EDITORS:
ŁUKASZ TOMCZYK
ANDRZEJ RYK
JIRI PROKOP

**PROCEEDINGS
NEW TRENDS AND RESEARCH
CHALLENGES IN PEDAGOGY
AND ANDRAGOGY NTRCPA18**

DEPARTMENT OF SOCIAL PEDAGOGY AND ANDRAGOGY
PEDAGOGICAL UNIVERSITY OF CRACOW

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INTRODUCTION

On 8 February 2018, Charles University in Prague, Czech Republic, hosted a conference on challenges in the area of children, youth and adult education. This international scientific event was organized by the Institute of Educational Sciences of Pedagogical University of Cracow and the Faculty of Pedagogy of Charles University. The conference titled „New trends and research challenges in pedagogy and andragogy” met with great interest of researchers from Czech, Slovakia, Poland and Macedonia. During the seminar, 50 presentations were delivered by representatives from over a dozen of research centres, among them: Banská Bystrica, Bitoli, Cracow, Łódź, Poznań, Prague, Warsaw and Wrocław. It was one of many joint events organised through cooperation of universities from the Visegrad Group and partner Balkan scientific centres. The conference became a platform for exchanging methodological, didactic and organisational experiences. As a result, we present twenty papers which received positive evaluation by reviewers from: Czech, Finland, Spain, Macedonia, Slovakia, Poland and Ukraine. Thorough reviews enabled exchange of methodological comments, improving the final version of the publication.

This international volume begins with reflections by J. Prokop on the analysis of Czech education system in the perspective of exclusiveness category. Text that follows, by K. Potyrała's team from the Pedagogical University of Krakow, fits into general nature of pedagogical characteristics and presents responsibilities of teachers as researchers of educational processes. Another interesting issue: school interactions between parents and teachers, studied from the perspective of learning organisation — was discussed by N. Demeshkant and other authors from the Krakow university which specialises in education of teachers.

Positive aspects of learning and teaching process with use of new technologies were presented by L. Eger. Media pedagogy section is completed with two texts referring to the risk paradigm. First, authored by Ł. Tomczyk, presents the scale of digital piracy and conditions of this process; in the second one, M. Benes discusses the problem of online gambling. Security issues are discussed by two authors, J. Maciejewski and Z. Ludziejewski,

who focused on preparation of dispositional groups. This topic is particularly relevant as we observe that the scale civilisational threats in the area of safety is growing.

Andragogical part begins with the study by I. Pavlov and M. Skup into activities of adult educators in ethical perspective. The subsequent text, by A. Wąsiński and A. Górniok-Naglik, about self-creation as a factor supporting development of adult individuals also refers to andragogy-related issues. Professor M. Kryston and M. Sládkayová, discuss the issues of civic education, which are one of the priorities in modern andragogical reflection. Adult education is presented in a slightly different perspective by A. Domagała-Kręcioch and J. Wnęk-Gozdek. The authors show relations between adult education and educational processes in early childhood. Andragogical motives are also discussed in the next papers presenting: biographical determinants of decisions to study at a technical university (E. Mazurek, O. Vynoslavská) and conditions of participating in amateur choirs (A. Litawa). Finally, there is the study by A. Błachnio and A. Fabiś on satisfaction from life in late old age.

Another part of the post-conference monograph focuses on detailed presentations of problems in schools and local communities. This section begins with the study by Macedonian scholar, V. Gulevska, on inclusion model and homeless children. The next article refers to preventive knowledge about addictions, on the example of the research conducted by A. Vahova and J. Hanusova among students of Charles University in Prague. Bisera Kostadinovska-Stojcevska writes about the necessity of changes in language education system. Another important topic was also addressed by A. Sladek who presents the problem of expectations in labour market. This issue is particularly relevant due to still high level of unemployment among young people or “fresh graduates”. Another text by A. Vahova and J. Hanusova discusses the problem of preparing pedagogy students to diagnose cases of sexual abuse. The last paper in this school-related section, is the one by K. Bieńkowska on diagnostics of reading and hearing problems.

We hope this international publication will be received positively and we encourage you to participate in future editions of the international NTRCPA conference which we intend to organise in centres with similar prestige as Charles University in Prague.

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IS CZECH EDUCATION ELITIST?

Abstract: The Czech Republic shows some indications in the field of education, pointing to persistent elitism in connection to the functioning of the school system. The White Paper (2001), which was elaborated by a group of experts on education twenty years ago, has already been mentioned. Elitism manifests itself in areas such as (not) the introduction of inclusion during compulsory schooling. Another indicator is the model or type of school system itself when eleven-year-old Czech children are selected depending on whether they continue at elite or regular school.

Keywords: education, Czech Republic, elite, multi-year gymnasium, inclusion

At first, we need to clarify the definition of elitism. It is a borrowed term in the field of educational ideologies. For all of us, we can mention the categorization made by the well-known Upbringing Sociologist Cosin in the 1970s (Prokop, 2009, s. 36). He introduced a distinction between these ideological systems:

- elitist, conservative,
- rational, technocratic,
- romantic, egalitarian.

The differences between them can be summarized as following: Elitism is associated with the maintenance of binding standards of cultural supremacy through traditional selection methods. The technocratic, rational system mainly takes care of the professional usefulness of education. Romanticism focuses on the development of all innate abilities of the individual, egalitarianism relies on the principle that everyone has the same right to education and is capable of being educated.

In the current educational practice of the Czech Republic one can observe some indications that point to the elitist dimension of Czech education:

- For example, the Czech School Inspectorate points out this fact in its surveys: “There are great differences in the success of 15 year-olds among the schools. In the Czech Republic, the difference among schools is up to 45%. In the “best countries” like Finland, Singapore, Norway, it is up to 5%.

