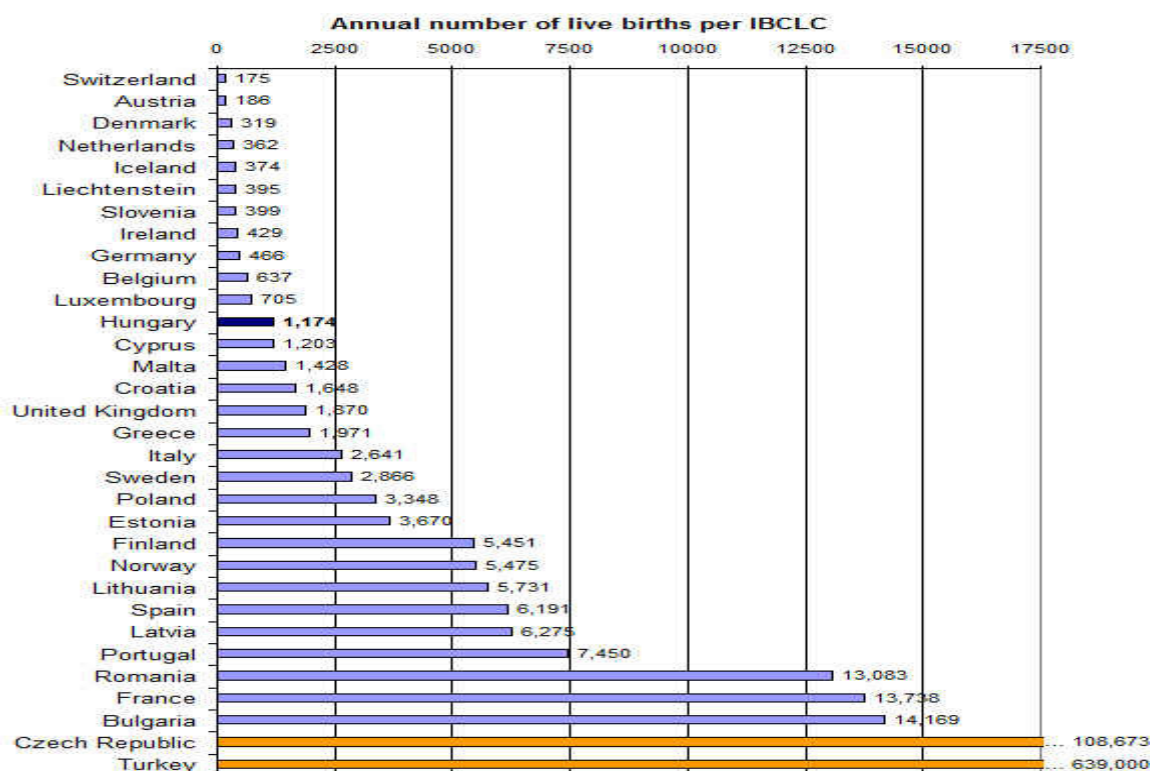
Central Europe (grey background in the chart).

The Number of Lactation Consultants in Europe

Germany	1423	Hungary	75	Luxembourg	8	Czech Republic	1
Netherland	498	France	60	Cyprus	8	Belorussia	1
Switzerland	463	Slovenia	55	Russia	8	Gibraltar	1
United Kingdom	432	Greece	54	Lithuania	6	Monaco	1
Austria	421	Sweden	39	Bulgaria	5	Ukraine	1
Italy	207	Croatia	25	Estonia	4	Albania	0
Belgium	202	Romania	15	Malta	3	Macedonia	0
Denmark	185	Portugal	13	Latvia	3	Moldova	0
Ireland	174	Iceland	12	Bosnia Herzegovina	3	Serbia and Montenegro	0
Poland	116	Finland	11	Turkey	2	Slovakia	0
Spain	76	Norway	11	Liechtenstein	1		

Source: <http://www.iblce.org/upload/downloads/NumberIBCLCsWorld.pdf>
[20.05.2013]

As there are around 90 000 births annually in Hungary, the number of breastfed children per IBCLC is extremely high, exceeding 1000.



Source:

<http://epp.eurostat.ec.europa.eu/tgm/table.do?tab=table&init=1&language=en&pcode=tps00111&plugin=1> [20.05.2013]

In addition the majority of the IBCLCs do not work as full-time lactation consultant, therefore it is impossible to cover the needs of pregnant and postpartum mothers. The present statistics on breastfeeding rates collect data during the first year of life. At the age of 1 year the third of the Hungarian children are still breastfeeding, increasing the need for lactation specialists for the management of long term breastfeeding and tandem nursing (breastfeeding two siblings from different births). For the successful promotion, protection and support of breastfeeding many more lactation consultants need to be trained and the up-to-date information on lactation and breastfeeding management has to be incorporated into the curriculum of all health care professionals. In addition special postgraduate education is required for all health professionals who look after infants, mothers, and mother-infant pairs.

The growing number of lactation consultants has required the acknowledgment of the lactation consultant as a separate profession in the Hungarian Standard Classification of Occupation (FEOR) of the Hungarian Central Statistical Office (http://www.ksh.hu/osztalyozasok_feor_menu). This goal has been achieved by the proposal of the head of the postgraduate course.

There are websites of the Hungarian Association of Breastfeeding and of the National Breastfeeding Promotion Committee) where mothers and professionals get information on breastfeeding related topics (<http://www.szoptatasert.hu/> and www.sztnb.hu) and handouts are also prepared for them.

Further objectives

We have to achieve the acceptance of lactation consulting as an allied health profession in our country. Ideally all mothers, no matter whether delivering or adopting their baby should be able to get in touch with a lactation consultant, if needed. Lactation clinics should be incorporated in the health care system having at least one IBCLC in the team. The concerned health care workers should get proper education on lactation related issues and in case of special problems would realize the need for a consult with an IBCLC. Obstetric departments should have for each 1000 births at least one IBCLC to assure daily one- on- one mother-baby rounds and other ways of supporting the breastfeeding mother.

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IV. Work of Teachers

Memories of Retired Primary School Teachers about their Studies

© Béla MOLNÁR

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The pensioned-off teachers of primary school – age group of 70 or 80 year-old persons – made up their mind in the period of one and a half decades after the world war to go on for higher education at a training college of primary school teachers. Interviewing a diminishing number of eye-witnesses about the process of their becoming a primary school teacher is a pressing task of our current research into educational history which is not to be delayed.

The objectives of the research can be given as follows. By means of interviewing: the verification of the fact that the students of the institute received a suitable preparation during the 4 years of the training for primary school teachers.

Basing on the national specialized literature in educational history, the hypotheses of the current research were as follows:

1. Professional values kept on functioning guaranteeing the successfulness of training.
2. The content and amount of the subjects in the training at secondary level made it possible to acquire the basic knowledge, expertise and skills, which ensured the successfulness of the effective work for primary school teachers.

From among the basic kinds of interview we applied a structural interview in order to explore the motives of the choice of profession, the attitude towards the training institute of primary school teachers, the opinions about the training. The sample comprised 178 persons. The sample offers a good representation about those graduated at a training institute of primary school teachers at a secondary level on the grounds of their social background and their going on for higher education. The questions of the interview were open questions in order that those interviewed could formulate their own opinion. Among the open questions there are items requiring both short and long explanation.

The History of Training Primary School Teachers at Secondary Level from 1945 until Its Becoming of High Level

In 1944/45, the work of the Ministry of Public Education guiding education, the functioning of regional superintendence of schools, existence of denominational schools in the Hungarian school system all meant continuity. There was a continuity, too, in the training of teachers of primary schools. The dual structure of five years created in 1941 survived, in this system the students of the third year of a lycée could go on for higher education at the 4th then the 5th year of a training institute of primary school teachers. In November 1947, two pedagogical colleges began to function in Budapest and Szeged where class teachers were trained for primary schools and so were trained specialized teachers for teaching certain groups of subjects at the senior section of primary school. Training time comprised 6 semesters at the college. In 1948 ecclesiastical schools were nationalized then the Minister stopped the training of primary school teachers at secondary level. Pedagogical colleges functioned on the grounds of their original objectives until 1949 then the training of primary school teachers was made a task of colleges.

A comprehensive form of secondary schools took place in Hungary in 1949. It settled the situation of educational institutes of secondary schools in the system of education as well as the relation between the aims of professional training and general education. A system of general and specialized secondary grammar schools was built up. Pedagogical secondary grammar school became a formation that lasted four years adapting itself to the system of secondary schools. In 1950 a decree with legal force created institutes of training primary school teachers. It was the task of the institutes training primary school teachers to offer theoretical and practical formation for educators who are suitably qualified for the junior section (1st to 4th classes) of primary school and who are generally educated capable of going on for higher studies. After attending the institutes of training primary school teachers, students sat for a final exam. After the final exam they were employed in schools as paid practising primary school teachers for a year. At the end of the probationary year training was accomplished by sitting for a successful qualifying exam for primary school teachers.

Interpretation of the results of interviews

On the grounds of the interviews, the attitudes and experiences of those having a degree of teachers' training secondary school will be rather shown by means of a qualitative approach. The eyewitnesses interviewed who remembered their secondary school years evoked the weekdays spent at the teachers' training school by putting the topic in a micro-historical framework (Seidman, 2002).

The qualification of those involved in the conversations points to the fact that every fourth person having the degree of teachers' training secondary school went on for higher education. 19,1 % of them obtained a degree at a college, and 3,5 % of them got a university degree. Those having college or university degrees primarily obtained qualifications for primary or secondary schools or even a special qualification for educating children with handicap.

Going on for higher education and obtaining further degrees in teacher training are characteristics for both the sample and the population alike. Those interviewed come from working class, employee or peasant families. One in five interviewees has intellectual background.

Choice of profession

To investigate the motives of the choice of profession, we established a system of categories whose frequency order is as follows:

1. I like children. I would like to deal with small children.
2. Her/His teacher's positive impact, encouragement.
3. She/He had a sense of vocation (She/He could not imagine her/his life in another way. She/He has always wanted to be a teacher.)
4. Because of family traditions, example of teaching parents, relatives.
5. She/He helps others.
6. It is good, nice to teach.

There were few interviewees who indicated the motive of their choice of profession in the fact that

- they wanted to have early, safe self-supporting salary,
- they expected teaching career to be a safe future providing advance,
- they were the ones who could accomplish their parents' wishes
- teachers' training schools offered qualification, secondary grammar schools only offered a certificate of final examinations,
- they liked learning, reading,
- they did it because of going on for higher education.

The choice of career happened out of necessity in few cases; there was one person who indicated the motive that it was not him who had chosen but the County School Committee head directed him to the teachers' training school. There were some practical reasons as well: the school was nearby, it was an ideal profession for girls.

Among the motives of choosing teaching career as a profession, there are humanistic reasons (love of children, helping others) in the first place. The whole-hearted affection towards children creates the basis of loving one's profession forming gradually then that of sense of vocation becoming consolidated later on (Hegedűs, 1997:240).

The choice of profession of those interviewed was determined, influenced by the surroundings of the interviewees' primary schools and their family traditions. In the 1950s, students were accepted at the teachers' training school by having chosen teaching career as their mission in life. The love of children the love for profession and highly responsible pedagogical work are all worded in most answers, their summary is shown in the following passage: "The thing I answer to it at once is that I very much like children, it is a pleasure for me to experience the children's affection and love. There is no better feeling when I can see that I am important for my students and they like me. It is not a simple profession but a vocation which offers me much pleasure. The second thing I usually answer to this question: it is a very interesting profession, a great challenge. It is a very variegated activity seeing that every child is somehow different. The third thing I can answer: my teachers made a positive impact on me, many of them were worth an example. It is a kind of work full of responsibility. I like being with other people, I have always liked community."

Experiencing the teacher's role from one's childhood also appeared in the conversations, the example of parents and relatives working as teachers was also a determining factor. "I used to lead a day-care centre every summer. I taught reading in the junior class of my mother several times thus I could make myself acquainted with the tricks of teaching pretty soon." There was also another conversation touching on the inclining effects of family traditions: "My father is a teacher, my grandfather is a teacher, and my father's brothers were also teachers. Well, I was born to do this."

The few persons, who chose teachers' training college out of necessity, all stated that they had taken a liking to their school and later to their profession.

Aptitude Test

The aptitude test embraced several areas between 1945 and 1959. In the 1940s, the entrance examination was more complex: “As for outward appearance, they examined whether I was healthy. We did some simple gymnastic exercises then we were led to a large room where there were a lot of children playing. On the edge of the room, nuns were watching how well we succeeded in establishing contact with the children. In a short time, I began to play with them. In the end, we were informed about who had sense for dealing with children, whom they suggested to take up or abandon this career.”

For a short period of time, no aptitude tests were carried out thus the ill-suited were directed to other schools in the first class. From 1952, the applicants’ musical capacities were gauged at the chief town of the districts.

In the 1950s, it was not only musical aptitude which was considered as decisive factor at entrance examinations – good primary school achievement became more and more important. In the case of the last classes receiving secondary education, candidates already experienced a wide-ranging assessment.

Studies at Secondary School

Those interviewed did not worded their ideas or expectations concerning their training because of their adolescent choice of career.

The order of the preferred subjects was as follows: Hungarian, Music, Mathematics, History, Pedagogy, Geography, Psychology, Physical Education, Biology, Arts, Methodology, Chemistry, Practice Teaching, Logic, Physics, Russian, Manual Training. The subjects of general education were the most popular ones. Among professional subjects, Pedagogy got the fifth place. Psychology was considered to be harder than Pedagogy. It is surprising that Teaching Practice fell into the background. The least preferred professional subject was Logic. Physics, Chemistry and Russian can be named as disliked subjects.

As far as teachers working at teachers’ training colleges are concerned, those remembering emphasized personal exemplification, professional expertise. Each interviewee stated that theory and practice were built one upon the other in secondary education. The question concerning the level of general knowledge offered by the training school divided the interviewees into several groups which are as follows:

1. „Secondary grammar school provided knowledge of higher level.”
“The curriculum of training school only deferred from that of secondary grammar schools in view of pedagogical subjects. The subjects providing general training thoroughly established the basis

of general knowledge seeing that teachers strictly demanded learning.”

2. „Those studying at teacher training schools were at a higher level.”
“Their knowledge was wide-ranging; it can also be seen on the grounds of the high number of subjects.”

3. „They got knowledge at intermediate level. By and large, they were at the same level as students of secondary grammar schools.”
“Those studying at teachers’ training schools were rather at the level of secondary schools with a specialization in the sciences.”

4. „Considering the epoch, they (those studying at teachers’ training schools) were thought to be qualified experts with general knowledge.” “We got general knowledge at basic level and it was enough to develop it.” “Secondary grammar schools focussed on education and concentrated on theory. Teachers’ training school prepared for practical and independent public life.” “In comparison with secondary grammar schools, it was less but it was pretty suitable for the profession.”

Those remembering considered all the forms of practical training as very important. In the course of practical teaching, teachers of demonstration schools and the teachers of Pedagogy judged the teaching of the trainees in a helpful way. Trainee teachers had 12-20 lessons at demonstration schools.

Probationary Year

Those interviewed spent the probationary year at their dwelling place (7%), near their place of residence (64%), in remote settlements (26%) and in Budapest (1%). Trainees were generally assigned to villages, farming centres and farmsteads lying far away from their dwelling places thus they lived in lodgings.

Trainee teachers generally taught in classes drawn together. Contrary to rules, they also got assignments to teach subjects in the senior section of primary school. They had several out-of-school activities, they carried out agit-prop work and activities in connection with the movement:

- organisation of the cultural life in the village (leading the library, dance groups, stage-plays, sewing and other courses),
- arrangement of community celebrations,
- teaching in evening schools and illiterate courses,
- assistance in organising co-operative farms, population census, stock-taking of animals, harvest, produce collection,
- subscription to Peace Loans, supervision in cultural centres while watching the television collectively.

Professional assistance was, in many cases, only a nominal matter. The main protector of the trainee teacher was the older teacher. The interviewees also indicated the headmaster as a helper. 17% of those interviewed remained without help during their probationary year, only 8% of them were satisfied with the help provided by the mentor, leading teacher. 45% of the trainee teachers had no contact with the mother school, they were left alone. It mainly occurred in the cases of those whose training school had been winded up. 16% of the interviewees reported good contact, in case of a problem they went to the training school or sent a letter, every quarter of a year they appeared in the training schools to have a consultation.

The practice was controlled by the headmaster, the deputy headmaster, the school inspector of the primary school. The headmasters, educational leaders, subject teachers of the teachers' training schools could rarely go to carry out inspections.

Judging the Level of Training

The merits, strengths of the training can be summarised in the categories to be mentioned here:

- ✓ Pedagogically speaking, it gave a good preparation. "It prepared me pedagogically well."
- ✓ Those studying at the teachers' training school received an outstanding practical training. "There was much practice."
- ✓ There was much emphasis on methodological training. "They gave us a lot of practical, methodological techniques; they prepared us how to teach children."
- ✓ „They received famous preparation. It was poor in knowledge but demanding in methodological aspect."
- ✓ This type of school had a wide range of activity offer. "Education was varied and colourful."
- ✓ The education of the age group 14-18 years became evident. "It trained students for becoming nice people, doing hones work, having sense of duty and being reliable."
- ✓ „Human behaviour was strongly influenced, shaped. They gave personal care to every student."

Those being satisfied with the training could not name any deficiencies. Graduates all spoke about being satisfied.

Judging the Career

Each of the interviewed thought the choice of career proper, nobody was sorry for having taken teaching career. The majority of the interviewees would decide in the same way, or rather they would only decide like this in case the form of living and existence could come back because they would not make the same decision under present-day conditions. They recommended the teaching career to their children, grandchildren; there are some who follow the example. Because of the changes if time, the minority formulated here as well that they would not recommend the teaching career to their acquaintances.

Summary

On the grounds of the interviews we present the attitudes and experiences of those graduating at an institute training primary school teachers in a rather qualitative approach. During the analysis of the interviews the hypothesis was confirmed that one-time students already chose a profession with sense of vocation at the time of their choosing a career. They told about their teachers that they had taught and educated with committed professional expertise. The professional work of the institutes training primary school teachers was considered to be successful by every interviewed person without exception. The strength of the one-time school type was thought to be the unity of theory and practice, the successfulness of practical training and the stressed methodical training. In the remembrance of all those interviewed there was a positive picture about the institutes training primary school teachers.

The content and the amount of the subjects of the training at secondary level made it possible to acquire general education and craftsmanship. The traditions of training primary school teachers at secondary level were working between 1945 and 1959. Among them we can find the practical acquisition of pedagogical techniques, the formation and the development of the sense of vocation of the would-be primary school teachers.

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What makes a good teacher?

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Budapest Business School

The problem

From time to time I meet people who are about deciding which school to choose for their 6/7-year old children. The fancy one where there are language and ballet lessons or the closest to home? Where there is religious education from the start or the faraway school with excellent reputation? Sometime during the process of finding the right school the parents start to examine the teacher who is supposed to start with the 1st grade pupils in September. Then many of them decide on the school where they think the teacher is good and suitable for their child. And this decision may or may not prove to be right.

Quite a lot of scientific studies deal with the subject knowledge of the teachers and it is also a widely expected fact that the most important tool of the teaching profession is the personality of the teacher. The situation is controversial though. While nobody ever had the opportunity to participate in excavations except for archaeologists or to play an active role in the operation theatre except for the professional staff everybody endured or enjoyed long years of education. And as the memories of his/her own schooldays form the professional self of the would-be teachers everybody feels to be prepared to judge the teachers' work based on their own schoolroom experience. During these long years spent at school we met different types of teachers some of whom we have good memories, some we did not like and there are those whom we even do not remember.

If we were to map the desirable teacher qualities what should we include? What would come first: Subject knowledge and competence? Personality? Creativity? Patience? Being motivated and being able to motivate? And there are a lot more ingredients if we want to create the ideal teacher. Moreover as teaching involves a lot of people – teachers, students, parents, colleagues – is it possible to create the teacher personality that suits everybody? Or is the good teacher acting like a good clown performing to everybody according to their needs? Does such a person exist and is s/he a teacher and a good one? I have quite a lot of questions here for which I try to find some answers.

The ideal situation would be if the career suitability could be decided when the 18-year old candidate is about choosing a career or at least during the time of the training. Though our personality changes as we grow older and in the different life phases we face different challenges and have to adapt to different circumstances. As years go by our personal life

develops from one phase to the other and our professional personality changes, too.

