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Editor’s Preface

The third number of *The New Educational Review* in 2016 is the fourthly-fifth issue of our journal since the start of its foundation in 2003. In this issue there are mainly papers from: the Czech Republic, Finland, Indonesia, Iran, Jordan, Kazakhstan, Malaysia, Poland, Romania, Russia, South Korea, the Slovak Republic, Slovenia, South Korea, Russia, Serbia, Spain, Thailand, Turkey, United Arab Emirates, and the USA, because our journal is open for presentation of scientific papers from all over the world.

In the present issue the Editors’ Board have proposed the following subject sessions: Social Pedagogy, General Didactics, Pedeutology, Special Pedagogy, Media Pedagogy, Work Psychology, Review, and Chronicle.

In the subject session “Social Pedagogy” we publish six articles. For the purpose of constructing a conceptual model of employees’ susceptibility to job performance contagion, a general scale for testing the amount of the individual’s susceptibility to performance contagion was developed by Farid Ahmadi in his study. The article by Tapio Puolimatka is a philosophical analysis of the meaning structure of two competing conceptions of marriage with regard to children’s right to develop their sexual identity. The study presented by Dacian Dolean aims to analyze comparatively the relationship between socio-economic status and one of the literacy predictors, phonemic awareness of Roma and non-Roma first-graders, and the effectiveness of a classroom intervention program aimed to enhance this skill. In their study, Jeong Kyung Park, Yong Deog Kim and Kaia DeMatteo focus on the effect that internationalization of higher education has on the nation branding of South Korea, since they investigated current and former African university students’ experiences living and studying in South Korea. The article by Milada Rabušicová et al. deals with intergenerational learning in the Czech family from three generations perspective: children, parents, and grandparents. Ace Suryadi and Dasim Budimansyah aim to examine the effect of school leadership on instructional practices and student learning.
In the subject session “General Didactics” we publish five articles. The aim of the study by Wojciech Kojs and Jolanta Gabzdyl is to determine the role of the structure and functions of “hidden” questions in schoolchildren’s responses to questions posed to them by teachers during lessons. The article by Marianna Müller de Morais and Monika Pindešová deals with the issue of classroom climate, sets forth its determinants and various approaches to its study. Triyanto and Rif‘ati Dina Handayani examine how gender, tenure, and level of education influence teacher motivation. In a qualitative empirical study Matjaž Duh examines the efficacy of a method for developing art appreciation. The aim of the article by Saša Jazbec et al., which addresses the topic of early foreign language learning from the participant’s, i.e. the student’s point-of-view, is to determine students’ reasons for learning a foreign language, as articulated by the students themselves. The study by Beena Vijayavalsalan examines the issue of student essay writing in higher education, and the main focus of this research is on the lecturers and writing tutors who wish to help undergraduates in learning foreign languages as well as to enable them to bring improvement in their essay writing skills. In their study Rissaphop Treesuwan and Tanes Tanitteerapan center on the impact of adopting the “learner-centered approach” facilitating effective learning. The conceptual framework of the study by Vinitha Guptan and Ratneswary Rasiahis is based on Dewey’s theory of reflective thought and action and Ziv’s theory of the attention-gaining and holding power of humour. The authors examine the perceived impact of formative assessment and humour on the learning experience and the development of graduate attributes of business undergraduate students.

In the subject session “Pedeutology” we publish four articles. The study presented by Alexander Sergeevich Mishchenko and Nikolay Andreevich Lobanov shows that the interaction between activities and culture of teachers at the level of educational institutions is a complex structured phenomenon embracing socio-economic relations in society, organizational relations within an educational institution, competence-related characteristics of teachers, and personal qualities of an education actor. The aim of the research by Jana Stehlíková and Marta Valihorová is to confirm or reject the assumption that the intervention programme “E” – Empathy Development Programme – has a positive effect on changes in the cognitive and emotional component of empathy in the experimental group of students, future teachers. The purpose of the study by Ahmad M. Mahasneh et al. is to determine student perceptions of science teacher communication behaviour in the classroom environment in Jordan.

In the subject session “Special Pedagogy” we publish three articles. The purpose of the study by Bilal Çoban et al. is to reveal the relationship between the behaviors
of students in physical education and sports lessons in Special Education Application Centers in Turkey and the burnout levels of physical education and sports teachers. The aim of the paper by T. Chepel et al. is to investigate the attitude of teachers and school administration towards inclusion.

In the subject session “Media Pedagogy” we publish two articles. The aim of the research by Andrej Kovačič and Mateja Rek is to explore media exposure of preschool children (1–6 years old) and outline demographic factors affecting it. The research presented by Eugenia Smyrnova-Trybulska seems to confirm the assumption that e-learning and ICT development contribute to the quality of educational services, to the development of information society competences and to the increased competitiveness of institutions of science and education.

In the subject session “Work Psychology” Elżbieta Turska and Anna Mochnacka in their article focus on the acculturation strategies employed by Polish migrant workers in the United Kingdom.

In the subject session “Review” we publish a review of a book by Danuta Gabryś-Barker and Dagmara Galajda, “Positive Psychology Perspectives on Foreign Language Learning and Teaching”, by Mehdi Haseli Songhori.

In the “Chronicle” we publish a report by Anna Brosch “Summer School of Young Teachers as a Community of Learners – Report from the Jubilee Meeting”.

We hope that this edition, like previous ones, will encourage new readers not only from the Central European countries to participate in an open international discussion. On behalf of the Editors’ Board I would like to invite representatives of different pedagogical sub-disciplines and related sciences to publish their texts in The New Educational Review, according to the formal requirements placed on our website: www.educationalrev.us.edu.pl – Guide for Authors.
Abstract
Performance contagion is an environmental influential factor that leads to change in the performance of a person who is susceptible to contagion. For the purpose of constructing a conceptual model of employees’ susceptibility to job performance contagion, a general scale for testing the amount of the individual’s susceptibility to performance contagion was developed in the present study. This scale was used in developing a questionnaire. Then the questionnaire was distributed to the 187 non-teaching staff of the Science and Research branch of Islamic Azad University and its validity, reliability, construct-related evidence and content-related evidence were studied.

Keywords: contagion, job performance, performance contagion, susceptibility to performance contagion

Introduction
Contagion has been defined as the proliferation of similar attitudes, affect, and behavior among members of a group. This process occurs unintentionally, with similar attitudes, affect and behaviors being passed from one individual to the next, often spontaneously and without conscious awareness (Levy & Nail, 1993). Social contagion is different from obedience, compliance, or other forms of social learning, since in social contagion individuals may also converge but because of
the social influence attempts of others. Various studies have been conducted in this field.

Table 1 presents the main studies in the contagion field that have a usable approach in organizational studies.

**Table 1. The main studies in the contagion field**

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<td>Contagion in customer serving</td>
<td>Behavioral contagion</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hatfield, Cacioppo &amp; Rapson (1992, 1994)</td>
<td>Facial expressions, physical posturing, moods and emotions (determining the relationships among emotional susceptibility and personality, experience and gender)</td>
<td>Emotional contagion</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Aarts, Golwizer &amp; Hassin (2004)</td>
<td>Goal per suiting (determining the relationship between individual characteristics)</td>
<td>Goal contagion- Behavioral contagion</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
| Howard & Gengler (2001)           | a. the effect of the mood of the sender on the mood of the receiver  
b. the relationship between the affect of the receiver and sender | Attitude contagion   |
| Chartrand & Bargh (1999)          | Behavioral mimicry                                                              | Behavioral contagion |
| Sy et al. (2005)                  | The impact of changes in a leader’s mood on his or her group members’ mood      | Behavioral contagion |
| Anderson et al. (2003)            | a. presence of emotional convergence over time in existing romantic and roommate relationships  
b. relationship between gender and relation power (status) and convergence  
c. benefits of similarity | Behavioral contagion |
| Tepper & Tylor (2003)             | Relationship between a supervisor’s perception of procedural justice on OCB       | Attitude- Behavioral contagion |
| Snodgrass et al. (1992)           | Relationship between power and status position and emotion contagion             | Emotional contagion  |
| Connelly et al. (2002)            | The impact of a leader’s mood on his or her subordinates                          | Emotional/Behavioral contagion |
| Loersch et al. (2011)             | Goal contagion and its relationship with personal characteristics and job rank    | Goal contagion       |
Performance Contagion

The assumption of theory and research on contagion is that the feelings and behavior of a member may influence (or be influenced by) the performance of other members of an organization. This phenomenon has been interpreted as performance contagion and it is one of the environmental factors that influence an individual’s performance and ultimately the performance of the overall organization. Performance contagion is an individual’s emotional-behavioral reaction to the performance of a person or a group in close contact with him or her that leads to a kind of relatively unconscious, automatic conformity (Ahmadi & Mirseppasi, 2010).

Therefore, performance contagion is an environmental influential factor that leads to change in the performance of a person who is susceptible to contagion. In fact, the result of performance contagion can be recognized in the performance of the individual who is susceptible to this phenomenon.

It was necessary to define and develop a scale for measuring the amount of one’s susceptibility in order to develop the performance contagion construct as well as to identify its influential factors. Thus, one of the objectives of the present study was to define and develop a qualitative scale for measuring the amount of a person’s susceptibility.

Developing this scale as a scientific and practical step can be helpful in the present study as well as other studies related to this phenomenon.

The researchers tried to develop a qualitative scale in the form of questionnaire in order to determine the amount a person’s susceptibility to job performance contagion. Various performance scales (Campbell et al., 1993; Borman & Motowidlo, 1993; Welbourne et al., 1998; Johnson, 2003; Borman et al., 2001; Podsakoff et al., 2000; Pulakos et al., 2000; Morrison & Phelps, 1999; Parker et al., 2006; Frese & Fay, 2001) had been studied so as to develop this questionnaire.

Finally, among these scales, a role-based performance scale (Welbourne et al., 1998) was used to develop the study scale due to its generality and comprehensiveness.

Role-Based Performance Scale (RBPS)

Welbourne’s role-based performance scale included five groups of job performance roles: job holder role, career role, organization member role, innovator role and team member role. Each of these groups has its own sub-scales. Figure 1 shows this scale.
There was a need to classify individuals by their susceptibility to job performance contagion in order to explain this phenomenon as well as to test hypotheses. In turn, this classification created a need for developing a susceptibility measurement scale. We used this scale to classify individuals according to their amount of susceptibility as well as to investigate the relationship between the amount of susceptibility and variables such as gender, personality, job performance, education level, job rank, perception of job security, and other personal or environmental variables.

Different performance scales had been studied in order to develop the study questionnaire and the role-based performance scale (Welbourne, 1998) was used to develop the research scale due to its comprehensiveness and the generality of its sub-scales. Using the mentioned scale, the sub-scales of performance contagion were developed. Figure 2 shows these elements. In our questionnaire two questions were raised for each sub-scale of performance contagion (One question for testing negative performance contagion and another one for positive performance contagion). Table 2 gives further information about the study questionnaire. It should
be mentioned that in order to develop the study questionnaire, we consulted and interviewed experts in the human resource field as well as industry managers. In order to evaluate the validity of the study questionnaire, it was presented to fifteen experts who are university teachers and human resource managers and have experience in the performance management field and are familiar with behavioral contagion. Fourteen experts confirmed the questionnaire after some minor changes.

Figure 2. Performance contagion sub-scales according to Welbourne’s role-based performance scale
Table 2. Questions of the questionnaire according to sub-scales and items

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Scale</th>
<th>Sub-scale</th>
<th>Items</th>
<th>Question number</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Susceptibility</td>
<td>Positive</td>
<td>Job performance</td>
<td>3,8,10,16,42</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Career performance</td>
<td>11,14,28,29</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Innovative performance</td>
<td>18,22,23</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Team performance</td>
<td>38,35</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Organizational performance</td>
<td>37,31</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Negative</td>
<td>susceptibility</td>
<td>Job performance</td>
<td>5,12,13,41,43</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Career performance</td>
<td>20,23,27,19</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Innovative performance</td>
<td>15,30,34</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Team performance</td>
<td>36,32</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Organizational performance</td>
<td>40,39</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Job security perception</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>17</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The amount of awareness of other employees' performance</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>21</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gender</td>
<td>Demographic questions</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Personality</td>
<td>Personality questionnaire (MBTI)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Job experience</td>
<td>Demographic questions</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Job rank</td>
<td>Demographic questions</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Methodology

The target population of the study was the non-teaching staff of the Tehran Science and Research branch of Islamic Azad University. The method of sampling was random-stratified. Therefore, respondents were chosen randomly and in a proportionate manner regarding the number of the employees of each unit. Cochran's (1977) formula was used to calculate the sample. By putting 351 as population, the sample equals 183. The questionnaires were distributed in units according to the frequency percentage in the population. At this stage, information of the units and employees was collected via administrative management. Data were collected with the use of a self-report questionnaire. A total number of 204 questionnaires was distributed, but 187 usable questionnaires were returned and analyzed. Among the respondents, 102 were male and 85 were female and 45 had management posts. Regarding the education level, 34 respondents had a high school diploma, 120 had bachelor's degree, 26 had a master's degree and 7 had PhD. 120 respondents had between 1 to 10 years of work experience and 48 had 10 years or more of work experience.
Table 3. Population and sample on the basis of units

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Units</th>
<th>Population</th>
<th>Sample</th>
<th>Number of distributed questionnaires</th>
<th>Number of collected questionnaires</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Student affair unit</td>
<td>91</td>
<td>47</td>
<td>51</td>
<td>48</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Educational unit</td>
<td>42</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>23</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cultural unit</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Administrative and Financial unit</td>
<td>103</td>
<td>54</td>
<td>58</td>
<td>55</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Project and IT unit</td>
<td>82</td>
<td>42</td>
<td>45</td>
<td>41</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Construct unit</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Management</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>351</td>
<td>183</td>
<td>204</td>
<td>187</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Validity and Reliability Test

In order to develop the study questionnaire, we consulted and conducted interviews with human resource experts as well as industry managers. After preparing the primary version of the questionnaire, the test of content validity was given to 15 experts. The experts are university teachers as well as human resource managers that have executive experience in the performance management field and are familiar with behavioral contagion. The model fit was estimated by executing confirmatory and exploratory factor analyses. Reliability was established by means of Cronbach’s alpha and the value was .76, which shows that the reliability of the scale is acceptable.

Results of Confirmatory Factor Analyses and Determining the Model Fit

The model fit was determined by conducting confirmatory factor analyses. The analyses were made by LISREL. Table 4 shows the results.

Table 4. Indicators of the model fit

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>The fit statistics</th>
<th>Result</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>$X^2$</td>
<td>154.15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Degree of freedom (df)</td>
<td>395</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA)</td>
<td>zero</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
### The fit statistics

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Statistics</th>
<th>Result</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Root mean square residual (RMR)</td>
<td>.17</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Normed fit index (NFI)</td>
<td>.95</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Not normed fit index (NNFI)</td>
<td>1.09</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Comparative fit index (CFI)</td>
<td>1.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Goodness of fit index (GFI)</td>
<td>.56</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Incremental index of fit (IFI)</td>
<td>1.08</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Adjusted Goodness of Fit Index (AGFI)</td>
<td>0.48</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The first indicator of model fit is $X^2$. $X^2$ tests the assumption that the mentioned model is in harmony with co-variation among the studied variables. Smaller values show more fitness of the model. The ratio of $X^2$ to the degree of freedom is .39 and it is in accordance with the criteria suggested by Bayer (1989) and Bentler (1993), according to which the appropriate value is smaller than 2. Therefore, we came to the conclusion that the test confirms the model fitness. The root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA) is zero and its upper bound is smaller than .05 and if we compared it with .008 suggested by Browne and Cudeck (1989, 1993) as the largest accepted value, we would conclude that the model fit is acceptable. Another indicator is the root mean square residual (RMR), which in this model equals .17, which is small and indicates a small amount of error and acceptability of the model fit.

As finding a model with good fitness does not show that this model is the only satisfactory one and there are various indicators of the model fit, it should be tested simultaneously by multi-indicators. According to the above table, the normed fit index (NFI), not normed fit index (NNFI), comparative fit index (CFI) and incremental index of fit (IFI) equal at least .87 and more, which shows the model fitness.

### Conclusion

The presented study sought to enrich our understanding of performance contagion by identifying and proposing a conceptual model. And in order to accomplish this objective, a general scale for determining the amount of susceptibility to performance contagion was developed. The mentioned scale was utilized to develop the study questionnaires. We distributed the questionnaires among 187 non-teaching staff of Tehran Science and Research branch of Islamic Azad Univer-
sity and ran reliability as well as content and construct validity tests. The results of these tests ensured that the model fit was acceptable. By this scale, we can classify individuals according to the amount of susceptibility and examine the relationship between the amount of susceptibility and variables such as gender, personality, job experience, education level, job category, job security perception, and other personal or environmental variables. Moreover, by the studying performance contagion model (Ahmadi & Mirseppasi, 2010), the role of the mentioned scale as the basis for other studies becomes more clear.

**Limitations**

We feel that we should point out certain limitations of this work, in describing these limitations we suggest directions for future inquiry. First, the study includes a specific location (Tehran Science and Research branch of Islamic Azad University) only and using a sample in a single institution could not warrant the generalizability of the findings. Future research should study this phenomenon in different institutions and different geographical areas. Second, the data were collected with the use of self-report measures causing concern about possible mono-method bias, so future research efforts should incorporate alternative designs. Finally, the study is based on cross-sectional data and we examined the employees’ susceptibility to performance contagion only in one point in time. Therefore, future research efforts need to consider using longitudinal data as well as focusing on multi-source data.

**References:**


Abstract
The article is a philosophical analysis of the meaning structure of two competing conceptions of marriage with regard to children’s right to develop their sexual identity. These two conceptions of marriage make different metaphysical assumptions about human nature, which lead to different conceptions about the preconditions of children’s sexual development. The gender diverse conception assumes that human beings are born with a biological sex and they can be integrated persons only when living in terms with it. In order to develop their sexual identity they benefit from male-female interaction within the nuclear family. The genderless conception assumes that children are free to construct their sexual identity according to their inner experience and the main precondition for such an authentic development is an environment free of sexual stereotypes.

Keywords: children’s identity rights, sexual identity, conceptions of marriage

The gender diverse (man-woman) and the genderless conceptions of marriage involve different assumptions about sexuality and the preconditions for the development of children's sexual identity. In this article I want to answer the question: What do these two competing conceptions of marriage mean with regard to children's right to develop their sexual identity?

The gender diverse conception of marriage assumes that the male and female sexes are mutually complementary and that children need the contribution of both
sexes in order to recognize and develop their own (sexual) identity. The development of children's sexual identity is seen as a process, during which children discover the potential inherent in their own biologically based sex. The gender division is seen as natural and as predating society and culture.

According to this view, gender is one of the natural limitations that human beings have and which they cannot overstep without harming themselves. Man and woman can relate to each other as persons but due to the sex/gender difference they are also incomprehensible to each other: they cannot exhaustively understand each other’s gender on the basis of their own. Heterosexual relations involve “opening of the self to the mystery of another gender, thereby taking responsibility for an experience which one does not wholly understand” (Scruton, 2006: 306). In order to relate to this incomprehensible aspect of sex/gender, human beings need to transcend their conceptual limitations and enter into new ways of experiencing the other person. The male and female genders cannot be reduced to each other, but their interaction and union are preconditions for the well-being of the individual as well as society.

Genderless marriage implies the assumption that the division into two sexes and the complementarity of the sexes is not a natural part of humanity or of human relationships. Human beings are not bound to their biological sex, their individuality trumps male/female differences and they may choose their own way of defining their gender identity. Children's sexual development is seen as a process whereby children get in genuine touch with their own (variable) sexual and gender experience in order to define (construe) their gender without oppressive gender stereotypes. Even when gender is seen as a principle unifying the social roles of the individual and in that sense as "social essence,” the emphasis is on the great variability of social norms and roles, which enables different interpretations of sexuality within different subcultures (Witt, 2011).

**Two Different Conceptions of Marriage**

The traditional conception of marriage regards the mother, father and child as an inextricable unity. Maggie Gallagher (2012: 99) suggests that the meaning of the traditional marriage can be summarized in the following way:

*Marriage is the exclusive, enduring sexual union of husband and wife, where the couple promises to care for each other and any children their union produces.*
The genderless conception of marriage, on the other hand, ends up with a reduced definition because it rejects the division into two sexes, their complementarity and their relationship to children:

*Marriage is the loving, caring union of any two people.*

The genderless conception of marriage defines marriage on the basis of the features common to same sex and diverse sex couples. One cannot expect same sex marriage to obligate couples to commit themselves to take care of the children born to the partners, since children are born only with the assistance and as biological descendants of a third party. In this way, same-sex marriage reduces into a union between the spouses without commitments concerning children. In genderless marriage this reduced meaning is then transferred to different sex marriages as well, as one cannot have a marriage to obligate different couples in different ways. Once this reduced conception of marriage is transferred to different-sex marriages, the result will be aborted and neglected children, since in different-sex unions children can be born even though their birth is not planned.

Gallagher’s definition can be modified to bring out the meaning of the relationship between the sexes in different conceptions of marriage. The gender-diverse conception of marriage can be expressed in the following way:

The complementarity of the spouses of different sexes contributes towards the development of children’s sexual identity: the parent of the same sex provides the child with a pole of identification and the parent of the opposite sex with the pole of contrast. Together the parents model the dynamic interaction between the sexes.

In this respect, the genderless conception of marriage can be expressed in the following way:

The division of human beings into men and women on the basis of the biological sex is suppressive and restricts individual freedom. Children growing up in a genderless context will be liberated from sexual stereotypes and are free to construct their sexual identity without enchaining frameworks.

The basic value supporting the genderless perspective is the freedom of choice applied to all individuals equally. Marriage is defined in an inclusive way in order to make room for alternative family structures. Once every human being has the right to marry in terms of his or her sexual orientation, children can grow up in
an environment free of sexual stereotypes, which allows children more freedom in the determination of their sexuality.

The gender diverse conception of marriage includes the principles of sexual complementarity, sexual exclusivity and permanence. By restricting the freedom allowed to the spouses, it provides a context for children to be reared by their biological father and mother and to experience the dynamics of the interaction between the male and female sexes throughout their development. The right to know and be raised by their father and mother is regarded as a human right.

The controversy between these competing views cannot be resolved without taking a stand with regard to the complementarity of the sexes and the general question about the good life, as Harvard professor Michael Sandel points out: “What counts as the purpose of marriage partly depends on what qualities we think marriage should celebrate and affirm. This makes the underlying moral and religious controversy unavoidable: What is the moral status of gay and lesbian relationships? – So, when we look closely at the case for same-sex marriage, we find that it cannot rest on the ideas of nondiscrimination and freedom of choice. In order to decide who should qualify for marriage, we have to think through the purpose of marriage and the virtues it honors. And this carries us onto contested moral terrain, where we can’t remain neutral toward competing conceptions of the good life.” (Sandel, 2010: 259–260). The meaning ascribed to marriage and children’s rights is dependent on a wider conception of the good life, since justice involves promoting virtues and the common good.

The Gender Diverse Conception of Marriage

The gender diverse conception of marriage regards the biological division into the male and female sexes and their sexual complementarity as natural aspects of humanity and assumes that gender is based on biology. This conception is generally reflected in research evidence according to which mothers and fathers generally have different strengths in parenting and the absence of the mother or the father harms children’s development in different ways. The different parenting styles of fathers and mothers and their complementarity expand children’s experiential framework and improve their developmental opportunities. Living in a close relationship with their biological parents gives children access to knowledge that they need in order to develop their identity.

The differences between women and men, mothers and fathers, make an important contribution to the resources and developmental preconditions available to
children, since children are initially dependent on their immediate experience rather than conceptual frameworks. The presence of differences implies a plurality of alternatives which promotes learning. The differences between men and women expand children's world and activate their development while the different parenting styles of fathers and mothers balance each other.

According to the psychologist Rob Palkoviz (2013: 236), research supports the perspective that “children from families that have well-functioning males and females consistently engaged in parenting roles are advantaged because they can see how men and women perform a similar task similarly and differently.” Palkoviz argues that children who obtain the most varied resources adapt best and they “are provided with a greater range of possibilities for modeling. They are exposed to collaborative sharing with a different level of maturity than others.”

The central aspects of good parenting, such as a positive affective climate, constructive behavioral style and relational synchrony, are equally manifest in fathers and mothers. However, according to Palkoviz (2013: 224–227), children benefit from the unique parenting styles of mothers and fathers as they are typically modeled in child rearing. Mothers have an important significance in showing closeness, understanding and making applications suitable to the child's level of development. Fathers make an important contribution in developing openness toward the outside world, encouraging children to take risks and defend themselves.

The psychiatrist Scott Haltzman obtains similar results. Fathers and mothers make a unique contribution to child rearing. Haltzman concludes his analysis by pointing out: “Fathers and mothers both matter, particularly if each can parent in a style that reflects their gender role. The evidence suggests that efforts should be made to educate society at large, and parents in particular, that gender differences in parents are real, and, rather than be extinguished or ignored, they should be embraced.” (Haltzman, 2013: 318).

Insofar as the man-woman marriage is a low conflict one, it naturally promotes a positive attitude and confidence in both sexes and the functioning of their relationship. Insofar as the nuclear family models the dynamics between the sexes, children learn the unspoken behavioral cues on which the dynamics between the sexes are based. The ability to interpret these unspoken cues helps young people to develop relationships with the opposite sex. The development of such social skills and the associated positive attitude may be a greater challenge in a situation where the parents are able to exemplify only the dynamics within one sex (Doherty & Craft, 2013).

Child psychiatrist Jari Sinkkonen (2008: 62–66) suggests that the triadic relation between mother, father and child creates a multi-level, largely unconscious
process, which expands children's world. Father's presence “pumps air” into the
dyadic relationship of mother and child and makes it triadic. The child can make
comparisons that expand their comprehension. Their world expands exponentially.

According to John Milbank (2012), an individual born of the love between
a man and a woman can trace their biological roots in interpersonal relations and
narratives. When children are born of the loving union of their parents, they can
understand nature as part of the narrative of love.

If children are produced as the commercial products of surrogate motherhood
and sperm-donation (as distinct from the artificial assistance of a personal sexual
union), the place of love as the origin of human beings is taken by money. An
awareness of these cold and impersonal factors in their origin may often be dif-
ficult for children produced in this way. Thus, to lose the narrative of love would,
according to Milbank, “compromise our deepest sense of humanity.”

Insofar as the practices of surrogacy and sperm-donation separate children
from their biological father and mother, they alienate children from their per-
sonal origin. Since these practices separate biology and culture, the natural and
the personal, they give rise to an irresolvable impasse for children produced
in this way. Increasingly, children resulting from anonymous insemination are
rightly demanding to know who their natural parents are as they deeply sense
that their identity is tied to their biological origin. But on the other hand, this
justified request is intolerable for donors and surrogate mothers who gave their
sperm or wombs on the condition that they do not have to bear responsibility for
the children. “The recipe for psychological confusion, family division and social
conflict involved here is all too evident and cannot be averted,” argues professor
Milbank (Ibid).

The dynamics between different sexes has a wider cultural application. This
thought has been lucidly expressed by Fedor Dostoyevsky and his interpreter
Mikhail Bakhtin (1988): The dialogue between opposite viewpoints enriches the
participants and highlights their differences and uniqueness: such a process helps
them to develop further in their individuality and uniqueness. In this way gender
diverse families create preconditions for dialogical culture. Children growing up
within a gender diverse interaction learn to empathize both with the masculine
and the feminine emotions, practices and ways of thinking. This helps them to
develop a dialogical inner world and to become active participators in the dia-
logues in their social relations. The gender diverse nuclear family has the potential
to encourage children to expand into unfamiliar territory and simultaneously
become more acutely aware of their own unique individuality.
The Genderless Conception of Marriage

The word ‘genderless’ does not mean a negation of the significance of gender. The idea is to refute the idea of gender as something natural and essential and to understand it as relative to various meaning systems and cultural frameworks.

Since the genderless conception regards same sex parenting as of equal value as different sex parenting, the complementarity of the sexes is not regarded as inherently valuable: the sex of the parents and the dynamics of their gender complementarity have no significance for children’s well-being and development. Gender is relatively independent of biological sex and predetermined gender roles unnecessarily restrict people’s unique individuality.

This independence from biology is often expressed by differentiating between the biological sex and social gender. Sara Heinämaa (1996: 143), however, suggests that even bodily sexual differences are interpreted through social practices and meaning structures that are open and variable. The sexes that traditionally are understood as natural and essential are ideological creations.

According to this metaphysical assumption, sex and gender differences are not an essential and fixed part of humanity. Gender is fluid as it is based on individual experience and self-definition, even though it may be unessential in the sense of integrating the person’s social identity (Witt, 2011).

The genderless view in its radical form presupposes that gender itself has to be deconstructed to avoid forcing people into stereotypical roles. There is no psychological, social or physical trait that appears in all men and provides the basis for traditional masculinity or in all women and creates a basis for femininity. Something becomes masculine or feminine when it is designated as masculine or feminine in certain social contexts. The perspective of two genders should, according to this view, be replaced by discourse about various ways of realizing sex and gender (Kekäle, 2007: 77).

The male-female differentiation is not based on nature – it is not inescapable or necessary. The very differentiation into masculinity and femininity as it is usually employed is dysfunctional and social practices would work out more smoothly if this distinction were dropped and the concepts radically changed. All sex/gender characteristics are dependent on our ways of perceiving and conceptualizing sex/gender.

Since sex/gender itself is not something essential but a part of a process of cultural meaning construction, the genderless conception of marriage emphasizes that neither mothers nor fathers are necessary but two loving social parents can replace them. Silverstein & Auerbach (1999: 397) were among the first to defend
the idea “that neither mothers nor fathers are essential to child development and that responsible fathering can occur within a variety of family structures.” According to this view the contribution of neither biological parent is unique or necessary. It rejects the gender diverse view that the biological relation between the parents and the children gives a unique nature and intensity to the love between parents and children. Love is a choice and a spiritual attitude that is not dependent on biological relationships.

The genderless conception of marriage protests against the “heterosexual grammar” of culture by claiming that it promotes sexual stereotypes instead of personal individuality. Respect for individuality presupposes liberation from sexual stereotypes. In this way each person is liberated to express their own individuality in an egalitarian context where the desire of individuals to commit themselves to a close relationship with each other is not restricted by sexual stereotypes or other restrictive norms. Sexual stereotypes represent patriarchal oppression and human equality requires liberation from such oppression.

Shere Hite (1994) represents many social scientists in her emphasis that the plurality of alternative family forms is a positive development in Western society. Hite regards the nuclear family as oppressive, as it teaches authoritarian psychological models, humble submission in women and belief in the unchangeable right of male supremacy. The nuclear family is a patriarchal invention which men have created in order to enchain women in marriage and completely control their sexuality and their children.

The genderless approach, thus, downplays the significance of biology and materiality. The assumption is that adults biologically unrelated to the child may act as substitutes for the biological father and mother without any loss for the child: the sex of the parent or their biological relation to the child has no significance. Darren Rosenblum, a professor of Law at Pace University and a gay man who identifies himself as a “mother,” writes in his paper Unsex Mothering: Toward a New Culture of Parenting: “In the actual act of parenting, biology plays no necessary role. Unsexed mothering is relational, not biological, and it is an act, not a fixed identity. While biological elements may undoubtedly further that relationship, one need not engage in these functions in order to mother a child. A male parent could say to others, ‘I am the child’s mother.’” (Rosenblum, 2012: 79).

Rosenblum argues that “biological elements” or biological functions are not necessary in order to mother a child. He does not defend universal androgy, but a middle position which “allows fluidity among the sexes as to who is the mother.” His fear is that “androgy might undermine some of the playfulness and even electricity in sex role differentiation.” He assumes that unsexing “mothering” and
“fathering” would “eliminate the restrictive and subordinating elements of parenting while allowing the adoption (and dismissal) of roles.” In this way individuals could “choose their roles without regard to sex, yet it permits them to experience, even celebrate, if they wish, gender differences in parenting” (Rosenblum, 2012: 80).

According to this view, it is beneficial for children’s sexual identity to grow up in a family that breaks up sexual stereotypes. To justify this claim reference is made to research according to which children fare better in the homes of same-sex couples than in traditional heterosexual marriages. Sexual roles in the homes of same sex couples are not fixed as both parents equally take part in caring for the children. The research supporting this view is often based on parent reports on the welfare and development of their own children, and of their own performance as parents (cf. Allen, 2015).

Although many research reports claim that there is no difference in the children raised in same sex and different sex families, Stacey and Biblarz (2001: 170–172) point out that such differences indeed exist with regard to sexual behavior even though scholars often fail to report it to analyze it further. As an example of positive sexual liberation, Stacey and Biblarz (2001) point out that young adults growing up in same-sex families are more inclined to sexual experimentation and homoerotic relationships than adult children of heterosexual families.

**Conclusion**

The gender diverse and the genderless conceptions of marriage involve different understandings of gender and gender complementarity. Thus, their views about the optimal conditions for the development of children’s sexual identity are different.

The gender diverse conception regards sexuality and gender as given and biologically determined, whereas the genderless conception understands them as ways of acting, speaking, perceiving and conceptualizing. The genderless conception is more optimistic in its belief in the ability of children to construct their gender identity without clear gender models and close contact with gender complementarity. The gender diverse conception in its turn assumes that human beings cannot transcend limits set by their biological sex. This means that gender fluidity alienates human beings from themselves.

The gender diverse and the genderless views do have some similarities, however. Both assume that family structure has an influence on the development of children’s gender identity, but these competing views value these effects differently.
While the genderless view regards sexual experimentation as liberation from harmful sexual stereotypes, the gender diverse view regards it as undesirable instability of gender identity.

Thus, children’s right to develop their gender identity is understood in different ways. The gender diverse view defends children’s right to grow up with their father and mother and regards that as essential for the development of their gender identity. The genderless view emphasizes children’s right to grow up free from sexual stereotypes and the patriarchal oppression inherent in the nuclear family. The ideal is a free person who is not bound to the limits of her biological sex.

References
Enhancing the Pre-literacy Skills of Roma Children: The Role of Socio-economic Status and Classroom Interventions in the Development of Phonemic Awareness

DOI: 10.15804/tner.2016.45.3.03

Abstract

Literacy skills of Roma children throughout Europe are shown to be significantly lower compared with their non-Roma peers. This fact is frequently attributed to the substandard socio-economic status (SES) of the Roma population. However, there is little empirical substantiation for the extent to which the SES of Roma children can be associated with poor literacy skills, as well as the extent to which remedial programs aimed to enhance those skills can be effective after school starts. The presented study aimed to analyze comparatively the relationship between SES and one of the literacy predictors, phonemic awareness (PA), of 171 Roma (n = 42) and non-Roma (n = 129) first-graders, and the effectiveness of a classroom intervention program aimed to enhance this skill. Results showed that a) PA of Roma 1st graders is significantly lower than that of their non-Roma peers coming from the same community, but the difference is significantly reduced after accounting for SES, b) there are important inter-ethnic differences between Roma and non-Roma when PA is correlated with socio-economic indicators, c) intervention programs aimed to increase the PA of Roma children should begin earlier than 1st grade, if expected to produce significant effects above and beyond those generated by regular classroom activities and d) the development of the PA of Roma and non-Roma children has a similar growth rate once they start receiving formal education.

Keywords: Roma, socio-economic status, literacy, phonemic awareness, randomized trial, intervention
Introduction

The inclusion of Roma population in European communities has been a widely discussed topic in the past decades. Despite extended efforts by local, national and European institutions towards supporting the social and economic integration of the Roma, this ethnic group is among the most poorly educated in Europe (FRA, 2014; UNICEF, 2011). In particular, their literacy level is assessed as inadequate, particularly because of their substandard socio-economic status (SES) (Baucal, 2006; Kertesi & Kezdi, 2011; Kiprianos, Daskalaki & Stamelos, 2012). The empirical studies examining this problem in a rigorous manner are limited, and little is known about its underlying causality (Third Author et al., forthcoming). This is why rigorously conducted empirical investigations are warranted to help identify the causes of (and possible solutions) reported poor literacy skills of Roma children. The present study will address parts of this issue by putting the focus on the association between SES factors and phonemic awareness, which is one of the main skills that predict literacy development. In addition, the study aims at determining the extent to which intervention programs in schools can help improve those skills above and beyond regular classroom activities.

Phonemic Awareness and the Development of Literacy

Decoding printed words into speech lays at the foundation of literacy development, and among the most important and widely accepted predictors of decoding skills is phonemic awareness (PA) (Anthony, Williams, McDonald & Francis, 2007; Deacon & Kirby, 2004; Wagner & Torgesen, 1987). PA is a metalinguistic skill which, as defined by NRP (2000), “refers to the ability to focus on and manipulate phonemes in spoken words” (pp. 2-10).

The relationship between reading ability and PA is supported by a large body of research. For instance, PA tasks have a high correlation with word reading performance (e.g., Bruno, et al., 2007; Georgiou, Parrila, & Papadopoulos, 2008; Lervåg, Bråten, & Hulme, 2009). Also, poor PA performance was found to be one of the main characteristics of dyslexic children (e.g., Barbosa, Miranda, Santos & Bueno, 2009; Boada & Pennington, 2006; Melby-Lervåg, Lyster & Hulme, 2012). Moreover, explicit training of PA was found to lead to an improvement of reading skills (Cunningham, 1990; McGuiness, McGuiness & Donohue, 1995; NRP, 2000) and the causal relationship between the two variables seems to be similar across different alphabetic languages (Melby-Lervåg, Lyster & Hulme, 2012).
Considering the major role that PA plays in reading skills, several studies focused on the effectiveness of PA training and the results from such studies have been summarized in many meta-analyses (e.g., NRP, 2000; Suggate, 2016). The main findings from these summaries show that PA produced strong effect sizes immediately after the training ($d = .86$) and in long term ($d = .73$). Furthermore, training was found effective in teaching both normally developed and disabled students, registered in preschool and elementary school (up to 2nd grade), and small group instruction seems to be more effective than individual or whole-classroom instruction.

**Phonemic Awareness and Socio-economic Status (SES)**

Empirical findings indicate that the development of children’s early literacy skills (and particularly of their PA) depends on the family’s SES (Bowey, 1995; Lundberg, Larsman & Strid, 2012; McDowell, Lonigan, & Goldstein, 2007). This can be explained by the fact that in families with higher SES there are more parent-initiated conversations, more literacy-related talks and more alphabet-related utterances (Ghosh, 2013), which contribute significantly to the development of PA (Ehri & Roberts, 2006). Parents with a higher SES background also spend more time reading to their children (Raz & Bryant, 1990; Whitehurst, 1997), which turned out to be an effective method of improving pre-literacy skills, and particularly PA (Duursma, E., Augustyn, M & Zukerman, B, 2008). Furthermore, exposure to books (and to their content) is lower in low-income families (Feitelson & Goldstein, 1986) and children coming from these families are less likely to develop their early literacy skills by pretending to read compared with their peers coming from families above the poverty threshold (Nord, Lennon & Liu, 1999). This suggests that low SES can adversely affect children’s opportunities to learn how to discriminate between the sounds of spoken language, as well as between their corresponding letters (Ehri & Roberts, 2006).

**The Present Study**

The presented study is part of a larger investigation focused on the literacy development of Roma children from Romania, whose initial results indicate that the PA of Roma children is significantly lower compared to their non-Roma peers at the beginning of 1st grade (First Author, 2015). This is why, one of the aims of the study was to replicate our previous findings using a different population sample, and to measure whether there are statistically significant differences between the PA of Roma children compared to their non-Roma peers coming from the same
communities, and having the same educational opportunities, after controlling for SES. A second aim was to identify the extent to which socio-economic factors are related to the differentiated development of PA among Roma children and compare those indicators with the ones of their non-Roma peers from the same communities. This aim is justified by the low SES and low literacy rate among the Roma population, as well as by the importance of PA in the development of early reading skills. The third aim of this study was to identify the extent to which a medium-term intervention program implemented during 1st grade with the focus on development of PA can significantly lead to an increase in performance among Roma children (and their non-Roma peers) above and beyond regular school activities. Backed also by existing literature, such a remedial intervention program is warranted to increase Roma children’s chances of literacy attainment, but it is not clear whether this kind of program can be effective after school starts. Finally, we aimed to measure whether the PA skills of Roma children grow at similar or different rates compared with their non-Roma peers, once exposed to the same educational programs. Thus, our study would help clarify the extent to which the development of the PA skills of Roma children is linked to ethnicity (or they are just a consequence of poor socio-economic status).

Therefore, the research questions in our study were as follows:

1. Are there significant differences between the PA level of Roma and non-Roma 1st graders coming from the same communities (and after controlling for the effects of SES)?
2. To what extent are the SES factors associated with the PA of Roma children and their non-Roma peers?
3. Does a medium-intensity intervention program conducted during 1st grade significantly improve the PA skills of Roma and non-Roma children above and beyond the effects of regular classroom activities?
4. Will the development rate of PA skills differ between Roma and non-Roma children once they start receiving the same educational services?

Method

Participants

One-hundred and seventy-one children (87 boys), aged 6-9 years at the beginning of the study (M age = 89.32 months, SD = 5.13) participated in our study. The sample was composed of 129 non-Roma children (68 boys, M age = 88.33 months,
Enhancing the Pre-literacy Skills of Roma Children

SD = 4.24), and 42 Roma children (19 boys, M age = 83.00 months, SD = 6.38). All the children attended 1st grade in one of 7 classes from 3 different schools, all part of medium-size communities in the north-west of Romania. Roma students attended the same classes as their non-Roma peers.

Measures

Phonemic awareness

PA was assessed with the use of an adapted version (for the Romanian population) of the Phonemic Awareness subscale of NEPSY inventory. The test has 36 tasks of increased difficulty, administered individually. The internal consistency of the instrument measured with our data sample was high (α = .86).

Socio-economic status

The socio-economic status of the participating children was measured by collecting the information regarding their parents’ education level and the family income through a questionnaire administered by classroom teachers to the parents. The information regarding the parents’ education was ranked on an 8-point scale, where 1 was the lowest level of education and 8 was the highest. The family income was ranked on a 13-point scale, with 1 being the lowest level and 13 being the highest income level. In order to control the effect of SES while comparing the level of PA between the Roma and non-Roma children, we generated a composite SES score by first converting the three aforementioned variables into Z scores and then computing the average.

Attendance

In order to measure the effects of the intervention program we controlled for the students’ attendance throughout each intervention session, since attendance of Roma and non-Roma children from Romania seems to predict significantly the development of decoding skills (First Author, 2015). Each absence at each intervention session was marked by one point, and we added all the absences at the end of the intervention to create an attendance score.

Intervention procedure

The students from each of the 7 participating classrooms were randomly distributed to one of two groups (within each classroom): experimental and control. The intervention program started in the second semester of 1st grade and was implemented three times per week and lasted 14 weeks. Each intervention lasted
approximately 15 minutes. The students from both groups listened once to a new, age-appropriate story, about 70-120-word long, for about 2 to 4 minutes. Then, the students were divided into the two designated groups and they participated in the planned specific activities. The Roma and non-Roma children were represented in both the experimental and control groups (cf., Table 1). The students from the experimental group received 10-minute training of PA consisting in exercises on phonemic isolation (e.g., Where do you hear sound l in the word gol?), identification (e.g., What sound do you hear at the end of the word cai?), blending (e.g., What word do I make when I say t-a-r-e?), deletion (e.g., What sound was deleted if I first say foi, and then I say oi?), replacement (e.g., What word do you hear when you replace s in the word soc, with f) and word segmentation (e.g., What word can you make that ends with _are?). They practiced using the words from the story they had listened to. The students from the control group answered listening comprehension questions related to the newly presented story. In order to control for the teacher effect, the two teachers who organized the activities within each classroom alternated the leadership of the groups after each session.

Results

In the first part of our analysis, we conducted a non-parametric correlation analysis (Spearman’s ρ) between PA at T1 and the three SES variables (Mother’s Education, Father’s Education and Family Income) to determine the extent to which SES factors are associated with PA across the two ethnic groups at the beginning of the intervention (T1). We chose to carry out a non-parametric correlation analysis because all three SES variables are ordinal. The results of this analysis are presented in Table 1.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Roma</th>
<th>Non-Roma</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>PA(T1)</td>
<td>Mother’s education</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PA (T1)</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mother’s education</td>
<td>.47*</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Father’s education</td>
<td>.21</td>
<td>.51*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Family income</td>
<td>.16</td>
<td>.28</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*p < .05; **p < .01; ***p < .001
As the results indicate, parents’ education and family income tend to be more strongly correlated with PA for the non-Roma children. Additionally, for the non-Roma children, the father’s education is more strongly correlated with PA than the mother’s education, while the opposite is true for the Roma children.

In the second part of our analysis, we focused on determining whether there were any significant differences in PA scores at T1 between the Roma and non-Roma children, and whether these differences would still be present after controlling for SES. To this end, we generated a composite SES score, by transforming all the three variables into Z-scores, and then computing their average. Table 2 presents descriptive statistics for our variables of interest, for the Roma and non-Roma children included in the experimental and control groups. We then conducted two different analyses. The first was a univariate analysis of variance (ANOVA) with PA at T1 as the dependent variable, and it revealed that the Roma children had significantly lower PA scores than the non-Roma children, $F(1, 169) = 65.13, p < .001, \eta_p^2 = .28$. The second analysis was identical with the first, with the exception of the fact that SES was included as a covariate (ANCOVA), to statistically control its effect. This second analysis revealed a marginally significant difference in PA scores between the Roma and non-Roma children, $F(1, 130) = 3.80, p = .05, \eta_p^2 = .03$ (cf., Table 2).

Table 2. Descriptive statistics (means and standard deviations) of dependent variable (PA) and co-variates (Attendance and SES) grouped by experimental and ethnical groups

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Experimental</th>
<th>Control</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Roma N = 27</td>
<td>Non-Roma N = 61</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PA (T1)</td>
<td>11.41 (4.27)</td>
<td>19.13 (6.27)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PA (T2)</td>
<td>16.40 (5.71)</td>
<td>25.49 (6.55)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Attendance</td>
<td>12.37 (6.25)</td>
<td>3.23 (3.46)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SES (Z-score)</td>
<td>-1.25 (0.27)</td>
<td>0.21 (0.84)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Finally, to determine the effect of our intervention, we conducted a 2 (Group) × 2 (Ethnicity) × 2 (Time) mixed analysis of covariance (ANCOVA), including SES and Attendance as covariates, and PA as the dependent variable. Results indicated that while the Roma children had lower PA scores than the non-Roma children, $F(1, 124) = 6.30, p < .05, \eta_p^2 = .05$, there were no significant differences between the experimental and control groups, $F(1, 124) = 0.66, p = .42, \eta_p^2 = .005$, as well as no
Group × Ethnicity interaction effect, $F(1, 124) = 0.14, p = .71, \eta_p^2 = .001$. However, the PA scores improved significantly from T1 to T2 for all the children, $F(1, 124) = 24.39, p < .001, \eta_p^2 = .16$. We found no interaction effects between Time and any of the other variables: Group, $F(1, 124) = 0.22, p = .64, \eta_p^2 = .002$, Ethnicity, $F(1, 125) = 0.29, p = .59, \eta_p^2 = .002$, or Group × Ethnicity, $F(1, 124) = 0.02, p = .89, \eta_p^2 = 0.001$.