- Satisfaction of the professionals and the general public with the so-called classic school system. That means that in the case of compulsory schooling, approximately 10% of the pupil population is educated in elite eight-year grammar schools with graduation.
- The President of the Czech Republic said, at the session of the Parliament of the Czech Republic on the occasion of the vote on the government's confidence (December 2017): "Inclusion is a monster social experiment." And he mentioned the arguments: the disabled child will always be the last in the class. In special school, he sometimes experiences success. Worthless CZK 4 billion was already spent in the last year. He stated he respects the proposed Minister of Education due to his negative relationship to inclusion.
- It is very likely that broad inclusion (so-called "systemic inclusion support" since the school year of 2016/2017) will be very limited due to the political situation in the Czech Parliament. Chairman of the Education Committee of the Parliament of the Czech Republic Václav Klaus ml. is strongly opposed to inclusion, and the winning party ANO had it in its pre-election program as well as in the proposed government program.

The situation does not have to be so dramatic with inclusion. But at least we must count on the fact that the state will initially plan to save on inclusion, which may have the same effect as its abolition in the form introduced by the previous Minister of Education for the CSSD party Kateřina Valachová. Hence let's look a little closer to these selected indications of elitism in Czech education.

INDICATION: THE END OF INCLUSION?

Supporting the mutual education of all children or inclusion is not a very cheap matter. Until now it used two billion of the state budget. The tremendous funds went to pedagogical assistants. According to the Ministry of Education's analysis, their employment cost CZK 1.35 billion in the first year of inclusion. The Ministry has therefore prepared an amendment decree specifying the reasons when the school can employ an assistant. "The aim is not to limit the number of assistants, but the new decrees allow them to be classified into two grades depending on what kind of activity with the pupils they perform," the Ministry of Education stated, saying that the main goal is to achieve more efficient spending. The State should, for example, cease financing the so-called indirect pedagogical activity of assistants, which is reserved for contact with socially excluded families of pupils. And in one class there should be no more than four assistants, as now, but no more than three. The government approved the amendment and should enter into force at the beginning of 2018.

ASSISTANTS ARE NOT NEW

Who are teacher assistants and what do they do? They did not appear in school with the inclusion support in 2017, as many believe. In the last year, however, many of them were

added, due to a change in their funding. Many schools are now looking for them vehemently and sometimes even vainly.

Assistants (more often woman assistant) are dedicated to children with learning, behavioral, physical and/or mental disabilities. Thanks to them, these children can go to school co their homes. Their classmates recognize peers other than themselves and learn to get along with them. “The assistant helped a lot to Tomas, but also to the whole class. She arranged a course of communication for his classmates to be able to respond to him. Relationships in the class were also good thanks to that. The advantage was that Tomas came to school just as a first-grader when the children are still open and candid,” says Petra Jandová, mother of a boy with autism.

At first glance, it **seems that the teacher assistant is mainly the assistant of the pupil.** He spends most of the time with him, and his or her daily leadership determines whether a pupil with special educational needs will be able to learn at a regular school. “I’m in charge of Martin, a boy in the sixth grade,” says Ilona Pozníková, who re-qualified for this job after 20 years at the post office and works at the elementary school in Pelhřimov. “Martin is clever and interested in many things, but he needs someone to help keep his attention to what is being discussed, as well as practical help to deal with some tasks, such as drafting. I also check if he has the necessary aid, and I walk him to classes and lunch. “ However, **the co-operation of an assistant with a teacher is absolutely crucial.** “They act together in one class, and when there is no interaction between them, even when they don’t get along as people, or if the presence of another adult makes the teacher uncomfortable, it can not work even if the assistant is the most competent professional,” says Vladimír Foist, an expert on inclusive education from the Office of the Government of the Czech Republic. “This aspect of the inclusion of school assistants has not yet been addressed.”

In 2014, according to the School Weekly, a quarter of Czech schools had experience with assistants. The Ministry of Education has recorded the presence of assistants in schools since 2011. Older data is not available, but experts and witnesses say the first assistants came to Czech schools in the late 1990s. The possibility of parallel action of two pedagogical staff in one class was established in 1997 by a decree on special schools and special kindergartens. Teachers’ assistants were young people at that time as a substitute for military service

The status of assistants was amended by the Education Act of 2004, effective since 2005. Until 2005, they were not paid from the state budget, but from school grants, or from grants from non-profit organizations. Sometimes the salary was paid by the parents. In this case, their status is referred to as a “personal assistant”. It could have been like this: “For the first two years, we obtained an assistant for my son Tomas through a non-profit organization and paid for her ourselves,” says Petra Jandova. “The third year the assistant was partially paid by the school, and the rest was paid by us through a donation. Our assistant, Alena, was then more integrated into school activities until she got the full-time job paid by the school. We just gave her something for herself. “

EVERYBODY TO THE SCHOOL IN THE CATCHMENT AREA

The School Act effective from January 1st 2005 brought change. It specified that all children, including those with special educational needs, **have the right to admission in the school catchment**. For twelve years, the school has been required not only to receive the pupil but also to ensure maximum support for his education - including an assistant if the pedagogical-psychological counseling clinic evaluates that his condition requires it. The Ministerial Decree of the same year added that the school may draw from the state budget for the salary of an assistant.

However, schools have often failed to do this, because they were short on money. Money for schools was allocated by the counties, but often very modestly, so they covered only two hours of assistant work a day. The rest of the salary has had to be found by the principal somewhere else, and sometimes the money had to be drawn from the budget dedicated to the personal evaluation of teachers. This, of course, was not a popular move. "From 2014 to 2016, our school managed to pay only 62 percent of the cost of the assistant from the state budget. In 2014, it was only 46 percent. Many schools had experienced a similar situation, and we were solving the difficult task of managing the activity from other sources. In our case, the founder contributed in that period, and the rest was drawn from projects and grants," says Vladimír Foist, former long-time director of the elementary school. In such situation, most schools did not care for children who needed the assistants, and the reluctant attitude was reasoned with "there is no money" or eventually that there is no money and class teachers don't dare to take pupils with special needs into their classroom. A fundamental change in the system was brought by **the amendment to the Education Act**, which entered into force on **September 1st, 2016**. **Schools now have the right to fund the salaries of assistants**, in full extent of their involvement. Financial support follows a pupil with special educational needs to any school, whereas only special and practical schools have been fully eligible for it before that date.