Academic opinion

In America Betty Steffy and Michael Wolfe distributed the teacher career into six stages starting with the trainee period. According to them the six stages are the following: novice, apprentice, professional, expert, distinguished and emeritus. As the names of the different stages suggest this is a continuous development and each stage is built on the academic, personal, practical, in one word professional development of the former stage. Due to hardships and certain circumstances one can temporarily slip back to a former stage. This model suggests that the older the teacher is the better s/he is professionally. This should be the ideal way of any professional development. Real life is often far from ideal. As life wears on one may constructively develop both personal and professional qualities but a really enthusiastic and conscientious teacher can easily burn out. Practice differs from theory though. The enthusiasm and self-confidence of the teachers at the beginning of their career can help overcome the problems. As time goes by one gets more and more experienced in the professional field and enters the different stages of both personal life and career and it can be either beneficial and harmful considering one's professional performance.

The Finnish Minna Uitto examined the teacher-student relationship. She interviewed students and teachers to find out how they recall each other. In her book it is highlighted that teachers are in the centre of the students' attention (Uitto, 2011).

So the task is given. Do you want to become a teacher? Be prepared to be on the top professionally and be aware of the fact that your personal life is being watched so be prepared to give a good example. But we are all human, has anybody ever been prepared for that? Maybe being a teacher puts your life into a certain perspective.

Can anyone be prepared for a profession that requires so much of you personally? If you live in the same town or village where most of your students and their parents live it means that you always have to live in accordance with the expectations and expectations are high and judgement is easy. No wonder the burnout ratio is high among teachers. The reasons for burning out just partly derive from the personality. According to Christina Maslach (2003, 1997) burnout is highly due to the circumstances at the workplace. And these circumstances are both physical and personal. The physical factors are given when you decide to take a job. You very well know if you have to commute or not, you can visit the school building, consider the facilities, the salary. The unknown factor is the personal element which means the students, the parents, the

colleagues, the management and yourself, your personal life (Farber, 1999) described the teacher profession in “*A Hypothetical Experiment*”.

Background research

I am sure that all novice teachers start their career with great expectations and the best intentions to become a very good teacher. Some succeed some manage some fail. To answer at least some of the above questions I decided to map the qualities students and ex-students find the most or the least desirable in a teacher.

As part of a future research I conducted a pilot project on small sample (n=45) to establish the most and least desirable teacher qualities. I conducted this research to survey how students of different age recall their best and worst teachers. The questionnaire was aimed to map the teacher qualities as students see them. I also wanted to find out if there was a link between the age of the teacher, more precisely between the career stage s/he was in and how much s/he was liked. I also hoped to find a correlation between the following two aspects: how much the student liked the teacher and the subject s/he taught.

When launching this pilot research I also wanted to find out if the qualitative and the quantitative analyses indicated which qualities, the professional or the personal make a certain teacher memorable either as a good or a bad example of the profession.

The questionnaire was designed on the www.kerdoivem.hu webpage and was distributed and filled in online in Hungarian. The average age of the respondents (37 girls and 8 boys) is 21.1 years. There are 12 questions in the questionnaire aiming at the qualities of the teachers the respondents remember as the best and the worst ones they have ever met.

The questionnaire

My goal was to find out what students and ex-students think make a good teacher. I am fully aware of the fact that almost all answers consider the matter in retrospect so opinions might have changed during the time. Two questions were aimed at the best and worst teacher qualities (What was your best/worst teacher like?) I also asked about the teacher's age and in this case unfortunately the answers cannot be fully trusted as for a young child a 35-year old teacher can seem old. With this question I hoped to find a correlation between the teachers' appreciation and the career stage they have presumably reached.

The first question asked about the features of the best teacher/s the respondent could recall. As you can see from the listed qualities the

personal features stand out (see *Word Cloud No 1*) Though the words *knowledge* and *well-prepared* are mentioned very often the majority of the characteristic features are personal characteristics: *nice, funny, helpful, strict, clear, fair, consistent, understanding*, just to list some of the more often mentioned adjectives (as the respondents gave their answers in Hungarian, when there were not found adequate synonyms we translated the different Hungarian words with the same meaning with one English word). So the conclusion can be drawn that the respondents remembered their best teachers by recalling mostly their positive personal characteristics.

Word Cloud 1: *What were the features of your best teacher/s?*



(Source: own construction, worditout.com)

More or less the same can be stated concerning what the respondents wrote about teachers they did not like (see *Word Cloud No 2*). Though it can be seen that the listed characteristics vary more. There is one *unprepared* in big font size and also *incomprehensible* which partly describe the professional self and partly can indicate personal qualities, too. There are some more personal characteristics in big font, such as *unfair, favouritism, boring, scornful, arrogant* and *moody*. And there are many-many more in small type. Due to the different language characteristics it is even more so in the word cloud made from the answers given in Hungarian. There is one big '*nem*' (meaning no in Hungarian) and a lot of adjectives. So much so far it has been learnt that there can be distinguished different features characterising 'good' or 'bad' teachers.

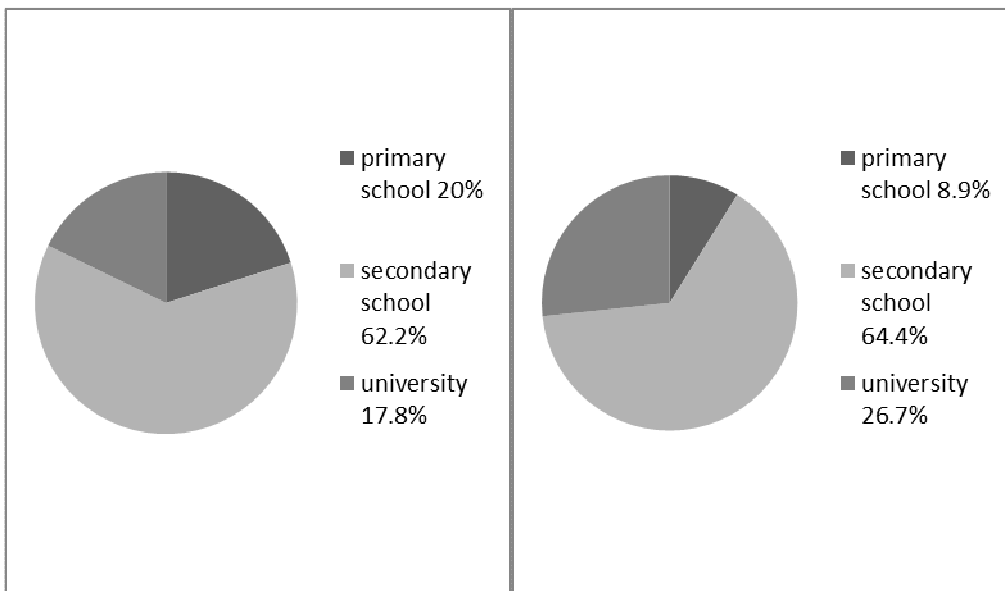
Word Cloud 2: *What were the features of your worst teacher/s?*



(Source: own construction, worditout.com)

The following pie-charts show the distribution of the school types the respondents gave for the question: *'When did your best/worst teacher teach you?'*

Diagram 1: *Good teacher, Bad teacher*



(Source: own construction)

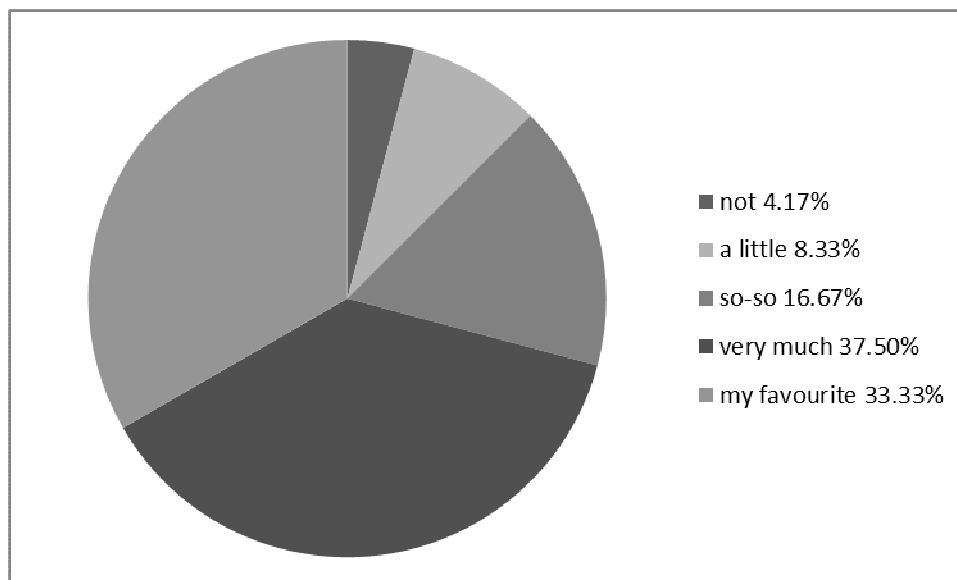
The majority of the respondents recalled their high school experiences when they were asked about their best and worst teachers and less primary school teachers made a bad impression on the respondents than

university or college teachers. The reasons for this could be found through further research.

As I have already mentioned the answers for the question: *'How old was your best/worst teacher?'* did not yield the expected results and must be examined carefully. I could not match the answers to my original aim to find a correlation between the popularity of the teacher and the career stage s/he was supposed to be in as recalling one's supposed age did not prove to be valid information. When designing the questionnaire I did not realise that for a primary school student somebody in his/her thirties can be recalled as old. The majority of the respondents considered their best/worst teachers to be middle-aged.

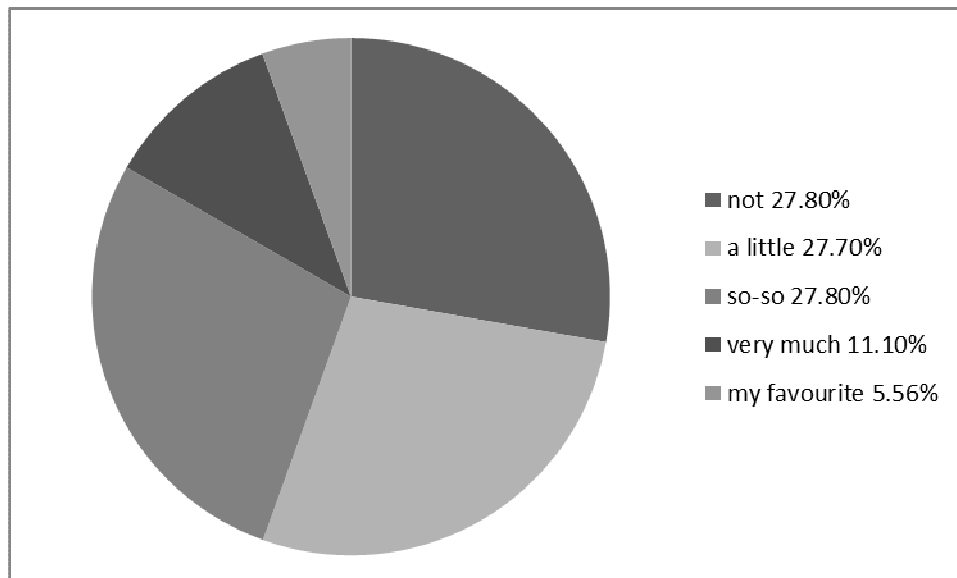
I decided to ask the question how much the respondents liked the subject the recalled teacher taught to see if in cases when somebody did not like the subject s/he neither liked the teacher.

Diagram 2: *How much did you like the subject/s your best teacher taught you?*



(Source: own construction)

Diagram 3: *How much did you like the subject/s your worst teacher taught you?*



(Source: own construction)

It can be seen from the above pie-charts that there is a strong correlation between how much the respondents liked or disliked both the teacher and the subject, though there are examples when somebody liked the teacher but not the subject and vice versa.

I also included a control question where teacher qualities had to be ranked according to importance. The answers resulted in the following hierarchy of importance:

1. *has excellent subject knowledge*
2. *enthusiastic towards the subject*
3. *fair*
4. *helpful*
5. *nice person*
6. *consistent*

Conclusion

The responds to the control question seemingly contradict my hypothesis that the personality of the teacher can be even more important than the subject knowledge and also contradict the responds why students liked and disliked certain teachers (mainly personal qualities were listed). But this is not a real contradiction. It highlights the two most important sides of the teaching profession. I can conclude that teachers are mostly remembered for their personality but if given an objective list people rank the professional knowledge of the teachers' on the first places.

I believe that the opportunity for professional development is provided for Hungarian teachers and I would welcome if there were possibilities provided to develop the teacher personality during the training and after it as well (Steffy, 2001:16).

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How are we Affected by the Personality of a Charismatic Teacher?

© Katalin KISSNÉ GOMBOS

Miskolci Egyszerem Comenius Főiskolai Kar

During our life we have all met teachers who had great influence on our life. We remember these teachers' personalities, it was impossible not to listen to them, we learned their subjects with pleasure and we enjoyed their lessons. These teachers play an important role in the development of our personality, influence our attitude, alter our views (Bányai, Varga & Gósiné, 2001:313). We usually attach dominant, gripping, charismatic adjectives in connection with these magnetic personalities.

The charismatic leaders, politicians, forceful performers, actors, even pieces of art influence us consciously or not consciously, have emotional effect on us, convince us. The efficient teachers inspire respect and love in us while they are transmitting knowledge and values. How do these charismatic teachers influence us? Do they have their appeal in their method or in their personality?

Charismatic personality, charismatic teacher

The definition of charismatic was first made by *Weber* (1987). He specified the unusual skills of the personality, which were considered miracle origin initially. The charismatic characteristic feature, the charisma consists of three components according to *Bradley* (1999). The complex of the leader's characteristic features; the charisma as a connection between the leader and the followers; the charisma as social structure.

The charismatic person is a leader blessed with some kind of superhuman features. According to *House's* (1992) theory the charismatic features are: self-confidence, claim to capability of manipulation, dominance, strong ability of persuasion, with the confirmation of the followers' belief on the moral basis.

The approach on the basis of connection can be found in many theories. *House* (1992) described the interaction between the leader and the followers as the essence of charismatic leadership. This interaction produces the followers' attraction to their leader, trusting in his honesty, they accept his scale of values, they accept him without reservation, they obey him. According to *Shamir et al.* (1993) the charismatic leader increases the followers' self-esteem, because with his attitude he emphasises collective values and identity, ideology, aims in connection

with the mission. With his attitude he shows a model considering the values to which he is personally committed to.

Meind (1990) puts the theory of „social infection” to the third group, according to which the charismatic feature credited to the leader is spreading through the shallow, superficial connections close to the leader’s surroundings, therefore nothing else but the interaction among the followers in which the leader’s personality and attitude does not play an important role.

Resch and Bella (2008) summarising many studies found that the charisma is an innate ability coming from inside. Its components are the emotional intelligence, expressivity, verbal ability, puritanism, the ability of continuous revival. Its internal positive contents are manifested in the attitude shown in the specific situation, which have an influence on its followers. However this influence is mutual. It is not the main goal that such personalities become leaders, but he will be risen to one by his followers due to his positive influence, and he can get the power.

Pedagogy considers the teacher’s personality, the personal efficiency an important factor. Lev Tolstoj explained the adults’ influence to the children by inspiration. Georgi Kiriliov Lozanov, the Bulgarian psychiatrist set a high value on „avtoritét”, which is authority, personal efficiency in Bulgarian language. Suggestopedia is related to Lozanov. This an intensive educational experiment, mainly in language teaching, which is done by the use of psycho-therapeutic methods, with the classification of forceful influences. The teacher of suggestopedia is a person who can achieve results with the power of authority. Authority contains significant motivation power, it is an important cause to act (H. Szalontai, 1975).

Bányai, Varga and Gősiné Greguss (2001) examined the nature of the influence of forceful personalities. They compared the influence of teachers with the influence of the hypnotiser, hypnotherapist on the patient. They revealed a so called archaic emotional attitude triggered by forceful personalities. The archaic involvement is Shor’s term (Bányai et al., 2001), which means that hypnotic involvements depend on what kind of connection develops towards the hypnotiser’s personality. To measure the archaic involvement *Nash and Splinger* (1989) prepared a simple paper and pen test. *Bányai et al.* (2001) applied this test for teachers, lecturers cases. In the analysis they separated three factors for the reasons of the teachers’ influence. 1. Admiration and attachment, 2. Fear of negative judgement, 3. Claim to dependence. The Charismatic leaders are admired, are endowed with supernatural power, are followed.

Outlining the features of the charismatic teacher

Objectives

The characteristic features of a charismatic teacher in my opinion are among the features of the efficient teachers. The charismatic teacher is efficient anyhow, but not every efficient teacher is forceful or charismatic. My goal is to outline the methods or features which characterise the charismatic teachers. I wonder if there are any group features or skills which emerge from the others. What makes the lifelong influence of the charismatic teachers?

Hypotheses

The forceful teachers influence people with the following means:

- Characteristic features, personalities
 - age, gender
 - outer appearance (special appearance)
 - characteristic features (understanding, warm)
- Skills:
 - leading skill
 - interpersonal skill
 - influential skill
- Communication (Verbal, non verbal)
- Professional competence:
- Class management, organising, expertise, through knowledge

The process of investigation:

According to my hypothesis based on the bibliographic data after content analysis I made a questionnaire on teacher's features. The respondent had to mark the features on a five point scale depending on how typical they were of the charismatic teacher determining their life. I arranged the occurring features randomly. I analysed the results with factor analysis.

The people participating in the survey

I aimed mixed population in the survey. There are 213 teachers, 112 not teachers out of the 325 participants. To make it faster and more simple there were a great number of college students among the respondents.

Results

The method of statistical analysis

The factor analysis ran on 115 test-items as variable with three factors. On account of my goal to approach the concept better I selected first than neglected the items with low factor weight. Then I collected the items belonging to the specific factors separately. I asked two impartial students of psychology, who did not know the goal of the survey, to try to determine the common features of the lists of words and give names to the groups. We agreed in the following names:

1. factor: emotional focus, maternal style
2. factor: problem focus (professional competences, technocrat features came here) paternal style
3. factor: authority, machiavellism, this is the autocrat style.

Test markers of the scale derived from the certain factors:

1. The scale derived from the items on the factors: Cronbach $\alpha = 0.952333$ it shows very high homogeneity, above 0.9 we can think the scale redundant.
2. The scale derived from the items on the factors Cronbach $\alpha = 0.939057$ it shows very high homogeneity, too.
3. The scale derived from the items on the factors Cronbach $\alpha = 0.673910$. This a bit lower than the previous ones, but this way the scale is functioning.

Further relations

In the description of the forceful teacher the respondent women gave significantly (* $p < 0,05$, even ** $p < 0,01$) higher scores on the scale derived from the first factor what I call emotional focused, maternal. On the scale derived from the second factor both genders gave above 4 points on average, but there is no significant difference between the two genders. On the scale derived from the third factor (authority, machiavellism) the men gave significantly higher scores to the forceful teacher.

It is more important for women to be attached to the teacher emotionally or that the teacher would have an impact on them through their emotions, aim their emotions. For men the martial authority is important. Those features are here which characterise the eccentric, scientist type of lecturer. It is remarkable that the second factor, competence, authenticity, expertise are acknowledged and respected by everybody.

Conclusions

The most interesting for me is that I received a strong maternal, paternal and professional competence related scale as a result. This means that the charismatic teacher influences the emotion mainly and it means very strong role model, identity pattern. *Bagdy Emőke* (1994) also separated maternal and paternal characters as identifying features.

The emotional factor, the maternal factor is more important than the factor in connection with authority which means that the love, reception coming from the teacher has great importance. Choosing this type recalls the Rogers liberal, humanistic teacher. According to *Friedman and Riggio* (1981), the charismatic people just like the extroverted can infect others with their feelings much more, presumably because they can express their feelings and their influential skills are stronger.

In some reports many people mentioned honourable teachers, who were strict – a lot of respondents reported that they had bad marks in the subject of their favourite teacher or even failed- nevertheless they respected him most. This type of teacher recalls the Freud preventive mechanism. To decrease fear and distress the individual becomes one with the aggressor.

Resch and Bella (2008) described when characterise the charismatic leader that many authors mention authority, as the main feature, but in their opinion aspiration for authority, if we refer to the origin of charisma, we can see clearly that besides the basic features like grace, charm, gratitude and acknowledgement, bringing wealth and prosperity to other people is a kind of mission. Therefore for teachers and leaders charisma has a demanding power and authority side and a helping other people side.

According to *Friedman* (2006) there are two unconscious mechanism behind choosing a teacher's career, narcissistic social greed of power and an altruistic ambition to convey knowledge. *Howell* (1988) also refers to this duality. He distinguishes the positive and negative side of charismatic managerial ability. On the positive side there is the social charismatic leader who outlines clearly composed goals for the society based on the need and values of his followers. The opposite of the social charismatic leader is the personal charismatic leader. He is the one who determines the goals for his followers directed not by altruistic motives but directed only by egoist motives.

The efficiency of the teacher, his suitability to be the object of identification depends on whether the students accept him as an authority. In the lower primary age group the identification is not conscious, they accept the person who is suitable to be an identification object. The women chose maternal type while the men chose paternal type, which can be significant in the development or confirmation of generic identity.