**Discussion**

In the present study, we investigated the extent to which socio-economic status and classroom remedial interventions play a role in the development of PA among Roma children, while comparing their performance with the one of their non-Roma peers.

To address the first question, we compared the PA skills of the Roma children and those of their non-Roma peers coming from the same communities (after controlling for SES). The results of the initial assessment (T1) were consistent with our previous findings (First Author, 2015). They showed that by 1st grade, the Roma children already had a significantly lower level of PA, compared to their non-Roma peers, and the difference was marginally significant even after accounting for SES. These findings predict a slower development rate of decoding skills of Roma children, which would eventually explain the poor development of their literacy skills (Baucal, 2006; FRA, 2012; Kiprianos, Daskalaki & Stamelos, 2012). This gap can be explained to a certain extent by SES, considering that the effect size of the difference between the two groups dropped from large ($\eta_p^2 = .28$) to small ($\eta_p^2 = .03$) after accounting for SES. However, it seems that SES does not fully explain the difference between the two groups, and we assume that other ethnicity-related factors influence the development of the PA of Roma and non-Roma children. Such factors could include (but not be limited to) inter-ethnic differences in the communication styles between parents and children, like the extent of error correction use (e.g., Roma parents might not correct the mispronunciation of their children as often as their non-Roma peers) or the ratio between heuristic questions vs. instructions and commands (non-Roma parents might use heuristic questions more often than their Roma peers) (cf., also Pan, Rowe, Singer, & Snow, 2005).

The second research question concerned the extent to which SES factors were associated with the PA of Roma and non-Roma children. The inter-ethnic contrasting results of our correlational analysis lead to two assumptions. First, we found a very weak correlation between the Roma children’s PA and their fathers’
education, but a significant medium correlation between the Roma children's PA and their mothers' education. This implies that the PA of Roma children depends on the mother's education level, while the father seems to play very little role in the development of such pre-literacy skills. In the case of the non-Roma children, we found that the father's education correlated more strongly with the level of PA compared with the mother's education, and that both parents' levels of education were correlated significantly with the PA of the children. Consequently, these contrasting results suggest that, at least in the three communities where the data was collected, in non-Roma families the responsibility for the development of early literacy skills (such as PA) is shared by both parents, while in Roma communities, this responsibility is most likely taken by the mother. Second, our data shows that there is a non-significant (weak) relationship between the PA of Roma children and family income, but a significant (medium size) association between these two variables in the case of non-Roma children. This suggests that the PA of Roma children might not depend on the family income level. However, in the case of the non-Roma families, the better income the parents have, the more they tend to invest in the education of their children (e.g., more frequent kindergarten attendance, enrollment in early development classes or provision of educational software). This assumption is supported also by the fact that there was no significant association between family income and parents' education in the Roma families, but a very strong (and significant) correlation between family income and each parent's education in the non-Roma families. This suggests that the income of the Roma is less dependent on their education level, and therefore, Roma families might not place a great value on their education level, because their income does not depend on it; thus, Roma families might think that good pre-literacy skills at the beginning of school are not so important for their children.

The third question in our study focused on the effectiveness of a medium-intensity intervention program conducted during 1st grade towards the development of the PA skills of the Roma children (and their non-Roma peers) and whether such a program can enhance PA skills above and beyond the effects of regular classroom activities. To answer the question we conducted a randomized controlled trial. The four-month 3-sessions-a-week long training did not lead to a significant effect for the experimental group, suggesting that (at least for the Romanian speaking population) in order for such an intervention program to have a significant effect it needs to be implemented at an earlier age (at the kindergarten level) (cf., also Suggate, 2010). The results may also suggest that if we want to expect more dramatic and statistically significant increase in PA during first grade we might need to consider using a more intensive remedial program (e.g., five days a week,
one hour daily) or a variety of methods (and not just PA training exercises), such as reading or spelling.

The last research question sought to find whether the PA of Roma children develops at a different rate compared with their non-Roma peers, once school started. The rationale was that, since the development rate of the PA of Roma children would be lower, remedial programs would be strongly recommended in order to help children from this ethnic group to close the gap between themselves and their non-Roma peers. The non-significant interaction effect of ethnicity indicated that the development rate of PA skills was similar for the Roma and non-Roma children coming from the same community and attending the same classrooms. On the one hand, these findings suggest that ethnicity does not play a role in the PA achievement rate, and that Roma children are able to learn at the same pace as their non-Roma peers once the same quality of instruction is being provided. We believe these findings are relevant for the professionals in the field of education, because they contribute to disproving the opinions that Roma children might be less educable than their non-Roma peers due to their cognitive limitations (Baklar, 2004; Rushton, Cvorovic, & Bons, 2007). On the other hand, the overall significant increase in the PA of the Roma and non-Roma children (from both the experimental and control groups) suggests that, at least for the children from Romania, the 1st grade national curriculum for literacy development leads implicitly to a significant increase in PA. Such a conclusion is consistent with the previous studies that show that PA can be improved after regular classwork activities like storybook reading (Krashen, 2003) or language exposure (Chien, Kao & Wei, 2008). In other words, participation of Roma children in regularly conducted school activities can enhance their literacy attainment at rates similar to their non-Roma peers, and therefore a strong emphasis needs to be placed on adequate social and school integration of Roma children to ensure school performance.

**Conclusion**

The results of the present study suggest that the PA skills of Roma children are significantly lower than those of their non-Roma peers in 1st grade, and it seems very important to conduct interventions to improve such skills before school starts. These results also suggest that in the case of Roma children, the level of the mother’s education makes the biggest difference with regard to the child’s development of pre-literacy skills such as PA. Yet, unlike in the case of their non-Roma peers, those skills of Roma children are less dependent on the father’s education and family
income. Although a medium-term intensity intervention program conducted during 1st grade did not produce significant effects beyond regular classroom activities, our study indicates that as soon as Roma children start school, their PA skills increase at the pace similar to that of their non-Roma peers.

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Bowey (1995) found that differences in phonological sensitivity partly mediate the SES differences in reading proficiency levels.


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The New Educational Review

Nation Branding through Internationalization of Higher Education: 
A Case Study of African Students in South Korea*

DOI: 10.15804/tner.2016.45.3.04

Abstract
This study focuses on the effect that internationalization of higher education has on the nation branding of South Korea. To better understand the role that international students in higher education play in nation branding, research is needed on the actual experiences of international students in the country. In this study, current and former African university students’ experiences living and studying in South Korea are investigated. This study, therefore, uses the nation branding framework within the context of South Korea and the role of higher education as an image enhancement strategy geared toward global public inclusion; its focus is on the experiences of African students. In order to obtain multiple perspectives on African student experiences, a survey was conducted using a questionnaire. The empirical evidence obtained in this study demonstrates that African students’ experiences in South Korea are relevant in their perceptions of the host country. The results suggest the positive impact that the South Korean government has on improving the country’s image through encouragement of internationalization of higher education, especially among African students who come to the country for their tertiary education.

Keywords: African students, globalization, higher education, internationalization, nation branding, South Korea

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Introduction

Nation branding, the strategy of promoting a positive image of a country, is an approach that countries are using to reshape their national identities and become more visible on the global landscape. In 2008, South Korea earned a surprisingly low ranking of 33 out of 50 on the Anholt-GfK Roper Nation Brands Index (NBI) (Anholt, 2008). While South Korea is the world’s 13th largest economy (World Bank Group, 2015), its low image ranking lagged far behind the economic status. Nation branding is a strategy that South Korea is now adopting to improve its national image. South Korea’s nation branding efforts have been among the strongest, and the enrollment of international students in South Korean universities is an example of the initiatives. Currently, over 80,000 international university students are studying in South Korea, and there is a push to increase enrollment to 200,000 international students by 2020 (National Institute for International Education, 2014).

Research Problem and Focus

While most studies on nation branding in South Korea have concentrated on Korean popular culture, tourism, and diplomacy, higher education for foreign students has not been the subject of rigorous study. To better understand the role of international students in higher education in nation branding, research is needed on the actual experiences of international students in South Korea. In this study, current and former African university students’ experiences living and studying in South Korea are investigated. Cooperative relationships between South Korea and African countries have been increasing year by year, especially in the area of development assistance. South Korea has sought to attract more African students into its higher education system, but no study has explored the experiences of African students and how the effects of higher education and nation branding perspectives are related. To fill this gap in the literature, this research examines the role of attracting international students in higher education as a strategy for nation branding in South Korea with a focus on the experiences of African students.
Literature Review

Nation branding is becoming recognized as a principal governmental strategy as more countries begin to see the value and influence of improving their national image in the global marketplace. The concept of nation branding is still a developing field where scholars and practitioners are working toward a common conceptual framework. Gudjonsson argues that “Nation branding occurs when a government or private company uses its power to persuade whoever has the ability to change a nation’s image” (2005, p. 285). According to Fan, a country’s image has a direct influence on international relations (2010). Some benefits of engaging in nation branding include stabilizing currency, helping to reinforce international reputation and trust among investors, increasing international rankings and global political power, and strengthening international ties and encouraging nation building (Dinnie, 2010). This requires a country to develop a comprehensive nation branding plan as part of its national policy framework as in the case of South Korea. According to Kim, “countries are increasingly turning their attention to improving their nation brands. Perhaps no other country in the world has tried so aggressively to improve its nation brand in recent years as South Korea” (2011, p. 147).

In 2009, former President Lee established a new campaign, the Presidential Council on Nation Branding (PCNB), in an effort to rebrand South Korea’s reputation. The PCNB devised a 10-point action plan. In particular, the key action point aimed at attracting international students of higher education has been carried out by offering university scholarships to study in South Korea under the Campus World, Global Korea Scholarship and Campus Asia programs. Many countries have made international education a priority for fostering international exchange and mutual understanding (Byun & Kim 2011; Altbach & Knight, 2007; Brooks & Waters, 2011). The scholarship programs have been created to help promote the country’s image among international students.

South Korea began to develop policies related to foreign students with the announcement of the Study Korea Project in 2005. With this governmental initiative, the number of foreign students increased approximately 7.3 times from 12,314 in 2003 to 89,573 in 2011, which was the highest thus far (Ministry of Education, 2014). According to 2014 statistics, there are 84,891 foreign students at 356 universities and colleges from 192 countries (Ministry of Education 2014). In 2013, the government launched the Study Korea 2020 Project, which aimed to reach 200,000 students by 2020. In addition to attracting more foreign students, this new project also addresses quality assurance and recruitment policies in order
to improve the learning and living conditions of foreign students and support their settlement in the county after graduation.

With the governmental support for internationalization of higher education and official development assistance in the education sector, the number of African students in South Korean universities has increased dramatically since 2000. In the last 12 years, the number of African students grew from 112 in 2003 to 1,790 in 2014 (Ministry of Education, 2014). The following discussion uses a case study of African students’ experiences in the country to investigate how South Korea’s effort to attract foreign students affects its nation branding.

**Research Methodology**

**General Background of Research**

This study is based on quantitative research designed to interpret African students’ experiences in South Korea and their perceptions of the country. In order to obtain multiple perspectives from African students, a survey was conducted with both current and former African students who have experiences studying in South Korean universities. Survey questions focus on the experiences of African students living in South Korean culture and how these experiences influenced their image of the nation. An analysis of the responses focuses on the change in African students’ perceptions of South Korea after their living and learning in the country for a certain period of time.

**Research Sample**

This questionnaire survey was aimed at African students who are presently enrolled at South Korean universities or colleges, or who have remained in the country following their studies. These individuals form a proper group for assessing the effect of internationalization in higher education on nation branding. The vast majority of African university students in South Korea are, in a sense, induced to study in the country through scholarship opportunities offered by either the South Korean government or non-governmental organizations.

The research sample was composed of 50 current or former students who are nationals of an African country. 38 male students and 12 female students responded to our request and completed the questionnaire. The nationalities of the respondents include Kenyan (13), Ethiopian (8), Ugandan (4), Nigerian (3),
Ghanaian (3), Congolese (3), Rwandan (2), Zimbabwean (2), Liberian (2), Tanzanian (1), Algerian (1), Gabonese (1), Gambian (1), Zambian (1), Moroccan (1), Cameroonian (1), Senegalese (1) and Burkinabe (1). A male respondent identified his nationality as 'African'. More detailed characteristics of the research sample are presented in Table 1.

Instrument and Procedures

This questionnaire survey was conducted on-line for about a month from October 15 to November 13, 2015. We created a webpage with the questionnaire (https://docs.google.com/forms/d/18UUp1G94QYmJE0kggft9i0RQuEu3D-1N7DyLGqZJesA/viewform) for this survey and invited the targeted group of African students in South Korea by sending emails and advertising on community-based group pages on social media. These groups include the Korea Association of African Students, African Academics Forum and the Association of African Students in Korea. We received 52 responses after sending and posting the questionnaire, but two responses were incomplete and were therefore excluded from the sample. It was an anonymous survey to protect participants’ identities.

The questionnaire consists of 22 questions and is divided into four sections: (1) respondents’ socio-demographic information, (2) their images of South Korea before coming to the country, (3) their experiences living and studying in the country, and (4) their images of South Korea after spending some time in the country. The demographics section contains questions concerning gender, age, nationality, duration of stay in South Korea, academic degree (currently pursuing or last obtained) and occupation (if not a student). The questions in the second to fourth sections are intended to explore various aspects of the African students’ perceptions of South Korea before and after their stay in the country. Scale questions are used to analyze respondents’ experiences in the foreign country and opinions about its national image. 5-point scale questions (1-greatly satisfied, 5-greatly dissatisfied) measure students’ level of satisfaction with respect to living and the educational environment; respondents are asked to express their level of preference or dislike toward the host country on a 10-point scale (1-best, 10-worst). Supplemental multiple-choice questions are intended to obtain more information about the African students’ experiences and opinions. In addition, three open-ended questions are included in the last part of the questionnaire in order to get lengthier responses with more in-depth comments from the African students.


Research Results

Respondents’ Socio-demographic Characteristics

The African students who responded and completed our questionnaire were 30 (±5.42) years of age on average. The majority of the sample (70%) were in their late twenties or early thirties (25–35). Their average stay in South Korea was 2.18 (± 1.71) years, and slightly more than half of them (54%) had lived in the country for less than two years. Most of them (80%) were currently pursuing or had last obtained a postgraduate degree (34 Master’s and 6 Doctoral) in South Korea (Table 1).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Categories</th>
<th>N</th>
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</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Gender</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Male</td>
<td>38</td>
<td>76</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>24</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
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<td>100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Age</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Under 20</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20–29</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>52</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>30–39</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>38</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Over 40</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Period of Stay in South Korea</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Less than 2 years</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>54</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2–4 years</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>34</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5 years or more</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Academic Degree or Certificate</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Doctoral</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Master’s</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>68</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Undergraduate</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>16</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Language Certificate</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Previous Perceptions of South Korea

In response to the question about where they usually received information about South Korea in their home countries, most of the African students selected ‘mass media’ (46%) and ‘family/friends’ (38%) as their main information sources.
When asked which aspect of South Korea they liked best, ‘economy’ ranked highest (58%), followed by ‘friendly people’ (16%) and ‘traditional culture’ (10%). The vast majority of the respondents (62%) came to study in South Korea because of a ‘scholarship opportunity’. As for the question regarding the previous image of South Korea before coming to the country, 52% of the African students rated South Korea as a fair to middle (4–6) country, and 38% of them expressed favorable (1–3) views (Table 2).

### Table 2. Previous perception of South Korea

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Categories</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Information Source about South Korea</strong></td>
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<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mass media</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>46</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Family/friend</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>38</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>School</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Most Likable Aspect of South Korea</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Economy</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>58</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Friendly people</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>16</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Traditional Culture</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Technology</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>None</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>50</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Reasons for Deciding to Study in South Korea</strong></td>
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<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Scholarship opportunity</td>
<td>31</td>
<td>62</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Academic interest</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>16</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Admiration for South Korea</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>10</td>
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<tr>
<td>Recommendation from others</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other</td>
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<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Previous Country Image of South Korea</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Favorable (1–3)</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>38</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fair to middle (4–6)</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>52</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Unfavorable (7–10)</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Experiences Living and Studying in South Korea**

Regarding the question of the satisfaction with living in South Korea, 38% of the African students were satisfied (greatly satisfied, generally satisfied), and
22% expressed dissatisfaction (greatly dissatisfied, generally dissatisfied). Similar responses were obtained to the question about satisfaction with university life. While 34% of the students were satisfied with South Korean university education, 22% were dissatisfied. In response to the question of the most likable aspect of South Korea after their stay in the country, ‘social infrastructure’ ranked the highest (42%), followed by ‘economy’ (26%) and ‘friendly people’ (16%). When asked about the most difficult aspect concerning their daily life in South Korea, ‘social issues (discrimination, prejudice)’ (26%) and ‘adaptation to foreign life’ (26%) were equally high, followed by ‘dating/relationship problem’ (16%) and ‘academic issues’ (12%) (Table 3).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Categories</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Satisfaction with Overall Living Experience in South Korea</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Greatly satisfied</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Generally satisfied</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>32</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Average</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>40</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Generally dissatisfied</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>18</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Greatly dissatisfied</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Satisfaction with University Life in South Korea</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Greatly satisfied</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Generally satisfied</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Average</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>44</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Generally dissatisfied</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>16</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Greatly dissatisfied</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Most Likable Aspect of South Korea</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Social infrastructure</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>42</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Economy</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>26</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Friendly people</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>16</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Traditional culture</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Social welfare</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Natural environment</td>
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<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Most Difficult Aspect Concerning Daily Life in South Korea</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Social issues (discrimination, prejudice)</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>26</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Adaptation to foreign life</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>26</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dating/relationship problem</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>16</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Most Difficult Aspect Concerning Daily Life in South Korea

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Categories</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Academic issues</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Visa problems</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Economic burden</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Religious activity</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Present Perceptions of South Korea

When asked whether education in South Korea had affected their perceptions of the country, the majority (66%) of the African students responded positively (strongly agree, agree). Referring to the question about the present image of South Korea after staying in the country for some time, 52% of the students rated South Korea as a favorable country (1–3), and 26% of them gave the country a middle ranking (4–6). In comparison with the previous image, more than half of the respondents (56%) indicated improvement in the national image. In response to the question about their career path after completing studies in South Korea, ‘return home’ ranked the highest (44%), followed by ‘seek a job in South Korea’ (28%) and ‘seek a job in another country’ (10%) (Table 4).

Table 4. Present perceptions of South Korea

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Categories</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Experiences in South Korea Affected Your Image of the Country</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Strongly agree</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>48</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Agree</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>18</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Neither agree nor disagree</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>18</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Disagree</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Strongly disagree</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Present Country Image of South Korea</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Favorable (1–3)</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>52</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fair to middle (4–6)</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>36</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Unfavorable (7–10)</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Categories</td>
<td>N</td>
<td>%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>------------------------------------</td>
<td>----</td>
<td>-----</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Comparison between Previous and Present Country Image of South Korea</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Greatly improved (+ 6 level)</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Improved (3–5 level)</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Slightly improved (1–2 level)</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>34</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Neither improved nor worsened</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Slightly worsened (1–2 level)</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Worsened (3–5 level)</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Greatly worsened (-6 level)</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Career Path after Completion of Studies in South Korea</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Return home</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>44</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Seek a job in South Korea</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>28</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Seek a job in another country</td>
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<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Attain a higher degree in South Korea</td>
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<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Attain a higher degree in another country</td>
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<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Discussion and Conclusions**

From the perspective of internationalization of higher education, the empirical evidence gathered in this study demonstrates that the African students’ experiences living and studying in South Korea are relevant in regard to their perceptions of the host country. Our results confirm the effect that the South Korean government’s encouragement of internationalization of higher education has on the improvement of the national image particularly among African students who come to the country for their tertiary education.

According to the survey results, many of the African students who used to receive limited information about South Korea mainly through mass media and from surrounding people in their home country tend to have a favorable impression after gaining experiences living and studying in the host country. Their
perceptions of South Korea are largely influenced by its socio-economic characteristics, such as social infrastructure and economy. Therefore, internationalization of higher education, especially attracting international students from Africa to South Korean universities, can be an effective tool for enhancing the country’s reputation.

However, there are also some challenges, particularly with social issues that the African students living in South Korea noted. Some of them said that they encountered discrimination and prejudice against Africans in their daily lives and had difficulties in adapting to South Korean society. This fact is especially relevant in today’s globalized environment, which is characterized by the increased mobility of people across continents. It is important to facilitate an environment that is friendly to foreigners and to improve African people’s public awareness in order to assist their socio-cultural adaptation to South Korean society.

Over the past decade, the influx of international students in South Korean universities has increased dramatically. The growing importance of attracting foreign students to the country’s higher education system is emphasized for the nation branding effort. This study has sought to demonstrate the role that internationalization of higher education plays in enhancing South Korea’s image by investigating the case of African students. The result that the African students’ experiences living and studying in South Korea positively affected their perception of the country presents important implications for decision makers who manage the nation branding campaign. Strategies raising the level of international students’ satisfaction through improving the quality of higher education as well as helping their socio-cultural integration into the host society should be designed.

References


The article deals with intergenerational learning in the Czech family from three generations perspective. Intergenerational learning means phenomena and processes aiding mutual transfer of knowledge, experiences, and attitudes in the family that take place in specific family life situations, in interactions, and during the shared activities of the participating generations: children, parents, and grandparents. The thesis of pro-learning family culture – the influence of family characteristics such as communication, family climate and cohesion on learning in the family is elaborated on. The thesis of pro-learning family culture is developed further to identify four different models of family learning from intergenerational perspective. A mixed research design was used.

Keywords: intergenerational learning, family relationships, intergenerational communication, family climate, family cohesion, pro-learning family culture

Introduction

The article deals with intergenerational learning in the Czech family from three generations perspective. Hatton-Yeo (2008, p. 3) defines intergenerational learning as “a process through which individuals of all ages acquire skills and knowledge, but also attitudes and values, from daily experience, from all available resources and from all influences in their own ‘life worlds.’” Intergenerational learning can
occur in various environments and situations (Newman, 2006; Newman & Hatton-Yeo, 2008; Newman, Ward, Smith, Wilson & McCrea, 1997; O’Hara, 2013), primarily in the family, where it means phenomena and processes aiding mutual transfer of knowledge, experiences, and attitudes. It is the learning that takes place in specific family life situations, in interactions, and during the shared activities of the participating generations: children, parents, and grandparents.

To understand the processes of intergenerational learning, it has to be set within the framework of related concepts such as intergenerational contacts and their benefits (Giddens, 1984; Reisig & Fees, 2007), intergenerational communication, and relations (Bengtson, Giarrusso, Mabry & Silverstein, 2002; Bengtson & Lowenstein, 2003; Giarrusso, Stallings & Bengtson, 1995; Hoff, 2007; Katz, Lowenstein, Philips & Daatland, 2005; Logan, & Spitze, 1997; Luescher, 2004; Scabini & Marta, 2006, Williams & Nussbaum, 2001).

Intergenerational learning is interconnected with all of the previously mentioned concepts and builds on them. It also occupies a theoretical position among other types of adult learning (Bandura, 1977; Mezirow, 1991; Dellen, 2012). Using the standard categories of learning, intergenerational learning can be defined as both intentional and unintentional, both conscious and reflected; sensory-motor, verbal-cognitive, and social; lifelong and life-wide; and largely informal. It concerns values and attitudes (social learning), knowledge and information sharing (cognitive learning), and skills (sensory motor learning). The key feature distinguishing it from other types of learning is its focus on the participants belonging to different generations.

Learning in the family undergoes changes having to do with the ages of family members, their independence and maturity, and their relations, as well as with the topics dominating the family and its members at specific life stages of the family cycle. Learning in the family is not restricted to a specific period, although it is evident that learning takes place in different ways at individual stages of development, different things are learned, and what is being learned is received in varying ways as well.

**Research Topic**

The research topic elaborates on the thesis of “pro-learning family culture,” from which the internal conditions necessary for intergenerational learning in the family can be identified. The concept is defined, according to Cherri (2008), by four principal aspects: communication, family climate, cohesion, and family learning. If we
describe a family culture as favorable to learning, those families are characterized by a friendly atmosphere, open communication, and a great deal of family cohesion. Cherri (2008) deduces that a family with this kind of positive culture is analogical to the concept of a learning organization (Senge, 1990), where people at all levels – individual and collective – expand their knowledge, create required results, pursue new ways of thinking, and incessantly learn to learn together (Sedláček, Pol, Hloušková, Lazarová & Novotné, 2013). The stronger the culture of learning and sharing is, the more successful the organization, or family, is. Both factors have a positive effect on the robustness and strength of relations within the family. If the family is thus viewed as a learning organization, then successful, robust, and strong relations within the family depend on the intensity of cohesion, communication, and atmosphere in the family. In other words, the ideal of intergenerational learning is a family whose members learn from one another and share their experiences among themselves to benefit each other. Based on the concept of pro-learning family culture, the following research questions were formulated:

How are the principal components of pro-learning family culture (communication, family climate, cohesion and learning) seen and evaluated by family members from different generations? What family learning models based on these components can be identified?

**Research Methodology**

**Data Collection**

A mixed research design, i.e., a combination of quantitative and qualitative approaches to sample selection, methods, data collection techniques, and data analysis were used. Using the criteria formulated by Creswell, and Plano Clark (2006), time-wise the research followed a sequential design. The data were combined both by interconnecting them at the level of research techniques (open questions in the questionnaire and analogical questions in the interviews) and in the analysis and interpretation of how people perceive what and how they learn or have learned in their families (response analysis). The triangulation model of the mixed research design allowed for an insight into the research questions interconnecting various perspectives.
The questionnaire survey was conducted among participants in non-formal education courses targeting adults of varying ages. The respondents included adult children (94; 34%; average age 27), parents (91; 33%; average age 41), and grandparents (90; 33%; average age 65) – 275 respondents in total. The respondents were assigned to generational groups based on two criteria: their reported ages and their self-classification regarding their role in the family (adult child, parent, and grandparent).

Then three-generation families were selected using the following criteria: the grandparent generation was required to have at least one member; the parent generation had to have both members, and the family had to include at least one adult child; the family members did not have to share a household but were required to keep in touch regularly and rather often in face-to-face encounters; they had to be sufficiently communicative and cohesive. The research sample included 8 families living in the country and urban areas, consisting of a total of 32 respondents.

The data were collected using the following qualitative research methods: group and individual administration of the Family System Test (FAST), group and individual interviews, a snapshot of a weekday and a weekend day of the family, a learning time axis at different life stages prepared by all members, participatory observation in the families, and repeated individual interviews to make the information more complete and accurate.

The group interviews were conducted following the informed consent of all family members; they took place in the households of the families and lasted 90–120 minutes; individual interviews took 70–120 minutes.

**Data Analysis**

Quantitative data were analyzed by using standard statistic methods (indexes, association coefficients, coefficients of determination), and interview data were recorded, transcribed, and coded by means of open and thematic coding using *Atlas.ti* analytical software by all three authors.
Research Results

How Are the Principal Components of Pro-learning Family Culture Seen and Evaluated by Family Members from Different Generations?

In all the four areas that are the components of pro-learning family culture – communication\(^1\), climate\(^2\), cohesion\(^3\), and learning\(^4\) in the family – the oldest generation of respondents – grandparents, showed the greatest deal of agreement with the statements they were offered. It is thus the grandparent generation that perceives their family as a place of open communication, good climate, and great cohesion. On the other hand, the youngest generation thinks of their families as such a place less often\(^5\). The overview of the results is presented in Table 1.

Table 1. Means of the indexes of communication, family climate, cohesion and learning from generational perspective

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Communication</th>
<th>Climate</th>
<th>Cohesion</th>
<th>Learning</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Adult children generation</td>
<td>1.85 (N = 92)</td>
<td>1.61 (N = 91)</td>
<td>2.14 (N=90)</td>
<td>1.91 (N=90)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Parents generation</td>
<td>1.59 (N =85)</td>
<td>1.37 (N=86)</td>
<td>1.58 (N=86)</td>
<td>1.65 (N=86)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Grandparents generation</td>
<td>1.42 (N =70)</td>
<td>1.28 (N=71)</td>
<td>1.55 (N=69)</td>
<td>1.58 (N=67)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>1.64 (N=247)</td>
<td>1.43 (N=248)</td>
<td>1.78 (N=245)</td>
<td>1.73 (N=243)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Indexes range from 1.00 to 4.00. The lower the value of the mean is, the more positive the evaluation of communication, climate, cohesion, and learning in the family is.

---

1. The communication index consists of the following statements: *In our family, everyone is given enough scope to express their opinions; In our family, we speak about things openly; In our family, we often talk about different kinds of things; In our family, we do not keep secrets from one another.* The index may vary from 1.00 to 4.00. The lower the mean value is, the more positive the perception of communication in the family is.

2. The climate index consists of the following statements: *My family provides me with support; Being a part of my family makes me feel good; Members of my family respect one another; In our family, we share all joys and troubles.*

3. The cohesion index consists of the following statements: *In our family, we spend a lot of leisure time together; We regard the time spent together as an important value; Opinions of other members of the family are an important factor influencing my decisions; Family matters are always decided jointly.*

4. The learning-in-the-family index consists of the following statements: *In my family, we learn various things from one another; It is good to gain experience in your own family; An ongoing process of learning is characteristic of our family; I am a person who keeps learning all life.*

5. For communication the association is Eta = 0.28; for climate, Eta = 0.29; for cohesion, Eta = 0.47.
Our results are consistent with the “intergenerational stake” hypothesis as presented by Giarrusso, Stallings, and Bengtson (1995), according to which parents focus on developing family cohesion and close relations more frequently than their children do, giving the family more of their attention. This also manifests in a stronger sense of mutuality and togetherness among the older generations and more distance from the younger generations.

Communication is also perceived as an important aspect of family life by Olson within his *circumplex model* of matrimonial and family operation (Olson, 2000), a widely acknowledged model of family life structuring. This model characterized healthy family operation as being based on balanced cohesion and flexibility among the family members. Cohesion is understood as emotional closeness, developing a bond; flexibility indicates an ability to cope with changes that the family and its members are undergoing. A third dimension of the model is communication, which plays the role of a mechanism supporting the other two dimensions. Communication should support family cohesion and facilitate the acceptance of potential change. Families with positive communication cultures are better equipped for developing sharing, coping with change they need to face, and better responding to emerging developmental and situational needs.

Our findings concerning family cohesion may be interpreted with the use of the *core and balance model* (Smith, Freeman & Zabriskie, 2009), which suggests that families whose members are involved in spending time together show signs of higher cohesion and intra-family flexibility.

Our results show that these facts concern the parent generation and, even more markedly, the grandparent generation. In parallel to the “intergenerational stake” hypothesis, providing a clue to interpreting relations between parents and children, there is the “age differentiation and changing needs” hypothesis (Hoff, 2007), concerning relations between adult grandchildren and their grandparents. According to this theory, grandparents tend to be closer to their younger grandchildren than to the older ones. Gradually, as both grandchildren’s and grandparents’ age and needs change, grandchildren start supporting their grandparents.

The lower level of agreement among the youngest generation in all areas under examination may be explained using the above-mentioned “intergenerational stake” hypothesis, according to which the tendency among children to cultivate their sense of themselves, autonomy, and independence is much more marked than strengthening the cohesion of their family (Hoff, 2007). It is for this reason that they tend to reject the values and traditions of older generations (Scabini & Marta, 2006). In this theoretical framework, conflict is associated mainly with phenomena observed among the younger generation. The situation is the opposite
with parents: parents tend to underestimate intergenerational conflict and overestimate intergenerational solidarity.

Our data shows that learning in the family – when family is regarded as a dependent variable – correlates well with all of the components of family culture, i.e., communication, climate, and cohesion. If the members of the family communicate openly about various areas of interest and provide one another with enough scope to express their views, there is a climate in the family which is characterized by mutual respect. Individual members feel good about their family and perceive it as supportive, view the family as cohesive, spend leisure time together and view this fact as an important value, and make joint decisions about family issues – then, in summary, good conditions for learning in the family are available.

What Family Learning Models Based on the Components of Pro-learning Family Culture Can Be Identified?

Four models of family learning contexts can be distinguished, i.e., four different models of conditions for learning in the family. They are basically four ideal types of family functioning. No family can unequivocally be classified as representing a specific model but each family shows prevailing typical signs of one of them. All these models have been derived from our research data and not from already existing theories.

1. The first model is the open sharing family model. It is a model where family members are in ample contact with all others. Family members often share their problems, joys, and worries. Their communication is relatively intensive. Each member is themselves while being open towards the others. All generations are regarded as autonomous and active. All family members are regarded as equal partners, and have enough scope to express their opinions. Both sexes are regarded as equal. Features of the postmodern family prevail. Learning in these families is bi-directional, from older to younger and vice versa.

They are wiser, more knowledgeable and I wonder how I can intervene at all. I know how unpleasant it was when someone intervened with my stuff. So I’m trying to avoid that (F2, grandmother). It’s kind of a result of how we kept meeting, we have been

---

6 The index of learning is significantly influenced by communication in the family (correlation 0.72; determination coefficient = 0.52), by family climate (0.68; determination coefficient = 0.46); and cohesion (0.73; determination coefficient = 0.53).
meeting this frequently since I came to Brno, so it goes on, I go there with my wife too, quite regularly... and this feels somehow natural to meet. There is nothing planned about it, and there is no practical purpose to it... (F2, grandson)

(2) The second model is the respect-based top-down family model. All generations respect one another and have consideration for the others, including their needs and interests. Older generations feel respect for the younger ones and do not feel competent to pass on anything without having been asked. Family attention and activity is markedly focused on the younger generation, which assumes the central role. This is where the care of the older generations is directed. The mother and grandmother elements are significant features of the family constellation. Features of the modern family prevail. Bi-directional learning prevails; when uni-directional learning occurs in selected areas of learning, the flow from the older generations to the younger ones, i.e., to the children and grandchildren, prevails.

There's swimming, sports... I wanted to attend a university of the third age, to prevent my brain cells from being totally idle, but because there's the phone, which is a kind of obligation, when I'm needed, I tend to make sure I don't have to say “No”. (F1, grandmother)

(3) The third family model is the respect-based bottom-up family model. All three generations meet frequently, often living in a three-generation house. In this type of learning family, the grandparent generation has an exclusive position and plays an important role in decision-making processes and family issues. Activity and attention in the family tend to be directed towards the older generation and satisfying its needs. This also defines the significant role of the middle – “sandwich” generation of parents. The dominant role of the father and the grandfather is another feature. Features of the traditional family prevail. Uni-directional learning, from older to younger generation, is relatively strong.

Father used to tell us... how things used to be and so on. Well, and we listened to it like a fairy tale and I tell the same things to my kids today. (R5, grandfather)

(4) The fourth model is the open non-sharing family model. Contacts between the family members are scarcer, and meeting one another and communicating are less frequent. This is because the family members are strong individuals guided mainly by their own needs and interests, choosing their life paths independent of
others, or due to poor family relations caused by interpersonal conflict. As with
the first model, features of the postmodern family prevail. It can be inferred that
intentional and reflected learning is only limited within families of this type. The
research sample was dominated by the families of the second and third type, i.e.,
the respect-based top-down and bottom-up models.

![Figure 1. Schematic representation of family learning models](image)

The results show that intergenerational learning, especially its direction, is posi-
tively associated with family characteristics such as communication, cohesion, and
family climate. In addition, there is a parallel with family typology distinguishing
traditional, modern, and postmodern families (Možný, 2006), especially at the level
of features such as family structure, roles within the family, and intergenerational
transfer.

**Discussion and Conclusions**

In this paper, we presented insights into intergenerational learning in selected
Czech families, concerning conditions in the family shaping intergenerational
learning. Family and social changes lead to challenging extreme individualism
and taking individuals out of family relations that are currently characterized by plurality, fluidity, and diversification (Popenoe, 1993), although they increasingly often signal a detour from the narrow perception of a nuclear family. There are indications, as Sýkorová (2009) says, that the nuclear family coexists closely with the extended family, i.e., the family where the presence of grandparents is an important feature. These transformations, alongside the need for lifelong and life-wide learning, provide a basis for processes of intergenerational learning in the family.

Intergenerational learning in the family is characterized by changes connected to the ages of family members, their gaining independence and maturity, their relations, and topics dominating the life of the family and its members at specific life stages. There is a need to redefine the transfer of information within the family towards greater reciprocity, and to broaden the generational interaction basis. This redefinition also concerns the meaning of learning for its participants.

Our results confirm other empirical studies accentuating the positive dimensions of multigenerational cohabitation. They suggest that intergenerational relations within families concern sharing of activities among relatives who keep in touch intensively and provide help to one another – both the younger generation to the older one and vice versa, also evidence a high degree of family closeness, mutuality, and contacts among members of three-generation families (Antonucci, Jackson & Biggs, 2007). The parent and grandparent generations report providing and accepting help and support; these generations are also happy about the amount of contact they have. If intergenerational relations stay stable in the long run and are positive in nature, they are also highly beneficial to the members of the family in terms of mutual learning.

Research orientation on the positive aspects of living together, without a compensating focus on conflict and negative phenomena in the family, could be open to criticism (Bengston, Giarusso, Mabry & Silverstein, 2002). We, nevertheless, believe that intergenerational learning may yield a new positive view of the family, which may play a role in the now-frequently emphasized processes of family weakening. If family members share learning without insisting on dominance, if knowledge and experience are passed in both directions, family members can benefit each other while strengthening the cohesion of the family as a whole.

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Advance School Leadership, Progress Teaching Approach and Boost Learning: The Case of Indonesia

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Abstract
The 2013 Curriculum Reform and its effect on school practices remain a challenge for Indonesia since the roles of school leadership remain unaddressed. This study aimed to examine the effect of school leadership on instructional practices and student learning. This cross-sectional survey collected data from 1,082 students and 180 teachers from randomly selected 40 junior secondary school principals. Employing education production function models, this study found that the quality of school leadership had impacts on teachers’ ability to create student-centered instruction and consequently on student learning. Results suggest that school reforms would be even more successful, among other things, through establishing school principals as professional agents of change that help teachers transform their instructional behavior and improve learning.

Keywords: school principals, leadership, student centered instruction

Background
One of the nation-wide school reforms in Indonesia was to introduce the New School Curriculum in 2013, addressing almost all parts of school programs. This is a centrally designed curriculum to be implemented in all schools throughout the country. However, the very need for school leadership approaches to help teachers implement the reform has remained unaddressed since then. It has generated
confusion in both school principals and teachers concerning the implementation of the intended reforms.

The Government has established teacher in-service training programs, preparing teachers to implement the reforms in pilot schools throughout the country. After three years of implementation, however, not much change has taken place in school practices as expected (Suryadi et al., 2014). Although teachers were technically trained, implementation of school reforms has faced obstacles that existed beyond technical matters. In this study it was assumed that improving school leadership practices is a big challenge for successful reforms. It aimed to demonstrate the extent to which school leadership practices affect better instructional practices. This study was to answer the question of what school leadership approaches and capabilities enable teachers to promote more effective teaching; if so, which types of instructional approaches greatly impact student learning?

**Methodology**

This was a cross-sectional survey on junior secondary schools, using highly structured questionnaires. This adopted a mathematical literacy test to measure the quality of student learning as an independent variable indicating the successful school reforms. Mathematical literacy is defined by Thompson et al. (2013) as: “... an individual's capacity to identify and understand the role that mathematics plays in the world, to make well-founded judgments and to use and engage with mathematics in ways that meet the needs of that individual’s life as a constructive, concerned and reflective citizen.” Using the designed questionnaires, the study collected data from students, teachers and school principals. The sampling technique was at three levels of random selection of: eight districts, five schools within the selected district, and one intake class chosen from the selected schools. All the students in the selected intake class were the primary sampling units. Thus, the sample size consisted of 1,082 students, 183 teachers, and 40 principals. Four provinces were selected by chance, i.e., West Sumatera, East Java, South Sulawesi and North Maluku.

The model of analysis assumed that the direct effect of the teacher’s competence on student learning was very small and indirect. Instead, the teachers’ competence would contribute a strong direct effect on their quality of instruction. The instructional quality by itself affects powerfully student learning, though it was a socio-economic variable of which the covariance effect was even stronger (Fuller, 1986; Suryadi, 1992; Heyneman, 2011). The quality of instruction is affected by
a diverse set of teacher and non-teacher variables, such as the teacher’s competence, 
school leadership variables, and teacher characteristics (Fuller, 1978; Heyneman, 
1982). The school leadership and teacher characteristics were naturally independ-
ent and conceptually unrelated though in fact they had important effects on the 
quality of instruction. This analysis also assumed that teachers’ learning capacity, 
by way of measuring their education and training experiences, would significantly 
affect their competences and instructional performance (Budimansyah and Ace 
Suryadi, 2010).

**Conceptual Review**

Effective leadership is critical to school reforms. It is argued that “the chance of 
any reform improving student learning is remote unless district and school leaders 
agree with its purposes and appreciate what is required to make it work. Leaders 
in a district play extremely important roles in helping school leaders realize how 
the centrally-induced reforms are manifested into local development efforts” 
(Leithwood and Riehl, 2004). School leaders must provide teachers with support to 
practice the newly introduced reforms in their schools. Robinson (2010) states that 
“the total (direct and indirect) effects of leadership on student learning account for 
about a quarter of total school effects.” Various findings vary widely with respect 
to the roles of leadership in learning improvement as Robinson (2010) further 
suggests that “…empirical evidence available in this case is not fully consistent is 
not something rare in educational research.”

Among these inconsistencies, however, most of the studies have proven the 
powerful effect of school leadership. Day et al. (2000) concludes that “research 
findings from diverse countries and different school contexts have revealed the 
powerful impact of leadership processes related to school effectiveness.” South-
worth (2002) also suggests that “for the successful accomplishment of curriculum 
reforms, learning-centered leadership is the only way forward.” Leithwood & 
Riehl (2004), too, suggest that “…effects of successful leadership are considerably 
greater in schools that are in more difficult circumstances… many other factors 
may contribute to such turn around, but leadership is the catalyst.”

The relationship between leadership and school effectiveness depends on what 
leadership behaviors are to perform. There are two types of leadership behaviors, 
namely indirect instructional leadership, which aims to optimize learning through 
an effective principal managing the environment, and direct instructional lead-
ership, which is to provide teachers with guidance and support to improve the
quality of instruction and achievement of all students (Bendikson, et al., 2012). These two have different impacts on teaching behavior as well as on student learning. Bendikson et al. (2012) find that “…in secondary schools, principals are more likely to focus on indirect instructional leadership than they are in primary schools, because middle leaders, such as heads of departments, take on much of the direct instructional leadership”. Regardless of school levels, they further state, “principals in schools that were improving in performance were displaying more frequent direct leadership behaviors than principals from the other schools.” This shows that the direct-instructional leadership affects school progress in a stronger way than does the indirect counterpart.

In literature, the quality of instruction ranges from conventional to student centered approaches. Conventional learning considers students as passive recipients of information without having to consider their needs to actively participate in learning processes (Attard, et al., 2010). Within this approach, the pedagogical method used is traditionally one of lecturing, note-taking, and memorizing information for later recognition or reproduction (MacLellan & Soden 2004). Many studies reveal that the traditional approach has caused the most fundamental problem notably in students less motivated to learn. Clearly, it is such a non-participatory teaching approach in which students are rarely invited to ask questions or apply critical inquiry to learning (Attard et al., 2010). The OECD's PISA (2001) shows that “…in 20 out of 28 countries more than one in four 15-year-old students considered school a place where they did not want to go and in almost half the countries the majority of students also agreed or strongly agreed that school was a place in which they felt bored.”

At the other end, the quality of instruction is participatory or student centered in nature. It is mentioned that the main focus of this approach is on changes of pedagogical methods that make learning processes more enjoyable and enable students to participate fully (Attard et al., 2010). Student-centered learning, as the term suggests, is a method of teaching or learning that puts the learner at the centre (MacHemer & Crawford, 2011). This approach of teaching has a clear state of the arts as long as the theoretical perspective is concerned. From a constructivist perspective, “…knowledge is not passively received from the world, from others, or from authoritative sources. Rather, all knowledge is created as individuals (and groups) adapt to and make sense of their experiential worlds” (MacLellan & Soden, 2004). For the sake of successful school reforms, in this study it was assumed that student centered instruction was on the way forward.
Results and Discussion

The production function model using a linear multiple regression model yielded some interesting findings. The first model examined the effect of teacher characteristics and school leadership variables on teacher competence, as shown in Table 1. The magnitude of R-Square shows that this explained almost 79% of variance of teacher competence. The largest effect was given by four variables measuring teacher development efforts by way of pre-service, in-service, and on-service teacher training. These include favorable school climate (β=.922, p=.001); training attendance on curriculum, training attendance on classroom action research (β=.438, p=.001); frequency of the principal’s supervision (β=.762, p=.001); and the teacher’s education background (β=.839, p=.000). These teacher development variables affected in a positive direction.

Clearly, the effect of first teacher education negatively affected teacher competence as signified by negative beta weight (β=-.393, p=.001). This showed that the higher their education before appointed as teachers, the lower their average pedagogical competence test score. This is reasonable because by the time they first graduated, no pedagogical standards were required by the certification system that started later in 2005.

Table 1. Effects of teacher characteristics and school leadership on teacher competence (R² = 78.7%)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>No.</th>
<th>Predictors</th>
<th>Beta Weight (β)</th>
<th>t</th>
<th>sig.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>0</td>
<td>(Constant)</td>
<td>22.871</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Training attendance on Curriculum</td>
<td>.163</td>
<td>5.566</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Teacher Certification</td>
<td>.132</td>
<td>3.195</td>
<td>.001</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Age of Teacher</td>
<td>.064</td>
<td>1.622</td>
<td>.105</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>The teacher’s Latest Education</td>
<td>.839</td>
<td>21.378</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>Frequency of Head teacher Supervision</td>
<td>.762</td>
<td>21.605</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>Conducive School Management</td>
<td>.922</td>
<td>17.915</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>Teaching Experience of Teachers</td>
<td>.886</td>
<td>24.613</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>Training attendance on Subject Content</td>
<td>-.154</td>
<td>-4.552</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>Training attendance on Classroom Action Research</td>
<td>.438</td>
<td>13.865</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>The Teacher’s Early Education</td>
<td>-.393</td>
<td>-17.242</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11</td>
<td>Punishment Strategy for Less Performing Teacher</td>
<td>-.727</td>
<td>-16.695</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The strongest effect variable in student learning was teacher development processes through school leadership in creating a favorable environment for the teachers to learn. In fact, this variable affected student learning in a stronger way than did their educational background. Profession is such a living and constantly changing concept that it needs continually updated competences. There were five teacher variables that affected the teacher competence significantly, such as training on curriculum implementation ($\beta=.163$, $p=.001$); training on action research ($\beta=.438$, $p=.001$); teaching experiences ($\beta=.886$, $p=.001$); and the teachers’ age to indicate their accumulated results of life-long learning.