Then the Minister of Education Kateřina Valachová named the problem and its solution in Respekt's article as follows: "The practical school received automatically more money from the state than the normal primary school. In addition, the parent was not sure that the child would actually receive support from a regular school. Although the school and the parents applied for it, the county could decide not to admit the aforementioned assistant. We do not take away any funds from practical and special schools. Under the new law, we only provide the same money for a child, whether it's in regular or special education. That is fair."

ASSISTANT FOR 18,000 GROSS

At the end of the school year 2016/17, **11 038** teachers' assistants were employed in public primary and secondary schools and recalculated to full-time jobs. Many of them do not have a full-time job, so the total is higher. The full-time workgroup index is around

18,000 crowns gross. Assistants are often only offered part-time jobs, depending on the child's diagnosis. In addition to poor financial ratings, there is also an uncertain perspective. Most assistants have fixed-term employment contracts. The Pedagogical - psychological counseling centers and special pedagogical centers periodically review the special educational needs of children and the use of the teacher's assistant is being dependent on their goodwill. No wonder many schools are looking for the assistants sorely.

The salary is low, but the entitlements are relatively high. Teacher assistant must have a secondary education with graduation and corresponding pedagogical education - a secondary, higher vocational school or university focused on pedagogy, or at least a qualification course for the teacher's assistants. Many skilled people apply for this job, but then it depends on the principal's skills and his ability to keep them the school. "Finding qualified people have been quite successful. We have tried to offer them some perspective and to variegate their difficult job, to involve them in the team and the school life. We were complementing their time with other school activities they could cover," says Vladimir Foist. "I had a good experience with students of pedagogical faculties, although it was clear that their role in this job would be only temporary."

Such a temporary assistant is Julie Medová. At the end of September, she started at an elementary school in Chodov, Prague. "When I finish my studies, I would like to take the place of a school psychologist who will be leaving the school. I still need to finish my dissertation thesis, so the principal asked me if I want to tap the terrain at school as a teacher assistant. Which was a good idea. "Julie works as a shared full-time assistant for 17 250 crowns gross. "I'm helping three children in three different classes. There is at least one child in each class who needs some level of assistance." Perhaps the faculty of pedagogy could send students in the last year of school for practice as school assistants. Students would thus acquire the necessary skills they often lack at the end of their school and the state would economize.

It is true that some mentally or mentally challenged children go to normal schools - it has always been the case. Something else is broadly chasing kids here or there (according to what is politically in fashion) because every case and every child is different. It is being discussed whether larger victims are the disabled children, normal children or teachers smothered in endless bureaucracy and extra work. One of the major victims of inclusion is pedagogic-psychological counseling (PPP). Something that has been excellent in our countries, a decade-long tradition. Something that the world (and other school systems) could envy us. Every citizen of the Czech Republic could have taken a child, who struggled in school or had other difficulties to a specialist and would have been given the help, advice, and a context, free of charge. At the same time cooperation with school happened without greater bureaucracy.

By introducing inclusion, counseling centers (PPPs) have become some bureaucratic centers that condition supporting resources and individual plans. They are supposed to become a kind of force-pushing inclusion - to indicate schools to the school inspection. Tons of bureaucracy has caused overloading of counselors, and the statutory deadlines reached four months for examination now. Previously, it was days.

SUMMARY:

- Systemic **inclusion support** has proceeded at Czech schools since the school year of 2016/2017.
- According to the latest data from the Ministry of Education, there are **11 038 teachers' assistants** in Czech schools (full-time equivalent). Most of them work in elementary schools. For comparison, there are 73 405 teachers working at primary schools according to Statistical Yearbook.
- For the first year of inclusion support, **3600 assistants were added to schools**, that cost **CZK 1.35 billion**.
- The **average salary** of a full-time pedagogical assistant is **CZK 18 000**.
- In total, the inclusion has cost **CZK 2.04 billion** since its introduction.
- In addition to supporting assistants, schools may ask for special textbooks and aids.
- **26 946 disabled or socially disadvantaged children** reached some of the support measures in the last school year.

Indication: Selection of the Czech education system in the form of multi-year grammar schools (state-guaranteed institutions of social mobility).

SHOULD WE PRESERVE OR ABOLISH MULTI-YEAR GRAMMAR SCHOOLS?

Multi-year grammar schools are attended by pupils with more stimulating family backgrounds. 68 percent of pupils in grammar schools are pupils from the two highest socioeconomic groups, while primary schools have only 28 percent of pupils with highly stimulating family backgrounds. The average socio-economic status of 60 percent of multi-year grammar schools is created by pupils from the top fifth of families according to “cultural capital”, and another third of multi-year grammar schools contains pupils from the second fifth (on average). On the contrary, two-thirds of primary schools are in the two lowest fifths of the socio-economic status of pupils.

Certainly interesting. Basically, the overwhelming part of multi-year grammar schools concentrates the pupils from families that are socially and economically well-off, while most elementary schools concentrate pupils whose families fall below the average if expressed by the same indicator. These are conclusions from the CLoSE (Czech Longitudinal Study in Education), which was recently published by a team of scientists from the Institute of Research and Development at the Faculty of Education, Charles University in Prague. These are so far unique and highly important dates and findings. Together with other previously published research findings, they describe both the composition of pupils at multi-year grammar schools and elementary schools, but also - and this is very significant - the added value of multi-year grammar schools and elementary schools (Straková, 2017).

CREATING A SENSE OF ELITE POSITION

Multi-year grammar schools, which offer mostly eight-year studies (after the graduation of 5th grade of primary school) and less common six-year-studies (after completing the seventh grade of primary school), are of high interest among parents. Everything is also influenced by the possibilities (by the number of schools within reach). Thus we can read from Cerma; the organization providing broad admission examinations for the schools with graduation; that in Prague, where the concentration of multi-year grammar schools is the highest, 34 percent of 5th-grade pupils apply for eight-year grammar school. This is often more than twice as many as regions, where the possibilities of studying at multi-year gymnasiums are not so accessible.