This connection can be a good indicator of the social efficiency of the individual. According to *Mérei Ferenc* (1998) this typical feature of the

leaders inspires, increases the identification tension, it inspires temper resolution, it suggests assimilation, identification. This is the social penetrance mentioned in the bibliography. According to Bányai (Bányai, Varga & Gősiné, 2001:316) the lifelong influence of certain teachers can be explained by the great involvement tension triggered by them, and the archaic involvement shown in their examination. *Pataki's* (1998) identification thoughts can be put here, whereas identification is a kind of special emotional linkage, where the individual wants to be similar to the object of identification during the fusion, he wants to put on his features, wants to copy him, and he would like to build his characteristic into his own personality (introjectio).

Summary

The analysis, although we cannot say it is representative of the whole population, but based on my analysis I got a wider spectrum of result than I expected.

A part of my hypothesis was verified, but the factors were different, they showed a more interesting picture than I expected. My analysis verified that the forceful teacher can be determined by different features than the efficient teacher. It would be worth to define with further analysis what other characteristic features could be found, which could separate the charismatic teacher from the charismatic leaders. Are these skills inherent or can be improved?

Although the teacher profession is not as prestigious as it used to be, my respondents did not refuse to fill in the questionnaire, everybody has met a teacher in his life who influenced and determined his life. It would be great if the media did not only speak about teacher abuse, school problems and bad teachers' circumstances but a new kind of positive pedagogy was born. I would like to be the messenger of this idea with my study.

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Education of Kindergarten Teacher`s In Serbia for Inclusive Conditions

© Sladjana MILENKOVIC

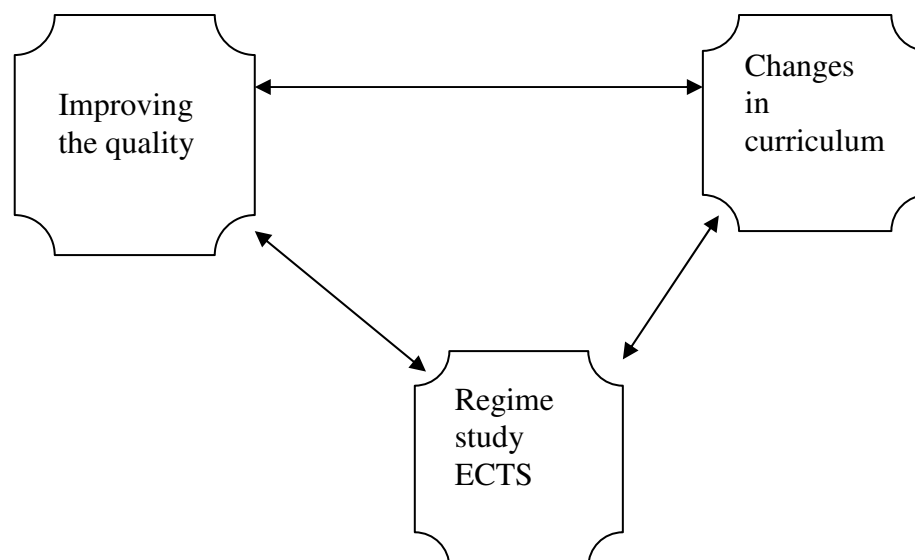
Preschool Teacher Training College in Sremska Mitrovica

This paper discusses about new role of contemporary preschool teachers in the process of inclusion of preschool children. The aim of this paper is to present changes in preschool teacher training brought up by inclusion process in Serbia. The paper presents the curriculum, the origin and purpose of education teachers to work in inclusive terms in Serbia. In Serbia, the inclusion process started five years ago and then there was a need to prepare teachers to work in this field. Across the country, there is an accredited education program for teachers to work with children with special needs and the *specijalsitičkom* level. These are specialized studies' College of Education Tutors in, the direction – a specialist teacher to work with children with special needs.

Will be compared curriculum direction for the inclusion and vocational teachers where there are elective courses specially-educational and rehabilitation groups. This paper discusses the competencies of teachers-specialists, examines how the role of preschool teachers today in Serbia fits into the European system of education. Thus, the students of Preschool Teacher Training College were questioned in the poll that was organized because of the changes of studying programme in this institution. This poll enabled us to get the insight into the present phase of the reforms that, as well as a hint to the further work.

Current needs of the modern technological society and the principles of a united Europe required individual development of a country and its education system, but mutual coordination of higher education and the creation of a European Higher Education which is crucial for the overall development of Europe. Mainly for this reason, the over 40 countries of Europe endorsement of the Bologna Declaration after 2000. This process is the respond of Europe to the globalization accompanied by technological development, because the modern society can not play a serious role in the global, world's knowledge unless there is a radical restructuring of higher education system. Therefore, the European higher education by nature and tradition, somewhat languid thoroughly transformed into a dynamic camera. The process of Euro-integration, the admission of new states into the Union, leading to the creation of a more complete and more influential in Europe, "century of knowledge", particularly in building and strengthening its intellectual, cultural, scientific and technological dimensions. Here are the changes that is necessary for improving the educational process:

Figure 1: *The content of teaching reform of vocational schools for teachers*



Graduate School of Professional Studies in Education Tutors in a one-year accredited postgraduate studies teachers for educational work with children who have special educational needs of. At the direction of the school year (209/10), entered the first generation of students who are already specialized and completed their studies.

In the following, the starting points and the conception of the curriculum upon which started specialization students, and student evaluations – residents on how to meet their expectations and, finally, what in this respect seem to move on to support the genuine inclusion in pre-school education. Steps to further reform Preschool Teacher Training College in Sremska Mitrovica relate to goals that determine the characteristics of future teachers-specialists who are educated in our institution and objectives relating to the continuation of the reform. Core competencies of teachers of 21 century should be knowledge of:

- nature of the child and its development,
- ways to encourage the development institutional and non-institutional forms of work with children,
- ways of identifying children's needs,
- harmonization work program to the needs of children cooperation with parents, peers, professional associates and the community,
- identification and use of available resources making individual plans and programs with co-workers for children with special needs.

The methodology of this model of education of teachers 21 century needs attention paid to contemporary forms of learning that are more appropriate to the needs of specific studies, education for teachers of pre-school children such as interactive forms of learning – a team, learning development projects, designing and developing learning collection, collections and reviews, asking questions and learning to recognize the problem, learning techniques, expressive, dramatic teaching and learning through role-playing, learning through modeling, teaching through learning how to learn, and so on.

Background of the study programme

Study program of specialized studies teachers to work with children who have special educational needs (assuming and gifted and talented), based on humanistic principles, in the sense that each person should be helped to thrive. We emphasize that the purpose of the program as follows:

- 1 The acquisition of applicable knowledge on the development, characteristics and needs of children with developmental disabilities and gifted children;
- 2 Training for participation in diagnosing developmental characteristics of children and the creation of programs and stimulating corrective work with children with special needs;
- 3 The acquisition of professional skills in the field of methodology of working with children with special needs;
- 4 Building an understanding and sensitivity to the special needs of preschool children and positive attitudes towards inclusion of children with special Poterba into regular kindergarten;
- 5 Developing the ability to apply knowledge, understanding and professional skills in resolving the complex problems of development, education, learning and behavior of children with special needs;
- 6 Training for track and acceptance of innovation in preschool education, especially in the area of specialization;
- 7 Training for continuous research and improvement of the educational process in the field of specialization;
- 8 Developing the ability to present their findings and achievements of the professional and general public;
- 9 Training in teamwork in preschool;
- 10 Mastering strategies for achieving partnership with children, parents and other adults;
- 11 Training teachers to encourage the local and wider environment to solve the problems of children with special needs;
- 12 Mastering the study program, students acquire general and subject-specific skills that contribute to the efficient performance of professional, scientific and artistic activities.

How our students evaluated specialist studies

In order to gain insight into what our students specialized study enrolled 2010/11 school year, think about the most important issues of specialized study in our school, we conducted an anonymous survey. We surveyed 29 students who quite regularly come to class. It's a small sample, but it represents 50% of all students. Empirical findings, which we present here, in terms of assessment and evaluation of the study Programme 2011/12. Year in question, as well as the ways in which we upustuili in its execution, are very interesting and important for us.

What are students expected to learn the new advanced studies

This question is answered all respondents. According to the frequency and similarity of individual responses to their expectations are grouped and ranked as follows:

- 1 That will actually improve the more qualified and competent upbringing and education to children with special needs, where they would like to focus more on working with children who have developmental disabilities, and others in children with higher levels of ability or specific talent. In this sense, many suggest in-depth specialization: especially for educational work with children who exhibit specific developmental disorders and specifically to work with children increased opportunities.
- 2 That, in the preceding, to find out what is really new in terms of what you could find at the undergraduate level.
- 3 That he will have perfected the skills of labor, especially in terms of recognition and diagnosis of developmental semtnji, making individualih plans and programs of educational work, how to integrate these children in group work with other children, to facilitate making contact with them and cooperating with their family.
- 4 To be confronted with more specific examples related to the practice;
- 5 That specialization more flow through prakatičan work, term papers, dealing with specific developmental disorders of children and concrete solutions to their problems.
- 6 To get detailed instructions for use, in terms of specific methods, techniques and instruments.
- 7 Will introduce new methods.
- 8 To hear more personal experiences of teachers of certain subjects.
- 9 To gain more knowledge about how, in terms of behavior, talk and work, deal with this category of children.

10 That the study programs focus on gifted children and those with higher possibilities of development in different directions.

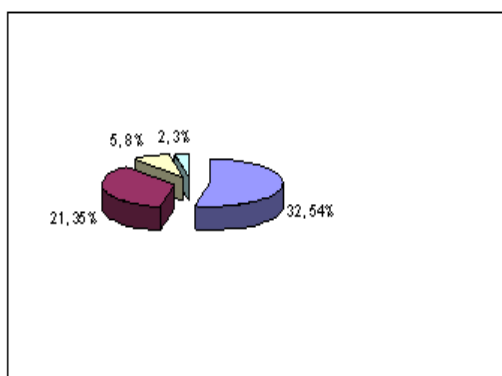
The research was conducted in March 2013th year at the Preschool Teacher Training College in Sremska Mitrovica. The structure of the questionnaire consisted of questions that were related to the development of skills and abilities of students and issues of monitoring and evaluation of student activities.

The statement that the students during the teaching process develop their skills to cope in the current educational setting is supported 60% answered "mostly yes" and "completely". That is very satisfactorily.

Students during the teaching process develop their skills to cope in the current educational situations	number	%
not at all	2	10 %
generally not	6	30 %
usually	10	28 %
fully	11	32 %

That students often do not learn in a team with other people and to be sufficiently non-practicing teamwork shows 62% of responses.

Students learn how to work with others in a team	Number	%
not at all	9	32,54 %
generally not	6	21,35 %
usually	2	5,8 %
fully	1	2,3 %



The statement that the Preschool Teacher Training College in Sremska Mitrovica students during the teaching process of the specialist studies are not developing their teamwork.

They are not practicing enough to work together as they wish.

The statement that the Preschool Teacher Training College in Sremska Mitrovica students during

the teaching process of the specialist studies to develop their coping skills in educational situations involving inclusion, supported with only 12% of "mostly yes" and 8% "completely".

Students in the study develop their managing skills in educational situations involving inclusion	Number	%
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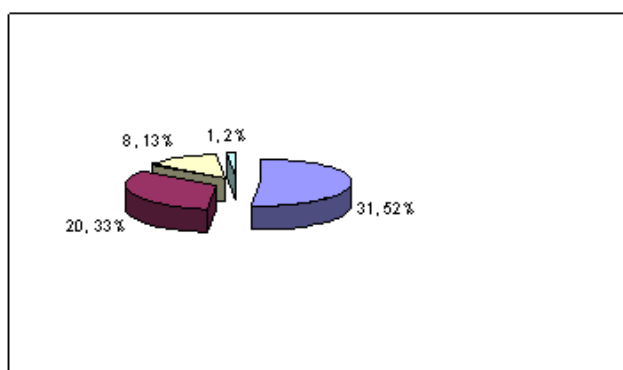
not at all	10	40 %
generally not	10	40 %
usually	7	12 %
fully	2	8 %

The range of responses to the question of whether students learn how to solve problems in specific methodological fields, there were 78% response mainly to "and" completely ".

Students learn how to solve problems in specific areas of methodological	Number	%
not at all	4	12%
generally not	3	10%
usually	20	70%
fully	2	8%

Term papers are confronting students with the solution of specific problems. This type of learning is generally not present in the vocational school.

Students gain specific theoretical knowledge and practical skills by preparing term papers	Number	%
not at all	9	32 %
generally not	6	20 %
usually	2	8 %
fully	1	1 %



A large number of students were aware of the fact that it is a necessary factor in student evaluation of teaching quality. However, it should be noted that the monitoring and assessment of learning outcomes should be conducted in partnership with the participation of teachers, students and preschool because only then evaluate directly affect the maintenance, formulation of standards and improving the quality of teaching at the vocational school.

Student evaluation of teaching is necessary	Number	%
not at all	0	0 %
generally not	1	3 %
usually	20	70 %
fully	8	27 %

What would the specialist studies should specifically train

In relation to themselves and their competencies students in this survey were not so much critical, did not specifically declared to them the skills, know-how or lack of professional competence specifically, but, nevertheless, presented the views and opinions can be concluded that they lack most is the following:

- ⇒ Knowledge and skills to diagnose certain conditions in every child and the development of individual programs and plans;
- ⇒ Insert the inclusion of children with individual needs of all kinds of group activities (areas) with other children;
- ⇒ Communication skills (with children, parents and relevant professionals in the region);
- ⇒ Special skills to work with talented children;
- ⇒ Training of methods that really helping them.

Skills which students would like to especially master

On this issue we have information similar to the previous one. These are the following:

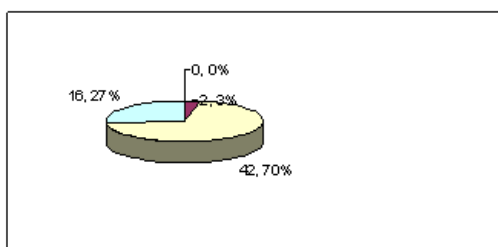
- ✓ Knowledge and skills related to the complete individualization of programming and planning educational activities coordinated with disabilities that the child exhibits;
- ✓ Ability to also observations of children with developmental disabilities or special preferences;
- ✓ Interviewing skills;
- ✓ Playing the accordion;
- ✓ Preparation of exemplary educational work;
- ✓ The ability to self-evaluation.

What are they teaching the subject areas that should be substantially update and expand

Since some students choose to work more with children who have developmental disabilities and some with gifted children and children of higher development opportunities and a more rapid advance, they strive to increase the number of options or types specifičnijeg profounder and professional development. In this regard, some students want more perfected form of special educational obrazovog work in the field of music, art, physical education and drama, some, more generally, for expanding and enriching the field of general and methodical education, and some of expansion of facilities in the area of pedagogical and psychological sciences, because these are the contents of the base assumption of successful educational practices.

To what extent are specialized studies met the expectations of students

The degree of fulfillment of the expectations of student she is the turning point where the balance is whether the intended study what they wanted to achieve or not. Unlike the reviews we have received in relation to the major objections to the contents of the study here is a picture significantly better, but still not enough to ensure that we were completely satisfied. Here is the situation when we asked the question whether they are satisfied with the learned, or whether the study met the expectations of students:



One of the respondents do not have an answer.

Given that fully met the expectations of about 1/3 of students, partly fulfilled the expectations of more than a 1/3 of students, we find that the program and the organization of our study did succeed, and in this respect can not be satisfied.

Necessary actions for the further development and improvement of specialized studies

To raise the level of efficiency and quality of study program content, as well as the increased focus on the development of desirable professional skills relevant to educational work with children who have developmental disabilities, can contribute the following measures:

- ❖ Reducing the number of cases and teaching materials that are not directly related to methodological issues or areas of pedagogical and psychological sciences;
- ❖ Better organization with a special understanding for employees (extraordinary) students and presenting pedagogical practices in institutions where, according to the principle of inclusion, raise children with special needs;
- ❖ To study more exercise through practical activities, practice in real situations, study, work, and less through theoretical lectures. In particular, not through lectures in which reiterates what prtezentovano at the undergraduate level. It especially emphasizes the fact that in terms of specialization;
- ❖ Need more new knowledge and practical experience of some professor;
- ❖ Less generalization and more concretization in terms of highlighting examples of where the really helped a child;
- ❖ More tips and recommendations relevant to the practice;
- ❖ Help to ensure that teachers are more prepared for classes;
- ❖ Not to neglect the category of gifted or talented children.

Conclusion

Based upon the accreditation of specialist studies to be achieved and evaluation of students, the curriculum and organization studies, as well as the professional expertise of teachers, it could be concluded that:

- 1) Expectations of students in residency were partially fulfilled. They especially were deprived in terms of specialization in working with children who have greater development opportunities or special gift, because, in their view, the study focused more on educational or remedial educational work with children who exhibit specific developmental disorders.
- 2) Apparently, according to the opinion of our respondents, the need for admission to postgraduate studies performed some kind of classification of students according to their interests because we all want to devote everything. Some would like to specialize in

educational work with children who have developmental disabilities, some with gifted children, some only in the field of physical, musical, artistic, or other aspects of development;

3) Curriculum, given the areas that were covered in some cases, mostly failed, but they need some corrections and additions in terms of classes and facilities in the area of special educational diagnostics, psychology, and some methods but so are done not so classic lectures, much-needed exercise and practical activities in the communities where they live, grow up and educate children with special needs.

4) From the 'College are expected to be more committed to enriching the library relevant and more contemporary literature, and the teacher not to repeat what you have already taught at the undergraduate level, and with a lot more skill and professionalism of correctional treatment of this category of children;

5) Specialized studies, we are still not the best way embedded in the concept of the Bologna education because they evaluated a number of transferable credit points. Maybe you could look for a connection with the so-called. master program (which was initiated in the recent proposals for changing our laws on higher education).

6) Finally, once again, it is a case of specialization, not just the undergraduate students wishing to specialize.

Some sort of list of measures to improve teaching VSSSOV in Sremska Mitrovica would include:

- encourage independent learning and new methods of working with students,
- several practical, general practice,
- implementation of self-evaluation,
- introducing a number of new electives
- organizing visits preschools in Serbia and abroad.

Influence of the Material and Technical Equipment of School on Application of Some Forms of Teaching in Elementary Schools

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Ensuring the quality and efficiency of the teaching process by application of different forms of teaching is conditioned by multiple factors. Today, in a world of knowledge which is characterized by all encompassing expansion of scientific knowledge and accelerated development of technologies, one of the most important factors in teaching is material-technical equipment of the school. Material-technical equipment of the school as one of its characteristics, relates not only on the existence, but also on constant innovation of material and technical resources and devices used in teaching; and it represents the basis for election, planning and practical realization of teaching forms.

By encompassing the practical reality, teaching technology and didactic media, material-technical side of teaching directly determinates planning, programming and realization of teaching activities; and defines their character, quality and success in realization of projected goals and objectives of educational work. A significant influence of material-technical equipment of the school is evident in the realm of application of different forms of teaching. Being the form of engagement of teachers and students, characterized by a kind of sociological organization, the forms of teaching are based and directly dependent on existence of material-technical prerequisites. Considering the fact that Serbia has set standards (*Normativi*) in this domain, which are similar to the standards of the developed European countries, we can ask the question: Whether they are the reality of our teaching practice?

With the aim to enlighten the reality of teaching practice, in this article will be presented the results of the empirical research on characteristics of material-technical equipment of elementary schools and the influence of the material-technical equipment of schools on application of some forms of teaching in elementary schools.

Theoretical framework

Modern conditions of the knowledge society and the overall expansion of the technology impose the demand for continuous innovation and improvement to the system of education and teaching as its most systematic concept. These demands apply to all areas and fields and teaching and they are the assumption of its quality and efficiency. Given the importance they have, this paper will present the influence that material and technical equipment of schools have on the implementation of certain forms of teaching as conditions to provide quality teaching.

Material and technical equipment of schools is a necessary condition for modern teaching, and it is a factor which has a significant impact on planning, programming and implementing teaching. Assuming that there are teaching materials whose nature can be specific, material or spiritual, material and technical basis of teaching includes: the source reality, teaching technology and didactic media.

Material and technical conditions for teaching play a significant role in achieving the final outcome of this process because they are necessary for achieving goals, tasks and aims defined in General curriculum of primary education. Given the importance they have, material and technical work conditions require constant innovation, development and modernisation. Its characteristics should serve to put students in a position of a “subject”, to help them, adjust to the nature and characteristics of certain teaching subjects, to introduce differentiated forms of work and strengthening the connection between school and everyday life.

Considering the fact that in Serbia there are *Norms* that regulate this area at the national level, as well as the fact that these are similar to the standards of developed European countries, the question is whether they are the reality of our teaching practise?