However, teacher in-service training on subject content had a negative effect ($\beta=-.154$, $p=.001$), which suggests that training on subject content was not sufficient because it was too short a period. Teachers’ mastery of subject content was a function of their relevant pre-service program followed by continuing self-learning activities. Therefore, the most important role of leadership was to establish school as the most enjoyable place for the teachers to learn, through using an incentive strategy for the highest performing teachers. This leadership variable significantly affected changing teachers’ competence ($\beta=-.478$, $p=.001$). Conversely, the punishment strategy for the less-performing teachers negatively affected their competences ($\beta=-.727$, $p=.001$). The two remaining variables had a negative effect on teacher competence, such as the public vs. private teacher education institution (TEI) ($\beta=-.293$, $p=.001$) and teaching load ($\beta=-.293$, $p=.001$). These suggested that, on average, the teachers who graduated from private TEIs were less competent than their counterparts and overloaded teaching hours were not effective in improving the teachers’ competence. This implied that improving the quality of TEI and managing the overloaded teachers were the relevant policy issues to address.

The second model involved four factors such as teachers’ competence (as measured by Teacher Competence test), teachers’ characteristics, the quality of school management, and students’ SES. The model involved eight variables that impact on each of the two instructional quality measures as dependent variables, such as traditional and student centered approach. The results are presented in Table 2.
Table 2. School leadership variables impacting on the quality of instruction

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>A. Criterion: Student Centered Teaching</th>
<th>R</th>
<th>R Square</th>
<th>Adjusted R Square</th>
<th>Change Statistics</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>No.</td>
<td>Predictor</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1.</td>
<td>1. Participatory school planning</td>
<td>.522</td>
<td>.272</td>
<td>.271</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.</td>
<td>2. Early Education of the teacher</td>
<td>.553</td>
<td>.306</td>
<td>.305</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.</td>
<td>3. Status of TEI (Public, Private)</td>
<td>.586</td>
<td>.343</td>
<td>.341</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.</td>
<td>4. Incentive Strategy</td>
<td>.641</td>
<td>.411</td>
<td>.408</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5.</td>
<td>5. School conducive to learning</td>
<td>.650</td>
<td>.423</td>
<td>.419</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6.</td>
<td>6. Teacher Pedagogical Competence</td>
<td>.657</td>
<td>.431</td>
<td>.428</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7.</td>
<td>7. Certified teacher</td>
<td>.670</td>
<td>.449</td>
<td>.445</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8.</td>
<td>8. Teaching Experience (in years)</td>
<td>.672</td>
<td>.452</td>
<td>.447</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>B. Criterion: Teacher Centered Teaching</th>
<th>R</th>
<th>R Square</th>
<th>Adjusted R Square</th>
<th>Change Statistics</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>No.</td>
<td>Predictor</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1.</td>
<td>1. Teaching Experience (in years)</td>
<td>.408</td>
<td>.167</td>
<td>.166</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.</td>
<td>2. Punishment Strategy</td>
<td>.470</td>
<td>.221</td>
<td>.219</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.</td>
<td>3. Teacher Pedagogical Competence</td>
<td>.501</td>
<td>.251</td>
<td>.249</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.</td>
<td>4. Incentive Strategy</td>
<td>.531</td>
<td>.282</td>
<td>.279</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5.</td>
<td>5. Status of TEI (Public, Private)</td>
<td>.610</td>
<td>.372</td>
<td>.369</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6.</td>
<td>6. Participatory School Planning</td>
<td>.660</td>
<td>.436</td>
<td>.432</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7.</td>
<td>7. Supervision by Principal</td>
<td>.702</td>
<td>.493</td>
<td>.489</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8.</td>
<td>8. School conducive to learning</td>
<td>.727</td>
<td>.528</td>
<td>.524</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The results of analysis showed that the main leadership predictors of the student centered approach were different from those of the traditional ones. The student-centered approach was affected predominantly by three main predictors, such as creating the participatory school planning (R2-Cha = 27.2%, p=.001), employing incentive strategy for the performing teachers (R2-Cha=6.8%, p=.001), and crafting school management conducive to teacher learning (R2-Cha=1.2%, p=.001). On the other hand, the traditional approach of instruction was mainly affected by three leadership variables that were bureaucratic in nature, namely: seniority (R2-Cha = 16.7%, p=.001), punishment strategy for the less-performing teachers (R2-Cha = 5.4%, p=.001), and frequent school supervision by the school principals (R2-Cha=5.7%, p=.001).
Based on these findings, the more professional school leadership (Table 2A) enabled teachers to promote progressive teaching activities that were centered at students. It was believed that putting students at the center of instruction had made students highly motivated to learn. However, the high level of teacher competence was only a necessary condition and yet not sufficient to improve learning. To be sufficient, teachers need support from a merit-based school leadership approach. This would create an incentive system that enhances teachers’ motivation to continually update their competence level. This was an important leadership strategy to foster the growth of life-long learning capacity as the real measures of modern education.

At the other end, the bureaucratic school leadership environment as shown in Table 2B was one that encouraged teachers to use more traditional teaching processes, e.g., lecturing, reciting, memorizing, classroom exercise or seat work. This type of school leadership exercised school control that required teachers to comply with the leader and avoid punishment. This kind of environment may be considered successful by way of measuring academic test scores, but this would not contribute to creating a professional climate for teachers to work productively.

The third analytical model was designed to examine whether the student centered approach of instruction had a stronger effect than did the traditional one. A measured criterion used to examine the extent to which the two composite factors, traditional versus student-centered instruction, did affect. This model included three composite factors, i.e., the student’s SES, which comprised parent education, parent occupation and kindergarten attendance; student-centered teaching , which consisted of teaching variables such as group dynamic, democratic teaching, recognizing the student’s learning problems, thematic reading and writing, and solving the student’s learning difficulties; and conventional teaching approach, which comprised lecturing, reciting, memorizing, classroom exercise, and frequency of theoretical tests. The results are shown in Table 3.

### Table 3. The effects of SES and instructional approaches on mathematical literacy score

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>No. Predictor</th>
<th>B</th>
<th>S.E.</th>
<th>Beta Weight (β)</th>
<th>t</th>
<th>Sig.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>(Constant)</td>
<td>26.351</td>
<td>2.559</td>
<td>10.296</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1. The Student’s Socio-Economic Status</td>
<td>1.414</td>
<td>.113</td>
<td>.393</td>
<td>12.530</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Student-Centered Teaching Approach</td>
<td>.358</td>
<td>.059</td>
<td>.188</td>
<td>6.052</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Conventional Teaching Approach</td>
<td>-.173</td>
<td>.038</td>
<td>-.143</td>
<td>-4.554</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The results of analysis indicated an interesting difference between the effects of these two teaching approaches. The student’s SES had significant and highest co-variance effects on student learning ($\beta=.393$, $p=.001$). After all, the effects of the other two factors were assumed to be *ceteris paribus* as the student’s SES was held constant. On the one hand, the student-centered approach affected student math literacy score in a much stronger way ($\beta=.188$, $p=.001$) than did the other approach. This meant that the more frequent was the use of student-centered teaching, the higher the quality of student learning would be. On the other hand, the effect of the conventional approach was far lower ($\beta=-.143$, $p=.001$). Its effect was not only lower in magnitude but also negative in direction. It means that the more frequent was the use of conventional teaching activities, the lower the student’s math literacy score would be. Therefore, it is essential to note that for the successful curriculum reforms it is important to improve the capacity of school leadership in discouraging teachers from using conventional rote learning while promoting the use of student-centered instructional approaches.

**Conclusion and Implication**

The influence of the student’s SES that surpasses the effect of leadership and instructional variables implies that effective school reforms need home influences to be accounted for. The regularity remained consistent, however. This study found that better student learning was associated with the more frequent use of student centered instruction, democratic and merit base school leadership. The magnitude of the association varied with respect to the levels of the student’s SES factor. It means that in the years to come, variation of school quality would be greatly associated with greater differences of family SES. Therefore, successful school reforms will be determined by unique leadership and instruction in which a close relationship between school and home does matter.

This also found that the student centered approach to instruction had a powerful effect on student learning; enabling students to learn at a high level of motivation. This suggests that individual schools and teachers are to develop and maintain students’ learning capacity to become lifelong learners. This would come into effect only if the school reforms were targeted toward building school leadership, enabling school leaders to create a favorable climate for teachers to better teach and to frequently use the student-centered and thematic instructional approaches.

Finally, the schools in Indonesia had experienced the so-called centrally controlled bureaucratic leadership practices. This type of school leadership led to the
massive use of traditional rote learning instruction as the main source of the low quality of education. In fact, school principals were less prepared to become real professional leaders; they were teachers with additional tasks to carry out administrative chores. This implies that school reforms in the country would be successful through the establishment of school principals as professional agents of change.

References
OECD (2001) Knowledge and Skills for Life: FIRST Results From Pisa 2000., Programme
for International Student Assessment., Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development


Suryadi, Ace (1992) Improving the Educational Quality of Primary Schools. Jakarta, the USAID sponsored Educational Policy and Planning Project, the Ministry of Education and Culture Indonesia.


Abstract

The aim of the study was to determine the role of structure and functions of ‘hidden’ questions in schoolchildren’s responses to questions posed to them by teachers during lessons. The study sample consisted of 1154 answers of elementary school-age children related to questions formulated by teachers. Observation as well as qualitative and quantitative analysis of data was used. The structure and functions of both answers and questions were determined. The obtained data allowed for specifying the status of a significant part of primary education. The study revealed an important new area of research associated with the fact of what is happening between the phase of creating and formulating questions by the teacher and the phase of understanding and creating responses by the schoolchild.

Keywords: question, ‘hidden’ question, operator and object of question, structure and functions of question, primary education

Introduction

The basis of education is constituted by events and processes that are taken into account while talking about interpersonal communication. Dialogues, monologues, rhetoric that were taught by the ancient philosophers are the subject of interest to all teachers. Communication is considered as a major factor of educational situations and a subject causing changes in its participants. Without communication,
no educational purpose can be achieved. Major elements in such communication are comprised of questions and associated answers. Considerations regarding the idea, structure and functions of questions and answers are investigated by research representatives of such disciplines as philosophy, in particular, the logic of questions, semiotics, psychology and pedagogy (specifically didactics). In the accepted perception, questions are statements (messages), sentences directed to an interlocutor or reflexively – to an addresser. They are requests, wishes, commands, or demands of providing answers. They are composed of interrogative pronouns (what, who, why, etc.) that are called operators (of actions) containing an aspect of wish (recommending) and an aspect of action that indicates the category of tasks to be performed in relation to this element of the question – the object of operation. Questions usually occur with an interrogative pronoun, but they can also appear as statements bearing a question mark. Imperative sentences may occur as questions (vicariously). A developed form of question, which defines its addressee, contains a command (say, evaluate, etc.), as well as a question (who, what, how, etc.).

In the available teaching and psychological literature (Racinowski, 1967; Kojs, 1988/1994; Parafiniuk-Soińska, 1988/89; Pęczkowski, 1998; Kochanowska, 2007; Gabzdyl, 2012), mainly questions formulated by teachers are taken into account. Questions posed by learners are disregarded. Research studies conducted by J. Piaget (1992), S. Szuman (1939), R. Radwiłowicz et al. (1969), K.J. Szmidt (2004), M. Szczepska-Pustkowska (2004) and B. Oelszlaeger (2009), which pertain to schoolchildren’s or learners’ questions, are an exception here. The pupils’ hidden questions (i.e. directed to themselves during the learning process), have not been considered as the subject of empirical research thus far. However, it is impossible not to mention S. Szuman (1968) in this place, who drew attention to an ‘implied subject-matter of children’s utterances’, or to an attempt at determining the characteristics of ‘implied’ questions posed by pupils (at the younger school-age) themselves while answering teachers’ questions (J. Gabzdyl, 2009). Hidden (implied) questions in the pupil’s response are an additional content that goes beyond the direct correct answer to the teacher’s question. This additional content takes the form of sentences into which neither the teacher nor the schoolchild formulates questions. In the process of formulating responses, the pupil compares them either consciously or subconsciously, as well as categorizes elements and connections instantly (Kövecses, 2011; Kojs, 2016).

In contrast to achievements of the already mentioned disciplines, in the logic of questions field (Ajdukiewicz, 1985; Kubiński, 1970; Giedymin, 1964) there were the so-called direct answers isolated and extensively characterized that have
a specific schema (range) though some of them are true and false, or the ones that have an unspecified schema – for ‘open’ questions, including a ‘narration request’ (particularly engaging a wide range of possible answers). It is also important to draw attention by logicians to answering questions related to certain relationships that occur between questions or their operators, e.g., the so-called ‘equivalent’ questions or operators (Kubiński, 1970); ‘incorporation (English: containment) of question by question’ (CL Hamblin – as cited in Kubiński, 1970). From the point of view of interpreting a response as a ‘message’, A. Brożek (2007) characterized various types of responses, including the ones ‘in general’. In practice (e.g. teaching), what was already noted by J. Giedymin (1964), in addition to answering decision questions (with the particle ‘or’; the so-called closed) also partial and intermediate (indirect) answers were distinguished (to open questions, including narratives), comprising answers to some (unspecified) relation to direct responses, as well as incorrect answers.

Ranges of unknown included in structures of natural language questions (datum quaestionis – which are also schemes of answers to these questions) were widely introduced in the deliberations by A. Brożek (2007). A similar issue was presented, in empirical research, by W. Kojs (1988, 2007) in relation to characteristics of typical structures and functions of questions (including answers) ‘such as: What; What/Which/What kind/What kind of/What sort of; How; Why, etc.? ’ – formulated by teachers in primary education. The issue regarding the properties of pupils’ answers to questions such as ‘why’ has been investigated by E. Kochanowska (2007); and, the so-called pupils’ adequate and inadequate responses, from the teaching point of view, were made the subject-matter of discussion by J. Gabzdyl (2009).

**Research Methodology**

**Research General Background**

The object of the study were teachers’ questions, pupils’ responses and hidden questions ‘extracted’ from these responses as the fact of co-created dialogue situations in the teaching communication process (for understanding and reference to schoolchildren’s thoughts). Therefore, the main aim was to determine the role of hidden questions in pupils’ responses to questions posed by teachers during lessons. The basis for research in this area were the issues covered in questions: What is the structure and functions that meet the questions hidden in the pupils’
answers to their teachers’ questions? What is the relation of: hidden questions posed by pupils ‘themselves’ and questions directed to them by teachers?

**Research Sample**

In the study, 629 teachers’ questions were used, only ‘What?’ along with the associated answers provided by pupils at the primary school-age, where 264 (42.0%) were related to the first grade class, 365 (58.0%) regarded the third grade class. Moreover, hidden questions ‘extracted’ from the pupils’ responses were used in the study, with a total number of 525, out of which 161 (30.7%) were accounted for the first grade classes and 364 (69.3%) for the third grade classes.

A total of 1154 pupils’ utterances were used in the study, including hidden questions, out of which 425 (36.8%) concerned the first grade schoolchildren and 729 (63.2%) the third grade pupils. All the statistical data relate to 60 lessons (30 in each class).

**Instrument and Procedures**

At the stage of: (A) empirical data collection (collecting and registering raw quality data), observation was adopted – the so-called ‘qualitative’ method (Konarzewski, 2000); (B) empirical data development – the qualitative and quantitative analysis by means of descriptive statistics measures was performed.

Observations were carried out from 2012 to 2014 during lessons in grades 1 and 3 of elementary schools. Each observed lesson was conducted by a different teacher; it took about 35–45 minutes, and basically, it was connected with the Polish language education. The applied method of observation allowed for noticing, collection and preservation (in writing) of teaching facts ‘in their natural course’, i.e. in the context of the communication process between the teacher and pupils during lessons (dialogues, monologues of teachers and schoolchildren). At the stage of perception and collection of already listed facts their categorization was not undertaken. It was moved to the stage of their development, which took place in 2015.

As a result of observation, transcripts were prepared, which contain the lessons records (reproduced from tape recorders), which contain all the teachers’ and pupils’ literal utterances (including questions and answers); supplemented by a description of their non-verbal actions (including responses; teaching aids used during classes, etc.); stated in the order of their occurrence, without skipping teachers’ or pupils’ talks, even in the case of their repetitions.
Data Analysis

As units of transcripts analyses, the teachers’ questions were taken into account – their operators (actions) and objects (content types) – ‘such as: What?’ (i.e., questions with the pronoun ‘what’ and their declension forms combined with appropriate prepositions: what, whereof, with which, to what, for what, etc.), together with the pupils’ associated answers. As a categorization tool, seven ranges of answer models to those questions were adopted (cf., Kojs, 1988). The pupils’ remaining (optional) statements (to the teachers’ questions) were analyzed in order to ‘extract’ from them ‘hidden’:

- types of question operators; it was determined that in the framework of data regarding the fragments of the pupil’s responses apart from the extracted (appointed) operators, other types may be pointed out: ‘equivalent’ (particular types of operators – cf., Table 1 and Legend);
- twenty types of content that defines functions of questions; a typology of questions was adopted based on their content, highlighted by S. Racinowski (1967) and W. Kojs (2007); a comprehensive list of questions content (functions) types – cf., Table 1 and Legend.

As part of applied descriptive statistics, all statistical calculations were conducted by means of the statistical package StatSoft Inc. (2014), STATISTICA (data analysis software system) version 12.0 and Excel spreadsheet. Qualitative variables are presented by frequencies and percentages (per cent value). Chi-square tests of independence were used for categorical variables (the Yates correction factor according to the number of cells below 10, the conditions for Cochran’s theorem, Fisher’s exact test). In all calculations, as the level of significance p = 0.05 was set.

Research Results

The study included 629 teachers’ questions with the associated pupils’ answers and hidden questions extracted from those answers, in the number of 525. The percentage of teachers’ questions/pupils’ answers of the third grade class was significantly higher compared to the percentage of teachers’ questions/pupils’ responses of the first grade class (respectively: 365 / 58.0% vs. 264 / 42.0%; p = 0.0001). Similarly, the percentage of ‘hidden’ questions among schoolchildren of the third grade was significantly higher compared to the percentage of ‘hidden’ questions of the first grade pupils (364 / 69.3% vs. 161 / 30.7%; p = 0.0001).
Seeking answers to the research problem concerning the hidden structures of the pupils’ questions operators, a summary was prepared in Table 1. It contains the incidence data of distinguished hidden operators of the pupils’ questions in grades 1 and 3, resulting from the responses to the teachers’ ‘open’, including open ‘narrative’ questions.

Table 1. Types of operators in hidden questions of pupils at the elementary school-age (1st and 3rd grade) extracted from their responses to the teacher’s ‘open’ and ‘narrative’ – ‘such as: What?’ questions

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>No</th>
<th>Types of operators in pupils’ hidden questions</th>
<th>Pupils’ responses to the teacher’s questions ‘such as: What?’</th>
<th>‘open’</th>
<th>‘open: ‘narrative’</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>KI 1</td>
<td>KI 3</td>
<td>Total</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>n</td>
<td>n</td>
<td>%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1.</td>
<td>What?</td>
<td>61</td>
<td>124</td>
<td>185</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>48.8</td>
<td>44.1</td>
<td>45.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.</td>
<td>Who?</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>39</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>9.6</td>
<td>9.6</td>
<td>9.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.</td>
<td>Which / What / What kind / What kind of / What sort of?</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>53</td>
<td>86</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>26.4</td>
<td>18.9</td>
<td>21.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.</td>
<td>How?</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>24</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>2.4</td>
<td>7.5</td>
<td>5.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5.</td>
<td>Why?</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>25</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>4.0</td>
<td>7.1</td>
<td>6.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6.</td>
<td>Where / When?</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>22</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>4.8</td>
<td>5.7</td>
<td>5.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7.</td>
<td>Other types</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>24</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>4.0</td>
<td>6.7</td>
<td>6.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Total</td>
<td>125</td>
<td>280</td>
<td>405</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Legend: Other types: ‘If/Whether?’, ‘Which?’, ‘In what way?’, ‘Where… from / Where?’ and other.
Nos. 1–4 and 6–7 – embrace a group of question operators, i.e. a given type of pronoun and its declension forms combined with appropriate prepositions: 1 – what, for what, etc.; 2 – who, for/to whom, etc.; 3 – what, to what, from what, etc.; 4 – how, how long; 6 – where, when, from when; 7 – which, of which, from which, etc.

The summary of data presented in Table 1 reveals the fact that in the group of pupils’ responses to teachers’ questions, operators of the pupils’ hidden questions...
‘such as: *What?*’ more frequently appeared in the first grade in comparison to the third grade (*p* = 0.0092), whereas operators such as: ‘*How?*’ (*p* = 0.0031) and ‘*Why?*’ (*p* = 0.0238) were more frequent in the third grade classes in comparison to the first grade classes. In the group of answers to narrative questions, no statistically significant dependencies of hidden operator types were verified from the pupils’ responses according to the level of education (grades 1 and 3). In the first grade subgroup, operators of the pupils’ hidden questions ‘such as: *What?*’ were significantly frequent in their replies to open questions as compared to narrative question answers (*p* = 0.0001). Similar value was obtained for operators ‘*What / What type?*’ (*p* = 0.0001). On the other hand, operators: ‘*How?*’ (*p* = 0.0001) and ‘*Where / When?*’ (*p* = 0.0001) were more frequent in their replies to narrative questions as opposed to open questions. In the third grade subgroup, the following ‘hidden’ operators were significantly more frequent in answers to the teacher’s narrative questions in comparison to open question answers – such as: ‘*What?*’ (*p* = 0.0001), ‘*Who?*’ (*p* = 0.0001), ‘*Where / When?*’ (*p* = 0.0001). Moreover, operators such as: ‘*What?*’ (*p* = 0.0001) and ‘*How?*’ (*p* = 0.0001) were more frequent in their replies to open questions than answers to narrative questions.

Seeking answers to the research problem on the content shaping features of the pupils’ hidden questions, the following systematization was prepared in Table 2.

**Table 2.** Types of the content shaping features of pupils’ hidden questions extracted from the answers to teachers’ questions: ‘open’ and ‘narrative’– ‘such as: *What?*’

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Types of the content shaping features of pupils’ hidden questions about…</th>
<th>Pupils’ answers to teachers’ questions ‘such as: <em>What?</em>’</th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>‘open’</td>
<td>‘open’: ‘narrative’</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>‘open’</td>
<td>‘open’: ‘narrative’</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>KL 1 n %</td>
<td>KL 3 n %</td>
<td>Total n %</td>
<td>P-value</td>
<td>KL 1 n %</td>
<td>KL 3 n %</td>
<td>Total n %</td>
<td>P-value</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>the content, the meaning of words / names / the essence of things</td>
<td>15 12.0</td>
<td>43 15.4</td>
<td>58 14.3</td>
<td>0.3730</td>
<td>6 16.7</td>
<td>20 23.8</td>
<td>26 21.7</td>
<td>0.3841</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>belonging / location in time and space</td>
<td>9 7.2</td>
<td>36 12.9</td>
<td>45 11.1</td>
<td>0.0943</td>
<td>6 16.7</td>
<td>13 15.5</td>
<td>19 15.8</td>
<td>0.8700</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>quality, particulars, characteristics</td>
<td>30 24.0</td>
<td>35 12.5</td>
<td>65 16.0</td>
<td>0.0036</td>
<td>5 13.9</td>
<td>7 8.3</td>
<td>12 10.0</td>
<td>0.3526</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>mode of action</td>
<td>4 3.2</td>
<td>13 4.6</td>
<td>17 4.2</td>
<td>0.5036</td>
<td>2 5.6</td>
<td>1 1.2</td>
<td>3 2.5</td>
<td>0.1605</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table 2 contains frequency data regarding the distinguished types of content shaping features in the 1st and 3rd grade pupils’ hidden questions that arise from answers to the teachers’ open and narrative questions. Concerning the pupils’ answers to the teachers’ open questions, the content shaping features of the pupils’ hidden questions about ‘the quality, properties …’ and ‘the subject and object …’ were significantly more frequent in the first grade than in the third grade (respectively: p = 0.0036 and p = 0.0482). In the group of learners’ answers to the teachers’ narrative questions, no statistically significant relationship was confirmed in relation to the content (functions) of the pupils’ hidden questions. In addition, no statistically significant relationship was confirmed in relation to the content (functions) of the first grade and the third grade pupils’ hidden questions with regard to the kind of teacher’s questions (open; narrative).

In seeking answers to the research problem concerning the relationship between the hidden questions formulated by the pupils ‘themselves’ and the questions posed by the teachers, the following summary was prepared in Table 3.
Table 3. Types of content (functions) in hidden questions and teachers’ questions ‘such as: What?’

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Types of questions content (functions) about…</th>
<th>Grade 1</th>
<th></th>
<th>Grade 2</th>
<th></th>
<th>Grade 3</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>U</td>
<td>N</td>
<td>P-value</td>
<td>U</td>
<td>N</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>the existence of things, phenomena, processes, events</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>0.0005</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>25</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>the content, the meaning of words / names / the essence of things</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>58</td>
<td>0.0218</td>
<td>63</td>
<td>154</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>belonging / location in time and space</td>
<td>13.0</td>
<td>22.0</td>
<td>0.7603</td>
<td>49</td>
<td>22</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>quality, particulars, characteristics</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0.0001</td>
<td>42</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>mode of action</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>0.0024</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>subject and object of action</td>
<td>63</td>
<td>83</td>
<td>0.1053</td>
<td>109</td>
<td>69</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>cause</td>
<td>39.1</td>
<td>31.4</td>
<td>0.0692</td>
<td>29.9</td>
<td>18.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>effects, consequences</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>0.2806</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>17</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>other types</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>37</td>
<td>0.1016</td>
<td>58</td>
<td>73</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>161</td>
<td>264</td>
<td>364</td>
<td>365</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Legend: U – pertains to: different types of pupils’ hidden questions; N – teachers’ questions ‘such as: What?’

Table 3 contains data pertaining to the frequency of distinguished content specifying functions for different types of the pupils’ hidden questions and the teachers’ questions such as: ‘What?’ The percentages of content (functions) questions formulated by the teachers were significantly higher in comparison to implied questions of the first grade pupils for the teachers’ content (function) questions: ‘the existence …’ (p = 0.0005), ‘the content, meaning …’ (p = 0.0218) and ‘the method of …’ (p = 0.0024). Whereas, the content (function) ‘of quality properties …’ was significantly higher in percentage in the pupils’ hidden questions (p = 0.0001).
The percentage values of the content (function) of the teachers’ questions were significantly higher in relations to the third grade pupils’ hidden questions for the teachers’ content (function) questions: ‘the existence …’ (p = 0.0001), ‘the content, meaning …’ (p = 0.0001) and ‘for the effects …’ (p = 0.0001). For the following content, higher percentage was determined for the pupils’ hidden questions: ‘the quality, the properties …’ significantly (p = 0.0001), ‘manner of …’ (p = 0.0007), ‘on the subject and object of…’ (p = 0.0005) and ‘the cause’ (p = 0.0001).

**Conclusions**

Various questions and associated answers co-create the teaching-learning process; they constitute its structure and didactic functions. In analysing the pupils’ answers to the teachers’ questions along with the questions hidden in these responses, an important issue was raised - not only for the educational process, but also for an interaction and value of the entire communication - aimed to explain what is going on between the phase of creating and formulating questions (by teachers) as opposed to the phase of understanding and creating responses (by schoolchildren).

Analyses of the pupils’ hidden questions, in the context of questions posed by the teachers (Tables 1–3), allowed for deepening the understanding of the teachers’ didactic activities and their pupils. They account for an attempt to understand and identify values of created didactic processes, as well as to perceive occurring dysfunctions. The disturbance of mandatory balance, by maintaining disparities of certain types of operators and types of question contents (functions), is a clear sign of such a dysfunction.

The results document the upward trend of the pupils’ hidden questions role in relation to the level of education (their number has increased significantly in grade 3). They reveal the pupils’ intellectual potential at the elementary school-age, their capability of independent intellectual work, going ‘beyond the teachers’ questions’-formulating their own questions.

Question operators define the categories of mental activities. Among 525 operators in the pupils’ hidden questions, the domination of the following was noticed: what, who, what, how. To a lesser extent, the following operators occurred: how, why, where / when; the other to a slight extent. In general, the increased role of operators was highlighted along with the increased level of education. The listed categories of operators shape different mental dispositions; therefore, the question of overlapping proportions between them was very important. Determining the
right balance requires separate analyses. Looking at the juxtaposition, in the context of related content (functions) in hidden questions, it can be stated that they are heavily imbalanced.

The value of operators is codetermined by the question content to which they are related. For this reason, an important part of the research results was to determine types of content (functions), which the pupil has to deal with. Among 20 chosen pupils, an imbalance of values occurred – a lack of balance between individual types of functions in hidden questions. The following notions dominated: ‘the content, meaning …’ (especially ‘names’ of activities and their objects), ‘the subject and object …’, ‘the quality of …’, ‘belonging to …’ (mainly ‘location in space’). The insignificant range was included as ‘other’, especially important for the development of the pupils’ brainpower, such as: ‘the origins of …’, ‘target …’, ‘connections’, ‘effects’, ‘assessment of …’, ‘comparison …’. Determination of the observed disparities value in the content (functions) of the pupils’ hidden questions requires further, in-depth analyses – especially in the context of other types of teachers’ questions.

Indeed, despite the fact that the special educational role of the teachers’ analysed questions (only: ‘What?’) involves a kind of ‘universality’, i.e. a possible determination of different types (in the study 20 were assumed) and ranges of responses (open, including narrative) – it is insufficient in the proper education (including assessment, diagnosis) of pupils’ mentality.

The analysis of functions regarding the teacher’s questions, ‘such as, What?’ (Table 3, column N), allowed, however, for revealing disparities that indicate an imbalanced equilibrium in teaching and individual mental features of pupils at the primary school age.

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Questions Hidden in Schoolchildren’s Responses – Structure and Didactic Functions

and commands in the didactic process. *Nauczanie Początkowe* [Primary Education], 1, 4–13.


Perception of the Classroom Climate from the Perspective of Teachers and Pupils

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Abstract
The article deals with the issue of the classroom climate, sets forth its determinants and various approaches to its study. Then it presents selected results of research aimed at finding out differences in classroom climate perception from the perspective of teachers and their pupils at primary school. It also proposes various recommendations for educational practice.

Keywords: classroom environment, classroom atmosphere, classroom climate, classroom climate determinants

Introduction

Classroom climate has an impact on pupils’ learning outcomes, behaviour and other personality indicators. It can be stated that at any time there will be room for its scientific study and experimental changes, mostly in order to improve the pedagogical theory, methodology and practice.

Although classroom climate is as old as school or classroom themselves, the term classroom and school climate is relatively new in the terminology. The issue of classroom climate in the conditions of our country has been dealt with by several authors (Grecmanová, 2008; Hanuliaková, 2010; Kosová, 2000; Petláč, 2006; Zelina, 1996, etc.). Abroad, the issue of studying and creating a positive classroom climate has been dealt with, e.g., in the studies by Burden, Fraser (1993), Ekvall...
Perception of the Classroom Climate from the Perspective of Teachers and Pupils


Many monographs and professional and scientific studies have been published covering the issue, with many papers dealing with classroom and school climate in the general sense. However, there is no exact consensus on how to define the term classroom climate, what parameters to characterize it with, and how to measure the parameters.

We share the opinions of Zelina (1996, p. 155), defining three concepts referring to this issue: classroom (group) setting – expressing ecology of the classroom, its physical and spatial components (e.g., colour, temperature, etc.); classroom (group) atmosphere – expressing social relationships and phenomena of short-term duration, strong situational dependence, and relatively quickly changeable (e.g., the climate may change several times during one lesson); classroom (group) climate – expressing social relationships in a group, which persist for a longer time, are less changeable, exist regardless of concrete social situations, do not change as quickly as group atmosphere.

Similarly, the term classroom climate can be found in Pedagogický slovník (Pedagogical Dictionary) (Průcha, Walterová, Mareš, 1995, p. 98) as a certain social-pathological variable representing long-term socially and emotionally tuned generalized attitudes and relationships, emotional responses of the pupils of a given classroom to the events in the classroom, including the teacher’s educational activities.

Gavora (1999, p. 137) also states that: “classroom climate expresses to what extent the pupil is satisfied in the classroom, whether the pupils understand one another sufficiently, what the extent of competitiveness and rivalry there is among them and what their class cohesiveness is like.”

Every classroom has its own specific climate, usually influenced by the pupils’ number and gender, mutual trust and cooperation in lessons, relationships built between the teacher and the pupils, nature of tasks and activities, teaching methods, but also by the classroom size, overall climate of the school and other factors. They are divided clearly by Zelina (1996), who includes especially the following three important factors to the key factors creating the classroom climate: the teacher (educator), pupils (children), and activity (tasks).

There are several approaches to the classroom climate study to be found in the domestic and foreign literature. We shall mention some that are mentioned most frequently. They may be approaches: aimed at relationships among teachers, then we speak of the staff climate; aimed at school management and organization, the way of school management and concern for people; aimed at the relation-
ship dimension – teacher-pupil relationships, relationships among pupils and parent-school relationships; aimed at a more complex approach – school characteristics, composition, parents’ satisfaction, information and cooperation with the school (Čáp, Mareš, 2001, pp. 585–589).

There are also other approaches to the classroom climate assessment, such as, e.g., by preference (desirable and actual climate), by the school programme, dynamics, specifics, etc. (Mareš, 2003, p. 40).

**Differences in Classroom Climate Perception by Primary School Teachers and Pupils**

**Research Methods**

As mentioned above, classroom climate has an impact on the quality of pupils’ learning outcomes, their behaviour and other personality indicators. That is why we conducted research (Határová, 2013) with the goal of finding out differences in classroom climate perception from the perspective of primary school teachers and pupils.

The research sample was made up of pupils and class teachers of the 3rd and 4th forms of town and village elementary schools in the district of Nitra. The respondents were 12 class teachers (women) and 142 pupils (80 boys and 62 girls).

In order to fulfil the objectives set, we decided to use the standardized classroom climate diagnostic inventory – MCI (My Class Inventory). The authors of the inventory original version are Fraser and Fisher (1986, as cited in: Mareš, Lašek, 1990). The MCI inventory is for pupils of the 3rd to 6th forms of elementary school. It enables quick and easy penetration into various areas of classroom life and events. Its evaluation is easy and results offer possibilities for intervention into the classroom social climate.

The inventory consists of 25 questions helping to assess classroom climate in five dimensions: 1 – Satisfaction in the class – the task is to find out pupils’ relationship to their class, the extent of satisfaction and enjoyment in class; 2 – Friction in the class – finding out the amount of tension, quarrelling, fights in the class, inappropriate social behaviour and general relationship complications; 3 – Competitiveness in the class – finding out efforts of individuals to excel, competitive relationships and how failures are overcome in the class collective; 4 – Difficulty in learning – finding out how pupils perceive educational challenges,
how they overcome them and the extent to which they find difficulty in learning;
5 – Cohesiveness of the class – finding out friendly and unfriendly relationships
among pupils and also the extent of collective cohesiveness.

There are two versions of the MCI inventory: the first one determining the
actual classroom climate and the other one determining the preferred classroom
climate, pupils' wishes in relation to classroom climate. For our research, we chose
the first version – the inventory determining the actual classroom climate.

Research Results and Discussion

We assumed that there was a statistically significant difference in individual
variables of the actual classroom climate between the primary school pupils’
perspective and the primary school teachers' perspective, while assuming that the
teachers perceived the actual classroom climate more positively.

To test the differences in the value of climate indicators between the teachers
and the pupils, first descriptive statistics were calculated for five indicators under
study. The descriptive indicators display differences in mean values of the selected
indicators and serve as primary indicators of the difference between the groups.
The results are presented in Table 1.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Table 1. Descriptive statistics of selected indicators of the classroom climate between the groups of Teachers and Pupils</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>N</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>---</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teachers</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Satisfaction</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Friction</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Competitiveness</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Difficulty</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cohesiveness</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pupils</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Satisfaction</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Friction</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Competitiveness</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Difficulty</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cohesiveness</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Legend: N – number of respondents; M – mean value; SD – standard deviation
Based on the values in Table 1, we can see that there are differences in the level of mean values between the groups of teachers and pupils. The greatest differences can be seen in the quantities of Friction (the teachers have a lower mean value) and Cohesiveness (where the teachers have a higher mean value). At the same time, we can see that there is a higher variability of values in the group of pupils (this is indicated by the standard deviation higher values). No considerable difference was found in the other quantities.

To find out the appropriate test to compare the mean levels of the classroom climate indicators, first the character of the data under study was verified. Table 2 displays the test values for the data normal distribution (two tests were used to verify the correctness – the Shapiro-Wilk and the Kolmogorov-Smirnov tests).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Test</th>
<th>Test value</th>
<th>Test p-value</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Satisfaction</td>
<td>Shapiro-Wilk</td>
<td>0.954305**</td>
<td>0.0001</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Kolmogorov-Smirnov</td>
<td>0.168506**</td>
<td>0.01</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Friction</td>
<td>Shapiro-Wilk</td>
<td>0.961168**</td>
<td>0.0003</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Kolmogorov-Smirnov</td>
<td>0.118748**</td>
<td>0.01</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Competitiveness</td>
<td>Shapiro-Wilk</td>
<td>0.942213**</td>
<td>0.0001</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Kolmogorov-Smirnov</td>
<td>0.144277**</td>
<td>0.01</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Difficulty</td>
<td>Shapiro-Wilk</td>
<td>0.960528**</td>
<td>0.0002</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Kolmogorov-Smirnov</td>
<td>0.139746**</td>
<td>0.01</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cohesiveness</td>
<td>Shapiro-Wilk</td>
<td>0.941006**</td>
<td>0.0001</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Kolmogorov-Smirnov</td>
<td>0.18139**</td>
<td>0.01</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Legend: p – significance; ** – difference between the groups statistically significant at the level of 0.01

Based on the normality test results shown in Table 2, we can state that none of the quantities analysed was of a normal distribution. That was why non-parametric tests were applied to verify the differences between the compared groups. The results of the non-parametric tests are presented in Table 3 (two tests were used to verify the differences – the Kruskal Wallis and the Kolmogorov-Smirnov tests).
Table 3. Tests of differences in the classroom climate indicators between the teachers and the pupils

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>Test</th>
<th>Test value</th>
<th>Test p-value</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Satisfaction</td>
<td>Kruskal-Wallis</td>
<td>0.0901</td>
<td>0.7641</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Kolmogorov-Smirnov</td>
<td>0.589538</td>
<td>0.8778</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Friction</td>
<td>Kruskal-Wallis</td>
<td>10.6209**</td>
<td>0.0011</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Kolmogorov-Smirnov</td>
<td>1.639775**</td>
<td>0.0092</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Competitiveness</td>
<td>Kruskal-Wallis</td>
<td>0.5512</td>
<td>0.4578</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Kolmogorov-Smirnov</td>
<td>1.022907</td>
<td>0.2462</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Difficulty</td>
<td>Kruskal-Wallis</td>
<td>7.1942**</td>
<td>0.0073</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Kolmogorov-Smirnov</td>
<td>1.620253*</td>
<td>0.0105</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cohesiveness</td>
<td>Kruskal-Wallis</td>
<td>4.7133*</td>
<td>0.0299</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Kolmogorov-Smirnov</td>
<td>1.319628</td>
<td>0.0614</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Legend: p – significance; * – difference between the groups statistically significant at the level of 0.05; ** – difference between the groups statistically significant at the level of 0.01

Based on the results in Table 3 we can see that both tests applied returned a statistically significant difference for the Friction and Difficulty variables. The Cohesiveness variable returned a statistically significant difference only in the Kruskal-Wallis test, allowing us to state that there is a certain difference in the mean values, but not as considerable as in the previous variables. The Satisfaction and Competitiveness variables returned no statistically significant differences between the compared groups (teachers-pupils). The variables that returned statistically significant differences showed that the teachers perceived the classroom climate more favourably than the pupils. That is why teachers should make efforts to create a classroom climate not only for them but in particular for their pupils to feel good, relaxed in their classroom and display joy of staying there.

Similar classroom climate research can be found also in Kurelová and Hanželková (1996, as cited in: Průcha, J., 2002), where 3 elementary schools with traditional teaching and 3 elementary schools with alternative teaching were compared. It was found out that the alternative schools scored higher than the standard schools in pupils’ Satisfaction and Cohesiveness in the class and the standard schools scored higher in pupils’ Friction and Competitiveness. There was no difference in Difficulty in learning. Differences between teachers’ and pupils’
opinions were found in the Competitiveness and Cohesiveness variables in the class. Alternative school teachers assessed Competitiveness more positively than pupils. On the other hand, standard school teachers assessed pupils’ Competitiveness more negatively than the pupils themselves. When compared with our research, the values found are contradictory.

Another, more extensive study of the classroom climate was conducted by M. Linková (2000, as cited in: Průcha, J., 2002) in Prague primary schools. The author’s research did not find any more considerable differences between the pupils of both class types, but for the Friction variable showing higher values in standard classes. Our research returned a similar result, with the Friction variable found in each study of the pupils.

Research similar to ours was carried out also by M. Gottvaldová (2011), studying the difference in classroom climate assessment by primary school pupils and their class teacher in the Czech Republic. The research was carried out in three fourth-form classes. Each class was evaluated separately. The respondents in individual classes were designated as the research sample A, research sample B, and research sample C. Research sample “A” showed statistically significant differences in the Satisfaction and Difficulty variables, where the teacher had considerably lower results than the pupils of his class. Similar results in the Difficulty indicator were found also in our research. Thus, it follows from the above that the teachers perceived educational challenges as easier to cope with, unlike the pupils who might find the subject matter difficult. In research sample “B”, statistically significant differences were found in the results of classroom climate measurement in the Cohesiveness, Difficulty and Friction variables, where the teacher scored considerably lower than the pupils. Exactly the same variables were found also in our research, with the difference that the teachers had lower mean values in the Friction and Difficulty indicators compared to the pupils. Next, the author found a statistically significant difference between boys and girls in the Competitiveness variable. In research sample “C”, statistically significant differences were found in climate perception between the teacher and the pupils in the Friction and Competitiveness variables. In our research, a statistically significant difference was found in terms of gender only in the Friction variable, where the girls assessed the classroom climate as “poorer” with the mean value of 10.8387 (p < 0.05) and the boys assessed the variable more favourably as “good” by the value of 9.7375 (p < 0.05). Based on these results we can state that the girls experienced relationships in the class more sensitively and were affected by arguments among their classmates more emotionally than the boys. The difference in the Satisfaction, Competitiveness and Cohesiveness variables was not confirmed.
When assessing the results of our research it should be emphasized that it was single, not repeated research. The present research disregards the fact that during the school year classroom climate may change, e.g., because of a change in the teacher or changes due to pupils’ ontogenetic development (for more details cf. Průcha, J., 2002). The findings cannot be completely generalized or applied to all primary school pupils.

Conclusions

Our research found certain differences between the teachers and their pupils in their classroom climate perception. The pupils found school work challenges high, which was proved by the Difficulty indicator. In addition, the pupils and their teachers were of different opinions on the cohesiveness and friendliness in the class, as well as arguments and differences among the pupils, which was indicated by the Cohesiveness and Friction variables. The pupils viewed those indicators more negatively than their teachers. Based on the results, several recommendations were given to the teachers participating in our research, concerning individual dimensions (cf., Doušková, Wágnerová, 1996) where classroom climate is manifested. Some of them are the following:

1) Dimension of mutual relationships: create the atmosphere of security and safety in the classroom; develop pupils’ communication skills, encourage mutual communication between the teacher and the pupil as well as among pupils; lead pupils to mutual tolerance, cooperation and help, actively participate in the settlement of conflicts in the class; apply activities aimed at supporting pupils’ creativity and productivity, formation of their psycho-social skills (e.g., self-reflection, communication, effective settlement of conflicts, empathy, assertiveness, responsibility, cooperativeness, etc.); provide social-psychological training and developing programmes in school, for pupils or also for their parents, as the case may be, aimed at the development of their emotional and social intelligence, etc.

2) Dimension of individual development: manage lessons so that their entire course motivates pupils; encourage learning out of self-interest, focus on making lessons interesting, educational values, pupils’ experiential sphere; effectively apply possibilities for evoking and maintaining pupils’ positive motivation (e.g., through the so-called input and ongoing motivation methods, activating methods, methods of differentiated teaching, etc.); enable every pupil to experience success at school; develop self-confidence and teach every pupil to set adequately difficult goals and aspirations for him/herself; show confidence in the pupil’s abilities; give
the pupil enough room to express him/herself and to be listened to; publicize even the smallest success and work results of the pupil, whether in the school or out-of-school area; use problem and heuristic learning methods more frequently; in addition to collective forms of teaching at school, use also other group, individual or individualized teaching forms; give pupils room for independent activities and cooperation; pay adequate attention to gifted and talented pupils as well as to poor achievers; make more frequent (shorter in time) walks, as well as thematic, complex or complex inter-subject field trips and an excursion at the end of the school year, with a well-thought-out preparation, organization and use, etc.

3) Dimension of the system: contribute to increasing the involvement of pupils in school matters and their internal motivation; strengthen activities and projects of the class; enable pupils to found and publish a school magazine, to which they could make contributions according to their interests in nature, culture, art, sports or social life; more frequently apply forms of positive appraisal of the pupil that reinforce the pupil’s desirable behaviour more effectively than a negative assessment, criticism, moralizing, punishment, intimidation or ignoring the pupil; acknowledge every, even the smallest progress; actively participate in the settlement of conflicts in the class; in cooperation with other experts carry out regular talks, discussions and debates in groups of pupils, dealing not only with problems in behaviour or learning, but also other difficulties and problems worrying them; strengthen cooperation between family and school not only when there are educational problems with pupils, but mainly to create optimal conditions for maximum possible development of pupils with regard not only to their cognitive, but also social-emotional development; provide help to pupils and their parents in crisis situations by means of professional (psychological, educational, social) counselling, etc.

References
Developing Art Appreciation in Students of Education from Different European Countries

 DOI: 10.15804/tner.2016.45.3.09

Abstract

In the framework of special didactics, students in study programmes in the field of education develop a range of skills and abilities needed for teaching the content prescribed by the curriculum. Art is one of these subjects.

In a qualitative empirical research study we examined the efficacy of a method for developing art appreciation. The sample in the study consisted of students from five different European countries. Students observed J.R. Gera-da’s artistic work systematically, concurrently recording their findings. The empirical study confirmed the adequacy of such an approach, since most of the students were able to experience, internalise and individually interpret the artwork.

