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POLAND**

**University of Belgrade, Teacher Education Faculty
SERBIA**

Chosen issues of education in the modern era

edited by
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Introduction¹

The multi-faceted issue of the modern education triggers the need for reflection, inspiring scientists, practitioners and other entities functioning in the educational reality to obtain a considerable insight into its various areas. The reality of school education discloses an opportunity of developing the potential of a teacher, a student and an institution per se.

The monograph analyses significant, though only selected, challenges of the modern education. The authors examine phenomena and problems whose diagnosis may constitute the basis for constructive changes towards a better quality focused upon improving interactions in a didactic and educational process.

The given publication is noticeably divided into two parts. The first one contains texts related to the education of prospective teachers. The second part, devoted to the school education, consists of both theoretical and practical references.

While considering the content of the first part of the monograph, it is undoubtedly worth indicating that the process of preparing teachers for their prospective profession by achieving learning outcomes in the field of knowledge, skills and social attitudes is indeed a priority in both acquiring and developing their multiple competences. The scientific effort of the authors concentrating upon the sphere of higher education is fully justified since a teacher is definitely a significant person from whom professionalism and expert approach are to be expected. The authors' reliance upon two equal and complementary research models of qualitative and quantitative research allowed for the description of facts, their interpretation and explanation.

Amongst many teaching competences, being fluent in a foreign language occupies an important, though not always appreciated, place. Ana Vujović addresses the following issues in her text: the lack of authorities' understanding of the importance of foreign languages for specific purposes and the disappearance of multilingualism. According to the authoress, the source of this state of affairs can be observed in undervaluation and insufficient provision of foreign languages for specific purposes during academic studies, which not only hinders the international mobility of students, but also negatively affects the cultural competences and communication of future teachers in foreign languages. Aleksandra Gojkov-Rajić and Jelisaveta Šafranjk likewise refer to learning foreign languages for specific purposes but they are rather focused on the implementation of information technology (IT) in language teaching. They present the results of research conducted in two groups of students of two higher education institutions regarding their assessment of the use of information technology in the didactic process and its relation to achievements and motivation to study. Nataša Janković and Miroslava Ristić present an innovative program and interdisciplinary method of teaching English with the use of educational technologies implemented in teacher education at the Teacher Education Faculty in Belgrade.

Zdzisława Załona and Bogusława Gawel present the results of diagnostic tests carried out in places of professional training of prospective teachers. The respondents were potential employers and supervisors of apprenticeship on behalf of an educational institution. The process of preparing prospective teachers studying Pedagogy of a practical profile was assessed. Ivko Nikolić analyses future teachers' opinion on the concept of a quality school. The research results showing significance of a school's quality in a changing society and a teacher's role

¹ Translated by Jarosław Giza, PhD.

in an emancipation context provide a considerable insight into how prospective teachers are being prepared during the course of study in order to fulfil tasks and professional duties ensuring high quality and effectiveness of teaching. Anna Struzik's text addresses the notion of multifunctional games developed by students during university classes. While addressing the development-educational function of games indispensable while working with students who will be teaching pupils at younger school age, it is important to point to their cognitive and practical value.

Mirosław Michalik's article commences the second section of the given monograph. The author deals with one of the dimensions of inclusive pedagogy. In his theoretical presentation, the author clearly demonstrates the biological determinants of speech of people with cerebral palsy. He analyses communication of these people on many levels, discussing it from linguistic, para-linguistic and non-linguistic aspects. Research interests of Anđela Đuković, Ivana Mrvoš and Ivica Radovanović focus on the theory of symbolic interactionism. The authors show its usefulness in the family education, learning about family relations and explaining functioning of its members. Joanna Jachimowicz discusses the results of her own research on the communication between teachers and students. She is interested in T. Gordon's concept of the anti-authoritarian communication in the aspect of speech acts of J. Austin and J. R. Searl. The authoress proves that statements of teachers working in III and VI grades at rural and urban primary schools are additionally differentiated on the basis of their subject of teaching. Marija Malović, Milijana Lazarević and Aleksandar Stojanović analyse the questions of risk and safety perceived as perceived as elements comprising a complex social construct influencing the children's growth. They present the issue from the point of view of practitioners whose objective is to create an educational space that will support the process of creating child's identity and ways of its participation in the community. This subject is well-matched by the issue raised by Katarzyna Frączek. She places her scientific attention upon destructive activities taking place in groups of contemporary youth. The authoress shares her experience of the school pedagogue describing the mechanisms of development of such conduct; she offers recommendations for a therapeutic work with students and their parents. Zbigniew Ostrach's article deals with ecology – an important topic of the contemporary education. A care for the natural environment is a priority for people's lives, therefore shaping and developing pro-ecological attitudes of students is a task inscribed in the school teaching. While conducting research in a rural setting the author asserts that IV-VIII grade pupils of elementary school are cognizant of environmental issues and employ activities conducive to ecological behavior in their everyday life.

The subject matter of the given monograph is in truth part of the current discussion upon the contemporary problems of education. Although it refers only to a selected range of issues and signals a narrow stream of considerations, it can undeniably be an inspiration for further research in other equally important areas. A reflective reader can also undertake research of educational practice in analogous areas of research, deepen knowledge and empirical experience about diverse and multi-layered contemporary education. A diagnosis of functioning of education in various areas determines legitimacy of the directions of its changes and, at the same time, shows the significance of improvement in achieving high quality. Seen from this perspective, the given publication is indeed cognitively valuable since it offers us a substantial insight into a specific section of the educational reality.

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prof. Ivica Radovanović, PhD

Part I.
Selected areas of education for future teachers

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FOREIGN LANGUAGE FOR SPECIFIC PURPOSES AND MODERN TEACHER EDUCATION

Summary

The initial hypothesis of this paper is that contemporary education of teachers, as well as of all other academically educated citizens, must involve knowledge of at least one foreign language for specific purposes. However, that is obviously not always the case. Therefore, this paper deals with two key problems in our higher education: on the one hand, the lack of understanding of the importance of foreign languages for specific purposes and the narrowing of their space in educational programmes, and, on the other, the disappearance of multilingualism. Using the descriptive and comparative analysis methods, we will present the study programmes of several faculties of our universities and refer to the recommendations from some of the basic European educational-policy documents. The aim of the paper is to investigate the issue of insufficient knowledge of foreign languages, especially pertaining to the teaching profession, as well as the foreign languages for academic purposes. The lack of language knowledge reduces the quality of the basic education of students – future teachers, it hinders, and sometimes even prevents, international university mobility, and then impedes continuous improvement and development of teachers' cultural and professional competences. In the conclusion, we propose ways to improve the current unsatisfactory position of foreign languages for specific purposes, within a wider scope of changes in the country's language policy.

Key words: foreign language for specific purposes, contemporary teacher education, study programmes, professional competences.

Introduction

In the educational policy documents of the European Union, teacher education is considered to be one of the central and most important elements of the European integration process, as teachers are expected to contribute to preparing students for life in a contemporary society, to promote mobility and cooperation in Europe and beyond, and to encourage and develop respect and understanding among cultures. Educational systems in Europe and everywhere in the modern world are required to incorporate the transnational and European dimension into education more intensively in order to increase the competitiveness of the EU and national states, to encourage citizens' mobility and to build a common European awareness that can preserve the linguistic and cultural diversity of the continent as an identity mark and incorporate it productively in further development.

Such a standpoint has been established for decades in professional literature focused on the need for the education systems of all countries to enable young people to engage in work successfully and to progress during their entire working life in terms of developing their professional abilities. David Crystal points to the fact that learning foreign languages is not a luxury in an internationally-oriented world, but a prerequisite for full mutual understanding and cooperation among peoples. That is exactly why efforts have been made to make the teaching of foreign languages communicative, i.e. to have learners direct their attention to understanding the functions of a language and developing their own ability to choose the appropriate kind of language for use in specific situations (Kristal, 1987, p. 374).

According to Howard Gardner, it is necessary to nurture all kinds of intelligence: verbal-linguistic, logical-mathematical, visual-spatial, bodily-kinesthetic, musical-rhythmic, interpersonal, intrapersonal and naturalistic (Gardner, 1993; Gardner, 1999). In terms of language in use, sociolinguistics lays emphasis on the purposeful and creative use of available language resources, that is, on free communication with different groups of speakers (native and non-native) under different everyday or professional circumstances. Effective foreign language use implies a wide range of speech situations with various categories of interlocutors, as well as reading different types of texts (Bugarski, 1996, pp. 186-188). True mastery of something implies remembering what has been learned over time so that it can be recalled and used when we need it (Vulfolk, Hјuz, Volkap, 2014, pp. 95-97).

Eight key competences for lifelong learning were defined EU-wide in 2006: communication in one's mother tongue, communication in foreign languages, mathematical competence and basic natural-science and technical competence, digital competence, learning how to learn, social and civic competence, initiative and entrepreneurial competence, cultural awareness and expression. They are all related to the requirements of the international labour market, being also considered important for social cohesion and active life in the modern knowledge-based civil society (*Еуропско образовање учитеља и наставника – на путу према новом образовном циљу*, 2013, p. 10). Undoubtedly, the question of the role of such competences in teacher education is of particular importance.

In that sense, regular research should be conducted on the extent to which the mobility of students of education faculties is truly achieved in various European countries. We are convinced that the European dimension in teacher education cannot be permanently achieved without institutionalised experience abroad and meeting students, study contents and educational processes in other countries. And how is this all possible without good knowledge of foreign languages, both in terms of the teaching profession and academic needs?

An issue that especially deserves attention is encouraging the mobility of the teaching and administrative staff, especially taking into account the need for the knowledge of other foreign languages apart from English, as without such knowledge, a certain number of European university mobility programmes cannot be used at all. That leads to the failure to develop cooperation among various countries and institutions that have something to show and offer, which certainly impoverishes European educational space.

Comparative research conducted in seven countries (Germany, Austria, the Netherlands, Slovenia, Croatia, Bosnia and Herzegovina and Serbia) and published in 2013 under the title *European education of teachers – on the way to the new educational goal*, has shown that the most frequent obstacle to Mobility, even within the same country, is usually the curricular diversity among various institutions where teachers are educated, the unevenness of study programmes, of the organisation of studies and of the timing of semesters. It further highlighted the problem of recognition of academic achievements made abroad, which should be more easily acknowledged regardless of the diversity of studies. Greater content-related and structural flexibility is desirable too. Additionally, it has been observed that students of teacher education faculties use university mobility considerably less in comparison to students of other faculties. The main reason for that, as stated, is the problem of recognition of the ECTS gained abroad at the home institution, which often makes students consider study programmes out of their home institution, especially those abroad, as “a waste of time” as they will not be acknowledged.

Another serious reason for insufficient use of student mobility programmes, which is the central point of this paper, is poor foreign language mastery. Therefore, one of the conclusions of the conducted comparative research is the need for providing conditions for learning foreign languages during studies which would be substantiated with ECTS, so as to emphasize the importance of developing foreign language competences of all future teachers and so as to prevent anybody from considering it a side free-time activity and a sole responsibility of students and their families (who bear the greatest proportion of education costs in our society anyway) (*Еуропско образовање учитеља и наставника – на путу према новом образовном циљу*, 2013, p. 12).

The mentioned research shows that the strengthening of European orientation in schooling and in the education of teachers records the greatest accomplishments in the field of foreign languages. In all countries of this project, in accordance with the EU recommendations, early foreign language learning has been introduced and at least two foreign languages are provided in schools. However, the other foreign language is usually an elective/optional subject, and the absolute domination of English is commonplace. In relation to school, recommendations have been pushed forward to introduce a second foreign language as a compulsory subject and to strengthen the sensitivity to linguistic and cultural diversity, as well as to the diversity present in contemporary society. Teaching foreign languages in higher education, apart from language studies, is offered mainly as English language lessons and with a very modest number of tuition hours. At best, the course lasts two semesters with two hours per week. We do not see any justifiable reason why many faculties, paradoxically, after the implementation of the Bologna Process, completely abandoned foreign language teaching. It would be necessary to strengthen the European transnational dimension in the education of teachers, both in scientific and teaching work and in international cooperation. The goal of the European Higher Education Area is that 20% of all students spend part of their studies at some foreign university (*Еуропско образовање учитеља и наставника – на путу према новом образовном циљу*, 2013, p. 153).

In teacher education only a small number of foreign language study programmes include intercultural-linguistic and didactic issues on European topics such as: dealing with language and cultural diversity, stereotypes and prejudices, (European) language policy, didactics of multilingualism, language planning at school, minority languages and multilingualism related to migration. Differences are evident particularly in the education of foreign language teachers for young learners but this could be the topic of some other research (*Еуропско образовање учитеља и наставника – на путу према новом образовном циљу*, 2013, p. 14).

Foreign language for specific purposes and internationalization in higher education

In the last several decades, considerable internationalization has taken place in the field of education. The essence of this process is in preparing students for life and work in an intercultural and globalized environment. In Serbian higher education institutions, internationalization is currently largely implemented through student mobility. Studying abroad enables students to acquire knowledge and skills that students would apply upon their return to their country, as well as the development of intellectual understanding and tolerance. The result is the development of foreign languages, getting to know different cultures, customs and ways of life and work, while at the same time bringing closer one's own culture and language to the environment which hosts the studies, and building relationships that can lead to future professional cooperation, as mobility programme students are at the same time the ambassadors of their countries. Therefore, outgoing and incoming mobility is important for higher education institutions.

Thanks to internationalization, even students at local home universities spread their knowledge, both professional and intercultural, through interaction with colleagues-students from abroad. In the process of internationalization, universities improve the quality of education, creating professionals who will be ready for the global labour market, but also ready to become global leaders. Both long-term and short-term goals should be taken into account, from the need of the state to retain and develop new highly educated personnel in order to be ready for the 21st century economy, respecting the economic, demographic and other factors, to the need of employers to have competent employees who will provide them a competitive position on the market and of educational institutions to have quality and gifted students who will positively influence their international reputation.

It is essential that internationalization should be properly understood throughout the society and accepted by the institutional leadership, administration of universities and faculties, students and all academic services. In our country, this has been done declaratively, numerous international documents and contracts have been signed, but we are often witnesses of opposite practices. This paper starts from the hypothesis that one of the areas that undoubtedly and largely show that such standards are not being implemented is the reduced presence of foreign languages for specific purposes in the study programmes of our higher education institutions in general, including those for the education of teachers, as well as the disappearance of multilingualism.

The credit-based and academic mobility will continue to grow in Europe, especially thanks to programmes such as Erasmus+ and the inclusion of new programme countries. In the case of degree-gaining mobility, emphasis is still placed on private funding, although different national scholarship schemes will probably keep developing in Europe aiming at the development of or attracting talents, especially given the current and future demographic problems. It should not be forgotten that there are also possibilities of acquiring double degrees as well as other forms of internationalization at home: improvement and internationalization of the curricula, international reference literature in various languages, guest lecturers, analyzing case studies from foreign countries or related to foreign practices, use of digital platforms and organization of distance learning (Cvetkovska, 2018).

The Working version of *the Strategy of Internationalization of Higher Education in Serbia for the period 2017-2025* was defined in October 2016 and one of its special goals refers to the acquisition of appropriate language competences. It is based on the *Strategy for the Development of Education until 2020*, within which several measures are proposed for the opening and internationalization of higher education. „Student mobility takes a special place within the process of internationalization. Student mobility facilitates their employability, supports interculturality, achievement of the goals of the Bologna process and the European Higher Education Area and influences the competitiveness of the economy on the global market”. For our universities it is equally important to send our students abroad and to attract foreign students from the region and wider.

Without delving into the complexity of all the mentioned forms of internationalization, this paper examines only one problem: the necessity of knowing foreign languages in the function of students’ future profession, as well as of foreign languages for academic purposes.

The results of the research carried out in numerous European countries and in our country, presented at the Seminar on the *Social Dimension of Higher Education*, organized by the TEMPUS Foundation in May 2018, show that there is a very clear correlation between one’s success in the studies and the economic and educational status of the family. Namely, it is very obvious that children of educated parents are longer educated and with better

achievement, and that financial and any other support that young people can receive from their parents is very important and even necessary (first of all in the form of providing additional extra-curricular education which, to a large extent, includes private language learning). This only deepens the already existing great social disparities, diminishes the likelihood that poor students will reach the highest levels of education, have the opportunity to use international university mobility programmes, or later be able to further their professional development. In addition, only about 20% of our students receive some form of assistance from the state during their studies (which is very little compared to 70% in France, 60% in Turkey or even nearly 90% in Scandinavian countries), and these are usually excellent, not poor students, i.e. those who already have relatively favourable conditions for education. All these are the reasons why teaching and learning of foreign languages for specific purposes should be improved within regular studies in order to increase the chances of successful young people who do not have material opportunities to pay for such learning themselves achieve the appropriate level of language competence. Our students use about 40% of mobility within the Erasmus programme, which is very low in comparison to the surrounding countries, and as many as a quarter of those who do not join the mobility state as their main reason the insufficient knowledge of foreign languages. Numerous surveys show that our students who already studied abroad want to go again, but they face several difficulties: lack of financial resources, lack of information, problems of ECTS recognition, obtaining visa and lack of foreign language knowledge (especially of the language of the hosting country). The same research shows that our students often go to complete part of their studies in Italy, Germany, Spain, Austria and France, which only confirms our thesis that in addition to English, the languages of the mentioned countries must also be known (*Социјална димензија образовања*, 2012).

In our country, it is often forgotten, or not at all known, that more and more European higher education institutions require knowledge of not only English, but also the language of their country, and in support to the fact that English is not the only needed and useful language in international scientific and professional communication are the results of the research conducted by Julijana Vučo within the University of Belgrade in June 2017. This survey included students who used mobility programmes in the previous year. They all emphasized that their knowledge of the foreign language was necessary, and that improving their language skills was one of the main reasons for joining the mobility. Most of them selected the countries where they were going depending on whether they knew the country's language at least to a certain extent. Although at most of the faculties (both in the lectures and in administration) they used the English language most (78,1%), as many as 67,2% of respondents claimed that they regularly used the language of the country. Everyone believes that their knowledge of both foreign languages has improved significantly during their mobility, and even 66,7% of them did not have an official internationally recognized language certificate before arrival. Vučo points out in conclusion the clearly expressed need of students to have a standardized preparation for mobility within the university centers for foreign languages whose formation she proposes (Vučo, 2017).

In the vast majority of secondary vocational schools in our country, only one foreign language is taught, and in almost all of them it is English. Only some educational profiles have a different foreign language as a compulsory subject, and some offer it to students as an elective subject. The Foreign Languages and Literatures Association of Serbia considers that the status of another foreign language in primary education has long been compromised because the number of classes assigned to the second foreign language is very modest and

the groups or classes in which teaching is conducted are very numerous. By adopting a new umbrella law in education, in October 2017, the status of the second foreign language was changed, and it was included in the elective programmes (together with civic education and religious education), which are now graded descriptively using a three-mark scale – *stands out, good* and *satisfactory*. The law also prescribes that the descriptive grade is not included in the average mark, i.e. it does not impact the overall achievement of students, which unfortunately diminishes students' motivation and the seriousness with which they approach the study of this subject. In order for primary school, and even high school children, to be properly directed and motivated, it is necessary that the whole community, especially educational institutions, point to the importance of multilingualism and support it, not only on paper, but also through constant action. Language education policy is a complex area and all the decisions that are made at this moment will have implications for the near and distant future of both students on the personal level and the whole country – in terms of which countries we will cooperate with, in what direction we will develop our economy, what kind of cultural policy we are going to lead... The question is to what extent the decision-makers, if they themselves are not multilingual, are aware of it. Many parents, as well, think that it is enough to know just a bit of English, and that everything else is a "burden" for students. The fact that there is no real strategy in this area is also supported by this example: experimental information-technology classes in grammar schools have only one foreign language. Does this mean that we want to have high-level experts who will be able to follow and understand on the Internet only what is published in English?

The position of foreign languages for specific purposes at the faculties of our universities which educate subject teachers

When analyzing the curricula and syllabuses of the faculties where future subject teachers in Serbia are to be educated, one should bear in mind that some of the teachers who teach in secondary vocational schools did not actually complete studies at the so-called teacher education faculties but some others (such as faculties of mechanical or electrical engineering, and the like), but due to the limited scope of this study, we did not analyze the study programmes of these faculties. Neither are the programmes of philological faculties or study groups considered in this paper, although they do educate teachers, because foreign languages have the status of the core subjects in them.

This research applies only to the study programmes of foreign languages at the Faculties of Philosophy, Mathematics and Natural Sciences of the University of Belgrade, Novi Sad and Niš, as well as at the Faculty of Science and Mathematics, University of Kragujevac. Different groups are being educated within philosophical faculties as future teachers of history, philosophy, psychology, sociology, and fine arts with the history of art, while teachers of mathematics, computer science, chemistry, physics, biology and geography are educated at several different faculties of the University of Belgrade and at the Faculties of Natural Sciences and Mathematics in Novi Sad, Niš and Kragujevac.

There is a wide range of foreign languages available in all groups of the Faculty of Philosophy, University of Novi Sad. In addition to the usual ones (English, German, Russian, French, Spanish and Italian), students can also choose Chinese, Polish, Greek, Portuguese, Romanian, Ruthenian and Slovak, as well as classical languages (which are studied for several semesters in the department of ancient history). The foreign language always has the status

of an elective subject and can be chosen in four semesters with 3 ECTS credits respectively, but it is not taught at Master's studies.

At the Faculty of Natural Sciences and Mathematics of the same university, students are given the opportunity to learn only the English language, as an elective subject, but in a different number of semesters and with different numbers of credits. The longest it can be learnt is in the department of mathematics with informatics (in three semesters with 4 or 7,5 ECTS, depending on the semester). In the biology and physics departments, the English language can be chosen in two semesters with 5 or 6 ECTS, while the chemistry study programme can only be selected in one semester with 5 ECTS. The English language is compulsory only in the study group for geography, tourism and hotel management in the third and fourth semesters with 3 ECTS. There is no foreign language in the Master's programme¹.

At the Faculty of Philosophy of the University of Niš, students are offered several foreign languages everywhere (English, German, Russian and French are available in all groups, while Italian, Spanish and Greek, as well as classical languages, are additionally offered for the study group of history). At the level of the basic studies, the foreign language has the status of an elective subject, usually in two semesters and with 4 ECTS, except in the philosophy group where where it is a compulsory subject with 4 ECTS in both semesters. At graduate Master studies the situation is different from one group to another: while in history and philosophy all languages are offered as elective with 4 ECTS, in the sociology and psychology groups they are either not mentioned at all or it cannot be clearly seen which subjects are offered within the elective block².

The Faculty of Natural Sciences and Mathematics, University of Niš, organizes basic 3-year studies and 2-year master studies and educates future teachers of mathematics, computer science, physics, chemistry, biology and geography. At the level of the basic studies only English is offered at all of the faculties, always as an elective subject in one semester and with the number of ECTS credits varying from 3 to 5. The exception is the Department of Geography which offers English as a compulsory subject with 4 ECTS, while the French language is offered as an elective subject with 6 ECTS, most probably considering the needs in tourism. It is interesting to notice that in older study programmes, the English language was present in 4 semesters and with a total of 10 ECTS, and what the reasons are for such a great change of its status is neither known to us nor clear. In the programmes of graduate Master's studies, foreign languages do not exist, not even as elective subjects, and visiting the site we were unable to find any data related to the content of study programmes that would help us check how much foreign/English for specific purposes is present in them. We can conclude that not only multilingualism is in danger here (it practically does not exist), but also the status of a foreign language as a study subject.

The Faculty of Natural Sciences and Mathematics, University of Kragujevac, educates future teachers of mathematics, computer science, physics, chemistry and biology, and in all these study programmes, English is offered as an optional subject in two semesters with 5 ECTS respectively. An exception is the department for chemistry in which English is a compulsory subject, but also only in the first year and with 5 ECTS per semester. The only department that

¹ More details about the syllabuses of the two mentioned faculties can be found at: www.ff.uns.ac.rs/studije/studije_specifikacije_predmeta.html and <https://www.pmf.uns.ac.rs/studije/studijski-programi/>.

² More details at: www.filfak.ni.ac.rs/preuzimanje/send/69-predmeti-oas-istorija-2014/422-raspored-predmeta, www.filfak.ni.ac.rs/preuzimanje/send/72-predmeti-oas-psihologija-2014/425-raspored-predmeta, www.filfak.ni.ac.rs/preuzimanje/send/74-predmeti-oas-sociologija-2014/427-raspored-predmeta, www.filfak.ni.ac.rs/preuzimanje/send/68-predmeti-oas-filozofija-2014/421-raspored-predmeta.

offers another foreign language – Russian is the department of physics. The criterion for choosing to offer only Russian apart from English is not clear, but we assume that it is connected with the possibility of teacher employment for that language only. There is no foreign language in the Master's degree programme.

At the University of Belgrade, future teachers of history, philosophy, sociology, psychology and classical philology are educated at the Faculty of Philosophy, where six foreign languages can be learnt (English, German, Russian and French, as well as Italian and Spanish at the beginner's level). All these foreign languages have the status of a compulsory-elective course, they are taught in the first two years of the basic studies and are assigned 6 ECTS in the first year, and 8 ECTS in the second year, while at the Master's studies they are not present.

At the University of Belgrade, teachers of natural sciences are educated at several different faculties, in concrete at the faculties of: Mathematics, Geography, Biology, Physics, Chemistry and Physical Chemistry. At the Faculty of Mathematics, only English can be learnt, and as a compulsory subject in the 1st semester with 4 ECTS. At the Faculty of Biology, students are offered only English as an elective block in the third semester with 5 ECTS and in the fourth semester with 4 ECTS. At the Faculty of Physics, only English can be taught as an elective subject in the first year of studies with 4 ECTS per semester. The Faculty of Chemistry has English as a compulsory subject only in the second semester with 3 ECTS. At the Faculty of Physical Chemistry, English can also be learnt at the beginner's level in the first and second years of the basic studies, as a compulsory subject, though we were not able to find the information about the number of ECTS credits on the faculty's website. At the Faculty of Geography, only English can be learnt in the first two semesters with 3 ECTS per semester, but this is a compulsory subject here, unlike with most other faculties. Only the department for tourismology additionally offers Russian and Spanish as elective courses in the seventh and eighth semesters with 3 ECTS each. It is clear that this is due to the preparation of students for their future work in tourism, not in the teaching profession, but the question remains why these two languages were chosen, as we are convinced that it does not result from any research on the number and origin of tourists who come to our country. No foreign language is present at any of these faculties at graduate Master's studies.

Table 1

Foreign language for specific purposes at teaching faculties in Serbia

Universities	Number of foreign languages	Number of semesters in which a foreign language is learnt basic/master's	Subject status basic/master's	Total number of ECTS – basic/master's
Novi Sad – Faculty of Philosophy	English, Italian, German, Russian, French, Spanish + 9 languages	4 / 0	elective / non-existent at master's	12 / 0
Novi Sad – Faculty of Natural Sciences and Mathematics	English	1-3 / 0	elective / non-existent at master's	4-7,5 / 0
Niš – Faculty of Philosophy	English, German, Russian, French, and in some departments Italian, Greek, Spanish and classical languages	2 / 1	elective at a larger number of departments / non-existent in the groups for sociology and psychology	8 / 4
Niš – Faculty of Natural Sciences and Mathematics	English (+ French only in the group for Geography)	1 / 0	elective / non-existent at master's	3-5 / 0
Kragujevac – Faculty of Natural Sciences and Mathematics	English (+ Russian only in the group for physics)	2 / 0	elective (except in the department for chemistry) / non-existent at master's	10 / 0
Belgrade – Faculty of Philosophy	English, Italian, German, Russian, French, Spanish	4 / 0	compulsory-elective / non-existent at master's	14 / 0
Belgrade – various faculties of natural sciences	English (+ Russian and Spanish as elective in tourismology)	1-2 / 0	elective at 2 faculties or compulsory at 4 faculties / non-existent at master's	3-9 / 0

By comparing the data from our universities, we have come to the following conclusions:

- At all faculties covered by this survey, the status and the number of credits assigned to foreign languages is worse than it was 10 years ago.
- The impression is that the number of ECTS credits is totally uneven and incomparable with the number of tuition hours, which means it was most probably assigned arbitrarily. Namely, there are faculties within which different departments allocate a different number of ECTS credits for the same subject and the same number of tuition hours, which indicates that this number was determined not in accordance with the actual student workload, but by fitting it in the number of credits assigned to other subjects (Đorović, Janković, 2018).
- Practically all languages except English have disappeared from the faculties of mathematics and natural sciences, and even English usually gets only the status of an elective subject and in a small number of semesters (from one to, very rarely, four semesters).

- Foreign languages are not present at graduate Master's studies at the faculties of mathematics and natural sciences, but at the faculties of philosophy, i.e. in the field of social sciences and humanities, foreign languages are often offered at this level of study, though only as elective subjects.
- Multilingualism, at least in terms of the offer, has not disappeared from the faculties of social and humanistic sciences, which enable students to learn all the four so-called school languages (English, German, Russian and French) and sometimes Italian and Spanish (Vujović, 2015). There has been another problem here in recent years: students most often choose English because they have largely forgotten the other foreign language that they had learnt mainly during their primary education, as they did not encounter with it in their high school. We dare not even think what the situation would be like in the future if the second foreign language in primary education were assessed only descriptively!
- We did not always manage to find on the websites of the mentioned faculties the Books of subjects, that is, the syllables of all subjects. Therefore, we are not able to provide a comprehensive picture of the contents included in the foreign languages or the reference literature used, so that on the basis of that we could conclude to what extent the foreign language for the specific profession is represented. What we did manage to see, however, is that in the first semesters foreign languages are generally taught as languages for general purposes, and afterwards as foreign languages for specific purposes, which speaks in favour of the fact that university teachers of foreign languages for specific purposes are aware of the specifics of foreign language teaching at non-philological faculties and, above all, of the real needs of their students. This could be the subject of additional research.

Foreign languages for specific purposes at the teacher education faculties in Serbia

Starting from the standpoint that the knowledge of foreign languages in general, and especially for professional and academic purposes, is necessary for all teachers, this paper explores the current situation at the faculties which educate future primary school teachers and preschool teachers in Serbia³. Based on a comparative analysis of the study programmes at the basic academic and Master's studies in these six institutions, it can be concluded that there is awareness at these faculties that the foreign language for specific purposes is necessary for preschool and primary school teachers. We find it right that the need which is recognized as the most important one is the need for students to be trained to use professional literature in a foreign language for the purposes of lifelong non-formal education and the improvement of each preschool and primary school teacher's teaching practice. Foreign languages here have the status of a compulsory subject at both primary and master studies, except at the Faculty of Education in Leposavić, where they have the status of an elective subject at the master's degree studies, while at the Faculty of Education in Sombor there is no foreign language at Master's studies. They are taught in a different number of semesters (from 1 to 3) and with a different number of ECTS credits (at basic studies from 4 to 9 ECTS, at Master's studies from 3 to 7 ECTS). Certain faculties also offer elective subjects related to the language for specific purposes, translation or the cultures of the countries concerned.

³ These are: Faculty of Education in Vranje, Faculty of Education in Jagodina, Faculty of Education in Užice, Faculty of Education in Sombor, Faculty of Education in Leposavić and Teacher Education Faculty in Belgrade.

It is positive that multilingualism has not completely disappeared at these faculties, as is the case at many other faculties of our state and private universities. All our faculties for primary and preschool teacher education offer students a choice among several foreign languages: four foreign languages are offered in Jagodina and Belgrade, three in Vranje (English, Russian and French) and Sombor (English, German and Russian), and two in Užice and Leposavić (English and Russian). As we have already pointed out, multilingualism is anyway more present at the faculties of social and humanistic orientation, which only confirms greater intellectual openness to the cultures and values of numerous and different countries and linguistic environments. We hope that this results from the awareness that every language has certain characteristics of its own people, that each language abounds with a wealth of professional literature related to education and upbringing in the broadest sense, and that all languages can offer interesting examples of good teaching practice that can be used by our students during both their initial and lifelong education. We notice, however, that the representation of a foreign language depends primarily on the tradition in a given region and on the availability of teachers, which rarely reflects the real needs. We consider multilingualism in the teaching of a foreign language for specific purposes (at least in the case of the so-called big languages spoken by a large number of speakers in many countries) even more important when we bear in mind that various European countries have excellent educational systems, rich experience in the education of preschool and primary school teachers, as well as good schools whose work our students would be able to get to know if at least to some extent they knew the language of the country. What is lacking in the analyzed study programmes is a better organized and more purposeful preparation of students for joining studies or professional praxis abroad, and we are witnesses of ever greater and more diverse opportunities in this field. On the one hand, there are many international programmes of university mobility that students are underusing because of their insufficient knowledge of foreign languages, especially in terms of professional and academic discourse. In addition, there is already a cooperation being developed with foreign faculties which educate the same profile of teachers. Opportunities are there, mobility offer exists, but it is not understood well enough that the foreign language for specific purposes is not a general education subject, but rather a profession-related subject and that, as such, it should be given a more prominent place in study programmes. It is also necessary to modernize the given study programmes, to adapt them to the new possibilities offered to students in a modern digital environment that young people regularly use and know relatively well (websites, blogs, social networks etc.). Also, the programmes should be adapted to the new needs of students, which means in the first place preparation for going to a higher education institution abroad, in order for them to acquire certain theoretical and practical knowledge and skills there.

Table 2

Foreign languages for specific purposes at teacher education faculties in Serbia

Faculty	Number of foreign languages	Number of semesters in which a foreign language is learnt basic/master's	Subject status basic/master's	Total number of ECTS – basic/master's
Faculty of Education in Vranje	English, Russian, French	2 / 1	compulsory / compulsory	4-6 / 4
Faculty of Education in Jagodina	English, German, Russian, French	2 / 1	compulsory / compulsory	7 / 5
Faculty of Education in Užice	English, Russian	2 / 1	compulsory / compulsory	6 / 3
Faculty of Education in Sombor	English, German, Russian	2 / 0	compulsory / non-existent at master's	6 / 0
Faculty of Education in Leposavić	English, Russian	2-3 / 1	compulsory / elective	7-11 / 7
Teacher Education Faculty in Belgrade	English, German, Russian, French	3 / 1	compulsory / compulsory	9 / 5

Conclusion

The importance of multilingualism is a common topic in professional linguistic circles and there is a variety of comparative research about the position of foreign languages in our educational system and in society. Suggestions for an informed and careful design of a local model of language education policy reflect the need for a constant care and respect towards multilingualism in education, and in many other situations as well, which would firstly contribute to resolving the tensions that occur in the local environment and schools as a consequence of the competition of the languages present in it, and then (even more importantly) towards the creation of a society rich in diverse connections with other nations (Đurić, 2013, p. 115). The broad public is mostly unaware of this problem, and the decision-making institutions in this area are largely uninterested and unwilling to accept the suggestions of language policy experts. This is a surprising fact the more so because our country always officially advocates respect for multilingualism and multiculturalism and ratifies various international agreements and declarations governing this field.

Such a lack of well developed language policy in our country has many negative consequences, and this paper especially highlights the inadequate use of university mobility programmes. The role of these programmes is very important because, among other things, their use guarantees following the standards of teacher education in the broader European context. International programmes are a necessary element of a constant reform and improvement of teacher education because they allow comparison of educational, especially higher education systems, familiarization with examples of good practice, exchange of knowledge and experience, positioning in the world academic community. Benefits from the mobility of students are numerous, both for their personal development, and for improving teaching practice by adopting new forms and methods of work.

Travel is rarely part of everyday life for students in Serbia. Probably the most common reason is the poor financial situation. On the other hand, they are often insufficiently informed about the possibilities of exchange between faculties and scholarships. In addition to such practical reasons, there are various other obstacles imposed on them: insufficient self-confidence, which prevents them from applying for a public call, as well as lack of motivation; insufficient knowledge of foreign languages; mismatch of faculty curricula and syllabuses, which is why they often lose pace at their home faculty; uncertainty about the recognition of exams and, of course, poor orientation in the procedures that are too complicated. We are aware that knowledge of foreign languages is a precondition, but that it is not enough for a successful mobility of students, and that it is essential that the criteria and process of selection of mobility students should be quite clear and transparent. In this paper, the importance of foreign language knowledge for academic purposes is particularly emphasized, and the other important factors for the successful mobility of students are the expertise in their professional domain, readiness to change, general resourcefulness, openness and motivation.

It is impossible to list in a few short lines all the changes that should occur in our education system in order to solve this problem, but we should emphasize here those which we consider the most important:

- The standards for accreditation of higher education institutions should include as mandatory teaching foreign languages for specific purposes, and then, during the process of accreditation ways should be found to additionally stimulate, recognize and evaluate the greater mobility of students and teachers.
- Foreign language for specific purposes should be considered as a scientific-expert or scientific-applicative subject, and not as a general education course, which is most commonly the case. This would give it a more prominent place in study programmes and indicate its importance and necessity in the education of all students.
- Faculties that have a lot of students in mobility should be further encourage and even rewarded (both in accreditation, as well as in providing IT equipment and publications for faculty libraries, etc.).
- The awareness of faculties should be raised related to the importance of this subject, its necessity for students, and its close connection with the professional competence of students. Of course, showing respect for the autonomy of the universities, as nothing can be imposed on them, we should tirelessly work on developing the awareness that on the market of higher education institutions, where offer is ever higher than demand – as in our case, study programmes that include a foreign language for specific purposes can give advantage to their respective faculties in the minds of their new prospective students.
- Students should be encouraged to use the Internet and numerous foreign websites for the purpose of their vocational education and training.
- Students should be familiarized with the possibilities of using university mobility programmes and scholarships from foreign governments.
- Visits of foreign lecturers should be organized, as well as co-mentoring with foreign universities.

We believe that in the future, various forms of part-time studying will be more and more developed, followed by lifelong training at work or at a distance, and this requires the knowledge of profession-related foreign languages. It is high time we understood its importance and necessity, and adjusted to the changes in the modern world.

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INFORMATION COMMUNICATION TECHNOLOGIES FOR LEARNING LANGUAGES FOR SPECIFIC PURPOSES

Summary

The paper presents the results of applying ICT for learning Languages for Specific Purposes. The aim of the paper is to present the reflections and attitudes of ICT participants in order to supplement their learning. In this exploratory study, the method of systematic non-experimental research was used, and the data were collected through an assessment scale, i.e. the Likert type questionnaire with five degrees and tested with the statistical package SPSS. The research question is how students assess the importance of ICT for learning in general and learning Languages for Specific Purposes. The study is based on convenience sampling, and the sample itself is comprised of students from the Preschool Teacher Training College in Vršac and Faculty of Technical Sciences in Novi Sad. Variables are normative, i.e. general issues (department, gender, age, average grade in studies, level of language skills and ICT use) and criteria, i.e. student attitudes, success in learning in general and learning Languages for Specific Purposes. The research results show that students are interested in ICT application which fosters their motivation and achievements in learning Languages for Specific Purposes.

Key words: students, ICT, learning languages for specific purposes.

Introduction

Nowadays, new technology provides various opportunities for modernizing education and adapting learning process to students' needs. Consequently, the main trend in education is integration of widespread digital technology into classrooms in order to become smart and encourage students to learn using modern devices (Šafranĳ, 2011a). With the development and expansion of Information Communication Technology (ICT) many changes have occurred including the way of teaching and learning (Simeunović, 2004). Internet provides wider and faster access to different teaching contents, more attractive and interactive way of learning than it used to be before, but it may also imply the need for new models of teaching and learning as well as their distribution (Brzaković, Lalović, Jocić, Rajčević, Ivanović, 2017). Therefore, new teaching and learning paradigms emerged. In addition, the use of ICT enabled creation of new pedagogical practice under the condition of creating several modalities of distance learning including blended learning (Gojkov-Rajić, Prtljaga, 2013). Activities through learning are not conceivable only in classrooms, but also appear in virtual learning, and thus, different forms of learning have been developed in relation to traditional methods. Nowadays students, who were born in digital generation, are already predetermined and prepared for easier access to relevant information sources (Bates, 2004). According to Valenta and his associates (Valenta, Therriault, Dieter, Mrtek, 2001) learning styles reflect the way students accept and process information during the learning process. ICT is applied in many segments in teaching

activities, so through multi-media presentations, students are allowed to acquire knowledge holistically illustrating complex and abstract theoretical problems (Šafranĳ, 2011b). This approach makes it easy to access free online resources, materials processed in video form, educational tools, and more. One of the latest trends is the ability to show reality in an enlarged form. It allows teachers to provide the material with exciting and interesting, realistic 3D visualizations, demonstrations and simulations of objects from nature, as well as processes, scientific models from all scientific fields (Gojkov-Rajić, 2014). In addition, the notion of education changes as well. Modern education demands transformation of the "traditional model of knowledge reproduction" into the model of "active building of knowledge", where teachers and students are partners and working together on extending their knowledge (Šafranĳ, 2013).

The new age imposes new trends in learning Languages for Specific Purposes such as lifelong learning where an active individual is forced to individually deal with gathered information. Students should be taught to independently find new information, manage it, analyze and turn into useful knowledge. The role of teachers has become something new and different than it used to be in the past (Zivlak, Šafranĳ, 2018). They are no longer the centre of the classroom in which frontal teaching takes place but associates, instructors, or trainers that help students learn on their own way and successfully process information into knowledge. Their basic task is to teach students how to learn, create information literate students, and future information literate specialists in their field of interest. An information literate individual understands the role of computer as a tool in the process of searching and processing information, but is also aware of how this process depends mostly on himself/ herself, not the technology it uses (Uhl, Gollenia, 2016).

On the other hand, according to the preface to UNESCO's ICT Competency Standards for Teachers (UNESCO, 2008), technology should enable students to:

- become capable information technology users;
- be seekers, analysts and assessors of information;
- solve problems and make decisions;
- become creative and efficient users of productive tools;
- communicate, collaborate, publish and create;
- become informed, responsible citizens and contribute to the community.

It is further stated that teacher is the key person in providing these abilities to students and that traditional educational practice no longer provides teachers with the skills to teach students and prepare them for a successful career (Šafranĳ, 2015).

ITC in Languages for Specific Purposes (LSP)

Technologies in the LSP have a dual role: they serve as a tool for helping traditional forms of learning and as a space for creating new forms of communication (Bloch, 2013, p. 385). The choice of technology and its application depends on the profession, or the needs of students. Almost all the traditional student needs can be met with some of the latest technologies.

Internet, as one of the most used technologies, is an inexhaustible source of free written, audio/video materials for various professions, such as newspapers, journals, scientific journals, news, lectures, online courses, professional dictionaries, etc. (Ahmed, 2014; Šafranĳ, Zivlak, 2018). Nevertheless, a large amount of available material can be a problem, as it is necessary to know how to decide on which material is useful to use, in what way and for what purposes.

Butler-Pascoe (2009) and Kern (2013) reported a number of advantages in using ITC for Languages for Specific Purposes, stating that they:

- enable interaction and communication activities that are representative of professional and academic environments;
- provide an understanding of the socio-cultural aspects of language while practicing in different areas and professions;
- provide an understandable input related to a specific field and facilitate demonstration of students' knowledge;
- provide appropriate strategies for language development and understanding of specific content (designing, linking with background student experiences, contextualizing, meta-cognitive activities, etc.);
- use task-based strategies and issues that are reflected through tasks in environments and situations related to their discipline;
- use authentic materials from specific disciplines and occupations;
- provide an authentic audience, including external experts from specific fields;
- support cognitive skills and critical thinking that are required in the given discipline;
- they use collaborative learning;
- facilitate focused practice for developing language skills (reading, writing, listening and speaking) through curriculum and disciplines;
- they are focused on the student and are addressed to the special needs of students;
- use multiple modalities to support different learning styles;
- meet the effective needs of students: motivation, self-assessment and autonomy;
- provide adequate feedback and knowledge of foreign language skills.

Another advantage of technology is networking teachers over the Internet, where practitioners share their experiences and learn from each other. In addition, technologies offer tools that simulate situations from the real world, thus, students having the opportunity to practice and gain necessary professional skills (Kern, 2013, p. 112). One of the main strengths of using ICT in LSP is its readiness to respond to students' needs (Bloch, 2013).

The aim of the paper is to present the reflections and attitudes of ICT participants in order to supplement their learning of LSP. In this exploratory study, the method of systematic non-experimental research will be used. Analyzing the answers to the given questionnaire we will try to prove that students of the digital generation are aware of the possibilities and advantages of using technologies for learning LSP, and know how much they influence the improvement of their language skills. In addition, the choice and frequency of its application will be analyzed.

The first research question is whether there are differences in using ICT for learning purposes between students who use technologies on a daily basis and those who use them rarely.

The second research question is whether ICT can serve as a learning tool for students who use technologies on a daily basis.

The third research question is whether ICT facilitates studying for students who use technologies on a daily basis.

The fourth research question is whether there are differences in the use of the devices of ICT between those students who use technologies on a daily basis and those who do not.

The fifth research question is whether there are differences in using devices for ICT between study groups.

The sixth research question is whether text messages help improve language skills when learning LSP.

The seventh research question is whether there are significant differences in the assessment of benefit from ICT in learning LSP between study groups.

The eight research question is whether there are differences in the use of ICT for learning LSP between students of different faculties and departments.

According to the stated research questions we defined the following research hypotheses:

H1: There are differences in using ICT for learning purposes between students who use technologies on a daily basis and those who use them rarely.

H2: ICT serves as a learning tool for students who use technologies on a daily basis.

H3: ICT facilitates studying for students who use technologies on a daily basis.