The mentioned *Norms* are given along with Rulebook on norms for school facilities, equipment and teaching aids for primary school (“Official Gazette of FRY – Education Gazette”, No.4/90) and they are its integral part. As its name suggests, elements that are further defined with it are: school facilities, equipment and teaching aids.

Standards related to the school facilities are related to the design of school buildings and school space that needs to be designed in the form of adaptive didactic blocks which could create stimulating teaching situations. Modern school environment implies such an organisation in which there will be possible to work in smaller or larger groups, to perform simple, basic teaching or a combined one. In addition to the school building and the inside of a school, modern organisation of school area must include wide school area which consists of: school garden, playground, free and grassy area, sports facilities, etc.

The quality and efficiency of teaching are substantially determined by the available equipment. The equipment that contributes to the modern organisation of teaching process is the equipment which is adapted to the

student, his/her age and needs, as well as to the nature and tasks in school subjects being studied at school. Its main goal is to find the most effective way to allow teachers to realise teaching, and to allow students acquire knowledge, that is, develop abilities and skills in an easier, more reliable and best way.

Teaching aids as a didactically determined reality are used in situations where it is not possible for objective reasons to use primary sources of knowledge, so these represent a very important and very effective source of knowledge. Due to their specific features, there are various types of teaching aids used in teaching:

- 1) *Visual teaching aids* are based on visual perception (visual dimension), and based on dimension and movement they can be divided into two-dimensional or three-dimensional, that is, dynamic or static.
- 2) *auditory-based teaching aids* – based on auditory perception (component). Radio shows, CDs, presentations over PA systems, etc. are usually used in teaching.
- 3) *audio-visual aids* – they combine audio and video component (TV shows, audio movies etc.)
- 4) *textual teaching aids* – various textual material used as knowledge source and as a material for spiritual work (texts, articles, literary works, encyclopaedias, etc.)

	Two-dimensional	Three-dimensional
Static	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - drawings – images - photographs – posters - graphs – diagrams - cartograms – slides - film strips - maps (geographic etc.) - tables (chronological etc.) - etc. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - collections (very numerous and diverse) - products (dry and wet) - models (static) - models - etc.
Dynamic	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - application - dynamic pictures (perforated images with a spiral as a base in order to achieve dynamic effect) - film (film element) - TV shows 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Dynamic models - instruments - appliances - machines - abacus - puzzle - globe - planetarium - etc.

One of the requirements related to teaching aids which is anticipated by *Norms* is the requirement that they should be placed within reach for students and teachers and that they can use them without any difficulties in terms of availability.

The mentioned norms, although dating back to 1990s, even today represent a reasonable framework based on which school work can be self-assessed and assessed. Thus, the process of self-assessing and assessing schools in Serbia lists the following indicators in the area of material and technical resources:

1. school premises and equipment (classrooms, offices, library, yard, adequate furniture, modern information technology, space for children to socialise, etc.)
2. teaching aids (books, encyclopaedias, teaching material, audio and visual material, computers, photocopiers, etc.);
3. use of available material and technical resources (available to teachers and students during curricular and extra-curricular activities).

The fact that the defined norms aim at equalising conditions in primary schools as well as their rational improvement shows how important material and technical working conditions are. In this sense “the prescribed norms include the minimum requirements that schools and communities must provide”. But for objective reasons norms should not be seen as an exclusive and static document because they relate to a time when, if looking at a material base, there were significant differences. (“Official Gazette of FRY – Education Gazette”, No.4/90). This document envisages constant improvement and modernization of material and technical working conditions, all this in accordance with needs, but also with possibilities of individual schools and local communities.

As we have seen, providing material and technical basis for teaching is a prerequisite for good organisation and realisation of teaching activities, but also a factor which significantly influences the process of teaching planning and programming. All the segments of education process and of teaching depend on this and are conditioned by this. Significant impact of material and technical equipment of schools is evident in the areas of implementation of teaching methods.

As a type of activity of teachers and students which is characterised by a certain type of sociological organisation, that is, of sociological formation, forms of teaching are based on and directly depend on the existence of certain material and technical prerequisites.

Given the sociological formation, forms of teaching can be: 1) frontal teaching; 2) group work; 3) work in pairs; 4) individual work (Vilotijevic, 1999). Pedagogical workshop, which combines multiple forms of teaching, appears as a modern form of teaching. Organisation of each of these forms implies the existence of certain material and technical resources, so, their selection and use in the direct practice depend on the equipment of schools.

Given the importance the applied forms of work have in providing quality and efficiency of teaching, achieving the objectives and tasks of teaching, and in achieving expected results, we have carried out a

research of how material and technical equipment of schools can influence the implementation of certain forms of teaching.

Methodological framework of research

The goal of the research is to determine whether the material and technical equipment of primary schools is satisfactory, and whether it influences teaching in terms of choosing forms of teaching.

The task of the research is to determine and analyse teachers' attitude on material and technical equipment of schools, and on its influence on the selection of teaching forms.

Research sample included 120 teachers from eight schools in the School Administration of Nis. The sample consists of 60 class teachers and 60 subject teachers.

Results of the research-analysis and discussion

Table 1. Material and technical equipment of schools and its influence on the selection of forms of teaching

Attitude regarding material and technical equipment of schools	Subject teachers		Class teachers	
	N	%	N	%
Bad	9	15	4	6,7
Satisfactory	35	60	53	88,3
Very good	15	25	3	5
$\chi^2 = 3,89$; df = 2 ; p < 0,005				
The influence of material and technical equipment of schools on the selection of forms of teaching	Subject teachers		Class teachers	
	N	%	N	%
Yes	46	76,7	40	66,7
No	14	23,3	20	33,3
$\chi^2 = 1,27$; df = 1 ; p > 0,005				

Investigating the attitude teachers have regarding material and technical equipment of schools they work in shows that it is satisfactory. In fact, 60% of subject teachers, that is, 88.3% of class teachers consider it to be satisfactory. When it comes to the attitude regarding this question, there is a significant difference between them. Unlike 25% of subject teachers who point out that material and technical equipment of schools is very good, only 5% of class teachers agree with this. These data lead us to conclude that in elementary schools, when talking about material and technical equipment, the accent is put on providing necessary material and technical resources for teaching process in higher grades. Due to the

fact that in subject teaching more complex things are being processed, the observed phenomena can be considered partly justified.

Results of the research show that over two thirds of teachers select teaching forms based on available material and technical resources in schools. There is no statistically significant difference in their views on this issue ($p > 0,005$).

If we compare these two results we can see a correlation in the results between those which assess material and technical equipment of schools as very good, and a percentage of those who do not select teaching forms based on above mentioned conditions.

In additions to the above mentioned conditions, forms of teaching are selected also based on some other significant elements (the nature, character or complexity of teaching material, etc.)

Table 2: *The influence of material and technical equipment of schools on the implementation of frontal teaching and group work*

Frontal teaching	Subject teachers		Class teachers	
	N	%	N	%
Mark 1	0	0	1	1,7
Mark 2	0	0	0	0
Mark 3	13	21,7	17	28,3
Mark 4	13	21,7	4	6,7
Mark 5	34	56,7	38	63,3
$\chi^2 = 0,089$; $df = 4$; $p > 0,005$				
Group work	Subject teachers		Class teachers	
	N	%	N	%
Mark 1	3	5	0	0
Mark 2	5	8,3	1	1,7
Mark 3	28	46,7	23	38,3
Mark 4	16	26,7	17	11,7
Mark 5	8	13,3	29	48,3
$\chi^2 = 13,49$; $df = 4$; $p < 0,005$				

Material and technical equipment of schools represents a favourable prerequisite for carrying out frontal teaching. Obtained results $\chi^2 = 0,089$; $df = 4$; $p > 0,005$ show that there is no statistical difference in respondents' attitudes regarding this question. The greatest number of teachers from both groups gives the highest mark (5) to the influence material and technical equipment of schools has on the implementation of frontal teaching (56,7%, that is, 63,3%).

Primary schools in Nis and their technical conditions are partially suitable for the implementation of group work. Statistically significant difference in attitudes of class and subject teachers was the following: subject teachers' estimation of the conditions for carrying out group work

(mark 3- 46,7%) was more moderate than that of class teachers' (mark 5- 48,3%).

Table 3: *The influence of material and technical equipment of schools on the implementation of work in pair and of individual work*

Work in pair	Subject teachers		Class teachers	
	N	%	N	%
Mark 1	0	0	8	13,3
Mark 2	7	11,7	1	1,7
Mark 3	24	40	20	33,3
Mark 4	20	33,3	3	5
Mark 5	9	15	28	46,7
$\chi^2 = 19,6; df = 4; p < 0,005$				
Individual work	Subject teachers		Class teachers	
	N	%	N	%
Mark 1	0	0	8	13,3
Mark 2	8	13,3	1	1,7
Mark 3	12	20	14	23,3
Mark 4	14	23,3	2	3,3
Mark 5	26	43,3	35	58,3
$\chi^2 = 22,63; df = 4; p < 0,005$				

Survey results show that attitudes of class and subject teachers' significantly differ with respect to the influence technical equipment of schools has on the implementation of work in pairs, that is, individual work. In terms of attitudes related to work in pairs, it is evident that class teachers emphasise the benefits more often (mark 5, 46.7%), as opposed to 15% by the others. These results can be regarded as expected, given the fact that materials for teaching subjects for class teachers are simpler, and that their implementation mostly does not require any special teaching aids. Namely, for teaching carried out by class teachers, students usually receive teaching aids together with books they buy. Students use these teaching aids during lectures, while teachers use them in certain forms of teaching.

More frequent emphasising of mark 5 by teachers regarding the influence technical equipment of schools has on the implementation of individual work, also confirms our previous conclusion. The complexity of teaching materials being used in subject teaching necessarily requires additional teaching aids and equipment. Individualisation and differentiation of teaching at this period requires the implementation of individual work where the students will be able to use modern and adjusted teaching aids, equipment and material.

Concluding remarks

Organising modern teaching is one of the most significant, but at the same time most complex didactic issues. Its importance arises from the fact that it is precisely its quality and efficiency which determine the quality and efficiency of achieving educational objectives, defined tasks, and expected outcomes of the overall process of education. On the other hand, complexity is the consequence of it being defined through a number of factors, conditions and circumstances. This paper presents exactly one of the determining questions of modern teaching – the question of material and technical equipment of schools and its influence on the implementation of certain forms of teaching. Based on the presented theoretical assumptions and on the results of empirical survey the following results were obtained:

- 1) Material and technical equipment of Serbian primary schools (School Administration of Nis) is satisfactory;
- 2) Teachers select teaching forms based on the available material and technical resources a school possesses;
- 3) Material and technical conditions in schools are the best for carrying out frontal teaching;
- 4) Material and technical conditions in schools allow the implementation of group work, work in pairs and individual work, with the difference that the existing resources are more appropriate for classroom teaching.
- 5) The complexity of teaching material and the age of students are key elements that have to be considered during the process of technical equipment of schools.

Changes in Teaching Environment

© Dumitru CHIRLEȘAN & © Georgeta CHIRLEȘAN

University of Pitești

The paper tries to make obvious the transition from traditional education to non-formal learning by emphasizing the changes at the level of certain specific elements.

The first part presents a brief description and the main features of traditional education, formal education and non-formal education. The second part argues on the signs and reasons for transition from traditional to non-formal education. The third part is addressed to explanations and examples on the changes in teaching-learning environment when shifting from traditional to non-formal education at the level of:

- the learner
- the teacher
- the requirements
- the schedule
- the teaching methods and provisions (materials)
- the settings for delivering the teaching/training
- the recognition of achievements/learning outcomes

The paper was developed by the authors in the framework of the project titled “ALMA-DC: Adult Learning for MArginalised and Disadvantaged Citizens”, a LLP / Grundtvig – Multilateral Project, with reference number 510658-LLP-1-2010-GR-GRUNDTVIG-GMP, financed by the European Commission/The Education, Audiovisual and Culture Executive Agency. The ALMA-DC project period of implementation is 2010-2013 and the consortium includes institutions from Greece (coordinator), Czech Republic, Germany, Italy, Slovakia, Spain and Romania. The authors’ reflections and the challenges that they have identified within the current teaching environment are based on their professional experience both in academic environment and in adult education and lifelong learning. The findings are meant to be included in a Pedagogical Guidelines for teachers/trainers of migrant women and women from ethnic minorities, as a Culture Equity Model designed in ALMA-DC project.

Introduction

The project “ALMA-DC: Adult Learning for MArginalised and Disadvantaged Citizens” (reference number 510658-LLP-1-2010-GR-GRUNDTVIG-GMP) is a LLP / Grundtvig – Multilateral Project, financed by the European Commission/The Education, Audiovisual and Culture Executive Agency.

The project aims at promoting the social integration of migrant women and of women from ethnic groups and at enhancing their opportunities towards employability. In addition, the project intends to offer a model methodology to teachers and trainers who teach multi-cultural groups.

During the implementation period (2010-2013), the project consortium achieved a series of specific activities: performing a needs analysis of enterprises and migrant and ethnic minority women regarding to the labor market; creating Focus Groups in order to involve the target groups in the development of the project outcomes and to extract feedback from them; developing and testing an Interactive Course of five specific modules and a Self-assessment tool to support the target groups to integrate in society and on the labor market; designing a Culture Equity Model in Adult Education (CEM-AE) for teachers/trainers of multi-cultural groups.

The outcomes of the project are based on these activities. One of the chapters in CEM-AE envisages to emphasize the changes in teaching-learning environment and thus to support the trainers in adult education to be better prepared to act professionally in such environment.

In order to design this chapter, we performed a small research, based on observation and on the analysis of certain data collected from our previous professional experience as trainers in formal and adult education. We used observation grids, we collected information and data upon the former and current features of the teaching environment, we compared, processed and interpreted these data. The results of our survey are rendered in the following lines.

Formal and non-formal education

Education was and remains a constant preoccupation in human society. Modern-day communities cannot be imagined outside of the educational systems. Within the European Union, education and training is placed at the core of community policies and strategies. From the Lisbon Strategy that targeted to achieve the most efficient knowledge-based economy in the world, to the Europe 2020 Strategy which is EU’s growth strategy for the coming decade, education and training is recognized as the basis for society’s development and the forerunner in achieving a smart, sustainable and inclusive economy. Education is one of the five objectives that Europe wants to reach by 2020.

In time, along with the progress of society and technological development, educational systems have changed and the teaching environment has also been affected by different factors.

Traditional (formal) education is planned in cycles, levels and years of study and it is a structured, systematized and officially organised system. It includes instructional and pedagogical activities chronologically graded from kindergarten to university. It is designed, implemented and administered based on a given set of laws and norms. It is a rigorous process that involves three basic elements: the learner, the teacher/trainer and the institution (the education provider). Thus, formal education is institutionalised and it is based on study plans, curricula, textbooks, courses, teaching and learning materials. It has aims and objectives, achieved with the help of professionals (specialised teaching staff) that work in an organised methodological context to reach the educational purposes.

Non-formal education is also composed of instructional activities and actions performed within an organised and institutionalised framework, but it is achieved outside of the formal educational system, outside of the school system. Its activities are systematic and intentional and target the needs of the learner as an individual in society, to adapt to his/her special contexts, in order to achieve optimal knowledge and learning and to reduce as much as possible the difficulties and challenges generated by the more formal systems. Its character is less formal, the instructional activities are flexible and customized to the learner. Often these activities are extra-didactic, optional or facultative. Non-formal education differs to the formal one through its content and modes of achievement. In non-formal education the central role belongs to the learner, attention being shifted from teaching to learning. Usually, non-formal education fits very well to categories of persons that have less or no access to formal education: the illiterate or those with low level of education, elderly, disabled, poor, isolated, economically disadvantaged, etc.

The transition from traditional to non-formal education

When defining or identifying the type of education one searches for its features. In case of formal education these characteristics are clearly defined and precisely set. *The transition to non-formal or informal education appears when some of these features become flexible or disappear.*

Formal and non-formal education are tangent at some point, but the transition between them relies on the format in which the act of learning, the educational approach is provided and obtained. For example, we shift from formal to no-formal education when the learner attendance to the educational activities is not compulsory all the time, when face-to-face training is supplemented (or replaced to a certain extent) with other types

of activities that do not involve 100% direct contact between learner and teacher, when the majority of the teaching-learning activities are achieved outside of school or of the education providing institution (these activities may include individual study at home or at the library, readings, homework, etc.).

The transition also allows less rigid durations of learning and the adaptation of learning to the learners' own pace, different settings of the classroom, possibility for the learner to choose the best place in the classroom, selection and utilisation of educational means and materials that are external to the school/institution, in order to better fit the learner's needs and interests and to comprehensively understand the topics/subjects taught and studied.

When we change from traditional to non-formal education, the whole "construction" also changes: the educational objectives, strategies, methodologies, programmes, curricula become more flexible and more adapted to the learner, as a result of displacing the weight from the teacher/school to the learner.

Many educationalists and researchers in the field of education have stated that nowadays we are witnessing the extension of non-formal education over the traditional one, as it seems that non-formal learning succeeds to better motivate and stimulate the learners. The contemporary world issues faced by education are addressed and managed more successfully through non-formal education, as this type of education allows the relaxation of teaching-learning contents, diversification of optional educational offers, increase of alternative educational pathways, the possibility for education providers to design and develop their own curriculum according to local training needs.

Non-formal education does not exclude synergetic combination between all types of education: formal, non-formal and informal. It ensures a high quality of the instructional and learning process through the content of curriculum, didactic evaluation and recognition of learning outcomes and also through quick integration of ICT.

Signs of change in the teaching learning-environment

In more concrete words, the changes in the teaching environment may be observed at the level of:

- the learner
- the teacher
- the requirements
- the schedule
- the teaching methods and provisions (materials)
- the settings for delivering the teaching/training
- the recognition of achievements/learning outcomes

Today *the learners* are busier and more burdened by daily duties; they dispose of less free time, but in the same time are better informed, having greater access to information and knowledge due to the Internet, ICT-based means, web-based platforms and e-Learning opportunities.

A general trend observed in trainees is that they are – to a certain extent – demotivated and harder to be made interested in learning or instructional demarches. Tired, engaged in many social and professional activities that occupy all their time and allow them to spend only a relatively short time on learning and training, the current trainees have to find their own balanced solutions. But paradoxically, the modern learners find themselves constrained by society and professional environment to learn, to upgrade their knowledge, skills and competencies, to acquire new qualifications. This is also due to the high mobility allowed and required by the EU labour market but also due to the generalized current crisis (in all fields of activity: economics, politics, culture, health, education, military) that Europe and the whole world is passing through, a crisis that imposes changes in personal and professional life in the quest for adaptation and survival solutions. To such learners, a new, motivating and modern teaching-learning environment should be offered. Hence, the changes of the teaching methods, contents and materials.

In the change of the teaching environment, the greatest burden is on *the teachers*.

The teachers have the difficult task of transforming the learning aims and objectives into reality. Teachers have to identify the real needs of people and provide for them.

Teachers have to train themselves so that they are capable to reach these standards and to hold a level of expertise far beyond the learners' level (e.g. regarding new technologies, especially ICT, with which the current generation of learners is well acquainted, more familiarised).

Since in our times we can see advanced forms of non-formal systems emerging, adaptation of trainers to such systems is requested by the needs and interests of those who are learning (the learners), therefore the trainers have to adapt themselves and to learn in their turn how to provide learning through non-formal methods. So, this is a challenge for teachers too, that they have to face! Therefore, the teacher needs training, by first learning himself how to offer education within a non-formal environment!

The teachers/trainers working in non-formal education (adult education, lifelong learning, continuing education, etc.) need to possess good skills in Internet navigation and in using PCs and software (mainly Microsoft Office and certain educational software).

Another challenge for them is to master at least at the level of "satisfactory" certain foreign languages of large circulation (English, French, German, Italian and Spanish) in order to access scientific literature and educational provisions and materials in foreign languages, pertaining to the disciplines/subject that s/he teaches.

As modern teachers within non-formal and lifelong learning contexts are working with different marginalised and disadvantaged categories of people (immigrants, ethnic minorities, unemployed, etc.) the ability of managing mixed teams, with different cultural and religious backgrounds represents another evidence of the changes that took place in the teaching environment.

The qualities and professional training of such teachers go towards even more specific skills, like pedagogical skills for differentiated groups of learners. Modern teachers must master exhaustive knowledge in the field of youth pedagogy or the pedagogy of adults, as in their work they are confronted with different age groups. It is largely admitted that teachers and trainers have to accordingly approach the young and the elderly trainees, by taking into consideration the particularities of their age (in terms of resistance/reluctance to learning, duration of classes/teaching sessions, teaching-learning methods and approaches, frequency of breaks, types and complexity of tasks/homework, etc.).