Keywords: art appreciation, higher education, study programmes in education, experiencing visual artwork

Introduction

Modern higher education art pedagogy is based on developing students’ productive artistic abilities-creative skills – and their receptive abilities. The latter includes art appreciation, where students are introduced to the acts of perceiving and receiving, thus evaluating and internalising works of art. “The development of artistic design, sensitivity to artistic language and the aesthetic experience in the process of expression, obtaining technical experiences, work with different mate-
Developing Art Appreciation in Students of Education from Different European Countries

Art appreciation, thus, deals with emotions and feelings about art at the affective and cognitive levels, while including the knowledge and understanding of the latter (Seabolt, 2001). One’s own perceptions are also linked to associations that in art classes are manifested as a self-understood way of thinking, primarily because “as a component of creative visual art activity they refer immediately to the subject visual art and to its receptive, productive, and reflective treatment” (Seumel, 2001, 8). Today we know that art appreciation abilities are equally present in students as are all their other abilities. This means that all normally developed students have these abilities, and that they can be cultivated with adequate education (Duh & Korošec-Bowen, 2014). In addition, we know that appreciative abilities are better developed in older students.

Students can respond to one and the same work of art in three ways: (1) response at the emotional level (in viewers, an emotional response is aroused by the work of art); (2) response at the associative level (it is linked to associations that emerge in observers after a formal analysis and interpretation of an artwork); (3) response at the formal intellectual level (refers to responses one has after a formal analysis and interpretation of an artwork). The three types of responses vary and change, because they depend on the on-looker and the work of art. In other words, “art appreciation is highly idiosyncratic and seems to be in the eye of the beholder” (Leder et al., 2012). Observing and reception of artwork, and thus the development of art appreciation, go through distinct phases that authors interpret in different ways. A group of authors (Anderson 1988; Clark 1960; Feldman 1987; and Mahon Jones 1986 – as summarised in Arts Education 1996) describe seven steps or phases: (1) preparation for viewing; (2) first impression; (3) description; (4) analysis; (5) interpretation; (6) background information; (7) informed judgement. These seven steps form the basis for the design and performance of our study.

Research Methodology

The Purpose, Goal and Research Questions:

The purpose of the empirical research was to verify the efficacy of methods for representing a visual artwork to students in educational study programmes from different European countries. The goal of the empirical research was to find a method for evaluating artworks that will pass from the perception of the work of art to its reception and internalisation, and therefore to find an efficacious way
of developing art appreciation. In the empirical study, we posed several research questions. General descriptive questions:

- How will the students get acquainted with and experience the presented artwork?
- Will the students’ first impression of the artwork be positive?
- Will the students accept the presented artwork, once they have become more familiar with it?
- Will the students learn how to observe a work of art, perceive it, accept and internalise it, and also to verbalise their feelings?
- The specific explicative research question was as follows (ExRQ):

  We are primarily interested in the change between the first impression and the final opinion of a work of art.

We applied case study methodology in the qualitative empirical research, of which an interpretive paradigm is characteristic.

**Research Sample**

The relevant purposive sample for the empirical research consisted of 37 students in educational study programmes (preschool education, elementary education, and pedagogy) from five European countries (Bulgaria, Belgium, Spain, the Netherlands, and Germany), who participated in the International week on STEAM (Science, Technology, Engineering, Arts and Mathematics), which was co-organized by the AP University College Antwerp (Belgium) and Stenden University of Applied Sciences (the Netherlands). The study was performed at the Stadelijke Academie voor Schone Kunsten in the town of Lier near Antwerp. Four (10.8 %) male and 33 female (89.2 %) second- and third-year students in Bachelor’s degree programmes took part in the study. A purposive sample was selected, since the informedness of individuals included in the education process about this topic was in the forefront. The study was carried out in November 2015.

**Research Instruments**

The research instruments consisted of the presentation programme (Microsoft PowerPoint) and the observation protocol (an A4 sheet with personal data, instructions and support points for the record). The presentation programme comprises 69 slides with photographs of Jorge Rodriguez Gerada's artwork, with basic information about the artist and his work. Screen images follow each other in a time sequence of 3 seconds. Presentation of slides with written information
is longer, to give the study participants a chance to read the information provided. After stages 2, 3, 4, 5 and 7, the participants are given enough time to enter their thoughts into the observation protocols.

Figure 1. Jorge Rodriguez Gerada creating a drawing on the façade of the building of the Šiška municipal offices. The photographs were taken on 13 October, 2009.

Course of the Research

The ideographic approach was applied in the research, where the development of individual elements of the situation was monitored. The research was carried out in seven stages, during which the students were systematically provided with in-depth information about the artist, J.R. Gerada, and his work, and got a deeper insight into his artistic production. As an independent technique of data gathering, analysis of documents, which is non-intrusive and non-reactive, was selected for the research. The documents consist of written materials (an observation sheet), which the students filled in during the individual phases of the research.

1. Preparation: In the phase of preparation for watching the artwork, the students were acquainted with basic information about the course of observing a work of art, the observational protocols were distributed, and it was pointed out that observation is a process of exploration.

2. First impression: The students had systematically received information about Jorge Rodriguez Gerada’s artistic work. They were told that they would see a work of art that had been created on the façade of the building of the Šiška municipal offices in Ljubljana in October 2009. The watching of a short film (6.55 minutes) showing the artist at work was preceded by the
instruction: “Observe the artwork well.” After that, at 3-second intervals, 9 screen images followed, with photographs taken on 13 October, 2009. On the last slide in this section, the students were informed that on the wall of the building of the Šiška municipal offices the internationally acknowledged American artist of Spanish descent, Jorge Rodriguez Gerada, drew a charcoal portrait (nearly 16 metre tall) of Tina – a native of Ljubljana. Then the students were asked to briefly write down their first impressions of the work of art.

3. Description: When all the students had finished their written responses, the process of exploring and thorough observation of the work of art continued. 7 screen images of 12 photos taken on 21 November, 2009 were shown to the students. They learnt that Rodriguez Gerada is known for drawing portraits of anonymous townspeople on the walls of buildings in world metropolises, as he believes that it is people who create the soul of cities. In the last screen image, the date 3 February, 2010 appears next to the photo of the portrait on the wall of the building of the Šiška municipal offices, along with an invitation to the students to write a short description of the work of art.

Figure 2. J.R. Gerada’s drawing (A and B taken on 21 November, 2009, C taken on 3 February, 2010).

4. Analysis: The first screen image in this part pointed out that the shots had been taken over an extended period of time and the students were asked whether they noticed anything. Eight screenshots with photographs of the
Developing Art Appreciation in Students of Education from Different European Countries

artwork taken on 3 February, 2010 and 5 screenshots with 7 photos taken on 8 September, 2010 followed. The inscription next to the portrait on the last slide stated that the artist had decided before coming to Ljubljana that this time he would draw a woman of 20 to 30 years old, one living in Ljubljana. An invitation to students followed to attempt an analysis of the work of art.

5. Interpretation: The exploration process continued, and the students became acquainted with even more facts; first a few more recent photos of the artwork were shown. 4 screen images followed, with 2 photos of the work of art taken on 16 December, 2011, 2 photos taken on 1 February and 7 on March 14, 2012, two photos taken on 24 July, 2012, and 2 photos taken on 21 October, 2015. The last screenshot informed the students that the portrait was 16 metre tall and over seven metre wide. They learned that it had taken more than five days for the artist to finish the portrait and that he had used about 300 pieces of charcoal. With the question “What do you think this work of art speaks about?” the students were asked to interpret the artwork.

Figure 3. J.R. Gerada’s drawing over time (A taken on 21 November, 2009; B taken on 24 July, 2012; and D taken on 21 October, 2015).

6. Background information: The students were provided with more information. They learned that Gerada’s project had at least two connotations that were worth mentioning: (1) the artistic quality of the production and (2) the use of charcoal as the drawing material. Since charcoal is in itself impermanent, over the course of time it will be washed from the
façade. Thus, the artwork will change until it disappears completely. In this idea, the aspect of ecological awareness can be recognised. In next 8 screen images, the students were presented with photographs of the artist’s project The Urban Analogies (Spain, 2002) and two short films (24 and 58 seconds) and a longer film (7.30 minutes) about the creation of the 2004 project Identity (Maria), which provides an excellent survey of the artist’s artistic creed.

7. Instructive opinion: Writing the final opinion followed. The students were invited to briefly record their opinion of the work of art. At this point, some additional support points were provided for the students’ assistance.

For the interpretation, we analysed the students’ written responses and established the message of these texts from the author’s perspective, using the framework of objective hermeneutics. In the study we tested all four criteria for determining the quality of documents such as authenticity, knowledge about the emergence of the document, the message and comprehensibility, and found that our written materials fulfilled all the requirements. In the qualitative research, we followed ethical standards in all respects: voluntary participation in the study, information about the research study, protection of the identity of the individual, confidentiality, privacy and respect for the truth.

**Research Results and Interpretation**

By carefully observing and experiencing the artwork in individual phases of viewing the work and of systematic acquisition of information about it, all the study participants recorded their feelings in their observation protocols. They recorded their feelings and findings after the 2nd, 3rd, 4th, 5th, and 7th phases of the presentation. As expected, none of the students included in the study had previously seen the artist’s work; they were all encountering it for the first time.

Below, we will first analyse the impressions of one particular student (student A, a female student of Preschool Education from Belgium, in the 2nd year of a Bachelor’s degree programme), who after watching the short video and the first set of screen images, recorded her first impression as follows:

(2) It takes a lot of time to draw this picture. You have to see it close, but also far off everything is perfect. You can see every detail of the picture (shadow). You can see any percent. Because it’s so big you have to be very careful not to make a mistake. The full side of the drawing.
Student A’s first impression was rather superficial. She limited herself to an analysis of the technological features and observed that the production of such a drawing required a lot of time. She did not recognise any deeper meaning in the portrait. Moreover, in her first impression the creative and communicative layers of the work were relegated to the background. After watching the next set of screen images, student A wrote:

(3) *The details of the sketch are very beautiful. Also the message behind the sketch is very beautiful “The people make the city”. The sketch is so real it looks like a photo. That is amazing.*

Analysing this piece of text, we see that, in this phase of observing the artwork, the student dealt with the quality of the drawing and with the projection of the social situation in the artwork, thus with the sociological layer of the artwork. When she wrote: “*The people make the city*”, she reinterpreted and simplified the artist’s statement about people being the ones who create the soul of cities. She did not recognise the creative and communicative layers of the work. Student A wrote the following analysis of the artwork:

(4) *The sketch is so big and it’s so cool that he can draw so many details in a sketch of this size. The way to draw this sketch is only with lines and a thing to draw. So many details with one thing and one line, is very curvy. I like it a lot.*

We can see that, despite new information about the artwork, student A still focused her attention on the starting point of the artist’s work. The response gradually passed from formally intellectual to more emotional, as the student recorded that she liked the work. In this section, photos were presented that had been taken over an extended period of time. We can classify the student’s observation as superficial, since she failed to notice the differences that had emerged in the appearance of the portrait as time passed.

(5) *If you don’t take care of it, then it will go. That’s also what happens with the city, if the people don’t take care of the city, it will go. As the artist says: “The people make the city”, that’s his message behind his artwork.*

The present interpretation indicates a slightly stronger focus on the communicative layer of the artwork. The student related the associations derived from the noticeable fading of the drawing with disappearance, with transience. The student was also
able to link the artwork to the thoughts of the author, and again reacted more at the intellectual level. It seems that she was still mentally occupied with the sociological layer of the artwork because she advanced a thesis about the transience of people and places. After this student A wrote her final opinion in the following way:

(7) My first thought was: “you spend so much time at you artwork, but it will go away after time, why would you do that? “But now we see the whole, now I understand his message and it is beautiful. I love the way he makes it; he draws something so special that gives the places that are a little bit abandoned a special look. Also the message “the people make the city” is very nice to see. I want it too in Belgium.

We can deduce from student A's final opinion that gradual observation and delving more deeply into the artwork led to complete reception of the work of art. From the remarks in the student's observation protocol, we can infer (ExRQ) that the systematic acquisition of information about the artist and the artwork guided her from marginality to the core. The student's explanation expressed in the final opinion differs quite considerably from her first impression. She changed from an initial passivity without recognising the deeper meaning of the drawing to an awareness that even the simplest drawing can have a deeper message, which in this case is wonderful. The student's initial response was of a more formally intellectual nature, while later it becomes somewhat more emotionally coloured, with a strongly expressed social note. The experience, memory and associations aroused in the student while observing the artwork, which can be read in her written remarks, created in her the wish to have a similar project in Belgium. We find that student A learnt to observe a work of art and to perceive, accept and internalise it. She was also able to verbalise her feelings.

Based on the recorded texts, we will follow the opinion of yet another student (student B, a male student of Preschool Education from Spain, in the 3rd year of a Bachelor's degree programme). Due to space restrictions, only the first (2) and the last (7) descriptions in his protocol will be shown:

(2) Art is about expression. My first impression is related to raising the voice of the artist (or someone) to complain about one situation or to celebrate a kind of action to save an issue. It is a beautiful woman and a nice drawing.

(7) I, actually, really like the artwork and my opinion has changed a little bit. He wants to tell stories about unknown people. His artwork is like life and relationships, everything finally ends or disappears, that's the “golden rule” of living.
Based on student B’s responses, we can answer the questions (ExRQ). While observing the artwork and with the assistance of gradual acquisition of information, the student progressed from superficial perception of the portrait to its essence. The original responses, which primarily started with the beauty of the depicted portrait, passed to the essence the student identified as vanishing, transience. In view of the ExRQ we can say that the change can be perceived, and in a positive direction. The originally extremely emotional responses gradually became responses at the associative level. Each opinion about and explanation of a work of art is always personal and dependent on the person’s own associations and experience. Via associative memory, the student identified visual information in an idiosyncratic way. We can conclude that the student observed, perceived, accepted and internalised the artwork. Through the verbalisation of his feelings, he also presented his view of the world.

We detected similar changes in the responses of other students, irrespective of the country of their origin. From the final opinions of the majority of them, it is clear that the artwork convinced them that they were able to experience it and that they established a positive attitude toward it.

**Conclusions**

This study has established that the gradual acquisition of data about the artwork heightened the students’ motivation. All the students achieved – each of them via their own acceptance and associations – individual acceptance and internalisation of the artwork. The students also knew how to put into writing their established positive attitudes toward the artwork. Stout points out that artistic writing is one of the most powerful ways of strengthening critical responses to art and developing personal abilities in art education. Writing is an important link between language and visual images (Stout, 1993). Results similar to the ones in this study were also obtained in research involving secondary school students and using similar instruments (Duh, 2014). In that study, too, the students accepted the visual artwork to which they were exposed and could verbalise their feelings appropriately.

In our study we started from the premise that developing art appreciation is based on the cultivation of as subtle a perception of an artwork as possible. “A percept is the product of a perceived image on the one hand and of the imaginary world of the observer on the other hand,” says Bering (2001, 43). So, not only what the student sees, but also primarily what is associated with it, is important in observing an artwork. Students’ attention, therefore, needs to be oriented towards
the concrete elements and structures of a work of art. Some layers of a work of art can more readily be brought closer to students, some with more difficulty, some sooner and others later, but certainly not all at once. In this respect, students’ age and experience in the field of visual arts must also be taken into account. Art appreciation can help to clarify the problem of valuing a work of art as either positive or negative, depending on the perceptive and receptive abilities of the student. This requires practice and initiative and helps to develop the ability to describe what is seen, using the most appropriate words (Barrett, 2007).

The purpose of our empirical research study was the verification of the effectiveness of the presentation of a work of art to students. We wished to find a way of evaluating works of art that would pass from the perception of art to its reception and internalisation, and thus to find a successful method of cultivating art appreciation. The way of presenting the artwork that was examined in our empirical study proved to be appropriate because the vast majority of the students reached the purpose and recorded a positive response.

References


Photographs and films displayed: Portraits of Tina: videos and photographs - photo archive of the author.
Early Foreign Language Learning from the Children’s Perspective

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Abstract
Many European children begin to learn a (foreign) language at a very early age, and early foreign language learning has thus evolved into a paradigm that seems to have settled as a steady companion of everyday school life. The aim of this contribution, which addresses the topic of early foreign language learning from the participant’s, i.e. the student’s, point-of-view, is to determine students’ reasons for learning a foreign language, as articulated by the students themselves. The research analysis will investigate the motivational aspects that influence learning, and will also illustrate and interpret the research results of a study in which approx. 300 students aged 6–10 years from 9 different countries participated. The analysis will not be country specific, but will highlight common motivational features that recur in all the students’ replies and reveal – as expected – not a linguistic, but a decisively pragmatic focus in the process of language learning.

Keywords: foreign language learning, children, internal motivation, external motivation

Introduction
Recent discussions regarding education policies and foreign language didactics held in various European countries have come under the influence of globalization, rapid media development and the EU’s responsibility to foster a successful
language and education policy that promotes multilingualism (the formula M + 2, i.e. mother tongue + two additional languages) (European Commission, 1995; Guide for the Development of Language Policies in Europe, 2007). These influences also find expression in a common topic: early language learning. Within pedagogic discourse, this subject is highly complex and sensitive, since it is mutually influenced by a range of factors: the learning and teaching processes, individual countries’ concepts of (foreign) language learning and, of course, by the learners, i.e. children, themselves.

The aim of this contribution, which addresses the topic of early foreign language learning from the participant’s, i.e. the student’s, point-of-view, is to determine the reasons for learning a foreign language, especially English and German, as articulated by the students themselves. The research analysis will investigate the motivational aspects that influence learning, and will also illustrate and interpret the research results of a study in which 309 male and female students participated – aged 6–10 years from 9 different countries. The study intentionally sampled male and female students whose mother tongue, i.e. first language (Bulgarian, Croatian, Polish, Slovene, Serbian, Czech, Turkish, Lithuanian or Hungarian), does not belong to the group of foreign languages most commonly taught in Europe. Even though the study participants originate from different countries and even though the reasons for learning a (foreign) language are heavily influenced by both parents and classroom practices, the results reveal similar tendencies.

**Early Language Learning**

One can state that early language learning is well established in regard to theory, research and ongoing discussion. There are multiple projects, project reports, scientific papers, professional articles, monographs and other documents that thoroughly research and discuss early language learning. Most of these are written in English and address the learning of English at an early age, but their findings can also be transferred to other languages. Noteworthy sources are, e.g., the following: the journals *Early Language Learning* and *Frühes Deutsch* (transl. *Early German*), the FMKS Association (*Verein für Frühe Mehrsprachigkeit an Kitas und Schulen*; transl. *Association for Early Multilingualism in Day Nurseries and Schools*), two major international projects—*ELLiE* (2007–2011) (http://www.ellieresearch.eu/) and *CLIL-LOT-E-START* (2008–2011) (http://clil-lote-start.ecml.at/) – as well as a multilingual portal, the *Piccolingo Campaign* (http://piccolingo.europa.eu), which was established in 2010 within the framework of the P.A.U. Education project.
Early foreign language learning is already noticeable in practice, i.e., in the Europe-wide implementation of one or even two foreign languages in primary education (cf., European Union, 2012). As noted in Key Data on Teaching Languages at School in Europe, 2012, in some countries the first foreign language is introduced at a very early age: e.g., in Belgium at the age of 3, in Cyprus and Malta at the age of 5, and in many other countries like Italy, Croatia, Poland, France, Hungary, etc. between the ages of 6 and 9 (cf., European Union, 2012). On the level of language policy, policymaking and teacher education, i.e., on the macro-level, early foreign language learning is uncontentious. The situation on the micro-level, where early foreign language learning occurs, is, however, more complex, since it is more (or less) strongly affected by additional (arguable) influences: e.g., the choice of (foreign) language, didactic approaches, learning and teaching traditions, etc. There are also many other factors, which are as diverse as the individual countries and their respective education systems. Even the prevailing aspects favored by certain countries and their underlying debates differ in intensity. Hence, the study of early foreign language learning remains an important and complex field of research.

The didactics of early foreign language learning is committed to fostering, expanding and optimizing the didactic repertoire, as well as to rejuvenating old didactic approaches with newer, more effective and up-to-date methods (cf., Ellis, 2008; Enver, 2011; Hedge, 2011; František, Pišová, 2013; Bausch, Christ, 2016). Although the current didactic repertoire is governed by methodological eclecticism, Chighini and Kirsch offer a clearer view of how children learn. The authors contend that there are three paths to learning (foreign) languages: narration, immersion and play (cf., Chighini and Kirsch, 2009, pp. 30–42). It is clear that these pathways are child appropriate, and that they utilize children's inherent potential: their joy for learning, natural inquisitiveness, ease of mimicry, expressiveness, zest for action, creative enthusiasm, openness, positive emotiveness and love of movement.

**Early Foreign Language Learning and Motivation**

Motivation is a factor which greatly influences all forms of learning. According to Mihaljević Djigunović (2012), children's motivation is a “fluid variable”; however, open discussions of this variable lead to important and didactically relevant insights.

In pedagogical discourse, motivation is divided into intrinsic and extrinsic motivation. These are two constructs that are difficult to separate, yet are pivotal for the theoretical framework. Intrinsic motivation is mankind's continuous inner
impulse to learn (Oldfather, McLaughin, 1993, p. 3), which strongly influences a human being’s social and cognitive development. Extrinsic motivation is, on the other hand, defined by external factors, which might be self-serving, practical, relevant, wanted or even unwanted. Additionally, motivation can be categorized into instrumental and integrative motivation, too (cf., Gardner, 2001; Gardner, Lambert, 1985; Gardner, Tremblay, 1994). This contrast is another attempt to reduce motivation, which is a complex phenomenon in its own right, into merely two constructs. Consequently, instrumental motivation represents pragmatic, i.e., utilitarian, reasons for learning, whereas integrative motivation reflects an individual’s personal interest in learning in order to integrate themselves into society more efficiently.

These two classifications are combinable. Hence, we differentiate between intrinsic instrumental, extrinsic integrative, intrinsic integrative and extrinsic instrumental motivation for learning.

Since the underlying theory of motivation, especially concerning instrumental and integrative motivation, was predominantly defined in the framework of adult learners, the empirical part of this contribution attempts to differentiate only between intrinsic and extrinsic motivational aspects of foreign language learning.

**Empirical Research**

**Research Questions**

This contribution sheds light on the reasons given by the participants in the empirical study, i.e., the students, for learning a foreign language, including German, at an early age. The study was inspired by a four-decade old assumption that children are not interested in languages, but in what they can achieve through languages (Halliday, 1973).

The research questions that guided this study were as follows:

- Which foreign languages are the study participants learning? How prominent are English and German?
- Why are the study participants learning foreign languages? Can the participants’ replies be conceptualized and divided into certain categories?

**Research Method and Sample**

The empirical part was carried out according to the descriptive method. The research sample was non-random (purpose) and consisted of 309 students aged
6–10 years from 9 different countries: Bulgaria, Croatia, Poland, Slovenia, Serbia, Lithuania, the Czech Republic, Turkey and Hungary. These countries had been intentionally chosen, since the students’ mother tongue, i.e., their first language, does not belong to the group of foreign languages that are most commonly taught in Europe, e.g., English, French, Spanish and German. The replies of English, German, French and Spanish students would be – considering the differences in language status, the speakers’ attitude towards other languages, prevalent concepts in language policy and also in regard to the prestige of certain languages – very interesting and most likely different in comparison to these results; however, such research remains (for now) a topic for future study.

It needs to be stressed that the data was gathered in the countries that differ greatly regarding their language policy, teaching and learning traditions. However, the data gathered will not be analyzed in a country-specific manner, since the research sample in the individual countries is too small for that purpose.

Data Collection Procedure

The data was collected in the aforementioned 9 countries and at the schools where the participants (the students and the teachers who were organizationally involved) were willing to participate in the study. The contact in the respective country chose a teacher and a class with students aged 6–10 years. It was required that the students be learning foreign languages and that they be serious about filling in the questionnaire.

A high response rate of inadequately completed questionnaires was taken into account, since children of this age group are not always able to explain their reasoning, and since they have only limited and developmentally varying metacognitive abilities. They are also unable to reply to questions asked in a foreign language, which is why the contacts translated the questionnaires into their native tongues: Bulgarian, Croatian, Lithuanian, Polish, Serbian, Slovene, Czech, Turkish and Hungarian. The contact then translated the children’s responses from their native tongue into English.

Measurement Instrument

The study was carried out by means of a questionnaire, which was – regarding the form and number of questions – adapted to the age and perspective of the participants. The questionnaire consisted of two closed-ended questions, a semi-open-ended and an open-ended question with three sub-questions. The measure-
ment instrument was designed according to the measuring characteristics and (especially) according to the participants, i.e., children aged 6–10 years.

**Data Processing Procedure**

The research results will be presented in the form of tables and discussion. The former expresses frequencies in absolute numbers (f) and percentage (f %), whereas the latter ranks and interprets the study results. The gathered replies form—from a quantitative and topical point of view—a very broad spectrum, which is why individual categories with similar replies were derived.

**Data Analysis and Interpretation**

**Participating Children and Their Foreign Languages**

Table 1. Frequency (f) of participating male and female students from 9 countries concerning foreign language learning

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Countries</th>
<th>No. of participants</th>
<th>Male</th>
<th>Female</th>
<th>Age (average)</th>
<th>Learners of English</th>
<th>Learners of German</th>
<th>Other*</th>
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<tbody>
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<td>Bulgaria</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>19</td>
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<td>German</td>
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<td>20</td>
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<td>Poland</td>
<td>31</td>
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<td>8</td>
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<td>31</td>
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<td>17</td>
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<td>31</td>
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<td>Countries</td>
<td>No. of participants</td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>Age (average)</td>
<td>Learners of English</td>
<td>Learners of German</td>
<td>Learners of English and German</td>
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<td>16</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>8.1 years</td>
<td>English 2</td>
<td>German 16</td>
<td>Eng. + Ger. 18</td>
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<td>9.7 years</td>
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<td>German 0</td>
<td>Eng. + Ger. 5</td>
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<td>19</td>
<td>8.5 years</td>
<td>English 0</td>
<td>German 0</td>
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<td>Lithuania</td>
<td>39</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>7.9 years</td>
<td>English 12</td>
<td>German 16</td>
<td>Eng. + Ger. 6</td>
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<td>Hungary</td>
<td>36</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>9.3 years</td>
<td>English 0</td>
<td>German 30</td>
<td>Eng. + Ger. 3</td>
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<td>Total</td>
<td>309</td>
<td>145</td>
<td>164</td>
<td>8.8 years</td>
<td>English 143 (46.3 %)</td>
<td>German 62 (20.0 %)</td>
<td>Eng. + Ger. 76 (24.6 %)</td>
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<td>(100.0 %)</td>
<td>(46.9 %)</td>
<td>(53.1 %)</td>
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</tbody>
</table>

Other*: The category “Other” includes participants who are learning a language combination other than English, German or English and German.

As evident from the table, there are 309 participants, 46.9 % male and 53.0 % female, taking part in the study, with an average age of 8.8 years. The comparable figures regarding gender are purely incidental, and even though this factor is an interesting variable in foreign language studies, it will not be investigated further in this study. The table also illustrates the exact figures for the participants from
individual countries—their numbers amount to approx. 30–40 students per country. The languages and figures listed under the different countries depend on the school (public or private) where the study was carried out, on the countries’ language policy (first English, then German – if at all – or both languages), etc. A country-specific analysis would be interesting; however, it would require a more differentiated research sample and a different research focus.

The table reveals the following regarding the initial question of which foreign languages the study participants are learning and the prominence of English and German: All the participants are learning foreign languages; most of them are learning English (46.3%), 20.0% are learning German, 24.6% are learning two languages, i.e., English and German or German and English, and 9.1% of the participants are learning a language combination consisting of two or more foreign languages other than English, German or English and German. These other foreign languages, which usually occur in isolation – but which nonetheless influence the participants’ language profile – are numerous and interesting. A few examples (as stated by the participants) are: “Brazilian” (the expression was copied from the filled-in questionnaire), Chinese, French, Italian, Japanese, Croatian, Latin, Polish, Portuguese, Russian, Slovakian, Slovene, Spanish, Turkish and Vietnamese. The spectrum of foreign languages being learned by the participants is broad, but the most dominant language is English, followed by German.

**Reasons for Foreign Language Learning**

The participants were asked to complete the sentence “I am learning English/German because …” in the questionnaire. The replies were categorized.

**Table 2. Ranking and categorization**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Rank</th>
<th>Categories</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td><strong>Motivation</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td><strong>Internal</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>FOREIGN LANGUAGE:</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(1) English is seen as an important and essential global language.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(2) German is seen as a geographically important language.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>COMMUNICATION:</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(1) … which is understood as interaction between people of the world.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(2) … which is understood as interaction for a certain (work-related) purpose.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>LANGUAGE which is deemed pleasing, interesting or beautiful.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td><strong>External</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>INSTITUTION which facilitates foreign language learning.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>AUTHORITIES which demand foreign language learning.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>MEDIA which influence the everyday lives of the participating children.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The individual categories were divided into two major categories: external and internal motivation. Replies which cited external factors (my mother, the schedule, English as lingua franca, etc.) as the reasons for learning foreign languages were allotted to external motivation. Replies which relate to the participants or are considered personal (I want to communicate with many people, I want to travel, I like the language, the language is important for my future, etc.) were, on the other hand, allotted to internal motivation.

The categories were then ranked according to the occurrence rate: from high- to low-frequency categories. The table shows that the “internal” categories are the most important ones, whereas the “external” categories rank second; after all, “internal” categories comprise two-thirds of all the replies, while “external” categories make up the remaining third.

The replies reveal that the most important reason for foreign language learning is the foreign language itself. Numerous statements emphasize that foreign languages are considered important, essential, decisive and profitable for both the present and the future. Replies that stress foreign languages as means of communication and interaction rank second, whereas replies that emphasize foreign language learning because the learners like the language and deem it beautiful come in third. The latter category applies to English – as expected – more often than to German.

Moving on to external categories, the most dominant of these refer to the Institution. Foreign language learning is thus predominantly connected to an institution that offers or demands foreign language learning. The category of Institution is followed by Authorities (parents, siblings, grandparents and friends) who initiate foreign language learning. At the end of the table and at a much lower frequency rate than the previous two categories is the category Media (computer games, movies and music). These findings are a surprise, since the media were expected to have a greater impact on foreign language learning; this assumption was, however, rejected by the data obtained.

The most important findings of the study are, however, neither the rankings, nor the categories, nor the identified foci, but the contents of the categories themselves. The following table (Table 3), thus, illustrates each category with three selected sample statements.

The question “Why are the study participants learning foreign languages?” cannot receive a conclusive answer, since the participants gave a broad range of replies. These cover a range of aspects, and some even combine multiple ones, which is why some statements had to be addressed under two or more categories.
Table 3. Categories along with the participants’ word-for-word statements

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Category</th>
<th>Example statements:</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>
| FOREIGN LANGUAGE:  
1) English is seen as an important and essential global language. | - … it is spoken/understood everywhere around the world.  
- … it is an important/useful/popular language.  
- … it is an international language. |
| 2) German is seen as a geographically important language. | - … German is spoken in Germany/Austria/Switzerland.  
- … nowadays one needs to speak more than one language (more than just English).  
- … it is a necessity. |
| COMMUNICATION:  
1) … which is understood as interaction between people in the world. | - … when I travel with my parents, I can talk about things all by myself.  
- … when I travel abroad, I can talk to other people. |
| 2) … which is understood as interaction for a certain (work-related) purpose. | - … I will work in England/Austria/Germany.  
- … English/German will be important for my future. |
| LANGUAGE which is deemed pleasing, interesting, beautiful. | - … I like this language (a lot).  
- … it is fun/interesting.  
- … it is a very beautiful language. |
| INSTITUTION that facilitates the learning of English. | - … I have it on my schedule.  
- … my whole class is learning it.  
- … it is one of my school subjects. |
| AUTHORITIES that demand the learning of English. | - … my father wants me to.  
- … my mother said so.  
- … I was registered. |
| MEDIA that influence the everyday lives of the participating children. | - … I play computer games.  
- … I like Disney movies.  
- … so I can watch English movies. |

Nevertheless, in summary it can be said that: (1) The participants view foreign languages (mostly English rather than German) as a universal means of communication and interaction; (2) Many participants like foreign languages; (3) Foreign languages are being learned for system-related (institutional) reasons; (4) Learning foreign languages is often a matter of authorities; (5) Foreign language learning is (also) influenced by media.
Conclusion

In the theoretical section, early foreign language learning was presented as an important paradigm. Even though its macro-level offers interesting insights for research analysis and language policy, this paradigm is most influential at the micro-level of pedagogical discourse. The implementation of early foreign language learning is rarely discussed; however, the way its aims are implemented in practice – in all its complexity – remains an open, flexible and dynamic field.

The focus of this contribution was directed at early foreign language learning, but this focus was approached from the perspective of the study participants, i.e., children who come from 9 different countries and are learning foreign languages at an early age. The data was statistically processed, analyzed and interpreted in order to enrich this particular research field from their perspective as well. However, this was carried out despite the doubts that the children’s statements about early foreign language learning could be (at this age) arguable, easily influenced by their environment and adults. It is worth mentioning that the gathered data—despite the differing countries of origin – was so similar that the students’ statements were virtually interchangeable.

Irrespective of their home country, all the participants are learning a foreign language – mostly English followed by German – and many of them are already learning two, generally English and German. There are also some children who at this age are learning three or four languages. From the theoretical and the researcher’s point-of-view, one can say that they are making use of the natural potential offered by this particular age.

The children’s replies, which were investigated in order to determine the reasons behind and motivational aspects of early foreign language learning, are inclined towards internal motivation. These statements support learning according to the participants’ point-of-view and personal reasoning, even though some quite obviously feature influences from “significant others” (I have to speak other languages and First I have to learn German, then I can learn English, etc.). The most dominant reasons for learning foreign languages are those which stress the omnipresence of English and emphasize the importance of German. The second group of reasons stems from the simple fact that English is a language which children like. This argument applies to German and other languages as well, although more rarely. The study did not identify the reasons for the huge popularity of English, which is why it remains a field for future study. One could, however, argue that English is more “likable” for the following reasons: it is often featured in the media; the environment advocates its importance; the English didactic materials on offer
are more abundant; linguistic progress is (compared to German) initially much steeper; English sounds “softer” than German, etc.

External motivation is featured in another important yet less sizable group of statements. Although the individual categories of external motivation were nothing unexpected, i.e. institutions, parents and the media, their ranking was nonetheless surprising. Institutional reasons as motivational influences superseded parents, and the media proved to have little impact on foreign language learning. One could, however, speculate that media influence was insignificant because the participants considered English in the media as a means of communication, not an aim—especially not for foreign language learning.

To sum up, the results of the analysis show some common and representative motivational features of early foreign language learning, which are, however, not linguistic, but pragmatic and utilitarian. These findings encourage didactic approaches that promote linguistic functionality – in accordance with the recommendations of the European Council. However, shortcomings still exist and are to be found in practice and in the reality of early foreign language learning, where traditional, language-oriented methods and methodology are firmly rooted.

References


Mind Mapping as a Strategy for Enhancing Essay Writing Skills

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Abstract
This study examines the issue of student essay writing in higher education. The main focus of this research is on the lecturers and writing tutors who wish to help undergraduates in learning foreign languages as well as to enable them to bring improvement in their essay writing skills. Essay writing is critical to academic success; usually, an essay is a piece of writing that systematically analyzes and evaluates a topic or issue. Mind mapping is one of the versatile tools that help to break down the topics into manageable chunks, fire up the brain, and boost creativity. This study focuses on how mind mapping was effectively used as a strategy to support and develop students' writing skills. The data required for this study was collected through a questionnaire and analyzed with the primary purpose to evaluate the use of mind maps as a pre-writing brainstorming strategy. The statistical techniques used to determine the role of mind mapping in the enhancement of writing skills include one-way ANOVA, Chi-Square test, and Correlation Analysis. The findings of the statistical analysis confirmed that planning an essay before writing with the use of the mind mapping technique helped in writing essays more effectively in their coursework, thereby making essay writing more enjoyable and fun.

Keywords: essay writing, mind map, quality of writing, writing skills, foreign language
Introduction

The heart of teaching and learning of higher education revolves around student writing skills. A wide range of methods is observed to be developed for teaching essay writing in various geographical contexts for distinctive political, historical and social reasons. In the last two decades, the usage of feedback in English seems to be enhanced as a second/foreign language (ESL/EFL) writing instruction (Zhao, 2010). It has been stated by most researchers that feedback received from peers plays an essential part in enhancing academic achievement as well as the writing skills of students (Topping et al., 2000; Plutsky & Wilson, 2004). One of the major difficulties that students face in essay writing is essentially lack of necessary ideas to write their essay convincingly till the end. Thus, they struggle with insecurities about their writing abilities and become self-conscious about expressing themselves. Given all this, it is really interesting that applying the concept of mind mapping can remarkably accelerate the aptitude for learning new pieces of information far more quickly and efficiently than before and accelerate the process of essay writing.

Generally, writing is a challenging procedure. There is more to this procedure than just positioning the units of language collectively; it usually requires a lot of arrangement, planning, conceptualization, composition, rewriting, and modifications. Most of the researchers have focused entirely on the potency of prewriting to simplify the difficulty of writing, as it provides assistance to the writers to outline their targets and goals, brainstorming, developing the ideas, composing the gathered information and framework the content (Brodney et al., 1999; Hart, 1997; First & MacMillan, 1995; Flower & Hayes, 1981). It has been suggested by Bourdin & Fayol (2000) that appropriate and prior planning stimulates the absolute performance of writing, and interchangeably, inadequate planning may result in weak writing performance.

A mind map is one of the most efficient tools to think, recollect, and organize ideas in a visually friendly way. Mind mapping is usually deliberated as an approach to conceptualizing and brainstorming, through which one can attain the desired outcomes or more often outstanding ones. According to tutors, mind mapping is one of the greatest assets for teaching students. It is an intellectual technique which provides help in the alignment and formulation of information when introducing the students to a new topic (Hillar, 2012). Mind maps go under a variety of names. In general, they are known as semantic mapping, concept maps, think-links, graphic organizers, knowledge mapping, or cognitive maps (Svantesson, 1989). As analyzed by Buzan (1993), in terms of a graphical and visual
manner, mind maps endeavor to depict a relationship between concepts or ideas. These maps are referred to as ‘mind maps’ in this study. During the time span of the 1960s, Tony Buzan developed the concept of mind mapping. It is the entire brain which acts as a substitute for linear thinking. Mind maps harness an entire range of cortical skills – image, word, logic, number, color, rhythm, and spatial perception and awareness in a distinguished, uniquely powerful manner. Mind maps are usually a reflection of the way our brain reacts in deriving the ideas and concepts from our head onto paper.

This study was done:
1. To identify the effect of mind maps in essay writing.
2. To understand how mind maps are used by a group newly introduced to the concept.
3. To measure if and how mind maps enhance the ability to write well-meaning essays.

**Literature Review**

The methods of bringing enhancement in the writing performance of students during examinations were explored by Wallace (1997) with the use of the technique of mind mapping. Moreover, the repetitive style of action research gives current opportunities to teachers, who demonstrate and elevate their personal manner of teaching.

Jarf (2009) investigated the compelling distinction among the group of students who used the software of Mind Mapping while writing and the ones who did not. The researcher stated that the software of Mind Mapping could be used to help students in brainstorming, development of new ideas, making correlations among various concepts and supporting details as students face problems in propagating ideas in EFL and writing paragraphs with topic sentences and supporting details. This study was performed by considering freshman students as a sample of research, who were divided into two groups, i.e., experimental and control. The results of post-test showed that the members of the experimental group had higher gains in their final writing.

Davies (2011) carried out research in which he explained a number of techniques and tools used in mapping, as well as distinctions among those methods. This research paper also comprised different advantages and disadvantages of each of the mapping tools. According to Davies, choosing a mapping tool is principally dependent upon the primary objective or aim for which that relevant tool should
be used and that the tools may be well concentrated on offering instructions as still inferential and potentially interrelated functions.

Naqbi (2011) examined the use of mind mapping in the context of EFL as a strategy of prewriting brainstorming under the circumstances of examination. This study aimed to guide students in planning and organizing their concepts and ideas as well as providing answers about the writing topic instead of giving answers to the questions asked in exam without any prior planning. As stated by the author, students should perform in a different manner during examinations because of limited time availability. In particular, students have little time to think about the questions and in such a case, the strategy of Mind Mapping helps them to respond to questions in an efficient way. This is the main reason why the tools of collecting data used by Naqbi include interviews, observations, and sample of work performed by students. Actually, the researcher believed that most students try to memorize information for their exams, instead of understanding it. Hence, students’ capability of planning and organizing their concepts before essay writing is likely to be enhanced by application of the mind mapping strategy. After conducting the study, it was found out that by mastering the technique, students’ cognitive skills and thinking abilities could be enhanced, and they showed greater ability in finding ideas, examining them, and stimulating their background knowledge.

Riswanto and Putra (2012) conducted research in Indonesia on the appropriateness of the mind mapping strategy while providing training in writing. The design of pretest-posttest disparate groups was used by the researchers. As the study was carried out in the town of Bengkulu, 234 students of the first year of SMAN3 were the population of the study during the academic year of 2011/2012. A total of 66 students were selected as a sample and divided into two groups. The writing test was conducted in order to collect data, and t-test was used as the tool for analysis of the data. Results showed a compelling distinction was present in the writing accomplishment of the students taught with the use of the strategy of mind mapping. Hence, it is evident from this study that writing achievement of students can be enhanced through the application of the mind mapping strategy.

Methodology

A questionnaire was designed by the researcher for data collection as an effective way to determine the efficacy of the mind mapping method. As reported by Mills (2003), researchers are required to “collect data that is appropriate and accessible”
The sample of this research included 151 students enrolled in General Education Program at Abu Dhabi University. The students’ age was between 18 and 23 years. A structured questionnaire was administered to collect the required data for this study. Chi-square test was done to identify the effect of mind mapping in essay writing, one way ANOVA and Correlation were also performed to measure how helpful mind maps were in the enhancement of the quality of essays. In the case of the presence of nominal variables, the Chi-Square test is applied as it is a non-parametric test. It is a very simple test of relevance, through which research observations can be categorized into distinct groups and evaluated as frequencies (Burns & Burns, 2008).

**Data Analysis and Interpretation**

*Research Objective 1: To identify the effect of mind maps in essay writing*

H₀ = There is no significant association between using mind maps before essay writing and the quality of essays.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Statistic</th>
<th>Value</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Pearson Chi-Square</td>
<td>79.97</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Likelihood Ratio</td>
<td>98.64</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Linear-by-Linear Association</td>
<td>72.52</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No. of Valid Cases</td>
<td>151</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

On the basis of the results it can be concluded that the Chi-Square value of using mind maps before essay writing and the effect on the essay is 79.97 and this value is significant at the five percent level. Hence, the null hypothesis is rejected. There is a significant association between the use of mind maps before essay writing and the quality of the essay written. Hence, it is proved that mind maps as a strategy have a positive effect on essay writing.

H₀ = There is no significant association between using mind maps for essay writing and the thinking skills enhanced while writing an essay.
Table 2. Chi-square Test

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Statistic</th>
<th>Value</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Pearson Chi-Square</td>
<td>57.27</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Likelihood Ratio</td>
<td>74.31</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Linear-by-Linear Association</td>
<td>55.44</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No. of Valid Cases</td>
<td>151</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The results indicate that the Chi-Square value for mind maps before essay writing and mind maps develop thinking skills while essay writing is 57.27, and this value is significant at the five percent level. Hence, the null hypothesis is rejected. Thus, there is a significant association between using mind maps before essay writing and the thinking skills development during writing the essay. So, it is clear from the above analysis that mind maps as a strategy enhance the thinking capabilities of students.

H₀ = There is no significant association between the usage of mind maps before essay writing and the assessment of one’s ideas while writing an essay

Table 3. Chi-square Test

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Statistic</th>
<th>Value</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Pearson Chi-Square</td>
<td>125.38</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Likelihood Ratio</td>
<td>144.79</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Linear-by-Linear Association</td>
<td>91.57</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No. of Valid Cases</td>
<td>151</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The results show that the Chi-Square value for mind maps before essay writing and the use of mind maps for assessment purpose while writing essays is 125.38 and this value is significant at the five percent level. Hence, the null hypothesis is rejected. There is a significant association between the use of mind maps before essay writing and assessing one’s confidence while writing an essay. So, it is found from the above analysis that mind maps as a strategy are some of the best tools for enhancing students’ confidence while writing essays.
Research Objective 2: To understand how mind maps are used by a group newly introduced to the concept

![Pie chart showing the use of mind maps in various activities.](image)

**Figure 1. Use of Mind Mapping Strategy in various activities**

Referring to the above pie chart, it can be observed that 95% of the respondents use mind maps as a strategy for essay writing, 4% of the respondents use mind maps for writing assignments, 1% of the respondents use mind maps before other activities, whereas none of the respondents uses mind maps as a strategy for passage comprehension. So, it is clear that mind maps as a strategy are increasingly used for activities such as the writing of an essay and assignments.

![Bar chart showing the perceived benefits of using mind maps before essay writing.](image)

**Figure 2. Perceived benefits from using mind maps before essay writing**
The above chart shows that 44% of the respondents say that they use mind mapping before writing an essay as it gives better and more ideas on a particular topic, 27% say that they use mind mapping before writing an essay as it enhances their thinking skills, 23% of the respondents say that they use mind maps before writing an essay as it gives a concrete structure to a particular topic and 6% of the respondents say that they use mind maps before writing an essay as it helps in differentiating between positive and negative ideas. It is clear from the above chart that mind maps as a strategy used before essay writing give more ideas on a particular topic, enhance the student's thinking skills, allow for a concrete structure of the assigned topic and also help in making a distinction between positive and negative ideas that arise before writing an essay.

![Figure 3. Role of mind maps in essay writing](image)

The above chart indicates that 48% of the respondents consider mind maps as assisting in essay writing with a clear understanding, 27% of the respondents say that mind maps provide a vivid picture or image of an essay topic, and 25% of the respondents consider mind maps as rough notes to write confidently. Hence, it is clear that mind maps as a strategy play various roles in understanding an essay topic, having rough notes to write confidently and in making an association with the picture and image of a topic while writing an essay.
Research Objective 3: To measure how the mind map strategy enhances the quality of essay writing

H₀ = There is no significant difference between using mind maps before essay writing and the confidence to write an essay.

Table 4. ANOVA

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Sum of Squares</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>Mean Square</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>Significance</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Between Groups</td>
<td>24.31</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>12.15</td>
<td>278.88</td>
<td>.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Within Groups</td>
<td>6.45</td>
<td>148</td>
<td>.04</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>30.75</td>
<td>150</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The F-value of 278.88 is statistically significant at the one percent level indicating that there is a significant difference between using mind maps before essay writing and the confidence level to write an essay. Hence, the null hypothesis is rejected. Thus, mind maps as a strategy enhance the student's writing skills.

H₀ = There is no significant difference between using mind maps before essay writing and their perception as a strategy that is suitable for essay writing.

Table 5. ANOVA

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Sum of Squares</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>Mean Square</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>Significance</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Between Groups</td>
<td>18.07</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>6.02</td>
<td>69.79</td>
<td>.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Within Groups</td>
<td>12.69</td>
<td>147</td>
<td>.09</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>30.75</td>
<td>150</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The F-value of 69.79 is statistically significant at the one percent level indicating that there is a significant difference between using mind maps before essay writing and their perception as a strategy that is suitable for essay writing. Hence, the null hypothesis is rejected. So it is clear that mind mapping is a suitable strategy for essay writing.