H4: There are differences in the use of the devices of ICT between those students who use technologies on a daily basis and those who use them rarely.

H5: There are differences in using devices of ICT between study groups.

H6: Text messages help improve language skills when learning LSP.

H7: There are significant differences in the assessment of benefit from ICT in learning LSP between study groups.

H8: There are differences in the use of ICT in LSP learning between students of different faculties and departments.

Method

The research sample comprises 350 (51,2% female) students from the Preschool Teacher Training College in Vršac and Faculty of Technical Sciences in Novi Sad. The mean age of the sample was 22,19 years (SD =1,76). 221 (63,1%) participants were from the Preschool Teacher Training College, and 129 from the Faculty of Technical Sciences – 88 (25,14%) participants attended the Department of Biomedical Engineering (BMI), and 41 (11,71%) participants were from the Department of Graphic Engineering and Design (GRID). The students from Preschool Teacher Training College (PTTC) were learning German for Specific Purposes and the students from the Faculty of Technical Sciences were learning English for Specific Purposes. The data were collected through an assessment scale, i.e. the Likert type questionnaire with five degrees and tested with the statistical package SPSS. The questionnaire is in the Appendix.

Only a small percentage of students (16,7%) said their knowledge of foreign language was on the beginner (A1), or lower-intermediate level (A2); 27,4% of the participants said their knowledge of foreign language was on intermediate (B1), and 36,9% on upper-intermediate level (B2); 19% of the participants indicated that their level was advanced/proficiency (C1/C2). Most of the participants reported that they use Internet on a daily basis, 20% reported that they use Internet for more than 6 hours, 32,1% use Internet for 4-6 hours, 35,7% use Internet 2-4 hours and 11,9% reported that they used it for 1-2 hours. No one reported to use Internet less than an hour per day.

Results

One survey question was directed towards the time spent using ICTs with 5 offered answers (daily, several times a week, once a week, once a month, never). Almost 80% of the respondents declared that they use ICT every day, and 15% decided for the second option. Only 2,4% said they use ICT once a week, or once a month and there were no participants that did not use ICT at all. Since the majority of the examinees reported they use the ICT daily, the other participants who use the ICT more rarely were grouped together for future analyses.

Using ICT for studying

Most of the participants use websites either daily (28,57%), several times a week (35,7%) or several times a month (28,57%). Synchronous communication was also used frequently with most of the participants reporting that they use it daily (30,9%) or several times a week (26,1%) for studying. Asynchronous communication is also used frequently and answers every day, several times a week and several times a month all received more than 25% of the responses. It seems that social networks are the most used ICT on a daily basis and 50% of the respondents reported this. Office applications, Information sharing and Moodle platform are used several times a month by majority of the participants with over 30% choosing this response option for these ICT. Digital media for fun is also widely used and 34,5% reported that they use it every day. Responses are presented in Figure 1.

10 Mann–Whitney *U* tests were performed in order to test whether there are differences in using ICT for studying between participants who use ICT daily and those who do not. The only significant differences were found for the usage of Office applications ($U = 396$, $p = .044$) and Information sharing on the internet ($U = 368,5$, $p = .016$) and in both cases these ICTs were more often used by the group that uses ICTs daily. This indicates that the most common ICTs are used for studying in similar frequency regardless of whether the ICTs are used daily or more rarely, but that those who use ICTs daily more often use more complex forms of information sharing on the Internet and Office applications.

10 Kruskal–Wallis tests were performed to test whether there are significant differences in the use of ICT for studying between students from different faculties and departments. Significant differences exist in the use of media services ($\chi^2 = 7,396$, $p = .025$), digital media for fun ($\chi^2 = 6,931$, $p = .031$) and Moodle platform ($\chi^2 = 8,788$, $p = .012$). Mann–Whitney *U* tests were performed as post-hoc tests in order to compare groups on variables on which significant differences exist. In the case of media services students from both Preschool Teacher Training College (PTTC) ($U = 396$, $p = .021$) and Department for Graphic Engineering and Design (GRID) ($U = 49,5$, $p = .017$) use media services more often than students from the Department of Biomedical Engineering (BMI). There were no significant differences between PTTC and GRID in the use of media services. Same pattern of differences can be observed for digital media for fun with both the PTTC ($U = 380$, $p = 0,29$) and GRID ($U = 51$, $p = .022$) score higher than that of the BMI group. In the use of Moodle platform, the only difference was between PTTC and the BMI department ($U = 345,5$, $p = .008$), and BMI students used Moodle significantly more.

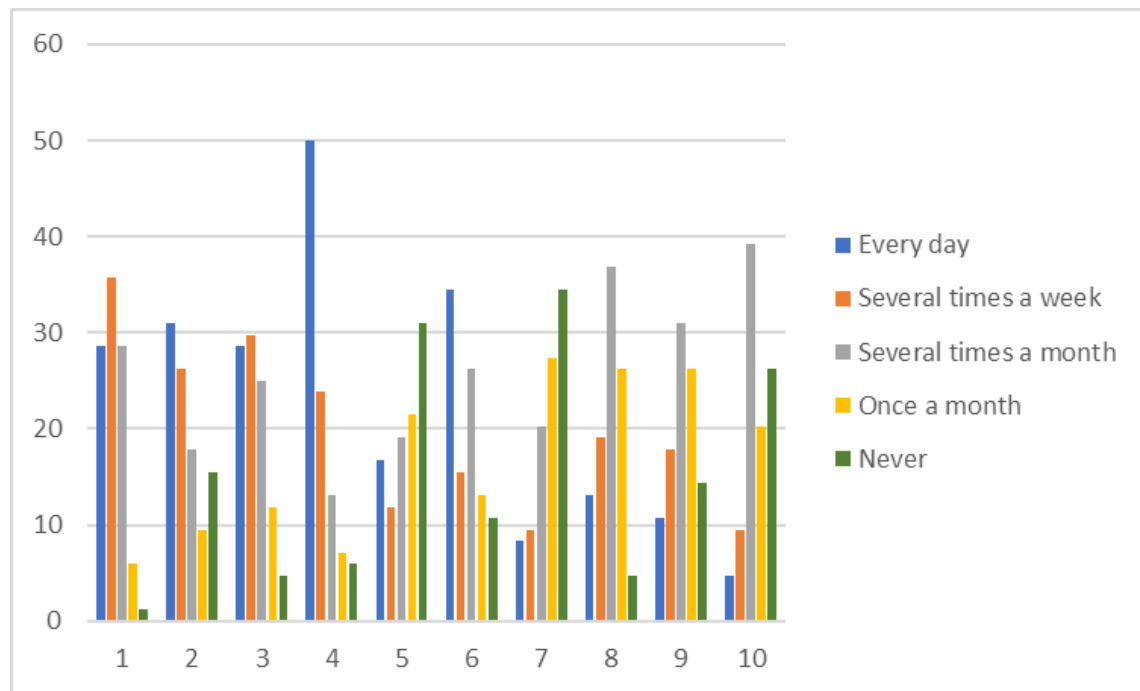


Figure 1. Student responses to questions related to frequency of ICT use for studying. 1 – Web sites, 2 – Synchronous communication (chats, video conferences, Skype, virtual worlds...), 3 – Asynchronous communication (mails, text messages, forums...), 4 – Social networks (*Facebook, Twitter, Instagram...*), 5 – Media services (TV, online TV, online radio), 6 – Digital media for fun (Movies, music), 7 – Digital games, 8 – Office application (*Word, Excel, Power Point...*), 9 – Sharing information on the Internet (wiki, blog, interest groups), 10 – Moodle platform.

Helpfulness of the ICTs for studying

Assessment of helpfulness of ICT for studying is presented in Figure 2. Over 85% of the respondents think that ICT can serve as a tool for studying and think it either helps a lot, or helps. Over 80% agree that ICTs help with study obligations, and that they allow for easier and quicker acquisition of necessary information for studying. Most of the examinees are unsure (34,5%) whether the ICTs allow for following regular classes, and 44% are unsure whether they make the lectures more fun.

5 Mann–Whitney *U* tests were performed in order to test whether there are differences in assessment of helpfulness of ICT for studying between participants who use ICTs daily and those who do not. Significant differences were detected for questions “ICT can serve as a tool for studying” ($U = 404, p = .044$) and “ICT help me to better do my study obligations” ($U = 325, p = .003$) and in both cases the group that uses ICT daily scored higher. These results seem to indicate that students that use ICT daily are able to make the most from ICT and contribute more to their studies.

5 Kruskal–Wallis tests were performed to test whether there are significant differences in the assessment of helpfulness of ICT for studying between students from different departments. No significant differences were observed.

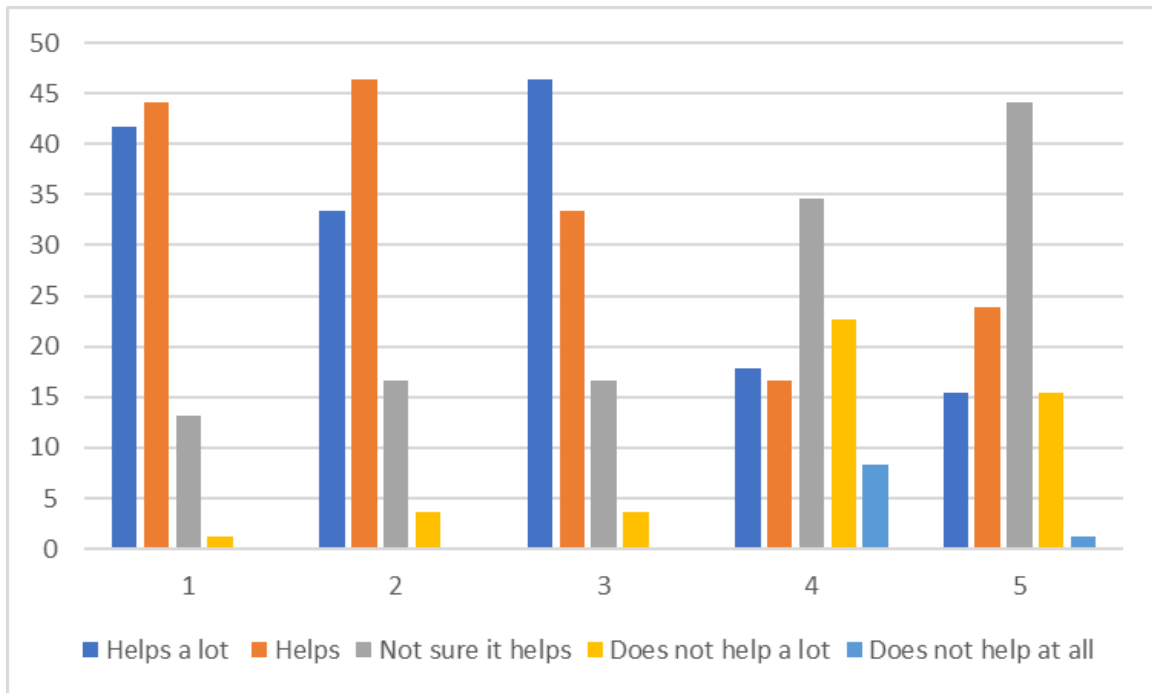


Figure 2. Helpfulness of the ICT for studying.

1 – ICT can serve as a tool for studying, 2 – ICT help me to better do my study obligations, 3 – ICT allow me to easily and quickly acquire necessary information for studying, 4 – Thanks to ICT I do not have to follow classes at the Faculty regularly, 5 – Thanks to ICT lectures are more fun.

Usage of different devices for ICT

Usage of different devices for ICT is presented in Figure 3. Most of the respondents mostly use either the computer or the phone, while everyone extremely rarely uses tablets or MP3 devices for ICT.

4 Mann–Whitney U tests were performed in order to test whether there are differences in the devices usage for ICT between participants who use ICTs daily and those who do not. Significant differences were detected for computer usage ($U = 376, p = .010$). Participants who use ICTs daily use computer more often than those that use ICTs less often.

4 Kruskal–Wallis tests were performed to test whether there are significant differences in device usage for ICTs between participants from different departments. The only significant difference exists in the usage of Phone ($\chi^2 = 6,129, p = .047$). Post-hoc comparisons showed that the only significant difference is between students from PTTC and the GRID department ($U = 159, p = 0,14$). Students from PTTC reported that they use phones for ICT significantly more.

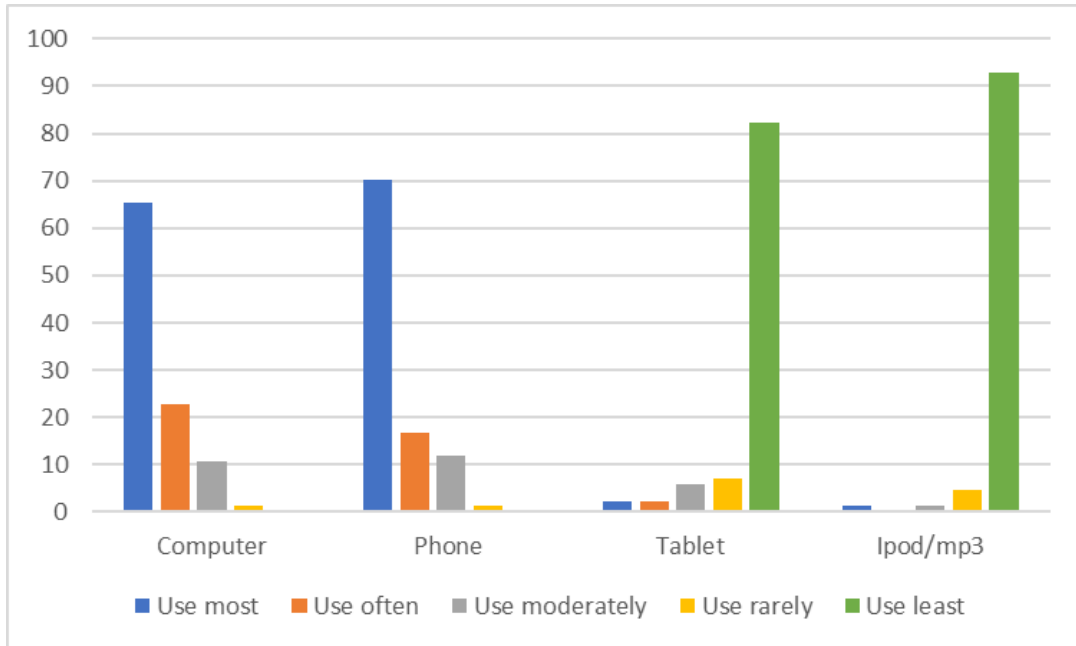


Figure 3. Devices usage for ICT.

The importance of ICT for learning a foreign language

Almost all participants find ICT important for studying a language, whether it is general German or English or German/English for Specific Purposes (Figure 4). Over 90% of the sample agree that it is either very important, important or moderately important. There were no participants who thought ICT was not important for learning German/English.

There were no significant differences in the assessment of importance of ICT for learning English between the group that uses ICT daily and the group that uses it less often.

There were no significant differences in the assessment of importance of ICT for learning English between different departments.

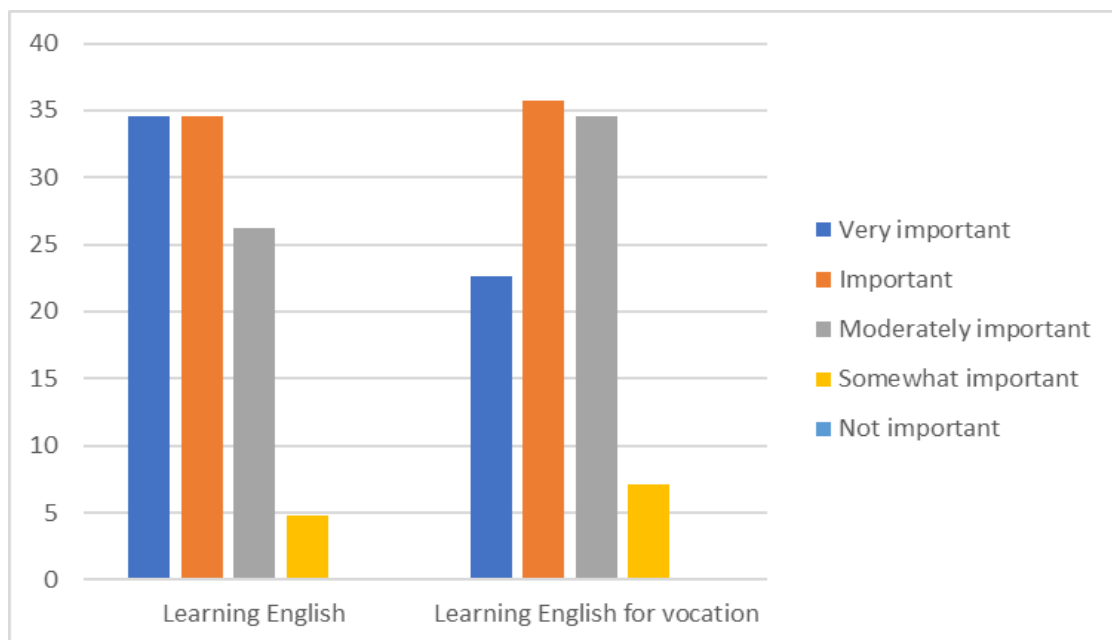


Figure 4. Importance of ICT for learning English.

Different ICT usage for learning Languages for Specific Purposes

Assessment of different ICT usage for learning German/English for Specific Purposes is presented in Figure 5. Rated as the most helpful overall are web sites in general, web videos and movies. Each of these ICTs was assessed as very much helpful by more than 35% of the respondents. Over 50% of them assessed that movies helped them very much. Social networks, automatic translators, online dictionary and grammar, and online courses and materials for German and English were also rated favourably. They received fewer votes for being very helpful, but were in general voted as helpful. For each of these categories combined ratings for very much helpful and much helpful were at least 50%. Software that follows regular textbooks, chatting, text messages and mail was rated less favourably. Most of the students rated these ICT as moderately or little helpful. The least favourably rated were blogs, Moodle platform, discussion forums and video conferences. Each of ICT received at least 35% of the ratings as being not helpful at all, while video conferences were rated as not helpful at all by 54,7% of the respondents.

18 Mann–Whitney *U* tests were performed in order to test whether there are differences in assessment of helpfulness of ICT for studying German/English for Specific Purposes between participants who use ICTs daily and those who do not. No significant differences were identified, which indicates that similar ICT are deemed as helpful by both groups.

18 Kruskal–Wallis tests were performed to test whether there are significant differences in the assessment of helpfulness of ICT for studying German/English for Specific Purposes between students from different Faculties. The only significant differences exist in the usage of text messages ($\chi^2 = 6,860$, $p = .032$). Post-hoc comparisons with Mann–Whitney *U* test indicate that there are differences between PTTC and the GRID department at the Faculty of Technical Sciences ($U = 132,5$, $p = .01$). Students from PTTC rate text messages as more helpful than students from GRID department for mastering German/English for Specific Purposes.

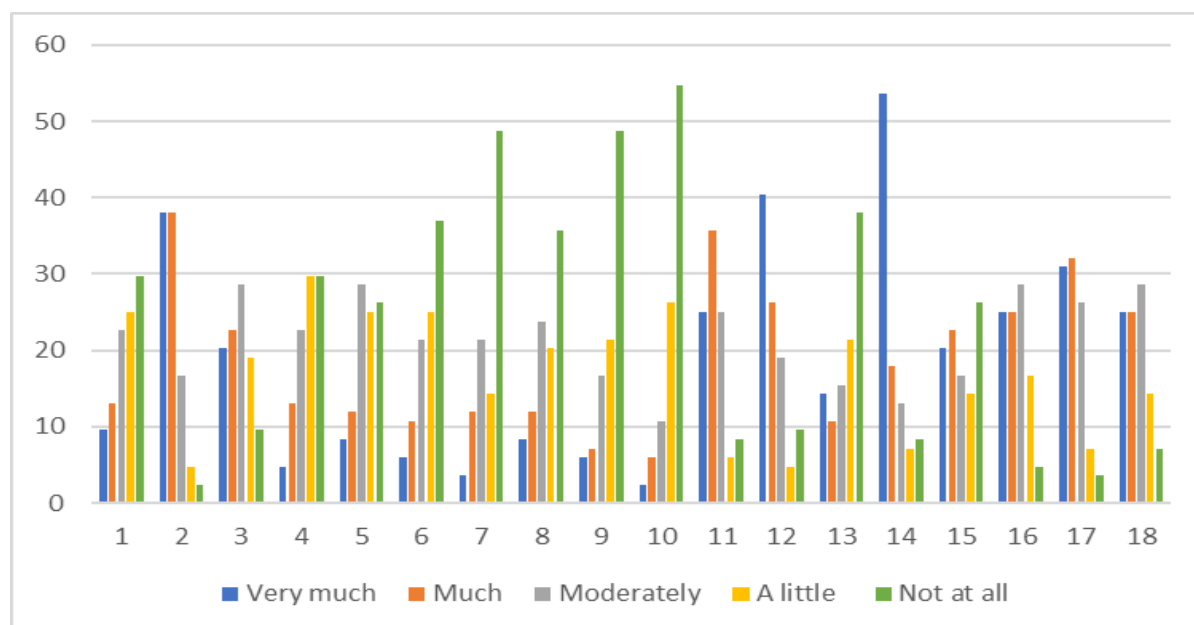


Figure 5. Helpfulness of different ICT for mastering German/English for Specific Purposes.

1 – Software that follows regular textbooks, 2 – Web sites, 3 – Chatting, 4 – Text messages, 5 – Mail, 6 – Blog, 7 – Moodle platform, 8 – Discussion forums, 9 – Skype, 10 – Video conferences, 11 – Social networks (*Facebook, Twitter, Instagram, LinkedIn...*), 12 – Web videos (*YouTube*), 13 – Podcasts, 14 – Movies (with or without subtitles), 15 – Video games, 16 – Automatic translators, 17 – Online dictionary and grammar, 18 – Online courses and materials for learning a foreign language).

The obtained results show that:

The first hypothesis H1: "There are differences in using ICT for learning purposes between students who use technologies on a daily basis and those who use them rarely" has been confirmed.

The second hypothesis H2: "ICT serves as learning tool for students who use technologies on a daily basis" has been confirmed.

The third hypothesis H3: "ICT facilitates studying for students who use technologies on a daily basis" has been confirmed.

The fourth hypothesis H4: "There are differences in the use of device of ICT between those students who use technologies on a daily basis and those who use them rarely" has been confirmed.

The fifth hypothesis H5: "There are differences in using devices of ICT between study groups" has been confirmed.

The sixth hypothesis H6: "Text messages help improve language skills when learning LSP" has been confirmed.

The seventh hypothesis H7: "There are significant differences in the assessment of benefit from ICT in learning LSP between study groups" has been rejected.

The eighth hypothesis H8: "There are differences in the use of ICT for LSP learning between students of different faculties and departments" has been confirmed.

Discussion

The results obtained in the study showed that students use ICTs to learn and get the required information. When using ICT for studying it seems that social networks are the most used technology on a daily basis since half of the examinees reported it. Office applications, Information sharing and Moodle platform are used several times a month by the majority of participants. In addition, digital media is also widely used for fun on a daily basis, which is in line with previous studies (Radić-Branisavljević, Milovanović, 2014).

The most common ICTs, such as Office applications and Sharing information on the Internet, are used for studying in similar frequency regardless of whether they are used daily or more rarely, but those who use them daily more often use more complex forms of technology. Significant differences exist in using media services and the Moodle platform. In using Moodle platform, the only difference was between the students from PTTC and students of BMI Department of the Faculty of Technical Sciences. BMI students use Moodle significantly more. It can be explained by the fact that BMI students have a several-year-long practice of using all the advantages of learning a foreign language on the Moodle platform.

Helpfulness of the ICTs for studying is obvious since it facilitates students' study obligations, and it allows for easier and quicker acquisition of necessary information for studying. Students that use ICT daily are able to make the most from its usage and contribute more to their studies. Most of the students mostly use either the computer or the phone, while everyone extremely rarely uses tablets or MP3 devices for ICT. Students from PTTC reported that they use phones for ICT significantly more in comparison with those from the Faculty of Technical Sciences.

Almost all the participants find ICT important for studying foreign languages, whether it is general German or English or German/English for Specific Purposes. Most of the examinees agree that it is either very important, important or moderately important when practicing foreign language skills, vocabulary or grammar exercises. There were no participants who thought ICT was unimportant for learning foreign languages.

No significant differences were identified, which indicates that similar ICT are deemed as helpful by both groups. There are differences between the students from PTTC and GRID department at Faculty of Technical Sciences. Students from PTTC rate text messages as more helpful than students from GRID department for mastering LSP. In addition, over half of the examinees assessed that movies were helpful along with social networks, automatic translators, online dictionary and grammar, and online courses and materials for German and English. Software that follows regular textbooks, chatting, text messages and e-mails were rated moderately. Finally, the least favourably rated were blogs, Moodle platform, discussion forums and video conferences. This finding is in line with previous studies (Knežević, 2017).

In general, the findings are in line with previous research and do not deviate from the answers of students from other faculties (Arno-Macia, 2012; Knežević, 2017; Radić-Branisavljević, Milovanović, 2015). Statistically important results were obtained only for some technologies such as, computer, mobile phones, and movies.

Conclusion

The results show that students use modern technologies to learn LSP. Their learning is indirect, that is, students generally do not use technology with the intention of learning the language, but are seeking some information over the Internet, communicating with others for personal reasons, usually through social networks, listening to music, watching movies and videos, playing video games. In fact students use very little technology intended for learning a foreign language, specifically LSP, or learning in general, such as software that follows regular textbooks, virtual learning environment, automatic translators, online courses, language learning materials, and online dictionaries and grammar. Students are aware that with the help of technologies, they enhance their language competence and language skills as well, which means better communication mostly done online. English is also the language of the Internet, so students often unconsciously adopt vocabulary and grammar and develop language skills.

The conclusion is that students have the need to communicate and satisfy the need for information and entertainment on the one hand, and also have to demonstrate language skills on the other. By fulfilling their needs, students demonstrate and enhance their language competence. Considering that the results of the research have shown that students use the Internet for an average of more than four hours a day, then they definitely have enough time to get to know the various tools and, even if passively, to adopt a foreign language.

In order to learn the language of the profession, students mostly use computers, mobile phones and television, and among technologies, tools and applications students choose video technologies – films and video materials, and social networks. Then there are web sites, chat, forums for discussion, blogs, video conferences, etc. These results show that students use all language skills, and thus improve them.

Above all, universities and faculties should create conditions for appropriate technologies and their application in teaching and, accordingly, adopt strategies to define ways of applying them. In addition, higher education institutions should organize adequate training for teaching staff and familiarize them with the abilities and benefits of certain technologies, applications and tools. The Ministry of Science could be involved in resolving these issues, for example, for educational institutions to provide free internet, various software or installation of a learning platform (Moodle, Blackboard, etc.), and also participate in creating a strategy on the application of technology in higher education.

Further research could focus on the use of individual technologies at faculties and universities in Serbia. The use of social networks is also interesting for students and should be further investigated. The future research should also focus on the importance of language skills for learning LSP in Serbia.

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APPENDIX QUESTIONNAIRE

Please honestly answer the survey questions. The survey is anonymous, and your answers should give an overall picture of the use of Information and Communication Technologies (ITC) in teaching foreign languages.

GENERAL QUESTIONS

1. Faculty/Department
2. Gender
 - a) male b) female
3. Age
4. What is your average grade on the previous studies?
 - a) 6,0-7,0
 - b) 7,1-8,0
 - c) 8,1-9,0
 - d) 9,1-10,0

FOREIGN LANGUAGES

5. What is your level of mastering foreign language (German/English)?
 - a) beginner (A1)
 - b) lower intermediate (A2)
 - c) intermediate (B1)
 - d) upper intermediate (B2)
 - e) advanced (C1-C2)
6. What grade (the number of points) did you have on the previous foreign language (German/English) course?

USING INFORMATION AND COMMUNICATION TECHNOLOGIES (ICTS)

7. How often do you use information and communication technologies (ICTs)?
 - a) every day
 - b) several times a week
 - c) once a week
 - d) once a month
 - e) never

8. How much time a day, on average, do you spend on the Internet?

- a) more than 6 hours
- b) 4-6 hours
- c) 2-4 hours
- d) 1-2 hours
- e) less than one hour

9. Which of the information and communication technologies below are used for learning purposes and how often? (5 – every day, 4 – several times a week, 3 – several times a month, 2 – once a month, 1 – year)

Web sites	5	4	3	2	1
synchronous communication (chat rooms, video conferencing, Skype, virtual worlds, etc.)	5	4	3	2	1
asynchronous communication (e-mails, messages, forums etc.)	5	4	3	2	1
social networks (<i>Facebook, Twitter, Instagram</i> i sl.)	5	4	3	2	1
media services (TV, online TV, online radio)	5	4	3	2	1
digital media for entertainment (movies, music)	5	4	3	2	1
digital games	5	4	3	2	1
different <i>office</i> applications (<i>Word, Excel, PowerPoint</i>)	5	4	3	2	1
sharing information on the Internet (blogs, interest groups, etc.)	5	4	3	2	1
Moodle platform	5	4	3	2	1

10. How much do you think ICT helps you to learn? (5 – helps a lot, 4 – helps, 3 – I'm not sure, 2 – it does not help much, 1 – it does not help at all)

ICTs can serve as a learning tool	5	4	3	2	1
ICTs help me to do my studies better	5	4	3	2	1
thanks to ICT I can easily and quickly come to the required information for learning	5	4	3	2	1
thanks to ICT I do not have to regularly attend classes at faculty/college	5	4	3	2	1
thanks to ICT teaching is more interesting	5	4	3	2	1

11. How often do you use ICTs? (5 – very often, 4 – often, 3 – moderately, 2 – poorly, 1 – never)

computer (PC, laptop)	5	4	3	2	1
mobile phone / smartphone	5	4	3	2	1
tablet/ iPod	5	4	3	2	1
iPod / MP3 player	5	4	3	2	1

TECHNOLOGY AND LEARNING LANGUAGE FOR SPECIFIC PURPOSES

11. How much was the use of ICT important for your learning Languages for Specific Purposes? (5 – very important, 4 – important, 3 – moderately important, 2 – little important, 1 – not important)

12. How many of these technologies and applications have helped you to improve your language skills when learning Languages for Specific Purposes? (5 – very much, 4 – many, 3 – moderately, 2 – little, 1 – not much)

radio	5	4	3	2	1
television	5	4	3	2	1
computer	5	4	3	2	1
mobile phone	5	4	3	2	1
other portable devices (tablet, iPod, mp3)	5	4	3	2	1
software that follows regular textbooks in the classroom	5	4	3	2	1
different websites	5	4	3	2	1
chatting	5	4	3	2	1
messages	5	4	3	2	1
e-mails	5	4	3	2	1
blog	5	4	3	2	1
Moodle platform	5	4	3	2	1
discussion forums	5	4	3	2	1
Skype	5	4	3	2	1
video conferences	5	4	3	2	1
social networks (<i>Facebook, Twitter, Instagram, Linkedin ...</i>)	5	4	3	2	1
video on Web (<i>Youtube</i>)	5	4	3	2	1
podcasts	5	4	3	2	1
movies (with or without subtitles)	5	4	3	2	1
video games	5	4	3	2	1
automatic translators	5	4	3	2	1
online dictionaries and grammar books	5	4	3	2	1
online courses and materials for learning foreign languages	5	4	3	2	1

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HAND IN HAND – DEVELOPING UNIVERSITY TEACHERS’ AND PRE-SERVICE TEACHERS’ CROSS-CURRICULAR COMPETENCES

Summary

The aim of this paper is to present the English Language Module (ELM), which is based on the systematization of the existing interdisciplinary research findings (meta-analyses) and the integrated English language and Educational technology teaching practices. The English Language Module is a unique university programme applied at the Teacher Education Faculty in Belgrade. Relying on the descriptive method and a systematic approach to the integrated teaching model, the paper first provides an in-depth overview of the newly introduced programme and partial interpretation and reinterpretation of the research that preceded it. Secondly, the article exemplifies how this interdisciplinary teaching method works in the education of future preschool and primary school teachers in the joint effort of the English Language and Educational Technology teachers. Representing just a small portion of the overall ELM, this combined syllabus proves how English for Specific Purposes and Digital Technologies work hand in hand to provide both pre-service teachers and university teachers participating in the programme with opportunities to improve their knowledge and skills in an array of core higher education subjects and all preschool- and school-related content areas.

Key words: The English Language Module (ELM), Educational Technology, integrated curriculum, pre-service teachers, university teachers.

Introduction

Languages are learned in order to be used. Foreign languages are taught in order to enable members of different cultures to communicate, understand and be understood. Developments in the world of foreign language teaching and learning have undergone various stages. One of the most effective changes in the area of foreign language education occurred with the arrival of the approach known as *Communicative Language Teaching*. Opposing the traditional grammar-translation method, it was introduced by the end of the 1960s and already firmly established in western countries by the mid-seventies (Brown, 1987; Cook, Wei, 2009; Larsen-Freeman, 2011). Alongside the *Natural Approach* and the *Audio-Lingual Method*, which relied on the natural use of language in the classroom (Llurda, 2009, p. 46), this method aimed to rid foreign language learning contexts of the dry and deeply rooted drill practices. “Communicative Language Teaching has had a thoroughly beneficial effect since it reminded teachers that people learn languages not so that they ‘know’ them, but so that they can communicate” (Harmer, 1998, p. 32). However, lack of true communicative competence of many foreign or second language speakers at the end of their education brought about a shift of focus.

A few decades later, following the influx of the more naturalistic approaches to teaching, a new wave of research was started, which focused much rather on the outcomes of foreign or second language learning than the teaching process itself (Kołodziejska, Simpson, 2001; Bialystok, 2001; Stoller, 2004; Echevarria et al., 2008). Rigorous evaluations of the effects of teaching English as a foreign or second language in purely educational or immersion contexts and a vast body of research conducted at the end of the 20th and the beginning of

the 21st century reflected a growing need for integrating language teaching with the contents of other subjects taught at schools (*Bialystok, 1987; Brinton, Master, 1997; Snow, Brinton, 1997; Švecová, 2003; Edwards, 2009; Wynn, 2009; Bentley, 2010; Coyle et al., 2010*). Given different names (*Language Across the Curriculum, Content-Based Instruction, Content and Language Integrated Learning*), but based on similar principles, these integrative approaches to teaching have found their place in numerous foreign language (FL) classrooms worldwide (Janković, 2015, pp. 119-121).

Similarly, educational technology is learned in order to enrich and facilitate an array of life processes. Educational technology is taught in order to improve education of various kinds of professionals, including preschool and primary school teachers.

It is necessary to emphasize that modern educational technology is primarily based on the application of digital technologies, both in the organization of classes (indoor and outdoor) and in the teaching of students and evaluation of their achievement. Meta-analyses (of the first and second order) show that digital technologies are not the crucial factor (Tamim et al., 2011) that in itself contributes to the fulfillment of the teaching goals. They are just one in a range of factors. What is important for the organization of optimal teaching is the kind of learning objectives, teaching contents, individual teacher and student characteristics (the kind and level of background knowledge, motivation, digital competencies), information technology and didactic learning strategies, modes of teaching outcomes evaluation etc. (Topolovčan et al., 2016). We can say that digital technologies make a supplement which gives foreign language learning and teaching a new dimension, bearing in mind that technology can make good teaching even better, while it cannot fundamentally improve poor teaching. We expect technology to be not only “delivery technology” (Pešikan, 2016), but rather a teaching technology which helps create educational situations that will positively contribute to students’ academic achievement (Kralj, 2008; Ristić, Radovanović, 2013) and cognitive development, as well as the development of other aspects of personality (social, value-related).

Research conducted at the Teacher Education Faculty and schools in Belgrade

Models of integrated content and foreign language teaching were adopted in Serbia from the school year 2004/05 in the form of bilingual education programmes. They were applied only in senior (V-VIII) primary school grades and some high schools. When the first detailed scientific research was conducted related to bilingual education in English in the local environment, in the year 2013 (Janković, 2015, p. 18), there were individual (mainly experimental) bilingual classes in 11 primary schools and 10 high schools.¹ Teaching was conducted in a combination of the students’ L1 (Serbian) and L2 (English, French, Russian, Italian, Hungarian and/or German). According to the Law on Education, students’ mother tongue dominated in the teaching of these groups, while 30-45% contents could be taught in the respective foreign language. Wishing to investigate the rationale and possibility of introducing the model of content-enriched English language learning in the first cycle of primary education, Janković (2013) conducted comprehensive research, hoping it would yield positive results that could be implemented in the education of pre-service teachers of Teacher Education Faculty (TEF) in Belgrade. Primarily based on analytical and descriptive methods, but also substantiated by empirical evidence, this qualitative research relied on the strategy of multiple

¹ Among preschool institutions, this novel way of teaching was to be found only in the autonomous province of Vojvodina (in 5 kindergartens) at the time.

triangulation, whereby the following research instruments were applied: 1) documentation analysis, 2) interview, 3) questionnaire and 4) sample lessons.

The documents analysed were: a) national curricula for the first four grades of primary education; b) syllabuses for the English language and six other primary school subjects (Serbian language, The World around Us (I and II grades), i.e. Social, Environmental and Scientific Education (III and IV grades), Mathematics, Art, Music and Physical Education); c) several Ministry documents and newspaper articles; and d) five sets of English language coursebooks from different publishers.

The interviews were conducted: a) with a focus group of university (TEF) teachers who teach subject methodologies of all above mentioned school subjects ($N = 6$); b) with 3 focus groups of primary school teachers ($N = 32$); c) individually with developmental psychologists ($N = 2$) and d) Ministry of Education representatives ($N = 2$).

The questionnaires were administered among: a) the above mentioned subject teaching methodologists ($N = 6$); b) the above mentioned primary school teachers ($N = 32$); c) English language teachers who teach pupils in lower primary school grades ($N = 57$), and d) English language teachers who conducted sample lessons ($N = 3$).

The sample lessons were held with the total of 8 groups of pupils in two primary schools (2 classes of I, II, III and IV graders respectively). Three English language teachers participated in this stage of research using their own teaching materials (coursebooks) enriched with contents of other school subjects and materials prepared by the researcher. The research yielded unequivocal results regarding the usefulness of implementing language and content integrated learning with young learners. The suggested method of work with young learners proved to be not only acceptable, but also highly recommendable, as it could help improve children's school performance in English and support their general cognitive development (Janković, 2015, p. 131).

The English Language Module (ELM) of the Teacher Education Faculty

Resulting from the mentioned findings, and supported by further research by the same author, a new teaching programme was introduced at the Teacher Education Faculty in Belgrade in the academic year 2017/18. Although the English Language Module (ELM) is not a novelty in our institution², its new and vastly improved design makes it a unique teaching programme at the University of Belgrade. It consists of 15 subjects taught consecutively during students' entire studies, starting from their first year of academic education and ending at the Master's degree level. Three of the subjects are mandatory and taken by all faculty students who opt for English as their foreign language, among four languages offered. These pre-service students, thus, attend English language I in their first academic year, English language II in their second year and Foreign/English Language for Specific Purposes (ESP) at the Master's level. The remaining twelve ELM subjects are of elective character. The ELM programme was officially approved by the Ministry of Education in its initial form in 2006.

² This programme represents a redesigned version of the former English Language Module, applied at the Faculty in the period 2007-2011, which enrolled only two generations of students and lasted five semesters per generation. The old ELM consisted of three core subjects (English language, English language teaching methodology and Practicum), which were consecutively repeated and progressively expanded in each new semester. Although the three subjects were not based on what is now known as an integrated curriculum, their syllabuses were carefully graded and interconnected. The programme proved to be very successful in terms of preparing the attendees for the role of future English language teachers of young primary school learners (Janković, Cvetković, 2006). Its progress was hindered in the years that followed for purely administrative reasons.

The changes it has been through in the meantime have been acknowledged and approved by both the Faculty's teaching staff and the Ministry's competent bodies.

The English Language Module is studied only by a small and specially selected group of students, i.e. 15-17 students from each department, who decide to gain an additional degree apart from their basic career of preschool and primary school teachers. By completing the ELM programme, they also get an opportunity to become English language teachers, their scope of work being limited to preschoolers and pupils in the first cycle of primary education respectively. The selection of the candidates for the programme starts in the students' first year of studies. Candidates who express the wish to gain additional knowledge and skills in the area of the English language education are first tested for eligibility for entering the programme. After being presented the advantages and demands of the ELM, they take an in-house integrated skills test in English. Passing candidates (up to the set quota) join the so-called English Language B2 group, which means that they will be additionally prepared for the upper-intermediate and advanced levels of English according to the Common European Framework of Reference for Languages. Their language knowledge and ability will be further developed and enriched through the Integrated ELM curriculum. This will help them face the standardized exam for the international B2 and C1 level certificates without much difficulty, which is a precondition set by the Ministry of Education for foreign language teachers who do not graduate in philology.

The Integrated English Language Module Curriculum

The fifteen courses included in the ELM are conducted in English. With this programme students gain 60 ECTS for English language tuition in total, of which 14 ECTS for mandatory, and 46 for elective subjects. The only course that lasts the whole year is English I. The other courses (mandatory or elective) last one semester each, with theoretical courses gravitating more towards the 1st, and practical courses towards 2nd semester. Members of the B2 level group receive additional intensive instruction in parallel with the regular English I course. Since they work at a faster and more demanding pace, their classes are separate from the rest of the generation. However, there is no difference in the number of tuition hours in comparison to their peers, except for extra tutorials on a monthly basis. The exam requirements and assessment criteria are the same for all students in the generation. Additional practice and preparation for higher language level exams have been explained above.

The other mandatory courses (English II and English at Master's studies) are based on the language for specific purposes. Relying on students' general English knowledge, contents and discussions in these courses are predominantly focused on profession-related topics from the students' core subject areas, such as developmental psychology, pedagogy, didactics, teaching methodologies, (pre)school subjects and the like. English II gradually introduces students into this kind of discourse, based on authentic but less demanding text excerpts, while at Master's level they are faced with complete texts and in-depth discussions of greater complexity.

What gives this programme a special appeal is the group of elective subjects, which spontaneously evolved from the described research and resulted in integrating English language teaching with other curricular contents at the faculty. Each subject either overtly reflects integration with a selection of (pre)school subjects, which is evident in its name, or heavily relies on the contents of other academic courses taught at the faculty. Through these subjects, by using the English language, pre-service teachers will revise, build on or get introduced to the contents of other subjects. In that way, they will be able to relate their

knowledge and skills from content areas to their English language learning context and vice versa. The contents of the ELM subjects have been carefully thought of in cooperation with other subject teaching methodologists, who also participate in the ELM teaching process. After several lessons devoted solely to teaching English at the beginning of a new course, with the key terminology and themes from other content areas being introduced, content teachers join the process and hold their own series of lessons in English in cooperation with the English language teacher. Typically, each elective English language course in this curriculum is enriched with the contents of two other subjects, except for several subjects from the group of pedagogical-psychological (PP) or didactic-methodological (DM) courses, which are self-directed. Nevertheless, these courses too are based on cross-curricular exchanges, as the PP and DM contents originating from Serbian-language and English-language professional contexts and literature merge into one body of knowledge. Table 1 presents the integrated ELM curriculum.

Table 1
The Integrated English Language Module Curriculum

Year	Course	Cross-curricular Integration
I	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ❖ English language I ❖ English language for children through songs and movement 	General EL course (+B2) EL + Music + Physical Education
II	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ❖ English language II ❖ Creative games in English ❖ Developing language knowledge and skills 	ESP introductory course EL + Art + Educational Technology EL + Serbian Language + Children's Literature
III	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ❖ Teaching English to young learners ❖ Planning English language teaching ❖ ELT Praxis I 	EL + Pedagogical Psychology ELT Methodology – introduction ELT Internship – phase 1
IV	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ❖ ELT Methodology with an introduction to the integrated curriculum ❖ The world of science from the EL perspective ❖ Organising activities in ELT ❖ ELT Praxis II 	ELT Methodology – theoretical course EL + Science + Math ELT Methodology – practical course ELT Internship – phase 2
MA	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ❖ Foreign/English language for specific purposes ❖ Modern trends in ELT – Evaluation of language knowledge and ability ❖ Holistic approach to ELT 	ESP course ELT Methodology – Assessment ELT Internship – Teacher Certification

English language and digital competences (ELDC) hand in hand

The process of integration of digital technologies into the education system, and thus into the teaching of individual subjects as well, has been studied intensively from various points of view in the latest educational literature for two decades at least. Various forms of application of modern technology have already been identified, and are still being studied, which contribute to the development of models of *blended learning*, which represents an environment for learning based on different variants of classic (face to face) lectures and electronic learning³ with the aim to shape an environment for students' learning and development that will be as effective and stimulating as possible.

³ The learning subject matter and activities delivered or enabled by means of ICT.

Blended learning is seen in literature (Garrison, Kanuka, 2004) as a combination of different didactic, methodological, and pedagogical approaches, various teaching methods, media and tools that can be used in the teaching process. It is important to emphasize that models of blended learning require a teacher's comprehensive methodological preparation (Vujović, Ristić, 2015), possession of digital competencies, as well as availability of necessary equipment, computer programmes and digital teaching materials. The long-term problem with the availability of computer equipment can be overcome by the use of *cloud computing*, i.e. computer architecture in which the complete information-communication infrastructure, including hardware and network resources, data and software storage capacities and their security is offered to the users in the form of an internet service (Vujin, 2013, p. 13). For the purpose of economic effectiveness, i.e. reduced costs of new programme version purchase and maintenance, licensing, upgrading and availability, many business and education systems have started using this model. It is surely one of the reasons for an increase in the use of mobile technologies (Caldwell, Bird, 2015) in the education systems in Europe.