On average, 10% of children are studying at the grammar schools in the Czech Republic. This is by no means merely a regional imbalance in access to study. This is especially the socio-economic status, which is the main determinant of entry into elite schools. As the citation from the final report shows, children from a socially and economically stimulating environment concentrate on multi-year gymnasiums, while in primary schools at secondary level, there are on average the children, who grow up in families of average and below average social status. Through the public education system, there is an effective selection of children at age 10 and then 12, according to the social key. In other words, the public education system leads to dividing a tenth of the children from society and creating a sense of elite standing.

Let us seek some legitimacy in this state. Why should the state secure and pay for such concept? Is it really necessary for the state to provide such service for a family with sufficient or rather high cultural capital to protect this privilege in the next generation? It is not enough that such family is able to - thanks to cultural capital - ensure the reproduction of "good living" for its next generation alone? Yes, there is a degree of legitimacy here. The state should take care of the education and upbringing of its social elites and the purpose of the multi-year gymnasium should be to concentrate such elites. But not based on the social and economic status of the family, but on the basis of prerequisites for study. Yet, it does not happen. Jana Straková, one of the researchers involved in CLoSE, previously stated for Aktuálně.cz that according to the findings, the admission of the children to multi-year grammar school is not based on their talent, but on their parents' ambitions. Mostly because gifted children (detected based on match test) do not apply to the grammar school, and not all of those who do, get in.

Even if the multi-year grammar school attracts and chooses according to study assumptions, there is one more problem. CLoSE shows that the notion of "better education" at multi-year gymnasiums does not apply. Multi-grammar schools do not provide their pupils with a higher added value than primary schools. In other words, a gifted child at a grammar school may not automatically get a better support for developing his / her assumptions than an elementary school. There are, of course, differences across multi-year

grammar schools and elementary schools. In both cases, there are schools above average and below average. The difference does not lie in their quality, but in the fact that groups of children differ significantly. And their results - demonstrably much better on multi-year gymnasiums - explain the family background, not the added value of the school. The fact that elite schools do not provide the necessary value added in education is not at all unique. This has also been proven by the MIT research conducted on Boston and New York School graduates. When researchers later examined the graduates' success in studying at universities, the value added of elite schools was not proven.

CONCLUSION

The Czech education system is in many ways elitist. Already in the second half of the 1990s, the Czech Republic received a recommendation from the OECD to abolish the multi-year grammar school. This was accounted by the White Paper, a strategic document on the development of education in 2001. The authors also called for "pro-congressional" interventions in the Czech school system (White Paper, 2001). The Education Policy Strategy 2020 aims to reduce the formal differentiation in the education system, which is what the multi-year grammar school and the inclusion limitation are doing. But for twenty years nothing has been happening because evidently, this situation is suitable for those who can decide. When deciding where to submit children, there is a multi-year grammar school with a "better" society.

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TEACHER AS RESEARCHER – FROM THE TRANSFERER OF KNOWLEDGE TO THE LEADER OF SCIENTIFIC RESEARCH

Abstract: The teacher's role in the didactic process is changing due to the new needs of learners, new educational tools and new communication possibilities. The teacher is more and more often perceived as the leader of a group of students, a guide in the learning process. In order to improve his/her competences, the teacher should not only broaden his substantive knowledge but also pedagogic knowledge concerning the broadly understood educational process. Therefore, the teacher should use the latest developed results of pedagogical and didactic research. The analysis of the developed research results is an important element of teacher's professional development. The next stage to achieve professionalism and become a leader is to engage in the research process regarding broadly defined education where the search for answers and analysis of results affect the development and attitude of the teacher, student and the environment where this process takes place.

The aim of the research was to determine teachers' knowledge of pedagogical research, the ability to plan educational research and their attitudes towards teachers' participation in pedagogical and education research. The hypothesis assuming that there is an urgent need to train teachers in this field and to develop their research attitude was tested based

on a diagnostic survey carried out using the Likert attitude scale among 586 teachers from different levels of education. The results of the research allow the development of proposals for the teacher trainings in the field of the research methodology.

Keywords: teachers, methodology of the research, pedagogy, competences

INTRODUCTION

The idea of motivating teachers to conduct research in their own schools is not new. In 1950 there was a strong research movement in the United States in the field of teachers' participation in research conducted by universities and the independent organization of the research process by teachers in order to improve their own educational and work techniques (Corey, 1949). In this context, quantitative research based on an experiment aimed at solving various types of educational problems was usually used. In addition, both the teacher and the researcher testing various educational theories should be more and more often present in various educational institutions (Hodgkinson, 1957, pp. 138–9) due to the fact that, as Santa (1990) claimed in the 1990s, conducting educational research „is our key to educational change and authority.” and teacher research is the surest way to achieve change leading to school improvement (Hopkins, 1993; Hollingsworth & Miller, 1994), as well as teacher research is the best way to achieve lasting change in education (Olson, 1990). Buckingham (1926, p. 379) claims that “the field of educational research should not be viewed as the exclusive domain of research professionals: the field of research has no limits other than those of education itself. Indeed research is not really a field at all. It is a method; it is a point of view”, then Wolfe (1989) adds that “teachers often leave a mark on their students, but they seldom leave a mark on their profession”. Through the conducting of the process and using products of several actions, research teachers will do both.