Our discussion about how the change of learning environment affects the teacher and which changes have been produced in the teacher himself cannot be complete without analysing the teacher's ability to manage group dynamics and the knowledge, skills and competencies s/he has in the field of Multiple Intelligence Theory. The teacher should be able to apply efficiently the Multiple Intelligence Theory by identifying and valorising each type of intelligence of his/her learners.

Additional teacher skills refer to his/her capacity of applying new and modern teaching methodologies (e.g. embedded learning, Open and Distance Learning, courseware, online courses and e-platforms) and methods (e.g. critical thinking, brainstorming, heuristic conversation, devil's advocate, role play, simulation, etc.).

Operating with handheld technologies and organising learning through outdoor activities could be an added value for a really professional non-formal teacher.

The requirements of non-formal education are not the same as for formal learning. First of all, the presence of the learner is required to a smaller extent: the program is restructured so the learner has flexibility in attending courses and in allocating more time to external activities outside of the institution that provides the learning: only face-to-face activities, team/pair work or experiments are implemented in school, while the other are performed at home or in environments outside of the school.

Nowadays there is a generalized request for alternative educational pathways, aside from the formal learning's rigid standards, options to be successful in offering more and better education at all levels, for all individuals, from "cradle to the grave" as stated by the Education, Audiovisual and Culture Executive Agency (EACEA) in its policies, strategies and programmes for education and training.

The requirements of non-formal education envisage meeting the needs of learners in terms of personal development, professional needs and

socio-cultural needs. This is why it has to be relevant for the individual's development and compatible with society's and the labour market's realities. In other words, non-formal education should be practical, efficient and oriented to the life-needs and values of the people. It should also target maintaining the best benefit-cost ratio for the learner, especially if we think about those categories of learners with low incomes or with weak economic/financial opportunities.

Multi-, inter- and transdisciplinarity are other key word in defining non-formal education requirements. Such approaches make the learner's development more easily achievable, more valid and vivid.

Last but not least, non-formal learning is required to produce not only short-term effects but especially long-term consistent achievements.

The schedule of educational offers is one of the elements that have also been changed in time. Compared to formal education providers, the institutions providing non-formal education need to adapt in order to face the actual competition on this specific market – the educational market – because for the majority of them, the clients (learners) display a large range of needs and characteristics in terms of backgrounds, contexts, and geographical locations and requiring implicitly adapted, customised, flexible programs and timetables. These depend on the distance between the education provider's premises and the learner's home and on the time availability of the latter. Of course that the role of the teacher is a major one in planning the instructional program and in elaborating the timetable, since the teaching environment in general has considerably changed.

Evening classes or weekend classes are possible in non-formal education to better fit the availability of learners. Intensive courses could also be acquired when the learners request them.

These are only few examples worthy of being mentioned here of how the learning schedule changed.

The teaching methods and provisions (materials) embrace a multitude of possibilities in non-formal education. To mention only few of the most known, we can name here:

- narration/lecture
- brainstorming
- problem-solving
- case study
- demonstration
- explanation
- discovery
- test-teach-test
- learning by doing
- plenary session
- pair-work
- group-work
- individual work
- role play

- debate
- controversial debate (“devil’s advocate” technique)
- problematization
- heuristic conversation
- critical thinking/analysis
- exposition

We will not insist on a description of these or on underlining their features as this is not the purpose here. Anyway, extensive literature on the subject is available and those interested to find out more can easily reach it.

Lectures in front of the class, blackboard and chalk are still in use, but nowadays teachers like to largely supplement them by using, in a combined way, PCs and PC projectors, plus educational materials and provisions on different types of support: paper (booklet, maps, textbooks, dictionaries, guidelines, reviews, etc.), CDs and DVDs, internet provisions, web-based tools, video-audio, PC-tablets, eBooks and other gadgets. Handheld technologies are not negligible as teachers use them more and more often in their practices in the classroom.

Settings for delivering the teaching/training have known a great progress since we shifted from traditional to non-formal education: instead of organising the teaching by having the teacher in front of the class and all the learners being seated in desks in rows, modern classes (due to modern teaching technologies and modular adapted furniture and equipments) work on different arrangements, like for example: rectangular, circular, U-shaped desk configuration, cluster of desks, etc.

Teacher should pay increased attention to classroom settings as it is proven that these arrangements influence the learners’ attitude towards learning, their behaviour during the teaching process and their learning patterns.

Duration of the class is a matter of “negotiation” – in the good sense – and could be of 50 minutes but also less. Break allocation depends on the learners’ learning style, pace and psychological profile.

The location of the class is also atypical, as courses may be delivered not only in schools, but also in libraries, in research units, in collaborative centres, conference halls, at NGOs premises, training companies, etc.

The recognition of achievements/learning outcomes is a sensitive issue in all types of education, since reaching high objectivity is always a difficult task. In traditional education learners’ assessment is rather built on only one (or few) evaluation types and endeavours, taking place at the pre-established moments. But in non-formal learning this is achieved through a diversity of methods and tools that ensure increased correctness, objectivity and findings closer to the real performance of the learners. In non-formal education teachers usually apply a combination of evaluation and assessment types, both qualitative (interviews, focus-group, open-ended questions, essays, stories, case studies, field notes, document

review, etc.) and quantitative (close-ended questions in tests, surveys, desk research, etc.), that displays more accurate results on the achieved learning outcomes. In non-formal learning, the pre- and post-testing, the observation during the teaching/training, the ongoing evaluation, the initial and final assessment and the self-evaluation are often used as a “battery” of assessment resources. To these assessment tools correspond a multitude of tools and instruments that – again – can be assembled in a large variety of combinations. We will not insist now on their description.

Recognition of prior learning (RPL) and even of prior experiential learning (RPEL) as well as compatibilisation of the learning between different providers of education, from different countries represents one of today’s concerns in non-formal education. In order to support this compatibilisation, the non-formal educational systems started borrowing from the European Credit system for Vocational Education and Training (ECVET) the use of a more detailed description of the learning outcomes, divided into three categories: knowledge, skills and competencies. There is a general trend in Europe and an advanced development and progress in acquiring a compatible and transparent system for validation and recognition of learning achievements. Education and learning providers along EU jointly work to conclude Learning Agreements and to further implement Memoranda of Understanding, based on Transcripts of Records. Any learning experience achieved in an institution abroad can be validated through the Europass Mobility Certificate (if it is about a professional training) or through a Youthpass Certificate (if it is an experience acquired as a youth volunteer).

Conclusion

All in all, we have to agree that there have been tremendous changes in the teaching environment! We also may conclude that non-formal education is all about the learners, it is an enriched teaching and learning environment!

The Survey of ICT Equipment in a Primary School in Budapest and Its Comparison to a Representative National Survey

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Eszterházy Károly Főiskola

In the Europe 2020 strategy (2009), the European Union has stated the expectations towards the member countries including the further development of the digital competence.

According to a representative national survey in 2011, the quality and the quantity of the information communication technology (ICT) equipment of the Hungarian primary schools are still far from the expected results. In general we have a ratio of 15 students sharing one computer in primary schools; meanwhile the EU standard would be 8 students per computer. According to the survey many of these school computers are older than 4 years, therefore they can be considered out of date. To summarize my results after the data comparison of my own school and the Hungarian school average, I can claim that there is no difference in respect of the ICT equipment but we have an outstanding result concerning the student-computer ratio as my school has achieved the expected EU level.

Introduction

The education system has not achieved the task to create the conditions for the ICT-competencies, and could not meet the requirements of the 1st Lisbon aims which stated that by 2010 the digital literacy should have been developed in all over Europe by the effective use of ICT tools.

Education should encourage and enable students to enter the digital age but teachers should be able to apply the latest technological results. It can be a problem that the quantity or the quality of devices is not satisfactory in the schools. In 1995 in the White book about education – which was an important document of the educational strategy of the European Union – can be found that the cooperation in the school and between schools should be encouraged (Komenczi, 2000).

The ICT infrastructural establishment was governed by higher authorities in Hungary too and the different developments were organized according to these plans. First in 2000 within the Sulinet programme every school in Hungary had a fix internet access, later around 2005 the interactive board programme was launched. The intention of the ‘Public education IT development programme’ was to equip every second

classroom in Hungary with interactive board connected to a computer and a projector by the year 2010.

The 1st Lisbon aims also claimed that by 2010 in the primary schools there should be one computer for every eight student.

The results did not meet the requirements that is the reason why the EU started its Europe 2020 strategy, where the formal education has a priority (Tóth et al., 2011).

A new, 21st century digital learning space has to be established following the EU aims. It can be done only if the modern digital devices are available, keeping in mind that only these are not enough to achieve effective learning.

An other problem is the technological determinism although the reality always proves the opposite of this uncritical optimism. Only the existence of devices in the school does not help us to achieve the aims of the European Union. It can have more reasons but mostly misunderstanding and oversimplification cause the problem. For example, internet access is not equivalent with conscious internet usage. The use of computer in the classroom is not equivalent with modern pedagogical methods. The established knowledge base is not equivalent with knowledge. The digital tools by themselves do not mean effective learning (Komenczi, 2009).

The basis of the realization of the EU aims is to map the ICT infrastructure in the Hungarian schools. It is important to know what role the input indicators have in the primary education. There were significant surveys about it, but they were voluntary or examined it from non-educational aspect.

The most respected survey was done by Hunya Márta and her colleagues at the Hungarian Institute for Educational Research and Development. In the eLemér programme they surveyed hundreds of voluntary schools. From the survey it is clear that the schools have good digital equipment. The possibility to use ICT in the classroom is given in many schools, but the access of them indicates that it is limited (Hunya, 2011).

The representative survey – see (Tóth et al., 2011) – was done by Hungarian *MTA-SZTE Képességkutató Kutatócsoport and SZTE Neveléstudományi Intézet*, where they surveyed the ICT equipment of Hungarian schools in 2011.

Their research was based on four questions: – How are schools equipped with ICT, with special attention to the computer rooms?, -What is the student-computer ratio in the primary schools?, – How are schools equipped with ICT in the non-computer classrooms?, -Are there regional differences?

The study did not survey the interactive boards in the primary schools, therefore I can not compare my data of this important ICT device to a national representative average.

In my school we have 6 interactive boards, which are installed in classrooms and to use them more effectively the computer room is not

equipped with it. At the distribution we divided them equally between the junior and the senior section, therefore there are 3-3 interactive boards. We have 18 classrooms, excluding the gym and the exercise room, and six of them are equipped with interactive boards, so our coverage is 33 percent, which means that every third classroom has an interactive boards and we have not got unexploited, not installed interactive board.

Next I survey the ICT equipment of my school based on three questions of the MTA-SZTE survey and I compare the results with the national average.

1. The ICT room survey
2. The non-ICT classroom survey
3. The student-computer ratio

I do not survey the regional differences, but in the above mentioned survey there are interesting findings about it. They claim that there are no handicapped regions in Hungary, there is a proportional distribution regarding the ICT equipment of the primary schools (Tóth et al., 2011).

Survey

I teach in a primary school in Budapest – hereafter: my school – where there are 444 students and 51 teachers. In every grade we have 2 classes and there is a section for handicapped students with special needs, where there are special education teachers. My schools student number is above the Budapest average, which is 390,8.

The ICT room survey. In my school, we have one ICT room – computer room – where there are 20 desktop computers for the students allowing to teach a half-class.

According to the survey, 50.3 % of the schools have one and only 31.7 % of them have got two ICT rooms. They also examined how many students can be placed. The ratio of ICT rooms with 10.1-20 computers is around 70%, which enables to place a half-class. In Hungary only 10% of the schools have ICT rooms with 20.1-30 computers, which allows to place a whole class.

In my school, the ICT room computers are more than 5 years old. According to the survey, 40.2 % of the schools have computers older than 4-5 years. In my school, only desktop computers are available for the students, all of them are connected to the internet and the ICT room is equipped with a projector.

According to the survey, 97.6 % of the schools have desktop computers and 74.2% of them have a projector in the ICT room. The comparison: my school has results in a match with the national average, but the age of the computers are below the data of the survey. Besides the national data, the Budapest data is also interesting. 32.2% of Budapest schools have brand

new computers, which are not 1 year-old and 12.9 % of them have computers which are older than 5 years.

Nationally every ICT room is connected to the internet, thanks to the Sulinet programme. Another important result is that every ICT room computer in Hungary has Windows operation system, thanks to the Tiszta Szoftver programme.

The non-ICT classroom survey. In my school, the non-ICT classrooms are equipped with computers and internet access. There are 17 classrooms, excluding the computer room, the gym, the exercise room and the teachers' rooms. We have 12 classrooms with desktop computers, which means 70% coverage.

According to the survey, 61% of the schools have internet access in the non-ICT rooms. In my school, there are 7 classrooms with projectors, six of them are combined with interactive boards. According to the survey, 40 % of the schools have classrooms with projectors, but the number of these classrooms is not more than 10. The comparison: the non-ICT classrooms of my school have results in a match with the Hungarian average, but as regards the number of projectors, my school is above average.

The student-computer ratio. In my school, there are 444 students and I added the computers which are for student use. In the school statistics the computers are indicated as they are used for educational purpose, community purpose or administrative purpose. The administrative-purpose computers are for the administrators and the teachers, the community-purpose computers are in the library. I did not count these computers as they are not used in the classrooms. In the ICT room there are 20 desktop computers. In the non-ICT classroom there are 12 desktop computers. And I added the 18 student laptops in the English rooms. For a total we have 50 computers.

In my school, there are 8,88 students for one computer. According to the survey, in Hungary there are 15 students for one computer in average, but if we do not count the computers which are older than 6 years, then this number grows to 19. The comparison: my school has an extremely high rate compared to the national average. In this regard, the school meets the European Union requirements, which recommended 8 students for one computer.

Summary

The ICT equipment of my school has a match with the national average. There are two significant differences. Unfortunately, our ICT-room computers are all in the outdated category considering their age. We can be proud of one outstanding data, which is the student-computer ratio. It is due to our efforts to expand our digital equipment. Last time – in 2012 – we managed to buy 18 student laptops in a project. Because of the technical development, it is necessary to modernize and expand the

school equipment. In my opinion the most effective way of it is to apply for projects. It is very important for the school to apply for equipment which reflects to a real need and the teachers want to use it. The usage and the efficiency of the devices which are from an external source is uncertain because it does not come from internal motivation.

I would like to emphasize that the equipment survey does not indicate if these devices are used in the classroom or they are just the part of the school statistics. In the future I would like to survey all the schools in the district or to make an international comparison.

It can be said that the use of digital tools does not directly mean efficient learning and to continue my research I will examine the student and teacher competencies as well.

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First Steps in the History of Modern European Languages Teachers' Training in Ukraine

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It is generally recognized that historical knowledge gives some objective perspective in distinguishing traditions and evaluating contemporary innovations or new approaches. It is equally true in the field of language education which goes as far as human history itself. Celce-Murcia (1991) names this perspective 'healthy'. I would also call it 'existential', as soon as it is connected with understanding and remembering the origins of the profession of a language teacher. Almost universal seems today admitted by Celce-Murcia (1991:3) ignorance present among teachers concerning fluctuations and dramatic shifts, fads and heroes in the history of second/foreign language teaching resulting in frequent changes of approaches and methodology that have been taking place until recently. The same 'vague sense of history' is typical towards the roots and bases of the development of systems of professional training of language teachers in different countries of the world.

In this article I briefly examine the first institutional forms of professional education of prospective non-native teachers of modern foreign languages (NNTFL) that appeared at the very beginning of the 20th century on Ukrainian territory belonging to the state entity of the Russian Empire.

Methodology

On the level of specific scientific methodology for the study of History of pedagogy, the research was guided by the ideas of the systemic approach that demands to analyze all the components of the historical process not separately but in their interaction. The paradigmatic approach allowed me to evaluate historical facts through the lens of the educational paradigm they belonged to. Comparative study of historical phenomena was used as a tool of making generalizations and distinguishing differentiating features. Method of chronological historical reconstruction and hermeneutic method were applied to discover meanings in the written texts under analyses and to find out real reason-and-effect coherence between historical events.

The resources used in the research include archival documents that illustrate and detail the events and phenomena studied: reports of commissions; university council's meeting materials; business and private correspondence, etc. from the funds of the Central State Historical

Archives of Ukraine in Kyiv (ff. 707, 2061) and the State Archive of the city of Kyiv (ff. 16, 244).

Historical background

Although the need to learn and teach foreign languages is as old as a human necessity to communicate and share ideas, goods and services, the origins of regular school languages education are generally found in the study of Latin in the 17th century. One of the most famous language teachers and methodologists Comenius, who published first textbooks for teaching classical Latin between 1631 and 1658, was the first to work out the main rules and principles for the teachers of languages to follow. He articulated also demands towards a language teacher as a professional: 1) to know well what he is teaching; 2) to know how to teach others, being tolerant towards students' mistakes and ignorance; 3) to have a wish to teach what he knows to others (Comenius, 1982:532-533).

Generally accepted on the European continent and in Great Britain, the study of classical Latin was popular and prestigious from the 17th to the 19th centuries (Richards & Rodgers, 1986). In the Russian Empire, formal secondary education in gymnasiums, that started to be opened in Russia on a broad scale since the foundation of the Ministry of People's Education (1802), was based almost exclusively on learning mathematics and classical languages (Latin and Old Greek) up to the 20th century.

The introduction of the classical languages into the secondary school curriculum as an obligatory subject was in accord with the all-European revival of interest in the history and culture of the ancient world. The process of language teaching was aimed first at acquiring knowledge about the ancient literature, philosophy and mythology. But then the focus on classics as a tool of developing thinking skills through grammatical exercises and translations from and into Latin became predominating.

Children entering gymnasiums were given a rigorous introduction of Latin grammar and texts from the first year of schooling and Old Greek from the 3^d year of studying. Other foreign languages (French and German) that were also called "new" languages (contrary to "ancient" languages) got the status of school subjects secondary in importance for general education.

Analysis of Latin grammar and rhetoric became the model for other foreign languages study. As *Howatt* (1984:4) admits, in the absence of grammatical and other descriptions of the European vernacular languages, Latin was the only language that had a grammar. As long as grammar-translation method of studying classics was being applied towards studying French and German in gymnasiums in the Russian Empire, the ability to communicate in these languages was neglected. French and German were taught at school not for the sake of teaching

speaking, but in a classical manner of translating text and learning grammar rules.

On the general background of low interest during the 19th century in practical communicative skills in foreign languages in the Russian Empire, the Ministry of People's Education has not taken any steps for organizing special professional training of teachers of 'new' foreign languages in the country. They preferred to employ native-speakers as language teachers in gymnasiums and even in higher educational institutions. Quite often, such employees did not have a good command of the Russian language or any knowledge of didactical methods. As a result, they could not teach translating properly or use teaching techniques effectively.

The beginning of the 20th century was marked by a significant increase in the value of new languages in the content of school education in the Russian Empire. It was caused by the swift advance in the industrial and agricultural development of the state, growing economic and trade relations with other European countries. Accordingly, the problem of training non-native teachers of European languages inside the country, the solution of which had been postponed repeatedly in the past, reached the level of a critical urgency.

The early years of the system of training non-native foreign language teachers in Ukraine

By that time, neither from university or gymnasium teachers of modern languages any special higher education was required. To get a position of a language teacher, it was enough to pass an exam before the test committee appointed by a university. History and Philology faculties of the Empire universities, as a Russian researcher *Nikonova* (1969:21) stated, for the greater part of them, were not ready for the preparation of new teachers of foreign languages. Since the very moment of their establishment, they were focused on the special preparation of teachers of classics, because these languages were strongly believed to produce an unrivaled educational impact on the minds and moral values of the youngsters. Modern foreign languages (German, French, English), being relegated at that time to the subsidiary position in terms of their educational influence, had not been valued highly enough to constitute a separate academic department.

Opening of special departments at universities for training experts in new languages – "neo-philologists" – has become an urgent demand of the times only due to a major educational shift away from the classics towards the "new" languages at the end of the 19th century.

The first projects of educational curriculum for Romance-German departments were worked out by Prof. Khalanskiy in Kharkiv (1889) and Prof. Dashkevich in Kyiv (1892).

In the project of the department of Romance and Germanic Philology (neo-philological) proposed by a professor of Kharkiv University M.Halanskiy there were two main objectives: 1) to "promote thorough study of Germanic and Romance languages – and literatures by individuals who have chosen this area of philological knowledge as a subject for special classes" and 2) "*to prepare candidates for the vacancies of teachers of new languages – in secondary schools*" (TDIAU, f.2061, op.1). An important feature of the project was the recognition of a new role of modern European foreign languages that equaled them with the role of ancient languages.