According to Dumančić (D, 2017, p. 126), the advantages of the use of cloud computing in education systems are: 1) personalized learning environment (learner/student can access various resources and applications that suit his/her learning style, regardless of the characteristics of the device they are using for access; 2) accessible services from any place and at any time; 3) cost reduction (learners and students do not have to buy the applications); 4) development without additional infrastructure (schools and faculties can be guided to their teaching and research goals without any work related to the development of software infrastructure) and 5) simplicity of the use of cloud computing (all services in the cloud are simple to use). It can be said that cloud computing has enabled an alternative, that is, we do not need classic hardware and software any more. It is enough to possess a portable (mobile) device. All applications that we use already make part of the cloud computing, while we, as users, access them by means of an Internet browser.

Mobile learning (m-learning) can be defined as a kind of *blended learning* which is supported by mobile devices⁴, applications and web tools.

Mobile digital teaching environment is built by using mobile technologies which focus on the teaching aims (El-Hussein, Cronje, 2010). Especially important for digital teaching environment is *Bloom's Digital taxonomy*. Its author (Churches, 2009) has revised and digitalized Bloom's taxonomy (Bloom, 1956). The Revised Bloom's taxonomy includes new objectives, processes and activities which are enabled due to the integration of digital technologies into teaching. In Bloom's Digital taxonomy (with the recommended mobile applications and web tools), the existing cognitive processes have been enriched with collaboration, which represents "not the skill, but the essence of the 21st century" (Churches, 2009). The aim of the taxonomy is to motivate teachers to focus on all areas simultaneously, creating a stimulating holistic digital teaching environment.

Research has shown that educational potentials of the use of m-learning are: individualization of learning (Ristić, Mandić, 2017), increased learner independence (Tulodziecki, Grafe, 2012), active cooperation among learners and teachers (Pegrum, Howitt, Striepe, 2013) and improved digital competencies of both learners and teachers (Balanskat, 2013). The analysis of a larger number of studies (Hockly, 2012; Keengwe, Bhargava, 2014; Khan, 2005) has helped come to

⁴ Mobile devices are all devices that can be carried in a hand and are portable. In the broadest sense, mobile devices include: mobile phones, smart phones (with advanced computing functions), tablet units (portable touchscreen computers), electronic book readers (e-readers), players, netbook computers (*small-sized laptop devices*), *digital photo cameras and video cameras*.

the conclusion that mobile learning brings: a new approach to learning that can be independent of time and space, a new role of the teachers and students, new learning methods, tools and scenarios, as well as new motivation, monitoring and evaluation methods.

The main precondition for the creation of a stimulative and safe digital teaching environment for learning English is the digital maturity (E-maturity) (Durando et al., 2012) in educational institutions. It means that the employees (teachers, teaching associates, managers) in educational institutions (schools and faculties) possess adequate digital competences. Besides that, for creating a fully effective digital environment for teaching and learning English, the participants in the process (both teachers and learners) need to possess the necessary language ability, as their mutual cooperation will be based on the use of the foreign language. That is why it is important to develop, from the earliest stages of children's education, not only their foreign language knowledge, but also their ability to use it. The advantage of integrating educational technology with English is that they can work hand-in-hand as early as at the beginner's levels of foreign language education. The difficulty of the contents offered will be adjusted to the learners' age and level of their linguistic and digital competence. As learners grow and mature through the education process, so does the level of the teaching input and learning output. Therefore, at the tertiary level of education, specifically in the case of pre-service teacher training, communicative competence plays a very important role, as language use does not only imply language knowledge, but also one's ability to apply this knowledge spontaneously in communication with other people and resources in nondigital and digital environments.

It is necessary to emphasize that the digital competences of teachers are dynamic and complex not only because of the dynamic development of ICT, but also because of their close relatedness to the teachers' pedagogical, psychological, methodological, didactic and subject-specific competences (Stoković, Ristić, 2016). As such, these competences include: stimulating students' creativity; critical thinking; quality communication; innovation; research and problem solving, both in the traditional and digital environment; fostering appreciation of true and ethical norms; respect of copyright; understanding other cultures and questions of righteousness in the sphere of digital technology. Digital teaching environment used by the teacher should provide: individual support to the student, encouraging students to manage their own learning, support to various students' learning styles, adequate feedback to students on their learning and a safe teaching environment (ISTE, 2015).

Cross-curricular Digitalization

Let us see how ICT can and does support teaching English within the English Language Module. Specializing for the use of digital tools implies creating a teaching environment with the focus on the English language teaching aims. Our experience in teaching and scientific research has shown that a digitally competent teacher is much more inclined to use new teaching methods. Competence and motivation are inextricably linked. Greater competence leads to greater motivation for the introduction of new methods and models of teaching (Ristić, Mandić, 2017).

The education of future English language teachers for the use of digital technologies (basic competences) is a necessary precondition for their education for the efficient use of technology, i.e. for acquiring advanced digital competences (Stoković, Ristić, 2016). It consists of four stages:

- 1) detecting the potentials of m-learning hybrid models and technologies in teaching;
- 2) the teacher learns how to use mobile applications (mob apps) and web tools;
- 3) the teacher understands where and when to use digital technologies;
- 4) the teacher specializes for the use of web tools and applications which are the most efficient for learning English.

Evaluation of the value of web tools and mobile applications used within the ELM is based on the criteria for evaluating the quality of teaching materials (*scientific-professional criterion, pedagogical-psychological and didactic-methodological criterion, ethical criterion, linguistic criterion, safety criterion and technological and graphic criterion*).

In particular, it should be emphasized that Web tools make it possible for both teachers and students to create contents and to cooperate with each other while forming a learning network with distributed creation of contents. Social networking, and the openness, freedom, cooperation and individual contribution pertaining to it, are the basics of web concepts. Many of these tools are free of charge, easy to use and accessible to everyone.

We have classified the web tools which support the ELM in several categories:

Media sharing tools allow for sharing photos, graphics, sounds, and videos. They are usually divided into three categories: sharing photos, audios and videos. *Sharing photos* enables students and teachers to create online databases of photographs that can be searched, organized, and shared. One of the representatives of this group of tools by all means is *Flickr*. *Sharing audios* (*Engl. podcasting*) makes it possible to create, publish, listen to and download audio tracks. Podcasting allows teachers and students to create their own audio and/or video programmes and broadcast them online. The main representative is *Odeo*. *Sharing videos* (*Engl. vlogging*) provides for easy and efficient uploading, organizing and sharing of video recordings. Frequently used video sharing sites are *YouTube*, *TeacherTube* and *Google Video*. Using these tools, the teacher can easily find songs accompanied by animation, educational or animated films that will be used in teaching English.

Collaboration tools allow participants in the teaching process to exchange and combine ideas. The main representative in this category is *Coggle*. This web tool allows students and teachers to interactively create cognitive maps, which can be easily inserted into blogs and web pages or sent via e-mails. *Coggle* can be very useful for enriching vocabulary and integrating knowledge areas. For learning English, it can be used by the teacher providing a general concept which to start from, e.g.: *animals*, with the students saying and adding to the general concept all the animals which they can name in English. In any other lesson, students can add to the mind map the new concepts they have learnt. That way, the concepts stay permanently in their memory.

Communication tools are services based on social software. The most popular social networking services are *Facebook*, *MySpace* and *Linkedin*. This group of tools also includes applications such as audio-conferencing tools (*YackPack*), audio-forums (*ChinSwing*) and chat (*Yaplet*). Correspondence via e-mail and interactive conversations have positive effects on the users' grammar, vocabulary and time management. These tools also allow for a direct contact with native speakers. Authentic communication better influences the mastery of language skills in comparison to non-authentic ones. If native speakers are found for a particular teaching project, who are ready to adapt to the students' language level, then students feel accepted and are more motivated for further learning (Platten, 2003).

Creative learning tools aim to motivate users to learn and encourage their creativity. There are a large number of these tools, for example, comic book maker (*Bubblr*); newsletter maker (*LetterPop*) and tools for creative video editing (*Bubbleply*, *Mojiti*). In the ELM, we use them, for example, to make lively interactive multimedia pictures (*ThinkLing*) and video clips (*Animoto*) of our students' artwork. This serves a double purpose: to teach students how to make creative didactic materials themselves, and to instruct them on how to use the same forms of digital tools in their future work with young English language learners.

Creating learning materials allows the creation and organization of multimedia teaching contents. This category includes: *Slidestory*, *Nanolearning* i *Veotag*.

Tools which replace standard desktop applications were created with the development of web 2.0 technologies and they enable networking the same way as under the classic MS Office applications. In the module for replacing standard desktop applications, we use *Google* documents that we create on a *Google drive* (which each g-mail user has).

Tools for evaluating student knowledge allow teachers to monitor and evaluate their students' knowledge and get timely feedback. In the ELM, we create interactive tasks with the aim of receiving feedback by means of a *Google* questionnaire or web tools such as *LearningApps*, *Kahoot* and *Class Tools*.

Social bookmarking tools allow users to organize and categorize their favorite network locations that support English language teaching. In this way, people with similar interests and backgrounds get connected, which enables them to achieve a rapid exchange of information. This category of tools includes *Ma.gnolia* i *Del.icio.us*.

In addition to these tools, English language teachers can also use *tools that allow for virtual walks* and *panoramic city sightseeing*. These tools enable students to better understand the culture, architecture, and the way of life of people whose language they are learning, which enhances their motivation. This group of tools includes *Bing Maps*, *Google Street View*, and also the official sites of the cities which offer virtual sightseeing. It is of utmost importance that, apart from improving language skills, students improve their perception and respect of other cultures.

An advantage related to mobile applications is that there are an increasing number of them on the market, many of them being free of charge. Thus, in June 2017, there were over three and a half million applications available for download on the digital distribution platform for Android applications known as the *Google Play Store*. Some of the mobile applications which meet the quality criteria and can be used for teaching foreign languages (more than ten languages) as a teaching tool are: *Duolingo*, *Memrise* i *Bussu*.

The basic resources for foreign language learning are dictionaries. Teaching students to the correct use of a dictionary is in line with the idea that the advantages of developing language learning strategies are manifold when aiming to improve the process of L2 learning. In addition to portability and accessibility, the advantages of the e-dictionary over a printed one (Stanojević-Gocić, 2016, p. 206) are also reflected in the speed of finding the requested word. E-dictionaries are increasingly equipped with pronunciation tools, so that students can immediately hear the words required, which is an advantage over dictionaries that offer only phonetic transcription. *EUdict*, *Definitions*, *Forfo* and *Stonito* are dictionaries which can be used for teaching purposes. *Stonito* is an encyclopedia e-dictionary for the English, German, French and Serbian languages. The dictionary is accompanied by the so-called *smart* word search. During the search, the first thing displayed is a table with all the translations of the requested term. The links in the table lead to the part where the requested word is described with complete information

and illustration. The application also contains didactic language games ('find the word and form the longest word you can from the given letters').

In English language teaching, play, as a didactic tool, allows students to learn grammatical and lexical structures in a natural way, it encourages students of all ages to fully participate and activate their passive knowledge of a foreign language, and free themselves from fear of mistake and anxiety. Play allows participants to feel comfortable, positive and motivated (Vidosavljević, 2015). Digital play learning concepts and approaches support critical thinking skills, group communication, class discussions and important decision making (Ristić, Mandić 2017). The primary goal of digital play is to motivate students to play the game, that is, to learn.

English language classrooms provide an ideal context for integrating modern technologies with the rest of the curriculum. It is not only the typical English coursebook contents that can be enlivened this way. Any teaching subject can lend part of its contents to the English learning environment, making them an integral part of the overall foreign language syllabus. The English Language Module, thus, integrates in its curriculum a selection of contents from all the subjects that future preschool and primary school teachers will be using with young learners (music and physical education, art and craft creations, language skills and literature excerpts, simple math tasks and science projects). In addition to that, digital technologies give old contents a new form, upgrading the teaching process to a higher dimension.

Conclusion

Languages are used to communicate on a variety of topics, including school contents, our everyday lives, personal likes and dislikes, etc. Thus contents pertaining to both school curricula and our daily routine can become elements of spoken or written English classroom discourse. Modern education offers numerous advantages and possibilities compared to traditional classrooms. Integrating foreign language teaching with subject contents is one of the educational models that can vastly improve the outcomes of students' learning. Drawing on the good practices of the earlier introduced models of integrated language and content teaching (*LAC*, *CBI* and *CLIL*), the English Language Module of the Teacher Education Faculty in Belgrade goes even further than its forerunners, being designed as an all-encompassing five-year-long cross-curricular study programme. Fully based on communicative interaction and being conducted by teams of English-speaking university experts (under the guidance and supervision of an English language teaching methodologist), this programme provides training for gifted students eager to gain not only a degree of a primary or preschool teacher, but of an English language teacher as well. For them, it means bilingual education which opens up dual career opportunities. For the faculty, it means a unique and challenging English language teaching programme which combines the strengths of its core curriculum.

Digital technologies can vastly enrich our teaching practices and the students' learning experience. When web tools are used in the process of teaching across the ELM curriculum, guided by the educational technology expert, the language teacher (or respective content teacher) should be an instructor and a demonstrator who will introduce students to the proper use of the tools. Integrating mobile technology and mobile devices with English language lessons can be done in two phases. The first phase is the introduction to the basic possibilities that mobile devices possess and provide (access to network resources, taking photographs, recording video contents, communication, etc.). This phase does not require interactive applications or specific tools. The second phase of integrating mobile technologies in the teaching of English is realized through the use of various web tools and mobile applications. There are many of them in the

systems such as Google Play, Apple Store and Microsoft Mobile Apps, and also out of the systems, which teachers can use both in preparation and in the realization and evaluation of the teaching process. Many of the tools can be used by students themselves, which enhances their language and digital competencies. When students begin to use them, the teacher should be a guide and, if necessary, provide appropriate assistance. In that way, the teacher also progresses from a 'knower', or 'involver', to a 'teacher enabler' (Scrivener, 2005, p. 25). Such a dynamic educational environment makes both university teachers and pre-service teachers constantly active and motivated to learn and develop. Under university teachers' guidance, pre-service teachers gain the knowledge and skills they will heavily rely on in their future work with young learners. Working in teams within the integrated curriculum, university teachers also develop as professionals, relying on each other's expertise and the feedback they receive from the combined traditional and digital interactions with students. The English Language Module of the Teacher Education Faculty is an example of cross-curricular integration which can and does work in practice.

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THE QUALITY OF EDUCATION IN STATE UNIVERSITY OF APPLIED SCIENCES IN NOWY SĄCZ AND PREPARATION OF STUDENTS FOR FUTURE WORK AS TEACHERS

Summary

The authors present the results of diagnostic research conducted in educational environments where future teachers are undergoing internship. The object of the research was to gather opinions among 102 future employers and institution – appointed internship supervisors concerning the degree of preparedness of the students of State University of Applied Sciences in Nowy Sącz, participants of practical Pedagogy degree course, for future work as teachers.

Key words: quality of education, occupation of a teacher, academic institution, practical profile.

Introduction

How to educate future teachers to enable them to face the challenges of modern education and social expectations is the topic of a heated discussion. Universities preparing students to work as teachers underline the priority role of general academic education. Curricula are particularly focused on the areas of knowledge related to the pedagogical theory of education and its direct relation with supplementary sciences. Practical skills are being relegated to playing secondary role. In such convention an insufficiently emphasized correlation between the theory of education and the practical aspects of teaching can be observed. In *Recommendations for practical training of future teachers* the fact that "the quality and efficiency of education are largely dependent on the knowledge and practical skills of teachers and their qualifications and competences is strongly emphasized. Thus the need exists to combine the theoretical and practical forms of education in order to thoroughly and comprehensibly prepare students, future teachers, to face the contemporary work challenges" (2011, p. 7).

Academic institutions prepare the personnel with highest possible qualification for work in economy and for the benefit of the societal development (Włoch, 2012, p. 53). Under such circumstances the quality of education and proper preparation of students for vocation in which knowledge and competences, professionalism, high qualifications, shrewd decisions and innovative actions resulting from the said knowledge become invaluable assets, is a priority. Initiative, commitment and positive motivation for work in constantly changing reality are not only desirable traits but are also required by contemporary employers.

Referring to the scientific discourse concerning the activity in the context of education it is worth to underline that professional attitude in the work of a teacher is the result of habitual cycle of actions repeated until the attainment of complete mastery. In traditional education future teachers are expected to project their educational actions and to forecast certain events and situations. It is a fact which is reflected in outlines and scenarios for classes they are conducting. Such system, connected with the functional and behavioral understanding of practice is still dominant but it should be altered and perfected because there is no place in it for the expanded reflection on and increased sensitivity towards the current situations and problems spontaneously arising during classes.

The other way of perceiving and understanding the education of teachers is related with the concept of reflexive practice. In its context the role of a teacher and its related tasks are perceived in a completely different manner. In this manner the relation between the pedagogical theory and the practical processes of education are visible when teachers are applying their knowledge in making justified substantive decisions in the school environment (Żytko, Nowakowska, Sobierańska, Szyller, 2018, pp. 16-17). In understanding of the term "reflexive practitioner" we are dealing with the supplementation of professional knowledge with the scientific theory (Paris, Ayres, 1997, p. 102; Pearson, 1994, p. 157).

These arguments confirm the validity of training future teachers during the practical university courses. Such courses have been available in state schools of higher vocational education (SUAS) since 2015.

1. The education of teachers in state schools of higher vocational education

The idea of establishing free state schools of higher vocational education was supposed to make higher education available for young people living outside the reach of the main academic centers, particularly in former provincial capitals, in order to educate students and create workforce for the local employment markets. The implementation of this project was reflected in 1997 bill concerning state schools of higher vocational education. This bill resulted in dividing academic institutions into academic universities and state schools of higher vocational education which allowed students to participate in first degree courses, i.e. 3 year Bachelor of Arts courses and 3.5 year Bachelor of Science courses. State schools of higher vocational education were systematically reorganized by the initiators of the changes, rectors who noticed and understood the necessity to improve and refine the quality of education in state schools of higher vocational education. An important document for state schools of higher vocational education was the 2002 bill which obliged state schools of higher vocational education to, among other changes, carry a degree course and not only specialty courses which, in turn, resulted in adapting SUAS to certain standards, creating a profile of a graduate, establishing the number of classes devoted to general education, general and course subjects as well as the requirements concerning internship. Separate stipulations concerning the quality of teachers' education were also included. The fundamental change in Polish higher education was the result of the social consultations sanctioned by the 2005 bill Higher Education Law. Therefore the uniform higher education system was established dividing academic institutions into various types. It was the time when the grounds for the introduction of the Bologna Process were established in higher education. The 2011 bill amendment gave the indication that the premises of the Bologna Declaration should be implemented and academic institutions should become more autonomous. It is also worth to note that until 2012 the education of teachers had been carried out in accordance with the separate regulations concerning the standards of education for teachers. Another decisive bill from 11th July 2014 clearly differentiated goals of academic and vocational institutions and stipulations included in this bill clearly specified procedures and conditions of establishing practical courses in institutions of learning preparing students for future vocations (JoA, paragraph 1198). This legal document demonstrates the importance of internships and specifies the changes relating to the fulfillment of the goals outlined in syllabus.

The general academic education in academic institutions and practical courses in vocational institutions significantly influenced the available educational offer of these higher education institutions. In the case of practical courses the internship was extended to 3 months and encompasses 480 hours. It undoubtedly allows enhancing the vocational experience of future teachers and enables them to test and verify their educational skills in real working environment. Pedagogical internship allows participants to refine skills and confront the acquired theoretical knowledge with the practice of education. Such number of hours devoted to internship allows teachers to apply their knowledge in various concrete and real situations arising during teaching. Future teachers learn to plan, execute and evaluate his actions in the context of particular environment. He also has an opportunity to learn about an institution and its specific characteristics in all aspects of its functioning. Taking notes of the work of a teacher, internship supervisor, is also pivotal. He may be a good role model in attempts at individual actions. Learning about the teacher's workshop and intentional and conscious use of the available teaching aids, both traditional and modern, are also advantages. It is further important that the internship become an expanded reflection which in turn will become consideration of one's own actions and may lead to alterations in own preconceptions and pedagogical actions. "The reflexiveness of a teacher is requirement of contemporary education and, at the same time, one of the priority goals of higher education institutions preparing students for work as teachers. Teacher's reflection is important in the aspect of vocational and personal development, may serve in improving one's own work, updating knowledge and searching for solutions improving the efficiency of education and self-discovery" (Zachona, 2018, p. 10). Prudent organization of the internship, selecting successful pedagogues to take the responsibilities of internship supervisors, proper selection of institutions and support on the part of the staff of a higher education institution guarantee the high quality of such important part of education as internship.

Another significant change relating to the practical courses is increasing the number of hours devoted to workshops, practice and laboratories in order to be able to complete the curriculum and achieve and verify the stated goals. Furthermore, the activating methods are beneficial for the dynamics of learning, both in independent learning and in the work with other teachers. Producing results in the fields of knowledge, skills and acquiring social competences is an adequate result of the premises stipulated in the statutory requirements concerning practical courses.

It seems appropriate to add, in the context of previous theoretical considerations, that SUAS in our country have a particular didactic mission to accomplish an important role to play in the local socio-economic environment. Such institutions of learning aspire to actively participate in the social life of regions where they are located. One of such developed forms of cooperation is establishing close relationships with local institutions, organizations, companies and offices operating in the area (Wiśniewska, 2002, p. 19). It is due to the fact that academic institutions wish to answer the demands of the local employment market and prepare graduate mainly for the demands of the region. Academic institutions consult opening new degree courses with the local authorities and expand educational offer with the desired courses to fill niches in the local markets and enable graduates to take on jobs in regional areas upon the completion of the course. Due to studying close to the place of residence a student can gain higher vocational education without the need of relocating to large academic centers located far away. E. Wiśniewska draws attention to the fact that SUAS "present the aspect of establishing culture because establishing an institution of vocational education is simultaneously an act of establishing an

institution forming cultural patterns and promoting values” (2002, p. 20). Presence of young people, students, in the environment leads, in time, to establishing new forms of social and cultural activity in the local societies.

Polish Accreditation Committee is responsible for the quality of education in Polish state schools of higher vocational education. Polish state schools of higher vocational education are periodically carefully inspected and the results are presented in reports.

Concluding the presented ruminations concerning the training of future teachers in Polish state schools of higher vocational educations we must underline that significantly increased number of compulsory vocational internships, the attention paid to combine the theoretical subjects with methodological and specialty subjects, an appropriate number of hours devoted to subjects directly related to the practice of education and employing specialist with well documented experience in working in institutions of education are undoubtedly valuable assets equipping a student with proper tools and desirable skills conditioning the proper completion of tasks related to the process of education. E. Marek's statement concerning State University of Applied Sciences in Nowy Sącz may serve as a proof of this claim:

During internship students plan and carry out St. Andrew's day celebrations and carnival festivities for children from schools in the area of Nowy Sącz. They actively participate in Christmas celebrations and other forms of festivities, they also organize International Children's Day festivities [...] In cooperation with preceptors they supervise children during school trips [...] Students are invited to prepare declamatory contests, quizzes concerning knowledge of the region and parent-teachers meetings (2015, pp. 140-141).

2. Methodological premises of the conducted research

2.1. The object and the problematic aspects of the research

The object of the conducted diagnostic research was to gather the opinions of the management and staff of educational establishments and specialist therapy offices as well as from the internship supervisors concerning the quality of education and training of students, future teachers, participating in pedagogy degree course at State University of Applied Sciences in Nowy Sącz. It is a valid premise because since institution switched over to the practice based model of education no survey research has been conducted in the Department of Pedagogy concerning the stakeholders' opinion of the external effects of this form of education in the context of students' real educational actions taken during internships.

The main research problem arose from the object of the research and could be contained in the following question: What is the quality of education and preparation of the students of State University of Applied Sciences in Nowy Sącz for future work as teachers?

The specific problematic issues of the research were specified in the following questions:

- How do you assess the substantive preparation of the students of State University of Applied Sciences in Nowy Sącz for future work as teachers?
- How do you assess the practical skills of the students of State University of Applied Sciences in Nowy Sącz related to their future work as teachers?
- How do you assess students' attitude towards children, parents, the board and the staff of the establishment?
- To what degree are students involved with the actions taken in the establishment?
- How do you assess the substantive preparation of the students of other institutions of education for future work as teachers?

Furthermore the respondents received an open question concerning the possibility of employing a graduate of State University of Applied Sciences in Nowy Sącz:

- If you had a possibility to employ a graduate of State University of Applied Sciences in Nowy Sącz and from other institution who would you choose and why?

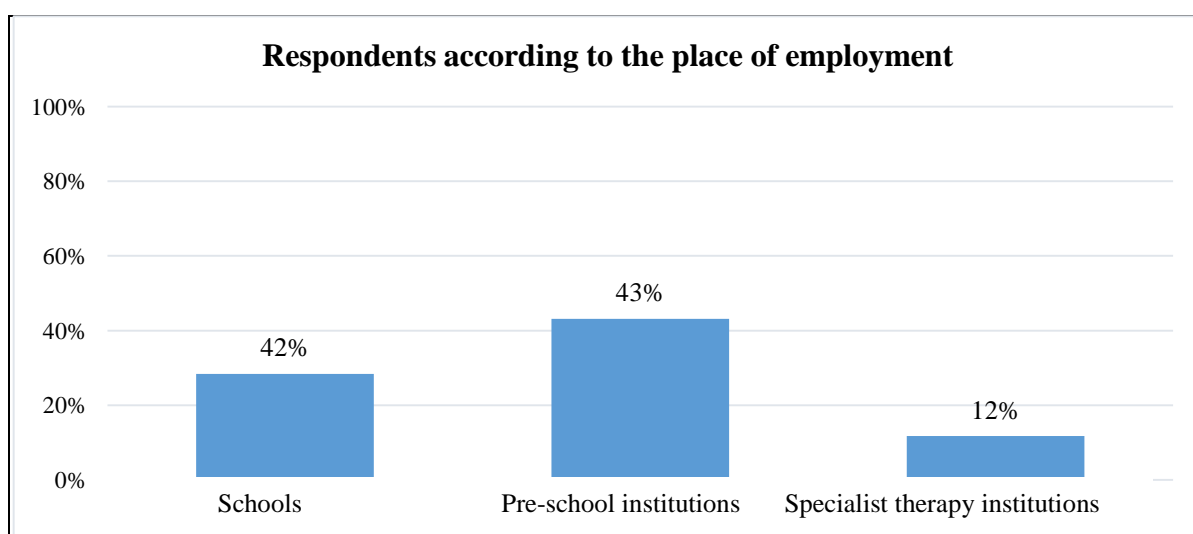
These specific questions were related to the primary effects of education compatible with three areas: the skills, the knowledge and the social attitudes. They referred to the education of a teacher in the aspect of their vocational role and the related tasks. The attention was intentionally drawn to the attitude of students towards children, their parents, the board and other staff of the establishments where they were undergoing internship. It was also deemed that a future teacher must be active and actively involved in the organizational and educational actions which are typical for the character of the institution and its contacts with the local environment. The researchers were interested in how the degree of preparedness of the students of State University of Applied Sciences in Nowy Sącz for future work as teachers is assessed in comparison to other institutions of higher education.

2.2. The methods and techniques used in the research

The diagnostic poll method was used to gather the empirical data. A survey including five multiple choice questions was used. The respondents were asked to answer the questions by marking answers on a scale from 0 to 5, 0 being the lowest and 5 being the highest score. The last question was open and justification for the provided answer was required.

2.3. The area of research and the respondents

The survey was conducted in 2018 among 102 individuals employed in educational establishments in the area of Nowy Sącz sub-region. At that time the establishments participating in the survey were, in cooperation with State University of Applied Sciences in Nowy Sącz, conducting the vocational internship project. Since 2015 this internship has been carried out in the required extent of 480 hours in the areas of pre-school and early school education as well as in the area of specialist therapy (speech therapy, pedagogical, occupational etc.). Respondents group is presented in graph 1.



Graph 1. Respondents according to the place of employment (N=102).

Source: own research.

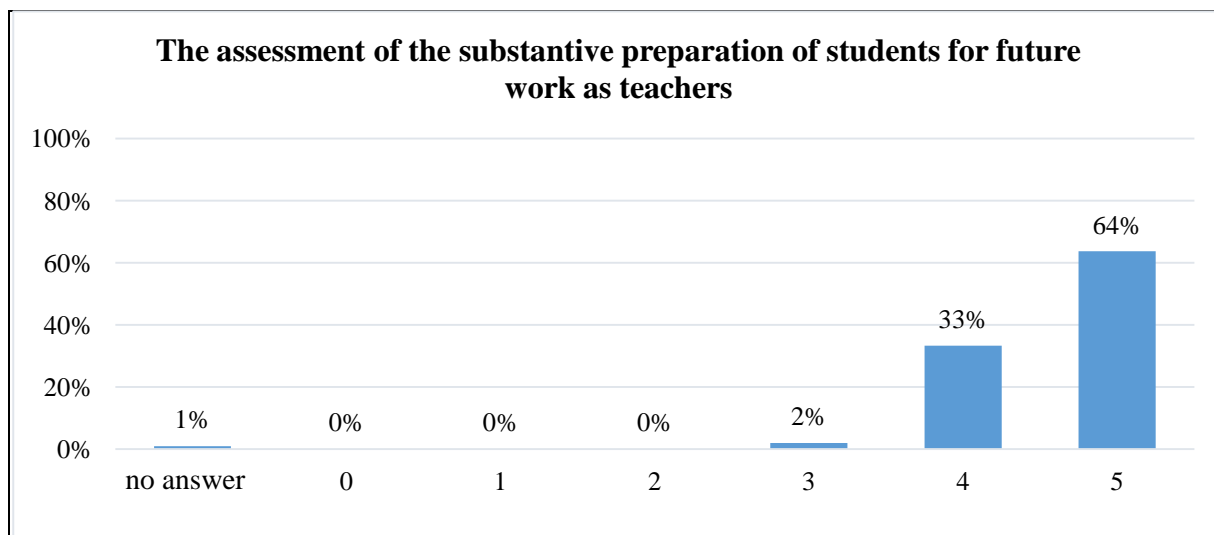
According to the data presented in graph 1 the largest group of respondents comprises of headmasters, vice-principals and internship supervisors employed in pre-school institutions of learning – together they amount to 43% of the total number of respondents. 28% of the respondents are connected to the early-school education establishments and 12% are working in specialist therapy institutions. We must explain that the composition of the group was the result of the internships conducted in concert with the vocational internship plan in the participating establishments as well as the result of the number of students undergoing internships at that time in pre-school institutions, elementary schools and specialist therapy institutions (pedagogical, speech therapy, occupational).

3. The analysis of the results of the conducted research

3.1. The assessment of the substantive preparation of the students of State University of Applied Sciences in Nowy Sącz for future work as teachers

The scope of the mastered theoretical knowledge, its understanding in the context of the logical relation and cause-and-effect connections in the various areas and scientific disciplines included in syllabus in the form of basic course and special blocks, is the basics of acquiring skills and competences by a future teacher. We should add that the contents of supplementary classes, such as philosophy, sociology and psychology, constitute the basics for the subjects and classes directly related with the teaching specialization. They enable students to comprehend pedagogical subjects in a wide context and with the reference to teleology, axiology, society, culture and psychology of the human development. Understanding the education and its meaning as a complex process and partaking in educational activities during the obligatory internships preparing students for future work as teachers allow them to correlate theoretical education with methodological conduct and simultaneously enable them to translate theoretical knowledge into practice.

The gathered data indicates that the respondents rate highly the degree of preparedness of the students from State University of Applied Sciences in Nowy Sącz. On the scale from 1 to 5 the highest grade was awarded by 64% of the respondents. We should also highlight the fact that 97% of respondents in total rate the level of preparedness as good (4) or very good (5). It is also worth noting that none of the respondents awarded the lowest possible scores (i.e. 2-0). It may be inferred with the high degree of probability that the respondents' answers reflect the high quality of theoretical education at the SUAS in Nowy Sącz. It is related with the systematical analysis of the subject matter and careful selection of the recommended primary and supplementary literature for the respective parts of the course in accordance with the latest specialist knowledge required in the profession of a teacher. The distribution of the gathered answers is presented in the graph below.



Graph 2. The assessment of the substantive preparation of students for future work as teachers.
Source: own research.

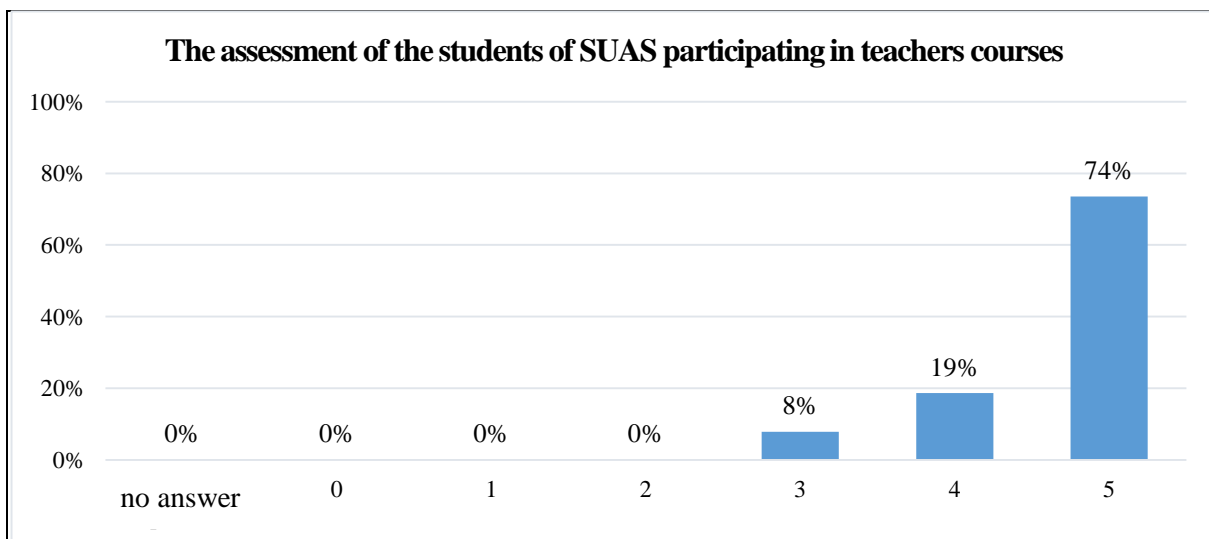
Scientific authorities confirm the importance of theoretical preparation for teacher's work. B. Muchacka writes that the comprehensive education integrated with the contents of psychological, philosophical and sociological subjects included in the syllabus is required from the contemporary teachers (Muchacka, Kogut, 2006). Scientific papers concerning the quality of education and preparations for future work as a teacher emphasize the importance of cognito-intellectual aspects of a teacher's education expanded through the practical and actuating aspect defined by the students' practical skills refined during vocational internship.

3.2. The assessment of the practical skills of the SUAS students related to the profession of a teacher

Practical skills are established on the grounds of theoretical skills. Their inclusion into practical degree courses is important and justified because they are connected with students' factual process of preparation for future career and the undertaking of educational activities in the context of three important subjects: a pupil, a parent and the teacher themselves. "Learning the skills of a teacher is not an easy task. On the grounds of the essential theoretical knowledge we must consider what skills are the most important for the development of professional competences and how to plan and execute the process of education to provide students with ample opportunities to develop and perfect these skills" (Zaclona, 2006, p. 134). The results of the actions of future teachers based on their skills are evident in the independent completion of the tasks included in the canon of the vocational internships. Therefore the opinions concerning said actions constitute a valuable feedback for institutions training future teachers and may inspire institutions to update syllabuses.

Practical skills of the internship participants were, just like the theoretical preparations, deemed to be satisfactory by the respondents of the survey. 93% of the respondents assessed practical skills of the interns to be very good or good. What is equally important, none of the respondents rated participants negatively (using 2-0 marks).

High marks awarded to students currently undergoing internships and only preparing for future work allows us to argue with the high degree of probability that the extent of the practical education included in the syllabus was well matched and proceeds correctly maintaining balance between theory and practice preferred by the various educational and specialist establishments. The total number of the provided answers was presented on the graph 3.



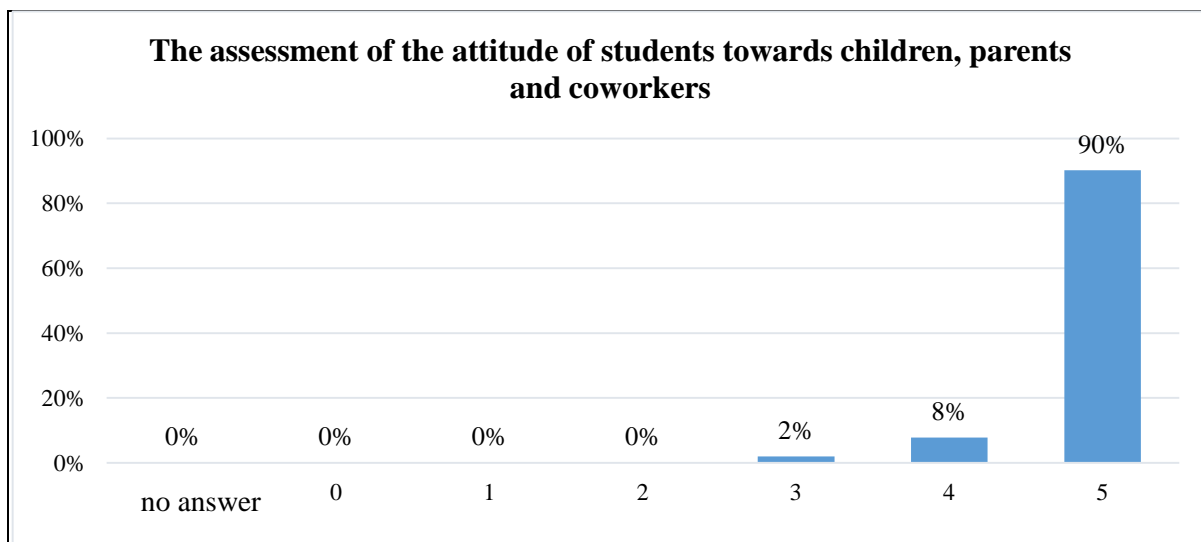
Graph 3. The assessment of the students of SUAS participating in teachers courses.
Source: own research.

The answers provided by the respondents indicate that acquiring and perfecting practical skills in action and through actions is valuable and informative for future teachers. They not only enable students to become aware of and understand the connection between theoretical knowledge and pedagogical conduct but also stimulate the awareness of the need for self-improvement, particularly in the aspects of competences in future work environment.

3.3. The assessment of the attitude of students towards children, parents and staff of establishments

The chances of improving the quality of teaching in institutions of higher education are directly connected with social competences. Among the social competences the most significant are: involvement in cultural and social issues, initiating pro-societal activities in the surrounding environment, openness to communication and communicating with various entities, the awareness of responsible and professional behavior. In the case of a teacher these forms of activity must be supported by ethical stance and the ability to render judgments and opinions on social and ideological matters.

It was assumed during the research that student's attitude is one of the major elements influencing the social assessment of the profession of a teacher who requires the trust of parents, children and principals of the institutions. Establishing proper sensitivity and correct competences promotes professionalism of students and often decides the applicability of a student's work and directly translates into the possibility of employment in a particular institution in which a student underwent their internship. 98% of the Respondents assessed our students to be very well or well prepared. Nearly all of the 102 surveyed principals, vice-principals and internship supervisors highly praise the attitude of the students of SUAS in Nowy Sącz. The visual representation of the provided answers was presented in graph 4.



Graph 4. The assessment of the attitude of students towards children, parents and coworkers.
Source: own research.

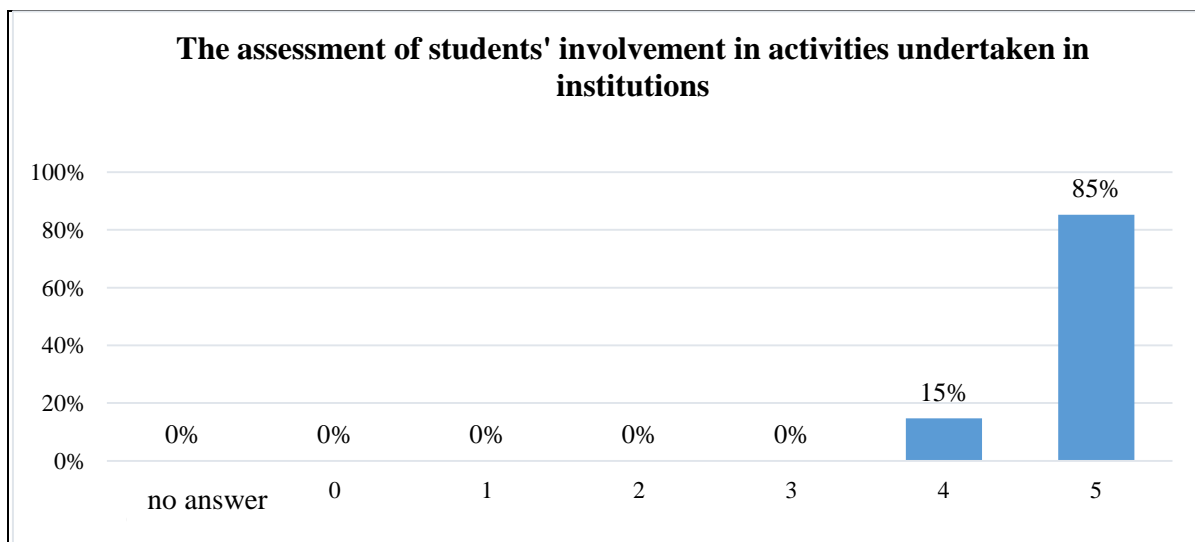
The observation of the students', future teachers', behavior under particular conditions during internship enables internship supervisors and individuals in charge of the institutions to verify candidate's predisposition towards taking up the profession of a teacher. A student, through his/her practical actions, presents his/her attitude towards children, other teachers, board of school council and parents. It may be an indicator of the student's empathy, kindness, communication competences and the ability to work as a part of a team. The traits listed above are important for every teacher and, supported with the awareness of social standards and pedagogical culture and tact in the course of his/her work, enable a future teacher to seamlessly adapt to a new working environment and to begin the never ending process of self-improvement.

3.4. The assessment of the involvement of the student of SUAS in the functioning of institutions

The universal social competences, including establishing pro-societal attitude as the result of education an academic institution, are related with various areas of students' work most commonly taken up during vocational internship in order to become acquainted with multiple aspects of the profession of a teacher. These actions are related not only with participation in classes included in the timetable but also with additional tasks resultant from the process of preparing a student to undertake the social role of a teacher.

It was deemed prudent to hear the opinions or learn about the opinions of future employers concerning various activities in which students undergoing vocational internship participate. The actions and involvement of students in various educational activities and initiatives undertaken in institutions were favorably assessed by 85% of the respondents and two highest marks (very good and good) were jointly indicated by 100% of the respondents.

Introducing and motivating students to participate in various activities and initiatives undertaken in establishments, i.e. in pre-school institutions, elementary schools and specialist therapy institutions, resulted in more efficient use of the 480 hours of internship in order to acquire additional practical skills which undoubtedly have a direct relation with the functioning of the graduates on the employment market. It is therefore important to take note that the highly praised attitude of students is confirmed by and reflected in the assessment of students' involvement in initiatives undertaken in institutions. The visual representation of the provided answers is presented in graph 5.

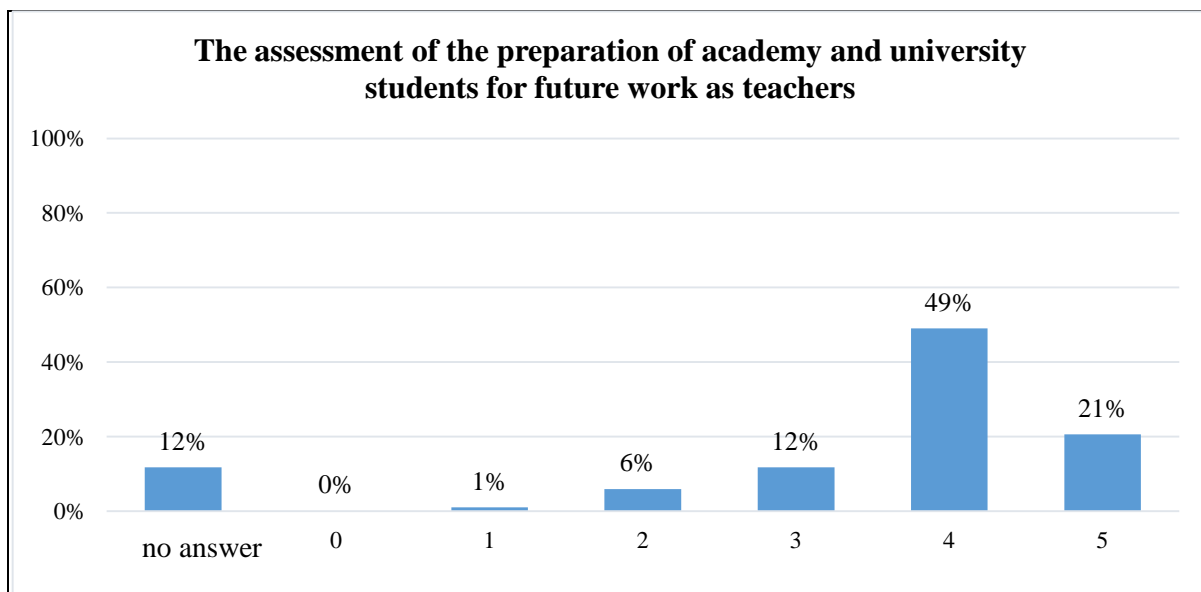


Graph 5. The assessment of students' involvement in activities undertaken in institutions (N=102). Source: own research.