The development of research in the field of pedagogy has an impact on stimulating educational practices and didactic innovations. Getting to know new research procedures in empirical research is a part of the teacher's work on every level of education. According to Olson and Wyett (2000), the school's aim is both efficient control of the teaching-learning process and upbringing, also, teachers are obliged - apart from improving pupils' knowledge and skills - to motivate students to develop social competences and the ability to interpret the surrounding reality. Therefore, teachers' attitude to developing their own professional competences should be based on the conviction that there is the need to initiate changes in their work and permanent substantive, didactic and educational development (Colbert et.al., 2008; Shagrir, 2011; Pitsoe and Maila, 2012; Marshall, 2014). Contemporary times generate the need to improve competences which will enable teachers reflective participation in the construction of the educational process and undertaking such activities that will broaden the perspectives of considering many phenomena that are important in terms of education and pedagogy, especially among members of society directly connected

with the education of the young generation (Petress, 2003, Saunders, 2009, Soponaru et.al., 2016). Initiating changes in the students' and teachers' ways of thinking is related to the active participation of the latter in improving educational practices, understanding the social and pedagogical circumstances which are the elements of school functioning, assessing individual and collective aspects forming the personality of the educational process participants (Petress, 2003; Saunders, 2009; Ghamrawi, 2013; Marshall, 2014; Pella, 2015).

Moreover, as Gaysina (2015) and Collay (2006) claim, professionalism at work is reflected in openness to transformations of reality and new ways of development as well as involvement in the organization of the teaching-learning process and development of research attitude that allows to perceive scientific problems in the field of pedagogy and willingness to participate in the initiation of activities for the responsible improvement of their workshop and the organization of the teaching-learning process.

Teachers, in order to meet the requirements of the 21st century, must develop their skills and broaden their knowledge in a given field of science, and thus develop their own tools to support the course of the teaching-learning process. This is often caused by technological progress, constantly developing school infrastructure and the necessity to use innovative teaching methods (Schleicher, 2012; Dumont et al., 2010). If the 21st century requires new skills from students, then as a consequence, teachers should also broaden their skills, strive for continuous personal development, which is possible, among other things, by conducting research, the results of which guide further development and the course of the teaching-learning process. As a consequence, improving the quality of teaching is still one of the main goals of education (Vaillant, 2009).

It is worth paying attention to the necessity of a multi-dimensional approach to the teacher's qualifications and competences because their collective approach will always not be sufficient enough due to the evolutionary scope of socio-professional requirements for teachers. Therefore, it is necessary to disseminate the results of pedagogical research covering the issues of prospective qualifications, which will give teachers the possibility to take up and implement forthcoming educational tasks in a modern school (Sikorski, 2006). According to Eurydyce Raport (2016), the needs of the pedagogical environment could be determined in a more precise way by taking into account opinions of the teachers. Therefore, an irreplaceable role in this process is played by pedagogical research which aim is to listen to the opinions of teachers and schools in the process of identifying educational needs. As Efron (2005) writes, it is important that teachers are inclined to get to know themselves by asking questions about their work, scientific cognition and the importance of objective measurement. On the other hand, research is a practical tool that allows practitioners to research in action. According to the Report on the state of education (Paczuska and Szpotowicz, 2014: 218), a good teacher is an innovator, researcher and reflective practitioner. He/she is an educator who is able to follow his/her actions with evaluation, interpretation and critical insight into their determinants, as well as maintain interest and skilfully perform analysis of these changes by the means of research in action.

The teacher-researcher is a participant of the study, together with his students develops and implements the subsequent stages of the research, draws conclusions and gathers data for undertaking further activities aimed at modernizing the didactic process.

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

The aim of the research was to determine teachers' knowledge of pedagogical research, the ability to plan educational research and their attitudes towards teachers' participation in pedagogical and education research.

A hypothesis was formulated assuming that there is an urgent need to develop teachers' research attitude and train them in the field of current pedagogical and educational research.

The research was carried out in the years 2016–2018 using a diagnostic survey with the Likert attitude scale technique among 586 teachers from various levels of education (women accounted for 86% of the surveyed population and men 14%; the largest group were Polish language teachers (10%), and with reference to the educational level – lower secondary school teachers (37%). The diagnostic survey questionnaire containing 10 statements and 6 questions regarding the reasons for which teachers search for the results of pedagogical research and how to use them was answered by the respondents was used.

Survey results were collected in the program Excel, and then developed with statistical calculations and graphical presentation use. For this purpose, in accordance with the instructions from Dell Inc. (2016) descriptive statistics and tests were used: Kruskal-Wallis, Mann-Whitney U test, Spearman's rank correlation. A detailed analysis was carried out in three parts:

- descriptive analysis of the surveys was carried out for both the entire data set and the division into groups
- correlation between individual questions
- tests of significance of differences between responses to individual questions in different groups:
- the independent variable (grouping) "teaching subject" Kruskal-Wallis test was applied
- the independent variable (grouping) "educational level" Kruskal-Wallis Test was applied
- the Mann-Whitney U test was applied to the sex variable (with continuity correction)
- the independent variable (grouping) "internship" Kruskal-Wallis test was applied.

SELECTED RESULTS

Regarding the issue of the usefulness of pedagogical research in teacher's work, 45% of respondents answered *definitely yes*, 44% answered *rather yes*, and only 1% think

that conducting such research is useless. Over half of the respondents confirmed that teachers should get acquainted with the results of pedagogical research on a regular basis. In turn, 80% declared that teachers should take an active part in pedagogical research planning. According to the respondents, the reliability of the pedagogical research results depends on the entity that performs them - over 70% confirmed that the most reliable research is conducted by pedagogical universities. In turn, 85% of respondents declared that the analysis of pedagogical research results helps teachers to solve didactic and educational problems. Unfortunately, only 8% of respondents are keen to participate in pedagogical research, and 25% are willing to do so (chart 1). Teachers, therefore, use the results of pedagogical research and follow what is happening in the educational / pedagogical space, but the research attitude is somewhat unfamiliar to them - they follow the results of research, they perceive them as important, but they do not want to personally / directly have something to say in the world of science. It is difficult, therefore, to hope that teachers of this type are able to engraft this research attitude in their students.