H₀ = There is no significant relationship between the use of mind maps for essay writing and the formulation of a logical and coherent essay.
The correlation between mind mapping before essay writing and the eventual formulation of logical and coherent essays is \( r = 0.59 \) and the significant value is 0.000. Here the value of \( r \) is 0.59, so it is considered to be a strong correlation. Hence, there is a significant relationship between using mind maps before essay writing and the formulation of logical and coherent essays. Thus, it is proved that mind mapping as a strategy helps in the structuring of the topic assigned for essay writing.

\( H_0 = \) There is no significant relationship between the use of mind maps and the final quality of an essay.

**Table 6. Correlation**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Mind mapping before essay writing</th>
<th>Mind maps for formulation of a logical and coherent essay</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Mind mapping before essay writing</td>
<td>Pearson Correlation</td>
<td>.59</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Sig. (2-tailed)</td>
<td>.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>N</td>
<td>151</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mind maps for formulation of a logical and coherent essay</td>
<td>Pearson Correlation</td>
<td>1.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Sig. (2-tailed)</td>
<td>.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>N</td>
<td>151</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Table 7. Correlation**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Mind mapping before essay writing</th>
<th>Mind maps' influence on quality of essay</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Mind mapping before essay writing</td>
<td>Pearson Correlation</td>
<td>.67</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Sig. (2-tailed)</td>
<td>.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>N</td>
<td>151</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mind maps' influence on quality of essay</td>
<td>Pearson Correlation</td>
<td>1.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Sig. (2-tailed)</td>
<td>.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>N</td>
<td>151</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

\( H_0 = \) There is no significant relationship between the use of mind maps and the final quality of an essay.
The correlation between mind mapping before essay writing and mind mapping enhancing the quality of writing is \( r = 0.67 \) and significant values are 0.000. Here, the value of \( r \) is 0.67, so it is considered to be a strong correlation. Hence, there is a significant relationship between mind mapping before essay writing and its influence on the quality of the essay. So, it is proved that mind mapping as a strategy enhances the quality of the final essay.

\( H_0 = \) There is no significant relationship between the use of mind maps before essay writing and one’s ability to write an essay in the stipulated time.

**Table 8. Correlation**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Mind mapping before essay writing</th>
<th>Pearson Correlation</th>
<th>Mind map’s influence on writing an essay in the stipulated time</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Mind mapping before essay writing</td>
<td>1.00</td>
<td>.77</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sig. (2-tailed)</td>
<td>.00</td>
<td>.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>N</td>
<td>151</td>
<td>151</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The correlation between mind mapping before essay writing and mind mapping as a strategy improving writing skills in a given time frame is \( r = 0.77 \) and significant values are 0.000. Here, the value of \( r \) is 0.77, so it is considered to be a strong correlation. Hence, there is a significant relationship between using mind maps before essay writing and improving one’s ability to write an essay in the stipulated time.

**Discussion**

The mind mapping strategy is an excellent and innovative technique which enables students to generate new ideas for essays, assignments, etc., in a very short time. This study has proved that mind mapping as a prewriting strategy helps in
improving the quality of essays and helps students to enhance their writing skills in a given time frame. It also helps in understanding a particular topic assigned for essay writing in a better way by focusing on ideas written down in one's own words and observing connections between them. Thus, mind mapping as a strategy is useful in both situations, i.e., before essay writing and during essay writing. In the above study, it was found that those students of Abu Dhabi University who used mind maps showed improvement in their writing capabilities and quality of writing.

**Conclusion**

A notable difference in writing logical and coherent essays was found in a group of students of the general education program at Abu Dhabi University, who were encouraged to create mind maps to brainstorm, generate, and organize ideas before writing an essay. This clearly indicates that the mind mapping technique can act as a powerful tool, not only in boosting the confidence level of students as well as their capability to generate, imagine, and write logical, well-organized and allied essays, but also in writing faster and more efficiently detailed ideas in their paragraphs. Furthermore, since the present study declared a positive impact on the attitude of students approaching the technique of mind mapping as a pre-writing activity, it is recommended that the software of mind mapping should be introduced for the assistance of students in generating complex ideas for multi-paragraph essays. Hence, the results generated from the presented research are found to be consistent with the findings of other research on the use of mind maps by students of particular college levels and grades, enrolled in disparate subjects as investigated by Horton et al. (1993); Nesbit and Adesope (2006); Goodnough and Woods (2002); Lim, Cheng, Lam and Ngan (2003); BouJaoude and Attieh (2003); Berry and Chew (2008); Cifuentes (2009); Holland, Holland and Davies (2003/2004); and Chan (2004).

**References**


Students’ Perceptions on Learner-Centered Teaching Approach

DOI: 10.15804/tner.2016.45.3.12

Abstract

There is growing evidence that the traditional “instruction-centered approach” to learning is not producing the desired learning outcomes in students. Many institutions of higher education in Thailand make it their main thrust to enable their students to become critical, independent thinkers and have the sense of ownership in the learning process. Most schools have shifted the focus in the classroom from conventional teaching to facilitating effective learning. This study centered on the impact of adopting the “learner-centered approach.” Fifty students studying Industrial and Logistics Management at North Bangkok University took part in the assessment. The case study method was utilized and quantitative as well as qualitative data were generated with the use of a questionnaire and semi-structured interviews. Findings revealed that the implementation of “Learner-Centered Education” enhanced the learning outcomes and contributed to the attainment of quality education for the university.

Keywords: learner-centered teaching approach, students’ perceptions, learning outcomes, independent thinkers, quality education

Introduction

Over the past few decades, there has been an increasing interest in developing teaching methods to involve students in the learning process under the influence of the constructivist learning theory (Hannafin et al., 1997). This concept defines
learning as an “active process in which learners are active sense makers who seek to build coherent and organized knowledge” (Mayer, 2004). Within this premise, the model views learning as an active process of knowledge construction rather than as passive reception of information (Mayer, 2004; Tynjala, 1999). The general hypotheses for the constructivist teaching methods are described as “student-centered” teaching methods since they emphasize students’ active role in the learning process (Elen et al., 2007; Loyens and Rikers, 2011).

Many universities, including North Bangkok University (NBU), Bangkok, Thailand, are trying to create curricula that are learning and student-centered. The emphasis is now more on paradigm shift to the constructivist approaches of teaching that are student-centered, away from behaviorist approaches that are teacher-centered (Schmittau, 2004). The context for the case study involves the students enrolled in the course of Industrial and Logistics Management.

Learner-centered teaching is an approach in which students have control over the learning process. In this situation, teachers do less talking and students do more discovering (Brown, 2008). The role of the instructor in the learner-centered approach is to design the course in such a way as to create a climate for optimal learning, to model the appropriate expected behavior for students, and to encourage students to learn from and with each other and provide more feedback throughout the process (Harpe and Phipps, 2009).

**Literature Review**

In a highly competitive global labour market, institutions of higher education are expected to produce graduates who are flexible, adaptable and prepared to take responsibility for their own learning as well continuous professional and personal development. A consequence of this move is the need to provide opportunities for students to develop a sense of ownership over their individual learning processes (Pedersen and Williams, 2004; Cavanagh, 2011). This is the underlying theory of the student-centered learning (SCL) approach.

Constructivism is a theory about knowledge and learning derived mainly from the work of Piaget and Vygotsky (Richardson, 2003). The main concept of constructivism is that human learning is constructed, and that learning builds new knowledge upon the foundation of previous learning (Prawat, 1996). Moreover, teachers and students engage in an in-depth exploration of important ideas from different subject matter domains (Prawat, 1996). In this situation, the teacher is responsible for delivering a predetermined instructional program
using various techniques (Stipek, 2004). In behavioral classrooms, students are the recipients of knowledge, not participants in their own learning (Brooks and Brooks, 1993).

Recognizing the important value of the learner-centered teaching approach, there is growing evidence that higher education has increasingly accepted this as one of the innovative teaching approaches aimed at improving the quality of student experience and delivering better learning outcomes. The ultimate goal of the learner-centered teaching approach is to develop higher order thinking skills like comprehension, application analysis, synthesis and evaluation of knowledge instead of knowledge and recall of facts as proposed by Bloom (1956).

**Study Objectives**

This study sought to address the following questions:

1. What are the student's perceptions on the impact of adopting the learner-centered teaching approach in their course?
2. How effective are the strategies adopted by the school in relation to the implementation of the learner-centered teaching approach?

**The Course**

Lean Thinking Course is an undergraduate program offered by the Faculty of Industrial and Logistic Management, North Bangkok University, Bangkok, Thailand leading to the degree in Industrial and Logistic Management.

**Methodology**

The study used both quantitative and qualitative information. Education experts scrutinized and validated the content of the questions in the questionnaires. According to reliability test, each variable should not be less than 0.7, whereas for test of validity, each variable used should not be less than 0.4. Cronbach’s alpha coefficient for internal consistency concerning the impact of the student-centered approach revealed that the dimensions for this construct demonstrated the acceptable alpha of 0.898 while that of the effectiveness of the teaching methodologies, the total scale presented the excellent consistency alpha of 0.90.
Results and Discussion

Out of ninety enrollees in the program, fifty participants were chosen and those students had been studying in the university for the past four or more years. Table 1 highlights the demographic profiles of the respondents.

### Table 1. Profiles of the Respondents; n = 50

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Student characteristics:</th>
<th>Frequency:</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Gender:</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>4%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Male</td>
<td>48</td>
<td>96%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nationality:</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Thai</td>
<td>45</td>
<td>90%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Foreigner</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Age:</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>17–19</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>30%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20–22</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>50%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>23+</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>20%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>GPA:</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.00–4.00</td>
<td>46</td>
<td>92%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.00–2.99</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>8%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Comparative Data Concerning Students’ Perceptions on the Two Teaching Models

The respondents strongly agreed (μ=3.28) that the learner-centered model enabled them to interact better with other students and teachers by sharing and discussing concepts related to classes. This was not the case when the teacher-centered approach was used. The mean of 1.77 indicated that the students disagreed that the impact on them was the same when their teachers controlled the whole learning process. Under the student-centered learning (SCL) model, the instructors assumed the role of resource persons, guides and coaches to probe and encourage the students to articulate their thoughts about the subject matter being tackled. This provided an avenue for the students to elaborate on the topic and interact better with peers and professors (Weimer, 2002).

The mean of 3.35 indicated that the respondents strongly agreed that the implementation of the learner-centered approach boosted their confidence in
Students’ Perceptions on Learner-Centered Teaching Approach

articulating their feelings and sentiments about a certain topic dealt with in the class discussion. The students did not feel this way when the teacher-centered instruction was used, as shown by the mean of 2.22, because most of the time it was the instructor who provided the information and the students were simply passive recipients of such data.

In terms of using various learning strategies, the respondents strongly agreed, as shown by the mean of 3.27, that in the student-centered learning model they can do it without restrictions. That was not the case in the teacher-centered model, as evidenced by the mean of 1.75. Generally, SCL as a constructivist learning approach places emphasis on the learner and propounds that learning is affected by their context, beliefs, attitudes and strategies (Mayer, 1998).

Here, the learner is encouraged to determine individual interpretation in addressing a given problem, which promotes the development of the learner’s critical thinking skills (Von Glaserfeld, 1993; Parisi, 2006).

Table 2 shows the data concerning the students’ perceptions on the two teaching models adopted by the Faculty of Industrial and Logistics, specifically for those who are pursuing the Bachelor’s degree in Management.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Perceptions</th>
<th>Teacher $\mu$</th>
<th>Centered Int.</th>
<th>Student $\mu$</th>
<th>Centered Int.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. I can interact better with other students and teachers by discussing concepts related to a class.</td>
<td>1.77</td>
<td>D</td>
<td>3.28</td>
<td>SA</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. I am more confident in expressing my ideas about a certain topic.</td>
<td>2.22</td>
<td>D</td>
<td>3.35</td>
<td>SA</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. I can reflect on thoughts and theories to improve my learning goals.</td>
<td>2.55</td>
<td>A</td>
<td>3.24</td>
<td>A</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. My ability to understand and internalize the topic presented was improved.</td>
<td>2.00</td>
<td>D</td>
<td>3.26</td>
<td>SA</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. I am empowered to set my own learning objectives.</td>
<td>1.20</td>
<td>SD</td>
<td>3.25</td>
<td>A</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. I can focus more on learning rather than just getting a passing mark.</td>
<td>2.20</td>
<td>D</td>
<td>3.28</td>
<td>SA</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. I was able to overcome test related anxieties.</td>
<td>2.55</td>
<td>A</td>
<td>3.30</td>
<td>SA</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8. I can use various learning strategies without restrictions.</td>
<td>1.75</td>
<td>D</td>
<td>3.27</td>
<td>SA</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9. My critical thinking skills were enhanced to solve course-related issues.</td>
<td>1.69</td>
<td>D</td>
<td>3.29</td>
<td>SA</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Effectiveness of the Teaching Methodologies

One learning strategy used by the faculty to create a student-centered learning environment was the adoption of a class project. This method was considered by the respondents as very effective in making the students become more active participants in their own learning process ($\mu=3.28$). The required project called for the students to form into a group of 4–5 members.

Creation of a course council was another method used to promote student-centered learning. The respondents found this strategy effective ($\mu=3.24$) in providing the students with the opportunities to learn from one another and fostering critical thinking and professional responsibility.

Table 3 shows the extent of effectiveness of the various teaching methodologies adopted by the instructors in the course of creating a learner-centered environment.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Type of teaching methodology</th>
<th>Extent of Effectiveness</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>$\mu$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1. Class project</td>
<td>3.28</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Creation of a Course Council</td>
<td>3.24</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Self-paced Learning program</td>
<td>3.30</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Reflective learning</td>
<td>3.23</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. Management Project logbook</td>
<td>3.40</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. Lectures, discussions</td>
<td>1.80</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Legend: Range Interpretation
3.26–4.00 Very Effective (VE)
2.51–3.26 Effective (E)
1.76–2.50 Less Effective (LE)
1.00–1.75 Not Effective (NE)
Conclusion

The results of the case study showed clearly that the introduction of the learner-centered teaching approach in the BS program in Industrial and Logistics Management has greatly influenced and improved the students’ learning process and widened the scope of their learning skills and knowledge. This model of learning provides an alternative to the conventional teacher-centered learning and enabled the students to enjoy a more meaningful learning environment.

References


Competence Development in Business Undergraduates: The Role of Formative Assessment and Humour

DOI: 10.15804/tner.2016.45.3.13

Abstract
This study examined the perceived impact of formative assessment and humour on the learning experience and the development of graduate attributes of business undergraduate students. Data from 236 valid respondents of a questionnaire was analyzed using Partial Least Squares-Structural Equation Modeling method. The conceptual framework for this study is based on Dewey’s theory of reflective thought and action and Ziv’s theory of the attention-gaining and holding power of humour. Findings indicate positive and significant roles played by formative assessment and humour in enhancing learning experience and student development. It was found that applied academic writing and poster presentations were student-centered learning methods that had a positive impact on learning experience and successfully supported differentiated learners. Humour was found to add value to students’ overall learning experience. The findings of this study will provide higher education institutions with a set of considerations for devising formative assessment strategies and practices that will successfully enhance students’ learning and the development of their competences.

Keywords: formative assessment, humour, student development, learning experience, differentiated classrooms
Introduction

A considerable amount of literature has been published on the impact of formative assessment on student learning. There is a general consensus that students’ learning experience and competences are enhanced with the increased use of formative assessment, as it leads to higher quality learning. Existing literature (Natriello, 1987; William and Bartholomew, 2004; Dunn and Mulvenon, 2009; Hill, 2011) provides ample evidence indicating that there is a need for educators to take time to develop innovative and well-defined formative assessment that will successfully support the academic needs of a diverse set of students in differentiated classrooms.

Slute (2008, p. 154) defines formative assessment as ‘information communicated to the learner that is intended to modify his or her thinking or behaviour for the purpose of improving learning’. Despite its importance, many universities still lay particular emphasis on externally-set tests and examinations, though this trend is slowly changing. Formative assessment is important as it not only tests students’ cognitive abilities and graduate attributes, but more importantly, it is also part of the feedback process in which students are able to evaluate their response and understanding with the feedback they receive, and make necessary adjustments. Yorke (2003) aptly states that ‘…Formative assessment is critically important for student learning. Without informative feedback on what they do, students will have relatively little by which to chart their development.’

Aside from formative assessment, humour is generally believed to have a positive impact on students’ learning experience and is often advised as a best practice by effective educators. An effective educator is one who is able to impart knowledge, to inspire and to transform lives. Henry Adams’s wise words come to mind: ‘A teacher affects eternity: he can never tell where his influence stops.’ Teaching can only be effective if learning takes place. While being knowledgeable is important, it is not perceived to have the greatest impact on students’ learning experience. An educator who uses humour and is perceived as humane is one who breaks down any imagined barriers and allows students access to the educator’s knowledge, experience and life skills. Humour is the most genuine and universal speech act within human discourse, and it is employed as a technique in creative pedagogy, emphasizing the skill and art of the educators (Bradshaw & Lowenstein, 2011; Meeus & Mahieu, 2009; Martin, 2007; Ulloth, 2002).
Research Problem

A substantial body of literature has been published on the scholarship of teaching and learning. With the turn of the century, there has been increasing demand for higher education to effectively develop students in terms of their knowledge and comprehension, as well as in building their graduate attributes. What strategies do educators need to implement in order to encourage learning and soft skills development in their students? How can we ensure we are addressing students’ needs instead of simply teaching them what we think they need? The literature on learning provides a wide array of strategies that are effective, with formative assessment being one of the main strategies employed. Black and William (1998); Yorke (2003); Hudson and Bristow (2006); and Nicol and McFarlane-Dick (2006) in their respective studies revealed that formative assessment significantly enhances learning and helps develop lifelong learning skills by assisting students to self-regulate their learning. Rushton (2005) believes that feedback from formative assessment can improve learning, as students become more motivated to learn when they realize that there is a gap between what they thought they knew and what they actually know.

Fisher and Frey (2007) acknowledge that formative assessments are ongoing in nature and aid students via the feedback received, and help inform teacher instruction. Formative assessments help educators to differentiate instruction and therefore improve students’ learning and development. Stiggins (2007) uses the concept of “assessment of learning” to describe formative assessments, as educators assess their students’ learning to ascertain that these students are meeting the required standards set by the state, district, or institution of higher education. Formative assessment is extremely important especially in differentiated classrooms, where students of varying levels of readiness sit side by side. In a nutshell, formative assessment is an effective tool that can be used to identify gaps in knowledge, diagnose specific misunderstandings, foster self-study and clarify desired outcomes. Formative assessment that is well-designed augurs well with the core of Dewey’s educational philosophy (1933), in which education must lead to personal growth, contribute to humane conditions and engage citizens in association with one another.

Aside from formative assessment, another important tool used by effective educators to encourage learning is the use of humour in lessons. Ziv (1979) provides a theoretical explanation for the humour-learning relationship based on the theory of attention-gaining and holding power of humour. Smith (2007) reveals that boredom may be the largest pedagogical obstacle to teaching and learning. Educators are responsible for stimulating students’ interest in lessons in
differentiated classrooms. Humour is believed to be one of the most effective ways of igniting students’ enthusiasm.

Numerous studies (Berk, 2003; Chauvet and Hofmeyer, 2006; Baid and Lambert, 2009; Englert, 2010; Golchi and Jamali, 2011; Zhao, Kong and Wang, 2012) have shown the positive impact humour has on students’ learning experience as it can create a conducive, non-threatening learning environment, increasing student-instructor interaction, enhancing lectures through variety, enhancing cognitive stimulation, decreasing anxiety, motivating students to learn and enjoy greater satisfaction with learning; enhancing creativity and divergent thinking, having a better ability to cope with stress, and providing enjoyment and laughter.

Deneire (1995, p. 285) said that ‘[h]umor has been […] shown to have a positive effect on the learning environment, to initiate, maintain, and enhance learner interest, and to facilitate retention.’ This was iterated by Martin (2007), who explained that humour improved the learning experience, as it increased the satisfaction of learning and motivated students to think.

Based on the above literature review, it is evident that students’ learning experience and development are determined by an array of factors, and it is therefore imperative to continuously embark on research to elicit meaningful evidence on the various factors affecting students’ learning experience as well as the development of their graduate attributes. This will enable higher education institutions to implement comprehensive assessment strategies that will enhance students’ learning experience and equip them with the necessary skills for future use.

**Research Focus**

The present study focuses on the impact of formative assessment and humour in class on students’ learning experience and skill development. Formative assessment has its roots in Dewey’s theory of experience and primacy of education. The study was conducted to add value to the existing literature on the impact of formative assessment and humour on learning experience and student development among business undergraduates. The study aims to provide a much needed insight into students’ perception of the key factors that enhance their learning experience and graduate attributes.

The following four hypotheses were tested in this study:

H1: Formative assessment is perceived to have a significant positive influence on learning experience.
H2: Formative assessment is perceived to have a significant positive influence on student development.

H3: Humour is perceived to have a significant positive influence on learning experience.

H4: Humour is perceived to have a significant positive influence on student development.

**Research Methodology**

**Research General Background**

The presented study involved an investigation into the effects of the use of formative assessment in the form of applied academic writing and poster presentations, and the use of humour in class, to investigate the impact they have on students’ learning experience and the development of core competences.

Figure 1 illustrates the conceptual framework employed in this study. The regressors represent the explanatory variables that are believed to have an impact on students’ learning experience and the development of graduate attributes. The explanatory variables comprise formative assessment and humour.

![Figure 1. Conceptual Framework](image-url)
Research Sample

236 respondents were selected using simple random sampling. The respondents were undergraduate students of a private university in Malaysia.

Instrument and Procedures

The data was collected based on a specially-designed online survey of undergraduate business students to elicit information with regards to their perception of the factors that enhanced their learning experience and developed their graduate attributes. The questionnaire utilizes a 1–5 Likert-scale format to measure the extent to which the students perceived the impact that formative assessment and humour had on their learning experience and developing their graduate attributes.

Data Analysis

Partial Least Squares-Structural Equation Modeling (PLS-SEM) method using SmartPLS 2.0 was employed to test the hypotheses of this study. PLS-SEM has the advantage of having the ability to deal with formative constructs, small sample sizes and is suitable for assessing relatively new measurement models. Tenenhaus et al. (2005), and Henseler, Wilson, and Westberg (2011) found that empirical models with both reflective and formative constructs can be analysed with the use of PLS-SEM. The sample size in our study was considered sufficient to achieve the desired statistical power (Hair, Hult, Ringle & Sarstedt, 2013). This study employed the PLS algorithm, in which the path coefficients were estimated, while the hypotheses were tested by means of bootstrapping with 1000 samples, as in Becker, et al. (2012).

Research Results

Respondents’ Demographics

There were 236 respondents, of whom 33% were males and 67% were females. The respondents were diverse in ethnicity, with the majority being Chinese (57%), followed by Malays (24%) and Indians (8%) and a handful of other ethnic groups.
Measurement Model

Arbuckle (2005, 113, p.89) claims that ‘the portion of the model that specifies how the observed variables depend on the unobserved, composite, or latent variables’ is also known as the measurement model. Each of the constructs comprising Assessments, Humour, Learning Experience and Student Development was analysed in the measurement model. Pedhazur and Schmelkin (1991) stated that the fundamental purpose of employing the measurement model was to assess the construct and convergent validity of the constructs being studied. The construct validity can be established by undertaking convergent and discriminant validity, as revealed by Hair et al. (2010).

The convergent validity was assessed to ensure that the items of each scale measured the same construct. The composite reliability, the Average Variance Extracted (AVE), the item factor loadings (Fornell & Larcker, 1981) and the significance of the outer loadings (Gefen and Straub, 2005) were examined for this purpose. Since the AVE for each construct is greater than 0.5, while the composite reliability is greater than 0.7, and the t-statistic of the outer loading is greater than 1.96 (Gefen and Straub, 2005), convergent validity exists.

Fornell & Larcker (1981) say that the Cronbach alpha and composite reliability are used to assess the internal consistency of the scales used to measure each construct. Since the values of the Cronbach alpha for all constructs are over 0.7, this reflects the existence of internal consistency as in Nunnally (1978). As shown in Table 1, the Cronbach alpha values for Assessment, Humour, Learning Experience and Student Development are all above the 0.7 recommended cut-off.

Yet another measure of internal consistency is the composite reliability, which according to Agarwal & Karahanna (2000) and Staples and Seddon, (2004) is considered acceptable when it is 0.7 or above. As shown in Table 1, the composite reliability values for Assessment, Humour, Learning Experience and Student Development are all above the 0.7 recommended cut-off.

Table 1 also shows that our model revealed predictive power (R-square), as assessment and humour explained 71.4% and 53.2% of the variance in learning experience and student development respectively.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Scale</th>
<th>No. of Items</th>
<th>Cronbach's Alpha</th>
<th>Composite Reliability</th>
<th>R2</th>
<th>AVE</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Assessment (A)</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>0.881</td>
<td>0.907</td>
<td>0.588</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Humour (H)</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>0.900</td>
<td>0.919</td>
<td>0.588</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
To confirm the construct validity of the outer model, there is a need to establish the discriminant validity, which is the degree to which the items of a particular scale measure only the construct they should measure (Whitley, 2002). We assessed discriminant validity for Assessment, Humour, Learning Experience and Student Development and the results are shown in Table 2.

Gefen and Straub (2005) reveal that each square root of the AVE should be larger than its correlation with the other constructs in order for a construct to demonstrate discriminant validity. As shown in Table 2, there is evidence that the four constructs have discriminant validity. Therefore, it can be safely stated that the findings of the hypotheses (Table 3) are valid and reliable.

Table 2. Discriminant Validity

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Assessment</th>
<th>Humour</th>
<th>Learning Experience</th>
<th>Student Development</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Assessment</td>
<td>0.767</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Humour</td>
<td>0.559</td>
<td>0.767</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Learning Experience</td>
<td>0.728</td>
<td>0.603</td>
<td>0.771</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Student Development</td>
<td>0.677</td>
<td>0.602</td>
<td>0.688</td>
<td>0.780</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 3 presents the results of the analysis of the structural model using the PLS method and bootstrapping technique with 1000 samples.

Table 3. Path Estimates

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Hypotheses</th>
<th>Beta</th>
<th>S.Error</th>
<th>t-statistic</th>
<th>Decision</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>H1 Assessment -&gt; Learning Experience</td>
<td>0.714</td>
<td>0.066</td>
<td>10.780</td>
<td>confirmed</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hypotheses</td>
<td>Beta</td>
<td>S.Error</td>
<td>t-statistic</td>
<td>Decision</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>------------</td>
<td>------</td>
<td>---------</td>
<td>-------------</td>
<td>----------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>H2 Assessment -&gt; Student Development</td>
<td>0.495</td>
<td>0.122</td>
<td>4.075</td>
<td>confirmed</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>H1 Humour……-&gt;. Learning Experience</td>
<td>0.204</td>
<td>0.082</td>
<td>2.482</td>
<td>confirmed</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>H2 Humour……-&gt;. Student Development</td>
<td>0.326</td>
<td>0.122</td>
<td>2.660</td>
<td>confirmed</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

As shown, assessment has a significantly positive effect on learning experience (standardized estimate = 0.714 p < 0.05). On the other hand, assessment also has a significant and positive impact on student development (standardized estimate = 0.495 p < 0.05). As far as humour is concerned, it also has a significantly positive impact on both learning experience (standardized estimate = 0.204 p < 0.05) and student development (standardized estimate = 0.326 p < 0.05).

**Discussion**

The findings of the present study reveal that assessment has a significantly positive impact on learning experience, hence supporting the first hypothesis. The results also reveal that students’ competences of graduate capabilities are enhanced after completing their assessment, thereby supporting hypothesis 2. Humour, on the other hand, also plays a significantly positive role in enhancing students’ learning experience and their competences or graduate capabilities, hence supporting hypotheses 3 and 4.

The empirical evidence of this study shows that the students’ learning experience is significantly and positively impacted on by formative assessment and humour. These findings concur with those found by Englert (2010); Golchi and Jamali (2011); Zhao, Kong and Wang (2012) and Rasiah (2015) for assessment; and Deneire (1995); Martin (2007) and Bradshaw & Lowenstein (2011) for humour. Our results show that formative assessment has a greater impact on students’ learning experience as compared to humour, showcasing the importance of designing good assessment and effective and timely feedback to ensure deep and meaningful learning takes place, as supported by the findings of Duncan (2007); and Nicol and Draper (2008), among others.
In terms of student development, the results also reveal that formative assessment and humour are significant contributors to developing student competences, in terms of enhancing their graduate attributes, as supported by the findings of Golchi and Jamali, 2011; Zhao, Kong and Wang, 2012 and Rasiah (2015), among others.

This study has some limitations, especially with respect to the questionnaire developed, which has room for further improvement. Despite that, the findings certainly provide an insight into students’ perceptions of the impact of formative assessment and humour on their learning and the impact that this has on the competences they gained or enhanced along the way.

Conclusions

The findings demonstrate the effectiveness of employing formative assessment and humour in the classroom to enhance learning experience and develop graduate attributes. The policy implication of this study is that higher education institutions put a heavier emphasis on ensuring that students are tested with well-designed formative assessment to promote wider, deeper and more sustained learning, by keeping the focus on teaching and learning, aligning summative and formative assessment approaches, investing in training and support for formative assessment, encouraging innovation in assessment and building stronger bridges between research, policy and practice. As far as humour is concerned, it is recommended that educators consider the use of humour as a mechanism for reducing stress and tension and creating a more positive learning environment, and ample training be provided to enhance educators’ ability to motivate, inspire and engage students in the learning process.

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The New Educational Review

Pedeutology
Abstract
The subject of this study is the development of activities and culture of teachers. These are major resources for the development of the educational process in vocational schools and colleges. The target group for the experimental study included teachers of vocational schools and colleges in St. Petersburg. The study has shown that the interaction between activities and culture of teachers at the level of educational institutions is a complex structured phenomenon embracing socio-economic relations in society, organizational relations within an educational institution, competence-related characteristics of teachers, and personal qualities of an education actor. As these parameters determine the resource potential for the development of vocational schools and colleges, they can be used to improve the effectiveness of the modern educational process.

Keywords: the activities and culture of the teacher, factors of development activities and culture teachers

Introduction

The relevance of this study is based on the fact that although the development of education in Russia has been repeatedly discussed over the last fifteen years, in particular in the recognized Russian scientific journal Sociological Studies, which
is part of the international databases of *The Scopus* and *The Web of Science* magazines, the discussion has mainly concerned general, secondary and higher professional education (Gendin, Sergeev, 2000; Zborowcki, Kovrova, 2000; Scheglova, 2006; Ziyatdinova, 2010; Il’in, Schabunova, Leonidova, 2012; Gasparichvili, Krugalin, Kruchmaleva, 2013; Chagurov, Octapenko, 2014, etc.). To our knowledge, issues pertaining to the interaction between factors of activities and culture of teachers of industrial and engineering schools and colleges have not been specifically addressed as a separate subject of social studies in recent years. However, in contemporary Russian history, beginning with the 1990s and ending in 2015, this area of education saw a number of developments, such as the updating of training programs, an increasing degree of informatization and computerization of the educational process, and the expanding deployment of information and communication technologies. At the same time, economic and social reforms have changed the relations of vocational schools and colleges with the real production sector, modified social, functional and personal relationships between teachers within educational institutions, expanded and diversified requirements for the content and quality of teachers’ professional activities, etc.

Given their social, organizational and personal nature, these factors have had, and continue to have, a complex impact on changes in the activities and culture of teachers and their interactions with each other. In this context, it has become relevant to understand, through research, how the interaction between factors of development of activities and culture of an education actor is structured, and in which way these phenomena are connected with the operation of educational institutions against the background of the critical social and economic conditions in today’s civil society in Russia.

**The Characteristics of the Object and the Sampling of the Study**

The object of the research are the teachers who work in the secondary vocational schools and colleges of Saint Petersburg. The study used a geographically-nesting sampling. To ensure the representativeness of the selective number of teachers, the following criteria were used as the requirements to the procedure of respondent selection: 1) a professionally-industrial criterion reflects the main occupations and industries of the city economy, which educational organizations are closely associated with; 2) a criterion which allows for fixing the status of the educational institutions, their division into secondary vocational schools and colleges; 3) the
The territorial criterion allows to take into account the specifics of the city division into the center and the periphery, the industrial and residential areas while selecting the educational institutions (it is hypothetically assumed that the territorial location of the educational institutions has some impact on the contingent of the teachers and students, therefore it was necessary to cover all the main districts of Saint Petersburg with the experiment); 4) gender - demographic criteria allow for reflecting the gender and the age ratios peculiar to the pedagogical community of the secondary vocational schools of the city; 5) the criterion of the typicality of the respondents gives the opportunity to examine the typical teachers of the selected educational organizations, including all of their specializations - from the disciplines of science and humanities to special vocational subjects. This choice of the object of the study was motivated by two circumstances. Firstly, by the fact that since the pre-revolutionary, soviet and post-soviet period St. Petersburg has been an important center of the innovative development of vocational education of the Russian youth. Secondly, by the fact that “sociology for secondary vocational education”, as compared to “sociology of education”, has its own subject and object of research. In the survey (2015), which was based on a territorial selection of respondents, 583 teachers were interviewed. The sample consisted of 11 to 12 % of the total number of teachers engaged in secondary vocational schools in St. Petersburg (at the time of the survey, their average annual number in the city was about 5,000 people). Female teachers accounted for 87.3 % of the sample, and male teachers accounted for 12.7 %. The average age of the respondents was 47.8 years. 81.0 % of the teachers had a university degree; 15.4% had secondary vocational education; and 3.6 % of the teachers (mainly training officers) had primary vocational education, including shop training. In our opinion, this selection of respondents in our experiment allows for an analysis of the interaction between their activities and culture as resources for the development of the educational process in vocational schools and colleges.

**Research Purpose and Problem**

The purpose of the study was to identify a set of factors of activities and culture of modern teachers that serve as resources for the development of the educational process in vocational schools and colleges in a modern metropolis.

The goal of the study was to reveal the complex structure of the interaction between factors of development of the activities and culture of teachers in modern vocational schools and colleges.
Study Method

When studying the teachers’ activities, we proceeded from the fact that by teaching and educating their students, teachers not only shape the students’ personalities, but also develop themselves as active actors of the educational process (Il’enkov, 1997, p.143; Lucacs, 1991, pp. 78–79; Rubinstein, 1997, p. 438). We believed that when studying activities of an education actor it was very important to give due consideration to their ensemble nature. It is particularly important that teaching and educating activities of teachers in vocational schools and colleges are closely related to modern market institutions of society, and to the process of training and educating professionals who should have command of modern production, technology and labor culture.

The concept of “culture of a teacher” was the second key concept in our experimental study. We proceeded from the fact that the backbone of the teacher’s culture consists in values and human characteristics of his/her personality. These included indicators of aesthetic and artistic development, values, ideals, worldview positions, the meaning of life and the moral standards of the teacher. We believe that the latter determine the relationships of the teacher with students and their parents, with his/her peers, etc. According to a few authors, the internal architec-tonics of the culture of an individual (including a teacher) inevitably disintegrates without this axiological and humanistic dimension (Stolovich, 1999, p.106; Yadov, 2006, p. 37).

To develop the paradigm, we relied on the theoretical principles of social psychoanalysis (Fromm, 1990), the theory of frames (Goffman Erving, 2004), and the concept of social dispositions of an individual (Self-regulation and forecasting, 2013). They gave an opportunity to select the special complete units of the cognition of the educational activity as the subject of the scientific analysis – the positions and meanings contributed by the subject in its content and purpose, thus categorically labeling the particular self-measurement of the activity and culture of teachers. Basing on the positions and meanings of the activity, we managed to approach the disclosure of the structure of the relationships between the factors of its development and the factors of the cultural development of the subject of education in a fundamentally different way: not to go from the material elements and functions to the positions and the meanings of the activity, but to move from the historically and socially determined positions and meanings of the activity and culture of the subject of education to the individual functions and specific duties of the teacher. This reverse logic in studying the activities and culture of an education actor enabled us to present them as phenomena imbued with the emer-
gent properties of their positions, meanings, roles, targets, the level of complexity of work and opportunities for personal improvement. In terms of methodology, the analysis of positions and meanings provided a basis for identifying a single set of factors that determined the interaction between the activities and culture of an education actor.

In our opinion, using this logic of the study of the development of the activities and culture of teachers is particularly important due to the following: the position- and meaning-related perspectives of investigating different areas of professional activities of an individual are in line with modern integration trends in the development of professional labor and human capital as resources for improvement in various spheres of the life of society, in particular the improvement of educational practices pursued in vocational schools and colleges.

Methodological Tools of the Research

In our research we used a method of sociological poll. The poll gives the opportunity to explore the aspects of life of the teachers of secondary vocational schools and colleges concealed from official statistics. For its performance, an authorial multi-purpose questionnaire was used. It included 70 questions and 459 single indicators, which allowed for describing: “the teaching profession,” “the teaching process,” “the reforms in the country,” “how teachers spend their leisure time,” “the prospects of the schools and colleges development,” “teachers’ life plans and values,” and “teachers’ family status and living standards.” The analysis of the teachers’ answers on these issues allowed for conducting multilateral research not only on their activities and culture, but also to assess the characteristics of their relationship to social, economic and political structure of society, to the internal educational environment of the vocational schools and colleges. When processing the results of the poll we used standard statistical procedures: classification and grouping, calculations of averages, correlation and regression methods, and factor analysis, based on the calculation of adjusted coefficient of multiple determination ($R^2$). In particular, the calculations of the coefficient of determination $R^2$ allowed for explaining the variation of the resulting characteristic “$y$” (e.g., the overall level of the teachers’ activity and culture development), by computing changes in the independent features «$x_1, x_2 ... x_n$» (relating to the social and educational environment, the qualities of the teacher’s personality recorded during the study with the help of the indicators of the questionnaire). Analysis of the responses to the educators’ questions of sociological profiles allowed us to determine the
factors influencing the overall level of development of their activities and culture. Sociological data processing was carried out using the statistical package SPSS for Windows.

**Study Results**

At the beginning of the research, we hypothesized that in terms of development and interaction factors, the teachers’ activities and culture must depend both on the conditions found in a particular educational institution and on the personal characteristics of educational process actors. When putting this hypothesis forward, we assumed that the social, economic and political changes in society must be refracted through the positions and meanings generated by a particular education actor, through the system of their knowledge and competences, through their life experience and value orientations, through their attitudes to the social reality and their profession, and through their attitudes to themselves.

Because of the multiplicity of the factors determining the interaction of the activity and culture of the teachers, we focused our attention on those factors, the sample correlation coefficients of which (with the positional and semantic character) were statistically similar (error within 1%) to the values that are characteristic of the general sample of the study.

*Factors determining the position- and meaning-related structure of the activities and culture of teachers as resources for the development of the educational process*

At the beginning of our analysis, we developed a structure of positions and meanings that substantially determined the nature of the interaction between the activities and culture of an education actor. In particular, the positions of teachers were divided into two groups as follows: communicative and role-based positions and personal positions of an education actor. In their pure form, these were found in 9.9% and 31.9% of the respondents, respectively. The remaining 58.2% demonstrated different combinations of these positions. The meaning-related characteristics were also divided into two groups. The first group included characteristics with negative connotations determining the activities and culture of the teachers. These were predominant among 24.4% of the respondents and included “activities as a means of survival and commodity”, where all the efforts and culture of an education actor are driven by the need for financial security; “activities as a characteristic indicating a low social status of the teacher” and “activities as
a routine” that prevent the education actor from revealing their spiritual needs and capabilities. The second group included meaning-related dominants with positive connotations in the activities and culture of teachers. These were found in 75.6% of the respondents and included the following: “activities and culture of the teacher by improving which the education actor becomes involved in the development of society and young people,” “activities of the teacher as an area of their personal and cultural development,” and “activities that are seen by the education actor as equal to art”.

The following stage of the study involved the calculation of the adjusted coefficient of multiple determination $R^2$, which shows the percentage of variations of dependent variable “y” described by change in independent variables “$x_1, x_2 ... x_n$”. It was used to identify a group of factors that had a substantial influence on the overall level of development of activities and culture of the teachers. In particular, the overall level of development of activities of the teachers was influenced by the following groups of factors: characteristics of pedagogical activities (42.9% of the total variation of the development of activities), the teachers’ values and ideals, including their political and civil positions (35.5%), professional and humanitarian competences of the education actors (11.8%) and factors of the organizational culture of the educational institution (9.8% of the total variation of development). In turn, the development of the teachers’ culture was influenced by the following factors: the teachers’ qualifications (29.5% of the total variation of development), characteristics of pedagogical activities (27.2%), the teachers’ values and ideals, including their political and civil positions (31.1%) and factors of the organizational culture of the educational institution (10.2% of the total variation of development).

The collected sociological data allowed for uncovering the determination of the teachers’ cultural development. Their analysis showed that the determination of the teachers’ cultural development had three levels. On the first level, it is related to the change of the positions and purposes of the teachers’ professional activity, enhancing its methodological equipment and reducing the non-core workload. On the second level, it is determined by the control system, the relations that develop between the teachers regarding training and education of students inside the secondary vocational school and college. On the third level, the determination of the teachers’ cultural development, based on the elements and relationships mentioned above, determine their “personality” (via creative leisure time organization, value and aesthetic self-determination of the teachers), “professionalism” (through the change of the economic interest, vocational and humanitarian competences and professional maturity of the teachers), “civil position” (through the inclusion
in the corporate culture of the educational institution, through the development of the political, moral and spiritual orientation of the teachers).

*The interaction between factors of development of activities and culture of teachers as resources for the development of the educational process*

We selected 19 individual factors to study this phenomenon. They reflect the strongest and most robust correlations between the factors of development of the activities and culture of the teachers (with an error of 1% from the values typical of the general survey sample). These were organized into two sets of factors. The first set included factors of change in the teacher’s activities. They reflected their attractiveness to the teachers in terms of their social utility, their personal development, communication with young people, the teachers’ ability to develop creative interests in young people, their perception of their profession as an art, their social self-determination, the competitive nature of training and educational activities, the respondents’ capability of discovering something new in their teaching profession, and the presence of mutual respect in relations between team members of the educational institution. The second set included factors of change in the teacher’s culture. They reflected the teachers’ value-related attitudes toward self-development, manifestations of their proactive life philosophy, creativity in their work, availability of strategic thinking in building their training and educational process, their communicative culture, and their artistic and aesthetic interests. In addition to the above, this set also included the following factors: perception of competition and private property as mechanisms and important social institutions of modern society and a degree of authoritarianism in the organization of the teachers’ professional activities.

The above characteristics enabled us to conduct a cross-correlation analysis of the interaction between the two groups of factors of development of activities and culture of the teachers. The analysis identified holistic (in terms of strength and reliability) factors of development of the activities and culture of the teachers (the reliability of these for the survey sample was measured with an error of 1% against the general population). This enabled us to reveal the holistic nature of the factors of the interaction between the activities and culture of the teachers and to identify latent aspects of the interaction that determined the activities- and culture-related resources for the development of the educational process both within and outside of the vocational schools and colleges.

The study of correlations between the selected factors of development of activities and culture of the teachers showed that the general fundamental factor-based
constant is their ability to think in a paradoxical, talented and creative manner. This factor was found to be significantly associated with the overall level of development of the activities of the teacher \((r = 0.187 \pm 0.002)\), with the teaching activities as an area of development of the teacher’s personality \((r = 0.193 \pm 0.002)\), with the overall level of development of the culture of the teacher as an actor of the educational process \((r = 0.538 \pm 0.005)\) and with the self-development of the teacher as part of their value system \((r = 0.364 \pm 0.004)\).

For the first time in the study, with a high degree of reliability, we managed to structure the determination of the development of the activity and culture of the teachers of secondary vocational education as a difficultly organized object-subject complex of important factors: they defined not only its different levels, but also its interdisciplinary character. In particular, the statistically reliable \((P = 0.01)\) results of our study allow us to say that the interaction of the activity and culture of the teachers is latently determined by a complex set of factors. In addition to the subjective factors, a significant role for the development of the activity and culture of teachers is played by the factors that represent social and economic relations in society (perception of competition and private property by teachers as fundamental mechanisms and institutions for the development of civil society), organizational relations within the educational institution (positions and relations between education actors in an educational institution), professional competence-related characteristics of teachers (the teacher’s ability to build their teaching and educational process in a paradoxical and creative way) and value-based personal qualities of an education actor (these are associated with the social and pedagogical mechanisms in the teacher’s self-development and reflect social and axiological characteristics of their activities, personal meanings, values and ideals). The above aspects reflect the cross-disciplinary nature of factors of reciprocal changes in teachers’ activities and culture as resources for the development of the educational process in vocational schools and colleges.

The data from the opinion poll revealed facts indicating that the influence of social and economic macro-factors on the interaction between the teachers’ activities and culture within an individual school or college is relatively weak compared with the other sets of factors. This has both a purely mathematical and sociologically meaningful explanation. Mathematically, the nature and parameters of the influence of macro-factors on the interaction between the activities and culture of the teachers can be correctly explained by Lyapunov’s theorem. It states that if a random variable results from a number of factors, none of which is predominant, and the number of these factors tends to infinity, then the random variable distribution law asymptotically tends to the normal distribution law and
the correlation coefficients tend to their minimum. In terms of sociological meaning, this means that relatively weak yet statistically reliable correlations indicate that the factors in question are equally motivating, but weakly differentiate society actors (including teachers of vocational schools and colleges) by their level of development (Sztompka, 2005, p. 542; Zdravomuslov, Yadov, 2003, pp. 44–45).

Conclusions

Our experience studying the factors of interaction between the activities and culture of the teachers as resources for the development of the educational process in industrial and engineering schools and colleges shows that the interaction can only be productive if it is comprehensively based on economic, sociological, cultural, psychological and pedagogical theories and explanatory paradigms.

This comprehensive analysis embracing multiple disciplines should be, first of all, based on the fundamental laws of economic competition and institutions of private property in modern civil society. The latter are the fundamental components of the functioning and development not only of the whole society, but also of education, including the activities and culture of teachers of industrial and engineering schools and colleges.

The same can be said about the influence of changes in the social structure of society on the processes of continuous renewal of vocational education, which latently relies on the laws of development and factors of interaction between material and non-material production, on the evolution of social and functional relations, on the development of the activities and culture of teachers within vocational educational institutions, and on the laws and guidelines for the development of a new type of education actor who has begun to take shape and will undoubtedly be the dominating type in the current century.

In conclusion we note the following: statistical dependencies represented in the article do not show all the root causes of the interrelated development of the activity and culture of modern teachers, but, in our opinion, they can serve as a base for other studies, including those of a comparative character, to introduce new working hypotheses, to find the causes and dependencies, which have, from the European point of view, a broader meaning.
References


Abstract
The aim of our research was to confirm or reject the assumption that the intervention programme “E” – Empathy Development Programme – had a positive effect on changes in the cognitive and emotional component of empathy in the experimental group of students, future teachers. IRI – Interpersonal Reactivity Index (Davis, 1996) was used as the measuring tool. Data analysis of results showed differences in terms of desirable significant changes at the level of all IRI variables between the experimental group participating in experiential intervention and the group not participating in any intervention programme during testing.