With high degree of probability we may infer that the more activities students participate in and the more tasks they complete under the oversight of the appointed internship supervisor the easier they will find it cope with tasks in course of their work. The wealth of experience, the ability to adapt and react to various educational situations, taking responsibility for the consequences of actions of oneself and others, the ability to work for the greater good, harmonious work in a team of pedagogues and good interpersonal communication should all result in decisive and judicious functioning of a teacher.

3.5. The assessment of the preparation of SUAS students for future work as teachers

The respondents were also asked to evaluate the level of preparedness for future work as teachers of the graduates of institutions other than SUAS (academies and universities). The answers allowed us to compare the opinions of the representatives of the institutions of learning concerning the quality of the education of teachers from SUAS and other academic institutions. The results in each surveyed group indicate that graduates of other institutions of learning were evaluated well but noticeably worse than the students of SUAS. Very good and good marks were indicated by 70% of respondents wherein the highest note was indicated by only 21%. The fact that 19% of the respondents indicated unsatisfactory mark, ranging from 0 to 3, is worth noting. The summary of the gathered answers is presented in graph 6.



Graph 6. The assessment of the preparation of academy and university students for future work as teachers.

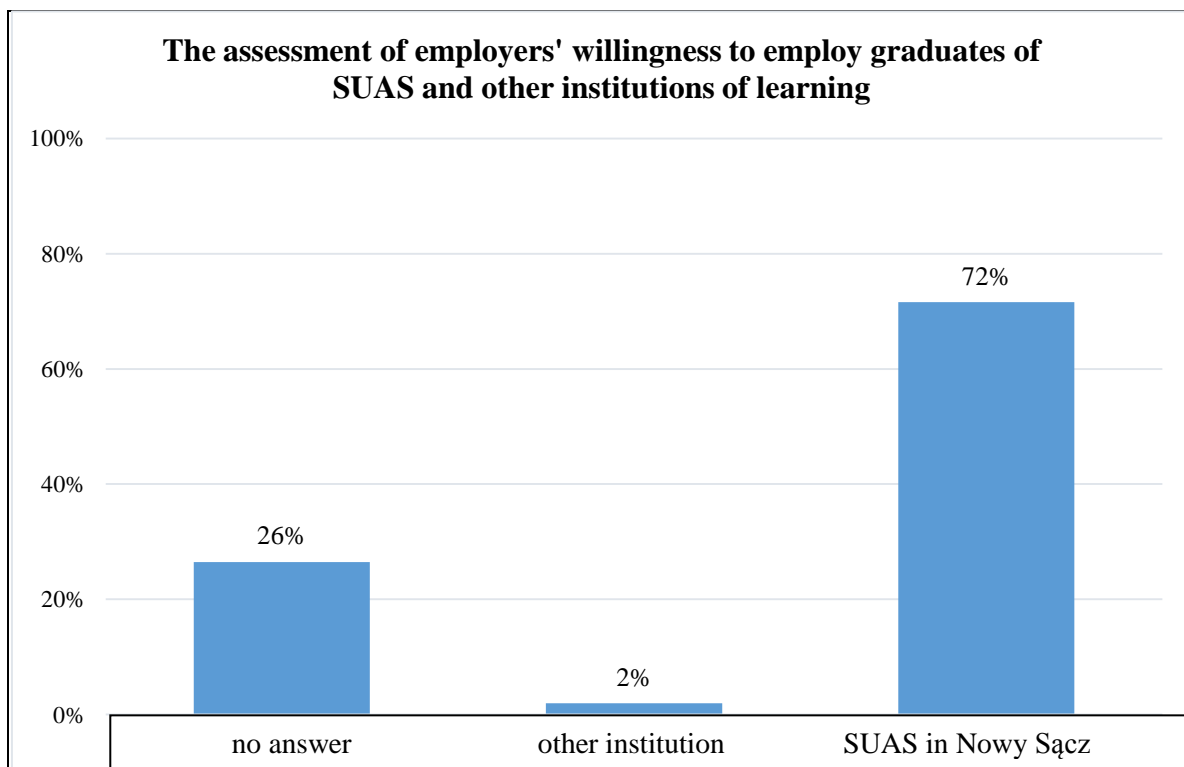
Source: own research.

Analyzing the gathered factographic material we may, with great caution, draw several conclusions. The gathered material appears to indicate that the significantly increased number of hours of internships and their substantive scope is directly related with the opinions of the respondents.

3.6. The assessment of willingness to employ graduates of SUAS and other institutions of learning

The research was conducted under the premise presenting that if employers favorably assessed the quality of education at the institution and the preparation for work as a teacher and if they had an opportunity to employ the graduate they would be willing to do so. 72% of the respondents declared that they would choose a graduate of SUAS in Nowy Sącz over a graduate from other institutions of learning if given choice. The results indicate that potential employers hold students of the state school of higher vocational education completing practical degree course in pedagogy in high regard. It appears that future employers have better opinion on the SUAS graduates than the graduates of other institutions of learning. Only 2% of respondents indicated that they would prefer to employ a graduate of an academy or a university.

We must also highlight that 26% of respondents refrained from providing an answer to this question. Graph 7 presents the results.

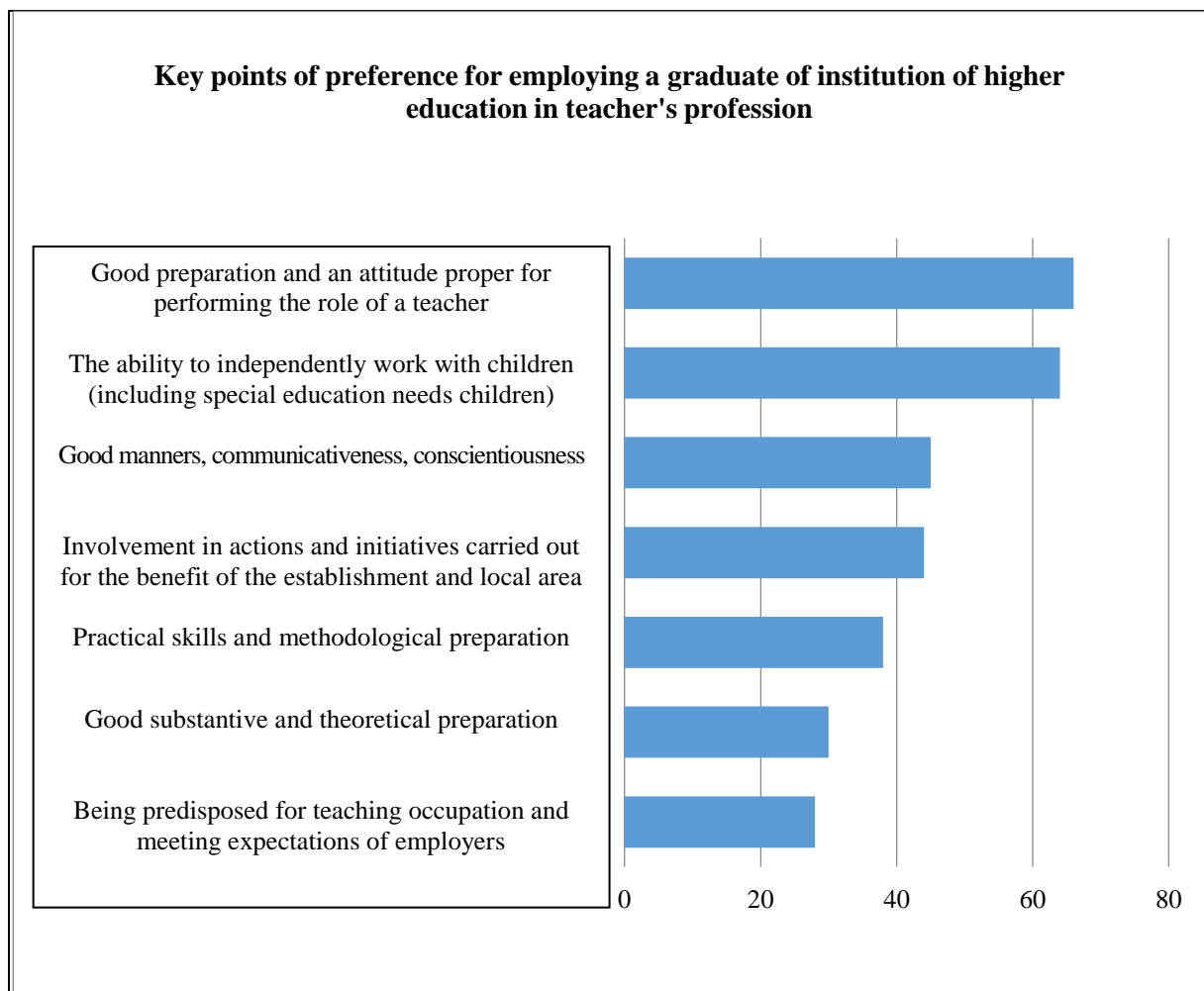


Graph 7. The assessment of employers' willingness to employ graduates of SUAS and other institutions of learning.

Source: own research.

* This group includes people employed in establishments where no students from other institutions of learning underwent internships.

To exclude unsubstantiated answers the respondents were required to provide justification for their preference of employing graduate of one institution over the other. The arguments provided had the form of an open answer therefore, they were categorized and counted jointly and presented in graph 8.



Graph 8. Key points of preference for employing a graduate of institution of higher education in teacher's profession.
Source: own research.

Quantitative data indicates that the potential employers mainly emphasize good preparation and attitude proper for work as a teacher. These were the arguments provided by the largest number of respondents, approximately 67%. Slightly fewer answers – 62% – put emphasis on the graduate's ability to independently work with children, including special education needs children, or the ability to resolve various educational problems. 45% of the respondents indicated good manners, communication skills and conscientiousness in completing tasks and fulfilling duties as the most important. 44% of the respondents indicated the work for the benefit of the institutions and local society and environment. Practical skills and good methodological preparedness were important for 39% of the respondents and correct, proper and expansive substantive preparation was highlighted by one third of the respondents. Being predisposed for the role of a teacher and meeting the expectations of employers was indicated by 29% of the respondents.

Conclusion

Referring to the posed questions included in the research we may put forward a general thesis claiming that the quality of education in an institution of vocational education offering practical degree courses is, in the researched aspect, very well evaluated by future employers. Therefore we may assume that their opinions are satisfactory for the school. Positive, 20-year long cooperation of the school with local society, high appraisal of the quality of education

(including theoretical preparation) translate into enjoying very good opinion among the respondents. They are the proof of the important role State University of Applied Sciences in Nowy Sącz plays in the education of future teachers.

The gathered empirical material allows us to draw several particular conclusions relevant to the completion of the goals of the research:

- the education of teachers at the practical degree courses at the State University of Applied Sciences in Nowy Sącz is very highly appraised by the external entities where students, future teachers, are undergoing internships.
- the implementation of the syllabus over the course of education enables students to fully complete the goals of education and achieve the results desired by both the students and the potential employers;
- respondents very favorably appraise substantive and methodical preparation of students in the context of the practical parts of the course;
- the process of education endows future teachers with social competences and proper attitudes toward children, parents, principals and pedagogical bodies of the institutions of learning.

The more general conclusion is: SUAS in Nowy Sącz is the regional leader in the field of the education of teachers, educating and training pedagogical staff for most of the institutions of learning in the area. The gathered results are important related to the object of the research and the importance of the practical education of teachers. Furthermore, the results confirm that fulfilling all recommendations and requirements formulated in the teacher's education standards, including 480 hours of vocational internship consisting of direct contact with children in schools or specialist institutions, converges with the requirements and expectations of employers in the local educational environment.

In conclusion, we must emphasize that the philosophy of teachers' education in Poland requires quantitative and qualitative changes which should consist of the modernization of the entire process of teachers' education and preparation. "The quality of the education of teachers directly translates into the quality of their educational work. It is why the practical skills, which should be acquired over the course of education, play such pivotal role" (*Rekomendacje...*, 2006, p. 12). Developing practical skills and gaining experience are the foundations of the professional attitude of a teacher. Pedagogical internships are an integral part of higher education because they enable future teachers to directly interact with their future working environment and apply theoretical knowledge in practice (*Ibidem*).

Finally, we should add that the pedagogical practice in the education of teachers cannot be an insignificant subject because it plays an important role and hard to overestimate role in the vocational training. Therefore, its proper stature should be reinstated. Achieving results of education through practical actions in terms of high quality of the skills and competences of teachers should be carefully fostered and analyzed. The rising importance of the teachers' practical preparation for future work can be observed in discussions concerning the quality of education in the academic institutions (Żytko, Nowakowska, Sobierańska, Szyller, 2018, p. 91). The praxis is an important element in the sustained process of becoming a professional teacher achieving professional success and experiencing professional satisfaction.

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OPINION OF TEACHER EDUCATION FACULTIES STUDENTS ABOUT THE CONCEPT OF A QUALITY SCHOOL

Summary

By looking for the answer to the question of how to make education effective in the society of the digital era, it is important to consider the opinion of students of teacher education faculties in terms of the characteristics of a quality school. The aim of our research was to check the opinions of students about the concept of a quality school in a rapidly changing society, as well as the emancipatory role of students and teachers necessary for working in a quality school. The study applied the methods of theoretical analysis and procedure survey descriptive methods. In the data collection, the inventory scale of Likert type was used. The survey was conducted on a sample of 1044 students of teacher education faculties in Serbia. The paper presents the results of the research about the concept of a quality school which would lead each student to success. It has been established that the emancipatory role of students is best seen through how much they have become the actors of their own evaluation of their achievements; how much they are preparing during the course of their studies to accept the characteristics of a more effective concept of the school in which each student will be successful. The results provide a fairly reliable basis in modelling a quality school and effective teaching that will encourage students and lead to success according to their individual abilities.

Key words: opinion of students, concept of a quality school, emancipatory role of students.

In the focus of our research are the attitudes and opinions of students about the concept of a quality school. Rapid scientific and technical-technological changes lead to a rapid change in work and business processes that are intensifying, becoming more efficient and of higher quality. The faculty is expected to educate students for life and work in organizations of a knowledge-based society whose core values are the applicability of knowledge, an active attitude towards professional development and permanent education (Andrews, Higson, 2011, pp. 411-422; Person, Rosenbaum, 2005, pp. 412-429; Zelloth, 2009). Teachers will be able to use the acquired knowledge during college education in everyday life and future professional work, all with the aim of improving and designing the existing system of education (Kamenarac, Lucija, 2010, pp. 216-228). It also obliges the school as a specialist centre of knowledge, not only to follow but to be a leader and disseminator of innovative knowledge. Innovations are a condition for the school not to lag behind the social and technological changes in the reality that is changing intensively every day (Vilotijević, Mandić, 2015, p. 10). Traditional school and reproductive teaching in the digital era does not encourage sufficient development of innovative changes in education. The incentives for the abandonment of traditional models of education, that is, abandonment of formal education frameworks and finding new educational models come from different fields of pedagogical work (Matović, 2000, pp. 606-615; Savovic, Jevtic, 2000, pp. 23-40). All of them suggest that education should involve the acquisition of permanent competences, relying on creativity, innovation and personality autonomy. The essential characteristics of individuals that influence his realization in individual and social life, which at the same time are the criterion for directing the development of his competence

are: autonomy, tolerance, participativity, openness, and flexibility (Đurišić-Bojanović, 2007, pp. 211-224; Gojkov, 2004, 2013). The professional competencies students acquire during college education are the main factor in productivity, competitiveness and quality of future work.

School in a society of learning and knowledge

Modern, post-industrial society, knowledge society, defines productivity of knowledge and knowledge management. When applied in a flexible and innovative way, knowledge becomes productive. The ability to analyze a large number of complex variables under conditions of uncertainty is the basis of strategic planning, and the management of changes is the skill in which the strategic goals will be achieved. The demand for productivity knowledge has its theoretical and practical implications. The growth of scientific knowledge is based on the idea of an uninterrupted solution to the problem, no matter how deep they are. Scientific research can be directed either to searching for evidence that supports or denies a certain theory, thus contributing to the truth of the theory, or can test different theories concerning a certain phenomenon, with the aim of increasing the understanding of the investigated phenomenon in a deductive way. This is the path of testing, acceptance and non-acceptance of theories, but also the path that requires the practice of innovative organizations. While knowledge and creativity are the primary resources of successful organizations and individuals, readiness to change and manage change become the central processes of developed economies, and the requirement for the survival and development of contemporary organizations. Survival in the face of fierce competition in the global market is possible by achieving productivity based on innovation (Đurišić-Bojanović, 2007). The more advanced countries in this postindustrial era are trying to gain the best possible position in an international market game. John Denison quotes Gastona, who says that in an information-based economy, a growing number of people earn a living for jobs that include the creation, processing, and distribution of information and, in the same way, a high percentage of economic revenues comes from these activities (Denison, 1991). Information and communication technologies are a knowledge-based society infrastructure, and the creation of a knowledge-based society and sustainable development involves encouraging coordination between key factors such as investment in education, the practical application of research results, and the use of ICTs. Adequate knowledge management in an organization should result in creating a situation in which all available and relevant knowledge will be successfully collected, arranged and distributed. Scientific and technological progress increases the speed of individual learning and knowledge transfer between employees. By exchanging information and knowledge, employees simultaneously participate in the creation of new knowledge, which increases the available knowledge fund that the company has at its disposal. In order for the company to provide competitive advantage and provide overall development based on the availability of new knowledge, it is necessary that the learning rate be higher than the rate of change in the environment (Premović i sar., 2011).

It is clear that education "laying the foundation for a life filled with learning" can only be general education, i.e. education that provides a student a way to master general principles, rules and legality, because only on such basis can knowledge be built upon and enriched with more knowledge (Denison, 1991). Denison also lists several components of general processing necessary for each participant in the technology society, such as: communication ability, critical thinking, interpersonal skills, decision making in society, ethics and values, and so on. In order to access information in their form, elements of multidimensional literacy are required not only for writing, reading and listening skills, but also for acceptable closeness

to computer languages. In order to be able to analyze and judge arguments it is necessary to understand the scientific methods and logic elements in order to ask important questions and make the difference between rational and rhetoric. Tertiary sector in employment will require a high level of interaction among individuals at all levels. A very important tool for professional survival will be understanding of individual differences and motives. While the forces of change in society rely on the nature of the institutions, political, social and cultural participation will greatly depend on understanding how key bodies make decisions. In a society of the digital era, while the information- and knowledge-based economy is concerned with ethical issues, it is not an idealistic luxury but rather a collective duty and a major challenge for all teachers.

The 1998 OECD Schools and Quality Report of the OECD School of Economics and Quality Report states that over-reliance on metaphors in the field of economics relating to "results" and "products" can lead to a reduction in the value that schools need to enrich their students life experience. Education is expected to contribute in contemporary conditions to overcome the existing and prevent new contradictions, and one of them emerges from the globalization of the world. The question is how to belong to Europe and the world at the same time, while preserving national and cultural characteristics. Before education lies the task to contribute to the reconciliation between the universal, worldly, on the one hand, and original nationality, on the other (Delor, 1996).

The modern school is at the turning point, both in terms of organization and content of discipline and education, as well as on the further development and character of the pedagogical process. The school is static with its organization, the contents of discipline and education are disrupted, and the pedagogical process is of reproductive character. Therefore, it is necessary to completely overcome the traditional being of the school, in a complete creative critical transformation that will be based on a new paradigm of development. It is precisely in this foundation that many unknowns and traps are hidden, many possible misconceptions and distortions, improvisations and imitations, eventual radical ambitions, as well as retrograde stagnation (Pivac, 1995). It is therefore necessary to scientifically restructure the internal organization of the school using the existing scientific results and applying various forms, methods and procedures in the teaching process. The goal of a quality school cannot only be for the teacher to teach, but also for the student to learn that the teacher is a leader and associate (Đorđević, 2006). The author also thinks that teaching and learning do not represent two parallel and externally related processes, but two sides of a unique and complex teaching event in which measures and actions of teachers and deeds and activities of students depend on one another, support one another and promote each other. Also, the representatives of a quality school shift the focus of the work from competition to cooperation. The ability of an individual to work in a team with others, to exchange ideas and skills with others, and to cooperate in solving conflicts is one of the most important competences in this century. Continuous encouragement of students to outperform their peers has significant consequences for their social and emotional development (Ševkušić, 2006). This is one of the reasons why it is increasingly being insisted on cooperative learning. The author cites the Doyce definition according to which a co-operative social situation is the context in which an individual can achieve the goal only if everyone from the group achieves that goal. Achieving this goal for individuals is said to be interdependent in a promising way. Vincent Okonj summarizes the weaknesses of today's school, which are the product of Komensky's concept: a) Encyclopedism, which burdens the memory of students instead of preparing students for work; b) Education is a closed circle,

having a final character instead of opening up paths for further education; c) teaching and teachers are authoritarian, discipline is forcefully applied instead of preparing a student for life in a democratic society (Vilotijević, Mandić, 2016, p. 14).

The new circumstances require the teacher creator who will renounce the transfer roles and become an associate, advisor and guide to students. The student must get out of the passive and translate into a subjective position, and the school, in accordance with the requirements of emancipatory pedagogy, must help him become an autonomous self-determining person who influences the educational process and participates in the planning and evaluation of his own work.

Methodology of research

The aim of our research was to determine the opinion about the position on the concept of a quality school in a rapidly changing society, as well as the emancipatory role of students and teachers necessary for working in a quality school. The sample of research involved 1044 students from all six teacher education faculties in Serbia. Out of that sample, 778 are female and 266 male; 337 students of the second, 374 of the third and 333 students of the fourth year of study. The structure of the sample of students by the place of study and the year of study is shown in table 1.

Table 1

Place of study / year of study

Place of study	Year of study			Total
	II	III	IV	
TEF Belgrade	124	83	82	289
TEF Užice	38	74	78	190
FPS Jagodina	66	73	58	197
FP Sombor	35	60	50	145
FP Vranje	27	40	17	84
TEF Leposavić	15	18	20	53
TEF Belgrade – Department Vrsac	20	15	19	54
TEF Belgrade – Department Novi Pazar	12	11	9	32
Total	337	374	333	1044

In the research, a questionnaire was made about the attitudes of students towards the concept of a quality school, designed in the form of Likert's scale. Answers on the five-step scale are expressed in the range from *fully agree* to *fully disagree*. On the basis of the obtained results, the distribution of the responses of all students included in the survey sample was determined. The data were processed using descriptive statistical procedures (frequency, arithmetic mean, percentages, and standard deviation).

Results of research and interpretation

Determining the students' attitudes towards the important features of a quality school which would better meet the growing needs of students and be a school of success for all students, we presented in table 2 their attitudes towards the concepts of a quality school.

Table 2

Features of a quality school

	M-value	M-value	The rank
Application of innovative work models.	11,84	3,96	9
School is an institution that teaches.	12,24	4,08	5
School is a research laboratory.	11,88	3,96	8
School is an institution of cooperation and trust.	12,32	4,07	2
School is in constant developmental changes.	11,76	3,92	13
At school, everyone has enough time for others.	11,80	3,93	10
Teachers deal with a child, and less with subjects.	11,44	3,81	15
Teachers are primarily educators (pedagogues).	12,20	4,07	6
School and classes in it must be small enough to be effective.	12,26	4,09	3
School is a community of teachers and students that connects trust and appreciation.	12,36	4,12	4
Student's emancipatory role is expressed in school.	11,80	3,93	11
Evaluation and retrieval of feedback is everyday.	12,02	4,01	7
There are powerful and diverse sources of knowledge.	14,89	4,96	1
In evaluation of achievement in front of teachers, students use reminders.	11,80	3,93	12
In the school, a smaller number of teachers in one department organize the work of several subjects.	11,73	3,91	14
The school works in one shift. During the day, students complete their duties at school.	11,41	3,80	16

Students expressed their attitudes towards the concepts of a quality school. The displayed values of arithmetic means (M) point to very positive attitudes towards all the features of a quality school concept. The values of the arithmetic means range from M-3.80 to 4.96 from the maximum possible rating of 5. Students primarily emphasize that in a quality school they can use powerful and diverse sources for independent acquisition of knowledge (M-4,96). Independent acquisition of knowledge is an important feature of the concept of a quality school. In the center of pedagogical work in a quality school is the independent student work. Using different sources for acquiring innovative rather than non-innovative knowledge is one of the important requirements of modern didactics and teaching methodology.

Students believe that the school must be an institution of cooperation and trust (M-4.07). This is important in the first place for institutions that provide character and school education. Trust and cooperation is effectively managed by acquiring knowledge and other values. This feature of the concept of an effective school is in the second place in the ranking scale. In order to achieve a more effective disciplinary-educational process, a quality school must be small enough (around 24 classes to be of high quality). The classes in the school must be small enough, that is, 20-24 students, to organize intensive interactive work in them. This is a condition for better acquaintance of students, diagnosis and monitoring of their development. Quality school, as the respondents emphasize, must be a community of teachers and pupils (4,12) that connects trust and appreciation. This feature is in the fourth place in the ranking scale of the concept of quality school and effective teaching. In such circumstances, a school can be modeled as an institution that teaches (M-4.08), and in which everyone learns, and not just students. This is one of the conditions for a quality school not lagging behind in social progress. It is the imperative of a learning society in which a modern school realizes its pedagogical function. This feature

is in the fifth scale rank. In a quality school, mainly in the lower grades of elementary school, teachers are primarily pedagogues and then teachers. The teacher educates and develops values. This feature is ranked sixth in the ranking scale. Respondents classify in the seventh rank continuous providing of feedback (M-4.01). Monitoring and evaluation, as a way of obtaining feedback, must be continuously implemented, i.e. every step of pedagogical activity must be followed. The class should be organized in such a way that, during the course, and in the end, in particular, the students know where they stand and the teacher has a clear picture of their students' knowledge. The system is the connection of parts into a harmonious whole. Feedback must follow every step of the pedagogical, educational work at school. In order to be successful, students must receive feedback about their work in real time. Only in this way can they correct the learning errors in time, confirm what they have learned well, and in the end be the winners in learning and work. The present traditional school is most vulnerable in this sphere of its work. The school valorizes the achievement of students with great delay, separated from the learning process. That is the reason for its great failure. Students experience more frequent failure than success. The school, as the respondents point out, must be a laboratory in which something is constantly going on, such as searching, experimenting, in which students discover knowledge, the truth otherwise known, but unknown to them. In such a school, laboratories come to a true, genuine interaction not only between pupils and students, teachers and learners, but also between the learning contents, activities, sources and the subjects of learning. This characteristic, the notion of the concept of a quality school, is in the eighth place of the ranking scale (M-3.96). A quality school must be innovative enough. The application of innovative teaching work models is a condition for it to overcome the traditional organization and to constantly overcome the previous, insufficiently effective concept of its work. Although this feature is in the tenth place of the rank scale, the average M-values approach the M-4 rating, which clearly speaks of its important place on the list of high-quality schools (M-3.96).

Attitudes of students – future teachers about the characteristics of a quality school per years of study

We also explored the attitudes of students-future teachers towards the characteristics of a quality school according to the years of study. Students from the 2nd to the 4th year of studies were considered to be sufficiently introduced into the problems of school and pedagogical-educational work.

In general, they are able to start from the point of view of their experiences in education, and additionally theoretically consider the concept of a quality school and effective teaching in it. We were interested in whether the students, with regard to the years of studies, have different perceptions and particular attitudes towards the concepts of an effective school. We assumed that there were no statistically significant differences in students' attitudes towards a quality school compared to their years of study. In response to this task, we calculated certain values whose results are given in table 3.

Table 3
Features of a quality school – Year of Study (ANOVA)

Features of a quality school	Year of study			F	Sig.
	II	III	IV		
	M				
Application of innovative work models.	4,09	4	3,75	4.816	.008
School is an institution that teaches.	4,15	4,25	3,84	7.034	.001
School is a research laboratory.	4,02	4,15	3,73	8.027	.000
School is an institution of cooperation and trust.	4,06	4,42	3,84	12.846	.000
School is in constant developmental changes.	3,97	4,07	3,72	4.686	.010
At school, everyone has enough time for others.	4,10	3,99	3,71	5.450	.005
Teachers deal with children, and less with subjects.	3,93	4,01	3,59	7.022	.001
Teachers are primarily educators (pedagogues).	4,02	4,32	3,86	9.906	.000
School and classes in it must be small enough to be effective.	4,09	4,23	3,94	3.235	.040
School is a community of teachers and students that connects trust and appreciation.	4,02	4,27	3,97	4.327	.014
Student's emancipatory role was expressed in school.	3,97	4,07	3,76	3.762	.024
Evaluation and retrieval of feedback is everyday.	4,01	4,18	3,83	4.611	.010
There are powerful and diverse sources of knowledge.	3,93	4,11	3,85	3.391	.034
In evaluation of achievement in front of teachers, students use reminders.	3,98	4,06	3,76	4.007	.019
In the school, a smaller number of teachers in one department organize the work of several subjects.	3,97	4,03	3,73	3.673	.026
The school works in one shift. During the day, students complete their duties at school.	3,88	3,96	3,57	5.012	.007

M (arithmetic mean)

F (Fisher's coefficient)

Sig.(level of significance < 0,05 < 0,01)

Observing the results, in general, we see that the average values range from $M = 3.57$ – "The school works in one shift. During the day, students complete their duties at school" by the students of 4th year to $M = 4.42$ – "School is the institution of cooperation and trust". This opinion is shared by 3rd year students. M-values indicate that students express positive attitudes towards the concepts of a quality school of the future. They are higher (M-values) for some features than for teachers. The highest M-value for teachers is 4.10, and for students $M=4.42$. True, the lower limit for M-values for students is 3.57 and for teachers $M=3.88$. All in all, both sides of respondents (teachers and students) exhibit very strong attitudes towards the concepts of a quality school. It is interesting to note that the mark that "The school needs to create the conditions for students to complete their duties at school and have no homework, so that they can achieve better social relationships in the family and that they are not hindered by their previous homework", has the lowest grades i.e. the least agreement in relation to all other claims received from all three generations of students. It can be noted that the mark "The school works in one shift. During the day, students complete their duties at school" does not exceed mean 4 values ($M_2 = 3.88$; $M_3 = 3.96$; $M_4 = 3.57$), but they are very high.

The teachers ($M = 3.93$) are closer to the 3rd year students' understanding ($M = 3.96$) when it comes to working in one shift and completing school obligations.

Differences were found in assessing the marks of a quality school among students from different years of study. Data on these differences are presented in table 3.

Applying multiple correlation (Multiple Comparisons, Dunnett T3), the differences between examined groups of students were identified. Table 3 shows the statistically significant differences between students of different years of study in assessing some of the important marks on a better quality school. Students in the fourth year generally have a lower degree of agreement with claims that reflect a better quality school, compared to students of the second and third years. Assessment of the offered features of a quality school generally reduces with the age of students: the higher the year of studies, the lower the grade. Does the student's criticism grow with learning or is something else in question? How did the study programs at the teacher education faculties affect students? This logical assumption should be checked in further research.

Our expectations that there are no statistically significant differences in student attitudes towards the concepts of a quality school compared to the year of studies have not been confirmed. Namely, it has been established that there is a statistically significant difference in students' attitudes towards the concepts of quality school in relation to the years of study: as the year of study is higher, the agreement with the offered features of the school is lesser. Students of the fourth year have a lower degree of agreement with the concepts of a quality school.

Student attitudes towards the concept of a quality school based on the place of study

In this part our task was to determine the attitudes of students from different faculties. Namely, some faculties work in large urban areas while most of them work in smaller towns. We were interested in whether there were differences in student attitudes towards the concepts of a quality school by the place of study. We assumed that there were no statistically significant differences in student attitudes towards the concept of a quality school in relation to their place of study. The results and calculated values are given in table 4.1.

Table 4.1

Assessment of the important features of a quality school/place of the Teacher Education Faculty

		Interactive independent work	Application of innovative work models	In school, everyone is learning	School is Research Laboratory	School is the Institute of Cooperation and Confidence	The school is in constant developmental changes	At school everybody has enough time for others	Lectures are very rare	Teachers deal with children and less with subjects	Teachers are primarily educators
Belgrade	M	4.76	4.67	4.54	4.43	4.49	4.57	4.59	4.57	4.51	4.56
	N	127	127	127	127	127	127	127	127	127	127
	SD	.462	.535	.602	.674	.602	.584	.634	.612	.641	.663
Užice	M	4.00	3.91	4.16	4.08	4.24	3.85	3.95	3.91	3.71	4.04
	N	114	114	114	114	114	114	114	114	114	114
	SD	1.167	1.001	1.035	.884	1.058	1.066	1.021	.983	1.062	.999
Jagodina	M	3.93	3.98	4.23	4.07	4.26	3.82	3.85	3.76	3.79	4.11
	N	91	91	91	91	91	91	91	91	91	91
	SD	1.209	1.085	1.096	1.093	1.063	1.347	1.299	1.241	1.197	1.048
Sombor	M	3.43	3.60	3.74	3.65	3.86	3.65	3.69	3.64	3.75	4.00
	N	77	77	77	77	77	77	77	77	77	77
	SD	1.081	1.067	.894	1.010	1.109	.997	1.029	.887	1.015	.946
Vranje	M	3.74	3.77	3.49	3.45	3.96	3.96	3.38	3.11	3.47	3.83
	N	47	47	47	47	47	47	47	47	47	47
	SD	1.132	1.047	1.177	1.138	1.285	1.160	1.243	1.238	1.266	1.257
Leposavić	M	2.87	3.13	3.00	3.13	2.73	3.33	2.80	3.13	2.93	3.07
	N	30	30	30	30	30	30	30	30	30	30
	SD	1.106	1.042	1.486	1.279	1.363	1.269	1.064	.730	1.015	1.202
Department - Vršac	M	3.80	3.67	4.33	4.00	4.13	3.80	4.20	3.47	3.67	3.93
	N	30	30	30	30	30	30	30	30	30	30
	SD	.847	1.093	1.093	.983	1.332	.847	1.064	.973	1.422	1.202
Department - Novi Pazar	M	3.56	2.89	4.33	3.78	3.89	2.78	3.78	2.67	3.67	3.67
	N	18	18	18	18	18	18	18	18	18	18
	SD	.856	.583	1.085	1.060	1.231	1.060	1.166	1.085	1.188	.686
Total	M	3.98	3.95	4.09	3.98	4.12	3.93	3.94	3.82	3.85	4.08
	N	534	534	534	534	534	534	534	534	534	534
	SD	1.125	1.047	1.070	1.022	1.113	1.108	1.126	1.086	1.117	1.031

Table 4.2

Assessment of important features of a better school/place of the Teacher Education Faculty – continuation

		The school and the classes are small enough	School as a community of teachers and students	At school, the emancipatory role of pupils is expressed	Evaluation and feedback	Various sources of knowledge are used.	Students self-assess their achievements	In evaluating, students use reminders	A smaller number of teachers organize work in several subjects	The school works in one shift	Spatial organization according to the informational paradigm
Belgrade	M	4.61	4.60	4.54	4.72	4.46	4.54	4.57	4.51	4.55	4.59
	N	127	127	127	127	127	127	127	127	127	127
	SD	.605	.608	.699	.530	.560	.560	.572	.628	.559	.554
Užice	M	4.05	4.18	3.89	4.04	4.01	3.85	4.11	3.96	3.84	4.18
	N	114	114	114	114	114	114	114	114	114	114
	SD	1.046	.888	.919	.856	.926	.989	.966	1.034	1.187	.983
Jagodina	M	4.21	4.26	4.05	4.00	3.90	4.04	3.89	3.89	3.90	4.11
	N	91	91	91	91	91	91	91	91	91	91
	SD	1.028	1.042	1.079	1.220	1.116	1.074	.994	1.140	1.230	.924
Sombor	M	3.77	3.69	3.69	3.81	3.90	3.65	3.58	3.58	3.73	3.83
	N	77	77	77	77	77	77	77	77	77	77
	SD	1.134	1.195	1.115	1.236	1.046	.997	1.128	1.092	1.096	1.105
Vranje	M	3.55	3.57	3.45	3.34	3.85	3.43	3.43	3.64	3.43	3.85
	N	47	47	47	47	47	47	47	47	47	47
	SD	1.299	1.281	1.486	1.221	.955	.903	.950	1.092	1.543	1.142
Leposavić	M	3.27	2.87	3.27	3.27	3.07	3.20	3.20	3.00	2.20	3.13
	N	30	30	30	30	30	30	30	30	30	30
	SD	1.311	.819	.868	1.143	.944	.925	1.186	1.114	.847	1.224
Department – Višac	M	4.07	4.13	3.80	3.73	3.33	3.60	3.67	3.60	3.07	3.53
	N	30	30	30	30	30	30	30	30	30	30
	SD	1.202	1.106	1.064	1.015	1.028	1.102	1.028	1.037	1.363	1.332
Department- Novi Pazar	M	4.33	4.22	3.22	3.33	3.78	3.44	3.22	3.78	3.22	3.89
	N	18	18	18	18	18	18	18	18	18	18
	SD	.840	.943	1.263	1.188	.943	1.097	1.263	.943	1.263	.900
Total	M	4.09	4.10	3.94	4.02	3.97	3.92	3.94	3.92	3.81	4.08
	N	534	534	534	534	534	534	534	534	534	534
	SD	1.081	1.056	1.084	1.100	.982	1.005	1.040	1.062	1.237	1.029

From the results presented in tables 4.1 and 4.2 it is possible to notice that all the features exceed the boundary of the arithmetic mean of M-3 students from all teacher education faculties, except in Leposavić, where several items are below 3.00. Overall, the arithmetic mean of all items and their M-values indicate that students exhibit strong attitudes to the concept of a quality school. This is also evident from the results given in table 5.

Table 5.

The rank of M-value – aggregate results for all items per faculty

Serial number	Faculty	Sum M-values	M-values	The rang
1.	TEF Belgrade	81,36	4,068	1
2.	TEF Užice	79,96	3,998	3
3.	FPS Jagodina	80,05	4,002	2
4.	FP Sombor	72,24	3,612	6
5.	FP Vranje	76,68	3,834	3
6.	TEF Leposavić	60,60	3,030	7
7.	TEF Department-Vršac	75,53	3,776	4
8.	TEF Department-Novı Pazar	75,55	3,775	5

Respondents, as can be seen from table 5, express strong attitudes that go beyond the arithmetic mean of the M-3, and at most faculties they approach M-4.00. At the two faculties (Belgrade and Jagodina), the value of M-4.00 was passed, which suggests that the concept of a quality school that students from those faculties evaluated was highly accepted and supported. Students of all teacher education faculties have very positive attitudes whose average arithmetic value is near 4.00 except for students of UF Leposavić who express slightly weaker attitudes (M-3.030).

Statistically significant differences in student attitudes from different places of study have been identified according to the aforementioned prospects of the school of the future (table 5).

Conclusion

In general, the highest marks for all the offered features of a quality school of the future, and therefore the most positive attitude towards all the features of the concept of a better and more successful school are given by the students who are studying in Belgrade. In almost all the features, the average grade of students from Belgrade is over 4 (Interactive student self-study $M = 4.76$). The lowest marks were given by students from Leposavić (School is the institution of cooperation and trust $M = 2.73$).

Based on the findings, it can be concluded that the social environment has a certain influence on the attitudes of student respondents towards the quality of the school. It is logical to assume that the student knowledge about the quality of school work and the necessary changes also affect their perception of the concept of a quality school.

Our hypothesis that there would be no statistically significant differences in student attitudes towards the features of the concept of a quality school, depending on their place of study is not fully confirmed. The opposite statement is accepted: *there are statistically significant differences in attitudes of students towards the concepts of a quality school in relation to the place of study.*

From the presented material it can be said that the students of teacher education faculties, with their positive attitudes, vigorously support the concepts of an effective school that would, through effective pedagogical work, bring the students to success according to their abilities and be a school of success for all students. Assessing the offered features of the concept of a quality school of the future decreases with the age of the students: the higher the year of study, the lower the grade. Statistically significant differences in the attitudes of students from different places of study towards the characteristics of the school of the future were determined.

In general, the highest grades for the school of the future, and therefore the most positive attitude towards all the features of the concept of a quality and successful school, were given by the students who are studying in Belgrade, while the lowest grades were given by the students from Leposavić. Students in total express positive attitudes towards the concepts of a quality school. M-values of student attitudes are high, and at some faculties (Belgrade, Jagodina) they cross M-4.00 and approach the optimal limit value (5.00). It was found that there are statistically significant differences based upon the place of study. Students studying in larger urban areas have more positive attitudes towards the concept of a quality school. Also, it has been established that there is a link between the students' year of study and the strength of the students' attitudes: students in lower years of study have more positive attitudes towards the concepts of a quality school.

On the basis of the obtained results, it can be concluded that our hypothesis is that students express positive attitudes towards the concepts of a quality school, that there are no statistically significant differences in the age and place of studies confirmed to a large extent, as they are not confirmed in the part skating that there is no statistically significant difference in students' attitudes towards the concepts of a quality school according to the age variables and place of study. Namely, it has been established that there are statistically significant differences in students' attitudes towards the concept of a quality school in relation to the year and place of study.

As the year of the study is higher, the agreement with the concept is lesser. The place of studies has an impact on the strength of students' attitudes towards the concept of a quality school. These differences do not call into question their positive attitudes towards the concept of a quality school, because it only affects their intensity. However, the question arises as to whether the students are adapting to a traditional school as they grow older or if there are some other factors that should be investigated. In any case, it is unlikely that the year of studies increases their critical attitude towards the concept of a quality school, because it is more realistic to expect such an attitude to be expressed towards a traditional school.

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THE APPLICABILITY OF GAME RULES IN EDUCATION AND DEVELOPMENT AND IN WORK WITH YOUNG CHILDREN

Summary

The article addresses the issue of utilizing games in the process of teaching during the early education period. Examples of the games and their rules prepared by students as a part of their course were analyzed against the clearly emphasized backdrop of the multi-functionality of games and their characteristic traits. Particular attention has been given to rules, injunctions and privileges of players as well as to the sanctions imposed on players not following the rules included in the games' instructions. The analysis indicated presence of the large number of rules in the form of imperative sentences as well as rather common application of player's privileges. Injunctions and sanctions are being used less frequently. The presented examples of games and their variants, for instance bingo, board games and dice games, have utilitarian virtues.

Key words: games, characteristics and functions of games, rules of games, exemplifications of games.

Introduction

Identifying games with play is not valid in the context of applying games in education. A game is a higher form of entertainment and although every game is a form of play not all forms of play are games. Considering L. Vygotsky's theory of child's development a play is a form of an activity a child eagerly engages in and constitutes the most important form of child's development taking the role in the actual development whereas a game introduces a child into the area of close development. Presenting children with tasks slightly beyond their current capabilities is one of the most important factors in motivating children to learn. Motivation is being perceived as a main factor ensuring the efficiency of pupils' actions. External motivation such as prizes, grades or financial gratification result in the decreased internal motivation. Stimulating internal motivation is possible when a child/pupil believes itself to be competent, able to accomplish certain tasks and in control of its actions and decisions (Kopaczyńska, 2017). The ability to choose, even illusory one, reinforces the internal motivation just like the curiosity and novelty do in the school environment. The contemporary model of early school education has been long dominated (despite certain changes introduced in curriculum) by completing tasks and exercises, often mindlessly, in a selection of course books without paying attention to the wide range of students' capabilities and without diversifying requirements. Schools are also blamed for the eradication of pupils' creativity, often as early as in the first phase of education.

In recent years popularity of various games – board and computer games alike, has significantly increased but the said games are rarely if ever applied in the process of education (Gruszczuk-Kolczyńska, 1996; Karczmarzyk, 2014; Staroń, 2014; Szplit, 2016) despite their obvious developmental and educational merits. Games are not only forms of entertainment but also present the possibilities to acquire new skills or exercise intellect and social abilities.

1. A game – the term, its functions and types

D. Waloszek claims that (2006, p. 296):

A game is a form of ludic activity based on established rules, with repetitive organization, proceeds along certain path and in certain order independently of player's intentions and is located between the aspects of gratuitous fun and solemnity of life. In general, a game is a form of entertainment following certain constant, repetitive and accepted rules.

The author further explains that:

a game is a form of activity [...] containing rules (prescriptions, rules, laws, algorithms) regulating the order of actions, arranged order of human interactions and projections of the said actions leading to the conclusion; it is an activity in which conflict of interests between participants is contained within established boundaries and develops according to the rules; the object of the game is to win or to lose and rivalry forms the basis of interactions (Waloszek, 2006, p. 298).

The quoted description allows us to list certain characteristics of a game: The first one is the orientation towards the result/score. Both victories and losses may integrate and encourage or dissolve and discourage a team or an individual player, may become a source of various problems, teach to draw conclusions from failures (initially with the support of an adult) and create conditions for undertaking creative activities. Rivalry within games does not need to have negative consequences. Introducing team or movement based games we balance the needs for individual and team success. In such cases we may speak about the so called "healthy rivalry". Cooperation in games benefits children's emotional and social development, teaches them to manage time and provides certain self-revealing information.