Chart 1. Summary of statements depending on the answers given - overlay chart of many variables presenting percentage responses to particular statements (statement 1. Pedagogical research is useful for teachers-practitioners; statement 2. Teacher should become familiar with the results of pedagogical research; statement 3. Teachers should take part in the planning of pedagogical research, statement 5. Teachers are more inclined to accept the results of research conducted by pedagogical universities than other institutions, statement 6. Analysis of pedagogical research results helps the teacher to solve didactic and educational problems, statement 7. Teachers willingly participate in pedagogical research).

Exemplary interpretation of the results for the Mann-Whitney U test

The results of respondents' answers (depending on sex) to the statement *Pedagogical research is useful for teachers-practitioners* (tables 1 and 2).

Table 1. Mann-Whitney U test results

Test U Manna-Whitneya	Sum.rang	Sum. rang	U	Z	p	Z	p	N	N
Q. 1	148589	21064.00	17578.00	2.21	0.03	2.43	0.02	499.00	83.00

The p value for the adjusted Mann-Whitney U test of 0.02 - this value is higher than the standard assumed level of significance 0.05, so we can bear out the zero hypothesis saying that the level of the studied phenomenon in both groups is the same.

Table 2. Descriptive statistics for the Mann-Whitney U test

	Avg.	Valid	Q25	Median	Q75
Woman	4.36	499.00	4.00	4.00	5.00
Man	4.14	83.00	4.00	4.00	5.00
Total	4.33	582.00	4.00	4.00	5.00

Table 2 contains basic statistics for both groups tested. This is illustrated in more detail in histogram 1.

Histogram 1 contains basic statistics for both groups studied. Men more often responded *rather yes* and women *definitely yes* to the statement *Pedagogical research is useful for teachers-practitioners* thus confirming the respondents' opinion on the usefulness of analyzing the results of pedagogical research by teachers.

The box-whisker chart for the median (Chart 2) illustrates the average level of responses given in each group. The analysis of the results in relation to subjects taught by the respondents showed that the independent variable (grouping) - the subject taught in relation to the question *Teachers should participate in the planning of pedagogical research* presents respondents' answers depending on the subject taught. The median is 4; respondents answered that teachers should participate in the planning of pedagogical research - they answered "rather yes" - regardless of the subject they teach. The median equals 5 and this is a special case in which the group of respondents consisted of Polish, Art and Social Studies teachers.

Histogram 1. Distribution of responses in the surveyed groups of respondents categories with regard to sex

The analysis of the results in relation to the levels of teaching on which respondents teach showed that, for example, in relation to the statement that teachers are more inclined to accept the results of research conducted by pedagogical universities than other institutions, respondents answered: “I have no opinion”, “rather yes” and “definitely yes”. At the same time, it should be noted that respondents - secondary school teachers definitely more often responded “definitely yes” (histogram 2).

Histogram 3 the number of observations broken down into the work experience of individual teachers shows that the respondents answered “rather yes” and “definitely yes” regardless of job seniority, so respondents are more likely to accept the results of research conducted by pedagogical universities than other institutions.

Out of 586 teachers, 32 conduct research in various aspects of education. However, in this group 7 teachers conduct their own research developed according to their own research concept and methodology - the course of the research procedure is however supported by university centres educating future teachers. What is more, 25 teachers actively participate in research carried out by pedagogical universities, but they are not the main authors of the research and methodology concept - but they have had an impact on the creation of project concepts and the course of the research procedure. Details on the teacher-researcher group are provided in Table 3.

Chart 2. Analysis of results in relation to subjects taught by respondents - statement 3. Teachers should participate in planning pedagogical research

Histogram 2. Analysis of the results concerning the levels of education taught by respondents in relation to statement 5 - Teachers are more inclined to accept the results of research conducted by pedagogical universities than other institutions

Histogram 3. Analysis of results in relation to seniority of respondents concerning statement 6 - Analysis of pedagogical research results helps the teacher in solving didactic and educational problems

Table 3. Details of 32 teachers-researchers regularly conducting educational research

			Number of teachers	Comments
1.	Conducting scientific research in their school	yes	32	Among 32 teachers who conduct research in their school there are also those who conduct research outside of school, in places such as: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • universities • PAN • Internet • Training centres • Research groups • Cultural institutions
2.	Type of research carried out	educational, pedagogical, subject didactics	32	Among 32 teachers, 10 also conduct laboratory research (exact and natural sciences)

			Number of teachers	Comments
3.	The main issue to which research relates	transformation of the content of education	2	These are the main, but not the only issues related to the research conducted by teachers-researchers - each of the studies is interdisciplinary
		learning methods	2	
		the impact of modern technology on the way content is presented	4	
		students' attitudes towards social issues	4	
		laboratory tests in the field of exact sciences	4	
		laboratory tests in the field of natural sciences	6	
		students and new media	7	
		ICT in education	3	
4.	Interdisciplinarity of research		32	Education + substantive knowledge in a given field of science; in the case of 15 teachers, inclusion of ICT tools in the research as a research object or research tool
5.	Independent conducting of research	yes	0	None of the teachers-researchers conducts research independently - each of them cooperates with a scientific institution, cultural institution, local community or teachers from their school
6.	Conducting research in cooperation with a scientific unit	yes	32	Each of 32 teachers-researchers cooperates with a scientific unit, but 7 of them are the main authors of the research and treat the scientific unit as an advisory body on substantive and methodological issues and a co-researcher; in turn, 25 teachers-researchers are actively involved in scientific research conducted by pedagogical universities

			Number of teachers	Comments
7.	The benefits of conducting research	comprehensive development of teachers and students the use of the results in improving the quality of education modernization of educational methods raising the level of substantive knowledge in a given field of science usefulness of the research impact on the teaching methods used and the general course of the didactic process tracking new trends in education drawing attention to the quality and direction of teachers' professional development a critical approach to planning scientific and didactic activities	32	Each of 32 teachers-researchers emphasized the important role of conducting research by teachers in raising the substantive and social competences of all participants of the educational process; conducting research was recognized by them as a way to gradually update their knowledge in a given field of science, improve their professional skills and general human development as a conscious member of the knowledge society
8.	Knowledge of the methodology of research	the main creator of the methodology	7	Basing on the advice of science centres, they created their own concept
		involved in the creation of the methodology	25	They considered the methodology as a very difficult element in the creation of a research project and only participated in supporting the concept created by scientific centres
9	Raising the effectiveness of education in school where the teacher-researcher works thanks to the results of his research	yes	32	
10.	Interest in conducting research independently	yes	32	From the remaining 554 respondents, 18 expressed their willingness to conduct research on their own