Keywords: multidimensional model of empathy, emotional construct of empathy, cognitive construct of empathy, “Perspective Taking” factor, “Emotional Concern” factor, “Fantasy” factor, “Personal Distress” factor

Introduction
Empathy constitutes the basic component of all existing psychological phenomena (Mlčák, 2008). The importance of empathy is emphasized also by C. Serino (2007, p. 109) in her statement: “Empathy is one of the most peculiar and intriguing phenomena in social life, which can be observed in several different contexts and analyzed at different levels.”
C.R. Rogers (1975, p. 4) describes empathy as follows: “It means entering the private perceptual world of the other and becoming thoroughly at home in it. It involves being sensitive, moment to moment, to the changing felt meanings which flow in this other person... To be with another in this way means that for the time being you lay aside the views and values you hold for yourself in order to enter another’s world without prejudice... and this can only be done by a person who is secure enough in himself that he knows he will not get lost in what may turn out to be the strange or bizarre world of the other, and can comfortably return to his own world when he wishes.” Empathy is one of the P-C-E pillars whose effect on pupils’ creative abilities was experimentally tested by Ďuricová (2000).

The main source of problems in the conception of empathy in contemporary psychology can be seen in the fact that the term empathy is used to designate two separate and independent phenomena which are emotional (affective) empathy and cognitive empathy.

The cognitive conception of empathy accentuates the mechanism of tuning into the psychology of other persons. Empathy is understood as a perceptual ability, an ability of social insight, but also as a communication process.

We endorse the current knowledge supporting the multi-dimensional character of empathy with links to the knowledge of more psychological schools and approaches. Davis (1996), Čavojová, Verešová (2011) understand empathy as a system of several constructs – primarily the construct of emotional empathy and the construct of cognitive empathy.

The model of empathy by Baron-Cohen and Wheelwright (2004) depicts the overlap of the affective and cognitive components of empathy, with the affective component described as experiencing emotions arising by perception of emotions of other people and the cognitive component as understanding or anticipation of the content the other could think or act by. This definition is closely related to equally named dimensions of subjective well-being (Pašková, 2010).

Some authors are of the opinion that cognitive empathy is a prerequisite for the development of emotional empathy, others assume complicated interaction relationships between them (Hoffman, 1987).

In contemporary psychology, the multi-dimensional conception by M.H. Davis (1983) is the most elaborated. M.H. Davis is of the opinion that empathy may be operationalized and measured as a set of constructs, components, with a hierarchic arrangement. He constructed the IRI scale aimed at measuring 4 basic components: Perspective Taking, Empathic Concern, Fantasy and Personal Distress.

We believe that development of the theory of empathy as well as its study requires acceptance of the multi-dimensional understanding of empathy.
The aim of our research was to determine the efficiency of the intervention “E” – empathy development programme in teachers’ undergraduate training. We expected that the constructed intervention programme would primarily purposefully develop the affective and cognitive component of empathy, but also other social skills and competences necessary for the performance of the challenging teaching profession.

The “E” – empathy development programme in undergraduate training of future teachers was carried out once a week, 30 meetings, 90 hours in total, and focused mainly on the development of the following 5 components:

- Adequate self-assessment and assessment of others.
- Adequate identification of emotional stimuli.
- Taking other peoples’ perspective.
- Ability to respond empathically.
- Willingness to forgive oneself and others.

Research objectives were specified as follows:

1. Find out whether the intervention program of empathy development had an effect on increasing the level of the cognitive and affective components of empathy in students – future teachers.

2. Find out whether the intervention empathy development programme had an effect on decreasing personal distress in students – future teachers.

3. Compare the level of individual variables in the experimental and the control groups after carrying out the intervention programme “E” – empathy development programme.

4. Find out what the stability of changes, if any, in individual variables would be like after 5 months from the intervention programme “E” – empathy development programme.

**Methods**

The methodology of the experimental-verification research is based on the so-called comparative strategy. We used the design with one experimental group – comparison in time (level of abilities or performance before and after the research) and group-to-group experimental design with two groups – comparison of the experimental and the control groups.

Increase in the level of abilities and performance is indicated by comparison of the level of abilities or performance at the time horizon before and after the
intervention programme, as well as statistic testing of differences, if any, for sign-
nificance, using the pair t-test (sequential experiment).

The increase in the level of abilities and performance is indicated also by
comparison of the level of abilities or performance in the experimental and the
control groups after the intervention programme, as well as statistic testing of
differences, if any, for significance with the use of the t-test for two independent
samples (parallel experiment).

**Participants**

Due to the complexity of technical provisions for the intervention programme,
the research sample was limited to 41 respondents in the experimental group and
82 respondents in the control group. The experimental group included 7 male
respondents and the control group 12 male respondents.

The experimental group and the control group consisted of students of the 2nd
and 3rd year of study at the Faculty of Education and Faculty of Humanities of
Mathias Bel University in Banská Bystrica, with study programmes in general
education subjects teaching, while the students of the control group did not attend
any intervention prosocial programme during our tested intervention programme.

**Instruments**

In terms of our research aim formulation, the research tool Interpersonal Reac-
tivity Index – IRI (Davis, M.H., 1996) was chosen. The scale consists of 28 items
divided into 4 sub-scales of 7 items each, as follows:

1. Subscale of Empathic Concern (EC) – measuring the feelings of compas-
   sion, cordiality, sympathy and concern for unfortunate others.
2. Subscale of Perspective Taking (PT) – measuring the tendency to take
   points of view of others based on non-egocentric thinking; it measures the
cognitive component of empathy.
3. Subscale of Personal Distress (PD) – measuring the tendency to self-focused
   feelings of apprehension, discomfort at witnessing others experiencing crisis
   situations.
4. Subscale of Fantasy (FS) – measuring the tendency to transpose oneself
   imaginatively into feelings and actions of fictitious characters in books,
   films and to perceive their situation.
All four subscales have sufficient internal and re-test reliability (internal reliability range is from 0.71 to 0.77; retest reliability ranges from 0.62 to 0.71).

**Results**

Collected data were processed by means of the statistical programme SPSS. The following statistical methods were used: descriptive analysis of data, the Mann-Whitney U-test (Wilcoxon Test – non-parametric version of the pair t-test for comparison of two independent samples in repeated measurement).

A. Results of research findings for the components of Empathic Concern and Perspective Taking

**Table 1. Basic descriptive indicators of three measurements of the EC and PT levels in the experimental and the control groups**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>Group</th>
<th>n</th>
<th>M</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>AM</th>
<th>EC1</th>
<th>EC2</th>
<th>EC3</th>
<th>PT1</th>
<th>PT2</th>
<th>PT3</th>
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<td></td>
<td>Experimental</td>
<td>41</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>2.036</td>
<td>11.83</td>
<td>17.93</td>
<td>17.83</td>
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<td>17.44</td>
<td>17.1</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Control</td>
<td>82</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>1.476</td>
<td>11.52</td>
<td>11.68</td>
<td>11.67</td>
<td>11.71</td>
<td>11.72</td>
<td>11.62</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Legend: EC factor – Emotional Concern, PT factor – Perspective Taking

**Table 2. Significance of differences in the EC and PT levels between the experimental and the control groups**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>Group</th>
<th>n</th>
<th>M</th>
<th>Mann-Whitney U value</th>
<th>p</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>EC1</td>
<td>Experimental</td>
<td>41</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>1525.500</td>
<td>.393</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Control</td>
<td>82</td>
<td>12</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table 3. Significance of differences in the variables EC and PT in the experimental group by Wilcoxon testing

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Group</th>
<th>M</th>
<th>AM</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>Z</th>
<th>p</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>EC pre</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>11.83</td>
<td>2.036</td>
<td>-5.61</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>EC post1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>17.93</td>
<td>1.555</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>EC pre</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>11.83</td>
<td>2.036</td>
<td>-5.618</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>EC post2</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>17.83</td>
<td>1.58</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Legend: EC – Emotional Concern pretest, PT1 – Perspective Taking pretest, EC2 – Emotional Concern first posttest immediately after the programme, PT2 – Perspective Taking first posttest immediately after the programme, EC3 – Emotional Concern second posttest 5 months after the programme, PT3 – Perspective Taking second posttest 5 months after the programme.

Based on the Mann-Whitney test results, it can be stated that the difference between the experimental group and the control group, manifested by the change in the Emotional Concern (EC) subscale level and by the change in the Perspective Taking (PT) subscale level in the first posttest (after termination of the intervention programme) proved to be statistically significant at the significance level of $p < 0.001$ and in the third measurement (5 months after termination of the intervention programme) at the significance level of $p < 0.001$. We made sure that the control group and the experimental group did not differ significantly after the first measurement (in the pretest) of the Emotional Concern subscale (before the intervention programme), since $p = 0.393$, i.e., $p > 0.05$. Also, the control group and the experimental group did not differ significantly after the first measurement (in the pretest) of the Perspective Taking subscale, since $p = 0.317$, i.e., $p > 0.05$, which we perceive as a positive indicator.
Based on the Mann-Whitney test results it can be stated that the difference in the experimental group in the second measurement, i.e., in the first posttest (after termination of the intervention programme), manifested by the change in the Emotional Concern (EC) subscale level and the change in the Perspective Taking (PT) subscale level proved to be statistically significant at the significance level of $p < 0.001$ and in the third measurement (5 months after termination of the intervention programme) at the significance level of $p < 0.001$.

**Table 4.** Significance of differences in the variables EC and PT in the control group in the pretest and posttests by Wilcoxon testing

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Group</th>
<th>M</th>
<th>AM</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>Z</th>
<th>p</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>EC pre</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>11.52</td>
<td>1.476</td>
<td>-1.555</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>EC post1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>11.68</td>
<td>1.404</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>EC pre</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>11.52</td>
<td>1.476</td>
<td>-1.61</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>EC post2</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>11.67</td>
<td>1.352</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>EC post1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>11.68</td>
<td>1.404</td>
<td>-0.173</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>EC post2</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>11.67</td>
<td>1.352</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PT pre</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>11.71</td>
<td>1.511</td>
<td>-0.133</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PT post1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>11.72</td>
<td>1.443</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PT pre</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>11.71</td>
<td>1.511</td>
<td>-0.929</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PT post2</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>11.62</td>
<td>1.376</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Legend: 1 – experimental group, n = 41, pretest, posttest after the programmes, post2 – posttest 5 months after the programme
Possibilities of Targeted Development of Empathy

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>M</th>
<th>AM</th>
<th>AD</th>
<th>Z</th>
<th>P</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>PT post1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>11.72</td>
<td>1.443</td>
<td>-1.706</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PT post2</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>11.62</td>
<td>1.376</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Legend: 2 – control group, n = 82, EC – Emotional Concern, PT – Perspective Taking

There were no significant changes in the control group between the first measurement (pretest) and the second measurement (posttest 1) of Emotional Concern (EC), $p = 0.109$, i.e., $p > 0.05$, as well as no significant changes between the second (posttest 1) and the third measurement (posttest 2), since $p = 0.951$, i.e., $p > 0.05$, and no significant changes between the first (pretest) and the third measurement (posttest 2), $p = 0.095$, i.e., $p > 0.05$.

No significant changes were recorded also for the Perspective Taking variable (PT) in the control group, between individual measurements; $p = 0.913$, i.e., $p > 0.05$ between the first and the second measurement; and $p = 0.134$, i.e., $p > 0.05$ between the second and the third measurements; and $p = 0.382$ between the first and the third measurements.

B. Results of research in the components of the “Personal Distress” (PD) subscale and the “Fantasy” (FS) subscale

Table 5. Statistic description of the FS and PD levels in the pretest and posttests in the experimental group and the control group

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Group</th>
<th>FS1</th>
<th>FS2</th>
<th>FS3</th>
<th>PD1</th>
<th>PD2</th>
<th>PD3</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Experimental</td>
<td>M</td>
<td>12.49</td>
<td>15.73</td>
<td>15.41</td>
<td>14.05</td>
<td>9.68</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>N</td>
<td>41</td>
<td>41</td>
<td>41</td>
<td>41</td>
<td>41</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>SD</td>
<td>1.791</td>
<td>1.582</td>
<td>1.565</td>
<td>2.449</td>
<td>1.877</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>MD</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Maximum</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>17</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Minimum</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Control</td>
<td>M</td>
<td>11.84</td>
<td>11.79</td>
<td>11.71</td>
<td>12.99</td>
<td>12.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>n</td>
<td>82</td>
<td>82</td>
<td>82</td>
<td>82</td>
<td>82</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>SD</td>
<td>1.895</td>
<td>1.81</td>
<td>1.842</td>
<td>2.831</td>
<td>2.748</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>MD</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>12</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Legend: FS – Fantasy factor, PD – Personal Distress factor
Table 6. Significance of differences in the level of the FS and PD subscale variables between the experimental and control groups

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>Group</th>
<th>n</th>
<th>M</th>
<th>Mann-Whitney</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>U value</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FS1</td>
<td>Experimental</td>
<td>41</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>1347.500</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Control</td>
<td>82</td>
<td>12</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FS2</td>
<td>Experimental</td>
<td>41</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>208</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Control</td>
<td>82</td>
<td>12</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FS3</td>
<td>Experimental</td>
<td>41</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>261.500</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Control</td>
<td>82</td>
<td>12</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PD1</td>
<td>Experimental</td>
<td>41</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>1248.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Control</td>
<td>82</td>
<td>12</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PD2</td>
<td>Experimental</td>
<td>41</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>545.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Control</td>
<td>82</td>
<td>12</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PD3</td>
<td>Experimental</td>
<td>41</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>589.500</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Control</td>
<td>82</td>
<td>12</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Based on the Mann-Whitney test results, it can be stated that the difference manifested by the change in the Fantasy (FS) subscale level in the first posttest after termination of the intervention programme proved to be statistically significant at the significance level of p < 0.001, and in the third measurement, i.e., in the second posttest 5 months after termination of the intervention programme at the significance level of p < 0.001.

In the pretest before the intervention programme, the control and experimental groups did not differ significantly in the Fantasy (FS) subscale: p = 0.067, i.e., p > 0.05. There was a statistically significant difference between the control and the experimental groups in the Personal Distress subscale before the intervention programme, i.e., in the pretest, since p = 0.019, i.e., p > 0.05, which we perceive as a positive indicator. This can be explained also by the fact that Personal Distress is a subscale that is easily influenced by the respondents’ momentary situation, by momentary distress; persons experiencing difficult stress situations could be precisely in the experimental group, experiencing “distress” at that very moment, however from the point of view of our testing of the experiment we can say that it was the experimental group where a higher value of the Personal Distress (PD) subscale was recorded, which was a great challenge for us to teach the students to adequately process and eliminate their negative emotions connected with distress.
The results of data analysis by Wilcoxon testing, as seen in Table 7, show that significant differences were found in the experimental group between the pretest and the first posttest (before and after the intervention programme), i.e., $p < 0.001$, as well as between the pretest and the second posttest (before and 5 months after the intervention programme), i.e., $p < 0.001$ in both studied variables, the Fantasy (FS) and Personal Distress subscales. Significant changes were found in the Fantasy subscale between individual posttests, since $p = 0.001$, i.e., $p < 0.05$; it was a change in time, which, however, we perceive and interpret as natural. Some differences were found also in the Personal Distress (PD) subscale between individual posttests, since $p = 0.010$, i.e., $p < 0.05$.

No significant changes were found in the control group between individual measurements of the Fantasy (FS) subscale, i.e., no significant differences manifested either between the first measurement (pretest) and the second measurement (posttest 1), $p = 0.605$, i.e., $p < 0.05$, nor were there any significant changes between the second (posttest 1) and the third measurement (posttest 2), since $p = 0.066$, i.e., $p < 0.05$. Also, there were no significant changes between the pretest and the second measurement (posttest 2), $p = 0.197$, i.e., $p < 0.05$. 

### Table 7. Significance of differences in the FS and PD subscale variables in the experimental group in the pretest and posttests by Wilcoxon testing

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Group</th>
<th>M</th>
<th>AM</th>
<th>AD</th>
<th>Z</th>
<th>p</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>FS pre</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>12.49</td>
<td>1.791</td>
<td>-5.267</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FS post1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>15.73</td>
<td>1.582</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FS pre</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>12.49</td>
<td>1.791</td>
<td>-5.285</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FS post2</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>15.41</td>
<td>1.565</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FS post1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>15.73</td>
<td>1.582</td>
<td>-3.357</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FS post2</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>15.41</td>
<td>1.565</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PD pre</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>14.05</td>
<td>2.449</td>
<td>-5.257</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PD post1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>9.68</td>
<td>1.877</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PD pre</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>14.05</td>
<td>2.449</td>
<td>-5.19</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PD post2</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>9.93</td>
<td>2.005</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PD post1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>9.68</td>
<td>1.877</td>
<td>-2.637</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PD post2</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>9.93</td>
<td>2.005</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Legend: 1 – experimental group, n = 41
The Personal Distress variable recorded no significant changes between individual posttests, \( p = 0.326 \), i.e., \( p < 0.05 \), however, significant changes were found between the pretest and the first measurement, as well as between the pretest and the second measurement, since \( p = 0.000 \), i.e., \( p < 0.001 \). We explain it by the fact that the Personal Distress factor is a specific variable and it is influenced by a whole range of extrinsic and intrinsic factors, in our view its fluctuation in time is acceptable (momentary situation, persistent traumatic experiences, health condition, momentary psychological condition, etc.).

We found statistically significant differences in the individual measurements of the Fantasy (FS) as well as Personal Distress (PD) subscale levels in the experimental group. The significant changes showed stability in time even 5 months after the intervention programme.

**Discussion**

Our research task was to test the effectiveness of our intervention programme “E” – empathy development programme, in an experimental group of students – future teachers.

Although some studies in the field of social work or nursing state either zero and some even negative effect of training programmes on the level of empathy (e.g., LaMonica, Wolf et al., 1987, Vinton and Harrington, 1994), or they speak about a minimum positive effect of training programmes on the level of empathy (Corcoran, 1982, Herbek and Yammarino, 1990), we can state, based on the data analysis results of the experimental group participating in experiential intervention and the group not participating in any intervention programme during testing, desirable significant changes in the level of all four variables, in terms of an increase in the level of emotional empathy (EC), in terms of an increase in the cognitive component of empathy (PT), as well as in terms of an increase in the “Fantasy” (FS) factor and in terms of the reduction of the Personal Distress (PD) factor in the experimental group.

S.L. Hatcher et al. (Hatcher, Nadeau, Wahl, 1994) administered M.H. Davis’s Interpersonal Reactivity Index questionnaire to 104 high school and college students before taking part in a Rogerian course of peer-counselling skills and after its termination. During the training in 7 smaller groups, the students were solving identical model situations to develop their empathic skills.

According M.H. Davis (1983), the Emotional Concern (EC) subscale, Perspective Taking (PT) subscale and Fantasy (FS) subscale increase with age, whereas
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the Personal Distress (PD) subscale decreases with age under the influence of personal maturity. The students’ score in the Emotional Concern (EC) subscale, Perspective Taking (PT) subscale as well as the so-called average empathic score increased statistically significantly after the completion of the Rogerian training. Therefore, the authors of the study could verify the hypothesis that students’ empathy can improve by training. The Personal Distress score did not change after the training. It was also proved that college students increased their empathy through the empathy training more significantly than high school students. P.I. Erera compared a cognition – oriented empathy training programme and an emotion-oriented empathy training programme for helping professionals, carried out with 51 social work students working with clients during their practical training. The empathy-oriented programme conducted by a supervisor with real clients was focused mainly on a thorough and accurate cognitive understanding of their problems. The students constructed cognitive hypotheses based on clients’ statements and verified them subsequently with the help of the supervisor. On the other hand, the emotion-oriented training programme emphasized and put emotional experiences in the first place in student-client conversations, while the supervisor’s feedback was more individualized. The author did not find any statistically significant differences in emotional empathy outcomes before the beginning and after termination of the empathic training forms, however, she was of the opinion that the qualitative analysis of the students’ and the supervisor’s statements suggested that their empathy had increased.

Although the intervention programme we had developed and verified was effective in the studied variables, we are aware that conclusions of any research should be objectively assessed in the context of various research limitations.

The following is specification of limitations in our research:

1. Due to the complexity of technical provisions for the intervention programme, the limited number of students in the training group, the research sample was limited to 41 respondents in the experimental group.

2. The so-called self-report approach, based on subjectivity, misrepresented self-reporting items in questionnaires measuring tendencies to empathic behaviour.

The methodological limitations of the research can be overcome only by follow-up research correcting and expanding the obtained research results.
References
Abstract
Teacher motivation plays an important role in the success of education, which is influenced by many factors. Therefore, this article examines how gender, tenure, and level of education influence teacher motivation. Data were collected with the use of questionnaires of 135 Indonesian teacher respondents, in-dept interviews, and observations. Numeric data were analyzed by means of Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS analysis). The research showed that male teachers are more motivated than female teachers. Junior teachers have a higher motivation than senior teachers. Teachers with a bachelor’s degree are more motivated than teachers with a master’s degree.

Keywords: teacher motivation, gender, tenure, level of education

Introduction
Teachers play a crucial role in the success of every educational policy initiative, yet in the most parts of the world, they are poorly motivated and have low identity (Agezo, 2010; Cogneau, 2003; Ololube, 2006). Teachers can engage in many metacognitive and cognitive activities that are relevant to guiding students’ learning (Duffy et al., 2009). Studies show that improvement in teacher motivation has benefits for students as well as for teachers themselves. Dolton and Marcenaro (2011) observe that countries with poor records of teacher motivation have low teacher performance leading to poor educational outcomes. Teachers deal with
many ethical problems in their practice, they encounter issues such as inappropriate allocation of resources, the situations in which pupils are being discussed inappropriately, and irresponsible colleagues (Husu et al., 2007; Shapira et al., 2009).

Motivation may mean different things to different people. Velez (2007) conceptualizes motivation as an inspiration or encouragement of a person to do his or her best. Snowman et al. (2008) define motivation as the forces that lead to the arousal, selection, direction, and continuation of behavior, where teacher motivation is a concept that assists us in understanding why teachers behave the way they do. Motivation is the “internal desires for personal and professional development and working in educational settings” (Claeys, 2011, p.4; Bennell and Akyeampong, 2007). Teacher motivation for work can be interpreted as a mental boost in the teacher to do his/her job.

Bennell (2004) says that teacher motivation is similar to all the psychological processes that influence teachers’ behavior towards the achievement of educational goals and yet these psychological processes cannot be observed directly due to many organizational and environmental challenges that affect the achievement of educational goals. High levels of job dissatisfaction, stress, and burnout can negatively influence motivation, cognition, and job performance (Dai et al., 2004).

In Indonesia, carrying out their tasks in a professional way, teachers are obliged to develop the learning plan, implement quality teaching, as well as assess and evaluate learning outcomes. Sardiman (2011) says that the teacher plays many different roles, e.g., of an informant, organizer, motivator, initiator, transmitter, facilitator, mediator, and assessor. It can be seen that the teacher adopts many roles that must be played simultaneously. The teacher in at-risk conditions can re-motivate himself with three principles-managing emotion counters: emotional exhaustion, joining communities’ counters depersonalization, and boosting efficacy counters in case of low personal accomplishment (Falout, 2010). Dörnyei (2005) emphasized how substantially teacher motivation influences student motivation and learning achievement.

Indonesia is working hard to improve the quality of teaching. Teacher competence test held by the Ministry of Education in 2015 reported that the average teacher score was 48.94. This score was under the minimum score of 55 (scale 100). It indicates that teacher motivation is still at a low level. There are many factors that influence teacher motivation. The research analyzed three factors: gender, tenure, and level of education. Bugler, McGeown and St Clair-Thomson (2015) reported that academic motivation is influenced by gender. Tenure also affects academic assessment (Filetti, Wright, & King, 2010). The level of education
Teacher Motivation Based on Gender, Tenure and Level of Education

holds a great promise for improving teachers’ professional motivation (Iliya, & Ifeoma, 2015). Therefore, this article examines how gender, tenure, and level of education influence teacher motivation.

**Research Problem**

The problem of this research is the effect of teacher motivation.

**Research Focus**

The focus of this research is to assess the factors of gender, tenure, and level of education influencing teacher motivation.

**Research Methodology**

**Research General Background**

There are two main factors affecting teacher motivation, namely extrinsic and intrinsic factors. Intrinsic factors are those which come from within a person, whereas extrinsic motivation factors are those which are determined basically by the level and type of external rewards that are available (Bennell and Akyeampong, 2007). Johnson et al. (2005), Salifu et al. (2013) point out that the extrinsic factors affecting teacher motivation are many categories, namely: attractive remuneration, student discipline, good working conditions, favorable educational policies and high occupational status.

**Research Sample**

The sample of this research consisted of 135 teachers (75 females, 60 males) in 20 Surakarta School (junior high school). The teachers participating in this study work in schools varying in size, type (state school/religious state school), level of education (Bachelor’s and Master’s), and the teachers’ age ranged from 23 to 55. In addition, the teachers were from different fields of science and the average teaching experience was 20.54 years (SD = 10.51). 16 teachers were interviewed and observed to validate the data.
**Instrument and Procedures**

Numeric data were collected using a questionnaire regarding the teachers’ motivation in performing their professional duties, which consisted of 15 questions, namely: completion of teaching according to the syllabus, doing the work not only for its own sake, carrying out the assigned tasks, solving problems as well as possible, trying to improve competence and knowledge, developing teaching methods, presenting work on time, starting classes on time, following the activities of others in a timely manner, obeying all the rules, obeying the instruction leadership, carrying out duties in accordance with procedures, establishing good relationships with colleagues, helping other teachers experiencing difficulties, and expressing criticism for the good of the institution. The questionnaire provided four kinds of options, i.e.: always (4), frequently (3), sometimes (2), and never (1). In-depth interviews and observations were carried out based on the questionnaire to strengthen and validate the findings.

**Data Analysis**

Numeric data were analyzed by means of Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS analysis). In the research, SPSS was used to assess the extent of teacher motivation in carrying out duties as professionals. Based on the analysis of data obtained from the 15 motivation indicators, it was found that there were 10 valid and 5 invalid indicators, because the meaning of the last was below 0.3338 (N = 135), namely completion of teaching according to the syllabus, presenting work on time, starting classes on time, following the activities of others in a timely manner, obeying the instruction leadership. Based on reliability analysis, 10 indicators of motivation were included in the overall validation of reliable criteria with the value of Cronbach's alpha = 0.822. The hypotheses of the study were formulated as follows:

- **H1:** Motivation between male and female teachers will differ significantly.
- **H2:** Motivation between senior and junior teachers will differ significantly.
- **H3:** Motivation between bachelor and master degree teachers will differ significantly.

The SPSS analysis was validated and strengthened by interactive data analysis of Miles & Huberman (1984). Interactive data analysis consists of four cycle steps: data collection, data reduction, data display, and conclusions. Data collection was
Teacher Motivation Based on Gender, Tenure and Level of Education

Carried out by interviews and observation of the teachers. Data reduction was the process of selecting, focusing, simplifying, abstracting, and transforming the ‘raw’ data that appeared in written-up field notes. Data reduction was done continuously throughout any qualitatively-oriented project. Data reduction was part of analysis. The ‘display’ was an organized assembly of information that allowed for conclusion drawing and action. The last step of the analysis activity was conclusion drawing and verification.

**Research Results**

Results showed that teacher motivation was very high (84.93 %), with an average value of 3.971 (SD=0.32402). Table 1 shows a comparison of means of 10 motivation indicators, where establishing good relationships with colleagues is the highest indicator and expressing criticism for the good of the institution scores the smallest value.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Table 1. Teacher motivation in each criterion</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Std. Dev</th>
<th>Std. Error Mean</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Doing the work not only for its own sake</td>
<td>3.49</td>
<td>.507</td>
<td>.086</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Carrying out the assigned tasks</td>
<td>3.80</td>
<td>.406</td>
<td>.069</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Solving problems as well as possible</td>
<td>3.51</td>
<td>.507</td>
<td>.086</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Trying to improve competence and knowledge</td>
<td>3.40</td>
<td>.604</td>
<td>.102</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Developing teaching methods</td>
<td>2.74</td>
<td>.443</td>
<td>.075</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Obeying all the rules</td>
<td>3.69</td>
<td>.530</td>
<td>.090</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Carrying out duties in accordance with procedures</td>
<td>3.74</td>
<td>.443</td>
<td>.075</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Establishing good relationships with colleagues</td>
<td>3.83</td>
<td>.382</td>
<td>.065</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Helping other teachers experiencing difficulties</td>
<td>3.11</td>
<td>.583</td>
<td>.098</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Expressing criticism for the good of the institution</td>
<td>2.66</td>
<td>.725</td>
<td>.123</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Table 2. Teacher motivation based on gender</th>
<th>Gender</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Std. Dev</th>
<th>Std. Error Mean</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Motivation</td>
<td>M</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>3.4625</td>
<td>.25788</td>
<td>.06447</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>F</td>
<td>75</td>
<td>3.3421</td>
<td>.36865</td>
<td>.08458</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 2 presents teacher motivation based on gender, where the average values of the male teachers’ motivation are higher than those of the female teachers. Interviews showed that the female teachers had undertaken the job only to help
their husbands to meet the needs of their families. Therefore, the female teachers’ motivation is lower than the male teachers’. In contrast, the male teachers consider themselves as the leader of their families so they need to increase their motivation to make a better career.

Analysis of the teachers’ motivation based on the average number of years in the teaching profession is shown in Table 3. The average number of years in the teaching profession is divided into two parts: ≥ 25 years (senior teachers) and < 25 years (junior teachers). The results showed that the motivation value of the teachers with tenure ≥ 25 years was smaller than that of the teachers working < 25 years.

Table 3. Teacher motivation based on tenure (≥ 25 years and < 25 years)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Tenure</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Std. Deviation</th>
<th>Std. Error Mean</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Motivation</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>≥25</td>
<td>83</td>
<td>3.3000</td>
<td>.35949</td>
<td>.09608</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>&lt;25</td>
<td>52</td>
<td>3.4619</td>
<td>.28892</td>
<td>.06305</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Interviews and observations showed that the senior teachers, with tenure more than 25 years, had decreased motivation. Senior teachers generally have less passion in following various capacity building activities. Even some teachers prefer to wait for retirement rather than joining capacity building. In contrast, the teachers with tenure of less than 25 years have higher motivation. They have greater hope and motivation to improve their careers.

Table 4 shows the teachers’ motivation based on education, where the average motivation of the teachers with undergraduate education is higher than that of the teachers with a master’s degree. This is a unique finding. The teachers with a bachelor’s degree have higher motivation than the teachers holding a master’s degree. Observations show that the teachers with a master’s degree generally feel that they have enough knowledge, so they feel no need to follow the capacity building program.

Table 4. Teacher motivation based on education

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Education</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Std. Devn.</th>
<th>Std. Error Mean</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Motivation</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bachelor’s</td>
<td>102</td>
<td>3.4138</td>
<td>.26420</td>
<td>.04906</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Master’s</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>3.3167</td>
<td>.56006</td>
<td>.22864</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Discussion

Results of the research on the motivation of junior high school teachers in the city of Surakarta showed that the average number of teachers is motivated in carrying out their duties as professionals. This can be explained by the fact that teachers feel a huge responsibility towards their job. Besides, concern for young people is also a factor that affects the intrinsic motivation of teachers, such as a sense of love towards children, aspiration to contribute to citizens. William and Forgasz (2009) concluded that factors such as a desire to work with children, the desire to contribute to society, and the belief in possession of teacher attributes were more important than extrinsic factors in the participants’ decision to become teachers. Furthermore, Chaterine (2008) found that altruistic factors such as the desire to work with children, provision of intellectual stimulation by teaching, “calling” to teach, love of teaching, perceived easy nature of teaching work, and the desire for a career change were responsible for the participants’ motivation in their teaching profession.

Results of the analysis also showed that the indicator of motivation that has the greatest value is to maintain good relationships with colleagues. This suggests that a conducive work environment strongly supports the activities of teachers in schools. Salifu (2013) states that teachers’ working conditions may be explained as the needed atmosphere created for teachers in the work place to motivate them to better performance. When teachers have conducive working environments such as light workload in terms of class size and number of teaching hours, good relationships among themselves and with students and good leadership from principals, they are likely to be motivated and have job satisfaction (Adelabu, 2005; Bennell, 2004; Mathew, 2005). Teachers can collaborate to mentor each other, modeling the behaviors and values that lead to professional success (Hooker, et al., 2003; Park, et al., 2007). Maintaining good relationships with colleagues is also a form of ethical knowledge of the teacher.

Ethical knowledge is about an introduction into values and morality, to give teachers an understanding of how to relate to other people, together with the ability to apply the values and rules intelligently (Aspin, 2000; Thornberg, 2008). According to Taylor (1994), ethical knowledge may encourage exploration of choices and commitment to responsibilities and develop value preferences and an orientation to guide attitudes and behavior. A mutual goal can simply mean enjoying a pleasant day, with daily greetings, respectful language, and polite demeanor contributing immensely toward a cooperative environment (Falout, 2010).
Indicators of expressing criticism have the smallest average value because teachers sometimes feel awkward or embarrassed to give feedback or express criticism of the institution. The teachers who participated in this study worked in the city of Surakarta, they had a culture that was very smooth. Javanese people are very delicate, gentle, and humble, not seeking conflict. They believe that expressing criticism of a person or institution requires consideration, adopting language that does not hurt the receiver’s feelings. Budi (2011) states that the dominant character that is positive is that Javanese people’s actions tend to be smooth, using “unggah – ungguh” (manners), based on the spirit of brotherhood and tolerance, as described in the proverb “tepo seliro” (mutual respect) and the Javanese like stating everything in an indirect manner, as revealed by the proverb: “wong Jowo ngone semu, sinamun ing samudana, sesadane ingadu manis” (Javanese tend to be veiled, full of symbols). That is why the indicator of the motivation of teachers to express criticism has the smallest value.

Based on gender, the average value of the male teachers’ motivation is higher than that of the female teachers. This is understandable because men have a tendency to be more active than women. In women’s own culture it is still considered positive not to have motivation. As in the division of gender roles, girls are focused more on the domestic, reproductive, feminine roles and if they do professional work, they are not the main breadwinner, but a secondary earner, while boys are concentrated on the productive, public, masculine roles and being the main breadwinner (Fakih, 1997). According Purwadi (2000:147), the image of a woman is not only shaped by the views of the local culture, but also by the views based on the doctrine of Christian theology, especially according to textual understanding. Women report lower overall levels of satisfaction. If women have bigger responsibility at home, this may also contribute to decreased levels of job satisfaction for those who bear the dual pressure of home and work (Bishay, 1996). In contrast, research findings (Ghana National Association of Teachers & Teachers and Education Workers Union of Trade Union Congress, 2009; Smithers & Robinson, 2003) show that females are more likely to be intrinsically motivated to stay in the profession than men.

Considering teacher motivation based on years of work in the teaching profession, junior teachers are more motivated than senior teachers because junior teachers are still eager and their knowledge is still new comparing to senior teachers. Junior teachers always try to show their ability in developing teaching methods in class or express constructive criticism of the institution. The overall motivation indicator shows that the average score of the young teachers is higher than that of the senior teachers. Lindeman (Knowles, 1990) revealed that young
adults are always motivated to learn in accordance with the need for experience and interests that learning will be satisfying so that they begin to organize learning activities. In accordance with a study conducted in the United States, Johnson et al. (2005) state that younger teachers, especially those under thirty, are least likely to remain in their schools.

When considering teacher motivation from the point of view of education, the teachers in the city Surakarta with a master's degree have higher motivation than the teachers with a bachelor's degree. The cause is a mismatch between what they think and reality. Michelowa (2002) is of the opinion that teachers with a very high educational attainment are generally less satisfied and less motivated in their job and prefer to leave. As she observed, “teachers with a high level of education face a mismatch between their professional expectation and reality”.

**Conclusions**

Based on the results of this study, the teachers' motivation is very high in Surakarta City, Indonesia, where the male teachers are more motivated than the female teachers. Moreover, junior teachers have higher motivation than senior teachers and teachers with a bachelor's degree are more motivated in carrying out their professional duties than those with a master's degree.

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Teacher Motivation Based on Gender, Tenure and Level of Education


Abstract
The purpose of this study was to determine student perceptions of science teacher communication behavior in the classroom environment in Jordan. A total of 1,093 participants in the study completed the Teacher Communication Behavior Questionnaire (TCBQ). Results indicated the overall mean of teacher communication behavior to be 3.9 and showed statistically significant differences in gender perceptions on all five scales of the TCBQ. Results also showed statistically significant differences in student perceptions of teacher behavior in biology, physics and mathematics classes on all five scales of the teacher communication behavior.

Keywords: teacher communication, student perceptions, gender differences, subject differences

Introduction
Good and Brophy’s study (1991), commenting on the rapidly occurring classroom interactions between the teacher and students, indicated that in a single day secondary school teachers may be interacting with as many as 150 different students. It is not surprising, therefore, to find that in general, teachers are unaware or unable to remember or describe what happens in these teacher-student interactions. After conducting interviews with teachers, the researchers confirmed that
teachers were not only unaware of the number of questions they had asked their students, but were also unable to remember the kind of feedback they provided. Thus, identifying and recording teacher-student interactions could be beneficial to classroom teaching.

Regarding the study of teacher-student relationships as part of the broad research area of classroom learning environments, research has predominantly been based on the work of Wubbels (Wubbels & Brekelmans, 2005; Wubbels & Levy, 1991; Wubbels, Levy & Brekelmans, 1997), while Watzlawick, Beavin & Jackson (1991) noted that Wubbels’ interest in teacher-student relationships was from the systems theory perspective. The systems theory highlights the links between a group of people and response/reaction mechanisms by which they are mutually influenced.

Since a system is influenced by change in one aspect causing changes in other aspects, social situations are defined as systems. Therefore, the systems perspective in the education environment tempers a non-unidirectional teacher-student relationship whereby the behaviors of each exert a mutual effect, partially determining and being determined by the other.

Using classroom learning environment dimensions as independent variables (e.g., type of school, grade level, size of class, and subject matter) researchers have studied a wide range of varied classroom environments.

In Asia, for example, the most widely studied effect is that of student gender (Fraser, 2002), results indicating that girls tend to perceive their learning environments more positively than boys (a). While the results of the studies by Fraser, Giddings & McRobbie (1995); Khine & Fisher (2003); and She & Fisher (2002) illustrated higher levels for encouragement and praise (b). Frumkin (2006) and Frumkin & Murphy (2007) report more positive perceptions of all of the five TCBQ factors (c). The results of the studies by Özay, Kaya & Sezek (2004); Yilmaz Tüzün (2006) showed student perception of their teachers as giving more encouragement and praise, being more understanding, and exhibiting more friendliness (d).

The discrepancy in student gender perceptions of teachers is clearly illustrated in a study by Yilmaz Tüzün (2006), showing sharply contrasting results with male students describing their teachers as controlling.

According to Fraser (2002), evidence of positive associations was found between students’ cognitive learning outcomes and classroom learning environment perceptions, with subject matter, as expected, playing an important role in influencing student perceptions. These results are commented on by Özay et al. (2004); She (1998); She & Fisher (2002), reasoning that the more positive perception of biology teachers as opposed to those teaching physics may be explained by the commonly
held view that not only is biology considered an easier subject than physics, but it is generally being taught in a less strictly traditional way.

As stated by Fisher & Rickards (1997) and Wubbels & Lev (1993), student learning is influenced by the effect of mutual behavioral impact between science teachers and students, as is the case with teachers of other courses. Realizing the necessity of helping teachers to regulate their classroom behaviors and exert the necessary effort in creating a favorable and learning-conducive classroom environment, She and Fisher (2000) developed the Teacher Communication Behavior Questionnaire (TCBQ), designed to measure student perceptions of classroom communication patterns.

Walberg (1984) noted that student achievement was impacted on by teacher behavior, while a study by Van Tartwijk (1993) found an important factor not only in teacher verbal behavior, but also in the crucial role of facial expressions which, he concluded, regulated most classroom events. Carlsen (1991), Smith, Blakeslee, & Anderson (1993) came to the conclusion that the most important dimensions in teacher-student communication in the classroom environment were the teacher’s methods of asking questions and their subsequent reaction and response to the student’s answers.

Study Purpose

To my knowledge, no study has attempted to determine student perceptions of science teacher communication behavior in Jordan. The objectives of the presented study were to:

1. Determine student perceptions of science teachers’ communication behaviors.
2. Determine if there are any gender differences in student perceptions of their science teachers’ communication behaviors.
3. Determine if there is any difference in student perceptions of their science teachers’ communication behaviors, relative to the science subject.

Methodology

Participants

The study was conducted between September 5, 2015 and December 20, 2015. Participants were 1,093 male and female students from 33 schools in Al-Zarqa city,
Student Perceptions of Science Teacher Communication Behavior in Jordan

Jordan. Gender distribution: the sample comprised 585 (54%) male and 508 (46%) female students; grade distribution: 376 (34%) 8\textsuperscript{th}, 335 (30%) 9\textsuperscript{th}, and 382 (36%) 10\textsuperscript{th} grade. The average age of the participants was M=15.5, SD= 0.82.

**Instrument**

Teacher Communication Behavior Questionnaire (TCBQ)

The TCBQ was developed by She & Fisher (2002). The questionnaire is composed of 40 items and five scales: challenging (8 items, e.g., this teacher asks questions that require me to use a judgment to answer), encouragement and praise (8 items, e.g., this teacher praises my answers), non-verbal support (8 items), understanding and friendly (8 items, e.g., this teacher cares about me), and controlling (8 items, e.g., this teacher demands that I listen to instructions). The students respond on a 5-point frequency scale: 1= almost never, 2= seldom, 3= sometimes, 4= often, and 5= very often.

For the purpose of the present study, the TCBQ was translated from English to Arabic for use in Jordan, following the back translation procedure. This is a commonly used procedure to evaluate the quality of a translation, a method verified by Harkness & Schoua-Glusberg (1998).

Two faculty members translated the English TCBQ into Arabic and back translations into English were performed independently by two faculty members not involved in the original translation. Based on the results of the back-translation, some modifications were made to the wording of the items in the Arabic version to match more closely the functional meaning of the English version.

In the present study, the reliability coefficient calculated using the Cronbach alpha was found to be 0.84, 0.87, 0.90, 0.89 and 0.83 respectively for challenging, encouragement and praise, non-verbal support, understanding & friendly, and controlling.

**Procedure**

The purpose and procedures for answering the questionnaire were explained to the participants and administered in the normal classroom environment. The participants were instructed to answer all the items on the questionnaire and reminded to maintain orderly behavior during its administration, which would take approximately 25 minutes. The participants were also informed that there were no right or wrong answers and assured that their responses would be kept strictly confidential and used solely for the purpose of the study. Statistical analysis
included descriptive statistics, means and standard deviations, an independent sample t-test was used to determine gender differences in student perceptions of their science teachers’ communication behaviors, while Duncan multiple range tests were used to determine differences between the behaviors of teachers of the different science subjects.

**Results**

The results of the study are addressed by objectives.

**Objective One**

Objective one was to determine the level of student perceptions of science teachers’ communication behaviors. Descriptive statistics, including means and standard deviations, were used to achieve this objective. Analysis of the data in the first questions involved the tabulation of the mean of student perceptions of science teachers’ communication behaviors. The total mean score was calculated based on the students’ responses to each item in the TCBQ using the 5-point Likert-type scale. Thus, the levels of the students’ perceptions were interpreted as follows: below 3=low, 3–4=medium, and over 4=high.

As illustrated in Table 1, the mean for Challenging was 4.02, Encouragement and praise 3.73, non-verbal support 3.76, understanding and friendly 4.15, and controlling 3.92, resulting in an overall mean of 3.91 for teacher communication behavior.

| Table 1. Descriptive statistics Means (M) and Standard Deviations (SD) for all the variables |
|-----------------------------------------------|------|------|
| Teacher communication behavior | 3.91 | 0.65 |
| Challenging | 4.02 | 0.74 |
| Encouragement and praise | 3.73 | 0.86 |
| Non-verbal support | 3.76 | 0.91 |
| Understanding & friendly | 4.15 | 0.86 |
| Controlling | 3.92 | 0.78 |
Objective Two

Objective two was to determine if there were any gender differences in the students’ perceptions of their science teachers’ communication behaviors. The differences in mean scores of each scale item relative to the students’ gender are indicated in Table 2. T-test determined statistically significant differences between the boys’ and girls’ perceptions on all the five scales of the TCBQ.

Table 2. Gender differences in mean scores for each scale item of the TCBQ

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Scale</th>
<th>Male Mean</th>
<th>Male SD</th>
<th>Female Mean</th>
<th>Female SD</th>
<th>t-test</th>
<th>Sig</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Challenging</td>
<td>4.24</td>
<td>0.61</td>
<td>3.75</td>
<td>0.79</td>
<td>11.336</td>
<td>0.00*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Encouragement and praise</td>
<td>3.93</td>
<td>0.69</td>
<td>3.49</td>
<td>0.98</td>
<td>8.532</td>
<td>0.00*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Non-verbal support</td>
<td>3.92</td>
<td>0.79</td>
<td>3.56</td>
<td>1.00</td>
<td>6.558</td>
<td>0.00*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Understanding &amp; friendly</td>
<td>4.41</td>
<td>0.65</td>
<td>3.82</td>
<td>0.96</td>
<td>11.932</td>
<td>0.00*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Controlling</td>
<td>4.08</td>
<td>0.72</td>
<td>3.72</td>
<td>0.80</td>
<td>7.886</td>
<td>0.00*</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Objective Three

Objective three was to determine if there were any differences in the students’ perceptions of communication behaviors between their biology, physics, and mathematics teachers.

As presented in Table 3, statistically significant differences in teacher communication were found between the biology, physics, and mathematics classrooms on all five scales of TCBQ.

Table 3. Duncan multiple range tests of science subject differences in item mean scores for each scale of the TCBQ

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Scale subject</th>
<th>Challenging</th>
<th>Encouragement and praise</th>
<th>Non-verbal support</th>
<th>Understanding &amp; friendly</th>
<th>Controlling</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Biology</td>
<td>4.14a*</td>
<td>3.81b</td>
<td>3.91b</td>
<td>4.30a*</td>
<td>4.02b</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Physics</td>
<td>3.88c</td>
<td>3.54a*</td>
<td>3.60a*</td>
<td>3.90b</td>
<td>3.84a*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mathematics</td>
<td>4.00b*</td>
<td>3.81b</td>
<td>3.72a*</td>
<td>4.19a*</td>
<td>3.87a*</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Discussion

Analysis of the results of the TCBQ administered to a broad sample of 1,093 male and female students from 8th, 9th, and 10th grades in government schools in Jordan showed that the boys perceived their teachers as being more challenging, understanding and friendly, and controlling, as well as giving more encouragement and non-verbal support, than the girls did.

Thus, the boys’ perceptions of teacher communication behaviors were generally more favorable than those of the girls.