The project was grounded on distribution of neo-philological education into general philological and special preparation in Romance or Germanic Philology, as well as into theoretical and practical. During the first two years of study, students of German and French were planned to listen to general courses along with other philologists (from the classical and Slavic-Russian departments), but with a larger number of compulsory classes in new languages. Since the 5th semester classes at a special Romance-Germanic department were planned to begin with the bifurcation into two subdivisions: a) Romance and b) Germanic. Special training of the 3rd and 4th year students was focused on the study of some Romance / Germanic dialects; History; French / German language and the History of the Western-European literature (Ibid.: 2-3). The project included also practical language classes to be devoted to translations and analysis of students' written papers. And to enhance the level of mastering the language it was recommended to conduct relevant theoretical courses in the languages learnt and to send abroad for 1 year foreign language students who would have attended a full course of the Romance-Germanic department and would have satisfactorily passed the examination in the subject of specialization.

In Kyiv St. Volodymyr University, professor of Western Literature M.P.Dashkevych addressed the History and Philology Faculty with his request to establish a Romance-Germanic department yet in 1892. He repeated his request in 1901 (DAK 1901, f.16, op.340). Kyiv University took up a practical solution of the issue in 1902. A special commission organized by the History and Philology Faculty of the University has revised the university and faculty curricula and has offered to split it into five departments: Philosophy; Slavic-Russian; Historic; Classic and Romano-Germanic (DAK 1902, f.16, op.474).

The proposed curriculum of the Romance-Germanic department included the following groups of subjects:

- A.: Introduction to Romance Philology; Translation, analysis and interpretation of ancient relics of the Old French language;
- Translation, analysis and interpretation of ancient relics of the Provençal literature; Old French texts; Provençal texts; Old French Grammar; Interpretation of relics of the French literature of the XVI-XVII centuries; Relics of the Italian literature of the XIII century;

Comparative grammar of the Romance dialects; Critical analysis of medieval Latin texts.

B: Gothic language (grammar, translation, analysis and interpretation of relics); Mittelhochdeutsch (grammar, translation, analysis and interpretation of relics); Anglo-Saxon language; Old Northern relics; Althochdeutsch; Middle English Literature of the XVI century; History of German; Shakespeare; History of the English language.

C: General course of the Western literature; 2 special courses.

In addition, at each year of studying workshops (analysis of students' written works) were presupposed (Ibid.: 14-15).

Both projects received strong support on the part of the faculties' staff. However, it took about a decade to practically implement them. As a result, the first Romance-Germanic Department was opened at the History and Philology Faculty of Kyiv University about 1906, followed in a couple of years by a similar department at the University of Kharkiv.

As follows from the analysis of the practically implemented content of the educational process at the Romance-Germanic department in Kyiv University up to 1920, not all of the planned subjects were taught there. Among those studied on a regular basis there were such as History of the Western literature; Comparative linguistics; Gothic language; Comparative grammar of the Indo-European languages; Sanskrit.

In the submitted list of subjects it is easily observed that specialized scientific knowledge was predominating in the content of training perspective teachers of foreign languages. The amount of psycho-pedagogical subjects, meanwhile, was minimal (till 1904 Pedagogy as an independent academic discipline was not taught at the Russian universities). Students could also attend practical classes in psychology and pedagogy, where they could present and discuss their written essays on the chosen issues (DAK 1902, f.16, op.340; DAK 1905, f.16, op.465).

In general, in university education, a strong belief dominated that the foundation of teacher training there should be based on learning special philological sciences, while pedagogical skills could be acquired by every teacher empirically during his individual in-service practical activity, but not at the university.

All the subsequent practice of university education in Ukraine (until 1920) would show the implementation of this trend (Misechko, 2008). For example, throughout this period there was not any course in Methodology of teaching languages (French, German, English, Italian). No school practicum in language teaching was suggested either.

Another significant watershed in the history of language teachers' preparation in Ukraine is connected with the activity of the Higher women's courses. They also followed the trend of setting up Romance-Germanic Departments (the first one appeared in Kyiv in 1909). Besides, they marked a radical shift towards involvement of women into the higher education and teaching (women were not admitted to the Russian Empire

Universities and not allowed to teach at boy's secondary schools till 1911-1913.

Among the characteristic features of the Higher women's courses were their non-governmental status (they were not financed by the state and were held primarily thanks to public and private funds) and a university-like type of academic curriculum. They provided girls who had completed a course of studying at secondary educational institutions (gymnasiums, so-called "institutes for noble maids" or other schools for girls) with the ability to: 1) continue further education on a higher level and 2) get prepared for the professional activity. It is necessary to note that the sphere of professional activity of the graduates of the Higher women's courses was limited at that time to preschool or primary education of children at home and teaching at girls' gymnasiums.

Preparation of teachers of foreign languages – was carried out at the biggest in Ukraine Higher women's courses in Kyiv, Odessa and Kharkiv. However, Romance-Germanic department was opened only in Kyiv at the Faculty of History and Philology in 1909.

Following the tradition of the Kyiv University, the academic curriculum for this department in the fall semester of 1909 included such subjects, as: Introduction to German philology; Introduction to Romance philology; Western medieval literature; Historical grammar of the Italian language; Workshop on the history of German literature; a course in the study of the works of Goethe; History of the Western literature of the 19th century; Althochdeutsch; the Provençal language. The level of teaching and the curriculum at the Courses were approaching the University's. University professors were invited to read lectures. Among modern foreign languages – taught there were German, English, French and Italian (DAK 1909, f.244, op.17).

An important role in preparing trainees at the Courses was given to psycho-pedagogical disciplines: Psychology, Pedagogy and Psychology of creativity.

Comparative analysis of the content of the educational process at the Kyiv Higher women's courses and at the Kyiv University showed that by the set of subjects and the lecturing staff, both of them were mostly similar. However, in 1911/1912 academic year, the curriculum of the Kyiv Higher women's courses undergone some changes, which in some aspects even exceeded the Kyiv University. For example, the number of classes in Introduction to philosophy and Psychology grew, as compared to those at the University (DAK 1911-1912, f.244, op.17, spr.256). For Romance-Germanic department the level of academic programme was strengthened (as compared to the University) due to introduction of additional courses of the History of French and German Literature, and of courses of Interpretation of French and German texts [ibid.: 5]. For those who planned to devote themselves to educational activities, in addition to general courses on the Theory and History of education, a course on

Methods of teaching modern languages was added (it had never been enlisted in the University curriculum) (Ibid.: 20).

As a special distinctive feature of the Kyiv Higher Women's Courses I note inclusion in the content of language training of practical classes in a form of German and French seminars where trainees could exercise in the German and French spoken language, which were not in the regular curriculum of Kyiv University. French and German seminars were opened for those trainees who planned to devote themselves especially to teaching languages (DAK 1911-1912, f.244, op.17, spr.203). Seminars in the two groups – younger and older. Each group orally and in writing worked on reading and detailed explanation of the texts: prose – in the younger group and poetic – in the older. The younger group was taught a short course of "refined language", as a model of which served theatrical language; and the older group listened to a phonetics course, mastering correct pronunciation and articulation of sounds. The methodological effect of the seminars lied in the thorough analysis of the literary and grammatical material learned with reference to teaching it at school and to the demands of school textbooks (DAK 1911-1912, f.244, op.17, spr.203: 25-26). As the schedule of subjects for examinations at the History and Philology department for the spring and fall semesters of 1913 states, trainees who were preparing to teach foreign languages could acquire a good philological basis contributing to the development of their knowledge in comparative linguistics (TDIAUK 1913, f.707, op.81). They also had an opportunity to listen to various culture-focused courses and courses in literature and history both of their own country and countries of the target languages. Psycho-pedagogical training was strengthened and broadened with every coming year, and included Psychology, History of the Russian school, History of education, Logics. Periodically, methods of teaching foreign languages were taught.

When assessing the overall level of training prospective teachers of foreign languages – at the Higher women's courses, it should be noted that following the general trend of reaching the university level of higher general education and professional training the Courses, however, provided a better pedagogical preparation due to provided theoretical grounds for teaching languages and practical orientation of seminars in speaking and writing.

Conclusions

Introducing the first steps made in Ukrainian higher educational institutions at the beginning of the 20th century in designing and practical implementation of neo-philological departments for training teachers of foreign languages, it is possible to single out some features that might be of interest now:

- 1) since the very appearance of Romance-Germanic departments the importance was proved of preserving in the curriculum for training prospective teachers of foreign languages subjects of humanitarian nature (philosophical, historical, literary, linguistic, including classic literature); psychology and pedagogy; and special professionally focused subjects with an emphasis on the history, literature and culture of the target language countries;
- 2) professional education at such departments was divided into general and special, theoretical and practical, with great importance being attached to earlier specialization;
- 3) reaching an optimal temporal relationship between general and special courses turns out to be a permanent problem in the content of training of teachers of foreign languages in Ukraine, as far as the carried historical study reveals;
- 4) university level of pre-service training of language teachers in Ukraine traditionally presupposes a high degree of their fundamental philological education;
- 5) since the first steps in professional preparation of non-native language teachers in Ukrainian higher schools of learning it was considered extremely important to improve their command of language through auditing special theoretical courses in the language being studied and through internships in the countries where the language was spoken. The significance of this observation grows if we think of the general trend of that time to study languages not with the help of Direct methods, but according to Grammar-Translation method;
- 6) professional neo-philological training in the observed time-period presupposed obligatory study of at least two foreign languages – the demand which later, along the Soviet period, would be more often neglected than carried out.

I hope that this brief review of the first steps in setting off a system of professional education of NNTFL in Ukraine taken almost a hundred years ago will elevate the level of knowledge about the country and its cultural achievements, and provide a background for comparative reflection on the modern process of pre-service training of teachers from the historical perspective of different countries of the world.

Changes in professional education of NNTFL throughout history reflect recognition of changes in the level of proficiency and structure of competency of prospective teachers of foreign languages, such as a move towards oral proficiency rather than reading comprehension as the goal of language study; a growing need for practical training in teaching rather than theoretical acquisition of the language system and reading of the native authors. Today's models of foreign language teachers' education in Ukraine reflect contemporary responses to questions that have been asked often throughout the history of language teaching, and as such they

prove the importance of historical reflections on the road having been covered during this time period.

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The Role of the Geometrical Visualisation in Problems Related to Algebra

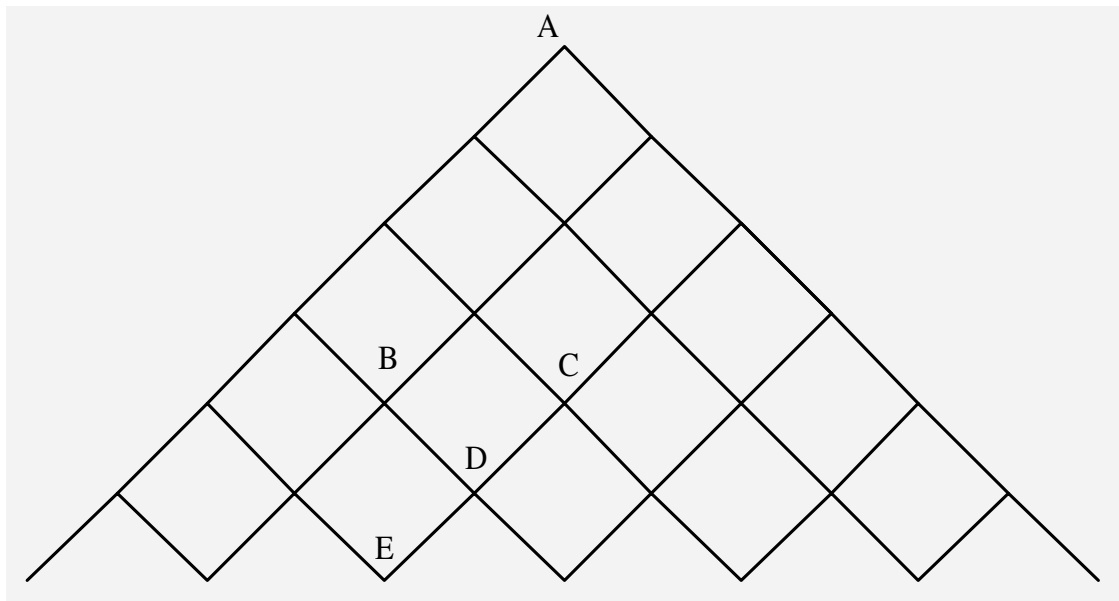
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This paper considers the roles and effects of the geometrical methods in the mathematical problem-solving strategies. Sometimes the abstract algebraic methods are quite difficult and the teachers have to find other methods, such as the geometrical visualisation, to prove some equalities and inequalities, or to solve different problems related to algebra. The geometrical approach is very important in the case of combinatorial analysis and counting problems, too. The heuristic strategies include exploiting analogies, introducing auxiliary elements in a problem or working auxiliary problems, decomposing and recombining, exploiting related problems, drawing figures or generalizing. The geometrical visualisation is very important in such heuristic strategies, especially in cases the algebraic approach presents some difficulty and the students can handle the problem more easily with geometrical methods. In the primary school the children can operate with algebraic sums or combinatorial problems involving a small number of pieces. In the high school the possibilities of the generalisation appear, and the students possess a broad class of resources, such as the mathematical induction, the binomial formula, the Pascal triangle etc. With this set of tools the students can manipulate more difficult problems and the alternative of the geometrical visualisation becomes more interesting. In the special math classes, where the students knows differential and integral calculations, the teacher can combine the tools of integral calculations and the geometrical presentation to prove inequalities related to infinite sums. The paper contains some mathematical problems with two or more solving methods, where the geometrical visualisation plays an important role.

Problem 1: Find the number of routes from point A to the points B , C , D and E respectively, if we can go in the South-East or South-West directions! (Figure 1.)

Figure 1



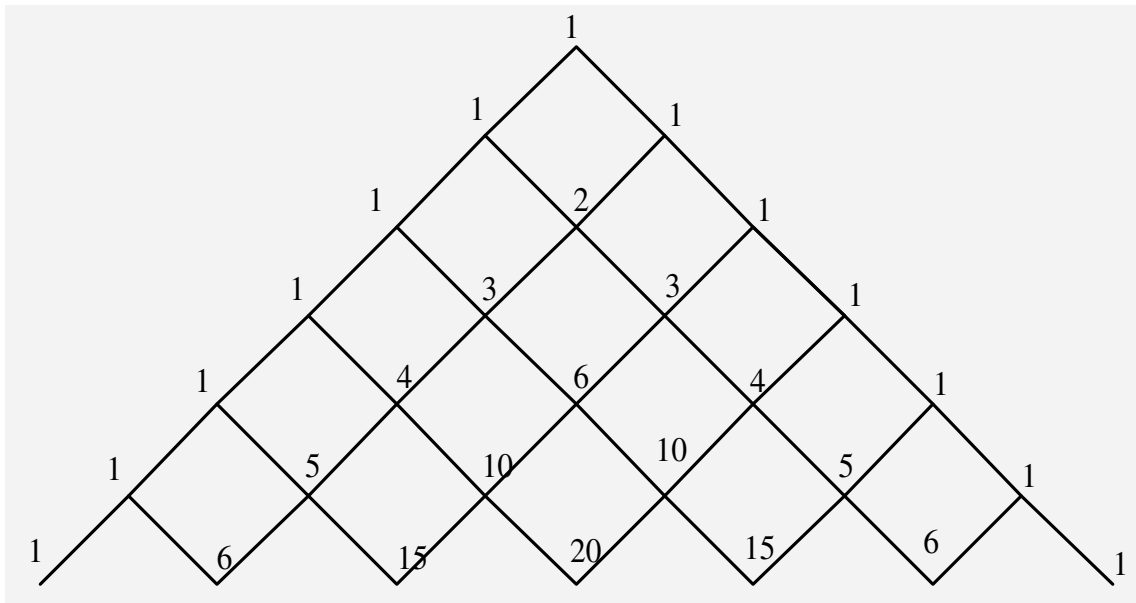
Geometrical method

Let us begin with the point *B*! The number of routes is small and we can proceed drawing each of the routes with different colours and count their number. The solution is the same in the case of the point *C*. The number of routes is small (4 in the case of the point *B* and 6 in the case of the point *C*), therefore we have to use a small number of different colours. But the number of routes is bigger in the case of the points *D* and *E*, and we have to find another way to solve the problem. First let us count the number of routes to each point situated in the 2nd, 3rd or 4th rows, with the use of the colouring. The number of routes is small and we can apply the method used in the case of points *B* and *C*. We can notice an interesting relation between the numbers: every number (different from 1) is the sum of the two numbers situated in the Nord-eastern and Nord-western neighbourhood, such as:

$$4 = 3 + 1 \text{ or } 6 = 3 + 3$$

From the observations mentioned above, we can draw a heuristic conjecture, regarding for any points *X*, *Y* and *Z*, where the points *X* and *Y* are the North-eastern and Nord-western neighbours of the point *Z* (because we can reach the point *Z* from the points *X* and *Y*). The number of routes to the point *Z* is the sum of the routes to the points *X* and *Y*, respectively. This is a useful recursive formula and using this method we can add other rows to the table and we can find the *Figure 2*.

Figure 2



Similar problems are treated in the same way in the Hungarian 8-th grade Mathematics books. The geometrical visualisation based on colouring is very useful, but this method has own disadvantages because we have difficulties in the implementation of the method of colouring in the case of a big number of routes. In this case we have to combine the geometrical method with the recursive formula. This is a useful tool and 8-th grade students can handle it and solve the problem in the case of a bigger number of rows. The 8-th grade students can formulate a heuristic conjecture based on the *Figure 2*, namely the numbers of the routes to the different rows are equal to:

$$\text{Row 1.: } 1+1 = 2 = 2^1$$

$$\text{Row 2.: } 1+2+1 = 4 = 2^2$$

$$\text{Row 3.: } 1+3+3+1 = 8 = 2^3$$

$$\text{Row 4.: } 1+4+6+4+1 = 16 = 2^4$$

Combinatorial method

Let's try to calculate the number of routes to the point *E*, without counting all of the numbers in *Figure 2*. We can notice that we have six movements and we have to move four times to the South-West and two times to the South-East. The counting problem is transformed in a combinatorial one, since the six movements can be replaced by four *W* letters (which represent the movements to the South-West) and two *E* letters (which represent the movements to the South-East). The problem can be treated

as a permutation with repetition, namely the number of routes is equal to the number of possibilities to put the six letters in different orders:

$$\frac{6!}{4! \cdot 2!} = 15 \quad (1)$$

Another way to solve the problem is the usage of the combinations without repetition. The number of routes is equal to the number of possibilities to choose four numbers from six (1,2,...,6), namely to choose the location of the *W* letters in the row (if we stow the *W* letters, two places remain for the two *E* letters). So the problem is reduced to calculate the number of the combinations without repetition of six elements taken four at a time (in mathematics a combination is a way of selecting several things out of a larger group, where order does not matter):

$$\binom{6}{4} = 15 \quad (2)$$

Using the formula (1) and (2), we can generalize, namely we can calculate the number of routes from the top to the *k*-th element in the *n*-th row (the element situated in the top is in the 0-th row):

$$\binom{n}{k} = \frac{n!}{k! \cdot (n-k)!} \quad (3)$$

The combinatorial methods are useful mathematical tools what the 11-th grade students can manage in order to solve problems. We can observe that there are many similarities between the problem of the permutations with repetition and the problem of the combinations without repetition, and the teachers have two different methods to highlight the solution of the same combinatorial problem. In there are many problems related to combinatorial calculations and it is introduced the notion of the *Pascal triangle* (Kosztolányi et al., 2006).

The Pascal triangle and its recursive definition

The numbers in *Figure 2* forms the so called *Pascal-triangle*. Using the formula (3), we can introduce the *Pascal-triangle* in the following way:

$$\begin{array}{cccccc}
 & & & & & \binom{0}{0} \\
 & & & & & \binom{1}{0} & \binom{1}{1} \\
 & & & & & \binom{2}{0} & \binom{2}{1} & \binom{2}{2} \\
 & & & & & \binom{3}{0} & \binom{3}{1} & \binom{3}{2} & \binom{3}{3} \\
 & & & & & \binom{4}{0} & \binom{4}{1} & \binom{4}{2} & \binom{4}{3} & \binom{4}{4}
 \end{array}$$

An element of the *Pascal-triangle* has the form $\binom{n}{k}$, where n is the number of the row and k is the number of the place where the element is located in the row. If we study carefully, the *Pascal-triangle* can be considered as a coordinate system, where the top element is the origin of the axes, k and $n-k$ are the coordinates of the element $\binom{n}{k}$.

The geometrical method gave us a heuristic conjecture regarding to the *recursive definition* of the numbers of the *Pascal-triangle*. We can calculate the element $\binom{n+1}{k}$ using the elements situated in the North-Eastern and North-Western neighbourhood:

$$\binom{n+1}{k} = \binom{n}{k} + \binom{n}{k-1} \quad (4)$$

The equality (4) is called the *recursive formula* of the *Pascal-triangle* and is valid for any nonnegative integer n and any integer k between 0 and n . This equality is also a useful formula between the numbers of the combinations without repetition. The 12 grade students can prove the validity of the formula using the methods of the mathematical induction, but we omit the calculus in this paper.