Another characteristic of a game is the clarity and repetitiveness of rules and the ability to anticipate the course the game will take. In school environment games with multiple variants of rules or the opportunities to create or modify rules are worth using. Thus, a single game can be used to complete various goals of education, which is more financially beneficial for the school and preferable to completing a number of goals through the use of several games based on similar rules and only differing in graphical layout (Szwajkowski, 2012, p. 10).

Games are usually social in nature because they engage a number of participants constrained by fair rules, although there are a number of games aimed at a singular player, for instance computer games.

The space in which a game proceeds and the number of players is usually constant and subject to rules. Each game has a beginning, a progress governed by rules and an ending resulting in a win, a loss or a draw. These characteristics of games, differentiating games from other forms of entertainment, were highlighted by, among other researchers, W. Okoń (1995), E. Gruszczyk-Kolczyńska et al (1996) and D. Waloszek (2006).

Games possess certain form of dynamics emphasized by the actions taken by players over the course of the game.

Games and educational games in particular are included among problem-based learning methods stimulating children's activity and creativity as well as creating opportunity for independent problem solving within the subject and scope of the game. Educational functions of games mainly consist of intellectual understanding of the process of knowledge acquisition and honing

the abilities pertaining to learning. Over the course of game participants take certain actions and complete certain tasks which lead to achieving more desirable or less desirable results.

Various interactive games proposed by K. Vopl (1999) are dominated by and emphasize personal and social aspects as well as interpersonal relations. The author suggests analyzing the course of game and expressing one's own experience with the game upon its conclusion. This form of quick and natural feedback enables an individual to realize how and what they did and how their actions influenced other participants of the game.

The multi-functionality of games is expressed through the holistic influence of a game on child's development.

In the intellectual aspects pupils acquire the knowledge of the world (often in an integrated manner), develop academic skills (reading, writing, counting, vocabulary), practice focusing and concentration, memory and attention, develop creativity and imagination, practice various cognitive functions and processes (establishing cause and effect relations, making decisions) and learn to anticipate and plan actions.

In the social aspects of games the participating children are able to play various roles under different conditions, are learning about sensitivity and patience, perseverance in reaching goals, difficult art of losing, being responsible for their actions, self-acceptance and accepting others, interlocking behaviors, competitiveness and cooperation as well as about establishing and maintaining interpersonal relationships. Games are also a valuable source of information about oneself and partners (Pytel, Salwa, 2012).

The moral aspect of games is expressed mainly through following rules, fair play and not cheating or bending the rules in order to achieve favorable results.

In the physical aspect games enable participants to improve agility and psycho-motoric skills, hone reflex and quick orientation as well as to relax, for instance after exhaustion resulting from participation in a game. According to K. Vopel: "In certain manner children experience particular organic exhaustion completely different in quality than the exhaustion resulting from the lack of activity or frustration" (1999, p. 7).

Games are also beneficial to the emotional development. These benefits include the possibility to experience a wide spectrum of emotions (joy, astonishment, uncertainty, fear), learning self-control, developing empathy, understanding own feelings, thoughts, fantasies and desires, developing the ability to express listed concepts sincerely, not only in words but through actions. K. Vopel (1999) calls sensitization perception the process of perceiving oneself and others more clearly.

2. Rules and contents of games as a motivational system of learning

What a child will learn by playing a game, what attitudes or skills useful in future it will acquire is dependent on the teacher's choice of a game, either self-made or available on the market.

Below are the presentation and the analysis of the rules of various games prepared between 2016 and 2018 by students from the department of pre-school and early school education. The inspiration for creation of the games was participation in a game of bingo in two variants (animal and spelling) prepared by the author of this article.

Example 1. Image-based game – animal bingo

Bingo is a simple, image-based game which allows participants to learn about numerous subjects. It can be played by children of various ages. The object of the game is to memorize names of animals and match them with pictures. Bingo contains 20 A4 sheets, each depicting 6 animals, a number of smaller cards and buttons for covering pictures and a list of animals' names.

The game:

- Draw one sheet with pictures of animals and place it face down.
- Prepare 6 cards or buttons and keep them on hand.
- Upon hearing “Start” turn the sheet face up and when you hear the name of an animal depicted on your sheet cover it with a card or a button. Repeat as needed.
- The game ends when one player covers all pictures on his sheet. The winner shouts “bingo” and is awarded with sweets and/or applause.

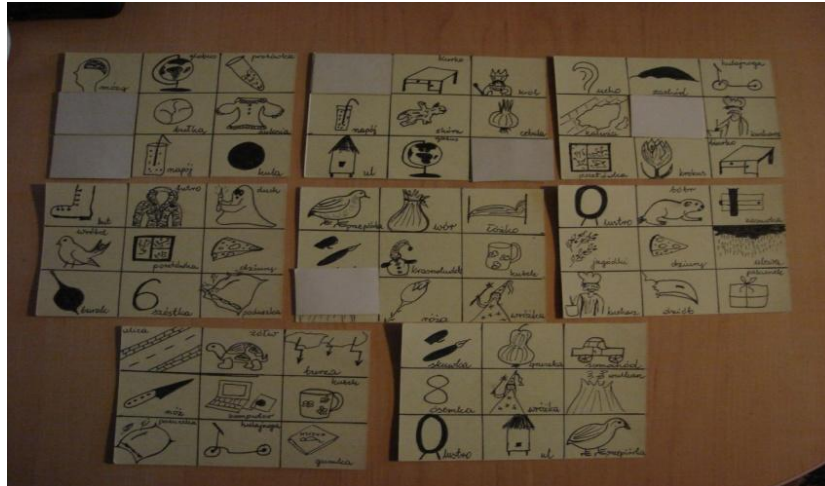


Picture 1. Animal Bingo sheets.
Source: picture taken by A. Struzik.

Names of animals from the list can be read by either a teacher or, as a form of a reward, by the pupil who won the last round.

This game can be modified in the following ways: names of animals can be provided in a foreign language children are currently learning, sheets with pictures of animals can be used in games of riddles concerning animals. Additionally, pictures of the animals can be prepared in black and white and later colored by pupils in accordance with their knowledge.

The more difficult variant of the game **Spelling Bingo** is played similarly. The object of the game is to practice difficult spelling rules concerning letters Ch, H, Ó, U, Rz and Ź. The sheets are smaller and include more spaces with pictures.



Picture 2. Spelling Bingo sheets.
Source: picture taken by A. Struzik.

In both variants a random factor exists which engages players and makes predicting the winner impossible till the very end of the game. Often losers express disappointment and reflect upon being unlucky.

Another variant of the game – **Mathematical Bingo** – was proposed by Anna Rutka. The educational aim of this variant is to practice summation and subtraction in the range of 1 through 30.

The idea of A. Struzik is limited to six players because this variant includes 6 sheets depicting results of mathematical calculations and 115 cards with mathematical calculations from the range of 1 through 30.

The game:

- Participants are divided into pairs or groups by any means decided upon.
- Each player or team chooses a sheet and places it in front, face up.
- Cards with calculations and colorful tokens are placed in the middle.
- The youngest player starts the game. He/she draws one card with a calculation and reads it aloud. Everyone is performing calculations. If the result of calculation is present on the sheet chosen by the player he/she marks it with a token. Players collectively check calculations.
- The player on the right-hand side of the first player continues and draws next card.
- The player who completely covers his/her sheet with tokens wins and signals his/her victory with an appropriate shout.
- After the round is concluded players may draw different sheets or exchange them.

The game can be modified by the addition of further cards containing simple multiplication or division calculations or even more complex formulas.



Picture 3. Mathematical bingo sheets.

Source: picture taken by A. Struzik.

Example 2. Board game “Travelling around Poland”

This game was designed by Faustyna Świerk and Jolanta Ogrodzka.

Over the course of the game players go on an imaginary journey through Poland, visit large Polish cities and learn about their symbols. The journey begins in mountains and ends by the shores of the Baltic Sea. The journey may be shorter or take longer depending on where players will stop. The player who reaches the space labeled „FINISH” is the winner.

The object of the game is to:

- learning to use maps;
- learning about Poland's biggest cities;
- memorizing the location and names of the neighboring countries;
- learning to recognize flags of the neighboring countries;
- learning about the characteristic symbols of Polish cities;
- indicating borders of Poland;
- acquiring the environmental, historical, language and music knowledge relating to Poland.

The game includes: one game board painted on canvas, 25 cards with questions, 10 movement cards, a die, playing pieces and an instruction booklet. The game was designed for 2 to 4 players.



Picture 4 and Picture 5. „Travelling around Poland” – game board.

Source: picture taken by F. Świerk.

Preparations:

Place the game board on a flat surface. Each player places his/her piece on the space labeled “START”. Question and movement cards should be shuffled into two separate piles and placed beside the board. The player who rolls the highest result on the dice begins. Player chooses his piece and moves for a number of spaces indicated by the result of the roll. There is no rule of “exploding sixes” (rolling a natural six does not enable player to roll again).

The game:

- Over the course of the game players may end their move on special spaces indicated by a symbol or color. If the player ends his/her movement on such a space, he/she must follow the instructions.
 - – draws a question card and answers. If you answer correctly in your next round you can move freely. If you cannot answer or provide wrong answer you move your piece one space backwards.
 - – draws one movement card and follows its instructions;
 - X – travelling around Poland you visit one of the cities – you skip your next turn.
 - – you have caught flu while travelling. You go back to the START space.
- Game ends when one of the players reaches the “FINISH” space. This player wins the game.

Example 3. Board game “Revising on the way to school”

The following game was prepared by Sylwia Konstanty for pupils in grades II-III. It includes elements of education in the fields of the Polish language, English language and mathematics.

Objects of the game:

- solving equations with one unknown;
- practicing spelling (spelling “u”, “ó”; “z”, “rz”; “h”; “ch”);
- naming parts of speech (noun, verb, adjective, adverb);
- practicing addition and subtraction in the range of 1 through 100;
- practicing English vocabulary;
- practicing using parts of speech.

The game includes: a gaming board in the form of a sidewalk, 4 pieces in different colors, six-sided dice, and 60 color-coded cards with tasks from three different disciplines. From 2 to 4 players can participate.

The game:

- Each player chooses a piece.
- Players establish the order of play by rolling the die, the highest result goes first.
- Players roll the die in turn and move their piece by the indicated amount in the direction indicated by arrows.
- The player who ended his movement on a yellow space draws a card from the pile of yellow (mathematical) tasks and questions; the player who ended his movement on a blue space draws a card from the pile of blue (Polish) tasks and questions; the player who ended his movement on a red space draws a card from the pile of red (English) tasks and questions.

- For providing the correct answer player is awarded one point.
- Players are not allowed to provide hints.
- Players jointly decide whether the provided answer is correct.
- If a player does not provide the correct answer he/she skips the next turn.
- The player who noticed the mistake is allowed to correct it.
- Game ends when all players reach the Finish line.
- The player who got the most points wins.



Picture 6. Gaming board and other materials for “Revising on the way to school” board game.
Source: picture taken by A. Struzik.

Example 4. Dice games

Renata Łazar presented the wooden “Letters” blocks as a tool of education for younger children. The author placed letters of the alphabet on 6 wooden blocks and prepared four sets. The author claims that using these blocks a child has a constant contact with letters, memorizes them more quickly and learns to distinguish between them. Blocks are a wonderful tool for learning letters. They can be arranged into words or used to teach a child to distinguish between syllables, vowels and consonants or even used to create short sentences. Blocks can be separated into various groups. Children may compare them or count the elements. Furthermore, some blocks include mathematical symbols $+$, $<$, $>$, $-$, $=$ which allow children to, for instance, assess the number of vowels in a word or compare the length of words.

The game:

- Each group receives one set of blocks (containing 6 pieces).
- Within the limited time set by the teacher the group attempts to create as many words as they can and writes them down (a variant for older pupils). For 6-letter words group receives 4 points, 3 points for 5-letter words, 2 points for 4-letter words and 1 point for 3-letter words.
- The group which gets the most points wins.



Picture 7. Words arranged from Letter blocks

Source: picture taken by R. Łazar.

The other variants of the game may concern, for instance, creating words using only 4 blocks. Each group randomly draws 4 blocks, creates words and, optionally, writes them down. The group able to create the highest number of words win.

Alteration of rules consisting of creating words simultaneously and comparing the number of vowels, consonants and syllables helps to fulfill other educational goals, including goals of integration of language and mathematical skills.

“Story Dice”, a more difficult and creative game using a different set of dice with pictures instead of letters, was prepared by Joanna Rams.

The object of the game is to develop individually or in group the ability to formulate long statements based on pictures and to develop creativity and promote cooperation.

The following proposition is a simple, yet brilliant game which provides lots of entertainment and helps to develop ingenuity and imagination. The “Story Dice” set consists of 13 finely crafted six-sided wooden dice. Each surface has a different picture on it.

The game:

- Initially roll a smaller number of dice, for instance 9 dice. Start your tale with “Long time ago” or, if you prefer, with „Once upon a time”.
- Try to tell a tale inspired by 9 pictures rolled with the dice. Start with any of the dice, preferably with the one which drew your attention. You can choose dice in any order. In time roll further dice and add them to your story.
- If you rolled a black side you can choose any of the pictures on the dice.
- There are no bad answers; you are limited only by your imagination. Awake it and go with the flow, the fantastic tales will come to your head.
- The longer you play the easier it is to tell engaging and more complex stories. You can use „Story Dice” to train your imagination in solitude or you can invite your friends over to play together. You can play individually, in pairs or in teams.
- When playing in pairs you should remain silent and not provide hints. The sentences should be written down until the story is concluded.
- The individual or the pair who finishes first presents their story to the rest of players.

The „Story Dice” game has numerous variants of gameplay and thus is an excellent game for large groups consisting of players of various ages. You can play in a way described above but you can also come up with your own set of rules.

Variants of rules enriching gameplay:

- *Three by three*: more advanced variant of rules. Nine dice are rolled and divided into three groups which will become the introduction, the core of the story and the ending. We arrange them in proper order and start telling the tale.
- *The beginning, the middle, the end* (variant for three groups or three players): before rolling the dice players decide which group will be „the beginning”, which will be „the end” and which will be „the middle”. The group rolls 4 (or 2 or 3 in simpler variants) randomly selected the dice. „The beginning” group starts the tale, „The middle” continues and „the end” concludes the story. Then the roles of the players are switched.
- The selected member of the group presents the story and is applauded. The duration of the applause indicates the winners.



Picture 8. „Story Dice”.

Source: picture taken by J. Rams.

Orders, prohibitions, privileges and sanctions in games

The presented examples justify the purpose of applying various games in work with pupils of the early education period. Skills and abilities learned and experienced during participation in games are likely to become useful in future, not only in school environment. It is so because pupils learn what they can or cannot do, for what actions they can be rewarded and for what actions they can be punished. Pupils themselves become enforcers of the game rules.

Among the most common commands in games are phrases such as: divide into pairs, form groups, roll a dice, compare numbers, arrange letters into as many words as you can, write down words, cover the space/tile, move according to the directions, consult with, check (something) together, place a card in front, draw a card, move right, turn a card when given signal etc.

Prohibitions in the analyzed games were less common and took form of three phrases: you must not distract/disturb, you must not provide hints and rolling a six does not result in player rolling again (examples 2 and 3).

Also rather rarely authors considered the right of players to, for instance, correct other player's mistake, re-roll a dice, present the result of a game to the rest of class, receive applause, begin the game or read aloud the list of words.

In the presented examples the authors seldom included in the rules the possible sanctions looming over players. Only in the second example a player who answered incorrectly was supposed to move his playing piece one space backwards or skip his/her turn. In other types of games, e.g. motor activities, a punishment may take a form of eliminating a player from the game, picking a forfeit to be redeemed later or taking away a number of player's points.

The conducted analysis indicates that the prepared games were diverse in terms of subjects and rules. Owing to their engaging substantive contents, appealing rules and aesthetic form using the prepared games in classes may be an interesting and motivating alternative to using course books.

Conclusion

When summarizing the subject of applicability of games in work with pupils of early education it is hard not to mention the role of a teacher who is the initiator, organizer and often also the developer and originator of games he/she offers pupils to play. To use games as a tool a teacher must believe in their effectiveness. Selected games must match the age of players and be fitting for the developmental stage of pupils. Games should be applied in moderation so as to not overuse them and the time spent playing games should be adequate to the psycho-physical capabilities of the participants. Games used in work with pupils should cover the available material and subjects. Furthermore, different variants of games appealing to pupils' interests should be prepared (Składanowska, Tułacz, 2014). Additionally, all instructions and rules should be communicated in a clear, understandable manner. All vague and ambiguous points of a game resulting from misinterpretation of rules should be explained. Even if the teacher is not a regular participant it is desirable that he play game he/she intends to use at least once to understand and master the rules of the game. Following the above recommendations will help the teacher to establish not only positive disposition towards learning but also cheerful atmosphere which should accompany the process of education.

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Part II.
Issues of school education from the perspective of theory and diagnostic tests

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THE SPEECH OF CEREBRAL PALSY PATIENTS – AN ATTEMPT AT MULTIFACETED ANALYSIS¹

Summary

The article characterizes biological determinants influencing speech of individuals suffering from cerebral palsy. It is assumed that the speech of people suffering from cerebral palsy is influenced by the accompanying motoric restrictions and faulty posture stemming from irregularities in muscle tension, dysfunction of sense organs and mental impairment. All the above mentioned factors significantly influence communication of the cerebral palsy patients and thus should be discussed in linguistic, para-linguistic and extra-linguistic contexts.

Key words: speech impediments, cerebral palsy, motoric dysfunction, senses dysfunction, mental impairment.

Introduction

Cerebral damage suffered by children of up to 3 years of age and resulting in cerebral palsy is certain to lead to motoric impediments directly relating to muscle tension (see: Posłuszny, 2012). This state is expressed through the definition of this particular neurological disorder. According to the definitions mentioned herein above cerebral palsy is a system of chronic, non-progressive disorders of the central nervous system, mainly central motor neuron (Michałowicz, 1986; Obuchowska, 1995; Tomasik, Mazanek, 1998; Zabłocki, 1998; Nowotny, 2006; Posłuszny, 2012, 2013). Quoting C. Lepage, L. Noreau and P.-M. Bernard cerebral palsy is: “defined as a permanent disorder of movement and posture, it is caused by a defect or a non-progressive lesion in the immature brain” (1998, p. 459). In turn V. McManus, P. Corcoran, I.J. Perry state that cerebral palsy is: „defined as a permanent disorder of the development of movement and posture, causing activity limitations that are attributed to non-progressive disturbances that occurred in the developing fetal or infant brain” (2008, p. 2). In other words, cerebral palsy is a permanent disturbance of the development of movement and posture related to the non-progressive brain damage and resulting in restriction of the activities (Michalska, Boksa, Wendorff, Wiktor, 2012). It is a type of non-progressive encephalopathy (see: Kułak, Sobaniec, 2007). K.W. Krigger also points out the static character of this disorder – „cerebral palsy is a static neurological condition” (2006, p. 91).

However, a functional description of the cerebral palsy, including the issues of speech, has to exceed the scope of the analysis from purely motoric point of view. We have to remember that structural irregularities arising in prenatal, perinatal, neonate and infantile periods, as well as in early childhood, also lead to irregularities in functioning of senses. These connected phenomena (movement and senses disorders) determine the development of child's cognitive abilities, including linguistic abilities and speech. These, however, are not the only results of the early occurrence of patho-mechanism in the central nervous system. Limited and improper

¹ The article expands on several notions I have previously described in my paper *Cerebral Palsy in theory and practice of speech therapy*, M. Michalik, 2015, Gdańsk: Harmonia Universalis.

movement stimuli and irregularities in functioning of senses influence the development of brain resulting in decreased cognitive and intellectual capacity. We shall thus discuss the feedback rooted in neurobiology, constituting of language skills stimulating development of intellectual capacity and dependent on the development of gross motor skills as well as fine motor control and sense organs, particular to and key for development of a child (see: Michalik, 2014; 2015).

1. Motor control related determinants of the development and speech disorders in the cases of cerebral palsy

The discussion concerning language communication of individuals suffering from cerebral palsy requires from us to take into account the issue of the restricted motor skills of patients. Let us begin our interpretative hypothesis with a quote from S. Grabias' thesis: "human behaviour is a vector for meaning" (1994, p. 218). This assessment forces us to examine communication in a wider scope than only in categories of language system comprised of various subsystems: phonological, morphological, syntactic, lexical and semantic and paralanguage consisting of prosodic (intonation, accent and rhythm of a statement) and para-prosodic (timbre and tone of voice) traits (Kaczmarek, 2001, 2005; Śniatkowski, 2002). Change in perspective forces us, therefore, to take into account non-linguistic elements, often referred to as non-verbal elements (see: Antas, 2001; Załazińska, 2006) related to physical activity of an individual, actions conveying meaning. These include mimic, gesticulant, tactile, proxemic and aromatic sub-codes (Kaczmarek, 2001; 2005).

Following this path of argumentation we may assume that if human behavior is a vector for meaning the irregularities in behavior, physical or motoric, become hurdles in conveying meaning. Therefore we can underline: linguistic interference (phonetic, morphological, syntactic, lexical and semantic), paralinguistic (including prosodic and para-prosodic interference) and non-linguistic interference (mimic, gesticulant, tactile, proxemic and aromatic). The index of the mentioned difficulties and interference shall be utilized in the characterization of the specifics of communication in various types of cerebral palsy.

It must be emphasized that the correlation between motoric development and language skills of every child occurs in both gross motor skills as well as in fine motor control. Gross motor control refers to the control of numerous groups of muscles in corpus, arms, thighs, neck and lower and upper limbs. Gross motor control is responsible for developing the abilities to sit, crawl and walk during the onto-genetic development. Fine motor control allows us to coordinate and modify groups of small muscles, for instance fingers, eyeballs, tongue or temporo-mandibular joint.

Cerebral palsy almost universally deeply afflicts the motoric development of a child. The degree of damage is dependant on the time of occurrence, the type and quality of therapeutic actions taken towards the patient and the age of child at the time of the implementation of therapy. However, the key factor influencing locomotor dexterity of a patient with cerebral palsy is the type and degree of the affliction.

Spastic paralysis – In this type we can observe impairment of the voluntary movements in the area of both gross motor skills (simple movements) and fine motor control (precise manipulation). These actions are controlled by pyramidal tracts running from cerebral cortex to medulla oblongata and further into the motor nerves. Due to the fact that these tracts cross

damaging the right hemisphere is detrimental to the left side of body and vice versa, damage done to the left hemisphere influences the right side².

Cerebral palsy in the form of spastic paralysis can take the following forms:

Spastic hemiplegia *hemiplegia spastica, hemiplegia, hemiparesis* – some of the less severe forms of cerebral palsy with majority of the afflicted children being able to walk without aid. The most severe impairment occurs in fine motor skills of upper limbs. The development of the ability to grab is impeded and permanently impaired. Due to hypertension (increased muscle tension) during the act of grabbing fingers are being clenched too hard. The grab is executed from above, without twisting forearm. Between the ages of 5 and 8 other disturbances in the area of a palm or a whole hand can emerge. Most often they take the form of involuntary movement of fingers or whole limb, so-called peristaltic movements (peristaltic movements resemble the crawl of a caterpillar).

In spastic hemiparesis, similarly to the majority of the forms of cerebral palsy, three degrees of paresis can be distinguished: 1. mild – despite the paresis a child is able to use the afflicted limb as often as the healthy limb, although its movements are less dexterous; 2. moderate – the afflicted limb plays auxiliary role, for instance supports objects manipulated by the healthy limb; 3. severe – a limb is practically useless because fingers are constantly clenched. Movements occur only within the shoulder joint.

In this type of paresis lower limbs almost always function better retaining more mobility. It is due to the fact that upper limbs are more precise and specialized instruments than lower limbs. This specialization is the result of better neurulation of upper limbs in the area of cerebral cortex and pyramidal tracts. This is why brain damage affects mobility of a hand to such extent (Czochańska, Łosiowski, 1997; Krigger, 2006).

Aside from the impairment of upper limbs, dysfunction of the corpus muscles, evidenced by leaning of the body towards the afflicted side, may occur. The fact that the affliction of one side, resulting from damage to either left or right brain hemisphere, does not substantially influence patient's functioning is interesting (see: Czochańska, Łosiowski, 1997). Irregularities are evident only in the area of language functions. In the case of the paresis afflicting right side, resulting from the damage to the left hemisphere, impeded language acquisition and future dysarthric disorders are diagnosed more often (see: Zabłocki, 1998).

Quadriplegia, *tetra-paresis, hemiplegia bilateralis* – it is the most severe and the worst prognosticating form of cerebral palsy. It is a direct result of damage to both brain hemispheres. Due to the greater extent of neurulation of upper limbs in cerebral cortex and pyramidal tracts symptoms are more visible in arms and hands than in legs. In this case we can also distinguish three degrees of paresis. Among the characteristics of this form of paresis we can list the occurrence of early onto-genetic tonic reflexes, for instance excessive clenching of fingers, withdrawing hand in response to tactile stimuli or tonic neck reflex. Bilateral damage of pyramidal tracts influences the functioning of face and tongue muscles. This results in inadequate mimic reactions and difficulties with swallowing and closing mouth which can lead to excessive drooling. Stimulating lips results in excessive sucking reflex and stimulating palate results in excessive biting reflex (see: Czochańska, Łosiowski, 1997; Krigger, 2006).

² The exemption from this rule is actions such as chewing and swallowing due to being controlled by double neurulation originating from both hemispheres. To induce irregularities in such functions both hemispheres must be damaged (Czochańska, Łosiowski, 1997).

Bilateral spastic paresis, *diplegia spastica* – is the result of the damaged pyramidal tracts in the neighbourhood of lateral brain ventricle and manifests in the paresis of all four limbs significantly more severe in legs. This phenomenon stems from the fact that damage to the lateral brain ventricles affects the neural fibres of pyramidal tracts governing functioning of legs. Therefore patients suffering from this form of paresis present greater mobility in hands than in legs. Sporadically, upper limbs may be completely unaffected (see: Czochońska, Łosiowski, 1997). In terms of gross motor skills it may result in impediment of walking for a period of 1 to 3 years. The extent of impediment is dependant on the severity of palsy. The spastic hypertony of lower limbs may be severe enough to make unaided walking impossible (see: Czochońska, Łosiowski, 1997; Krigger, 2006; Posłuszny, 2012).

Extra-pyramidal forms (sub-cortical, athetotic, dyskinetic) – in theory and practice of physiotherapy we can distinguish two forms of this syndrome:

Extra-pyramidal athetotic-choreic palsy – characterized by, in both gross motor skills and in fine motor control, shifts in muscle tension and occurrence of involuntary movements.

Shifts in muscle tension manifest in alternating increase and decrease in muscle tonicity. Involuntary movements, in turn, are mostly athetotic movements (influencing mostly distal ends of limbs, commonly hands and wrists, metacarpus and fingers which assume unusual positions and engage in the so-called serpentine movements), choreic movements (rapid, uncoordinated and engaging numerous groups of muscles) and sytonic (twisting in the area of pelvis and shoulder girdle). These movements influence patient's intended mobility severely restricting it, in extreme cases completely.

This form of cerebral palsy can be, similarly to spastic palsy, described through the three-stage scale of the severity of pathological movement behavior (see: Czochońska, Łosiowski, 1997; Zabłocki, 1997; Krigger, 2006; see also: Michalik, 2015).

Extra-pyramidal palsy with stiffness – rarely occurring form resulting in death in pre-school period (see: Czochońska, Łosiowski, 1997; Krigger, 2006).

Cerebellar form (ataxic) – occurs due to the damage to or impairment of vestibular-cerebellar system. In terms of gross motor skills it mostly manifests as disequilibrium. Furthermore, a child has problems learning to walk and stand. When sitting it props itself with upper limbs. It is the result of muscle amyotonia and hypotension. The disturbances in fine motor control most often manifest as the so-called coarse voluntary tremors of upper limbs occurring during the attempts at grabbing items. Tremors of the entirety of the body occur when a child feels anxious (see: Czochońska, Łosiowski, 1997; Zabłocki, 1997; Krigger, 2006).

Disturbances in gross motor control, in all forms of cerebral palsy, are related to inadequacies and irregularities in posture development. Where there are no brain-related anomalies in muscle tension nervous system automatically controls posture and, for instance, adapts body posture to external stimuli in orderly and fluent manner. Therefore, the posture of an organism is adaptable, able to take on proper position required for completion of a physical task (Odowska-Szlachcic, 2007). In the case of spasticity and athetosis the fluent motion is impossible. Gross motor control and posture-related behavior are also subject to gravity. To avoid negative influence of gravity body automatically re-balances itself. In the case of ataxic cerebral palsy, resulting from the damage to vestibular-cerebellar system, the body is unable to adequately counteract the gravitation. The correct control processes of posture also influence the ability to move and articulate upper limbs without restrictions. Thus, irregularities in functioning of upper limbs are, on the one hand, the result of damaged nervous system and on the other may be indirectly related to disturbances in gross motor control and faulty

posture. The other important factor affecting individual's motor control is the ability to receive and interpret sense stimuli from the surroundings and one's own body (see Banaszek, 2009; see also: Michalik, 2015).

The following list of motor control and posture related determinants of the development of a child suffering from cerebral palsy is the result of the desire to expand the knowledge concerning influence of irregularities in communication on extralinguistic disturbances which are as important for communication as linguistic and paralinguistic aspects. The interpretation of linguistic communication of patients suffering from cerebral palsy, discussed in the aspect of the locomotive and posture-related activities related to extralinguistic, non-verbal communication, presents the scale of the deficiencies which may occur. Spastic hemiparesis, quadriplegia and athetotic cerebral palsy may negatively influence patient's mimic and significantly restrict it. At times, especially in the case of spastic quadriplegia, the defective and disturbed mimic may lead to the excessive expression of inappropriate emotions such as laughter and crying. All forms of cerebral palsy, with the exception of bilateral spastic paresis, influence the ability to support verbal communication with proper gesticulation. It is directly related to the impairment of fine motor control. In case of spastic quadriplegia there is also the problem of deeply ingrained withdrawal reflex making conveying meaning through tactile interactions practically impossible. The tactile stimuli are also severely compromised in case of children suffering from athetotic form of palsy because involuntary serpentine movements make intentional touch impossible. Due to the impairment of gross motor skills each form of cerebral palsy directly and negatively influences proxemic communication – conveying meaning through the use of space. Bilateral forms of palsy, especially spastic tetraparesis induced through damage to pyramidal tracts in both cerebral hemispheres, make it impossible to close mouth completely and lead to the overflow of saliva due to excessive stimulation of salivary glands which in turn influences aromatic sub-code of non-verbal communication. Therefore it appears that, from the perspective of extralinguistic (nonverbal) aspects of communication, bilateral hemiplegia and athetotic extra-pyramidal paresis are the most influential forms of palsy. In each case the magnitude of communication impediment is directly proportional to the severity of cerebral palsy. In turn, observing the problem in the context of the most common extralinguistic disabilities in relation to various forms of cerebral palsy, one may assume that the most common source of problems with communication is the impediment of gesticulation and disturbed proxemy. Inadequate expression of emotions and disturbed tactile sub-code are significantly rarer communication phenomena (see: Michalik, 2015).

2. Sensory determinants of the development of speech and its impairment in the cases of cerebral palsy

Motor skills, muscle tension, body posture and postural alignment are one of the determinants of the development of speech of every person and especially, due to severe impairment, children suffering from cerebral palsy. However, linguistic competency is not completely reliant on muscle and motor functions. Sensory conditioning also plays a crucial role. Without the functioning of sensory perception an individual is unable to intrinsically learn a language system (see Grabias, 2001). We may assume that the disturbances in the functioning of senses in the cases of cerebral palsy are one of the groups of biological determinants of the speech development of cerebral palsy patients (Michalik, 2015).

Usually, sensory symptoms accompanying motor skills and posture impairments occur simultaneously in several modalities. Due to the fact that cerebral palsy patients suffer from disturbances in functioning of several senses we have to deal with a specific, individual, complex and self-compensating system of human perception. Therefore, the dysfunctions of sense organs related to cerebral palsy should be discussed in the category of the whole system of perception difficulties exceeding the scope of traditional index of human senses and particularly emphasizing proprioception, tactile sense, hearing, sight and functioning of vestibular system. These senses and functions are the most disturbed in case of cerebral palsy because they result from the extensive damage to neural system, impediment of motor skill and faulty posture. Furthermore, these functions significantly influence the mental and linguistic perception of individuals suffering from cerebral palsy (Ibidem).

Furthermore, the postulate to discuss the simultaneous perception disturbances in children suffering from cerebral palsy stems from the theory of convergent neurons connected with the theory of neural network (see: Herzyk, 2005; Spitzer, 2007; Mesulam, 2009). According to this particular theory numerous neurons are able to receive more than one sensory stimulus simultaneously. It is so due to the post-synaptic neuron being connected with several pre-synaptic neurons through axons. As a consequence, certain neurons, the so-called convergent neurons, conduct information (neural impulses) more efficiently and are easier to stimulate when stimuli come from two or more sensory organs. Thus damage to one pre-synaptic neuron reacting to, for instance, touch may affect and handicap functioning of a post-synaptic neuron compiling tactile, visual, proprioceptive and vestibular system related stimuli (see: Odowska-Szlachcic, 2007, p. 13; see also: Michalik, 2015). Impairing one of the senses affects functioning of the rest.

Proprioceptive sense – contemporary proprioception is referred to as the so-called “sixth sense”. It is the fastest developing and maturing sensory system in human's body. It receives information from around the entirety of body, first and foremost from muscles, ligaments and joints and therefore it is the system closest related to motor skills and posture. A singular proprioception organ cannot be isolated and proprioceptive stimuli are being received and processed by the entirety of the neural system, although it is mainly the role of cerebellum to receive signals from proprioception receptors through the spinocerebellar tract and translate them into data concerning placement in space and movement of limbs. It is also assumed that kinaesthesia, the sense providing information not only about movement and position of body but also about weight and drag of other bodies affecting the organism, is also a part of proprioception. In contrast to proprioception, kinaesthesia receives stimuli in a more precise and intentional manner (Maas, 1998; Kuleczka-Raszewska, Markowska, 2012; Grzybowska, 2013).

The disturbance of proprioception leads to: muscular hypotonicity, impaired perception of position of body and movement, problems with controlling posture, problems with spatial orientation, motor coordination and visual-motor coordination (see: Odowska-Szlachcic, 2007; Grzybowska, 2013).

In case of patients suffering from cerebral palsy the disturbances of proprioception can be both primary and secondary in nature. In the first case the disturbances in proprioception are the result of damaged neural connections. In the second, they are the result of cerebral cortex not receiving signals from the affected system of the body. These signals, even if they reach brain, are, due to irregularities in muscle tension, mistakes in registration of movement (both gross motor skills and fine motor control) and postural disturbance, distorted and convey contradictory information. It makes the perception of one's own, often deformed, body incorrect and results in mistakes in motor projection. Furthermore, taking into account onto-genetic context, these

results negatively affect the development of the body's awareness and spatial orientation, especially in relation to other individuals. The phenomena listed above influence the factors important for the capability to utilize language skills and to actively communicate – the alignment of speech organs (articulatory kineasthetic), pronunciation and difficulties, writing and spelling (Michalik, 2015).

Tactile sense – this sense is closely connected with proprioception but it responds to external stimuli. Tactile sense chiefly protects organism from dangerous external stimuli related to gripping, touch and temperature. It allows us to recognize what we are touching and when and how we are being touched or gripped. It is the largest and most rudimentary sensory system in the human body. It is the first sensory system developing in human embryo and the first one to become fully functional. It is directly and closely related with skin tissue. It influences movement functions, the feeling of safety and the ability to focus attention (see: Odowska-Szlachcic, 2007).

Due to the fact that stimuli relating to the tactile sensations are conveyed through pyramidal tracts, the tactile impairment is the most severe among children suffering from spastic forms of cerebral palsy – hemiplegia, tetraparesis and spastic diplegia. Such individuals show problems with ascertaining shapes, textures, factures, sizes and changes in temperature. Additionally, a form of primitive tonic reflex – a reflux reaction – occurs in cases of tetraparesis due to the disturbances in experiencing tactile stimuli (see: Czochońska, Łosiowski, 1997; Michalik, 2015).

Sense of sight – proper development of visual perception is dependant on: proper functioning of eyes and visual area of cerebral cortex, integration of the brain areas related to sight and sufficient influx of tactile, proprioceptive and vestibular stimuli dependant on body movement to the specific parts of brain. Amblyopia negatively influences development of language skills not only among children suffering from cerebral palsy. Among blind children and children with severely dimmed vision, disturbances in the understanding of conceptual and grammatical category of time, essential for space awareness and speech interpretation, occur. If these problems are further exacerbated by extensive and severe neurological disorders, the cognitive and developmental position of such an individual becomes extremely unfavorable. As an example, problems with understanding and exploration of space stemming from disturbances in motor functions are further reinforced by cognitive problems resulting from amblyopia and linguistic problems rooted in lack of understanding of the concepts of time and space (Konarska, 2010; see also: Michalik, 2015). If we choose cerebral palsy from among the listed neurological disorders, we must also claim that half of cerebral palsy patients also suffer from impaired vision. On one hand, they are the results of anatomical and structural problems (incorrect functioning of the visual receptor, damage to neural tracts related to sight, integrated sub-cortical areas and cortical visual area) and on the other, they stem from the problems with proper functioning of systems, disturbance in eye movement, for instance. This type of individual's kinetic activity is closely related with movements of his head. Cerebral palsy patients suffer from either hypokinesia (in case of spastic forms of cerebral palsy) or hyperkinesia in the area of neck and head (athetotic forms of cerebral palsy). They result in irregularities in eye movement and short, inconstant fixation (Przyrowski, 2009). The secondary cause of the impaired vision among such children is the disrupted influx of tactile, proprioceptive and vestibular stimuli.

Impaired vision most often accompanies spastic forms of cerebral palsy. They are characterized by the restricted field of vision resulting from damage to a part of visual tract sending signals from retina to cerebral cortex responsible for creating composite image. This in turn results in decreasing the field of vision by a quarter or a half on the same side as the side affected by paresis. The result of dimness of sight in cases of cerebral palsy is impairment of visual perception (Czochańska, Łosiowski, 1997; see also: Michalik, 2015).

Vestibular system – is located in the labyrinth and vestibular nuclei of the brain stem and is responsible for the sense of balance. It is connected through neurons with cerebellum, eyeball muscles, spinal reticular formation, extensor muscles of limbs and the neck area, spinal cord neurons responsible for movement, vestibulocochlear nerve and with cerebral cortex, particularly with the areas of cortex responsible for hearing and speech. Therefore vestibular system stimulates, among its other functions, the functions of sense modalities, chiefly in the period of their biological development. Due to additional receptors in the inner ear it is able to receive sensations relating to movement and gravity and influences the ability to maintain balance and move fluidly. Therefore it is tightly connected with motor functions and posture of an individual. This system also governs the stimuli reaching the organism from other sensory systems – proprioceptive, tactile, aural and even visual. Irregularities in the functioning of vestibular system manifest in hypotony, faulty posture, disturbances in postural adaptation, fear of heights related to gravitational insecurity, weak cooperation between both sides of a body and difficulties in perceiving and identifying aural and visual stimuli (see: Przyrowski, 2009).

The specificity of the disturbances in functioning of the vestibular system in the cases of cerebral palsy manifests to the largest degree in cerebellar form of this disorder. In such cases the discussed irregularities resulting from damage to cerebellum and disturbances in functioning of vestibular system overlap. Hypersensitivity resulting from the vestibular-proprioceptive disturbances also often follows. Other symptoms of such joint damage are poor registration and tolerance of movement and impaired perception of body placement in space (Odowska-Szlachcic, 2007). The hypersensitivity to tactile stimuli affecting the entirety of organism and manifesting in, for instance, decrease in muscle tension in muscles of the vocal apparatus hinders the introduction and implementation of speech therapy related to interference in peripheral vocal organs used for, for instance, articulation of sounds. Furthermore, disturbances in postural development resulting from vestibular interference hinder extralinguistic, nonverbal communication of which the so-called “body language” and posture are important elements. Additionally, impaired perception of space and one's own body placement influences, among others, mental development of a child (see: Przyrowski, 2009, p. 14; Michalik, 2015).

Hearing – during the onto-genetic period, auditory system develops along with the vestibular system. It is due to the fact that receptors of these two systems occupy neighbouring areas within the ear and jointly transfer information to the brain stem through a singular nerve. Contemporary hearing impediments should be connected with two processes: with hearing – aural perception, and with listening – aural attention disturbances of which are related to the *central auditory processing disorders*. Hearing is a passive process dependant on the condition of peripheral part of the organ of hearing and on the external factors. It should be differentiated from listening (aural attention) which is an active process listed among the so-called higher hearing functions or the central auditory processing (Kurkowski, 2013; Solowska, 2014).

When discussing the audiologist issues crucial for the work of neural system we have to refer to the statistical data postulating that 25% of children suffering from cerebral palsy exhibit disturbances of hearing, the physical process of listening. Dysfunctions in sub-cortical and cortical centres, damage to neural tracts and aural receptor directly influence the lowering of the hearing threshold. Disturbances in other sensory systems, mainly vestibular system, influence aural perception indirectly (Przyrowski, 2009). Determining the frequency and severity of listening (aural attention) is currently very difficult, borderline impossible.

On a different tangent, in the case of the cerebral palsy patients the audiological aspect is one of the most important aspects in the process of acquiring language. It determines the possibility of acquiring a language system by such individuals independently. Aside from the difficulty to classify disturbances of aural attention it must be emphasized that at least 25% of children suffering from cerebral palsy are deaf or hard of hearing (see: Michalik, 2015).

Interference in functioning of senses, the biological determinants of development and disturbance of speech, are either primary (resulting from the damaged neural pathways conveying stimuli or damaged brain structures responsible for analysis and integration of these stimuli) or secondary (resulting from dysfunction of another sense correlated with the given sense modality through, for instance, convergent neurons). However, we should not look in every relation for a simple implication suggesting that dysfunction of a given sense is always the result of problems with other senses. The presented index of problems should be used mainly for the onto-genetic aspect of a child. We may assume that: 1. disturbances in proprioception influence the functioning of tactile, vestibular and optical systems; 2. irregularities in functioning of vestibular system determine the quality of proprioceptive, aural and tactile sensations; 3. visual dysfunctions are mainly the product of disturbances in proprioception, vestibular system and tactile sense; 4. disturbances of tactile sense are related to proprioception and vestibular system; 5. hearing disturbances may be a direct result of the interference in vestibular system. Complex sensory system of a child suffering from cerebral palsy, self-determining and often implicative, interacts with, on the one hand, motor skills and posture and, on the other, with the degree of mental capability.

3. Intellectual determinants of the development and disturbances of speech in the cases of cerebral palsy

Quoting Ł. Ignatowicz and assuming that “the development of cognitive functions of a child is inseparably related with the development of its motor skills” and considering the role of sensory determinants of the speech development, we have to assume that cerebral palsy is a phenomenon where problems relating to three aspects, motor and postural, sensory and intellectual, merge and magnify. Factors related to motor skills and senses influence the development of elementary cognitive processes (focus, perception and memorization). Furthermore, the listed processes may be disturbed due to the damage to central nervous system diagnosed in cerebral palsy. Without the basic cognitive processes functioning properly the normal development of their complex analogues – thinking and speech – cannot occur. In turn, the underdevelopment of complex cognitive functions indicates the possibility of mental impairment (Siwek, 2006). Impairment may also result in other disorders related to the damage to central nervous system: disturbances in motor skills and posture development, visual perception impairment, aural perception impairment and speech development impediment (Tomkiewicz-Bętkowska, Krztoń, 2011). Therefore, we may speak about a certain closed system of mutual determinants and their implications – disturbances in development of motor

skills, muscles, posture, sensory system and central nervous system may lead to mental impairment. In turn, impaired cognitive capabilities may lead to mental impairment and influence the physical (related to motor skills) and sensory development of a child.

The discussed difficulties plaguing cerebral palsy patients influence, among others, disturbances in spatial perception, both the physical (related to motor skills, posture) and cognitive (resulting from the impairment of sensory organs) (see: Przyrowski, 2009). Aside of these two aspects, in case of cerebral palsy it seems proper to distinguish the third, mental, aspect resulting from mental projections. This aspect is determined by the existence of an afflicted child in physical, cognitive and emotional space and, first and foremost, by its mental capabilities (see: Michalik, 2014). Also K.W. Krigger turns our attention towards cerebral palsy interpreted in the context of motor and mental impairment: „Cerebral palsy is characterized by motor impairment and can present with global physical and mental dysfunction” (2006, p. 91). Therefore functioning of cerebral palsy patients is more frequently discussed in relation to mental retardation often occurring concurrently (see: Borkowska-Szwiling, 2011; Kaczorowska-Bray, Brzozowska-Misiewicz, 2012).

Precisely quantifying IQ of a child suffering from cerebral palsy is a very difficult task and under certain conditions, in the most severe cases of paresis and tetraplegia, impossible. These problems stem from the fact that often they are people with little to no motoric causal capabilities. Often they suffer from severe sensory impairment, for instance of sight or hearing. Sometimes, the researcher is working with an individual suffering from anarthria, a person unable to speak due to damaged neural centres and pathways in vocal apparatus. In such cases it is very difficult to conduct psychological study in order to ascertain the degree of mental impairment. The diagnostic difficulties in establishing joint assessment of two developmental disturbances may lie elsewhere. Authors researching cases of oligophrenia among cerebral palsy patients do not distinguish between primary (anatomical) impairment resulting from damaged cerebral cortex, microcephaly or epilepsy and secondary impairment resulting from the restricted motor skills, postural factors or impaired cognitive capabilities.