These results were contrary to those found by some international studies (Fraser et al., 1995; She & Fisher, 2002; Khine & Fisher, 2003), which showed girls’ perceptions of teacher behavior in the classroom as being more positive than those of boys.

This is an encouraging result from the perspective of the professional development of teachers as well as the availability of effective schooling for learners, which should not be limited by demographic location.

In the presented study, the researcher found that biology teachers were perceived as demonstrating more controlling behavior than physics teachers and thus, since the higher the factor score the more positive the perceptions, the biology students perceived their learning environment more positively than the physics students did. Perceiving the teacher’s behavior as controlling indicates his/her ability to explain rules or instructions clearly and regulate the classroom behavior of the students.

This more positive perception of biology teachers in comparison with physics teachers reiterates the findings of previous international studies including those by Özay et al. (2004) and She & Fisher (2002).

This generalized discrepancy between student perceptions of their biology and physics teachers may possibly be due to the biology syllabus content considered as having greater relevance to the daily lives of students, in addition to the availability of a wider variety of biology teaching methods and resources than those traditionally employed in the physics and mathematics classrooms. The perception of the biology students regarding their classroom environment was therefore more favorable than that of the physics students.

In their study, Wubbels, Brekelmans & Hooymayers (1991) found the most important variable in explaining differences in student appreciation of both physics as a subject and of the lessons being taught at the class level was the communication style of the physics teachers. In view of the importance of this variable, which had frequently been cited in recurrent reports of statistically significant
associations between student perceptions of their learning environment and their affective learning outcomes, it was deemed necessary (Fraser, 1998b) that a study of the associations between student perceptions of their teachers’ behaviors and student attitudes to their classes should be undertaken.

The subsequent development of both teacher and student versions of the TCBQ, therefore, augmented the resource instruments available to teachers, with its use in science classrooms expanding information regarding teacher/student relationships. The information provided by the dual TCBQ can provide the concerned teacher with the means of discovering the meanings of and reasons for differences between the teachers’ and students’ perceptions. By careful examination and reflection on individual student responses, the teacher can reach an understanding of the reasons for them and act accordingly, only in this way will teachers be able to modify their behavior and truly understand the interaction between them and their students.

Using a questionnaire like TCBQ can help identify types of teacher behavior and facilitate improvement, so using this information could help science teachers promote a classroom atmosphere of positive interaction and thereby increase student enthusiasm and improve the level of student learning and achievement in the sciences.

**Recommendations**

Following the results of the present study, the researcher suggests implications for the application of the TCBQ in the following fields: to aid improvement in classroom practices, in personnel development, and in future research. For instance, the TCBQ can be a useful tool in the observation and assessment of teacher classroom skills, while the questionnaire can be used to provide sensitivity training for average and controlling teachers. Using the TCBQ in this way provides a less direct and intrusive method of assessment while providing specific indications of areas needing redress. The identification and implementation of such adjustments should result in an increase in the overall quality of the classroom environment and improve the level of student engagement in the classroom. It is therefore hoped and anticipated that these suggestions may result in the promotion of an atmosphere of positive interaction in the science classrooms and an improvement in student learning.
References


The Relationship between Negative Behaviors of Students with Intellectual Disabilities in Physical Education and Sports Lessons and Teachers’ Burnout Levels

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Abstract
The purpose of this study was to reveal the relationship between the behaviors of students in physical education and sports lessons in Special Education Application Centers in Turkey and the burnout levels of physical education and sports teachers. The sample group of the study comprised 195 physical education and sports teachers who work in Special Education Application Centers. The data gathered from the study group were statistically analyzed using SPSS 18.0 for package software. In conclusion, the obtained findings demonstrated that the physical education and sports teachers in the study group were faced with the reality of burnout.

Keywords: students with intellectual disabilities, student behaviors, physical education and sports teachers, burnout

Introduction
The teaching profession is one of the most stressful professions. The burnout caused by the stress of the profession and the physiological and psychological problems caused by the burnout reduces the quality of teaching (Kyraicou, 1987). When teachers start to experience burnout, they may start to be more authoritative, conflicting, obstructive and controlling. This state may affect their behavior.
both inside and outside of the classroom. Teacher burnout may be exemplified as a negative behavior which develops against the stressful education environment, students, education state and a lack of support from the management (Cemaloğlı & Kayabaşı, 2007; Tümkaya, 1996).

Burnout is the last step of the process of losing the will to work in individuals with high spirits to work. It is observed in individuals who started to work with high spirits, could not achieve the desired success, and experienced physical, emotional and mental exhaustion (Pines, 2003). Every type of behavior which may affect teaching in a negative way is considered as an unwanted behavior (Çelik, 2002).

In Turkey, individuals with intellectual disabilities and autism can continue their education with individuals without disabilities by inclusion of every type and at every level. For these individuals, official and private special education day schools and facilities at every level are being opened (Legislation of the Ministry of National Education, 2016). Special Education Application Centers, which are opened within this framework, are educational facilities in which children with intellectual disabilities, who cannot benefit from the general education programs, progress. These education institutions provide education programs which are mainly focused on basic life skills and functional academic skills (Sucuoğlu, 2010: 44). In Turkey, the purpose of special education provided for individuals with intellectual disabilities is to ensure that these individuals gain the required independent life skills in order to maintain their lives in society without depending on others (Karabulut & Yıkmış, 2010: 104).

Recently, via studies on burnout, it is observed that studies are carried out on work and various jobs (Neilsen & Einarsen, 2012), teachers (Dalgar & Tekşen, 2014; Özgan et al., 2013), healthcare personnel and nurses (Güllüoğlu-Işık, 2015; Akpınar and Barlas, 2015; Sarsılmaz et al., 2015). It is inevitable to experience positive or negative interactions in places where interactive human relations occur. Today, the determination and evaluation of burnout in the teaching profession in the education system are rather crucial. By determining the levels of burnout and elements which cause burnout in teachers, the subject of minimizing the effects of burnout in the teacher is still a researched subject. This study was aimed to reveal the burnout levels of physical education and sports teachers, who work in Special Education Application Centers in Turkey, according to several variables and how the behaviors of students with intellectual disabilities affect the burnout level of physical education and sports teachers. Additionally, it was aimed to contribute to the efforts of improving the qualities in these schools by determining the burnout levels of physical education and sports teachers who work in Special Education Application Centers and behaviors of students with intellectual disabilities.
Research Methodology

The study group comprised 195 physical education and sports teachers who work in Special Education and Application Centers (schools for individuals with intellectual disabilities) in Turkey.

In order to gather data about the study group, a survey form, developed by the researchers, aimed to determine the frequency of the behaviors of students with intellectual disabilities and Maslach Burnout Inventory, developed by Maslach & Jackson (1981), were employed.

In the development of the survey form aimed to determine the frequency of the behaviors of students, the study, which was carried out by Özdemir (2009), was benefited from.

In this study, prior to the factor analyses of the obtained data from MBI, the appropriateness of the factor analysis was tested by using “Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin and Bartlett’s Test of Sphericity” tests. The Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin value was calculated to be 0.76 and Bartlett’s Test of Sphericity result was calculated to be $x^2 = 1253.309$ ($p < 0.05$). In the analysis of the reliability of the scale, the Cronbach Alpha coefficients of sub-dimensions were investigated. The coefficients were determined to be 0.89 in the emotional exhaustion sub-dimension, 0.72 in the depersonalization sub-dimension and 0.77 in the personal failure sub-dimension.

Frequency and percentage calculations were performed in order to demonstrate the distribution of the study group according to professional variables. As for the burnout sub-dimension scores, independent sample t-test and one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) were performed on parametric data in order to evaluate differentiation levels which are dependent on the independent variables. In non-parametric data, Kruscal Wallis and Mann-Whitney U tests were performed. In order to determine correlation levels between the sub-dimensions of the scale, the Pearson Correlation and Linear Regression tests were used. Statistical significance degree (alpha ($\alpha$) error rate) was regarded as $p<0.005$.

Research Results

In accordance with the aim of the study, the obtained findings and results of physical education and sports teachers who work in Special Education Application Centers in Turkey are presented in the tables below.
Table 1. Mean score levels regarding unwanted student behaviors which the study group encountered

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Items</th>
<th>Unwanted Student Behaviors</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>SD</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Speaking without permission</td>
<td>195</td>
<td>3.53</td>
<td>0.86</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Walking around without permission</td>
<td>195</td>
<td>3.12</td>
<td>0.95</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Disturbing other students</td>
<td>195</td>
<td>3.01</td>
<td>0.81</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Speaking in a rude and offending way</td>
<td>195</td>
<td>2.69</td>
<td>0.92</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. Not fulfilling the assigned tasks</td>
<td>195</td>
<td>2.71</td>
<td>0.92</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. Not keeping the surroundings clean</td>
<td>195</td>
<td>2.53</td>
<td>0.88</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. Damaging the belongings of other students and teachers</td>
<td>195</td>
<td>2.53</td>
<td>0.98</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8. Constantly playing with objects</td>
<td>195</td>
<td>2.95</td>
<td>0.98</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9. Acting in a way that disturbs the lesson flow</td>
<td>195</td>
<td>3.04</td>
<td>0.98</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10. Eating something during the lesson</td>
<td>195</td>
<td>2.26</td>
<td>0.84</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11. Being interested in things irrelevant to the lesson</td>
<td>195</td>
<td>3.03</td>
<td>0.86</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12. Constant complaints about other students</td>
<td>195</td>
<td>3.06</td>
<td>0.94</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

SD= Standard Deviation

In the analysis of the opinions of the study group, the complaints with the highest mean scores among the unwanted student behaviors were observed to be “Speaking without permission”, “Walking around without permission”, “Constant complaints about other students” and “Acting in a way that disturbs the lesson flow”. The least amount of complaint was observed to be in the matter of “Eating something during the lesson” (Table 1).

Table 2. Analysis of the results of the study group, according to gender

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Scale</th>
<th>Gender</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>t-Value</th>
<th>p-Value</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Emotional Exhaustion</td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>75</td>
<td>1.48</td>
<td>0.80</td>
<td>3.933</td>
<td>0.000*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>120</td>
<td>1.06</td>
<td>0.60</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Depersonalization</td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>75</td>
<td>0.84</td>
<td>0.77</td>
<td>-0.048</td>
<td>0.962</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>120</td>
<td>0.84</td>
<td>0.58</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Personal Failure</td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>75</td>
<td>1.45</td>
<td>0.57</td>
<td>0.407</td>
<td>0.684</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>120</td>
<td>1.41</td>
<td>0.57</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

SD= Standard Deviation  *p<0.05

The emotional exhaustion sub-dimension scores (t=3.933; p<0.05) of the male physical education and sports teachers in the study group were observed to be higher compared to the female physical education and sports teachers, suggesting that this forms a statistically meaningful difference (Table 2).
The Relationship between Negative Behaviors

Table 3. Analysis of the results of the study group, according to education status

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Scale</th>
<th>Education Status</th>
<th>n</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>Z</th>
<th>Sig.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Emotional Exhaustion</td>
<td>Undergraduate</td>
<td>180</td>
<td>1.20</td>
<td>0.70</td>
<td>-1.268</td>
<td>0.205</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Post-graduate</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>1.48</td>
<td>0.78</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Depersonalization</td>
<td>Undergraduate</td>
<td>180</td>
<td>0.81</td>
<td>0.65</td>
<td>-2.307</td>
<td>0.021*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Post-graduate</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>1.24</td>
<td>0.72</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Personal Failure</td>
<td>Undergraduate</td>
<td>180</td>
<td>1.40</td>
<td>0.51</td>
<td>-1.549</td>
<td>0.121</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Post-graduate</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>1.70</td>
<td>1.05</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*p<0.05

It was observed that there were meaningful differences between the burnout levels of the physical education and sports teachers, according to education status, in the depersonalization sub-dimension (Z=-2.307; p<0.05). In the depersonalization sub-dimension, it was determined that the physical education and sports teachers with post-graduate education had higher burnout levels (Table 3).

Table 4. Analysis of the results of the study group, according to service time

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Scale</th>
<th>Service Time</th>
<th>n</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>p-Value</th>
<th>Scheffe</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Emotional Exhaustion</td>
<td>0–5 years (a)</td>
<td>75</td>
<td>1.16</td>
<td>0.85</td>
<td>0.642</td>
<td>0.589</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>6–10 years (b)</td>
<td>51</td>
<td>1.28</td>
<td>0.61</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>11–15 years (c)</td>
<td>42</td>
<td>1.30</td>
<td>0.64</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>16–20 years (d)</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>1.13</td>
<td>0.55</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Depersonalization</td>
<td>0–5 years (a)</td>
<td>75</td>
<td>0.84</td>
<td>0.74</td>
<td>0.154</td>
<td>0.927</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>6–10 years (b)</td>
<td>51</td>
<td>0.82</td>
<td>0.63</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>11–15 years (c)</td>
<td>42</td>
<td>0.90</td>
<td>0.63</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>16–20 years (d)</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>0.80</td>
<td>0.52</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Personal Failure</td>
<td>0–5 years (a)</td>
<td>75</td>
<td>1.30</td>
<td>0.43</td>
<td>10.485</td>
<td>0.000*</td>
<td>b&gt;d</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>6–10 years (b)</td>
<td>51</td>
<td>1.47</td>
<td>0.47</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>c&gt;a,b,d</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>11–15 years (c)</td>
<td>42</td>
<td>1.78</td>
<td>0.70</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>16–20 years (d)</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>1.13</td>
<td>0.58</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*p<0.05

It was observed that in the study group the physical education and sports teachers with the service time of 11–15 had higher levels of burnout in the personal failure sub-dimension (Table 4).
Table 5. Correlation results between the burnout sub-dimensions of the study group

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Scale</th>
<th>Identifiers</th>
<th>Emotional Exhaustion</th>
<th>Depersonalization</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Emotional Exhaustion</td>
<td>r</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>p</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>N</td>
<td>195</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Depersonalization</td>
<td>r</td>
<td>0.512*</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>p</td>
<td>0.000</td>
<td>0.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>N</td>
<td>195</td>
<td>195</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Personal Failure</td>
<td>r</td>
<td>0.367*</td>
<td>0.217*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>p</td>
<td>0.000</td>
<td>0.002</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>N</td>
<td>195</td>
<td>195</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*p<0.05  r= Pearson Correlation  p = Significance  N = Number of Subjects

In the analysis of the data gathered from the study group, it was determined that there was a positive linear and moderate correlation (r=0.512; p<0.05) between the emotional exhaustion and depersonalization sub-dimensions (Table 5). It was observed that there was a positive linear, yet mild correlation (r=0.367; p<0.05) between the emotional exhaustion and personal failure sub-dimensions. Additionally, it was determined that there was a positive linear, yet mild correlation (r=0.217; p<0.05) between the depersonalization and personal failure sub-dimensions.

Table 6. Multiple regression analysis, according to emotional exhaustion and unwanted student behaviors

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Model</th>
<th>Unstandardized Coefficients</th>
<th>Standardized Coefficients</th>
<th>t</th>
<th>Sig.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>B</td>
<td>Std. Error</td>
<td>Beta</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1 (Constant)</td>
<td>-0.404</td>
<td>0.280</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-1.443</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>0.120</td>
<td>0.087</td>
<td>0.146</td>
<td>1.384</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>-0.119</td>
<td>0.088</td>
<td>-0.159</td>
<td>-1.353</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>0.325</td>
<td>0.086</td>
<td>0.351</td>
<td>3.765</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>-0.056</td>
<td>0.091</td>
<td>-0.074</td>
<td>-0.619</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>0.188</td>
<td>0.088</td>
<td>0.240</td>
<td>2.126</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>0.202</td>
<td>0.102</td>
<td>0.245</td>
<td>1.991</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>-0.139</td>
<td>0.075</td>
<td>-0.182</td>
<td>-1.861</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>-0.021</td>
<td>0.087</td>
<td>-0.028</td>
<td>-0.239</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The Relationship between Negative Behaviors

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Model</th>
<th>Unstandardized Coefficients</th>
<th>Standardized Coefficients</th>
<th>t</th>
<th>Sig.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>B</td>
<td>Std. Error</td>
<td>Beta</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>0.108</td>
<td>0.090</td>
<td>0.146</td>
<td>1.203</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>-0.181</td>
<td>0.080</td>
<td>-0.213</td>
<td>-2.254</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11</td>
<td>-0.063</td>
<td>0.079</td>
<td>-0.074</td>
<td>-0.796</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12</td>
<td>0.145</td>
<td>0.071</td>
<td>0.191</td>
<td>2.038</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

a. Dependent Variable: Emotional Exhaustion

In the multiple regression analysis, it was observed that emotional exhaustion, which is the dependent variable, was affected by 5 unwanted student behaviors, which is the independent variable (Table 6). These five behaviors are matters 3, 5, 6, 10 and 12, respectively.

Table 7. Multiple regression analysis according to depersonalization and unwanted student behavior

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Model</th>
<th>Unstandardized Coefficients</th>
<th>Standardized Coefficients</th>
<th>t</th>
<th>Sig.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>B</td>
<td>Std. Error</td>
<td>Beta</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1 (Constant)</td>
<td>-0.032</td>
<td>0.259</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-0.125</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>-0.119</td>
<td>0.081</td>
<td>-0.154</td>
<td>-1.474</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>0.058</td>
<td>0.081</td>
<td>0.083</td>
<td>0.716</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>-0.004</td>
<td>0.080</td>
<td>-0.004</td>
<td>-0.045</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>-0.035</td>
<td>0.085</td>
<td>-0.049</td>
<td>-0.416</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>0.051</td>
<td>0.082</td>
<td>0.070</td>
<td>0.629</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>0.105</td>
<td>0.094</td>
<td>0.136</td>
<td>1.117</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>-0.069</td>
<td>0.069</td>
<td>-0.097</td>
<td>-1.001</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>-0.216</td>
<td>0.080</td>
<td>-0.309</td>
<td>-2.689</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>0.379</td>
<td>0.084</td>
<td>0.546</td>
<td>4.535</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>0.023</td>
<td>0.075</td>
<td>0.028</td>
<td>0.303</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11</td>
<td>0.011</td>
<td>0.073</td>
<td>0.015</td>
<td>0.157</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12</td>
<td>0.127</td>
<td>0.066</td>
<td>0.179</td>
<td>1.931</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

a. Dependent Variable: Depersonalization

In the multiple regression analysis, it was observed that depersonalization, which is the dependent variable, was affected by 2 unwanted student behaviors, which is the independent variable (Table 7). These two behaviors are matters 8 and 9, respectively.
Table 8. Multiple regression analysis according to personal failure and unwanted student behavior

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Model</th>
<th>Unstandardized Coefficients</th>
<th>Standardized Coefficients</th>
<th>t</th>
<th>Sig.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>B</td>
<td>Std. Error</td>
<td>Beta</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1 (Constant)</td>
<td>0.509</td>
<td>0.204</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>2.493</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>-0.239</td>
<td>0.063</td>
<td>-0.368</td>
<td>-3.766</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>0.014</td>
<td>0.064</td>
<td>0.023</td>
<td>0.215</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>0.118</td>
<td>0.063</td>
<td>0.163</td>
<td>1.877</td>
</tr>
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<td>0.122</td>
<td>0.067</td>
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<td>5</td>
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<td>0.064</td>
<td>-0.010</td>
<td>-0.098</td>
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<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>0.216</td>
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<td>0.066</td>
<td>0.054</td>
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<td>0.010</td>
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<tr>
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<td>0.057</td>
<td>-0.003</td>
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<tr>
<td>12</td>
<td>0.128</td>
<td>0.052</td>
<td>0.215</td>
<td>2.470</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

a. Dependent Variable: Personal Failure

In the multiple regression analysis, personal failure, which is the dependent variable, was affected by 3 unwanted student behaviors, which is the independent variable (Table 8). These three behaviors are matters 1, 6 and 12, respectively.

Discussion

When the research results were analyzed according to the gender variable, it was observed that the burnout levels of the male teachers were higher compared to the female teachers (Table 2). The reason for the fact that the female teachers’ burnout levels were lower may be interpreted as that the female teachers approach students more emotionally. It is believed that the maternal instincts are dominant to these children, too. In the analysis of previously conducted studies, it was determined that some studies reported more burnout in females while some studies reported more burnout in males. Additionally, in the analysis of several other studies of the subject, it was reported that gender does not influence burnout (Karataş, 2009; Kuvan, 2009; Özdemir, 2009; Yıldırım, 2009; Maslach et al., 2001).
In the depersonalization sub-dimension of physical education and sports teachers, according to education status, it was observed that the teachers with post-graduate education had higher levels of burnout (Table 3). The reason for that finding may be the fact that teachers with post-graduate education make greater efforts in lessons, which is related to their career plans, thus, they have higher expectations. It is believed that physical education and sports teachers with higher expectations cannot meet their expectations and for this reason they encounter stress. In the analysis of previously conducted studies, it was reported that there was meaningful correlation between the education level of teachers and burnout levels (Gündüz, 2004; Tuğrul & Çelik, 2002; Peker, 2002).

It was found that the physical education and sports teachers with 11–15 years of service had higher levels of burnout in the personal failure sub-dimension (Table 4). The teachers who are in the midway of their service time, with gained experience, demonstrate better performance in their lessons. Thus, they are able to conduct their lessons in a more positively structured way. The results obtained in the study are supported by the studies of Arslan and Arslan (2014), Aydemir (2013), Çağlayan (2012), Öktem (2009) and Karahan (2008). Additionally, Karakaya et al. (2015) reported in their studies that teachers with 6–10 years of service had higher levels burnouts in the personal failure sub-dimension compared to teachers with 0–5 years and 16–20 years of service.

As a result of the regression and multiple regression tests in the study, the following results were obtained: Emotional exhaustion, which is the dependent variable, was affected by 5 unwanted student behaviors (Table 6). Depersonalization, which is the dependent variable, was affected by 2 unwanted student behaviors (Table 7). Personal Failure, which is the dependent variable, was affected by 3 unwanted student behaviors (Table 8).

In the study, the fact that there is a difference in the emotional exhaustion sub-dimension points out that individuals are disheartened and discouraged by their jobs. The existence of the meaningful difference in the emotional exhaustion sub-dimension explains the negative and unserious behaviors and emotions which individuals express without considering the fact that each person they serve is an individual. The existence of the meaningful difference in the personal failure sub-dimension explains the individuals’ tendency to negative self-evaluation. Within this scope, the effectiveness of school counseling services in special education application centers may be enhanced. The support and motivation provided by executives and inspectors may be helpful in reducing the burnout of physical education and sports teachers.
In this study, it was determined that students with intellectual disabilities exhibit unwanted behaviors during physical education and sports lessons. For these unwanted behaviors, precautions should be taken by institution executives and physical education and sports teachers. If teachers do not know how to cope with these behaviors, they will have to spend a large amount of their energy solving these problems. Precautions against these problems should be taken in the classrooms and a scientific approach should be adopted in the solutions to these problems. In conclusion, the obtained results in the study demonstrated that the physical education and sports teachers in the study group were faced with the reality of burnout. Additionally, the fact that the study group experiences higher burnout in the personal failure sub-dimension, compared to other sub-dimensions, proves how essential it is to take precautions, because this sub-dimension explains the individuals’ tendency to negative self-evaluation. In the conducted analysis within this study, the obtained results will provide a meaningful contribution to an understanding of the elements which cause physical education and sports teachers to experience burnout.

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The Study of Teachers’ Attitudes towards Inclusive Education Practice: The Case of Russia

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Abstract

The aim of the present study was to investigate the attitudes of teachers and school administration towards inclusion. A distinctive feature of this study is the gradual increase in the number of its members as a result of the annual increase in the number of inclusive schools that was also reflected in the qualitative composition of the sample. The study was conducted with the use of a questionnaire distributed among teachers and school administration. The article presents the results of a 3-year study, which made it possible to track changes in their attitudes towards inclusive education.

Results show that in general all the participants have a positive attitude towards inclusion. However, there is a difference between the groups of teachers and administrators, as well as the groups of teachers in rural and urban schools.

Keywords: teachers, attitudes, inclusive education, administrators, Russia

Introduction

One of the directions of education modernization today is to ensure the rights for access to quality education, integration into society through inclusion in the general education space of children with disabilities. ‘Inclusion in education means full inclusion of children with diverse abilities in all aspects of schooling that other
children are able to access and enjoy. It involves ‘regular’ schools and classrooms genuinely adapting and changing to meet the needs of all children as well as celebrating and valuing differences’ (Loreman, Deppeler & Harvey, 2005, p.2).

Inclusive education in Russia is one of the main options for the right to education for children with disabilities enshrined in the Federal Law ‘On Education in the Russian Federation’ (2012) and in a number of other federal government documents. Systemic changes in the educational process of the schools where children with developmental problems are involved in joint training with their healthy peers are suggested.

This study is part of a larger project. The regional project titled ‘Education and socialization of children with disabilities in inclusive educational space’ was launched in the Novosibirsk region, Russia, in September 2011. The aim of the project was to increase access to quality education for children with disabilities. The project involves voluntary accession of schools in inclusive practice. 35 schools (8 urban and 27 rural) participated in the project in 2013, 108 schools (35 urban and 73 rural) – in 2014, 110 schools (17 urban and 93 rural) – in 2015.

Along with the implementation of the project, there was ongoing monitoring of the effectiveness of the inclusive education process. One of the main parameters of the study was related to inclusive education practices by teachers, administration, parents and children. In this article, we would like to consider in more detail the dynamics of change in the attitude of teachers towards inclusion throughout 3 years (2013, 2014, and 2015).

The specifics of the field of educational space are the predominance of the number of rural schools over urban ones. Rural schools differ from urban ones in a small number of pupils (maximum 150 people), in territorial remoteness of special schools from the centers of methodological support for teachers, as well as the shortage of professionals to carry out psychological and pedagogical support for children.

Analysis of the studies published in international scientific journals from 1998 to 2008 revealed that teachers had a neutral or negative attitude toward inclusion, and showed no clear positive results. Most teachers either did not define or were negative in their beliefs about inclusive education and did not consider themselves well prepared for the education of children with special educational needs. 6 out of 26 studies showed that teachers did not feel competent in teaching children with special educational needs (Anke de Boer, Sip Jan Pijl & Alexander Minnaert, 2011).

Among the variables that affect the attitudes of teachers to inclusive education researchers included:
1. The teacher’s gender. Men have a less positive attitude towards inclusive education (Alghazo & Naggar Gaad, 2004; Ellins & Porter, 2005). Women are more supportive of inclusion (Opdal, Wormnaes & Habayeb, 2001, Specht et al. 2016). However, there are studies that found no relationship between inclusion and teachers’ gender (Chiner & Cardona, 2013).

2. Work experience. Teachers with 1 to 10 years of teaching experience are more positive to inclusive education than their counterparts with more experience (Alghazo & Naggar Gaad, 2004, Boyle, Topping, & Jindal-Snape, 2013).

3. Experience of working with children with special educational needs. Most researchers say that teachers with experience in teaching children with SEN are more positive towards inclusion than teachers without such experience (Avramidis, E., & Kalyva, E., 2007; Peebles and Mendaglio, 2014; Specht et al., 2016).

4. Special training. A number of researchers believe that specialized training and professional development courses affect the improvement of attitudes towards inclusive education (Sharma, Forlin, & Loreman 2008, Forlin, 2010).


In this study, we determined the dependence of teachers’ attitudes towards inclusive education on a single variable – location of the school (urban or rural).

The purpose of this study was to determine the attitude of teachers and administrators of rural and urban schools in the Novosibirsk region, Russia, towards inclusion and trace its change over 3 years.

**Methods**

The participants in this study were teachers – school teachers and administration working in inclusive schools in the Novosibirsk region of the Russian Federation.

31 urban schools and 80 rural school administrators, 202 urban schools and 424 rural school teachers took part in the study in 2013.
22 urban schools and 238 rural school administrators, 111 urban schools and 1,048 rural school teachers took part in the study in 2014.

In 2015 the study was carried out in 2 stages. 68 urban school and 438 rural school administrators took part in the first stage. The second stage involved 88 administrators and 144 teachers in rural schools. Teachers in urban schools were not surveyed in 2015.

Identification of teachers’ attitudes towards inclusive education was carried out with the use of questionnaires designed to identify acceptance or rejection of the inclusion of the educational process with a more detailed analysis of the nature of the participants’ concerns and difficulties.

In 2013, 2014 and in the first phase in 2015, the study of the attitude to inclusion was carried out with the use of questionnaires designed by Chepel, Abakirova & Samuylenko (2013).

At the second stage of the study in 2015 a questionnaire called ‘Indicators of inclusion,’ adapted from Booth and Ainskow (2013), was applied. It allows for in-depth assessing of the attitude towards inclusion, the successes and difficulties of the formation of inclusion in each school and in the study sample as a whole. In adapting the questionnaires, the three main author scales (the creation of an inclusive culture, the creation of an inclusive culture, the creation of inclusive practices) were preserved, but the number of questions (13, 14, 10 respectively) was reduced by excluding the questions difficult to understand for teachers and administrators.

After processing the data obtained in the study, the rate of acceptance – rejection of inclusion in groups for rural and urban school teachers and administrators was defined. The following scale was applied:

- full acceptance: the percentage of the respondents who provided 80% of positive responses to the questionnaire at their lowest satisfaction with the existing school resources (human and material);
- conditional acceptance – the percentage of the respondents who gave more than 80% of positive responses to the questionnaire, with an average (31% – 65%), dissatisfaction with the existing resources for the implementation of inclusive practices;
- rejection – the percentage of the respondents who gave less than 80% of positive responses to the questionnaire, regardless of the resource satisfaction.

A rule of thumb was developed to evaluate the results of the study. If the level of complete and conditional acceptance in total is more than 70%, it can be concluded that the group has a positive attitude towards inclusive education. A group demonstrates a neutral attitude if the level of full conditional decision is in total
between 30 and 70%. And the results are assessed as negative if the sum of the full and conditional acceptance is below 30%.

**Results**

**Result 1.** In 2013, the administrators of rural and urban schools as well as the teachers of rural schools demonstrated a positive attitude towards inclusive education. The teachers in urban schools showed a neutral attitude (cf., Figure 1).

![Figure 1. Inclusion acceptance rate of the administrators and teachers in 2013](image)

The sum of the indicators of full and conditional acceptance of the administrators of urban schools was 89%, the rural school administrators – 97%, the teachers in rural schools – 91%, and the teachers in urban schools – 59%.

The school administrators had a higher acceptance rate of inclusion than the teachers.

The teachers in rural schools demonstrated a higher level of acceptance of inclusion than those in urban.

**Result 2.** All the participants demonstrated a positive attitude to inclusive education in 2014 (cf., Figure 2).
The sum of the indicators of full and conditional acceptance by the urban school administrators was 93%, the rural school administrators – 97%, the rural school teachers 99%, and the urban school teachers – 70%.

A drastic difference in the acceptance of inclusion in the attitudes of the school administration and teachers was proved again. Furthermore, a notable difference can be followed according to the same indicator of the administrators of urban (52% of full acceptance) and rural schools (83% of full acceptance).

The rural school teachers demonstrated the highest level of inclusive education acceptance (88% of full acceptance).

The attitude of the urban schools to inclusive education improved compared to the indicators of 2013, however, their indicators were still lower than those of the rural school teachers.

**Figure 2.** Inclusion acceptance rate of the administrators and teachers in 2014

**Result 3.** At the 2 stages of 2015, fairly high rates of inclusion acceptance among all the participants were observed (cf., Figures 3 and 4). The teachers of rural schools, the administrators of urban and rural schools demonstrated a positive attitude towards inclusive education. The teachers in urban schools were not surveyed.

The sum of the indicators of full and conditional acceptance of inclusion in the first phase among the administrators of urban schools was 93%, of the rural school administrators – 94%.
The Study of Teachers' Attitudes towards Inclusive Education Practice

Figure 3. Inclusion acceptance rate of the administrators at the first stage of 2015

Figure 4. Inclusion acceptance rate of the administrators and teachers at the second stage of 2015
The sum of the indicators of full and conditional acceptance of inclusion in the second phase among the administrators of urban schools was 94%, of the rural school administrators – 98%, of the rural school teachers – 92%.

There was an increase in the inclusion rejection level among the teachers of rural schools compared to 2014 (2013 – 9%, 2014 – 1%, 2015 – 8%).

Summary

Analyzing the dynamics of changes in 2013–2015, we can see a higher level of inclusion acceptance among the administrators and teachers in rural areas compared to their counterparts in urban schools.

Over the years, the school administrators had a higher acceptance rate of inclusion than the teachers.

Analysis of the number of the rural and urban schools that voluntarily joined the project over the period 2011–2014 and took part in the monitoring of the effectiveness of the inclusive education process shows that the rural schools are more interested in inclusion development, including the evaluation of the effectiveness of the inclusive education process.

The teachers in rural schools demonstrate a higher level of acceptance of inclusion than those in urban schools.

This can be explained by the specifics of rural society and rural schools. Rural society is more united, due to the uniqueness of life and living conditions of the rural population: people know each other well, actions, words and deeds become known by others. The teachers and school administrators feel increased social control over their professional activities and as the results of other research methods (conversation, the texts of public speeches) show, they are more tolerant towards children with disabilities.

Indicators of inclusion acceptance may temporarily fall under the influence of a number of factors. We can enumerate those whose indication was most frequently encountered in the surveys, in conversations, interviews and in written reports and the reports of the administrators and teachers of inclusive schools.

The first factor is deepening of the representations of the teachers and administrators about the essence of inclusion, which led to increased demand for the quality of the teachers’ own professional activity and to the quality of teaching activities of the administrators.

The second is deepening of the practice of inclusion in schools which are starting to include children with more complex developmental disorders (ASD,
The Study of Teachers' Attitudes towards Inclusive Education Practice

ADHD, learning disabilities) and facing more complex didactic problems in the educational process. This not only increases the time and emotional costs of the teachers to prepare for lessons, but also leads to some disappointment and reduces the positive assessment of the scope of this practice.

The third factor is the specificity of the educational situation in Russia as a whole in recent years. It can be described as the process of strengthening the state regulation of the quality and availability of education for children with disabilities. This is a positive process, and in the future it should lead to the development of inclusion, to improve the working conditions of teachers and administrators, to the essential results of inclusive education, which determine its very necessity. But against the lack of elaboration of federal regulatory documents and a somewhat shallow understanding of the essence of inclusion as an innovative educational practice in the control structures, this process is often manifested as a gain of formal control and supervision. Such actions destabilize the psychological condition of teachers, even those who share the principles of inclusion, but consider it as injustice.

The teachers in urban schools are still not convinced of the possibility and expediency of the joint education of children with disabilities in the general education environment. They showed 41% of rejection of inclusion in 2013 and 30% in 2014. In addition to the above factors, it contributes to an understanding of the existence of alternatives to inclusive education – special schools that are successful in the training and education of children in this category.

**Discussion and Conclusion**

The dynamics of the school administrators’ attitudes towards inclusion is different from the dynamics of those of the teachers and a direct relationship between these processes is not observed.

The attitude of the participants in the educational process towards the inclusive practice in terms of its design is characterized by stable positive trends in the group of school administrators and positive, but ambiguous changes in the group of teachers.

Having the background of immersion of teachers in the practice of including children with disabilities in mainstream education may cause a slight decrease in the degree of the acceptance of inclusion. The findings of Agbenyega & Klibthong (2014) also demonstrate strong evidence of the difficulties of working in inclusive schools. They note that some teachers are frustrated and stressed when working
with children with disabilities, especially with sensory impairments, autism and challenging behavior problems. Faced with problems, some teachers prefer special schools for children with disabilities.

The most problematic field of inclusive practice is the attitude of teachers towards the very possibility and the need to include children with disabilities in the general education space (Ryapisova & Chepel, 2013; Chepel, Aubakirova & Samuilenko, 2014)

The study by Thaver & Lim (2014) identified a small group of teachers who have a dual attitude towards inclusion; supporting the idea of inclusion, they believe that children with special educational needs will obtain better education in a special school. This view is also the case in our study. In particular, this is true and is expressed in the group of urban teachers.

Our study confirms the results of international research on the presence of a complex mixture of positive attitudes towards inclusion, combined with fears and perceived inconsistencies, which is a fairly common practice in inclusive education (Shevlin, Winter, & Flynn, 2013).

The socio-cultural situation, belonging to urban or rural society is an important factor of influence on the attitude of teachers towards inclusion. The activity and success of schools in the development of inclusive practice reveal themselves as the most important conditions in the formation of teachers’ positive attitudes to co-education of children.

In the context of the territorial remoteness of rural schools from the centers of methodological support for inclusive education, one of the important factors of a positive influence on the attitudes of teachers and administrators to inclusion can become a network model of their interaction.

The network model allows inclusive schools to provide assistance to each other with the deficit of professionals providing special support to children with disabilities and their teachers. Many researchers have also noted the need for teamwork in the successful inclusion of children with special educational needs in a holistic pedagogical process (Florian & Black Hawkins, 2011; Lindsay, Proulx, Scott, & Thomson, 2014; Sukbunpant, Arthur-Kelly, & Dempsey 2013).

It should be noted that there is a limitation to this research. A subjective attitude of Russian teachers to inclusion was found as the study was based on self-assessment.

We consider it possible to trace the influence on and the important attitudes of teachers towards inclusive education in the successful socialization of students, the dynamics of the educational achievements of students that lead to the historical data of large-scale monitoring studies in the schools of the Novosibirsk region. We believe that this may be the subject of future studies and publications.
References


Factors Increasing Media Exposure of Preschool Children

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Abstract
The aim of this research was to explore media exposure of preschool children (1–6 years old) and outline demographic factors affecting it. The data show that media exposure of children in kindergartens is low. Parents, however, report much more diverse media habits of their preschoolers in their home environments. Even though the daily average media exposure of preschoolers in Slovenia does not deviate much from the recommended one, a group of children called large media users is identified. Understanding specific features of large media users can inform the development of early childhood educational programs and projects intended to raise awareness and educate parents and children about media, which are currently still a rarity in Central and Eastern Europe.

Introduction
Media services and products have become integral parts of our everyday lives. Therefore, the ability of individuals to use, understand and also to autonomously, critically interpret the flow, content, values, implications and consequences of media usage has gained in importance. Individuals in late-modern societies need to possess the knowledge and understanding of the way media function and impact on their lives. Learning how to use media and how to participate in dynamic processes of technology-mediated communication and creation processes of media messages is increasingly becoming an integral part of social life as
well as education systems. But even if the ability to access and use different types of media messages has become a necessity, it is by itself not sufficient. It should be supplemented by an ability to reflect on, analyse and evaluate media messages and to consider their intents and consequences. These processes include cognitive, emotional and social competences, with core competences being the ability to use, analyse, evaluate, and reflect on media messages as well as the ability to create and focus on creative problem solving (Hobbs, 2010; Mascheroni and Murri, 2014).

We do not usually expect our youngest children to possess these abilities. However, it has become socially acceptable to place a two-year-old child in front of the TV set and leave him or her there for a while, with an assumption that the TV set is an “easy to use device,” which one does not really need a lot of knowledge or competence to understand. Young, preschool children are also increasingly using mobile devices, various applications, internet, (online) video games and the number of on-demand media services for this age group is increasing. These developments can offer learning opportunities for young children and in the mediated society that we live in, where media are ubiquitous and practically common denominators of all our lives, it would be hard to expect that young children would be excluded from these processes. However, the increasing amount of young children’s involvement in mediated reality (Formby, 2014; Wartella, Kirkpatrick, Rideout, Lauricella, & Connell, 2014; Ofcom, 2015) does also bring challenges regarding their health, eating and sleeping habits, aggressive behaviour, language development, consumerism, building of identity and relationships with others (cf., e.g., the American Academy of Pediatrics, 2009; Christakis, 2008; Garrison and Christakis, 2012; Hayes, 2015; Mendoza, Zimmerman, Christakis, 2007; Farrel et. al, 2016).

The aim of this survey was to explore the media exposure of preschool children (1–6 years old) on a national representative sample in Slovenia. Data on the media exposure of preschool kids in kindergartens and in their home environment was collected. Given the variance in the media exposure of preschool children, it was analysed which factors (including age, gender, rural/urban living environment, parents’ education, parents’ age, shared custody) increase the media exposure of preschoolers.

**Research Methodology**

In 2015 a survey was conducted, collecting opinions of parents and kinderarten teachers regarding preschool children’s media habits. Data was collected using paper and online questionnaires. 1,087 parents of 1-to-6-year-old children and
265 teachers in kindergartens were included in the survey. The subjects participated voluntarily, they were not financially compensated for the participation in the survey. Their participation was anonymous, not revealing the names or any identifiable information about the subjects. Data was collected with the help of 47 kindergartens, evenly located in all geographical regions, comprising approximately the distribution of rural and urban population in accordance with the data of the statistical office of Slovenia. In the 2014/2015 school year there were 979 kindergartens and dispersed units in Slovenia, with 84,750 children aged 1–5 years (76.8% of the population) attending them (Statistical office RS, 2015). The research sample of parents resembles the population in age and geographical location of families. The sample as such was not additionally adjusted (weighted). The parents who responded to the survey questions were about evenly distributed in two age groups of 1-to-3-years of the child’s age (50.6%) and from 4-to-6-years of the age of the child (49.4%).

One of the goals of the research was to collect data on the media exposure of preschool children (in home environment and in kindergarten) and preschool children's access to different media devices. On this basis it was analyzed which factors increase exposure of preschool children and thus the following hypotheses were structured:

- H1: Age of a child (ages 1–3 in comparison to 4–6)
- H2: Children's gender
- H3: Living environment (urban/rural)
- H4: Parents’ education
- H5: Parents’ age
- H6: Shared custody of children

The data was analysed using SPSS PASW Statistics 18 software. To test the hypotheses, independent sample Student T-tests and ANOVA were used.

**Research Results**

The survey among parents and educators pointed to significant differences between the media exposure of preschool kids at home and in kindergartens, where on weekdays children spend more than a half of their waking time.

Among more time-consuming activities of preschoolers in kindergarten (maximum 9-hour care) there is playing in playrooms, which according to the opinion
of kindergarten teachers takes on average an hour and a half daily, and playing outdoors, which on average lasts one hour a day. No electronic devices are used during the play time. Average daily exposure to screens in Slovene kindergartens is very low (7.6 minutes). A common media related activity is listening to songs/music. MP3 or CD players are, on average, switched on for half an hour daily.

The parents reported much more diverse media habits of their preschoolers in their home environment. They were asked to provide an estimate of the average time (in hours and minutes) that their child spends doing the following activities on a typical day: a) watching TV; b) watching DVD or taped videos on TV; c) listening to the radio; d) using the computer or tablet; e) playing video games f) reading magazines, newspapers; g) using the mobile phone (also yours) without calling; h) playing outside; i) being in a room where a TV is turned on; j) playing with toys inside.

**Table 1.** Average media exposure times of the two age groups of preschool children (in minutes daily)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Live TV</th>
<th>DVD or video</th>
<th>Radio</th>
<th>Computer or tablet</th>
<th>Video games</th>
<th>Printed media</th>
<th>Mobile phone without calling</th>
<th>Total for listed activities</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1 – to 3-year – old children</td>
<td>27.91</td>
<td>23.19</td>
<td>30.06</td>
<td>9.91</td>
<td>4.25</td>
<td>18.36</td>
<td>6.45</td>
<td>120.13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4 – to 6-year – old children</td>
<td>44.9</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>25.06</td>
<td>17.27</td>
<td>12.1</td>
<td>20.23</td>
<td>8.29</td>
<td>159.85</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Both groups (1–6)</td>
<td>34.7</td>
<td>26.4</td>
<td>26.4</td>
<td>13.3</td>
<td>7.9</td>
<td>18.6</td>
<td>7.8</td>
<td>135.1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: own survey.

The parents were asked to estimate the time of their child’s passive presence in the room (the time when a child is present in a room where a TV set is running). An average estimate is 80 minutes a day, which is much higher compared to active watching of TV (34.7 min). Passive presence is also slightly higher in the case of the younger age group (84 min) compared to the 3-to-6-year-old kids (76 min).

The presence of electronic devices in the rooms of preschool children in Slovenia is low. Only 7.25% of preschoolers aged 1-to-6-years have a TV set in their room and only 95% of them have their own computer in their room. In the case of the TV and computer presence in the child’s room there are no significant
Factors Increasing Media Exposure of Preschool Children

differences between the two age groups of preschoolers. A bigger share of the kids has a radio and CD player in their room – 15.5% of the children aged up to three years and 24.1% of the 4-to-6-year-old children.

As variance in the exposure of the preschool children was noticed, the children were divided into three groups similar in numbers (border framework 33 and 66 percentiles): a) high media users (more than 2 hours of daily exposure to the media, N = 370); b) medium media users (between 1h 15 min and 2 hours’ daily exposure to the media, N = 360); c) low media users (less than 1h 15 min of daily media exposure, N = 357). If the child falls within the high media users group, he or she is on average exposed to the media almost seven times more than low media users, as evident from Table 2.

**Table 2. Media exposure of high, medium and low media users (in minutes daily).**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Low*</th>
<th>Medium*</th>
<th>High*</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Live TV</td>
<td>13.94</td>
<td>28.48</td>
<td>65.51</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Recorded video and DVD</td>
<td>11.14</td>
<td>20.66</td>
<td>50.15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Radio</td>
<td>6.3</td>
<td>17.04</td>
<td>59.23</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Computer or tablet use</td>
<td>1.55</td>
<td>7.3</td>
<td>31.27</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Video games</td>
<td>0.47</td>
<td>3.01</td>
<td>20.74</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Magazines, newspapers</td>
<td>7.24</td>
<td>17.28</td>
<td>33.17</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Smartphone without calling</td>
<td>0.89</td>
<td>3.05</td>
<td>18.04</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sum in minutes</td>
<td>41.53</td>
<td>96.82</td>
<td>278.11</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: own survey.
* n>330 for each group
** n>1000 for each group

To test the hypothesis, the independent t-test was used for testing the differences between the means of two independent age groups. It was assumed that the sampling distribution of differences between means is normally distributed in the population. For the following t-tests the assumption of homogeneity of variance was violated, and the equal variances not assumed t-test statistic was used for evaluating the null hypothesis of the equality of means.

H1: Significant differences in media exposure between the two age groups (1–3 and 3–6 years old) were found in the case of:
• Live television – $t$ (df = 946) = – 6.661, $p< .001$. The mean values indicate that the younger children are less exposed to live TV ($M=27.91$) than the older ones ($M=44.90$).

• DVD or taped video – $t$ (df = 956) = – 3.933, $p< .001$. The mean values indicate that the younger children ($M=23.19$) are less exposed to DVD or taped video than the older ones ($M=32.0$).

• Computer or tablet – $t$ (df = 941) = – 3.638, $p< .001$. The mean values indicate that the younger children ($M=9.91$) are less exposed to computer or tablet than the older ones ($M=17.27$).

• Video games – $t$ (df = 786) = – 4.722, $p< .001$. The mean values indicate that the younger children ($M=4.25$) are less exposed to video games than the older ones ($M=12.1$).