			Number of teachers	Comments
11.	Interest in conducting research in cooperation with a scientific unit	yes	32	From the remaining 554 respondents, 232 expressed their willingness to conduct research in cooperation with a scientific unit
	Interest in using the results of research conducted by other teachers	yes	32	From the remaining 554 respondents, 550 expressed their willingness to use the results of research conducted by other teachers
12.	Research is part of a wider project carried out by a larger team of teachers from the teacher-researcher school	yes	30	
		no	2	

CONCLUSION

The development of teachers should be implemented based on systematic and comprehensive tracking of pedagogical research results. Reliable interpretation of the test results depends on the entity conducting the research and formulating conclusions.

Teachers are more inclined to accept the results of research conducted by pedagogical universities than other institutions. Understanding the need to track the results of pedagogical research is one of the criteria for teachers' professional development and the evolution of their own educational practices, which also gives an opportunity for active cooperation of teachers with academic environment conducting research in the field of didactics. It enables more effective perception of a number of educational problems and organization of teaching-learning process.

Results of the research enable the development of proposals for the education of teachers involved in the research process, which may contribute to increasing the effectiveness of teaching.

Teachers willingly use the results of pedagogical research and scientific reports in the field of education, stressing that they are important to them, but the attitude of the teacher-researcher is represented by few. Teachers do not want to participate directly

in scientific research, conduct their own research, broaden their knowledge about the methodology of scientific research, which results in a situation in which they will not be able to develop their research attitudes and improve their education effectiveness based on their own research.

Teachers involved in research become more critical of their own actions and attitudes, they pay more attention to the type of teaching methods used; they also pay more attention to expanding knowledge about the didactic process and updating substantive knowledge in a given field of science. Conducting research should therefore be integrated with the work of professionally active teachers and conducted by people who know the contexts of the studied environment - schools, teachers and students. Teachers-researchers (discovering, seeking, professional, deducing, thinking scientifically and critically) provide the results of their research, which supports the creation of a scientific knowledge base on learning and teaching and, what is very important, conduct interdisciplinary research combining knowledge from a given scientific discipline with educational space.

One of the key problems is the quality and direction of teachers' professional development. Teachers whose activities in the area of professional development are not sufficient can have a demotivating effect on the decisions of other teachers regarding undertaking various development activities, including academic research in the field of education. The research results can therefore contribute to the determination of the correct direction of professional development of teachers and to detect problems emerging in this area. It should be noted that research conducted by teachers may be useful, but it certainly does not replace educational research conducted by specialized university units.

FINAL CONCLUSIONS

1. Universities educating teachers should familiarize them with the results of educational research and the possibilities of implementing research results in school practice.
2. Introduction of subjects to the teacher's studies programmes during which teachers would plan their own educational research and carry it then they would analyse their results and draw conclusions
3. The research will be continued and the variable regarding teachers' motivation to conduct educational research will be examined.

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PARENTS AND TEACHERS AS PARTNERS IN THE SCHOOL AS LEARNING ORGANIZATION

Abstract: The aim of the research was to explore the readiness of students - future teachers to communicative interaction between the actors of educational process in the school as learning organization. The main objective was also focused on the teacher training in this area due to the importance of partnership in the contemporary school.

To achieve these goals, the surveys and document analysis were carried out. Students of different specializations of Pedagogical University of Cracow (Poland) were examined. The preliminary findings have shown that University's teacher training programs put emphasis on theoretical knowledge regarding family-school cooperation. However, the results also showed that students do not feel well prepared for practical activities in this area. The analysis of teacher education programs specified that the teacher's practice and communication skills in the field of cooperation with parents of students are under-emphasized.

The article is an attempt to throw new light on modernization of teacher training in the field of communication and social skills as well as cooperation with all actors of educational process in the school as learning organization.

Keywords: future teachers, teacher training, students' parents, contemporary school

INTRODUCTION

School and family are the two basic environments for the child's development and upbringing. The effectiveness of the interaction between the school and the family is determined by mutual and close cooperation. Home, school and community are 'overlapping spheres of influence', where members should collaborate for student's benefit through six types of involvement: parenting at home; communicating; volunteering; learning at home; decision-making and advocacy; and collaborating with community (Epstein 1995).

Proper, clear cooperation between teachers and parents should lead to the integration of didactic and educational activities. Teacher's cooperation with parents is a prerequisite for successful didactic and educational work. Teacher and family partnerships contribute to mutual understanding and cooperation for children's academic performance and well-being in school (Denessen 2009; Desforges et al. 2003; Epstein et al. 2002; Fan et al. 2001; Jaynes 2005).

The importance of developing good relationship between parents and school cannot be overlooked. Good relationship between parents and a school teacher is a basis for successful development of children's potential. Cooperation of parents and school in raising children, regardless of its forms and practices, always benefits children. The most popular forms of cooperation in this field include volunteering, interactive works, lifelong learning, etc. Teaching and raising children requires good will, understanding of the other side, proper communication, agreement and philosophy of cooperation based on a deeply thought-out idea of educational community, taking responsibility for the process of education and upbringing by all those interested in it (Mendel 2007). Teachers and parents are natural allies, partners sharing common experiences and having a common goal - a child's success. Parents want to learn their role, be responsible and participate in building a civil society and civic participation, among others, by entering the role of a pupil's parents, different from the one they had before they enrolled the child in school. School education of a child is an element of the public sphere on which parents' identity is built. Therefore, parents and teachers should get to know each other, see the meaning of joint activities, cooperate with the pupil's closest surroundings to meet the requirements of modern education. There are a number of studies which focus on family-school cooperation issues in teacher education (Bruïne et al. 2014; Kroeger et al. 2011), and this issue is highlighted in the national educational policies as well (Dusi 2012; Evans 2013; Lehmann 2016; European Commission 2008).