When comparing cerebral palsy to oligophrenia we must add that a simple and regular relation between the degree of physical and mental impairment does not exist. The severity of mental impairment does not need to be directly related to the severity of physical impairment. Children with severe physical disabilities and high IQ do exist. Similarly to children with mild cases of paresis and severe mental impairment (see: Borkowska, Szwiling, 2011).

In summary, ascertaining the level of mental development of a child with cerebral palsy, a difficult and often only approximate task, is very important because it is one of the most important factors in prognosticating the development of higher cognitive functions: thinking and speech. We must keep in mind that concurrent occurrence of oligophrenia and cerebral palsy radically reduces a child's develop to independently acquire language competence. When concurrent with severe motoric and sensory deprivation, the acquisition of language competence may be impossible for numerous cerebral palsy patients.

Conclusion

Individuals suffering from cerebral palsy appear to be one of the most biologically determined groups of language users. Biomedical conditioning of their speech development and disturbances encompasses three spheres: motoric-muscular-postural, sensory and mental. From the interdisciplinary point of view cerebral palsy is a collective term, an umbrella term inspiring us to search the crux of the problem in three areas of development and biological functioning of an individual corresponding with three main types of deprivation related to brain damage occurring early in life – motoric, sensory and mental (see: Michalik, 2014).

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FAMILY RELATIONSHIPS FROM THE SYMBOLIC INTERACTIONISM VIEWPOINT

Summary

This paper is based on the theory of symbolic interactionism and its application in the family theory. Family is seen as a community of interactive individuals and attention is directed to the ways in which actors interact with the aid of symbols, roles, identity, interaction and context. This is seen through the concept of the apparatus of symbolic interactionism within the family theory. Significance and multi-level possibilities of empirical application of the theory itself have been presented. It proves to be most efficient in solving problems referring to family violence, transferring into parenthood, overcoming the strains of the roles of employed mothers. Contribution of the theory is visible in the sphere of education for life in the family as a field of professional actions within which knowledge about the family is used for better education of its members. Emphasis is placed on forming realistic expectations and developing the skills needed for life in the family and family life in general.

Key words: symbolic interactionism, family, family relations, roles.

Introduction

Family is certainly one of the most significant social groups; therefore it is very inspirational for research, because there is nothing else that determines our personality more than family relationships. Family represents one of the most significant life surroundings, but the process of cognition, comprehension and description of these surroundings is very complex, and therefore it is the subject of the research of various disciplines and sciences. There are many theories and streams in the research of family relationships and therefore it is not easy to develop a coherent theory. Many authors agree that no matter what this means, it is necessary to determine what a family is, i.e. to make a distinction between a family and other groups. Each family theory has its scientific-theoretical background, because the basis of each theory is supported by certain social and psychological theories of which basic starting points are necessary to be presented for the purpose of comprehending the family theory. In this paper, we are going to deal with the analysis of family relationships from the perspective of the theory of symbolic interactionism, through the presentation of the basic starting points and concepts, which enable us to observe the family as a community of interactive personalities (Bodroški Spariosu, 2010).

Term apparatus of the symbolic interactionism and its application in the family theory

Symbolic interactionism is separated from traditional macrostructure theories, as well as positivists' research methodology and the basic aim of the research is set to be a description and comprehension of human behaviour opposite its measurement and assumption (Spasić, 2004). A family within the theory of symbolic interactionism is defined as a community of interactive individuals and attention is focused on the ways the family members interact with symbols, i.e. words, gestures, rules and roles (Bodroški Spariosu, 2010, p. 30). Based on this, we can point to the most significant concepts of the theory which are interconnected in reality, and they are theoretically highlighted with the aim of understanding family relationships.

Symbols. A symbol is any phenomenon with a certain meaning, either social or cultural. The use of symbols is only performed by people. The most common meaning of the term symbol is that a symbol represents a work or an expression of widened meaning. Symbols are products of social interactions, and at the same time this means that we cannot use symbols in the way we want, but we use them as we see other people use them. Apart from this, the meaning of a symbol in one situation is not the same as in another one. Our definition of symbols is connected to the context, situations and current surroundings. The use of symbols is learnt through interaction with the others (Smith et al., 2009).

Roles. The term of the role is very significant, because, within this theory, it is believed that members of the family develop roles through symbolic interactions, for example the role of the father, husband, mother, wife (Bodroški Spariosu, 2010). The role is often referred to the risks that individuals perform. According to Turner (Turner, 1970, acc. LaRossa, Reitzes, 2009), roles represent systems of knowledge which enable their bearers and other persons who they interact with to foresee future behaviour, so that regularity of their social interaction can be maintained. The role does not represent only knowledge, ability and motivation of the actors, but also expectations of the surroundings about the right scope, direction, intensity of feelings and emotions. In this way the role of parents is connected to the existing social norms and it refers to the following questions: What do people know about parenthood? To what extent should they be skilled in performing the parents' tasks? How much should they be motivated for parenthood? and What is the scope, direction and duration of emotion which individuals should spend on parenthood? (Backett, 1982; Bernard, 1974, acc. LaRossa, Reitzes, 2009).

Primarily, roles can be understood when they are in a complementary relation (for example, a role of a husband appears and gets the meaning in relation to the role of a wife and vice versa). It is significant for the roles that they represent openings and flexible borders and that persons can build different identities within a single role. According to this, the role of the wife includes the identity of a friend, sexual partner and the one who supports the family (LaRossa, Reitzes, 2009). Essentially, each protagonist adjusts his/her behaviour to the thought about what other persons should do and this theory enables us to understand the ways in which an individual "adopts and develops the logic of behaviour, the principles which enable him/her to construct his/her activities within which the roles appear as more or less individualised patterns of social behaviour" (Bodroški Spariosu, 2010, p. 31).

Symbolic interactionism, in comparison to functional structuralism, which connects social roles exclusively to the position of the designed system of social relationships, and in accordance with it, is expected behaviour of an individual who observes the roles as the « performance » of the human activity, which cannot be perceived as an immanent state in the conserved social system (Spasić, 2004). So, in comparison to the functionalists who perceived the term of social roles in a single and mechanical way, interactionists believed that forming identities means dialectics between identification by the others and auto identification between objectively given and subjectively objected identities (Stain, 2002).

In an attempt to connect the classic definition of the role with its internationalist interpretation, Gofman selected the following elements of the term "role": *status role* (functional meaning), *typical* (average behaviour of the individual who is a bearer of the position in the society and in the given historical moment), *particular* (definite way in which each individual plays his/her role). A very significant role introduced in the theory is the *distance from the role*, and it represents the socially regulated distance that an actor keeps for his/her nominal role and he/she combines it with the elements of other roles he/she is a bearer of, as well

(Spasić, 2004, p. 109). Nevertheless, within this theory, attention is simultaneously directed to both aspects of the role, static and dynamic; dynamic which results in the development of two connected concepts: role taking and role making. Taking the role enables a person to identify regularities common to all bearers of the roles and to adjust behaviour within the words whose meaning other people give to it (LaRossa, Reitzes, 2009). Making the role refers to the way it is being adopted, created and modified so that it should be made more clear. Studying taking over the role of parents, Titus researched popular habits of taking photographs of newborns (for example: the photographs in which all family members are, as well as relatives, etc.) and this was seen as a social activity; apart from posing for the photography, family members get the opportunity to play the role of the « carer » and this is seen by the others. Titus (Titus, 1976; LaRossa, Reitzes, 2009) also found out that parents take photographs of the first child more often in comparison to the next one, because they want to stress the new significant role of the parent which they take for the first time. Apart from this, following the very process of taking of photographs as well as many other activities, offers a great number of data about the ways family members create new roles (for example, how the family members decide who is going to take photographs and who is going to hold the baby). These starting points are also a significant theoretical frame for researching violent behaviour in relationships. Dealing with these issues, Stets (Stets, 2005) found out that persons who showed a low level of responsibility for taking over the roles, were more inclined to be violent in a relationship. She came to conclusion that these persons have fewer abilities to foresee how much they were going to hurt someone by violent behaviour.

Why is this concept of taking and making roles important for creating family relationships? Symbolic interactions mean that the processes of taking over and making roles represent key components of the process of socialisation. The process of socialisation is a change occurring with the influence of society (Gecas, 1986, acc. LaRossa, Reitzes, 2009). In other words, the stress in the process of socialisation is on the development of the self and identity, through the two concepts which will be explained later, and which are undoubtedly connected to the role realisation. Symbolic interactionists stress that the process of socialisation is much more than fulfilling social expectations, i.e. that socialisation of children is a complex issue in which they learn about roles, and their variations and they actively participate in forming their own identity (LaRossa, Reitzes, 2009). Children form images about themselves through interactions and roles they take in the family. Gecas and Schwalbe (Gecas, Schwalbe, 1986, acc. LaRossa, Reitzes, 2009) found out that the picture that adolescents built about themselves is connected to a greater extent to the ways in which they observe the behaviour of their parents (control, support, participation) than to what parents told them about their behaviour. Rosenberg (Rosenberg, 1979, acc. LaRossa, Reitzes, 2007) concluded that a picture that school age children built was in a significant connection with the estimation of their parents. Apart from this, the author stresses that self evaluation and the wish to protect our picture about ourselves, despite the changes which occur, present a significant motif in behaviour. The significance of socialisation is joining roles with the picture about oneself, feelings and estimation so that it can be adjusted to personal wishes and idiosyncrasy (overstressing and oversensitivity in the place of a usual reaction).

Socialisation within this theory is understood as a process occurring simultaneously, through certain stadiums in which children take and make roles. Torton and Nardi (Thornton, Nardi, 1975, acc: LaRossa, Reitzes, 2009) represent socialisation through four stages. *Anticipatory phase* refers to the learning about the general characteristics of the role. *Formal stadium* refers to the position of entering the role and learning general meanings. *Informal stadium* means learning

informal roles. *Personal stadium* refers to the changing of the role by the individual in the way that it connects general meanings of the role and personal standards. Taking and making roles passes through these stages, with role taking being marked by the anticipatory and formal phases, and role making by the informal and personal phases. Miler (Miler, 1978, acc. LaRossa, Reitzes, 2009) gives an example of the unplanned pregnancies in which mothers are more active in role making at the end of the pregnancy.

Gofman stressed that roles are not static, that they change during the time and that they have their « career » (Ricer, 2012). In a family, for example, behaviour of one member can influence the quality of the other and these points are reciprocity of interactions. Meanings that are conveyed in interactions can always go in two directions. In the same way as parents influence the behaviour of children, the behaviour of parents is conditioned by the behaviour of children, as well as behaviour of spouses between themselves (Bodroški Spariosu, 2010). For example, if a baby cries too much, a mother can feel insufficiently competent, and would also act to the baby with less liking than if the baby is calmer. Parents would also react to the child who is arguing than the one who is not.

This kind of research created a significance perspective about the development of a picture about themselves which children build based on the symbolic messages transmitted by the parents, because through those messages children learn how to behave in accordance with the expected roles and to stick to the expected behaviour (Bodroški Spariosu, 2010).

Identity. Identity is built in social interaction, based on the symbolic systems of representation. Roles which are the most significant for us define our identity (Smith et al., 2004). This is why individuals construct their identities in the roles of spouses as different husbands and wives. A wife can see herself in that role, first of all as the one who financially supports the family, whereas someone else sees her role primarily as someone who helps and supports (LaRossa, Reitzes, 2009).

Identities are organised hierarchically according to *salience*. According to Stryker salience of identities is the possibility of the identity to be invoked in certain situations (Stryker, 1987, acc. Smith et al., 2004). This means that salience represents the most significant role (the one we devote most of our time to). Stryker (Stryker, 1968, acc. Smith et al., 2004) stressed that the more the role is expressed, the more often it will be invoked. For instance, people who primarily think about their parents' role are prone to introduce themselves as parents, whereas people who primarily find their occupational role significant tend to build their identity as parents through their achievements in the field of economy, defining themselves as «good» parents if they have high salaries and can well support their families (Dressel, Clark, 1990, acc. LaRossa, Reitzes, 2009).

This construct is very significant in the research of why mothers, more often than fathers, care about their children concerning their physical and mental well being. Prominence of the role of the mother in women was researched by Ehrensaft (Ehrensaft, 1983, acc. LaRossa, Reitzes, 2009) in the way she conducted a study on dual parenting with pairs. She noticed that pairs obviously try to share parents' duties and responsibilities, and despite the fact that both spouses were employed, employed mothers were primarily responsible for the care of the children as well as the tasks of physical care (for example changing diapers) in terms of the tasks of mental care (for example, taking care about buying new diapers). The author also concluded that well that mothers tended to describe their role more as something that they were, whereas fathers thought about parenthood as of something that they did.

Many kinds of research about this topic showed that stressing identity was under the influence of the salience of the person (LaRossa, Reitzes, 2009). Compared to the research about parenthood conducted by Ehrensaft, the SI theory represents the frame by which we can research how much salience of men differs from that of women, how different patterns of salience reflect the expression of their identities, scope and quality of their parents' roles. Symbolic interactionists analyse the findings of this research in the way that they consider the fact that dual parenthood does not exist, because the pairs still think that a woman should be more devoted to parenthood than a man, as well as that women, within their identity, value most the parents' role (Stain, 2002; LaRossa, Reitzes, 2009).

Nevertheless, for the purpose of understanding this women-related interpretation, it is necessary to understand the wider social context, as well as material and non-material outcomes which are connected with self-standards which lead both men and women when they set standards for themselves within different identities and levels of their salience which are confronted. Further on, researchers try to discover why women lose more if they give up motherhood or if they realise their role is far away from « ideal » parenthood. The response to this question from the starting point of this theory is most often combined with the theory of exchange, feminists' theory and the conflict theory (LaRossa, Reitzes, 2009, p. 146). SI researchers are directed to salience and identity, so that they can determine the scope and quality of performances which oppose the explanations focused on energetic efficiency of time (Marks, 1977, acc. LaRossa, Reitzes, 2007, p.146). Some authors think that mothers, for example, tend more to be primary carers of children because they have more time and energy to devote to their children. Explanations directed to efficiency, energy and time are measurable, but they are not sufficient for the theory of symbolic interactions, for the purpose of explaining the scope and quality of performances. For example, regarding competency, there are questions which are opened: why is one person more competent than the other in performing a parent's role? Further on, it can be researched how different kinds of « input » that men and women invest into parenthood can be calculated. The reply to this question lies in relying less on intervention variables (competencies, time and efficiency), and more on salience and identity (LaRossa, Reitzes, 2009).

The most often studied aspect of identity within family relationships is *self-esteem*, which in most general sense refers to the self-evaluation of the person and has great influence on self-confidence. Researchers within symbolic interactions state that the wish about the positive picture about oneself is one of the most significant motives which moves behaviour and has feedback on the image we have about ourselves. Many researchers found out that there was connectivity between bad image and anxiety, depression, vulnerability, sensitiveness, psychiatric help, etc. (Gecas, 1982; Rosenberg, 1981; Heiss, 1972, acc. LaRossa, Reitzes, 2009). Self-evaluation was recognised as a significant variable in understanding abused women and family violence. It was determined that men who have a bad image about themselves, were more often violent towards women, because this strengthened their morale, in the way that for example a man who was frustrated at work, used violence to « raise » the picture about himself at home (Gelles, Straus, 1979, acc. LaRossa, Reitzes, 2009). It was also determined that abused women accepted violence, because they lose self-confidence and positive picture about themselves (Pagelow, 1984 acc. LaRossa, Reitzes, 2009).

Interaction within the theory of symbolic interactionism can be considered to be a key term, and this points to the very name of the theory. The theory focused on doing and the individuals as doers, i.e. interaction and symbols which are tightly connected in interaction (Ricer, 2007). Burr (Burr et. al. 1979, acc. Smith et al., 2009, p. 16) defines interaction as a social behaviour between the two or more people in which certain types of communication (verbal and non-verbal) occur in the way so that each person responds to the situation and as a result they change their behaviour.

In social interactions, people use the acquired symbols and actively create specific meanings of themselves, others and events. In everyday life, we express ourselves through many verbal and non-verbal signs, we realise roles and build identities whereas at the same time we make conclusions about the others and the ways they react to our presentation (Goffman, 1959/1978, p. 171, acc. LaRossa, Reitzes, 2009, p. 149). Significant contribution to understanding interaction was given by Goffman within dramatist approach. One of his assumptions is that people in interaction want to present a picture of themselves, the one that others should accept, but that they must be aware that there can be an interruption and disturbing their performance by the audience; actors tend to control their audience by different methods and techniques. Goffman call this process *directing impressions*, and he presents the most important process within interaction so that interruptions should be avoided (Ricer, 2007).

Similar to Goffman, Turner describes going out and courting as « dramas » which include two actors who tend to create good impressions, whereas at the same time they estimate to what extent their « partnership performance » is determined (Turner, 1970, p. 18-37, acc. LaRossa, Reitzes, 2009, p. 149). Showing oneself has a basic moral characteristic, and this is that an individual is expected to live in accordance with the rights and responsibilities of the determined identity and that the others are obliged to respect that identity (Goffman, 1959/1978, LaRossa, Reitzes, 2009). For example, a husband can feel betrayed by his wife who before marriage gave the impression that she would do house chores and in marriage she refuses to cook and clean.

Actions, replies and subjective meanings of other people are an additional characteristic of social interactions. Each of them does not have the same influence on us. Some people can be called “close friends” or “significant others” because of their authority and influence. Others can be significant in one segment, but not in the other because of some qualities they are supposed to have. This starting point can be applied to family relationships in general, to relationships with the parents, children, brothers and sisters, i.e. relationships which have a significant place and have great influence on how we feel and think about ourselves. Berger and Kelner (Berger, Kelner, 1964, acc. LaRossa, Reitzes, 2009) think that marriage has a privileged status in our society when accepting relationships is in question, because when two people get married, they «redefine themselves» and this is far more than change of status in society.

Apart from meanings that we give to ourselves and others, there are meanings we give to events. Importance of SI is just stressed through belief that human actions and feelings are determined not only by events, but also by the ways these events are interpreted (Bodroški Spariosu, 2010). Defining events in SI is in accordance with the role which perception has in forming our behaviour (White, Klein, 2008, p. 102). Stryker and Satham (Stryker, Satham, 1985, acc. LaRossa, Reitzes, 2009) think that defining events directs attention to what is stressed in connection to interactive adjustment, and actors are organised in accordance with this adjustment. The key question is that actors believe in their definitions, because each event can be defined in different ways (for example as a secure one or warning, justifiable

or unjustifiable, etc.). So, defining situations influences behaviour of the actors (LaRossa, Reitzes, 2009). According to this, it can be concluded that processes included in more or less shared definition of situations, are the instruments for successful functioning of any group or society. It is very important to stress that complete agreements and adjustments are rare and that they are achieved by consensus. In researching « family worlds » of Hess and Handel (Hess, Handel, 1959, acc. LaRossa, Reitzes, 2009) the definition of a family by Burges was applied as “a unit of individuals’ interaction”, which describes family as a construct of shared life. There are five definitions of working consensus defined, which are being negotiated in the family: determining the patterns of separating and connecting, determining satisfaction in putting pictures together through exchange of suitable evidence, developing the model of interaction connected to central family topics, determining the broadest of the family world of experience, bearing significant bio social problems of the family life and abilities of the family to develop the definition of the male/female and younger/older (Hess, Handel, 1959, acc. LaRossa, Reitzes, 2009). It is considered that these postulates are maintained even after thirty years from their stating, and that they can be recognised in other family theories.

Apart from this, in family relationships, there is a rule that actions are adjusted because of maintaining family stability. This helps family members to estimate what happens and what is not in accordance with the « normal » situation. Attitude that something is usual, normal or not will influence behaviour of the family members (Emerson, 1970, acc. LaRossa, Reitzes, 2009). Apologies and justifications serve for the purpose of adjusting activities and they represent verbal attempts to renew or secure interaction in problematic situations. Research studies with the topic of family violence determine that men who are violent apologise and justify their actions by the sentences: I was drunk, I had to show who the boss was, etc., and this is the example how justification and negotiating becomes a strategy which actors use to lessen dissonance in problematic situations.

Symbolic interactionism is very significant for studying family relationships, because it deals with the meaning of information that family members tell each other in mutual interaction. Mills stresses that motifs vocabulary is much more than exchanging information, because it represents rhetoric strategies which are essential for understanding harmony or conflicts in the family (Mills, 1940, acc. LaRossa, Reitzes, 2009). Power and control are also connected to the linguistic apparatus. Everyone who can successfully construct apology and justify bad behaviour has a freedom to act without punishment and has the right to define the saturation with his/her own conditions.

Interactions with the others teach us about the meaning of symbols and gestures, as well as social forms and norms. Some authors stress as key terms of the theory social norms and rituals (White, Klein, 2008; Smith et al., 2009). Social norms represent expectations about how we behave in certain situations and how they are adopted in interaction with the others. For example, in interactions with parents and friends, we learn what is acceptable behaviour and our behaviour is adjusted to behaviour based on certain social norms. Each family has its social norms connected to mutual functioning of the family members (for example during the holidays), as well as symbols and gestures which are appropriate parts of the rituals. Problems may occur when the people get married and try to agree which kind of rituals will be present in the new family, because when people get married, they assume that they will continue the family tradition. In accordance with this, it is very important to talk about these issues before getting married, so that acceptable behaviour is adopted.

It can be said that social norms determine the character of the family relationships, and if norms are less traditionally accepted, spouses have more space to determine their own relationships and personal factors (personality, character) of an individual will play a greater role. Mutual relationship between spouses, i.e. between a mother and a father represents a real model for learning and accepting family behaviour. For the purpose of upbringing children in a successful way, it is necessary to achieve a greater accordance in the parents' mutual behaviour and their requirements concerning children. These relationships contribute to better emotional stability, security and satisfaction of children; opposed to this, because of the misbalance in parents mutual behaviour parents, mental balance can be lost, and the feeling of annihilation and family home unacceptance developed, and this results in children running away from home from home (Smith et al., 2009).

Context. In recent years, special attention within symbolic interactionism has been directed to forming terms and theories referring to the nature of relationships between individuals and society. The concept of *adjusting actions* has been established so that it can be explained how behaviour forms culture and how culture forms behaviour. Many theoreticians who have stressed the influence of culture on behaviour, gave great importance to socialisation and internalisation, to the extent that human behaviour has been seen the same way as « the programmed scheme ». On the other hand, there are authors who overstress the capacity of the individual to create meaning and sequence. The theoretical concept of *adjusting actions* appeared from the need to explain both things at the same time.

Probably the most explicit effort in symbolic interactions is to explain the relation between the individual and the social and this is the negotiated order approach, in whose basis there are three concepts: negotiating, negotiation context and structural context. *Negotiating* refers to many ways of « getting things » and it includes many activities such as negotiating, making plans and compromise. *Negotiation context* refers to structural characteristics which are taken during negotiation. For example, when a woman tends to get divorced and the husband does not know, it is contextually different from the situation in which both of them know that divorce is unavoidable (LaRossa, Reitzes, 2009). *Structural context* directly influences the context of negotiating and it is wider, because it refers to the general societal level context within which negotiating occurs (Strauss, 1978, acc.: LaRossa, Reitzes, 2009). This context is described in the research of Hood and Richardson. Hood (Hood, 1983, 1986, acc. LaRossa, Reitzes, 2009) posed a central question about what event it is in the family when a woman (housewife) comes back to the « paid » work after several years having spent at home. The moment when a wife gets back to work is considered as a moment of new negotiating between a husband and wife in connection with family priorities, duties and rights. New marital agreement or bargain is a product of serious bargain within personal and social conditions, accepted in the structural context of negotiating.

Richardson was researching social organisation of non-marital relationships, most often between married men and women (mistresses). Considering the fact that this kind of non-marital relationship was most often understood as banned and because it generally includes agreement between the two who had an « unequal » status (with a married man who has power), the relationship would probably be characterised by privacy, time limit and expected distance. Within this negotiating context, or as its result, a married man and his mistress become confident persons to one another; they share secrets and later a « WE » social unit. Although these time limits are shown as problematic in the beginning, they serve for idealising the relationship. One woman who participated in the research stated that time limitation was

good because they never wasted time on disputes of anxiety in their relationship (Richardson, 1988, acc. LaRossa, Reitzes, 2009). The author concludes that the wish of the pairs is to make their mutual time special and this makes them be more emotionally intimate, reveal their fears, hopes and weaknesses. Just because of the fact that a relationship between a free woman and a married man is banned, it is very difficult to form the identity of the pair, because the relationship is not socially acceptable. For the purpose of making the relationship objectively real, the pairs would try to participate in a different symbolic and interactional negotiation for the purpose of making their own « WE ». Some pairs develop their own language, names, jokes, telephone codes, celebrations and anniversaries for the purpose of achieving this.

The central principle in this approach is a dialectical connection between an individual and society, between negotiating, negotiation context and structural context. In this sense, we can understand the influence of micro level on macro level, and vice versa. There is a belief that differing micro and macro level of social organisation is artificial, so some theoreticians introduced the term macrostructure so that the space between interactional and structural can be made (Maines, 1982, acc. LaRossa, Reitzes, 2009). Interstructure is connecting structural contexts, negotiation contexts and negotiating. Interstructure of the family, for example, would be the « current » which on one side results from the existing limits (for example, limited possibilities for employment, working schedules, patterns of communication), and on the other hand it forms these borders. Whichever term is used, heuristic value of symbolic interactions is an ability to map a connection between the micro and macro levels and it is one of the first theoretical perspectives which direct attention to these fields.

Empirical application of the theory of symbolic interactionism in studying family relationships

Symbolic interactionism is the theory which opened many possibilities of interpreting human events because it starts from the theory that human actions and feelings are determined both with those things that are events, as well as the ways the actors comprehend those situations. Uniting studying cultural meanings with social behaviour is a primary focus of the theory of symbolic interactions (James, Klein, 2008). This is how various research fields were opened within which concepts and assumptions of symbolic interactionism were used. Some of the fields of symbolic interactionism are sexuality, gender, deviant behaviour, social problems, collective and social groups, feminism, cultural studies (Carter, Fuller, 2015). Many studies were directed to dating, and relationship problems were researched, ways of dating, fidelity and the role of religion in affirmation of sexual desire (Smith et al., 2009). This theory is used as a referent frame in studies referring to the questions about the self-image, for example how much people are precise in estimation how other people see them. Nevertheless, nowadays, the influence of digital media on the development of self is researched. Mid's concepts of I, me and self are interpreted in the context of using social networks and participation in the so-called virtual world (Smith et al., 2009).

When we talk about the research within family studies, empirical application of theories also covers many problems. Today, this theory is widely applied in the fields such as: transferring into adulthood, family violence, struggle with different tragedies, for example, if a family member suffers from Alzheimer's disease or AIDS. Considering the fact that this theory came from the need of explaining the role of the family, it is currently used to describe how families with small children can cope with a greater number of employed mothers and how this all affects family, understanding of the self and social norms (Smith et al., 2009).

Effort in realising the roles of employed mothers. There were two basic hypotheses within two different perspectives in the studies which were studying the effort of realising the roles of employed mothers. The first perspective refers to the theory of improvement (Marks, 1977, acc. James, Klein, 2008). The hypothesis about improvement is based on the assumption that a great number of roles leads to improvement of any of the roles and lessening of efforts in realising the roles. Symbolic interactionists start from the point that through realising many roles, a person develops many abilities, kinds of experience and strategies of overcoming. These abilities do not improve and a person can transform them from one role to another and all of this influences more competences in the realisation of any other role.

The second hypothesis was drawn from the starting point that diversification of roles is connected to the effort of realisation of the roles and this is named role overload¹. The basis of this theory is the assumption that the more roles are realised, the more effort and stress occur. Research about realisation roles of the employed mothers gave conclusions about the two perspectives. Most of the findings point to the fact that efforts mothers make at work lead to the conclusion that they have feelings as well as other members of the family. Nevertheless, variables must be taken into account in the research about this topic concerning the reasons; i.e. whether a woman who is a mother enters the world of work because she wants to, whether the husband supports her employment and whether he helps her in realising family tasks (James, Klein, 2008).

Voydanoff (Voydanoff, 1987, acc. James, Klein, 2008) suggests the approach which is more dynamic and procedural and at the same time more adequate in explaining connections between employment and the role of a mother. She thinks that there are many ways in which a family articulates the relation between work and family roles, and that they change over time. For example, requirements that small children have can be very high and then great stress is caused and an effort in realising many professional roles and types of employment; and as children grow and become self-sufficient, employing mothers can feel more positive effects. So, the author suggests that time dimension should be taken into account. Menaghan (Menaghan, 1989) stresses that these two roles are not demanding, but that motherhood is. White (White, 1999) determined that balance between realising family and professional roles is in a strong connection with satisfaction about work sharing at home (in the family). Other researchers warn that both “mini theories“ can be used. It is important to stress that fathers also feel strain between the realisation of a professional role and that of a father, particularly when being a good father means more than “bringing the salary back home“. Also, lessening efforts for one member of the family can simply mean more efforts for the second member. It is not by chance that very often the question is asked: Who takes care of children when both parents work full time?

Today, a number of families in which parents work and equally contribute materially to the family will follow the general trend of egalitarianisation of the relationships in the contemporary society, so that younger generations will enter more mutual relationships. Nevertheless, research has shown that when women bring material support to family (in the cases when the income is more than 50%) they also do the greatest part of chores (Schaie, Willis, 2001). There are no differences between younger and older generations in taking the roles of cooking, cleaning, paying the bills, etc. The role of a man is more described as an additional one, and women participate more in planning, organising, controlling family activities in comparison

¹ Scenario in which it is expected from a person to achieve more than he/she can in a certain time frame (quantitative overload) or where a person deals outside his/her comprehension, competence or talent (qualitative overload) (Nugent, 2013).

to men (Schaie, Willis, 2001). These data were not obtained within the frame of studies of symbolic interactionism, but they can give directions to a deeper studying of reasons which lead to this, considering the fact that this theory is directed to revealing meanings which individuals connect to events and roles.

Research of violent behaviour in relationships. Violence in the family and relationships is the field to which interactionism gives much attention. Central question in these studies is how it can be explained that deliberate pain is put to partners (or date), or the person someone likes. Stets (Stets, 1992) researched these questions using the concept of symbolic interactionism. It is assumed that interactional variables describe violence in relationships more than demographic explanations. Taking over the role of another represents putting oneself in the position of another persons and understanding his/her feelings and emotions. She determined that taking over the role of another was preceded by satisfaction with the relationship, and the more the partners took over the roles, the less the chance was for violence. Following this logic, Stets foresees that when at least one person is weak in taking over the role, there is a possibility of aggressive behaviour in the relationship. Discussing this research (there is not much data), the general conclusion can be drawn, which points to the significance of using symbolic interactions in general. In accordance with this, it can be said that it is much more important to analyse interaction between parents in explaining the appearance of violent behaviour than background variables such as genetics, gender, race and socioeconomic status. Taking over the role is not only connected with violence in a relationship, but also with the seriousness of violence. The lesser partners' role in taking over, the more serious is the violence occurring. Although the whole assumption about violence in relationships demands additional variables, this research supports the discussion that starting points and terms of symbolic interactionism must be a part of these explanations (James, Klein, 2008).

Fields of intervention

The theory of symbolic interactionism is widely used in family therapy with the aim of helping people to observe each other, so that they can modify their perspectives and actions with the aim of developing harmonious and successful relationships (Bodroški Spariosu, 2010). Apart from this, the theory is used in many intervention contexts, such as family violence. Nevertheless, one of the key uses of the theory is in the field of family life education. Cognition gained in the theory of symbolic interactionism through educational programmes can immensely improve the quality of family relationships and life in general (James, Klein, 2008). Education for life in the family represents part of professional actions within education about the family and it is used for educating its members. It is considered that through gaining certain knowledge, family members will have realistic expectations and improve skills necessary for life in the family (Smith et al., 2009). It is important to stress that the basis of education for family life are parents' rights and duties, and this is regulated by law.

Nowadays, divorces are more and more frequent, as well as new marriages. New marriages are more complex for many people in comparison to the first ones and they represent special issues of studying and direct intervention. Why is the second marriage more complex? Despite the spouses' divorce, responsibility which the parents' roles bear and the roles of relatives can hardly be separated. Nevertheless, many new marriages, apart from parents' role in a new marriage include parents' roles from the previous marriages. For the purpose of strengthening capacities, people bear stress and challenges which these role bring in these situations. Kaplan and Henon (Kaplan, Henon, 1992) developed a special programme for preparing people who intend to

get married again called *Personal Reflections Program*. The basic purpose of the programme is to help people who are starting a marriage for the second time, to identify their exception through the process of self reflection. The basis of the programme is in symbolic interactions. More precisely, concepts, such as self, realising and taking over the roles, are the theoretical bases of the programme, and the programme consists of exercises of awakening consciousness, sharing one's expectations through the role play, i.e. explicit expression of each of the parents about the expectations and ways family roles can be realised (Kaplan, Henon, 1992).

Concluding remarks

Family cannot be determined by an officially accepted definition, nor can it be put into the single generally accepted frame, and at the beginning this may seem as a difficulty in dealing with problems of family relationships. Although there are many theories about what family and family relationships are (systematic conflict theory, exchange theory, developmental theory, symbolic interactions and many other), each of them is valuable and focuses on some segments of family relationships and shows the directions to which research attempts may be oriented. James and Klein (James, Klein, 2008) suggest that within symbolic interactionism, something that scientists consider to be a family, should be brought into connection with what the very members think the family is, stressing the significance of understating the reality of some of its members.

Studying the orientation of symbolic interactionism, we came to conclusion about the mechanisms through which the family acts, as one of the most influential, so-called primary groups, on development of the personality. This theory directs research studies to observe family as a community of interactive individuals and the focus is on the internal events among the members. Interactions done by the family members are transferred by many kinds of symbols, rules and they are developed through them. Family relationships, in which we grow, roles that we develop, symbolic contents we exchange in interactions, define our identity and our image about ourselves. Each individual, apart from taking over roles, develops them through symbolic interaction with other family members and adjusting his/her behaviour to the things he/she thinks the other individuals should do (Bodroški Spariosu, 2010). It is obvious that greater stress is put on the individual's significance in relation to the influence of wider social surroundings, and this is one of the greatest arguments of those who criticize this theory. Roles and identity are formed under the strong influence of the individual himself/herself, his/her personality traits and significance he/she gives to interactions rather than to wider social environment. This theory directs us to understanding family relationships and that the most important is that human actions and feelings are determined by not only what happens, but by the ways people interpret those occurrences. This is why this theory got the greatest sense in family therapy with the aim of helping people to understand each other and to change their interpretations and meanings of certain events, and this leads them to changing behaviour and developing more harmonious family relationships (Bodroški Spariosu, 2010). The issues that are stated by the critics as a lack are connected with absence of emotions (LaRossa, Reitzes, 2009). Although in some of the latest research, attention is paid to this concept, there is a criticism that emotions should be equally analysed as other concepts because they are an inseparable part of each interaction and interpretation. All other imperfections of the theory are placed by the critics into micro level, i.e. omitting the analysis of the global social level. If we observe a family as a social group, we can see that this is a changeable category, that we can understand it without understanding of the wide social relationships, i.e. contexts. Analysing the available

reference literature we noticed the need for it to be brought into connection with the wider social surroundings (symbols, roles, identity, interactions) through the concept of context through which family functioning is observed.

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THOMAS GORDON'S ANTI-AUTHORITATIVE COMMUNICATION AND THEORY OF THE ACTS OF SPEECH BY J.L. AUSTIN AND J.R. SEARLE IN THE ELEMENTARY SCHOOL EDUCATION

Summary

The author presents the results of the diagnostic research concerning T. Gordon's anti-authoritative communication in the aspect of J.L. Austin's and J.R. Searle's acts of speech and discusses them in theoretical context. The author analyzes the results of own research and attempts to answer the following questions: What illocutionary meanings are contained in statements of teachers formulated on the basis of T. Gordon's directives concerning conduct of classes and discipline therein. Research was conducted during 80 hours of Polish language and mathematics classes, 40 hours in schools in the urban areas and 40 hours in the schools in rural areas, among pupils from grades III-VI.

Key words: verbal communication, T. Gordon's pedagogy, acts of speech, elementary school.

1. Terminological analysis in the light of the subject literature

Communicative behavior of teachers significantly influences the air of the education process, the quality of the delivered education and determines the capability to reach the established educational and pedagogical goals. The manner in which teachers apply verbal communication plays pivotal role in communication during classes. The contents of verbal communication are directly related with the completion of education goals despite, according to research, comprising barely 7% of the information reaching the recipient of the communication transmission (Thomson, 1998, p. 105).

1.1. J. Austin's and J.R. Searle's theory of the acts of speech – selected taxonomies

It is desirable to analyze the pupil-teacher communication during classes in the context of J.R. Searle's acts of speech theory. In this theory verbal communication is described as sending acts of speech, an action identified as "uttering sounds" from the sender to the recipient (Searle, 1999, s. 216). Each minimal and complete unit of human language communication is being called an illocutionary act (Searle, 1999, s. 217). Therefore a single act of communication cannot be identified with a sentence or a nominal sentence. Complex sentences include several pieces of content which are, in turn, several acts of speech. J.R. Searle includes illocutionary acts into the sphere of intentional communication and writes that types of illocutionary acts can be distinguished through the type of a verb used to formulate them. Providing the examples of illocutionary acts the author lists commands, pleas or threats. He also indicates that illocutionary acts have extra-linguistic consequences, for instance a recipient of a request may or may not satisfy it or a person receiving a command may or may not execute it. Therefore illocutionary acts are connected with perlocutionary acts – the effects of acts manifesting in world of real objects (for instance as actions) and manifesting in the mind of the recipient as thoughts and convictions. J.R. Searle remarks that messages may to various degrees influence recipients in the aspect of generating perlocutionary results. Some illocutionary acts can have greater power of generating changes in the real world than the others, for instance

a recipient of a request feels less obliged to satisfy it than the recipient of an explicit command or a threat. Therefore the authors of the acts of speech theory (J.R. Searle and J.L. Austin) attribute each illocutionary act with a different illocutionary force of utterance which enables us to create a taxonomy of the acts of communication (Halion; in: www.e-anglais.com/thesis.html). The grounds for establishing such a taxonomy lie in referring to the contents of an act of communication and ascertaining communicative intention of an act. The contents of an act of speech are equated with what the act refers to. This is called the illocutionary object by the authors of the theory of the acts of speech (Searle, 1969, p. 25). In utterances “please, come to the blackboard” and “come to the backboard” the object is to make someone to come to the blackboard. The intention of communication (understood as the illocutionary force) is different in both examples: the first one is a request, the second is a command. Both presented utterances have similar object in the lecture aspect: prompting a pupil to come to the blackboard. They have, however, different power of influence over the recipient's behavior. A request can be denied, a command cannot. Therefore the command will have greater illocutionary force.

Z. Nęcki (2008) writes that J.R. Searle and J.L. Austin included in their classification of the acts of speech: assertions and obligations – commissive utterances, expressive utterances and directives. The illocutionary object of an assertion is to inform with a various degree of persuasive force (informing and decreeing). Commissive utterances are aimed at declaring the intention to perform some form of action. In this case we can also observe the gradation of illocutionary power – a promise is less binding than an oath. Directives are utterances in which the sender intends to prompt the recipients to take a particular action – the sender can opt to choose a statement which the recipient will resist easily (a request) or use an utterance with greater illocutionary power (a command). In turn, expressive utterances are used to express one's opinions or feelings/emotions.

The extension of the theory of the acts of speech is the theory of Conversational Exchange Analysis (CEA) proposed by A. Thomas in 1982. The taxonomy of messages and utterances proposed in CEA assumes the existence of five main groups of messages: information concerning physical and psychological reality, utterances concerning organization of communication, interpersonal relationships and controlling the discussion by the recipient of communication (Nęcki, 2000, p. 160). Information was further divided into: information and convictions, personal details, intentions, promises and biographical events. During the classes teachers most commonly use verbal communication to provide information concerning physical reality and to communicate convictions. Most often it occurs during classes introducing social norms, moral rules or values. As a rule teachers do not make promises unless they concern organizational issues (for instance “I promise to check your papers and bring them to class”). A promise relating to the contents of classes may relate to, for instance, bringing educational aids or other didactic materials. Personal details or biographical events occur rarely during classes – they may relate to the internal condition of a teacher (“My head aches today”) or providing examples relating to personal experience.

In the context of the organization of communication the following issues were listed in CEA: justifications and explanations, syntheses, summaries (including paraphrases), requests for assessment, evasion, submission, acts of acceptance, expressing understanding, implications and exemplifications. The majority of the acts of speech listed above can be used during classes. Justifications, explanations, implications and exemplifications can be an important element of the process of education, particularly during the introduction of new subjects. Syntheses and summaries are most often applied during the conclusion of classes or during classes

devoted to consolidating acquired knowledge. Acts of acceptance, requests for assessment and paraphrases can occur during each phase of every type of class (introductory, consolidating, control) and serve generating feedback. Using those, teachers provide pupils with possibility to express emotions and opinions and therefore establish the interpersonal aspect of communication with pupils (Watzlawick, Bavin Bavelas, 2011). The relations can also be established or defined by evasion and submission although in this case they can sometimes can negatively influence the pupil-teacher relationship. In CEA emotional support and apologizing were assigned to the group of messages and utterances relating to interpersonal relationships. Such verbal messages are not strictly necessary during classes but may be used to comfort or motivate pupils or to restore their trust. Therefore they are important tools for creating positive air during classes and may be used to establish a positive pupil-teacher relationship. Among the forms used to control the flow of communication, applied mainly by teachers, the CEA taxonomy lists the following concepts: meta-statements, controlling conversation, auto-correction, repetition. The first two types of messages may serve as a tool to organize work and maintain order during classes. Auto-correction and repetition may be used by teachers to correct own mistakes or as a reaction to noise during classes (for instance when pupils are unable to hear the teacher). The CEA taxonomy also lists the following forms which can be used by both teachers and pupils to control the flow of communication: completing someone's utterances, listener's micro-commentaries, ineffective seizure of an initiative and laughter. Applying these forms of communication by one of the parties usually means that communication is disturbed, i.e. barriers and conflicts in communication occur.

1.2. Directives of T. Gordon's pedagogy and J.L. Austin's and J.R. Searle's theory of the acts of speech in theoretical deliberations

The following digressions concerning the taxonomy of the acts of communication can be contrasted with the premises of T. Gordon's anti-authoritarian pedagogy. Writing about reactions in communication between adults and children the author refers to the existence of 12 groups of barriers in communication resulting from incorrect formulation of verbal messages. He calls these barriers barricades (Gordon, 2004a, p. 36). He lists, among other forms: commands and orders; warnings and threats; advice and moralization; providing solutions; assessing and judging, praising; ridiculing and insults; analysis and interpretation; comforting and empathy; inquisitiveness and posing questions and retreat and distraction as the “fatal dozen” (Gordon, pp. 36-37). Despite the fact that T. Gordon considers each of the above messages to be a hindrance in communication between a pupil and a teacher (Ibidem, pp. 34-40), it does not need to be so. Commands may at times be valuable directives and may enable a child to deal with problems more efficiently – especially if they are properly justified, for instance through an explanation or commentary. We consider that when a child faces a new and unknown problem it is possible to peacefully take over initiative through the use of instructions, commands or providing a solution. We may accede to the statement that the key to discerning whether a given message is a hindrance in communication is measuring the illocutionary force of verbs used therein. A message will sound differently depending on the choice of words and verbs, for example: “You must go to your room now and do your tasks” vs. “Go to your room and do your task, it's getting late”. In the first case the message is practically an order and has a distinctly negative emotional connotation. In the second case the message sounds less forceful and is further supplemented by a logical justification which may indicate neutral or even positive emotional connotation. Comforting and empathy can be interpreted in a similar

manner – they will not always be a barrier in communication between an adult and a child. They can become a barrier if empathy is insincere (non-verbal communication contradicts words) and when comforting appears to be mechanical and cliché. However, when the non-verbal communication is properly adapted to the situation and the uttered words, these two forms of communication can be positively received by a child. The context of communication between a child and an adult is also significant: if verbal comforting is supplemented with supportive gestures and individually targeted exemplifications, such messages will not always hinder communication. Despite the fact that the sentence “Don't worry that you got bad marks, I remember I used to get bad marks in spelling, it is sad but it happens” includes comforting and declaration, it may have a positive overtone: it presents, through sharing personal experience, that we know what a child may experience and that, despite the declaration, we understand the reason behind the child's sadness. Therefore, the interpretation of a non-verbal channel of communication and applying the locutionary aspect relating to the used words to the illocutionary aspect are important in interpreting messages. Only then can we decode the connotative aspect which will allow us to understand the contents and relational aspects of a message (Fiske, 1999, p. 114). T. Gordon draws our attention to this problem and emphasizes that barriers do not always lead to error in communication and that occurrence of barriers on the level of content is not synonymous with the occurrence of barriers on the level of understanding.