The geometrical interpretation is also useful to find out that the marginal numbers in the *Pascal-triangle* are equal to 1, because there is only one route from the top to an element situated on the margin, namely the following equalities hold:

$$\binom{n}{0} = \binom{n}{n} = 1 \quad (5)$$

The equality (5) is called the *border-condition* of the Pascal-triangle. The elements of the Pascal-triangle are unambiguously defined with the use of the recursive formula and the border-condition.

The notion of the Pascal-triangle is defined in the 11-th grade Mathematics-books, concomitant with the combinations without repetitions and the permutations with repetitions.

The Pascal-triangle and the set theory. In the 9-th grade we set out the following problem.

Problem 2: Find the number of subsets of the sets $A = \{a, b, c\}$ and $B = \{a, b, c, d\}$!

The 9-th grade students can handle the problem through simple enumeration of the subsets, as we proceed in the following:

Table 1: *The subsets of the set $A = \{a; b; c\}$*

Number of elements	0	1	2	3
Subsets	{}	{a};{b};{c}	{a ; b};{b ; c};{a ; c}	{a ; b ; c}
Number of subsets	1	3	3	1

Table 2: *The subsets of the set $B = \{a; b; c; d\}$*

Number of elements	0	1	2	3	4
Subsets	{}	{a};{b}; {c};{d}	{a ; b};{a ; c}; {a ; d};{b ; c}; {b ; d};{c ; d}	{a ; b ; c};{a ; b ; d}; {a ; c ; d};{b ; c ; d}	{a ; b ; c ; d}
Number of subsets	1	4	6	4	1

The 9-th grade students are able to draw the following conclusion related to the aggregate number of the subsets:

Table 3: *The number of the subsets*

{}	$1 = 2^0$
{a}	$1 + 1 = 2 = 2^1$
{a ; b}	$1 + 2 + 1 = 4 = 2^2$
{a ; b ; c}	$1 + 3 + 3 + 1 = 8 = 2^3$
{a ; b ; c ; d}	$1 + 4 + 6 + 4 + 1 = 16 = 2^4$

The 9-th grade students' conclusion is that the number of the subsets is 2^n in the case of a set of n elements, but they can not prove this conjecture.

If we examine the table we can find out that the numbers in the right hand side column of the *Table 3*, are equal to the numbers in the *Figure 2*, namely the number of the subsets is equal to the numbers in the Pascal-triangle. This conclusion is related to a problem in the 11-th grade.

Problem 3. Let us consider a set of n elements and find the number of its subsets!

Solution: Combinatorial method: First we have to find the number of the subsets of k elements. The task is identical with the problem to select k elements from n (where order does not matter) therefore we have to calculate the number of combinations of n things taken k at a time without

repetitions, namely the $\binom{n}{k}$ element of the Pascal-triangle. Therefore the

number of subsets is equal to the sum of the elements situated in the n -th row. We mentioned that the combinations without repetitions and the permutations with repetitions are interrelated therefore we have another way to calculate the number of subsets of k elements. Let us consider a set of n elements and a set of k signs \oplus and $(n-k)$ signs \otimes . If we want to choose an element from the set we put the sign \oplus otherwise we put the sign \otimes . For example in the case of the set $A = \{a, b, c, d, e\}$ the succession $\otimes \oplus \otimes \oplus \oplus$ means the subset $\{b; d; e\}$. In the case of a set of n elements the number of subsets of k elements is equal to the number of different sequences which contain k signs \oplus and $(n-k)$ signs \otimes . In the case of each element we have two possibilities to choose (sign \oplus or sign \otimes) therefore a set of n elements has in the aggregate 2^n subsets. We can conclude that the sum of the numbers from the n -th row in the Pascal-triangle is:

$$\binom{n}{0} + \binom{n}{1} + \binom{n}{2} + \dots + \binom{n}{n-1} + \binom{n}{n} = 2^n \quad (6)$$

We can prove the equality (6) using a *geometrical method*, too. The sum from the right-hand side of the equality (6) is equal to the number of routes from the top to the n -th row. In order to draw a route we have to choose at each step one from two possibilities (to make a step to the South-East or the South-West). Because of the fact that there are n steps from the top to the n -th row, we have to make the decision n times. Therefore the number of routes is equal to 2^n .

Algebraic method

The 9-th grade students can handle the following algebraic formulas:

$$(a+b)^0 = 1$$

$$(a+b)^1 = 1 \cdot a + 1 \cdot b$$

$$(a+b)^2 = 1 \cdot a^2 + 2 \cdot a \cdot b + 1 \cdot b^2$$

$$(a+b)^3 = 1 \cdot a^3 + 3 \cdot a^2 \cdot b + 3 \cdot a \cdot b^2 + 1 \cdot b^3$$

$$(a+b)^4 = 1 \cdot a^4 + 4 \cdot a^3 \cdot b + 6 \cdot a^2 \cdot b^2 + 4 \cdot a \cdot b^3 + 1 \cdot b^4$$

We can observe that the coefficients are equal to the numbers of the Pascal-triangle. In this way we can write the so called binomial formula, available to the 11-th grade students:

$$(a+b)^n = \binom{n}{0} \cdot a^n + \binom{n}{1} \cdot a^{n-1} \cdot b + \binom{n}{2} \cdot a^{n-2} \cdot b^2 + \dots + \binom{n}{n-1} \cdot a \cdot b^{n-1} + \binom{n}{n} \cdot b^n$$

In order to prove the formula we have to write $(a+b)^n$ as a product:

$$(a+b)^n = (a+b) \cdot (a+b) \cdot \dots \cdot (a+b)$$

In order to get the term $a^{n-k} \cdot b^k$, we have to choose a from $n-k$ factors and b from k factors and multiply them. We can do this in $\binom{n}{k}$ ways,

therefore the coefficient of the term $a^{n-k} \cdot b^k$ is $\binom{n}{k}$.

If we replace $a = 1$ and $b = 1$ in the binomial formula we get:

$$(1+1)^n = \binom{n}{0} \cdot 1^n + \binom{n}{1} \cdot 1^{n-1} \cdot 1 + \binom{n}{2} \cdot 1^{n-2} \cdot 1^2 + \dots + \binom{n}{n-1} \cdot 1 \cdot 1^{n-1} + \binom{n}{n} \cdot 1^n$$

and the equality (6) follows.

With the use of the binomial formula we get another important conclusion regarding to the numbers of the Pascal-triangle. The substitution $a = 1$ and $b = -1$ lead us to the following conclusion:

$$(1-1)^n = \binom{n}{0} \cdot 1^n + \binom{n}{1} \cdot 1^{n-1} \cdot (-1) + \binom{n}{2} \cdot 1^{n-2} \cdot (-1)^2 + \dots + \binom{n}{n-1} \cdot 1 \cdot (-1)^{n-1} + \binom{n}{n} \cdot (-1)^n$$

$$\binom{n}{0} - \binom{n}{1} + \binom{n}{2} + \dots + (-1)^{n-1} \cdot \binom{n}{n-1} + (-1)^n \cdot \binom{n}{n} = 0 \quad (7)$$

There is a *geometrical method* to prove the equality (7). We put alternately + and - signs in the n-th row in the Pascal-triangle. All of the routes to the $(n-1)$ -th row continues in two different ways, one route

leads to an element with the + sign and the other to an element with the – sign.

Problem 4: Find the following value:

$$1 + 2 + \dots + (n-1) + n = \quad (8)$$

Solution: There are several algebraic and geometrical methods to solve this problem (see Ambrus, 2010), but we proceed using another *geometrical method*. Let us consider the point $\binom{n+1}{k+1}$ in the Pascal-triangle. Obviously the number of routes from the top to this point is equal to $\binom{n+1}{k+1}$. The elements $\binom{k}{k}, \binom{k+1}{k}, \binom{k+2}{k}, \binom{k+3}{k}, \dots$ form the k -th diagonal of the Pascal triangle. The element $\binom{n+1}{k+1}$ is situated in the $(k+1)$ -th diagonal. All of the different routes to the point $\binom{n+1}{k+1}$ have to reach the $(k+1)$ -th diagonal passing through the points $\binom{k}{k}, \binom{k+1}{k}, \binom{k+2}{k}, \binom{k+3}{k}, \dots, \binom{n}{k}$ therefore the number of the routes to the element $\binom{n+1}{k+1}$ is equal to

$\binom{k}{k} + \binom{k+1}{k} + \binom{k+2}{k} + \binom{k+3}{k} + \dots + \binom{n}{k}$ and the following equality holds:

$$\binom{k}{k} + \binom{k+1}{k} + \binom{k+2}{k} + \binom{k+3}{k} + \dots + \binom{n}{k} = \binom{n+1}{k+1} \quad (9)$$

In the case $k = 1$ we obtain:

$\binom{1}{1} + \binom{2}{1} + \binom{3}{1} + \binom{4}{1} + \dots + \binom{n}{1} = \binom{n+1}{2}$, which is equivalent with the equality:

$$1 + 2 + 3 + \dots + (n-1) + n = \frac{n \cdot (n+1)}{2}.$$

The 12 grade students can prove the equality (9) with the use of the *mathematical induction*. The statement is valid for $n = k$, by virtue of the border condition:

$$\binom{k}{k} = \binom{k+1}{k+1}$$

We suppose that the equality (8) holds for n , and we try to prove for $n+1$:

$$\binom{k}{k} + \binom{k+1}{k} + \binom{k+2}{k} + \binom{k+3}{k} + \dots + \binom{n}{k} + \binom{n+1}{k} = \binom{n+1}{k+1} + \binom{n+1}{k} = \binom{n+2}{k+1}$$

In the demonstration process we used the recursive formula for the Pascal-triangle. We have to mention that the above method is quite laborious, but using the equality (9) we can solve other problems related with sums.

Problem 5: In *Figure 3* we can see the first four elements from an infinite sequence of triangles.

- a) Find the number of dots in the n -th triangle!
- b) Find the sum of the dots in the first n triangles!

Figure 3



Solution:

- a) The number of dots in the triangles are:

$$\begin{aligned} &1 \\ &1+2 = 3 \\ &1+2+3 = 6 \\ &1+2+3+4 = 10 \end{aligned}$$

We can use the result of the *Problem 4*, to find the number of dots in the n -th triangle.

- b) The numbers 1, 3, 6, 10 are called triangular numbers and they are the elements of the 2-nd diagonal. Therefore the sum of the dots in the first n triangles is equal to the sum of the first n elements situated in the 2-nd diagonal of the Pascal-triangle. We can use the equality (9) (case $k = 2$) and the following equality holds:

$$\binom{2}{2} + \binom{3}{2} + \binom{4}{2} + \dots + \binom{n+1}{2} = \binom{n+2}{3} = \frac{n \cdot (n+1) \cdot (n+2)}{6}$$

We can observe that the 1-st diagonal contains the natural numbers, the 2-nd diagonal the triangular numbers and the 3-rd diagonal the sum of the triangular numbers.

Conclusions

A lot of mathematical exercise has two or more problem-solving methods, therefore the teachers have several tools to operate in the teaching process. The different domains of the mathematics (algebra, geometry, combinatorial analysis, etc.) are interrelated and the teachers' main aim is to exploit this. Obviously, it is very important to take account of the age particularities and the creativity of the students. In many cases the geometrical visualisation is more interesting than the methods of algebra and the students can operate more easily with geometrical figures, than to make calculus with complicated algebraic formulas. The students' creativity increase, when they had to find the way how to combine the geometrical objects with algebraic tools. Therefore, it is very important to use the geometrical visualisation in the mathematical teaching processes and the implementing of the problem-solving strategies.

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Adaptive Strategy Use in Mathematics Education

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This research about adaptive strategy use of different groups of pupils aged 10-14 (groups of talented pupils, pupils with learning difficulties and pupils belonging to majority population groups). First, we try to reason the choice of the topic, afterwards is presented the definitions connected to this field and presented in short Lemaire and Siegler's (1995) ASCM modell, wich we consider to be effectively used during the research work and the developed form of this the SCADS modell. Is given a short overwiev of the previous research work in this field. We consider both longitudinal and cross section measurment egually necessary. Some of these are reliable and can be effectively used, some are still being under constuction.

Introduction

Most of mathematical problems can be solved in many different ways and we ought to teach children different strategies. If we presuppose means the perfect one that will harm our pupils thinking, psychological development, selfconsideration and self assurance (Holt, 1991). It is necessary indeed to show up our pupils several, as many as possible ways of solving a problem, strategies and let them chose on the specific time and task the strategy they consider the best, the fastest and the most effective actually – this is the core of adaptive strategy use.

There have been published research works about adaptive strategy use (mainly concerning on counting and reading strategies in foreign countries learning research works. The models developed in these are widely-known abroad. This research field presented a spectacle advance during the last decade as due to Csíkos (2003a, 2003b, 2012) and addition problems and Steklacs's research (Steklács, 2009; Csíkos & Steklács, 2011) on reading strategies. But research work left some white spots in the fields of mental multiplication, percentage calculation, adaptive strategy use and proportionality deductions and I intend to focus my research work on this territories.

The international assesments show that in Hungary the elementary lower-class pupils' are higher than the average international levels, this gradually decreases during the years and the 14 years' are much under

the international level. Scientists think that this goes back to the different knowledge conception in the different countries (Dobi, 2002; Csapó, 2000).

In western countries pupils are given more realistic, real-life problems, way they be complex or very simple. This leads to developing a flexible way of thinking. Individual, flexible or even witty problem solving is a great experience for both pupils and teachers and also very motivating if properly discussed. To have a clear vision of what adaptive strategy use is can be, on the other hand, important when linked to our education policy especially when we think of the importance of having a financial awareness and way of thinking as mature adults — certainly this is a field where our pupils will need adaptive strategy use in their life future.

The role of mathematics in developing adaptive strategy use

We call strategy the methods, operations used to achieve a higher level aim or task. Strategy use turns up in several fields in education: addition, multiplication, division, reading words, talking about time. Pupils learn a few strategies before entering school and after that they learn more and more some more complicated.

The earlier research work (e.g. Payne, Bettman & Johnson, 1988) didn't pay much attention to which strategy did the individual use, because it was broadly considered that a task can be solved in one way only. In the beginning it obvious that these were differences in children's and adults' problem solving (Verschaffel, De Corte & Lasure, 1994; Siegler & Shipley, 1995; Siegler & Lemaire, 1997; Sowder et al., 1998). There is a continuous broadening in pupils' strategy set and due to this they 'll be able to match the problem solving strategies to task characteristics, when adults (Reusser, 2000; Threfall, 2002, 2009; Murphy, 2004; Verguts & Fias, 2005; Heinze, Marschick & Lipowsky, 2009; Selter, 2009; Mayer, 2010; De Corte et al., 2011).

The measurement of strategy use can be basically done in three ways

- 1) asking the monitored person how did he or she solved the problem after fulfilling,
- 2) monitoring the fault or mistakes which can be specific for a person,
- 3) both of the mentioned means can be used together.

Many scientists consider the use of adaptive strategies a field that needs support and development for pupils with poor results in mathematics. there has not been done much empirical research work here yet, but strategy flexibility turns up in national curriculums of several Easter- European countries and of the USA.

Developing our pupils flexible thinking strategies is a topical and urgent issue in Hungarian state education. It is very much on the agenda and we have drawbacks to catch up with. In Hungary we are still in a piloting phase and at the beginning of addition strategy use development, while several alternate curricula are in use in Western-European countries. Therefore, we have to search for proper answers to questions regarding the application of teaching and learning strategies and means that help different learner-groups (gifted pupils, pupils with learning difficulties and socially disadvantaged pupils) development.

Let's ask then: Is strategy flexibility a feature of mathematical strategy knowledge that has a differentiating role between gifted and poorly performing pupils? Can flexible strategy use be improved? How can be this flexibility measured and assessed? There are some for reading and addition strategies in Hungary at the moment, but nobody is searching the fields of mental calculation and percentage calculation.

Cognitive strategies

The concept of cognitive strategy is linked to *Bruner, Goodnow and Austin* (1956). In their view cognitive strategy means all the cognitive means by which we control and guide or rule our cognitive thinking and behaviour: note taking techniques, reading strategies and solving calculation problems. *Young* (1978) emphasizes that most of our problems and tasks can be solved in several ways and that the strategies at the service of each person can be considered similar to subroutines in computer programming.

This study of cognitive strategy is important because flexibility of strategies can be improved. The acquiring of these strategies can happen both formally and informally (Baron, 1978) and they show a more sensitive reaction to improving compared to intelligence and remembrance. These strategies can be divided into several groups: (1) long-term and short-term strategies by their influence (2) functioning automatically or by being consciously ruled. *Baron* (1978) suggest a division in three main groups, such as (1) central strategies helping the development of other strategies (2) general strategies: they can be used in various situations (3) special strategies: they can be used in particular fields.

The people present use very different strategy; grown-ups' strategy use is more effective and use strategies are more complicated than young pupils' strategy use. Talented children use and adapt more and more complex strategies than mentally retarded pupils or even only pupils with minor learning difficulties.

The concept of adaptive strategy use. Models of adaptive strategy use

The concept of adaptive strategy use goes back to 30 years and it was made up by Hatano in 1982 concerning abacus mastery. As Hatano thinks strategy use means awareness in each part of problem solving (in planning, tracking and checking) and several strategies of equal value can be used.

Flexibility and adaptivity of strategy has various definitions. On a cognitive psychological basis some scientists (Van der Heijden, 1993; Thompson, 1999) consider two viewpoints to be examined: strategy and problem, task types — the way they match. *Van der Heijden* (1993) considers strategy flexibility if the problem solver can adapt the used strategy to task characteristics. (A similar view is shared by Blöte, Van der Burg and Klein, 2001.) *Thompson* (1999) considers flexible strategy use the choice of a counting strategy that matches with the numbers in the problem and he also puts a stress on developing such a flexibility for elementary-school pupils. *Heirdsfield and Cooper* (2002) consider that flexible strategy use means the adaptation of many different strategies and ability to change from one to the other that one covering higher-level thinking. Meanwhile *Veshaffel, Luwel, Torbeyns and Van Dooren* (2007) underline the importance of choice effectiveness, too. They emphasize that easiness of strategy choice doesn't always parallel effectiveness of strategy choice, and sometimes proves to be more adaptive to some kind of problems. As we can notice these definitions need refinement, that's why Siegler and his team developed the ASCM, later the SCADS model, which examines adaptive strategy use from the problem solver's view.

Siegler and Shipley's adaptive strategy choice model (1995) shows how we choose the best strategy suiting the particular problem, how our strategy choice changes during years and learning situations. The model was basically created for mathematical problem solving and adapted to general problem solving. They emphasize that some strategies become automatic and need less attention and work faster during problem solving. The two scientists created a computer simulating model ASCM parts of which are: (1) strategies, (2) problems, (3) fast and correct answers. Later they refined the model. During problem solving we try to give guide and accurate answers. If it works like that we don't change strategy. When our answers are slow and inaccurate there might be two consequences: (1) We modify information about the strategy we think it over and solve the problem. (2) we modify information about the problem and look for some other answer. Lemaire and Siegler uses four concepts of data: (1) global data: how effective a strategy is on a general level. (2) characteristic data: speed and accuracy of strategy. (3) problem-specific data: how effective a strategy is for a certain type of problem. (4) distribution of data: how often

did the person use the given strategy has similar problem' solving. If a strategy has already proved effective it is difficult to cognire new ones.

Adaptive strategy use in addition problems

Siegler (1989) noticed the use of different strategies in addition problem solving as they follow: stepwise, split, compensation, simplifiing and indirect addition strategy:

Stepwise: e.g. $35+18 = 48$, $(35+10) +3 = 48$

Split:e.g. $(30+10)+ (5+3) = 48$

Compensation: e.g. $35+20 = 55$, $55-1 = 54$ (20 rounded up because it is easier to work with).

Simplifying: it can be used with numbers where the difference from the decimals is the some but in the other direction e.g. $69+21 = 70 + 20 = 90$
Indirect addition strategy: $43 -39 =4$ thinking process is the one: how much do I have to add to 39 to get 43?

Scientists says that we can study the mental calculation of children and adults by help choice/no-chice method. During the use of ASCM model *Siegler* and *Lemaire* observed adults aged from 20 to 70 solving addition problems with multidigit numbers in word problems and they draw the conclusion that people of all ages could get a better result when they could chose without restriction the strategy they considered the best.

In Hungary we study the mental calculation in condition when children can choice. *Csíkos* (2012) monitored 78 students aged 10 in addition problem solving (three digit numbers in mental arithmetic). He observed the students mainly used the split strategy. e.g: $143 +456 = (100+400)+(40+50)+(3+6)$.