As children grow older the use of a computer or tablet and especially video games increases the most. On the other hand, 1-to-3-year-old children are more exposed to the radio ($M=30.06$) than the older group ($M=25.06$), however the difference is not statistically significant $p>0.05$.

H2: Preschool boys are statistically more exposed to media related activities than girls ($M= 146.31$ minutes daily for boys compared to $M= 122.51$ for girls). The difference is significant – $t$ (df = 989) = – 2.344, $p<0.05$.

H3: City environment increases exposure to media related activities ($M=142.20$ compared to $M=128.65$ minutes daily). Despite the differences in means student T-test did not show significance – $t$ (df = 782) = 1.226, $p>0.05$.

H4: Parents’ education has an effect on media exposure (ANOVA) – $F (2,1077) = 9.483$, $p<0.001$. The mean values indicate that when the education level of the parents increased (from low to medium to high) so did the time when the child was exposed to media related activities. The children of parents who finished primary school or less are exposed to media related activities on average $M=258$ minutes daily. The children of the parents with secondary education are exposed $M=167$ minutes and the children of the parents with tertiary education $M=121$ minutes daily. Post hoc Scheffe comparison was used to test between the group differences and significant differences between the primary and tertiary, and secondary and tertiary educational levels were confirmed at $p< 0.05$.

H5: It was also tested whether the parents’ age had an effect on the media exposure of their children, with the use of oneway ANOVA, however no significant differences were found, $F(3, 1082) =0.398$; $p>0.05$, despite the differences in averages (ranging from 119 minutes to 138 minutes).
H6: Interestingly, shared custody over a preschool child shows a difference in averages (M=160 minutes for shared custody compared to M=133 minutes). Despite these differences – test (Equal variances assumed) t(df = 1074) = 0.212; p>0.05 did not show statistically significant differences. The reason for the latter could be the small sample of children in shared custody.

**Discussion**

This study in many aspects confirmed the already existing academic claims about the exposure to media related activities of preschool children regarding their age and their parents’ demographic characteristics (cf., e.g., Wartella, Kirkpatrick, Rideout, Lauricella, & Connell, 2014; Rideout, 2014). The analysis showed that the average time of media exposure is associated with the age and sex of preschoolers. The differences between the younger (1–3) and older (4–6) age groups are particularly noticeable in the case of average exposure to TV, computer and electronic games. Judging from the data, the children aged 1–3 years are, on average, exposed to media in their home environment for 2 hours daily. The amount of time spent with media increases in the 4–6 age group and is, on average, two hours and a half. Over 15% greater exposure of the boys (146 minutes) compared to the girls (122 minutes) was observed.

Further research should be conducted on media exposure in the case of children in shared care of divorced parents. It was observed that they are on average heavier users of media as the data we collected showed that they are more exposed to the media by over 25%. Even though the t-test did not show a statistically significant difference (the number of such cases in our sample was N=74), this finding indicates that additional research on children of divorced parents would be interesting, as their different style of life (compared to traditional family setting) may also affect media exposure and children’s habits.

Media exposure of children is also associated with parents’ education level. The preschool children whose parents have primary school education or less are on average exposed to media for 258 minutes daily (4.3 h). The average exposure of the preschoolers of high school educated parents is 167 minutes (2.78 h) and the children of parents with finished higher education or more are on average exposed to the media for 121 minutes daily (2 hours). Thus, the average exposure of the children whose parents have primary education or less is more than twice (2, 3 hours) higher compared to the children of parents with higher education. Rideout
and Hamel (2006) also outlined the role parents’ education plays in developing the media habits of their children. They proved that the children of wealthier parents develop different media habits. The means that media exposure and habits preschoolers develop in using media is affected by the social status of the family they live in.

**Conclusions**

In this research mean values for daily activities of preschoolers involving different types of media were presented. The data shows that Slovene preschoolers do not deviate significantly from the average media exposure times presented in other surveys conducted in Europe (cf., e.g., Bucht and Harrie, 2013; Ofcom, 2015; Souza and Cabello, 2010). However, we should be cautious when trying to compare such data on media exposure. A coordinated cross-national survey on media habits of children using the same measuring instruments is missing and there are numerous issues regarding measuring media literacy in national contexts (cf., e.g., Bulger, 2012), which makes a direct detailed comparison of the data gathered in various national settings over the time questionable.

The average screen exposure of children in Slovene kindergardens is very low, low is also the share of preschoolers who have TV or other electronic devices in their rooms. The average screen exposure of preschoolers in Slovenia does not deviate much from the recommended screen exposure by the American Paediatric Association (2013). These most cited guidelines propose limiting screen exposure to two hours a day for preschoolers over 2 years of age. But a closer look at the collected data allows for drawing a conclusion that there are significant differences between the media exposure times of preschool children. The children who fall into the group we called high media users are on average exposed to media almost seven times more compared to low media users and use media on average 4.6 hours a day, more than twice the time recommended. Further research on the media exposure of preschoolers should be focused on a more inddepth understanding of the differences in media habits in families where high, medium or low users live (also employing the qualitative research design). Issues concerning effects (negative or positive) that a large amount of media exposure can have on the child’s development and parents’ behaviour related to educating their preschool children on media (cf., e.g., Genc, 2014; Rideout and Hamel, 2006; Livingstone and Helsper, 2008) are not part of a public discourse on early childhood development in Slovene society. Understanding specific features of high media users could
inform the development of programs and projects, which are intended to raise awareness and educate parents and preschool children about media and are still a rarity in the societies of Central and Eastern Europe.

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Some Aspects of Increasing the Effectiveness and Comfort of the Scientific and Educational Process in University Electronic Environment – A Research Report

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Abstract
The research presented in the article seems to confirm the assumption that e-learning and ICT development contribute to the quality of educational services, to the development of information society competences and to the increased competitiveness of institutions of science and education. E-learning participants aim at: increasing comfort in the scientific and educational process; lifelong learning goals; the personalization of education; the formation of new scientific and educational cooperation and intercultural competence; self-fulfilment in education and work; increased openness of the scientific and educational environment; and enhancing self-organizational effects which support the sustainable development of the university environment. The research was conducted at the University of Silesia within the framework of IRNet project.

Keywords: ICT, e-environment, international research network, survey, educational and research activities, e-learning

Introduction
As stressed by Sue Greener (2015): “It is easy to imagine this globally connected world as a single space, a space with no frontiers, no boundaries, everything accessible and understood”. Further she stated, “We know, of course, that this is not the
case. That everywhere there are frontiers and discontinuities and barriers to be surmounted.” (Greener, 2015).

Rapidly developing technology and the changing needs of the modern labour market suggest that today’s high school prepares students for careers that do not yet exist, for technologies that have not been invented, and directs them to solve problems that are not yet identified as such. That is why universities must primarily teach students to learn independently on the basis of a high motivation to learn, according to the requirements of the labour market and its development, taking into account the challenges of the information society, which is rapidly progressing thanks to the rapid development of information and communication technologies (ICT), and in particular the penetration of the Internet and its services into contemporary people’s lives. (Morze, Smyrnova-Trybulska, Umryk, 2015).

Extensive research is being done into the use of LMS in education. For example, such aspects are studied as enhancing the quality of administration, teaching and the testing of computer science using a learning management system (Cápay and Tomanová, 2010), experience in the use of LCMS in medical education and implementation of knowledge evaluation according to the QTI standard (Roszak et al., 2014).

In the study (Visser-Wijnveen et al., 2016), a questionnaire was developed on the basis of categorizations of the research–teaching nexus in literature. The aim of the Student Perception of Research Integration Questionnaire (SPRIQ) is to determine the factors which capture the way students perceive research integration in their courses.

Researchers in different countries are conducting studies in the area of increasing the quality of education in e-environment conditions while the world is changing, new technologies are being developed, conditions of work and learning are constantly evolving, and new challenges are surfacing.

One of the most effective modes of conducting research is international research networks which provide opportunities for collective research, collaborative study and a permanent exchange experience. One such network is the IRNet (“The International Research Network for the study and development of new tools and methods for advanced pedagogical science in the field of ICT instruments, e-learning and intercultural competences”), with participation of ten universities from nine countries from Western, Central, and Eastern Europe and from Australia (www.irnet.us.edu.pl): the University of Silesia in Katowice, Poland, the University of Twente, the Netherlands, the University of Extremadura, Spain, Lisbon Lusíada University, Portugal, Ostrava University, the Czech Republic, Constantine the Philosopher University in Nitra, Slovakia, Curtin University in
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Perth, Australia, Borys Grinchenko Kyiv University, Ukraine, the Herzen State Pedagogical University of Russia, St.Petersburg, Russia, Dniprodzerzhinsk State Technical University, Ukraine.

Within the framework of Work Package 2 (WP2, one among seven WPs) referred to as an analysis of the state of legal, ethical, human, technical and social factors of ICT and e-learning development and intercultural competences in every partner country, during an analysis of the legal documents of 9 IRNet countries and 10 universities a comparison of the legal factors of ICT and e-learning development in the different partner countries was made, and identical, similar, overlapping data and differences in state policies and university regulations in different project partners were found (Smyrnova-Trybulska, 2014), (Kommers et al., 2014, 2015), others.

**Research Methodology**

The Research methodology of WP3 – “Analyses and evaluation of the ICT level, e-learning and intercultural developments in every participating country” was elaborated, discussed and reviewed. The main objective was to define the system of indicators for developing e-learning and ICT competences. Firstly, the main benefits of e-learning and ICT in education were described (the improvement of educational services; the formation and development of an information society's competences; finally, the increased competitiveness of institutions in science and education. Then, the manifestations of these benefits were specified as well as their determinants (electronic space and interactions, the level of participants’ competences).

The hypothesis of the WP3 research was that e-learning and ICT development contribute to the quality of educational services, to the development of information society competences and to the increased competitiveness of institutions of science and education. E-learning participants aim at: increasing comfort in the scientific and educational process, lifelong learning goals; the personalization of education; the formation of new scientific and educational cooperation and intercultural competence; self-fulfillment in education and work; an increased openness of the scientific and educational environment; and finally, enhancing self-organizational effects which support the sustainable development of the university environment.
The Research Results of Students’ Opinions Regarding the Educational, Communicative and Scientific Aspects in the Conditions of a University Electronic Environment

In WP3, analyses and evaluation of the ICT level, e-learning and intercultural developments in every participating country was conducted. The research methodology and research instruments were developed, namely two questionnaires (for academic teachers and for students) were prepared as research instruments. Both questionnaires needed to determine how students and academic teachers use e-learning and ICT in education – particularly, how their effects are reflected in teachers’ and students’ activities. The questionnaire for students consists of 13 questions and 18 questions for academic teachers. The diagnostic research instrument was translated into the students’ native languages and presented on-line by means of the university LimeSurvey system by the author of the article.

Some of the results of the research, conducted within the framework of IRNet Project and WP3 at the University of Silesia (US) and at the Faculty of Ethnology and Sciences of Education allow for the development of a picture of today’s student in the context of educational inquiry, network activities as well as in the framework of the development of ICT competences. The respondents included 100 students pursuing pedagogical specialisation programmes such as preschool and early education, early education and pedagogical therapy, cultural animation, a disabled person’s assistant programme, and 23 academic teachers.

Indicators of students’ competences:
- Acquisition of information tools and understanding ICT role in education
- Learning activities
- Self-development, self-realization, research, scientific activities
- Social and cultural activities

The data obtained at the University of Silesia show that contemporary students are active Internet users.

The first group of questions concerning Effect 1: The expansion of space-time coordinates (improving the scientific and educational process comfort zone, and focusing on lifelong learning goals) (Understanding the potentialities and role of using ICT in teaching). This group includes three questions, one of them Z3: “Choose the most important, from your point of view, indicators of comfort of the electronic environment of your university”. The variants of answers chosen by the students to the 3rd question were as follows: “Availability of Wi-Fi access points” – 47.00%, “Opportunity to use one’s own gadgets” – 10.00%, “Availability of electronic educational resources in different formats (video, audio, hypertext,
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“Some Aspects of Increasing the Effectiveness” – 11.00%, “University website with relevant information for students, with comfortable navigation” – 16.00%, “Availability of distance support for individual disciplines (tasks in electronic form, electronic journals, discipline websites or e-learning platform Moodle)” – 8.00%, “Availability of fast feedback from teachers” – 8.00%. Most of the students (51.00%) answered: “If it allows you to perform tasks at your own pace, more comfortably”. This indicates that the students greatly appreciate the opportunity to use the resources and services of the electronic environment of their university.

The second group of questions was focused on students’ opinions regarding the personalization of educational activities, individual requests in e-learning (Application – use in self-development, self-realization, research scientific activities). The students’ answers to two questions were as follows: Z4. “Should teachers take into consideration students’ educational requests, their interests and needs while creating electronic resources in educational environments (presentations, websites, tests, video lectures, etc.)?” Answer 1: “No, they should not – I can use the resources in accordance with their needs” – 17.00%, Answer 2: “Yes, they should provide resources adapted to my individual needs” – 83.00%.

Next question Z5: “What additional electronic educational services would you like to see provided at your university?” The answers were: “Studying foreign languages” – 44.00%, “Acquiring an additional profession” – 36.00%, “Information on start-up companies and students’ businesses” – 20.00%

Students’ expectations can be effectively met by attending foreign language courses offered on the UPGOW platform (University is a Partner of the Economy Based on Knowledge); the author of this paper was involved in creating this platform as a methodological consultant and e-learning expert (http://el.us.edu.pl/upgow).

The third group of questions focused on students’ attitudes to scientific and educational relationships, cooperation and their understanding of the role of ICT in maintaining these activities (Social and cultural activities). The sample questions and answers are given below:

With respect to question Z6 “Evaluate the need for cooperation in solving educational problems (group work and teamwork, etc.)? (This was a single choice question)” the following answers were chosen by respondents, accounting for the following percentages: “These objectives are not set by the teachers” – 16%, “Teachers offer tasks that require cooperation for successful solving” – 33%, “I strive to cooperate and ask teachers to offer such tasks” – 18%, “Such competences are needed to be successful in life” – 22%, “Without such competences it is impossible to be successful in business, e.g., when creating start-ups” – 11%.
The answers to question Z7: “Do you use social services, such as social networks, for collaboration and teamwork? (A single choice question)” were as in Figure 1:

![Bar chart showing distribution of answers to question Z7]

**Figure 1. Answers to question Z7**

Among the respondents’ answers to question Z8: “Specify the main reason for your participation in virtual communities of students (scientific, artistic, sports ones, etc.) in social networks or other Internet services” (A single choice question) the following distribution of answers was received (Figure 2):

![Pie chart showing distribution of answers to question Z8]

**Figure 2. Answers to question Z8**
The fourth group of questions was focused on increasing opportunities for self-realization in educational and professional activities. The sample questions are below: Z9 “Choose the reasons motivating you to demonstrate in the university electronic environment, the results of your academic, artistic, sporting activities (on the university website, in social networks, etc.) (Application – use in self-development, self-realization, research, scientific activities) and question Z10 “Choose which informational resources you use most often when doing assignments, doing research, preparing reports, etc. (Application – use when studying)

The students’ answers to the single choice questions and generally their declaration of approach to the increasing opportunities for self-realization in educational and professional activities, support of initiatives are relatively high in percentage terms, but not well organized, coordinated or consciously structured and targeted. At the same time, nearly 18% of the students, for the 1st questions chose “An opportunity to be noticed by a potential employer”. Probably this results from the activities of the university’s Office of Careers in the area of student training and promotion of young people, in particular, on the Internet.

The fifth group of questions related to Effect 5: The increase in the degree of openness of the scientific and educational environment, expanding the influence of the university on external cultural environments; the positioning of the participants in the research and education community (Understanding the potentialities and role of using ICT in teaching) and includes question Z11: “Choose what elements of the university electronic environment can influence your choice to study at it. The following were the variants of answers (in % chosen by students) (Figure 3):

Practically speaking, all the answer variants were given similar scores, but the largest percentage of the students (22%) chose “Massive online courses, provided by the university” – 22.00% as an element of the university electronic environment that can influence ones’ choice to study at it. This means that in addition to classic subject-specific remote courses, the students expect to be able to attend MOOCs, which are characterized by a larger scale, both in terms of the number of students from various parts of the world (for an unlimited number of students), and content (wider range of materials, and in terms of activities – in addition to materials usually presented during classic courses, such as lectures, quizzes and problems to solve, access is provided to videos (tutorials), interactive forums and wiki. Those attending such courses can receive certificates that confirm the skills gained and that are credited towards the completion of a module or itself constitute a module. Consideration should be given to developing such courses for students from the University of Silesia and for the entire international consortium. As part of the IRNet project (WWW.irnet.us.edu.pl), which is coordinated by the author of this
The sixth group of questions relate to Effect 6: Enhancing self-organizational effects that support sustainable development of the educational environment of the university and its participants and includes two questions: Z12 “Select an educational activities strategy that you prefer” (Understanding the capabilities and role. Possession). The following were the variants of answers (Figure 4).

Figure 3. Answers to question Z11

Figure 4. Answers to question Z12
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As for the questions of the last group relating to Effect 6: Enhancing self-organizational effects that support the sustainable development of the educational environment of the university and its participants, 67.00% of the students chose “I study independently and systematically, regularly perform tasks, plan my own time” and “Yes, they (information technology instruments) will help greatly in planning and organizing one's own educational and extracurricular activities” – 59.00%, which indicates that student are capable of organizing their independent study quite well, above all thanks to the well-designed and functioning space of the information and communication university e-environment, in particular, of the Faculty Distance Learning Platform (based on the Moodle system, and including more than 60 e-learning courses, a project platform, an e-library, a USOS system for university students and lecturer support, and other e-services for teaching and learning support). We received survey results regarding this aspect of education strategies as perceived by the students, which is very interesting, especially in the context of lifelong learning. Simultaneously, most of the students – 2/3 (67%) prefer “Studying independently and systematically, regularly performing tasks, planning my own time”. To the question “Will the information technology instruments (electronic diaries, organizers, calendars, reminders, etc.) help you in the planning your own educational and extracurricular activities? (Single choice question)” – 59% of the young respondents' answers were “Yes, they will help greatly in organizing”. It is possible that one of the reasons for such an opinion is the introduction of an Information Technology course, taught during the first year at the university (30 h).

When analyzed using statistical tools (Statistical software tools to view and conduct an analysis of knot groups to select a statistical procedure or a graph that we want to draw for groups determined by the values of the variable selected) it was possible to investigate the existing correlations based on specific variables. There is a significant correlation between variables Z3 and Z5 (at the 0.27 level, p < 0.05, N = 100); Z3 and Z9 (0.21), Z4 and Z13 (0.23).

This means that the answers to question Z3 “Choose the most important, from your point of view, indicators of the comfort of the electronic environment of the university. Application – the use in self-development, self-realization, research, scientific activities” correlate with the answers to question Z5: “What additional electronic educational services would you like to see provided at your university?” (at the 0.27 level, with p < 0.05, N=100);

After an analysis with a statistical tool it was found that the answers to question Z3 “Choose the most important, from your point of view, indicators of the comfort of the electronic environment of the university. Application – use in self-develop-
ment, self-realization, research, scientific activities” and to question Z9. “Choose which informational resources you use most often when doing assignments, doing research, preparing reports, etc. (a single choice question)” showed correlation at the 0.21 level, with \( p < 0.05, N=100 \);

The answers to Question: Z4. “Should teachers consider students’ educational requests, their interests and needs while creating electronic resources in the educational environment (presentations, websites, tests, video lectures, etc.)?” correlates with the answers to the question “Z13. Will the information technology instruments (electronic diaries, organizers, calendars, reminders, etc.) help you in the planning your own educational and extracurricular activities? (at the 0.23 level, with \( p < 0.05, N=100 \)).

Besides, the research results show that the students’ preferences concerning types of classes are as follows: 58.57\% of the students prefer classes via the Internet, assuming that they are taught by the same person. First of all, such results and the students’ positive preferences concerning classes via the Internet and the use of e-learning courses are determined by the systematic use of the faculty distance learning platform.

**Conclusions**

In summary, what should be highlighted is the value and multipurpose character of the internet services of the Faculty of Ethnology and Sciences of Education and the University of Silesia, coordinator of the IRNet project, which helps to identify the right solutions for different educational, academic, scientific and social issues that have proved to be difficult or impossible to solve in a conventional manner.

Students’ competence should be also considered in terms of ICT and e-learning as well as their experience, expectations, along with the need to adapt the e-space faculty and university to their requirements.

After an additional analysis of the survey results, the author of this article and the international consortium will take steps to improve the e-environment infrastructure. There are also plans to launch a new direction referred to as E-learning Management in the intercultural environment at some of the universities participating in the international consortium as part of the IRNet and Erasmus+, Erasmus Mundus projects. These results are consistent with the aims of the project – after a more detailed analysis these could be used to improve the quality of education, based on innovative methods and techniques as ICT and e-learning,
as well as to develop a friendly and functional IT infrastructure and educational e-environment of the University of Silesia and the partner universities.

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Work Psychology
Acculturation Strategies and Work Engagement among Polish Migrant Workers in Great Britain

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Abstract

The topic of interest explored in this paper concerns the acculturation strategies employed by Polish migrant workers in the United Kingdom. The aim of the present study, conducted on 166 participants residing in Great Britain, was to identify the relationship between the recognised acculturation strategies and work engagement. The socio-professional status of Polish migrant workers is also presented in this article.

Keywords: Polish migrant workers, acculturation strategies, work engagement

Introduction

Cultural diversity is currently such a common phenomenon that it would be difficult to find a society where one culture, one language and only one identity characterise the whole population (Berry et al., 2006). Migration of people is not only characteristic of the globalised world. Human mobility conquering new lands is a commonly occurring phenomenon observed in a recorded history of mankind. However, the rapid growth of global integration has led to accelerated migration on an unprecedented scale, mainly through the flow of information, ideas, cultural patterns, institutions or modernisation of the means of transport.

Poland ”still remains a country more people emigrate from, temporarily or permanently, than immigrate to” (Bera, 2008, p.29), migration has intensified
particularly after changes in the political system. This was associated primarily with the economic causes, but also with the liberalisation of passport policies and the emerging possibilities of living abroad. In 2004, after Polish accession to the European Union (EU), there was an even greater increase in emigration for employment purposes, especially to Great Britain and Northern Ireland – countries that fully opened their borders and labour markets to new members of the EU.

This paper presents the results of a study conducted on a group of Polish migrant workers residing in the United Kingdom. The aim of the presented research was to recognise the acculturation strategies employed by the migrant workers from Poland and to identify the correlation between the assessed strategies and the specific professional activities of the subjects. Another important endeavour of the study was to present selected aspects of life and work of Polish migrant workers living in Great Britain.

The Concept and Nature of Acculturation

Prolonged contact of people belonging to different cultural contexts is now very common, and many reasons for this occurrence have been recognized. Berry (1997) identifies three main factors as the reasons why people with different cultural backgrounds – different cultural groups – currently occupy the same space: voluntariness, mobility and permanence.

Due to changes in a familiar cultural context, prolonged contact with the unknown culture and the necessity to adapt to prevailing rules, many individuals develop a sense of inadequacy, disorientation, fear and confusion, often called a “culture shock” or “transition shock” (Kim, 2002).

Berry (2001), however, introduces the concept of “acculturative stress”. He states that the word “shock” has only negative connotations, which highlights mainly negative effects of the process. On the contrary, acculturation, in his understanding, may result in both good and bad adaptation of the individual. The individual deals with emerging problems by engaging in specific coping strategies, which in Berry’s acculturation model have been called acculturation strategies. The term “acculturative” emphasizes that the source of stressors lies in the interaction, contact between cultures, in contrast to the term “culture”, which could suggest a relationship with only one single culture.

In principle, each culture could equally affect another culture. However, it usually happens in practice that one culture is predominant in its influence on
Acculturation Strategies and Work Engagement among…

another culture. Researchers have developed many models of acculturation, which can be categorized in two main groups: unidimensional models and multidimensional models. Acculturation in terms of the unidimensional models, also called unidirectional models, is a linear process, which involves a move from one cultural context to another one, with the understanding that over time it will result in assimilation (Flannery et al., 2001).

Bidimensional models of acculturation, including Berry’s model as a prominent example, assume that this process runs in parallel relationship with both new and old cultural contexts. The existence of these two dimensions resulted in determining four possible types of acculturation: integration, assimilation, separation and marginalisation. Belonging to one culture does not exclude being connected to another culture. Some individuals after being exposed to a new culture can benefit from the repertoire of behaviours characteristic of both of the cultures, which would explain the phenomenon of cultural diversity of modern societies.

**Acculturation Strategies**

When an individual is interested in cultivation of the culture of the country of origin and seeking daily interactions with representatives of a new culture, we are dealing with the strategy of integration. An individual choosing this strategy highly values both the original culture and the culture of the host country.

We can talk about assimilation when individuals are not interested in maintaining their own cultural identity, but they want to fully connect to the dominant culture of the host country through everyday interactions with its representatives. People employing this strategy wish to be fully absorbed by the culture of the host country.

The opposite of this strategy is the strategy of separation, in which individuals consider preservation of their original cultural identity as essential and wish to avoid interactions with people of another culture.

The most extreme acculturation strategy is the strategy of marginalisation, which occurs when an individual has little possibility of or interest in maintaining their native culture (often as a result of enforced culture renunciation or considering it as of too little value) and does not express any interest in participating in the life of the inhabitants in the country of settlement, or in the case when they did not manage to establish contact with the hosts. This situation often results in a sense of alienation, ”often leading to mental disorders and predisposing criminogenic behaviours” (Grzymała-Moszczyńska, 2000).
Acculturation studies (Berry, 1997) suggest that acculturation strategies have a substantial relationship with processes of adaptation. Integration usually affects adaptation most favourably, marginalisation is the least favourable, whereas assimilation and separation are somewhere in between. As noted by Berry (1997, p.24) “this pattern has been found in virtually every study, and is present for all types of acculturating groups”.

**Problem**

Analysis of the literature on acculturation research indicates that the adopted strategy in this area significantly affects the lives of immigrants in the country in which they choose to settle. Because a chosen strategy highlights the individual's attitude toward the new as well as the native culture, it affects their functioning in many areas of life in the host country, particularly in the area of professional activity.

The aim of the present study was to investigate the relationship between the acculturation strategy pursued by migrant workers and their work engagement.

Hypothesis 1: There is a significant positive correlation between the strategies of integration and assimilation chosen by the immigrants and engagement in their work.

Hypothesis 2: There is a significant negative correlation between separation and marginalisation strategies and work engagement.

An important objective of this study was also an attempt to present selected contexts of the socio-economic situation of the subjects, which appears to be essential for a better understanding and interpretation of the nature of their working life.

In this paper, the concept of work engagement proposed by Schaufeli and Bakker (2003) was utilised. They define it as a “positive, fulfilling, work-related state of mind, characterized by vigor, dedication and absorption. Vigor is characterised by high levels of energy and mental resilience while working, as well as the readiness to invest effort in one's work, and persistence in the face of difficulties. Dedication refers to being strongly involved in one's work and experiencing a sense of significance, enthusiasm, inspiration, pride, and challenge. Absorption is characterized by being fully concentrated and happily engrossed in one's work, whereby time passes quickly and one has difficulties in detaching oneself from work“ (Schaufeli and Bakker, 2003, pp.4–5). Utrecht Work Engagement Scale –
Acculturation Strategies and Work Engagement among…

UWES (Schaufeli and Bakker, 2003; Schaufeli and Salanova, 2007a, b) was used in this research.

Method

Participants
The study involved Polish migrant workers residing in Great Britain. In total there were 216 participants, of whom 59% were female. Data were collected via the Internet, by means of social networking sites (www.nasza-klasa.pl and www.facebook.com), email and postal mail.

The majority of the respondents (57.6%) fit within the age range 25–30 years, 16.9% are aged 18–24 years and 18.9% in the range of 31–40 years. The smallest age group (6.6%) included persons over 50 years of age.

Measures

1. Personal Questionnaire
In order to understand and present the quality of living and working of Polish immigrants in Britain, a personal questionnaire was constructed. It is composed of three parts: 1. Personal data, 2. Move from Poland to Great Britain, and 3. Life and work in Britain.

2. Acculturation Strategy Questionnaire
The Acculturation Strategy Questionnaire is a measure created by the authors of this article. It contains 21 closed-ended questions covering various areas of life concerning both attitudes (e.g. I would like my neighbours to be...) and behaviours of immigrants (e.g. I obtain information about what is happening in the world from...) toward the dominant society. The task of the subjects is to complete the presented sentences with one of four possible answers, of which each corresponds to a strategy of acculturation (integration, assimilation, separation, and marginalisation).

3. Utrecht Work Engagement Scale (UWES)
The Utrecht Work Engagement Scale (UWES), by Bakker and Schaufeli, is a self-report questionnaire, containing a total of 17 items. The task of the subjects is to respond to 17 presented statements using a seven-point Likert scale (from 0 – “never”, to 6 – “always / every day”). The indicator of work engagement is the average of the points that the subject allocated to each statement. The UWES
measure is based on three dimensions of commitment to work – vigor, dedication and absorption. Factor analysis of the questionnaire revealed that the three-factor structure is superior to the one-factor model, however all the three dimensions are closely linked. The scale shows cross-national invariance, good internal consistency and stability across time (Schaufeli and Bakker, 2003).

**Results**

**Socio-demographic Portrait of a Polish Migrant Worker**

A total of 216 people participated in this study. The vast majority (96.6%) of the subjects have Polish citizenship, and only 3.4% of the respondents have dual Polish-British nationality.

In terms of marital status, unmarried persons predominate in the study group (47.8%), followed by married women and married men (30.7%), and a smaller group of people cohabiting (21.5%). Among those who declared having a life partner, the largest group (80.8%) is in a relationship with a person of Polish descent, 12% of the respondents have a British partner and 7.2% other nationalities.

Most participants (73.2%) declared to have a learned profession. The most numerous professional groups in the study population consist of specialists in education (21.3%), economists and management specialists (18.7%), health professionals (15.6%), office staff and sales representatives (15.8), whereas very few operators and assemblers of machinery and equipment, personal and protection services, and other industrial workers and craftsmen (1.6%) took part in the study.

Most respondents (66.5%) worked in Poland before moving to Britain, but it is important to note that a large group (56.7%) did not work in their learned profession.

Most of the respondents (69.5%) declared that they had emigrated 2 years before. The fewest number of the participants (4.6%) had lived abroad for less than 6 months.

The most commonly stated reasons that had made the subjects leave the country were: willingness to gain new experiences, curiosity or a desire to develop, a desire to get a better job and the need for a higher salary. It is important to notice that the major role in making the decision about emigration was played by the “pull” and not the “push” factors. Dissatisfaction with the situation in Poland is shown in only 1.9% of all the responses.
The majority (88%) of the subjects that had emigrated with the intent to stay in the UK permanently still maintained their decision, while only 12% had changed their minds and intended to return to Poland. Among those who had originally declared a desire to stay in the UK temporarily, a half (51.1%) still upheld this decision, while 28.7% said they thought about residing in Britain permanently. The decision to settle permanently in Britain, despite earlier intentions to return or no definite plans, can be caused by many different factors, such as starting a family or professional success in current employment.

However, regardless of the declarations of plans to remain in Britain permanently, the majority of the respondents (44.7%) stated they did not intend to apply for British citizenship, a third of the respondents (33.9%) had not yet taken a decision on the matter, and 21.4% of the people wanted to become citizens of the United Kingdom.

Almost all the respondents (97.6%) admitted that they kept in touch (via telephone, letter, email, etc.) with relatives in Poland, and the majority (97.2%) regularly visited the country. Nearly half of the respondents (48.2%) did so with the frequency of 1 to 6 months, 39.3% with the frequency of 6 to 12 months, and 10.8% not more frequently than once every two years or longer. Only 1.7% of the participants said they visited their relatives more frequently than once a month.

Most respondents (49.3%) made the decision to emigrate on their own, 35.8% decided to go to the UK in the company of friends, 12.1% of the people emigrated with their families, while 2.8% of the respondents travelled with other Poles who were to be employed in the same place.

Most subjects had some knowledge of the English language upon departure – 37.9% of the respondents claimed that their level of English was intermediate, 29.8% basic and 23.8% considered their English language skills as advanced. Only 8.5% of the respondents said they had decided to emigrate without any knowledge of English. Currently, 66.9% speak English at an advanced level, 31.7% at an intermediate level, and only 1.4% of the respondents still do not speak the language at all.

The vast majority of the Polish migrants participating in the study (88.6%) support themselves by working. Only 6% said that they were financially supported by their partners and 4.8% had been granted a University scholarship. Only 2.4% of the respondents receive social welfare.

The financial situation of the respondents in most cases is considered by them as good or average. The economic circumstances are related to housing conditions. Most respondents (45.2%) rent an apartment, a little fewer rent a house (23.2%) or
only a room (31.6%). None of the subjects is homeless or resides in an institution (e.g., nursing home, homeless shelter, church, etc.).

The majority of the participants in our study are currently employed (89.8%), some of the respondents (22.3%) are studying, and 5% are looking for a job (unemployed, or those who intend to change their current employer). Only 2% of our subjects are not working or looking for jobs, because they are taking care of the household or looking after children. The largest group of the studied Poles are employed in services, the security sector and simple jobs (11.4% in each sector). The smallest group consists of precision manufacturing workers and other industrial workers and craftsmen.

Almost all the respondent Poles (94.9%) have a National Insurance Number, which means that they can be legally employed in the United Kingdom, 78.6% are also registered with a local family doctor, which may indicate that they are getting used to life in Britain.

**Verification of Hypotheses**

The most strongly represented strategy in the sample of the Polish migrant workers was the strategy of integration ($M=0.63$, $SD=0.15$), then the strategies of assimilation ($M=0.15$, $SD=0.12$) and separation ($M=0.19$, $SD=0.14$), while the strategy of marginalisation was practically not recognized ($M=0.09$, $SD=0.06$).

The surveyed Poles are engaged in their work at the average level. The UWES average (on a 7-point scale) for all the employed subjects was $M=3.74$, $SD=1.22$.

Analysis of the correlation coefficient of r-Pearson (two-tailed significance) showed that there was no statistically significant association between work engagement and the strategy of integration and marginalisation. Statistically significant, although rather weak, are the relationships between work engagement and the strategy of separation and assimilation. In the case of the latter, there is a positive correlation, at $r = 0.34$, $p <0.01$, whereas for the strategy of separation, a negative correlation of $r = −0.31$, $p <0.01$ was found.

Analysis of the data did not allow for the acceptance of the hypotheses suggesting the relationship between the acculturation strategies and work engagement. These results suggest that the migrant workers’ attitudes to the culture of the country where they live and work do not translate directly into their engagement in work.
**Discussion**

A great majority of the Polish emigrants participating in this study pursued the strategy of integration. It seems that the very important factor which contributed to this result is the specificity of the sample. The tests were not carried out in Great Britain among randomly selected individuals. The respondents were obtained through the Internet and via a network of acquaintances. It should be assumed that the research sample consists mostly of people whose financial situation allows them to use the Internet at home or an internet café. These are also mostly working people or individuals with a stable economic situation. In their spare time they could (and wanted to) devote their time to participating in the study. Perhaps those who are in a difficult situation, such as the homeless or unemployed looking for work in the UK, would not find the time for the use of social media, which contains information about the study, or to complete a questionnaire. Thus, the participants in our study are mainly those who have been relatively successful in the UK, they have found a job or stabilised their financial situation. Since the integration strategy is considered to be the most beneficial, it can be assumed that the people who are adapted well to the new conditions – have found employment and housing, and did not end up on the street or return to Poland after a defeat – pursue mostly this specific strategy.

Another reason for the domination of the integration strategy may be the fact that while allowing for best adaptation it facilitates the individuals who apply it to remain in the host country, whereas those using other strategies – individuals not fully adapted and not satisfied with the life as immigrant – more often choose to return to the country of origin. One more explanation of this state of affairs may be that the cultural distance between Poland and the UK is not significant. Therefore, the Poles residing in Britain do not find it difficult to adapt to the culture of the dominant society, while preserving the customs, habits, attitudes or behaviours characteristic of Polish culture.

Yet another cause of the predominance of the strategy of integration may be the fact that people who voluntarily choose to emigrate are highly flexible. They can quickly adapt to changing conditions and combine the elements of their own culture with the elements of the culture of the country of settlement. It seems that the strategy of marginalisation or separation could be observed more often in the group of refugees and displaced people, rather than in voluntary emigrants.

The last reason for such a large difference between the strategy of integration and other strategies may be the fact that the policy of Great Britain is in principle a policy promoting multiculturalism. London, where the majority of the respond-
ents reside, is recognized worldwide as a place where many cultures meet. Therefore, while trying to settle in a society in which the ideology of multiculturalism is so highly regarded, individuals will most likely choose the integration strategy as it can provide the best adaptation to the new society.

The analyses did not confirm the assumed relationship between the acculturation strategies of the Polish migrant workers and their work engagement. While interpreting these results it is worth considering two important aspects – the specificity of the professional situation of the Poles and the results of earlier studies, such as the one conducted by Schaufeli and Bakker (2003).

With regards to the first aspect, it appears to be of importance that the majority of the Polish migrant workers carry out jobs not related to their learned profession. They do menial jobs, not very attractive, not very challenging, and not allowing for rapid development or fulfilment. Clear discrepancies between the respondents' learned professions and their occupations in the UK can be seen. This could be the reason why the subjects do not exhibit particular engagement in their current work. This interpretation corresponds to the findings reported by other researchers, who suggest that work engagement is significantly related to labour resources, such as social support from colleagues and superiors, positive feedback on professional achievements, autonomy at work, task variety, possibility of development (Schaufeli, Bakker, 2003), as well as coaching and a positive atmosphere in the workplace (Xanthopoulou et al., 2008, 2009). The more such resources appear in the organisation, the greater the likelihood of work engagement in employees. Bakker and Van Dieren Euwemy, in their longitudinal study, also indicate labour resources as the determinants of work engagement (Schaufeli, Salanova, 2007). Within two years it was observed that the support from co-workers and autonomy at work increased the employees' work engagement the most. The obtained results correspond to the Job Characteristics Theory, developed by Hackman and Oldham, which says that some job characteristics such as task variety, autonomy and performance feedback contribute to the development of internal motivation of employees, which is close to the concept of work engagement (Schaufeli, Salanova, 2007).

As emphasized by Schaufeli and Bakker (2003), in most studies conducted on acculturation, the integration strategy is the most commonly and marginalisation the least commonly chosen strategy, which is consistent with the results of the present research.

Nonetheless, in order to obtain a true picture of the population of Polish migrant workers in the UK it would be necessary to include those whose life abroad was less successful. Without considering the situation of less successful emigrants, the
image of Polish migrant workers and their usage of acculturation strategies is not
complete. The present results encourage further exploration of this important and
current problem.

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The New Educational Review

Review
Positive psychology is the scientific study of how people thrive and its goal is to help people lead better lives (MacIntyre and Mercer, 2014). Over the past decades positive psychology has established its place in general psychology. But in the field of second language acquisition (SLA) positive psychology is still in its infancy and little research has focused on its application in this field. So far the only book dealing with the positive psychology theories and their applications and implications in SLA is MacIntyre, Gregersen, and Mercer’s (2016) edited volume entitled “Positive Psychology in SLA”.

Positive Psychology Perspectives on Foreign Language Learning and Teaching is a recent collection of articles which theoretically, empirically, and practically investigate the pivotal concerns in foreign language learning and teaching (FLLT) through the lens of positive psychology. This edited volume encompasses four major themes each of which deals with an aspect of positive psychology in FLLT. Part one of this book aims at introducing positive psychology tenets in FLLT. Peter MacIntyre and Rebecca Oxford, two pioneering researchers in positive psychology in SLA, present their views on the key trends in the application of positive psychology in language learning and teaching and the creation of a model called EMPATHICS (Emotions and Empathy, Meaning and Motivation, Perseverance, Agency and Autonomy, Time, Hardiness and Habits of mind, Intelligence, Character strengths, and Self factors) for language learners’ wellbeing. Also, Hanna
Komorowska expresses her suspicion regarding the misinterpretation of the premises of positive psychology in educational institutions and seeks to elucidate the challenges learners encounter in learning a language and to empower teachers to contribute to learners’ growth.

In part two the first three articles by Tammy Gregersen, Liliana Piasecka, and Sylwia Kossakowska-Pisarek focus on the foreign language learners and show how positive interventions can facilitate successful language learning and learners’ wellbeing. Further in this part articles by Ewa Guz and Małgorzata Tetiurka, and Katarzyna Ożańska-Ponikwia, among others, try to explain the ways in which language learners’ achievements can be fostered through positive affects. Meanwhile, the article by Danuta Gabryś-Barker makes an attempt to underline the role of foreign language classroom atmosphere in promoting language learning, personal growth, and both teachers’ and learners’ wellbeing.

All the articles in part three of the book concentrate on the professional and humanistic facets of language teachers. These articles try to investigate teachers’ professional wellbeing, emotions, stress, as well as expectations from teachers and show the contribution of positive psychology to foster teachers’ professional competence and their personal ambitions to flourish.

The last part of this collection focuses on one of the most challenging aspects of language teaching: assessing language learner achievement. The articles in this part shed light on the ways the application of positive psychology in the process of the assessment of learner achievement make this process delightful and less painful.

Considering both language learners and teachers as humans and professionals, all the chapters of Positive Psychology Perspectives on Foreign Language Learning and Teaching delineate what positive psychology has on offer in regard to the wellbeing and success of learners and teachers. Since positive psychology is quite new in the field of foreign/second language learning and teaching, this book will definitely pave the way for readers to gain a thorough understanding of the application of positive psychology in language learning and teaching and for positive psychology to establish itself as a distinct discipline per se. Furthermore, this book foregrounds the significant role that positive psychology can play in educational milieus and personal lives of teachers and learners in terms of their academic achievement, hope, wellbeing, happiness, strength, hardiness, and resilience.

References
Chronicle
The Summer School of Young Pedagogues [LSMP – Letnia Szkoła Młodych Pedagogów] is a sort of academic relationship between the representatives of diverse sub-disciplines of pedagogy which, on the one hand, provides the opportunity to confront the knowledge of education in a broad sense and on the other hand it brings assistance to the junior researchers of the science by stimulating and supporting their academic workshop. This gives the young teachers a chance to develop their factual and methodological competences as well as self-presentation skills and to present their academic achievements. Meetings with outstanding professors is a significant academic experience for the novices in the field of teaching. A great part of the LSMP is dedicated to the fundamental issues of educating and training. A lot of attention is also paid to the basic issues of pedagogy as a scientific discipline, methods of its performance and to maintaining an adequate relation between theory and practice.

Therefore, the Summer School of Young Pedagogues is a perfect ground for social integration of scholars who represent diverse pedagogic sub-disciplines and, at the same time, it provides a cross-generational integration.

The classes in the Summer School of Young Pedagogues are designed to arouse all participants’ interest, give them tools to debate and present the research results of both the pedagogy authorities and young researchers. Also, there is time for conversation and consultations.

The originator as well as the first academic tutor at the Summer School of Young Pedagogues was Professor Wincenty Okoń. Professor Maria Dudzikowa, the then
chairwoman of the Committee of Pedagogical Sciences of the National Academy of Sciences (KNP PAN) has been performing this function since 1994. The organizer and the participant of the majority of the Summer Schools, Professor Tadeusz Lewowicki (the chairman of the Committee of Pedagogical Sciences of National Academy of Sciences in 1993–2007), was also engaged in creating the concept and its organization. Currently, the task was taken over by Professor Bogusław Śliwerski – the chairman of the Committee of Pedagogical Sciences of the National Academy of Sciences.

The idea of the Summer School of Young Pedagogues would undoubtedly not be possible to complete without the engagement and huge work of many people. Annual meetings are organized by the Committee of Pedagogical Sciences of the National Academy of Sciences with the participation of the Dean of Faculty of Pedagogy in one of the Polish universities – a different university hosts the Summer School of Young Pedagogues each year.

Each of the Summer Schools is different, original, dedicated to specific, important pedagogic issues and gathers further generations of Young Pedagogues as well as outstanding professors. Each time the event is organized in a different place in Poland, in beautiful spots, usually associated with our history, surrounded by nature, which is conducive to a special atmosphere.

An important achievement of the LSMP is the academic publication *Zeszyty Naukowe Forum Młodych Pedagogów* [*Academic Papers of Young Pedagogues*] in which the participants may present their speeches. Reports on each year’s Schools are successively published in *Rocznik Pedagogiczny* [*Pedagogical Annual Book*] published by the Committee of Pedagogical Sciences of the National Academy of Sciences.

Between 12 and 16 September 2016, the participants of the Summer School of Young Pedagogues met for the thirtieth time. The Faculty of Pedagogy and Psychology of the University of Silesia in Katowice had the honour to organize the jubilee meeting. The Dean, Professor Stanisław Juszczyk, along with the organization team performed the function of the host. The leading topic of this year’s School was *Pułapki badań nad edukacją* [*Catches in research on education*]. The inauguration of the Summer School took place in Katowice – the capital city.

1 The Committee of Pedagogical Sciences of National Academy of Sciences [Komitet Nauk Pedagogicznych Państwowej Akademii Nauk – KNP PAN] is a self-governed representation of pedagogical sciences which is designed to integrate scholars in Poland and which is a part of the National Academy of Sciences structure. The Committee was appointed in 1953. The Committee of Pedagogical Sciences of National Academy of Sciences comprises professors of pedagogy selected by appropriate academic environments and members of the Academy.
of Upper Silesia. Professor Tadeusz Sławek, the President of the University of Silesia in 1996–2002, filled in the assembled people on the thoughts on pedagogy during his inauguration lecture, in which he spoke about the academic research and upbringing by referring to Shakespeare’s dramas. The following days of the sessions took place in Wisła – a beautiful town in the Beskidy Mountains, southern Poland. The series of professors’ lectures for the participants of the 30th Summer School of Young Pedagogues was initiated by a lecture on methodology of research in social and human sciences by Professor Jacek Piekarski from the University of Łódź, whereas Professor Jarosław Gara from the Maria Grzegorzewska University, Professor Urbaniak-Zając and Professor Bogusław Śliwerski from the University of Łódź, Professor Maria Czerepaniak-Wlaczak from the University of Szczecin, Professor Zenon Gajdzica from the University of Silesia in Katowice, Professor Wiesława Limont and Professor Krzysztof Rubacha from the Nicolaus Copernicus University in Toruń spoke about the methodological catches in social research. The lectures raised a lively discussion on the disproportion of paradigms in human and social sciences. Professor Katarzyna Krasoń from the University of Silesia brought the participants into the world of art with an lecture entitled *Art and cognition – romantic utopia, charlatanism or necessity?*

It should be emphasized that the Summer School of Young Pedagogues does not aim exclusively at increasing the knowledge or exchanging scientific experience, but it constitutes a unique platform for getting to know new people and making new acquaintances. It is a specific social phenomenon which has taken place for as many as several dozen years and each Summer School is a meaningful undertaking in academic life, an original product, a concept developed throughout the year by Professor Maria Dudzikowska. Each meeting being a part of the LSMP ends with success and constitutes yet another successful academic, social and organizational experience.