The author lists several methods of active listening which may prevent difficulties in communication. T. Gordon indicates the following methods: passive listening, active listening, accentuating attention, “openers” and encouragements (Gordon, 2004a, pp. 48-51). He also proposes several methods of active listening as methods of improving communication between pupils and teachers (Gordon, 2004b, pp. 72-89). T. Gordon discusses various methods of active listening and provides examples. He uses, for instance, paraphrasing, clarification and expressing emotions by a child or by listener (Ibidem, pp. 103-126). He also proposes formulating “I” messages instead of “You” messages. “I” type of messages refers to the speaker and presents the problem from the perspective of opinions and convictions of the sender, for instance “I don't like the fact that you are not making notes” (a teacher only states his opinion, he does not arbitrarily judge the child). In “You” type of verbal messages the weight is moved from the sender to the recipient – his traits, personality and behavior. In a sample sentence “You are unbearable, your behavior is terrible, you haven't been making any notes!” the recipient, a pupil, receives a message of critique of his behavior and personality, he may feel guilty and his attitude towards education may become negative. In J.L. Austin's and J.R. Searle's taxonomy “I” type of messages will most often be a form of expression. It may be a form of expressive communication supported by assertion, for instance “I'm worried about your behavior, we haven't had a normal conversation in weeks”, “I'm tired and my head aches” or a form of explanation “I'm very cross, your behavior causes noise and it is very bothering”. Expressive forms of communication are often used in assessment, for instance “I like your drawing – It's very colorful” but they can also be used when working with pupils as a form of negative assessment like in the message “I don't like your work entirely – look, you've made ten mistakes in spelling” (in this case expression of opinion is supplanted with explanation).

In this paper we attempt to compile T. Gordon's messages, classified as “I” messages, and messages relating to active listening and indicate which are applied in education in grades III and VI. These messages were thoroughly analyzed in the context of illocutionary meaning they are carrying.

2. Methodology of the conducted research

During research we focused on the following problem: What is the illocutionary meaning of the messages of teachers formulated in accordance with the directives of T. Gordon's anti-authoritarian pedagogy?

We further elaborate on the problem in the three following questions:

- a) What type of illocutionary meaning is implied in the messages relating to the organization of work in class, formulated by surveyed teachers in accordance with the directives of T. Gordon's anti-authoritarian pedagogy?
- b) What type of illocutionary meaning is implied in the messages relating to the conduct and work during classes, formulated by surveyed teachers in accordance with directives of T. Gordon's anti-authoritarian pedagogy?
- c) What type of illocutionary meaning is implied in the messages relating to the discipline during classes, formulated by surveyed teachers in accordance with directives of T. Gordon's anti-authoritarian pedagogy?

Messages and utterances relating to the organization of work during classes are often called organizational messages. These types of messages serve, among other functions, to organize matters relating to children's work in class and outside of it, handing in home assignments, writing tests or other matters relating to the functioning of a school and a class. Messages relating to the conduct and work during classes are types of messages serving the implementation of the contents of education (execution of classes with observance of the elements of the process of education): introduction, presenting new subject, directing processes of generalization, summarizing classes and possible control and assessment (if they occurred during classes). It is worth taking notice that some of the messages pertain to both the organization of classes and conduct and work therein. "Carry out this exercise in your notebooks, write with a pen" is an example of such a message. It describes the organization of work and pertains to actions carried out during classes. Such a message will be therefore considered twice in this taxonomy: in the detailed analysis of the problem of organizational messages and in the analysis of messages concerning conduct during classes.

Disciplining messages are a group pertaining to the verbal messages referring to discipline during classes and are routinely used to control behavior of pupils during a lesson. In certain cases a disciplining message may simultaneously possess an organizational aspect, for instance, the message "I would like you to move to the front desk" is both organizational and disciplining. Therefore, using a taxonomy which is not entirely separate in this paper seems prudent. Numerous scholars researching verbal communication (J.R. Searle, A. Thomas, Z. Necki) emphasize that ambiguous and multi-faceted nature of spoken language may lead to overlapping of the range of meanings in certain situations.

During the phase of gathering the empirical material the following methods were used: observation and analysis of documents. A method of categorized observation was chosen and an observation questionnaire dividing types of messages according to their illocutionary meaning was prepared. These types of messages were highlighted during pilot studies which helped to refine the comparatively complete taxonomy of illocutionary meanings of messages relating to T. Gordon's anti-authoritarian pedagogy. To ascertain whether teachers' messages include positive connotations the body language of surveyed teachers was analyzed as well. It helped us to verify the borders between the active listening techniques, "openers", encouragements and barriers listed in the "fatal dozen". Because this paper concerns verbal communication the conducted research does not cover passive and active listening. The categorized observation

enabled us to record the contents of teachers' verbal messages (with the permission of teachers). Next, through the analysis of intentionally created documents, the recordings were examined and the recorded messages were verified – we checked if any of the messages was overlooked or omitted and then the interpretation of messages was verified again to analyze the formulation of the vocal channel by the teacher.

Only pedagogues teaching classes III and VI of elementary schools were included in the conducted research. Due to the overabundance of female teachers in institutions of early education the male population of teachers was intentionally excluded from studies due to the fact that we came across factual difficulties with gathering enough male pedagogues teaching in grades I-III. Three independent variables influencing the illocutionary meaning of the messages issued by the surveyed teachers were included in our studies: the grade, the subject taught and the area where the school is located. Teachers from grades III and VI were purposefully included in the research. Studies were conducted only during the Polish language and mathematics classes. The schools where we conducted research were divided into two equal groups: schools in urban and rural area.

Discerning independent variables influenced the selection of the population of respondents. The conducted research includes observations made during classes carried out by 40 teachers – 20 teaching grade III and 20 teaching grade VI. The researched group included teachers of Polish language and mathematics. The clearly separated part devoted to the teaching of Polish language and mathematics was observed in the case of early education Teachers. An intentional selection based on the availability of respondents and location of school was used within each group. Methodological directives proposed by E. Babbi (2008, p. 226) were used in the process of selection of groups. Each group consisted an equal number of Polish language teachers and mathematics teachers. Due to the fact that a tendency to repeat certain patterns of communication during lessons was noted over the course of the pilot studies each participating teacher was surveyed during two separate lessons lasting 45 minutes each. The conducted research also took into account the location of schools, urban or rural (in both environments surveyed groups consisted of 20 teachers).

Therefore, our research comprised of the observation of 80 lessons, 3600 minutes in total. Every minute of observations was recorded and underwent verification in the process of the analysis of documents. The research was carried out in the summer semester of academic year 2012/2013.

3. The analysis of the results

3.1. Type of illocutionary meaning of messages relating to the organization of work in classes in the context of the directives of T. Gordon's anti-authoritarian pedagogy

In the course of the analysis of the gathered research data the verbal messages relating to the organization of work during classes were isolated. The object of this action was to ascertain how many of the teachers' messages were not related to the subject-matter of classes (aside from the organizational messages required to efficiently proceed with classes).

In the case of the organizational messages the objects of the analysis were messages inclining toward the directives of anti-authoritarian pedagogy. Over the course of the pilot studies a comprehensive list of organizational messages related to the anti-authoritarian pedagogy was created. It includes: requests, justifications, explanations, propositions/permissions and wishes. Requests and wishes were deemed to have little in terms of illocutionary force and to be forms of communication which allowed pupils to feel free and in control. Such messages,

due to their potential for generating the air of partnership, may undoubtedly be examples of the implementation of pedagogical directive “No winners, no losers”. Propositions are similar in nature: they are a form of communicating own solution of an organizational problem to pupils in a verbal form with the added condition that a pupil may submit or present his/her own solution (for instance, a pupil receiving the message “I propose that you move to the front desk” can answer “Yes, of course” or “Can I move to the second row with Chris, I don't want to sit with Bart...”). Although explanations and justifications appear similar to certain barriers in communication (providing logical arguments and analyzing) they are not the same. Describing them T. Gordon indicates that in context of such utterance children are emotionally troubled (2004a, pp. 36-37) whereas pupils, under similar conditions, usually are coping with problems related to information (for instance, a pupil asks “Why do we have to leave classroom during the period?” and the teacher responds “Because I have to open windows and it is cold outside”). In such context explanations may be declared not a barrier in education but a form of providing missing information and an expression of subjective treatment of pupils. The number of messages sent by the surveyed teachers has been presented in table 1.

Table 1

Types of illocutionary meaning of messages pertaining to the organization of work in classes in contrast with the directives of T. Gordon's anti-authoritarian pedagogy

Element of classes	#	Verbal messages	Messages	Grade III				Grade VI				TOTAL	% to a phase	Intermediate value	Median
				Basics of mathematics (grade III)		Basics of Polish language (Grade VI)		Mathematics		Polish language					
				U*	R**	U*	R**	U*	R**	U*	R**				
Organization of classes	1.	REQUESTS	C*	0	1	0	4	33	0	5	0	43	2,74	5,38	0,5
			NC*	33	14	11	21	29	6	89	44	247	15,73	30,88	25
	2.	JUSTIFICATIONS	C*	44	36	40	29	0	44	35	5	233	14,84	29,13	35,5
			NC*	69	63	85	28	17	58	21	46	387	24,65	48,38	52
	3.	EXPLANATIONS	C*	0	20	0	0	22	16	25	6	89	5,67	11,13	11
			NC*	0	14	0	15	26	2	20	64	141	8,98	17,63	14,5
	4.	PERMISSIONS/ PROPOSITIONS	C*	6	3	0	1	0	9	4	2	25	1,59	3,13	2,5
			NC*	19	42	61	27	19	66	24	32	290	18,47	36,25	29,5
	5.	WISHES	C*	11	1	0	2	0	0	0	0	14	0,89	1,75	0
			NC*	25	1	25	3	21	2	14	10	101	6,43	12,63	12
TOTAL	ORGANIZATION	C*	61	61	40	36	55	69	69	13	404	25,73	50,5	58	
		NC*	146	134	182	94	112	134	168	196	1166	74,27	145,75	140	

U* – urban area; R** – rural area

C* – confrontational situations; NC* – non-confrontational situations

Source: own research.

In order to organize work during lessons teachers used requests, justifications, explanations, permissions, propositions and wishes. Justifications, permissions, propositions and requests were used the most by the surveyed teacher, explanations and wishes less so. The listed group of messages was used more often in non-confrontational situations than in confrontational situations (74,27% and 25,73% respectively). It may be an indication of a fact that in the communication directives of the anti-authoritarian pedagogy the surveyed teachers perceive mainly merits relating to minimizing opportunities for conflict and are pre-emptively using this type of messages. Such conduct is perfectly in tune with the spirit of Gordon's pedagogy because by behaving in such manner teachers can establish positive relations with pupils.

Between 737 and 836 messages relating to the anti-authoritarian pedagogy in the aspect of work organization during classes were issued among all listed groups. Teachers working in urban areas issued 833 messages, 13% more than teachers working in rural environments environments, who verbalized 737 messages. The surveyed mathematics teachers expressed in speech 772 messages and 798 messages recommended by T. Gordon were vocalized by the surveyed teachers of Polish language. Discussing the subject in context of the levels of education the teachers working with third grades used 754 such messages and teachers working with sixth grades issued 836 such messages (10,88% more).

Using the gathered quantitative data we may conclude: The application of utterances preferred in the anti-authoritarian pedagogy is slightly influenced by the following variables: level of education and location of a school. Furthermore, teachers working in urban areas or with pupils from sixth grade use this type of utterances more frequently. The subject of education does not influence the application of utterances recommended by T. Gordon.

Further analysis indicates that teachers working with grade III most often used justifications (394 messages) and a significant number of propositions/permissions (159 messages) Other forms of messages were used much more rarely among this group of teachers. Requests, wishes and explanations were used 84, 68 and 49 times respectively. During work with grade VI requests and justifications were used almost the same number of times (226 and 206 times respectively). Explanations were also used in significant numbers – 181 times. In work with grade VI requests were used in 156 times in verbal messages. Similarly to grade III wishes were used the least when working with grade VI – only 47 times. However, the use of justifications is clearly observable in both groups of teachers. Using wishes is rarely understandable – the situational context and the role of the teacher, who is supposed to direct and inspire, in the process of education severely restricts the opportunities to wish something from pupils. Propositions and permissions (which emphasize freedom of a pupil and simultaneously do not deprive the teacher of her supervisory role) are commonly preferred. In turn, rare occurrence of explanations in grades III is surprising – this form of communication occurs significantly more often during the work with grade VI pupils. It may be explained by the lack of questions relating to the organization of work on the part of pupils – it is probable that younger pupils fulfill teachers' order without contesting their validity and do not demand explanations.

In schools in urban areas justifications (331 times), requests (200 times), permissions and propositions (133 times) were used with the greatest frequency. Explanations and wishes were used approximately 90 times and were significantly rarer. In schools in rural areas justifications (309 times), permissions and propositions (172 times) and explanations (137 times) were the most used forms of communication. Requests were observed 90 times and wishes only sporadically – 19 times. Therefore the location influences the occurrence of wishes and requests the most and the occurrence of justifications the least.

In relation to the independent variable of the subject of education we must note that both the teachers of mathematics and the Polish language most often use justifications (331/289), permissions and propositions (164/151) and requests (116/174). During mathematics classes explanations occurred 100 times and wishes occurred 61 times. Polish language teachers used explanations 45 times and wishes 54 times. We may therefore conclude that in both the qualitative and quantitative aspects this particular independent variable has the least influence on the messages relating to T. Gordon's anti-authoritarian pedagogy.

3.2. Types of illocutionary meaning of messages pertaining to the work and conduct during classes in contrast with the directives of T. Gordon's anti-authoritarian pedagogy

A significant diversification of messages recommended by T. Gordon's pedagogy occurs during the work and conduct in classes. Their qualitative number is greater than in the case of messages relating to the organization of work. Requests were further sub-divided into three types of messages: requests, requests for information and requests for confirmation. Requests for feedback (e.g. "Do you understand?") are especially important during the work in classes (it enables a teacher to, for instance, check whether everyone understands the discussed topic) and establishes the air of mutual trust. Requests for confirmation ("Can we carry on? Is everything clear?") play a similar role. In this group also other expressive forms of communication are used: they are directed at a teacher and most frequently have construction similar to the "I" type of messages ("I like your work", "I'm happy you understand"). They can help in establishing positive relations between the teacher and the pupils and may work as a form of assessment ("I like the way you wrote it", "I don't like the fact that you are not working"). Frequently these forms can substitute assessment completely and motivate pupils to work. Meta-statements concerning a child's work and emotions are particularly important. Through them teachers may express empathy and understanding of the child's point of view ("Neat writing can be difficult", "It is unpleasant, and I understand that you are sad"). Confirmation of pupils' answers, appreciative and supportive in nature, is also of immense importance. A message "You said it right" allows pupils to receive feedback concerning their work and gain recognition among their peers. The occurrence of paraphrases in the researched group of messages is also significant. They were mostly used to summarize a pupil's answer before marking him or as a summary of a task completed by a pupil. The number of messages and utterances from every group relating to pupils' work during classes is presented in visual form in table 2.

Table 2

Types of illocutionary meaning of messages pertaining to the pupils' work during classes in contrast with the directives of T. Gordon's anti-authoritarian pedagogy

Element of classes	#	Verbal messages	Messages	Grade III				Grade VI				TOTAL	% to a phase	% of the whole	Intermediate value	Median
				Basics of mathematics (grade III)		Basics of Polish language (Grade VI)		Mathematics		Polish language						
				U*	R**	U*	R**	U*	R**	U*	R**					
The course of classes	1.	Requests for confirmation	C*	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0,00	0,00	0	0
			NC*	92	28	100	41	71	23	69	116	540	34,39	7,28	67,5	70
	2.	Requests for feedback	C*	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0,00	0,00	0	0
			NC*	41	54	49	3	47	51	35	20	300	19,11	4,05	37,5	44
	3.	Requests	C*	45	34	33	32	73	60	131	39	447	28,47	6,03	55,88	42
			NC*	18	85	38	101	80	22	92	99	535	34,08	7,21	66,88	82,5
	4.	Explanations	C*	53	21	54	39	136	104	107	32	546	34,78	7,36	68,25	53,5
			NC*	5	7	0	5	40	9	44	20	130	8,28	1,75	16,25	8
	5.	Permissions/propositions	C*	8	0	0	3	0	0	6	0	17	1,08	0,23	2,13	0
			NC*	46	9	17	18	30	14	28	18	180	11,46	2,43	22,5	18
	6.	Wishes	C*	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0,00	0,00	0	0
			NC*	5	0	2	3	12	0	7	2	31	1,97	0,42	3,88	2,5
	7.	Expressive forms of communication	C*	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0,00	0,00	0	0
			NC*	95	50	258	49	90	32	112	15	701	44,65	9,45	87,63	70
	8.	Meta-statements concerning child's emotions and work	C*	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0,00	0,00	0	0
			NC*	60	8	51	8	0	0	16	0	143	9,11	1,93	17,88	8
	9.	Repetitions of pupils' answers	C*	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0,00	0,00	0	0
			NC*	195	221	103	249	216	242	218	236	1680	107,01	22,65	210	2195
	10.	Paraphrases of pupils' answers	C*	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0,00	0,00	0	0
			NC*	4	10	62	37	31	5	53	47	249	15,86	3,36	31,13	34
TOTAL	The Course of classes	C*	106	55	87	74	209	164	244	71	1010	64,33	13,62	126,25	96,5	
		NC*	561	472	680	514	617	398	674	573	4489	285,92	60,53	561,13	567	

U* – urban area; R** – rural area

C* – confrontational situations; NC* – non-confrontational situations

Source: own research.

Data presented in the above chart indicates that 4489 messages relating to pupils' work during classes distinguished by T. Gordon were formulated in non-confrontational situations and only 1010 were formulated in confrontational situations. Only requests and explanations were used in confrontational situations. Other forms of messages and utterances were used only in non-confrontational situations which may confirm their preventive function in preventing disturbances in communication.

Comparing the work of the grade III teachers and grade VI teachers we may observe that pedagogues working with older pupils issued more messages relating to T. Gordon's pedagogy (2950 vs. 2439). Furthermore, teachers working with grade VI used significantly more: requests (596 vs. 376), explanations (492 vs. 184), and confirmations of pupils' answers (912 vs. 768). The number of confirmations, requests for feedback, wishes and paraphrases was only slightly different (dozen or so indications) in the context of the discussed independent variable. Teachers working with grade III pupils significantly more often used only meta-statements (127 examples in comparison to 16 in grades VI) and expressive forms of communication (452 vs. 249).

The presented factual data indicate that the level of education variable very strongly influences the occurrence of verbal messages relating to the anti-authoritarian pedagogy. Such utterances occur more rarely during classes with grade III pupils. Decidedly lower amount of explanations and confirmations occurring in grade III is surprising because younger children require confirmation that they behave and act properly. However, the decidedly greater number of expressive forms and meta-statements in work with younger pupils corresponds with the cognitive and emotional needs of younger children who might require statements related to organizing circumstances of the work during classes.

Considering the location of school variable it is worth to note that this variable diversifies the anti-authoritarian pedagogy utterances relating to the work in classes the most. Teachers from schools in urban areas used 3160 such messages whereas teachers practicing in rural areas only 2229. In comparison to teachers working in small towns teachers working in large cities used more: requests for confirmation (332 vs. 208), explanations (439 vs. 237), expressive forms (552 vs. 149) and meta-statements (127 vs. 16). Teachers from urban environments also applied more requests for feedback, wishes and paraphrases, although the difference in quantity was not as large. The only form used decidedly more often by the teachers from rural areas was confirmations (948 in rural areas vs. 732 in urban areas). The number of requests during classes is comparable in both environments. The gathered data clearly indicate that the communication directives of „no winners, no losers” pedagogy, as evidenced by the illocutionary meaning of teachers' utterances, are employed more often by teachers in urban areas. It may result from the better knowledge of the anti-authoritarian pedagogy among these teachers or from the greater conviction concerning the applicability of the communication techniques this type of pedagogy recommends.

Analyzing the data included in table 2 it is worth to consider the diversification of the discussed utterances in the context of the subject variable. This variable has the smallest influence on the general number of utterances related to T. Gordon's pedagogy vocalized during work in class. Mathematics teachers vocalized 2592 such utterances and Polish language teachers 2797. During mathematics classes requests for feedback (193/103 instances) and explanations (375/301 instances) were used most often. The differences in number of utilized permissions/propositions, wishes and meta-statements in the discussed groups of teachers were inconsequential. In turn, Polish language teachers significantly more often employ the following forms of communication than mathematics teachers: request for confirmation (326 vs. 214), requests (565 vs. 417), expressive forms (434 vs. 267), confirmations of pupils' answers (896 vs. 784) and paraphrases (199 vs. 50). Such behavior may indicate that Polish language teachers more frequently verify pupils' understanding of subject matter and attempt to explain and clarify obscure or misunderstood parts of classes. Polish language teachers also more often use emotionally involved forms (requests for confirmation, expressive forms) and paraphrases. This phenomenon may be related with greater emotional sensitivity of this group of teachers or the fact that the subject matter of Polish language lessons prompts teachers to expand the use of verbal language and employ a wider range of vocabulary (which may be reflected in the expanded use of paraphrases).

3.3. Types of illocutionary meaning of messages pertaining to the discipline in classes in contrast with the directives of T. Gordon's anti-authoritarian pedagogy

In relation to discipline in classes the researched group of teachers during 80 hours of observations employed the utterances divided into four groups according to the illocutionary meaning behind the message. Teachers used the following types of messages and utterances: justifications of disciplining messages, hopes/wishes and expressive forms. Therefore the smallest qualitative diversification of the disciplining utterances relating to T. Gordon's pedagogy is indicated. In this category the wishes group of utterances was designated slightly differently: hopes and wishes. In practice such utterances sounded: „I wish you calmed down” or „I hope you will calm down soon”. Such utterances have very little illocutionary force. Because disciplining utterances engage participants of the exchange emotionally to a greater degree they may significantly influence the establishing of relations between teachers and pupils. As aforementioned in the introduction explanations, assessments, judgments, analyses and interpretations were indicated in T. Gordon's taxonomy as barriers in communication. In the context of substantive and information conflicts (relating to the work in classes) these utterances may have been indicated as an attempt to provide children with necessary information. However, in the context of conflicts relating to discipline they will have a decidedly negative emotional connotation. Therefore, they were not included among the forms of communication compliant with the directives of T. Gordon's pedagogy. The quantitative visual representation of the gathered material has been presented in table 3.

Table 3

Types of illocutionary meaning of messages pertaining to the discipline in classes in contrast with the directives of T. Gordon's anti-authoritarian pedagogy

Element of classes	#	Verbal messages	Messages	Grade III				Grade VI				TOTAL	% to a phase	% of the whole	Intermediate value	Median
				Basics of mathematics (grade III)		Basics of Polish language (Grade III)		Mathematics		Polish language						
				U*	R**	U*	R**	U*	R**	U*	R**					
DISCIPLINE DURING CLASSES	1.	Requests	C*	49	13	36	12	9	25	28	22	194	12,36	2,62	24,25	23,5
			NC*	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0,00	0,00	0
	2.	Justifications for the disciplining utterance	C*	24	4	15	7	12	3	13	1	79	5,03	1,07	9,88	9,5
			NC*	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0,00	0,00	0
	3.	Hopes/wishes	C*	5	4	7	0	0	0	2	0	18	1,15	0,24	2,25	1
			NC*	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0,00	0,00	0
	4.	Expressive forms	C*	2	26	4	0	12	0	12	0	56	3,57	0,76	7	3
			NC*	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0,00	0,00	0
TOTAL	Discipline	C*	80	47	62	19	33	28	55	23	347	22,10	4,68	43,38	40	
		NC*	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0,00	0,00	0	0	

U* – urban area; R** – rural area

C* – confrontational situations; NC* – non-confrontational situations

Source: own research

The analysis of the gathered numerical data indicates that the researched group of teachers in situations relating to maintaining discipline in classes employed 347 utterances proposed in the directives of T. Gordon's anti-authoritarian pedagogy. All these utterances were made in the context of confrontational situations. It denotes the fact that such utterances were used in order to resolve or diminish an existing disciplining conflict occurring during classes. Not a single time were they used to prevent arousal of conflict in the context of the discussed subject.

Referring to the variable concerning the level of education it is worth to note that the teachers working with grade III pupils significantly more often utilized all the forms of communication listed in chart 3 and issued 208 messages relating to T. Gordon's anti-authoritarian pedagogy in total. Teachers working with grade VI pupils utilized 139 such utterances. Requests were used more often (110 in grade III vs. 84 in grade VI) just like justifications (50 vs. 29), hopes and wishes (16 vs. 2) and expressive forms (32 vs. 24).

A major difference is highlighted in the relation to the independent variable of the location of school. One of the surveyed groups utilizes utterances recommended by T. Gordon significantly more often. Teachers working in urban areas employ a decidedly larger amount of such messages (230) than teachers working in rural areas (117). The tendency to adhere more strictly to the guidelines of anti-authoritarian pedagogy in the case of teachers working in urban areas occurs in the case of all forms of the illocutionary meaning of the disciplining utterances: requests (122 vs. 72), justifications of disciplining utterance (64 vs. 15), hopes/wishes (14 vs. 4) and expressive forms (30 vs. 24 – in this particular case the discussed tendency is the least noticeable).

The independent variable concerning the subject of education is the least diversifying factor in the application of the discussed utterances in disciplining situations. Such utterances were used 188 times during mathematics classes and 159 times during the Polish language classes. The difference in the application of requests and hopes/wishes by the mathematics and Polish language teachers is practically non-existent (96 vs. 98 and 9 vs. 9 respectively). A slight difference in the number of used justifications exists – mathematics teachers used 7 more justifications (43 vs. 36). The tendency to employ expressive forms during classes is the most observable – mathematics teachers used such forms 40 times and Polish teachers used such forms 16 times.

It is therefore clearly visible that in the surveyed group the variables concerning the level of education and the location of school are the strongest diversifying factors in the use of disciplining utterances related to T. Gordon's pedagogy. The variable concerning the subject of education has only a slight influence and affects mostly the use of expressive forms and justifications.

Conclusion

Answering the main research problem “What type of illocutionary meaning is implied in the utterances and messages formulated in the accordance with the directives of T. Gordon's anti-authoritarian pedagogy have?” we must emphasize that the researched group of teachers, in relation to the problem of maintaining discipline in classes, used verbal messages which were the least diversified in terms of illocutionary meaning (4 groups of messages were distinguished: requests, justifications, hopes/wishes and expressive forms). Organization of work during classes has a similar influence on the illocutionary meaning of the utterances and messages used by teachers (in this case 5 categories were listed: requests, justifications, explanations, propositions/permissions and wishes). In the context of the work during classes as many as 9 groups of the illocutionary meaning of the utterances relating to T. Gordon's pedagogy were distinguished. Those were: requests for confirmation, requests for feedback, requests, permissions and propositions, wishes, expressive forms, meta-statements relating to the work and emotions of pupils, repetitions of pupils' answers and paraphrases of pupils' answers.

Requests and wishes appear to be the most versatile due to the fact that they apply to all the three discussed aspects (organization of work, work and conduct in classes, discipline). The remaining utterances and messages are employed in one or two of the discussed aspects. Justifications are being used in relation to the problems of the organization of work and maintaining discipline during classes. Expressive forms were used by teachers in disciplining utterances and in utterances referring to the work during classes. Explanations and propositions/permissions were used in organizational utterances and utterances relating to pupils' work during classes. Requests for conformations, requests for feedback, meta-statements relating to work and emotional state of a pupil, repetitions of answers provided by a pupil, and paraphrases of answers were used by the researched group of teachers solely in relation to pupils' work in class.

The level of education and location of school variables only slightly influence the use of utterances recommended by T. Gordon and relating to the organization of work. The subject of education does not affect the application of organizational utterances recommended by T. Gordon.

The location of school variable has the greatest influence on the use of utterances connected with the anti-authoritarian pedagogy and related to the work and conduct in class, the level of education variable is less influential and the subject of education variable is the least influential.

The disciplining utterances are influenced the most by the location of school variable and slightly less affected by the level of education variable. The subject of education variable has the smallest effect on the disciplining verbal utterances and messages related to the "no winners, no losers" pedagogy.

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PLACE OF RISK IN CONCEIVING A SAFE ENVIRONMENT FOR GROWING UP IN A MODERN SOCIETY¹

Summary

In this article, we are considering questions of risk and safety during growing up in a modern society, through the prism of thinking about the role of practitioners in shaping a safe and stimulating environment for growing up. Theoretically analyzing the topic by examining various authors' ideas dealing with the issue of shaping childhood through setting a standpoint towards risk and safety, we identified levels of safety and dimensions of risk that we will discuss. Contrary to the idea that safety and risk represent opposite terms, or that the absence of risk guarantees safety, we based this work on the idea that the terms represent complex social constructs that may be understood only if the complexity of their relationship is understood as well.

Key words: childhood, risk, safety, growing up in a modern society, practitioners, competences.

If we take into consideration biological facts of life, children are considered to be immature individuals, however, only after considering cultural facts we may comprehend the manner in which the immaturity is perceived and considered valuable (La Fontaine 1979, cited in: Prout, James 1997). “Childhood is a historical, social and cultural construct” (Nenadić, 2010, p. 265) and the shaping of childhood is significantly affected by educational politics. Based on the ideas presented by theoreticians of the new sociology of childhood, today the key point in understanding a child, and consequently the issues of safety and risk in a child's growth, shift from the field of individual development to the field of socio-cultural construction of childhood and the question of the position of the child as a social actor in a given cultural, social and political context (Pavlović-Breneselović, 2015).

Acknowledging the fact that the meaning of the terms child and childhood are culturally conditioned (Miškeljin, 2014) enables us to understand that questions of safety and risk in the period of growing up are differently conceptualized depending on the discourse we use as a basis. Galdwin (2008) points out that risk is a global phenomenon, whereas the risk management is a local issue. In accordance with the above stated, this author emphasizes that it is possible to identify three paradigms illustrating possible social attitude towards risk during the period of a child's growth: (1.) Pre-modern: the risk concept is indistinct and its presence, as well as possible consequences are considered a question of fate or individual luck. (2.) Modern: the risk concept is objectivised, the consequences resulting from the risk are identified and ways (means) of risk prevention are devised. (3.) Post-modern: the risk is perceived as a social construct developed within specific culture's framework defining boundaries between acceptable and unacceptable behavior, hence the risk and risky behavior are defined differently in a context of different situations.

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The starting point of this paper is *discourse of understanding child as a competent individual* founded on the grounds of postmodern paradigm, based on theoretical thesis of socio-cultural theory of development and learning, sociology of childhood and post-culturalism, reflected in perception of a child as an agent, competent participant in its own learning and growth, rich in potential. This image of child points to the importance of proactivism and child's participation, as well as the importance of establishment of collaborative relations between children and adults (Pavlović-Breneselović, 2015).

This paper presents a theoretical analysis of the place of risk in conceiving a safe environment for growing up in a modern society. We started the analysis with inductive coding (Roberts-Holmes, 2014) since we first distinguished the categories according to which it is possible to conduct further analysis of the data. After that, the available data were analyzed based on the generated matrix, using qualitative techniques of connection and expansion. The analysis involved cross-cutting theoretical considerations on the issues of safety and risk in conceiving a safe environment for growing up with competences for the profession of preschool teachers and their professional development, which are defined at the level of the preschool education system in Serbia (*Službeni glasnik RS-Prosvetni glasnik*, broj 16/18). The aim was to reflect existing competencies, knowledge, skills and values through the prism of child safety and risk, in order to highlight the important role of practitioners in creating a safe environment for learning and development of pre-school children.

The importance and role of safety and risk in growing up

The Importance of safety in growing up is indisputable, children need to feel safe in order to be able to explore, that is, they search for challenges only after they feel safe (Pavlović-Breneselović, 2012). However, risk may be the driving force behind development in childhood. Risk-bearing situations teach the child how to behave in similar situations in the future, how to react; children have the appetite to experience risk, and if we deprive them of the opportunity to feel the risk, they will seek new ones themselves, which could lead them into even greater danger than the one we have been trying to protect them from; benefits for the child gained through participation in risk-bearing activities are greater than potential damage the risk itself contains; participating in risk-bearing situations, children develop their personality, their own relationship toward problems and obstacles in life; overcoming the obstacles and handling challenges is an integral part of a meaningful life (Gill, 2007, pp. 15-16). The following are the benefits that the child may gain from exposed to risk while playing: children learn about their abilities related to managing risks; they get mentally and physically stronger; they master new skills; acquire new knowledge; they feel accomplished; they develop self-esteem; they feel stronger (Play Wales, 2008).

There are two intertwined elements of growing up present in the early childhood, the two being the adventurous spirit and fear overcoming (Day, Miodbjer, 2007). The child turns from a dependent young individual into self-aware adult by overcoming fear in situations that bear a certain amount of risk for the child's safety. However, the fear of adults for children's safety influences how much children have the opportunity to set off on an adventure and come in contact with risk. Harden (2000) highlights the fact that children's participation in social life brings certain risks, which leads to the tendency that the participation should be controlled and limited by adults. Even though there are authors (Christiansen, Mikkelsen, 2008, cited in: Spiegel et al., 2014) who reached the conclusion that children learn their own, sophisticated risk management through practice, and it often remains invisible to adults, it is yet indisputable that adults commonly engage themselves trying to protect children.

The problem of risk during the period of growing up is hard to “catch”, especially considering the assumption that there are different risk sources, as well as the fact that the manner of experiencing risk depends on an individual. However, it seems that society takes a number of measures to protect children from risk, but it remains an open question whether children grow up in a safe environment. In addition, the question arises what a safe environment is, and whether safety is guaranteed by removing risk.

It may be assumed that risk and safety represent two opposite points of the same line, that is, safety is the absence of risk. Contrary to the idea of insuring safety by removing risk, there is the idea that, in order to establish a safe environment, it is necessary that, instead of the practice of blaming an individual for mistakes made, a culture in which mistakes are seen as opportunities for advancement should be developed (The Institute of Medicine, 2001, cited in: Mohr, 2005). In this paper, we are starting with the idea presented by numerous authors (Ball, 2002; Gill, 2007; Ball, Gill, Spiegual, 2013) who claim that sustainable safety mechanisms cannot be based on complete removal of risks from children’s lives.

The issue of safe environment for growing up should not be discussed without regarding risks arising during childhood, as much as it is not possible to speak about risks of growing up without observing the question of relationship between risks and safety. In order to avoid observing the issue of risk and safety as two contrasting questions, we will try to understand the relationship between these two phenomena by isolating levels of safety and dimensions of risks that are very intertwined.

Firstly, we will emphasize the key characteristics of levels of safety and dimensions of risk conceived in this manner. The first characteristic is that they cannot be separated, they intertwine and do not exclude each other. The reason is the child’s holistic way of learning, that is, their physical, emotional, social, linguistic, sensual, and intellectual learning are mutually connected and they occur simultaneously (Pavlović-Breneselović, 2012). The second characteristic is that each of our dimensions of risk may be understood both as risk and as hazard. Hazard is an ability of a physical or social environment to provoke physical or emotional damage, whereas risk represents a concept referring to probability and possibility of a future event (Adams, 1996, according to: Gladwin, 2008). Hence, each of the stated dimensions of risk should be examined in terms of probability that a situation predicted by risk will happen, and in terms of consequences we could expect.

Analyzing the issue of safety and risk in the process of growing up described in theoretical and empirical papers we have identified the following levels of safety: level of safe environment (physical and socio-cultural), level of personal safety, and level of support. Within each of the levels it is possible to recognize different dimensions of risk. The levels of safety and dimensions of risk will be presented below in the form of a scheme (scheme 1).



Scheme 1. The levels of safety and dimensions of risk.

Level of safe environment

Every child experiences environment in its own unique manner, therefore, universal standards determining whether an environment is safe could not be established. Dimensions of risk within this level represent: risk of physical injury, risk of abuse, risk of developing a model of aggressive behavior and risk of non-acceptance. All the dimensions are permanently connected to the question of a child's own feeling of safety. We integrated them in the level of safe environment, since the risks within the stated dimensions, for the most part, arise from the child's environment, both physical and socio-cultural.

Risk of physical injury

When thinking about physical environment, it is often considered that it is an environment completely safe from physical injury, or, at least, with minimal chances of risk. However, obtaining a safe physical environment is more complicated than it may seem at first glance. As pointed by Ball (2002), most of the accidents happening in playgrounds are caused by behavior in the playground, and the accidents do not depend only on the playground equipment, therefore, it could be concluded that the issue could not be solved through simple replacement of the equipment.

Even though today there has been an expansion of implementation of safety standards when designing physical space for children to spend time in (Spiegel et al., 2014), appeals to try not to allow the agenda "Safety first" to endanger the child's right to experiment and develop itself through research have become increasingly common. There has been an appeal not to allow adults' need to protect children from a real danger of physical injuries to create a world that would suppress children's creativity and freedom (Gill, 2007), as well as not to allow unique safety standards implemented in order to secure free exchange of goods between countries (Spiegel et al., 2014) to become a factor influencing creation of overall conditions for children's growth. Practitioners, parents and all other adults are often aware of the dangers lurking, but they may remain unaware of the dangers caused by depriving children of their freedom and placing them in a situation of constant supervision and protection.

During the seventies and eighties of the last century, due to the increased awareness of the possibility of physical injuries on playgrounds, there was a trend towards the construction of so-called safe playgrounds, supported by a large number of awareness-raising initiatives on the necessity of ensuring security on playgrounds. Safe playgrounds were designed in accordance with the intention to reduce the risks to the child's safety, and any accident occurring in the playing area was considered a failure in terms of design (Gill, 2007). Nowadays, when we realize that a child should be safe but not overprotected, and when we understand the importance of "reasonable risk" for children's learning and development, there is a growing trend in building playgrounds where risk is allowed, even supported, as children need to be provided certain uncertainty and unpredictability as well as potential risk as part of the play (Play Wales, 2008). Finding the right balance between risk tolerance and ensuring security is not a question of setting up complicated methods of calculating benefits and consequences. The common sense assessment of adults should be based on the question of how to enable children to take the maximum from the environment in which they play, without exposing them to unnecessary risk (Ball, Gill, Spiegel, 2013).

Similar to the aforementioned experiences regarding non-institutional forms of upbringing, in kindergartens around the world today we are questioning how to organize the physical environment in order to be safe, but also sufficiently encouraging for every child. In Serbia, this issue has gained additional importance in the current reform of the system of preschool education, within which *The new preschool curriculum framework "Years of ascent"*², as well as prescribed *Standards of competence for the profession of preschool teachers*³ bring numerous changes. These two documents promote a conceptually different approach to creating a physical environment from the one that was applied with the previous programming frameworks. Within this new framework, the child is regarded as a competent being, and the physical environment as a third teacher, which must be designed to make children feel safe, but at the same time to provide challenges and opportunities for taking risks. In this process, the practitioner who shapes the physical environment of the kindergarten together with children on a daily basis has a key role. They must have knowledge about the health and care of children, but also knowledge of the holistic nature of child development and learning, so that they can balance between the children's needs and what constitutes a safe physical environment.

Risk of abuse

Bullying has become a common issue in pedagogical discussions since it represents a serious risk in growing up, which may have extremely brutal forms and as such may have severe consequences for the victim (Gill, 2007). Yet, it is important to be conscious of the fact that there is a distinction between the behavior that might be characterized as bullying and situations when peers enter into conflicts. Bullying is characterized by brutal, constant harassment of an individual based on unequal division of power between the assaulter and victim (Besag, 2002, cited in: Gill, 2007). In accordance with the idea that bullying and conflicting situations among peers represent two separate instances, Gill (2007) states that adults may find it difficult to differentiate between the two phenomena. Therefore, he appeals to us to be cautious and not to allow every conflicting situation among peers to be characterized as bullying. Such perception may lead us into meddling in children's relationships and

² Pravilnik o osnovama programa predškolskog vaspitanja i obrazovanja („Službeni glasnik RS-Prosvetni glasnik“, broj 16/18).

³ Standardi kompetencija za profesiju vaspitača i njihov profesionalni razvoj (Službeni glasnik RS-Prosvetni glasnik, broj 16/18).

into attempts to solve conflicts for them desiring to protect a child, which creates confusion with both children and parents, as well as with everyone working with children.

We may say that the issue of abuse, either peer or adult abuse, is a serious issue, causing severe consequences for the abused child. At first glance, it appears as if protecting children from such danger represents an imperative to us adults. However, we should not allow the fear from this danger to force us to isolate children from social contact, for, aside from the fact that such isolation would cause a lot of damage to the child, all the mentioned risks would not disappear, since children nowadays spend plenty of time on the internet, where all the risks listed in this part of the paper exist in a form of online risks, identified by Gill (2007).

Risk of developing a model of aggressive behavior

The risk of developing a model of aggressive behavior is closely connected to the issue of bullying. Yet, we will examine it as a separate risk dimension, considering the question of whether a child can only become a victimizer. Children are, in fact, active social agents that create roles both at individual and collective level when referring to violent behavior (James, James, 2004, cited in: Francia, Edling, 2017).

When discussing risk of developing model of aggressive behavior among children, it seems that adults often find the source of the risk at “wrong” places. For instance, adults often see *Rough and tumble play* as a source of this type of risk, that is, they believe that participation in such play leads to aggressive behavior among children and provokes peer violence situations. However, there are also different perspectives to this kind of child play. As Freeman and Brown (2004) emphasize, if we re-conceptualize the approach to this kind of playing, and if we support such play creating conditions for children to independently and voluntarily decide when and with whom they would like to play the game, it is possible for the play to turn into physically and emotionally safe space for research and learning.

Aside from the fact that it happens that we misinterpret the source of risk of developing a model of aggressive behavior, we can make a mistake regarding the assumption how to prevent the risk. According to Brown and Patte (2013), children do not acquire social competencies by adults telling them how to behave. It is a misconception that a child will develop positive patterns of behavior if adults teach them lessons about it. On the contrary, the child will acquire manners of good behavior in meaningful interactions with other children, which provide opportunities to see which behavior is considered acceptable and which one is not.

The question of risk of developing a model of aggressive behavior is also closely connected to the question of a child’s emotional safety. If a child feels safe in its environment, chances are it will handle conflicting situations successfully. Children that feel safe are more prepared to understand others and to handle conflicting situations that may occur among peers (Bruce, 2005, cited in: Twumwaa, 2011).

Risk of non-acceptance

The risk of non-acceptance is closely connected to the question of emotional safety. Children that feel emotionally safe in a certain environment are more likely to develop the sense of belonging and they will be more open to accepting others and the ones different from themselves (Gibbs, 2006, cited in: Twumwaa, 2011). We observe acceptance as twofold: as acceptance of the child’s cultural identity and as acceptance of the child’s uniqueness. A child’s cultural identity can be connected to the culture emerging from its family, and the child’s feeling of belonging is not based only on insights of its acceptance as an individual in a certain environment, but also on insights of the relationship of the environment toward its family (Dickins, 2014).

An inclusive approach starting from building a positive attitude towards diversity can contribute to the establishment of social principles based on the equality and development of a democratic society (Stojanović, Bogavac, 2016). The question of inclusive culture is closely related to risk of non-acceptance. Today, it is hard to find a report on quality of a preschool system where a developed inclusive approach does not represent one of the proofs of quality. Inclusion is based on respecting differences, which implies that all children and families have specific needs, yet, despite the differences, every child has the right to quality relations, responsible parenting, education and respect (Pavlović-Breneselović, 2012). Therefore, we might say that inclusive culture is the one without risk of non-acceptance, or the one in which it has been minimized.

Since a community's culture represents relatively fixed patterns, reflected through a system of values, beliefs and behavior (Peterson, Deal, 2009; Stoll, Frink, 2000; Vujičić, 2011, cited in: Krnjaja, 2016), comprised of layers and levels of culture, some of which might be invisible to the very members of the community, the concealed segregation might take place outside all conscious and public processes. It could even be invisible to all other members of the community, except for the cast-off child. Consequently, the risk of non-acceptance represents one of the "hard to catch" risks, especially when children have no opportunity for their voice to be heard, understood and respected.

Level of personal safety

Safe environment is the question of subjective individual experience of environment. Hence, each of the above mentioned dimensions of risk emerging from a child's environment takes part in the sphere (level) of personal safety. Blustein (2001) talks about emotional safety as a subjective property, highlighting that an environment may be "objectively" estimated as "very safe", but if an individual sees it as unsafe, that is what it is.

Risk of facing an emotionally stressful situation

Each of the previously mentioned risk dimensions may lead a child into a stressful situation, the one that exposes the entire child's being to stress. Children are generally adaptable and they grow surrounded by constant change and contradictions, which, on the one hand, affects their resilience and strength, while, on the other hand, it represents a source of risk and vulnerability (Boyden et al., 1998, cited in: Pavlović-Breneselović, 2010).

During early childhood, stress might be the trigger of development, and yet it might have consequences for child's development, depending on the level of stress exposure and support given to it when facing stressful situations (National Scientific Council on the Developing Child, 2007). It means that a certain amount of stress and confrontation with risky situations is necessary for the child, whereas excessive exposure to stress may be harmful. Hence, it is required to maintain balance between safety and risk. We should not claim that it is impossible to ensure such an environment in which a child will never confront an emotionally stressful situation, however, we most certainly can ensure an environment that supports creation of emotionally safe climate where support is seen as an element of high importance.

Particularly emotionally stressful situations might be the ones forcing child to confront failure. For that reason, it is necessary to question the tasks delegated to a child, as well as the support provided when fulfilling the tasks. Sometimes, child needs support in order to fulfill the tasks imposed by itself. In playgrounds in Wales, designed so as to provide opportunities for children to confront risk, playworkers are asked to familiarize themselves with each child individually first. Potential risks should be induced gradually to children, in order to monitor

their reaction, which could be later used as a basis when deciding whether higher level risks should be offered to the child. In this manner, child gradually acquires self-esteem and confidence and learns about boundaries of its own capabilities, which allows it to expand them (Play Weles, 2008).