Multiplication problem solving strategies

Lemaire and Siegler (1995) noticed that both pupils and adults solve multiplication problems by using retrival strategy. We remember and recoll complex ones like multiplying with 7 and 9, there is even 25% mistake probability in it. Both students and adults (65%) this strategy more and more often though not with high accurary. When learning and memorizing tables learners also fix some misleading rithms, rymes even, misunderstood reles and these together might be (by repeating the data) the basis for having constant problems in solving multiplication tasks.

Neurology also noticed that overlapping neuronnets are being active during multiplication problem solving because human brain works associative memory processes. That means that our brain connects factors and data by multiple connections and relations. This working

system of the human brain can lead to typical mistakes when using tables. Faults like 7×6 and $7 + 6$ are mixed up, or instead of 7×6 we say the nearest are usually the good answers of other multiplication problems from the tables and they usually are in the same line or column in the tables.

The following chart presents multiplication strategies used by elementary school pupils.

Table 1. *Mental multiplication and division strategy categories*

<i>Category</i>	<i>Description</i>	<i>Examples</i>
Multiplication		
<i>Counting (CO)</i>	Any form of counting strategy, skip counting forwards and backwards, repeated addition and subtraction, and halving and doubling strategies	7×8 : 7, 14, 21, ... 5×7 : 5, 10, 15, ... 7×8 : double 7, double 16, +8 5×7 : double 5, double 14, +7
<i>Basic fact (BF)</i>	Using a known multiplication or division fact or a derived fact	7×8 : $5 \times 8 = 40$, $2 \times 8 = 16$, so $7 \times 8 = 56$ 5×7 : $5 \times 7 = 35$
<i>RL separated (RLS)</i>	Numbers are separated into place values, then proceed right to left	7×19 : $7 \times 9 = 63 = 60 + 3$, $7 \times 10 = 70$, $60 + 70 = 130$, 133 5×17 : $5 \times 7 = 35 = 30 + 5$, $5 \times 10 = 50$, $30 + 50 = 80$, 85
<i>LR separated (LRS)</i>	Numbers are separated into place values, then proceed left to right	7×19 : $7 \times 10 = 70$, $7 \times 9 = 63$, $70 + 63 = 133$ 5×17 : $5 \times 10 = 50$, $5 \times 7 = 35$, $50 + 35 = 85$
<i>Wholistic (WH)</i>	Numbers are treated as wholes	7×19 : $7 \times 20 - 7 = 140 - 7 = 133$ 17×19 : $17 \times 20 = 340$, $340 - 17 = 323$ 25×17 : $4 \times 25 = 100$, $100 \times 17 = 1700$, so $(1700/2)/2 = 425$

As the chart shows research identified five strategies used for mental multiplication. There aren't any research works about this topic in

Hungary, yet. In april we studid 13 pupils's multiplication strategies by help eye tracker. The children' s age was 10 years, they solved eight word problem. The pupils used the BF strategy in problem solving type 5x7. We didn't observe the using of CO strategy. RLS and LRS strategies children used very often in problem solving. The wholistic strategy was used only by talented children. The mainstream made mistakes in problemsolving multiplication two-digit numbers, e.g. 11x13.

Developing flexible strategy use

The practicing and drilling of tables during lower-primary years are widely spread in Hungarian teaching practice, though sometimes involving games (see Esztergályos, 1990). The problem is couesd by the fact that most of these games are openly competetive and up in failure experiences and stress for children with dyscalculia. There is a strong tendency in Western-European education and institutes to develop curricula and syllabuses based on strategy research fields in order to help not to challenge student with learning difficulties in mathematics. Most scientist agree that the optimal age to develop mathematical competencies and flexible strategy use is early primary years. The younger they begin the better result they can achive (Baroody, 2003). Spanish, Australian and French research has benn done with children aged from 4 to 10 and concluded that even nursery school children have multiplication strategies and use at least two in primary school.

Siegler (2008) says that new strategies are the outcome of metacognitive and associative learning strategies, new strategies are being used with a higher speed and more accuracy. Strategy choice depends on task characteristics and situation. Scientists state that it is obviously practical to teach several strategies paralelly to pupils (*Siegler & Araya*, 2005; *Wong & Evans*, 2007). There is also a need for math teachers to develop consciously their own strategies and they need two kinds of knowledge: common knowledge about how methods works and at what degree they can be generalised.

Lo, Grant and Flowers (2008) did research work for fifteen weeks on first and second year university students thinking strategies. The math teachers-to-students have hardly developed multiplicative structures and strategies and used additional strategies instead.

Metacognitive and adaptive strategy use

Out of all cognitive strategies metacognitive strategy field has been monitored mostly (Csíkos, 2004, 2006, 2007) published several articles and a monography on this topic. Flower defines metacognitive knowledge as cognition about cognition placed upon the lower object level as a higher one. How this cognition is developed and at what measure can be developed can be connected to several scientific fields such as linguistics, psychology, mathematical thinking and learning methods.

A pupil at the age of six uses metacognitive strategies when solving a multiplication like 3×2 – does the task make sense? Which is the best strategy? Following the thinking process by paying attention to mathematical rules when counting on fingers and finally by repeating the process he has to check the accuracy. When using tables pupils just recall the right answer without hesitation and without any thinking or use of strategies.

Practicing right, correct problem solving is necessary to enrich one's strategy set and this can be fulfilled by problems that presuppose task analysis too. By consequence, this leads to students' flexible adaptive strategy use formation. Reusser confirms that teachers need to develop other teaching styles which are not the traditional ones and build up even students' errors into learning processes and thinks even the making up of a „positive error culture” to be sure what errors can mislead in which direction the solving of mathematical problems (Althof, 1999).

Conclusions

Pupils' cognitive and other skills are supposed to develop and reach their anthropological maximum during institutional education. But this turns out to be wrong for many of schoolpupils and they acquire low-level or badly-functioning cognitive skills and they leave school as functional illiterates to get into job market. This doesn't do service neither to society nor to individuals. Teachers consider that the main purpose of school education is to develop pupils' basic skills among which adaptive strategy use in mathematics is a relevant one.

As research work proved our mathematical thinking is varied, the use and choice of different strategies depend on situation, task and differs also from pupil to adult. Former research work serve lots of reliable information but also some that are contradictory. Also the age limits could be broadened. Some assessment methods and tools are also being developed at the moment. Hopefully research work will also function as ground to work out useful and effective syllabus for schools.

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The Structural Training of Professors and Leaders in 2010-2012 Built on the Assessment of the Széchenyi István University

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Introduction, Hypothesis

The Széchenyi István University is the first Hungarian higher educational institution where modern organisational diagnostic tools were applied in 2010-2012. Two-level assessment was carried out during the program:

I. level: Organisational Culture Assessment. This is the first European educational institution where we applied the top of the world Human Synergistics International's statistically valid and reliable measuring tools that are capable of the measurement of individuals, groups and organizations' effectiveness.

II. level: Individual Development (The application of Development Centre method and carry out the proven labour market trainings that were adapted to the university. The trainings were based on the Development Centre method)

Our Hypothesis was that this multiple assessment adapts the needs of the employees of the organization to the strategic changes of the University and makes the vital roles of individuals real to gain the desired changes. This kind of consciousness becomes important in terms of the changes of the Hungarian higher education economic and political area in attainment of the University development.

Partly the aim of the research and development was to create a modern academic organisation which is able to meet the XXI. Century expectation, as well as to have professors of advanced methodological skills teaching on high quality level at the university.

In our research paper we intend to present the results of the second level (II. level): Research-Development and Individual Development in order to extend the released examples of innovations in higher education.

The process and method of research-development

The first stage of development took place in 2010 between October and December. It was an organisational diagnosis which was based on a whole standardised culture development. We divide the second stage of the development program into two methodologically separated parts:

- In the Development Centre – DC there was an exploration of the existing and developed individual skills,
- In the spring 2011 there were leader and professors' skills and cooperation trainings with 100 participants.

The applied diagnostic procedures for their interactive method were able to establish a commitment in the participants and increase their motivation in connection with the aimed cultural changes.

The chronology of research-development

- 2010. October – assessment – preparation
- 2010. October- December – Culture assessment based on Human Syergistics (HS) method and (survey)
- 2011. January – Feedback based on Human Syergistics (HS) method
- 2011. February-March – Professors' competence assessment based on Development Centre – DC method
- 2011. March-September leader and professors' skills and cooperation trainings
- 2011. October closing of research development project

Competence Assessment

The preparation of Competence Centres

In October in 2010 there was a recruitment of participant who support the organisational diagnosis part but not involve in the training process.(participants of competence-forming/ profiling workshops that are part of DC and as well as the inner observers of DC)

Preparation of the observers

10 university employees took part in running the Development Centres as inner observers. Their preparation was 26th of October on a half-day workshop.

1. table: *Scenario of the preparation of observes*

<i>time</i>	<i>topic</i>
9.00	Introduction
9.20	What is the Development Centre? Presentation
9.40	Description of competences
10.00	Scenario of the Development Centre
10.45	Observational role – presentation; Situational practice to have self experience
11.10	Introduction of score sheet Self evaluation of the situation
12.30	Description of tasks with score sheets
13.00	Discussion of evaluation meeting

The other half of the observers were provided by Human Telex Consulting, as a responsible partner.

Construction of professors and leaders' profile for the Development Centres

The first part of the process of the DC was to transact the competence-forming/ profiling workshops. Here the professors' competence libraries were developed. Later the observers could measure them in specific studies.

2. table: *Scenario of workshops to make profile*

<i>time</i>	<i>topic</i>
9.00	Introduction, the aim of the workshop
	practice: virtue cards – the man at the centre, he is the value! Development can happen if we start from the power from, the existing power.
9.25	Short presentation about the Development Centre (define the idea of competence)
9.30	Collecting the most important job competences alone –they are put onto cards. Completing the list by using competence dictionary in small groups. Prescribing the collected competences-without filtering them.
9.55	Choosing among the competences the most important/ the most descriptive good job performance/5-7 competences using the scoring method alone.
10.10	Systematisation of the cards according to the chosen competences. The continued use of behaviour description.
10.45	Break
11.00	Making the chosen 5-7 competences define in 2 small groups.

	Rotating the individual competences between the groups to collect features to these by describing their behaviour. The cards are exchanged with the other group which adds its own thoughts, clarify and redefine them /circa 10-10 min.
	The group finalise the description.
	At the end they vote: How can I identify myself with the description?
12.30	Definition of competence stages on a 10 –point scale. Determination of the expected minimum excellent level. Solo scoring and summary with averaging
12.50	Closing: Summary of the day, additional steps: making a competence profile using scores. Business-driven criticism of the descriptions and feedback. Choosing the necessary tasks for the measurement and preparing the guide book for the evaluators. Before DC a short preparation for the evaluators.
13.00	End of workshop

We concluded the professors and leaders' competence profiles in the next two tables. The created professors' competence profiles.

3. table: *Professors' competence list*

<i>1 commu- nication</i>	<i>2 problem solving</i>	<i>3 cooperation</i>	<i>4 openness</i>	<i>5 reliability</i>	<i>6 personal effectiveness</i>
1. knowledge sharing	1. ability of problem recognition	1. knowing conflict management technique	1. susceptibility	1. consistency	1. self-confidence/h ealthy way/
2. gain and share information	2. analytic skill, ability to see the point	2. interpersonal and relation maintenance skills	2. awareness	2. consciouss	2. credibility
3. sensitivity to feedback (encourage to exchange of ideas, feedback)	3. systematic ability	3. adaptability	3. acceptance of change	3. loyalty	3. self control
4. discussion and reasoning skill	4. creativity	4. partnership with professors and students	4. seeking new things, curiosity	4. patience, endurance	4. assertivenes s
5. clear expression to the target group	5. improvisatio nal ability	5. empathy	5. empathy	5. discipline	5. flexibility

6. problem-solving ability	6. ability to think into others 'thinking	6. tolerance	6. thoroughness	6. rejuvenation ability
7. practical skill (not only theoretical)	7. helpfulness	7. free from prejudice	7. discretion	7. monotone tolerance
	8. tolerance			8. purposefulness
				9. motivation

Created leader's competence list:

4. table: *Leader's competence list*

<i>1 ability to develop, flexibility</i>	<i>2 creation of a favourable environment</i>	<i>3 organizational ability</i>	<i>4 conflict management</i>	<i>5 networking ability</i>	<i>6 leading power</i>
1 seeking solutions	1 team work	1 team work	1 accountability and being accountable	1 teamwork	1 showing vision
2 creativity	2 empathy	2 ability to set priorities	2 responsibility, full decision	2 empathy	2 credibility
3 adaptability to the environment	3 social interest	3 ability to know people	3 reliability	3 cooperation	3 professional ability
4 IT knowledge	4 balance	4 evaluation and reward	4 showing example	4 susceptibility	4 reliability
5 susceptibility	5 creativity	5 clear view ability	5 credibility	5 accommodating novelty	5 strength
6 accommodating novelty	6 susceptibility	6 self-confidence	6 leader's self-knowledge	6 good communication skill	6 showing example
	7 showing vision	7 developing others	7 consistency, discipline	7 assertively	7 self-knowledge
	8 systematic ability	8 ability to decide	8 excellent communication skill	8 openness	8 self-knowledge
	9 right to be wrong		9 empathy	9 action	9 balance
	10 patience		10 taking risk	10 sturdiness	10 consistency
	11 trust		11 methodological preparedness	11 consistency	11 sturdiness
	12 motivation		12 monotone tolerance	12 reliability	12 creativity

13 wide professional view	13 "Smalltalk"	13 communication skill
14 predictability		14 action
15 management of uniqueness of situations		

Transaction of Development Centres

With the realisation of the Development Centres (DC) we measured the participant professors and leaders' self-competences and we compared them with the desired goals. Both the competence default marks and the desired goals: the key factors of the competence survey and the expected rates of them (competence profile) were defined by the employees of the university ; this is the pledge of the credibility of the diagnoses which were created by the DC's method.

In 2011 between February-March 100 professors took part in 10-10 people's assessment based on DC method. There was a same assessment for the leaders (15 people) based on DC method. These took a day where the observer during the practical tasks could assess the participants with the help of competence profiles taken down to one.

All the participants in DCs received a personal development plan taken down to the observed competencies via e-mail. He or she could share it with his or her leader. The observational summary based on competences can be used as a basis for a benchmark discussion.

The feedback was interactive: the results with the determined competence levels and the suggested development directions were evolved by a mutual agreement between the leaders of this stage and the participants.

Professors' competence averages

During the Development Centres' work the observers assessed the participants observed competences in numerical form. (1-2 point: poor; 3-4-5 point: medium; 6-7-8 point: good; 9-10 point: excellent.) The final competence scores were from the averaging of assessments. The professors did not receive quantitative results. The publication of the quantitative results with names or in other forms in this paper is not possible because of ethical and professional reasons.

5. table: *Professors' competence averages*

1 <i>commu- nication</i>	2 <i>problem- solving</i>	3 <i>coope- ration</i>	4 <i>openness</i>	5 <i>reliability</i>	6 <i>personal effectiveness</i>	<i>total ave- rage</i>
TOTAL AVERAGE OF PROFESSORS' COMPETENCE RESULTS						
7,3	7,3	6,9	7,2	7,8	6,6	7,2
IDEAL COMPETENCE LEVELS						
9,5	7,3	7,8	8,5	8,7	8,5	

The process of individual development based on the results of the Development Centres'

We designed 4 skill-development trainings based on the results of the DC for the professors and leaders of Széchenyi István University.:

- Assertiveness, conflict-management
- Professional communication
- Project-management
- Empowerment leader trainings

The training number of professors and leaders

Development suggestions for the professors suggested trainings (one participant can choose maximum 2 trainings).

6. table: *Trainings for professors*

<i>Communication</i>	<i>Project- management</i>	<i>Managing-skill development</i>	<i>Conflict- management</i>
62 people	0 people	11 people	41 people

Development suggestions for the leaders suggested trainings (one participant can choose maximum 2 trainings).

7. table: *Trainings for leaders*

<i>Communication</i>	<i>Project- management</i>	<i>Managing-skill development</i>	<i>Conflict- management</i>
0 people	0 people	13 people	9 people

Topics of the designed skill trainings

The aims of the training. Professional communication training (62 people). According to the social psychological studies by abolishing and preventing the communication disorders that cause 80% of conflicts, preventive toolkit is at hand to increase personal communication effectiveness and cooperation. During the training the participants acquire a modern, applied communication model, prevalent in the private sector (MBTI). The model treats the *differences* in personal communication styles as a value and decreases the chances of conflict-formation by developing tolerance. We pay extra attention to the model application in the professor and leader's work based on evaluation and feedback during the practice-oriented training. The participants can learn how the well-used feedbacks (criticism, praise) become fundamental tools for the personal development and harmonious work atmosphere.

Topics of the training:

- The origin and the use of the term MBTI-model
 - o Carl Gustav Jung and Isabell Myers-Briggs' personal and preference theories
 - o The concept of communication axis
 - o Understanding of the given communication types
- Self-knowledge
 - o Definition of the congenital communication preferences
 - o The Affect of communication styles to the leader's work
 - o Communication tips for the development of different styles in order to contact with them –personalised communication
 - o Persuasion, conflict prevention and resolution methods
- Practical use and situational tasks
 - o The participants after the theoretical part take part in situational practice where they train to recognise the given communication types and how to built effective relationship with them. They also learn techniques to develop communication.
 - o We record the situations on video tape that we analyze to give personal development plan for everyone.

The time period of training: 3 days. Project management training (0 people). There was no need for this pre-planned training due to the participants scores!

Empowerment managing training (managing skill development) (11+13 people). The aim of the training.

Transfer a single, co-oriented management method, secondly, clarify the responsibilities of leadership, thirdly, identify the tasks related to current management roles. Moreover managing identity, loyalty to the Széchenyi University, and achieving the goals down to the faculties, departments, representation of values. Finally, formation of a 'managing map' to develop fundamental managing skills.

It seems very important to form managing skills and accept them thematically due to the special features of higher educational institutions that is to say: university leaders gain their position through their academic work. So the position they hold is neither in correlation with their teaching quality nor their managing abilities and effectiveness.

Topics and methodology:

- Management identity, management basic competences:
 - o Management self-knowledge
 - o Features, skills, attitudes – characteristics of an effective leader
 - o The management credibility and factors of trust
 - Situational leadership, Motivation, Delegation, coaching:
 - o Management styles
 - o Style efficiency
 - o The situational management model
 - o Motivation, discipline
 - o Make the employees aware of their personal professional and co operational value
 - o Pygmalion effect – power of expectation
 - o The connection of discipline and motivation
 - o The non material means of motivation
 - o Motivation – as in the practice
 - o Delegation
 - o The dilemmas of delegation
 - o The technical steps of work transfer
 - o The control and monitor as the developing means of leaders
 - o The basis of coaching
 - o The manager as teacher
 - o The staff training with different experienced and styled people
 - o The steps and techniques of staff training
 - The energized organisation
- The rate of practice is min. 60% during the training

Assertiveness, conflict management training (41+9 people). The aim of the training.

Acquisition of behaviour patterns in conflict situations, implement personal efficiency and community, organisational goal. Manage emotionally tough, tense, serious situations. Especially, give and receive criticism, praise, evaluation that are everyday needs in the university life. The aim is that the interest can replace sense of danger and fear in approaching the conflict. Seeing the difficult situations as an opportunity and be able to manage it. The interpretation and acceptance of assertive behaviour as a personal development and community norm can affect the efficiency of the whole university and the atmosphere of the departments.

The topics of the training:

- Self-knowledge in difficult situations
- Conflict-management strategies

- What is to be done by ourselves and what to leave to others
 - The assertive behaviour is the way between the aggressive and the submissive behaviour
 - Rejecting the requests and 'ask for' (how to say 'NO' without remorse and insult)
 - Giving and receiving criticism
 - The steps of conflict-management
 - Management of resistance
 - The difference between acceptance and agreement when to know how we mean it
 - The 3+1 rule
 - How to fight for the attention to us
 - Motivational application of conflict behaviour
- The time period of training: 3 days

Conclusion further development strategies

The Széchenyi István University is the first Hungarian higher educational institution where organisational diagnostic tools were applied that are modern in management science and moderate in the private sector's market leading organisations.

The method of competence development centres to define and assess the employees, professors, researchers' skills and competences and the feedback, the evaluation and this form of development is revolutionary invention in the life of an educational institution.

Not only did the Széchenyi István University in Győr an up-to-date step in the spheres of the individual and the professors-researchers' personal skills but also did it first a valid culture assessment among other Hungarian educational institution.

So on one hand the assessments which were in preparation for the second step of the project's to implement skills development proved to be an adequate step. But they are exemplary themselves in the global development of Hungarian higher education.

In the Széchenyi István University the professors started to reform their own educational culture and curriculum as an effect of the successful project. New student-centred teaching and assessment forms appeared based on the new method. Also a new structured human-resource development system was introduced, as a part of that regular pedagogical and personal development trainings are advertised for the professors.