Similarly, the inclusion of children in a system of preschool education is followed by a period of adaptation, which is considered to be the most stressful period of the child's stay in a kindergarten. The preschool teacher's competences in supporting the child in the process of dealing with an emotional stress situation will largely affect the outcome of the adaptation (Mihic, 2016), since every child goes through this stage, but there are differences in the degree and form of customization (Stojanovic, Bogavac, 2016).

Level of support

We emphasized that there are many risks that a child is exposed to in its environment, and that the sense of safety is a subjective construction. Adults have recognized numerous risks which a child is exposed to and it is certain that children are provided with support from adults, trying to protect them while growing up. Nonetheless, since assessment of adequacy of support is not a simple process, it is possible to recognize certain risks at this level of safety as well.

Risk of lack of supervision

We live in social circumstances in which a large number of risk elements a child is exposed to during growing up are recognized, which creates the climate of fear for the child's safety (Gill, 2007; Brown, Patte, 2013). It is this fear that leads to the situation when children are under constant supervision of adults trying to protect them. Leaving children unsupervised by adults is considered particularly risky, especially when children stay in institutions such as pre-school institutions.

Aside from the fact that children in educational facilities are supervised by adults, the number of public spaces for children, together with adults that control children's activities, is increasing constantly in cities. When children are deprived of the possibility to function by themselves in a city and to make use of potentials the urban environment has to offer, their experience and ability to freely and independently participate in the life of community is limited (Malone, 2006).

We must be aware of the differences between freeing and abandoning (Lensmire, 1997). Abandonment occurs when children are exposed to risk without taking into account that some children can be unaware of, or do not know how to deal with risky situations, which is often the result of their inexperience. Freeing is providing support to the child in dealing with the risks. In that process, the practitioner creates an environment in which children are empowered to deal with risky situations, learn how to behave in these situations, and then leaves them with the will to independently explore new risks.

Practitioners nowadays find themselves responsible for monitoring the child's behavior, and what is more, rather often there are written regulations as well, stating they should not get any child "out of sight". Despite the fact this practice is rooted in the need for preventing unwanted situations, it has turned into practice for the practitioners to assume the role of the "Big Brother", whose look and approval is sought across the room by children, whenever an opportunity for taking risk appears (whether during play, or in terms of relationships with other children).

In order for the practitioner to recognize opportunities and to create planned learning situations in which children are exposed to risk for the purpose of learning and development, he or she must possess different competences; first and foremost, they must understand the holistic nature of child development and learning, and possess knowledge of different strategies and ways of children's learning.

Risk of non-inclusion

When we spoke about the risk of non-acceptance, we explained that a child might be rejected for its distinctiveness. However, a child might be excluded simply for the fact of being a child. At this point, we would like to emphasize that while trying to ensure a safe environment for children's growing up, tending to protect them from risk they are exposed to, we can create a new risk, the risk of leaving children excluded, even though we declaratively provided them with the right to be active social members of the community. For instance, Wall (2011) analyzes the paradox of a democratic system based on the idea that political power belongs to people, whereas children are excluded from the process of directly making political decisions.

Harden (2000) emphasizes that discussions about the period of growing up and about risk present during the period can bring up different approaches, however, there is usually the lack of a child's voice about what it sees as risk and it recognizes risk. When discussing designing space for children, Spiegel et al. (2014) state that safety standards for playground equipment are required, as well as that certain objective assessment (engineering, medical...) is necessary when designing playgrounds, but also that the estimate of acceptable level of risk in the playground cannot be measured through objective assessment. These authors state that the decision about risk level should be based on the agreement between an individual and the community in accordance with recognized social values, understandings and beliefs. Therefore, if democracy is one of the recognized social values, we believe children are competent individuals who have the right to act as active agents of social life, and we should not allow a child's voice, or analysis of the question what risk means to a child, to be excluded from discussions about the allowed level of risk.

In order for children to be involved, that is, to gain a possibility to understand how children are at risk and what protection mechanisms they want, there must be communication mechanisms that enable adults to gain the trust of children in order to get as much useful information as possible from them, which can serve as the basis for planning the establishment and maintenance of a secure environment. Adults must be competent to understand children and their ideas so they can use them. Also, adults must be prepared to accept the ideas they receive, to appreciate the child's opinion, not just to understand it. On the other hand, good communication mechanisms for children must provide a sense of involvement in dialogue and make children feel like part of the contributing team. Good communication mechanisms make it easier for a child to express an opinion in the most productive way possible.

Conclusion

Spaces for children in their physical, symbolic, social and discursive dimensions affect and shape the conditions and characteristics of growing up, mediate the process of creating a child's identity and ways of its participation in the community. In the light of the new trends in pre-school education in Serbia it is very important to problematize this aspect of the preschool teacher's competence related to his/her ability to organize and design the children's physical environment, so that these spaces have full pedagogical potential. One of the questions that arises in this process of organizing and designing is the contrasting question of risk and safety.

In this article, we did not aim at covering all potential questions about conditions in which children grow up with the presented levels of safety and dimensions of risk, but rather at implying the possibility of a different approach to the revision of the assumingly polarized phenomena. We consider that there are numerous other questions in childhood research which could be re-examined in this manner, and that it is necessary to depart from the reductionist approach, if we want to understand core issues of the process of growing up in the contemporary world.

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SELF-HARM – PHYSICAL PAIN OR PSYCHOLOGICAL PAIN?

Summary

Self-harm is an action of self-destructive character during which an individual causes himself pain but does not have an intention to commit suicide. Research and clinical practice indicate an increased number of such behaviors among contemporary adolescents.

The object of the article is to discuss this form of self-aggression, its roots, function, forms, types and mechanisms, as well as to present recommendations for therapeutic/pedagogical work with the child and its parents. Teachers are among the first who can notice problems plaguing an adolescent. They are also responsible for taking the initial actions, offering help and initiating work with both a young person and his/her family.

Key words: self-harm, self-aggression, self-destructive behavior, self-mutilation, problems of the adolescence period, body modification, self-destructive behaviors therapy, psychological and pedagogical help.

The necessity to write this article arose due to an increased number of instances of self-harm among adolescents. The intensification of the problem can be observed in both clinical practice and in research. The object of the article is to explain the characteristics of the problem on the grounds of subject literature and occupational experience of the author of the paper and to indicate practical solutions in work with a child and its family.

Self-mutilation, also referred to as self-injury, is an act of “intentionally inflicting pain and harm onto oneself without the intention to commit suicide” (Nanowska-Ryczko, 2013, p. 188). Terms “self-destruction”, “self-destructive tendencies”, “self-aggression”, “self-harm” and “self-mutilation” refer to the same category of behavior and are used interchangeably.

The phenomenon of self-mutilation should be distinguished from body modifications such as piercing and tattoos which can be the result of cultural conditioning or individual aesthetic preferences. The main factor differentiating both types of behavior is the underlying motive. In the case of the former it can be a tradition, a fashion or an individual taste for decorating one's own body in this manner. As opposed to that, an individual engaging in self-mutilation desires to, as noted before, inflict pain on oneself and to damage his/her body.

Due to the aforementioned increase in the number of instances of individuals attempting self-destructive actions and changes in the aetiology of their occurrence in recent years the inclusion of *Non-suicidal Self-Injury* into the list of child mental distresses under the DSM classification has been advocated. J. Muehlenkamp (2005) proposed the following diagnostic criteria:

- focus on self-injury without the intention of committing suicide;
- uncontrollable impulsivity of the attempted/undertaken self-destructive acts;
- the opinion that the increasing emotional tension preceding self-mutilation is uncontrollable;
- the feeling of relief after committing the act of self-harm;
- the occurrence of at least five self-destructive acts following the same pattern (form of the acts may vary);

- lack of the conditions explaining such actions such as psychosis, mental disability or other occurring concurrently with the acts of self-injury;
- distressed or disturbed social and vocational functioning resulting from the self-destructive behavior (see: Wycisk, Ziółkowska, 2010).

Previously in the clinical profiles of people committing acts of self-mutilation, a correlation between the disposition towards self-harm could be observed to occur concurrently with past traumas and psychological or eating disorders. However, the contemporary perception of the roots of self-mutilation shifts. It is difficult to conclusively indicate the factors predisposing a patient towards attempts at self-mutilation but one principle trigger factor remains constantly visible – the inability to cope with emotional issues. Therefore, when working with a child and diagnosing the reasons behind its self-aggression, it is important to approach it individually and clearly distinguish between predisposing factors and trigger factors. Furthermore, it is established that the increased spreading of this phenomenon and alteration in its pathogenesis are the result of „the appearance of the new generation of individuals for whom self-harm is a way of expressing and communicating psychological suffering they experience” (Wycisk, Ziółkowska, 2010, p. 101).

In the DSM-5 classification self-harm without the intent of committing suicide was ultimately classified as a separate phenomenon (NSSI). The diagnostic criteria include the occurrence of 5 instances of intentional self-aggressive behavior without the intent of committing suicide in the past year. Furthermore, an individual must demonstrate one of the following characteristics:

- his/her actions are taken to alleviate discomfort experienced due to emotional tension;
- attempts are made as a means of resolving interpersonal conflicts;
- The individual derives pleasure from self-destructive actions (Młodożeniec, 2017).

The gross of the epidemiological data related to the issue of self-harm comes from the United States. The data in question shows a 150% increase in the self-destructive tendencies in the span of the last 20 years (Walsh, 2006; see also: Wycisk, Ziółkowska, 2010). In the population of adolescents the indicator of self-harm attempts is 15-20% (Walsh, 2012; see: Gmitrowicz, 2017).

The discussed phenomenon is also the object of studies of Polish researchers. In the representative sample of the high-school pupils from the area of Łódź, the self-destructive behavior was diagnosed in more than half of cases, 15% of which were the instances of direct self-harm and 36% of indirect self-harm (Gmitrowicz, 2008). The studies conducted in Lublin among pupils between 16 and 19 years of age yielded similar results – 14% of adolescents admitted to committing acts of self-harm (Pawłowska, Potembska, Olajossy, 2016). Other empirical studies confirm the scope of the problem among adolescents. According to various data the problem concerns between 13% and 45% of adolescents (Nock, 2010; Walsh, 2014; see: Lelek, Migdał, 2018). Furthermore, the data point towards a decreasing age of the initiation of self-destructive behavior – in the case of 25% respondents the first acts of self-harm were observed before the age of 12 (Ross, Heath, 2002; see: Wycisk, Ziółkowska, 2010).

The majority of research indicates that self-aggressive behavior occurs more frequently among girls and women than among boys and men. According to research data the proportion oscillates between 2:1 (Walsh, 2006; see: Wycisk, Ziółkowska, 2010; Gmitrowicz, Rosa, 2007; Gmitrowicz, Lewandowska, 2009-2010; see: Gmitrowicz, 2017) and 3-4:1 (D’Onofrio, 2007; see: Wycisk, Ziółkowska, 2010).

The symptoms of self-aggression can be quantitatively and qualitatively differentiated. Among the types of self-harm D. Simeone and A. Favazza (2001) list:

- **stereotypical** – usually in the form of multiple attempts at self-harm and characterized by the diverse degree of health and life endangerment; they are typical of individuals suffering from autism or mental impairment; examples of such behavior are: pulling out hair, hitting and scratching of body parts, hitting parts of body with clenched fist;
- **significant** – singular, planned or impulsive acts of major bodily self-harm which may put life of an individual in danger; often symbolic in character; they are often associated with the state of inebriation or intoxication through psychoactive substances as well as with psychosis;
- **compulsive** – superfluous, impulsive, frequently repeated actions, often ritualistic or symbolic in character; may relate to obsessive-compulsive disorders; take forms of, for instance, pulling out hair or onychophagia;
- **impulsive** – singular or repeated, usually superfluous self-destructive actions undertaken under the influence of emotional tension and aimed at relieving said tension; most frequently they take form of cutting or burning skin or hitting parts of body; often concurrent with personality, eating and dissociative disorders or post-traumatic stress disorder (see: Wycisk, Ziółkowska, 2010).

Subject literature also distinguishes between direct self-aggression (when a perpetrator is simultaneously a victim – self-denunciation, self-mutilation) and indirect self-aggression (when the victim provokes and submits to the aggression of another person) (Kozak, 2007). K. Nanowska-Ryczko (2013) and M. Makara-Studzińska (2017) present similar taxonomy though they describe both types in a different manner. Direct self-aggression is characterized by openness and transparency – the relation between the act and its consequences is undeniable and immediate (various forms of self-mutilation). In the case of indirect self-aggression the results are delayed in time and ambiguous or vague (eating disorders, abuse of psychoactive substances). Self-aggression can be further divided into verbal self-aggression (self-accusation, verbally abusing oneself) and non-verbal self-aggression (physical self-aggression in the form of self-harm) (Kozak, 2007).

Self-harm may take various forms. Among the most frequent we may list: cutting body with sharp objects (razors, scissors, knives, shards of glass, blades from pencil sharpeners), intensive scratching of skin, hitting oneself, onychophagia, pulling out own hair or burning own skin.

When working with an individual committing one of the listed acts it is of the utmost importance to acquire information relating to the motivation behind the self-harm and the function of the inflicted self-harm as well as to learn about other factors which may relate to the self-destructive behavior such as: environmental and internal (emotional, cognitive and biological) conditioning.

Among the declared reasons respondents most frequently indicate the constant, unbearable state of overwhelming emotional tension. Some of the respondents, however, describe the completely opposite state of emotional void. Among the motifs we may therefore distinguish between the state of very high emotional agitation (subjectively perceived as to high) and the state of very low emotional tension (often perceived and described as an emotional void). When discussing the intentions behind the acts of self-harm other various reasons are also highlighted: the desire to punish oneself, to draw attention towards one's own suffering, the desire to draw attention towards oneself (often concurrent with pressuring others through inciting guilt) or the demand to feel in control of one's own body (Wycisk, Ziółkowska, 2010).

In turn, environmental conditioning can be further sub-divided into two groups of determinants: traumatic experience and socio-cultural factors. The first group of factors refers to life hardships and the second to a more complex phenomenon such as following examples of other individuals, influence of mass media or the cultural context. Adolescents often emulate behavior of peers in order to be included into a certain social group/subculture or to test one's own limits and to experience new sensations. With increasing frequency pupils play the game they refer to as *Challenges*, during which they come up with various tests and challenges to overcome. These challenges include such tasks as cutting own skin, piercing it with needles or the so called *Salt and Ice Challenge* consisting of sparkling skin with salt and placing an ice cube on the salted area. The person able to endure pain the longest is the winner. These actions lead to the occurrence of wounds which are hard to heal and may result in scars.

The process of learning through modeling is especially influential when the learner copies the behavioral patterns of an individual he/she identifies with. The copied individual can be a friend or a mass media celebrity. Adolescents attempt to mimic the look of their idols through, for instance, cutting skin, tattoos or scarification. According to media, celebrities such as Johnny Depp, Angelina Jolie, Whitney Houston, or Marilyn Manson all experienced problems related to self-destructive behavior (see also: Walsh, 2006; in: Wycisk, Ziółkowska, 2010). Reports of Polish adolescents attempting to emulate celebrities are alarming. Rapper Popek, idol of a certain group of adolescents, has undergone two body modifications: scarification of face and tattooing of eyeballs. Some of his fans attempted to follow his actions and mimic his looks. Ola from Wrocław, 22 years old, lost her sight after a botched attempt at tattooing eyeballs. Also, adolescent Karol Sekuła, following the example of his idol, has undergone scarification of face thus becoming an example worth following (he has his official fanpage on social media). An additional factor sustaining the symptoms of self-aggression is a condition under which the model's actions result in gains such as increased popularity or drawing attention. For an observer it is a kind of positive reinforcement motivating further actions.

A type of dangerous phenomenon is focusing of a certain social group (e.g. group of peers) around issues relating to self-harm and experiencing self-harm collectively, sharing experience of self-harm or engaging in dangerous group experiments in the field of self-harm and self-destructive behavior. The acts of self-mutilation become a bonding factor for such groups and therefore determine the norms of membership which may lead to the intensification of frequency and extent of the self-destructive acts.

The appearance of blogs and internet forums relating to the discussed problem (such as autoagresywni.pl) plays a significant role in spreading the phenomenon of self-aggression. On the one hand the problem lies with spreading the information which may encourage people to attempt self-harm. On the other, for people who have already subjected themselves to self-harm, it is a world they are willingly joining to experience the feeling of belonging and understanding which in turn supports and perpetuates their self-destructive tendencies.

Self-harm can be also discussed in terms of certain socio-cultural context. Some of the authors perceive self-harm as a “form of silent communication of those who are unheard in the society” i.e. children and adolescents (D`Onofrio, 2007; Farber, 2000; Walsh, 2006; in: Wycisk, Ziółkowska, 2010). Therefore, such behavior can be a form of youthful rebellion against the norms, society and world as well as a form of silent communication, silent rebellion or call for help from parents (picture 1).



Picture 1. Lower arm of a female pupil practicing self-mutilation (word: *mom* cut into skin and crossed out; below word *hate* cut into skin).

Source: private collection.

Some research concerning the biological roots of the problem of self-harm was also conducted. This research is particularly devoted to problems with improper functioning of serotonergic and endogenic opioid systems as well as the increased physiological responsiveness to stress (Wycisk, Ziółkowska, 2010). Also, we cannot forget about co-occurrence of self-harm with other disorders, both congenital (such as autism or Rett's syndrome) and acquired (such as neurosyphilis and chronic encephalitis) (Kozak, 2007).

Thus, self-destructive tendencies fulfill varied and diverse functions relating to:

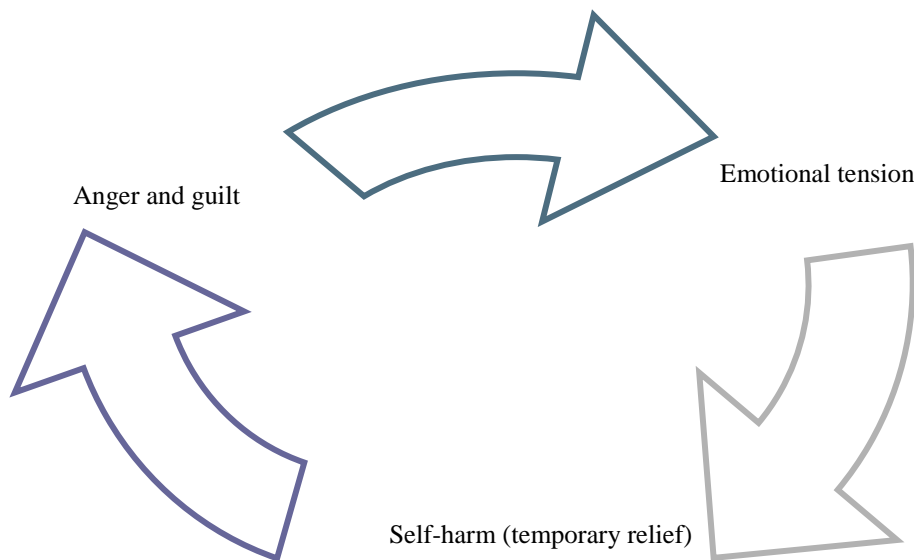
- interpersonal relations – are an attempt at communication, manipulation, exerting pressure, drawing attention, silent cry for help or punishing someone;
- *I*- resulting from the need for self-control and experiencing autonomy;
- coping with difficult situations and reducing emotional tension;
- experienced traumas;
- the desire to punish oneself (Babiker, Arnold, 2002; in: Marta Makara-Studzińska, 2017).

It is also worth noting how self-harming people think and function. Such patients are often troubled by difficult experiences inducing a number of negative emotions which may lead to the formation of constant negative attitude towards oneself and the world in general. Such people are often characterized by the feeling of loneliness, feeling of being misunderstood, and feeling of inadequacy in the surrounding world and hostility or hate aimed at oneself. They also have major difficulties with recognizing, naming and expressing their emotional states. It is often connected to failure in the area of establishing emotional state regulation strategy during childhood period resulting from incorrect relations with important individuals, particularly parents, or as a result of the experienced traumas, for instance experienced violence. Distorted relations with parents appear to be of particular importance. A child without established proper relations with parents and experiencing difficult emotional states does not have a possibility to defuse accumulating tension which may lead to piling up of the emotions beyond the child's preventive capabilities (Wycisk, Ziółkowska, 2010). Mothers and fathers of such children are often themselves incapable of dealing with emotions, are unable of communicating emotions or engage various defensive mechanisms such as denial or evasive strategies.

Individuals partaking in self-mutilation are further characterized by pessimistic outlook, inclination towards generalization and perfectionism, tendency to blame oneself for everything. Thought processes of such patients are characterized by:

- the pattern of emotional deprivation – the belief that their need for companionship will never be fulfilled;
- the pattern of social isolation – the feeling of inadequacy towards the surrounding world;
- the pattern of distrust and feeling of being used – people are being perceived as evil and threatening;
- the pattern of inferiority and shame – perceiving oneself as unworthy of love and attention of others;
- the pattern of insufficient self-control – belief that one is not able to cope with and control his/her emotions (Wycisk, Ziółkowska, 2010).

In self-destructive behavior a certain mechanism, presented in picture 2, can be observed:



Picture 2. The mechanism of self-destructive behavior.

Source: own research.

Emotional tension, upon reaching a level with which an adolescent is unable to cope, may lead to self-aggression. Individuals committing self-mutilation do not feel pain during the act. On contrary, they feel comfort, relief in tension and frequently experience rising spirits. This phenomenon is related to the release of endorphin at the moment of, for instance, puncturing skin. The feeling of relief after the act of self-harm can help in establishing a pattern of behavior similarly to the substance dependence (Gmitrowicz, 2018). It is also indicated that self-aggressive actions may reinforce the feeling of control and autonomy as well as serve as a means of punishment of oneself and kin or as an attempt at communication within one's surroundings (Nanowska-Ryczko, 2013). Some patients also experience the state of dissociation, i.e. separation of consciousness from thoughts, feelings and experiences (Lelek, Migdał, 2018). The next phase is the occurrence of the feelings of anguish aimed at oneself and guilt which lead to the decline in self-esteem, aversion to oneself and, in consequence, to the recurrence of the emotional tension.

School pedagogues are among the first individuals who can notice the initial symptoms of pupil's self-destructive behavior. They are also among the first people who can initiate counseling and therapy work with the afflicted child, initiate cooperation with his/her family and refer family to seek help with an appropriate institution. According to the author's own experience the preventive treatment of self-destructive behaviors is pivotal. Educating children and discussing the subject yields measurable results. The majority of cases of self-mutilation were discovered by the author due to the information provided by the peers of a victim. Children educated in the field of motives and effects of undertaking acts of self-harm become sensitive to this problem and develop the feeling of responsibility for the health and life of other people (including friends displaying distressing and alarming wounds or behavior). Thus pupils are willing to inform a pedagogue about the observed symptoms without feelings of guilt or disloyalty towards friends. Upon acquiring distressing information the specialist should reinforce the pupils' feeling of responsibility for and sensitivity towards a fellow human as well as appreciate actions taken.

So, how should the conversation between a pedagogue and a pupil committing acts of self-harm should proceed? The specialist should remain collected, create the air of security, be open towards the adolescent and pay attention to all he/she says. Furthermore, he/she should be characterized by authenticity and empathy and apply the active listening techniques (affirmation, paraphrasing, reflecting and clarification). Assessing actions, scaring, threats and inciting guilt should be avoided at all costs. The specialist should aim at establishing the air of trust and understanding. Firstly, the specialist may refer to the visible wounds and ask the pupil to explain the circumstances in which the wounds were inflicted. Next, the specialist should ask about how often and for how long the pupil has been committing acts of self-harm and what the reasons are. The school pedagogue is also obliged to conduct a proper conversation with the parents. During the conversation, the pedagogue should inform the parents about the observed wounds, explain the problem of self-aggression and inform the parents that self-harm is only a symptom of deeper, more complex problem which needs to be solved. Providing information concerning possible methods and forms of help, as well as providing addresses of appropriate help institutions, are also suggested actions.

When working with pupils we need to help them understand their emotions, needs and desires, help them confront the causes of the strong emotional tensions they are experiencing and establish a help plan. Therefore, the role of a school pedagogue includes providing emotional support, creating circumstances for sharing inner emotions and help in recognizing, naming and expressing emotions accumulating in adolescents. Additionally, the pedagogue should also take counseling actions towards the victim of self-harm and all the members of his/her family in order to understand the problems of adolescent, explain the mechanisms of self-harm and methods of treatment as well as propose possible assistance activities and offer to refer the adolescent to the aforementioned specialist institutions.

The therapy of self-destructive behavior should not only include the victim of self-harm but also the entire family. Therefore, undertaking systematic therapy and psychoanalysis in order to understand and work out certain difficult situations and internal conflicts in the life of a patient is recommended. Additionally, all forms of creative therapy techniques seem to be helpful in relieving emotional tension (Kozak, 2007). The attitude of parents toward the problem is also of utmost importance. Their reactions to the problem of self-harm can be basically divided into two categories: adaptational – aimed at resolving the situation through constructive actions, and non adaptational – avoiding the problem through ignoring the marks

on the child's body, trivializing the problem or excessive control and punishments without the attempt to explain the problem and related causes of child's self-destructive actions.

A. Gmitrowicz (2018) presents the recommended procedures in the therapy of adolescents with self-destructive tendencies:

- Behavioral intervention – extinguishing the stimuli derived from self-destructive behavior through, for instance, bringing into light the negative consequences of such actions in order to destroy the feeling of comfort the patients are experiencing after the act; rewarding restraining from the acts of self-harm and reinforcing positive behavior substituting the acts of self-harm.
- Training substitute/alternative skills (i.e. relaxation techniques, expressing emotions through artistic creativity).

Furthermore, A. Gmitrowicz (2018) rejects the negative reinforcement techniques such as inflicting punishment for acts of self-aggression and underlines the necessity to not condemn the victims of self-harm and their families.

Conclusion

With increasing frequency adolescents and young adults are unable to cope with difficult situations in life. School pedagogues play the pivotal role in exposing self-aggression and fighting the problem through work with the victims and their families. Pedagogues should closely observe their changes and encourage proper relations in order to establish the air of openness and to convince pupils that they and their problems and interests are the most important.

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THE SELECTED PRO-ENVIRONMENTAL ACTIONS IN THE BEHAVIOR OF THE PUPILS FROM ELEMENTARY SCHOOLS IN RURAL AREAS

Summary

The dynamics of the occurring processes of environmental degradation resulting from human actions is, with increasing frequency, leading to the occurrence of various environmental disasters. However, the social awareness of the dangers of destroying Earth's natural resources is improving. Everyone can influence the way Earth will look in the future and we all are responsible for it. Therefore it is important to know what can be done to improve the condition of our planet. It will be possible due to, among other factors, monitoring the pro-environmental actions and behaviors in various social groups. Monitoring pro-environmental behaviors of the pupils from rural areas indicates that children remember and positively refer to the acquired environmental knowledge in every-day life.

Key words: upbringing, education, ecology, elementary school.

Introduction

The quality of life on Earth often improves at the expense of the environment we inhabit. In recent years we have been able to observe the rapid development of technologies simplifying our lives, and simultaneously the problems of environmental protection and improving the condition of natural environment are becoming increasingly popular. Humanity exploits Earth's natural resources to greater and greater extent. However, the awareness of the results of the increased exploitation of these resources is improving too. The dynamics of the occurring processes of environmental degradation resulting from human actions is, with increasing frequency, leading to the occurrence of various environmental disasters. All these factors influence the changes in the perception of the necessity to protect Earth. Protection of Earth becomes the imperative. This need is more frequently observable in political and economic agendas of various parties. The governments of numerous countries opt for radical actions (such as the European Union's project concerning the reduction of carbon dioxide emissions) to halt the destruction of our planet. Pro-environmental organizations carry out actions and performances in order to educate and inform population about the problems of ecology. The subject of environmental education of elementary school pupils, who should learn from the very beginning about proper attitudes beneficial for protection of our planet, is therefore of particular importance.

1. The term “ecology” in literature

In the inflow of media information we may come across the term „ecology” with increasing frequency. It is often used in various meanings and to describe numerous subjects and actions (Ostrach, 2013). Therefore, we have ecological clothing, ecological food, eco-paints, buildings and various other examples. We may assume that the term “ecology” is being abused and that it has become peculiarly fashionable to use it without the relation to its true and scientific meaning.

The term “ecology” was introduced in 1869 by German zoologist from Jena University, Ernst Haeckel. The term stems from the Greek word “oikos” understood as house, place of living/habitation, habitat, environment, homestead or household (Kalinowska, 1994, p. 12). It is highly probable that the ecology was among the basic knowledge required for primeval humans in order to survive. To gather food or skins for clothing, to protect oneself from predators and parasites human had to become a vigilant observer of the surrounding nature able to perceive connections between the environment and organisms. Contemporary ecology also delves into the correlations between fauna, flora and the surrounding environment (Dojlido, 1997, p. 6). According to H. Remmert ecology is “the science of natural economy” (1985, p. 8). Similarly to Haeckel in 1905 F.E. Clements in his definition described ecology as the studies of the relationship between a species and its surrounding environment (Kalinowska, 1994, p. 14). In 1927 Ch. Elton called ecology “the science of natural history” (Krebs, 2011, p. 3). He also contributed to the comprehensive understanding of the existing relations between organisms and their habitat including the complex, omnidirectional reciprocal relations (Gromkowska-Melosik, 2003, p. 425). However, it appears that the essence of this science is the awareness of the unity and coexistence of all elements of animate and inanimate world. Ecology provides precise answers to questions concerning the habitat of given organisms, size of populations and why it happens so (Krebs, 1997, p. 3). Some of the contemporary researchers claim that it is a branch of science concerning the studies of nature's structure and its functioning. According to P. Trojan (Wiąckowski, 2008, p. 14) ecology is the science researching the state and dynamics of chemical and physical processes occurring in ecosystems and governing the volume of biomass, the quantity and management of the matter and energy in individual systems.

The object of ecology, as a professional science, is to understand the balance and circulation of matter and energy in nature. Its basic goal is to uncover the means of sustaining the life as we know it (Remmert, 1985, p. 9). We must, however, remember that despite the increasingly strong presence of ecology in media the achievements in this rapidly developing branch of science should not serve establishing certain particular attitudes or political ideologies. It is therefore imperative to be able to distinguish between the informal understanding of ecology as a social movement related with short-term policies from its strictly scientific understanding. It is priority to understand ecology primarily as an environmental science and secondly applying its accomplishments in service to society (Mackenzie, Ball, Virdee, 2007, p. 5).

Prognosticating and assessment of various human reactions in response to the development of all complex habitat systems of numerous genetically diverse plants, animals and microorganisms is an extraordinarily important object of this branch of science. Such prognoses are sometimes very difficult (Remmert, 1985, p. 8). However, ecological prognoses allow us to observe the results when individual parts of the environment change.

The so-called environmental thinking, comprehensive, multilateral and prospective awareness of the influence and consequences of people's actions on environment, is necessary to understand the basic laws and rules of ecology. It will influence humanity's future plans and ensure that the protection of animate and inanimate environmental resources is taken into consideration (Kalinowska, 1994, p. 24). Devising rational plans for transforming and protecting environment requires: bravery, independence and originality, traits which should be nurtured as early as during the period of early school education.

2. Environmental dangers in contemporary world

Numerous individuals claim that the environmental problems plague only certain parts of the world or relatively small areas in selected countries. However, it is the opposite. Due to the intense industrial activities, local environmental problems should be perceived as a global threat. Never before in the human history have we produced such amounts of industrial waste (Johansson, 1997 p. 18).

Numerous environmental problems the contemporary world attempts to resolve exist. The most important are:

- 1) Changes in Earth's climate. Prolonged droughts, weather anomalies, strong gales, deforestation and threats to biological diversity are being observed with increasing frequency (Ostrach, 2013, pp. 28-35). The Earth's atmosphere protects it from the serious drops in temperature. It is so due to the atmospheric gases absorbing infrared radiation which would escape into the outer space without the existence of a barrier in the form of an atmosphere. Approximately half of the infrared radiation is being prevented from escaping by such gases as water vapor, carbon dioxide, methane, ozone and other gases present in small amounts. In recent years, however, the emission of carbon dioxide has increased significantly contributing to the so-called "greenhouse effect".
- 2) Chemical pollution of air. The purity of air is one of the most basic factors influencing the quality of environment inhabited by humans. The quality of air largely determines our quality of life. Air pollution is a major reason behind the adverse changes in soil, water and floral mantle of the Earth. Air pollution results in measurable losses in, among others, agriculture (reduced volume of crops and animal production), forestry (erosion of forest stands) and in construction industry (damaged facades, structural corrosion). Releasing of large amounts of dust and industrial off-gases streams into the atmosphere is a major problem in certain areas (Kacperski, 2003, s. 262).
- 3) Shrinking of Earth's forests. The phenomenon of the massive deforestation of the areas commonly referred to as the "world's lungs" results in disturbing ecological balance of the entire world. Trees have numerous important functions such as absorbing carbon dioxide, retaining water in soil and preventing soil erosion. They are also natural habitat for a great number of plant species. Furthermore, the constant shrinking of the forest areas negatively influences the biological balance of the continents (Lonc, Kantowicz, 2005, pp. 221-223).
- 4) Pollution of natural environment. Excessive exploitation of ecosystems and uncoordinated development of cities lead to the degradation of the most productive soils in the world. Water reserves are also shrinking because they are being used by the industry, in farming and in households. Currently existing bodies of water are being polluted with waste containing heavy metals and artificial fertilizers (Ostrach, 2013, pp. 28-35). Unspoiled soil is a source of numerous mineral resources (rocks, stones, gravel, sand, clay etc.), a cultural heritage and is beneficial to establishing leisure facilities (Kowalik, 2001, pp. 18-19).
- 5) Urban development. All cities in the world suffer from similar problems relating to the high density of population. A large number of dwellings in a small area, effects of urban transportation, providing central heating and access to running water as well as managing enormous amounts of waste are urban problems particularly difficult to resolve (Kalinowska, 1994, pp. 51-52). Air in cities is highly polluted

which in conjunction with humidity of air and accumulation of clouds results in the occurrence of the so-called smog.

- 6) Transport. Transport is mainly dependent on the utilization of the fossil fuels (oil, petroleum gas or coal). The use of renewable sources of energy (biogas or solar energy) is extremely limited. Each type of transport utilizing fossil fuels influences environment and generates pollution. Train transport dominated the initial stages of industrialization, and then the era of cars came completely revolutionizing transport and offering comfort and versatility. Unfortunately it came at the expense of resigning from the energy savings and environmental protection (Ostrach, 2013). Each car emits nitrous oxide, carbon oxide and hydrocarbon. Internal combustion engines emit lead and the surplus of lead in organism is the cause of numerous diseases.

All of the problems and threats to ecosystem plaguing contemporary world listed hereinabove require undertaking rational and long-term actions in order to minimize damage and halt its progression. Aside from the dangers we are aware of, new, equally threatening hazards, yet undiscovered by humanity, may surface (Johansson, 1997, p. 29).

“Balanced development” is one of the most common methods of countering environmental threats. This term arose in the 20th century. It was formulated in the 1987 report by the United Nations Commission on Environment and Development. In this document balanced development is described as a development enabling satisfying of the current needs which is simultaneously not detrimental to future generations. This term was used for the first time to a greater extent during the first Earth Summit „Environment and development”, which took place in 1992 in Rio de Janeiro (Płachciak, 2009, p. 197). Two issues are key parts of its definition:

- 1) Human needs which should be satisfied with unconditional priority (particularly in the case of pauper population)
- 2) The awareness of the limitations imposed on the environment and its ability to satisfy current and future needs imposed by the development of technology and organization of societies.

The World Summit 1992 report indicates, among other factors, the necessity to perceive universal connections between technological development and environment in global contexts. Only such a holistic approach enables us to attempt to anticipate long-term effects of various technological decisions and plan development along the desired course (Papuziński, 2005, p. 31). The result of the Rio de Janeiro summit is the periodical meetings between environmentalists and the world's leaders and other people of power and importance conducted in order to plan long- and short-term actions aimed at improving the condition of global environment. The most recent of such conferences took place in Katowice in 2018.

3. The analysis of the results of the conducted research

The subject research was conducted between October and November 2017 in the Radom sub-region located in Central Poland. It is part of a greater project devoted to the environmental education which is currently in progress. The method of diagnostic poll through survey was used. The sample group consisted of 104 randomly selected pupils from grades IV-VIII. All of the respondents are inhabitants of the rural areas. The schools where research was conducted were also located in rural areas. The group consisted of 48 boys (46,15% of the respondents) and 56 girls (53,85% of the respondents).

The survey touched upon the environmental subjects and issues relating to the respondents' everyday lives. The following problems served as the indicators for the exploratory studies:

- What are the most important environmental problems known to pupils?
- Are pupils applying their knowledge of environment in everyday life?

Answering the first question, the respondents listed, in their opinion, the most important environmental problems in the world. The gathered data indicates that among the pupils the most well known global environmental problems are: air pollution and deforestation. It is important to note that girls more frequently indicated air pollution (in 85,7% of answers) as the most important problem whereas boys indicated deforestation as the most important problem (in 83,3% of answers). Additionally, boys more often than girls indicated: soil contamination, climate changes and other threats to environment including, similarly to girls, establishing nuclear power plants. In summary, the data analysis suggests that boys are more aware than girls of the existing threats actively endangering ecosystems.

The next group of questions was supposed to ascertain how pupils apply the basic rules of environmentally-friendly lifestyle in their everyday life. In the case of water conservation through reduction of unintended water losses answers indicate that only 3,6% of girls are aware of and react to the problem. Boys are able to notice this problem more often (in 12,5% of cases) but the results are still abysmal. The boys' greater awareness may be the result of the fact that sometimes they may attempt to fix a leaking tap or assist someone who is fixing it. The types of packaging and containers most often used during shopping were also enquired about. The analysis of the results suggests that in the studied rural environment the media appeal to use reusable bags has been met with approval in numerous households. In this question the respondents were allowed to indicate several answers. 83,3% of boys and 71,4% of girls claimed that in their homes reusable, sturdy canvas bags are most often being used for shopping. Single-use plastic bags are often being used for shopping in homes of 25% of boys and 28,6% of girls. Paper bags are systematically used in households of 8,3% of boys and 14,3% of girls. Despite the results we must underline that single-use plastic bags are still popular among shoppers and that in rural areas paper bags are much less popular than in western countries. The main factor deciding the choice of a shopping bag is its price.

Another researched issue was the frequency of engaging in conversations concerning the environment in homes of the respondents. The results indicate that there is a rather high discrepancy in the frequency of environment-related conversation dependant on the respondents' gender. Girls discuss the environment-related problems almost twice as often as boys (14,3% vs. 8,3%). The answer "sometimes, under the influence of media" was indicated only slightly more often by girls (50%) than boys (41,7%) but the answer "very rarely" was indicated by nearly half of boys (45,8%) and only 25% of girls. However, we must note that the number of houses in which the subject of environment is never touched upon is higher in the case of girls (10,7%) than boys (4,2%). Inhabitants of rural areas, focused on managing farms and homesteads, rarely discuss the subject of the protection of environment. These subjects surface in conjunction with the implementation of the European Union directives imposing certain procedures in farming but the environment-related subjects are rarely touched upon in casual conversations.

The next researched aspect was the knowledge of the rules of environmentally-friendly waste segregation. Astonishingly high number of respondents was unable to indicate proper containers for the listed types of waste. Only 4,17% of boys and 14,29% of girls were able to indicate the right answers. It suggests that pupils' knowledge in this area is lacking and

it would be appropriate to expand and revise it. Children in rural areas rarely put waste in designated containers. It may be so due to the fact that in many household waste and garbage are being burned. In this area further research is needed to better diagnose the problem. The amount of study material concerning waste segregation available in each researched school was significant. Pupils were asked whether waste is being segregated in their homes. The provided answers indicate that in numerous homes not enough attention is being paid to the issue of waste segregation. Only in 20,8% of boys' homes and 35,7% of girls' homes waste is being properly segregated into waste paper, glass waste and plastics. When waste is not properly segregated the process of recycling is very difficult.

In the following part of the survey pupils were asked if they participated in events relating to the problems of environmental protection. The most popular event among the pupils of the schools in rural areas is "Cleaning up the World" in which 100% of boys and 96,4% of girls participate. Slightly fewer pupils participate in the Earth Day (96% of girls and 91% of boys). A great many respondents collected waste paper (92% of girls, 83,3% of boys) and had heard about competitions concerning the issues of environment protection (82,1% of girls and 91,7% of boys). Almost half of the pupils from the schools in rural areas supplementally feed animals (53,6% of girls and 41,7% of boys). It is also worth of note that a certain number of respondents (29,2% of boys and 64,3% of girls) indicated a form of environmental activity not listed among the answers – collecting used batteries. Children's interest and enthusiasm to participate in such actions can be explained by the activity of teachers and staff of the schools in rural areas who are rather fond of organizing such events.

In the next question the respondents were answering the question concerning the preferred method of dish-washing in their homes. The object of this question was to examine and ascertain whether the respondents are being taught how to manage and conserve water. According to the research, in the homes of more than a half of the girls (53,6%) dishes are being washed in the sink filled with water (an environmentally friendly method enabling to significantly reduce the amount of water used in dish-washing) but only 28,6% of boys admitted that this method is used in their homes. However, boys more often than girls answered that in their homes a dishwasher is used (a machine which allows for a significant reduction of the amount of water used). Boys also admitted to the least desirable method from the environmental point of view, dish-washing under running water, in 45,8% of cases. In the case of girls' homes, dishwashers are used in 17,9% of households and the dishes are being washed under running water in 28,6% of homes. Next, the pupils were the dishes about the most environmentally friendly form of taking baths. Both girls and boys answered similarly. The decisive majority of respondents (85,7 % of girls and 79,2 % of boys) answered that showers are the best method of bathing which allows for the most efficient use of water and therefore – contribute to the desirable pro-environmental actions.

Pupils were also asked how often they drop litter (crisps and sweets packaging, etc.) in places where it is forbidden to do so (on pavements, lawns) instead of putting it into litter bin. Respondents were also supposed to determine the frequency of such behavior. None of the surveyed children admitted to littering daily but 16,7% of boys and 10,7% of girls admitted to doing it at least once a week. 7,1% of girls admitted to littering at least once a month and none of the surveyed boys chose this option. Approximately 40% of all respondents claimed to never litter in places where it is forbidden to do so. We must further add that 45,8% of boys and 39,3% of girls drop litter on a lawn or on a sidewalk only when litter bins are unavailable.

It demonstrates that children from rural areas are aware that their improper actions may cause harm to the natural environment.

The next surveyed issue concerned the problem of wasting electric energy through leaving electric appliances turned on – and the frequency of such behavior. The respondents were asked how often they happen to waste electric energy and to assess the frequency of such behavior. When analyzing the included bar chart we may notice that girls more often (in 42,9% of cases) than boys (barely 8,3% of cases) leave electric appliances such as TV or phone charger needlessly turned on on a daily basis. Answers “once a week” and “once a month” were in both cases indicated by the same number of respondents (14,3% of girls and 25,0% of boys). Therefore it was established that boys attempt to conserve electric energy more often than girls. As much as 41,7% of boys indicated that they never leave electric appliances turned on needlessly whereas the same answer was indicated by 28,6% of girls.

The last question concerned the sources of knowledge relating to ecology and environmental protection which were available to respondents. 92,9% of girls and more than half of boys (54,2%) indicated the Internet as the primary source of knowledge. TV is a source of knowledge for 89,3% of girls and 83,3% of boys. Both sources listed above were probably selected due to their popularity in all homes and a far reaching range. Radio (64,3% of girls and 64,3% of boys) and press (53,6% of girls and 58,3% of boys) also provide a large amount of information. We may assume that respondents' answers in this area of research are fairly similar. It is however baffling that only 8,3% of boys indicated other sources of information than the ones listed whereas this option was chosen by 60,7% of girls. All respondents listed parents, peers and teachers as a supplementary source of environmental knowledge.

Conclusion

The conducted research proved that, in essence, children memorize and apply the knowledge about environment in everyday life.

The gross majority of pupils make use of their experience and environmental knowledge over the course of their daily routines and makes practice out of the theory of environment. The answers provided to the question of waste segregation were the most startling. We must assume that this result points to the need of filling this hole in the education of pupils in rural areas. It is important because due to the knowledge of the subject a high probability exists that pupils will in future segregate waste and thus protect the environment through the recycled use of resources. The following question concerning segregation of waste in pupils' homes confirmed that parents of the surveyed children do not feel the need to segregate waste and thus do not educate and inform children of this aspect of environmental protection. The results of research concerning conserving water and electric energy as well as the use of the reusable shopping bags indicate that pupils of schools in rural areas are largely well aware of what needs to be done to protect the environment. Furthermore, pupils in the rural areas are knowledgeable about the global ecological problems. They gather information from various sources, particularly from the Internet and TV. The analysis of the conducted research allows us to claim that environment protection consists not only of global, long term actions of which children from rural areas are aware of, but also of singular, everyday actions of individuals.

Everyone can influence what the earth will look like in the future and we are all responsible for it. Therefore it is important for us to know what to do to improve the state of the natural environment of our planet. It will be made possible thanks to, among other factors, constant monitoring of the pro-environmental behaviors in various social groups.

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