The Netherlands, for example, have formulated the national standards for teachers' competences in communicating with parents (Denessen 2009).

Good practices in creating parents-school partnership are demonstrated by the National Parents-School Associations functioning in several countries. The US and the UK are reported to have the biggest successful experience in this field. The activities of these Associations resulted in developing National Standards for Family and School Partnerships,

which include three steps: 1. Raising awareness of the power of family and community involvement. 2. Taking action to cultivate involvement through specific programs and practices. 3. Celebrating success as your school sees increased involvement and its impact (National PTN 2009).

Developing productive relationships with families is the number one point of attention for scholars, teachers and teacher educators, but unfortunately this topic is still challenging and problematic (Evans 2013; Bruïne et al. 2014; Egger et al. 2015). A lot of studies have shown insufficient attention of teacher education institutes to preparation of prospective teachers for family and school partnership (Epstein et al. 2006; Denessen et al. 2009; Miller et al. 2013). Many novice teachers express the need in special preparing to work with parents (Hornby et al. 2010). Teachers still feel unprepared for partnership with families (Ewan 2013, Epstein et al. 2006).

This article is an attempt to analyse the research into readiness of students-future teachers for communicative interaction between the actors of educational process in school. Formal curricula and information from focus groups with a total of 120 respondents were analysed.

The research was conducted by a team of Cracow Pedagogical University researchers eager to better understand how their institution prepares future teachers for cooperation with students' families.

Despite a solid theoretical background about family-school cooperation, novice teachers still do not feel well prepared for collaboration with families.

The purpose of our research has been to study the level of preparedness of students as future teachers for professional activity in modern school. The main objective was also focused on the curricula and educational teacher training programs taking into consideration the importance of their adequate professional training and realization in universities.

FAMILY – SCHOOL COOPERATION IN POLAND

The Polish educational system has also accumulated some experience in development of cooperation between school teachers and parents. There were a few European projects realized on this topic, for example in the framework program Life Long Education; a lot of research was done into the general issue on building partnership relations between a teacher and the student's parents, which resulted in numerous scientific and methodological articles, scientific degree theses and practical guidelines for teachers (Hernik et al. 2015).

In Poland, crossing the school's threshold is perceived as a situation in which the focus is exclusively on students. Meanwhile, parents are also the participants of this process. The ritual of starting education in a Polish school is often associated with the absolutely unnecessary detachment of children from parents. Therefore, it is necessary to change this

ritual by including parents into the adaptation programs at school and involve them in the educational process aimed at adapting them to their new role of the student's parent. Mutual rights and duties of parents and school are the content of legal regulations, and their polemics and current problems are available, *inter alia*, on the Internet. In general terms, when talking about the legal situation, it should be noted that parents in Poland are part of the school society - they are, like students and teachers, a part of the community, which in the social sense is the school. Polish teachers often know little about their students. Therefore, they do not organize enough activities that allow students to get to know each other, their personalities or interests. Meanwhile, cooperation with parents in terms of diagnosing, sharing knowledge about the child and experiences related to supporting their development are among the easiest ways to shape well-functioning student communities (Mendel, 2010).

Many Polish researchers (Winiarski 2000; Mendel 2005) show that parents do not regard a school as a friendly place - they do not feel comfortable while being at the school and only come there when they have to. Hence, the researchers refer to the so-called "parents' pro-school passivity" and try to find out its conditions. Consideration of these conditions from different perspectives is mainly related to the permanent failure to meet parents' and school's expectations, the lack of active listening to each other, as well as the progressive pauperization of society on the one hand and growing consumerism on the other, and, finally, the changes in the family lifestyle. Nalaskowski (2002) adds that the school space "speaks" and it is speaking in a certain tone indicating the power relationship that characterizes this reality, e.g. the school space "orders" a teacher and the principal to treat a parent as a student, infantilizes, for example, by forcing parents into children's chairs too small for them during the parent-teacher meetings. Therefore, the phenomenon of parents' pro-school passivity may take place and it is the result of close relationship between the student's and the parent's activity, and the place that they occupy in the classroom - the school room. In addition, it is also necessary to consider the goals of parent's visit to the school - usually they come to see the area where his child is staying (classroom, common room) or they have an appointment with the teacher, director (teacher's room, director's office) or to talk with the custodian (cloakroom). It leads to the situation when a parent comes to school because of a child and a teacher, even without a second parent, or to meet with other parents who form a school community (Nalaskowski 2002). There are also schools in which teachers organize various forms of participation in the educational process of children, including parental participation in conducting certain activities, parents' help in accomplishing educational plans of the teacher (most often assisting in activities with children). In addition, the developed method of student assessment is based on a descriptive assessment in which parents also participate. In this type of action, both parents and teachers recognize that joint diagnosing of a child's development and sharing knowledge about it, agreeing on common behaviour towards the child and

co-deciding the educational plans are important for the development of their child's personality. Parents' cooperation with the school's principal in the decision-making process concerning the teaching staff, changes in the curricula, and introduction of extracurricular classes is also important. Many parents are looking for schools that meet their requirements related to their values and needs, as well as a sense of shared responsibility for the school's affairs, knowledge of the child's educational concept, a sense of co-deciding about the organization and functioning of the school, a sense of connection between their own and school's aspirations, recognition of cooperation with teachers (Mendel 2005).

TEACHER TRAINING PROGRAMS IN POLAND

By now, there are five Public Pedagogical Universities in Poland (tab.1)(Ministry of Higher Education of Poland 2018). But only a few of them provide end-to-end teacher education for all school levels (kindergarten, primary and secondary) and only Cracow Pedagogical University offers teaching specialization as an additional selective program after graduating which provides teacher's license.

Table 1. Public Pedagogical Universities in Poland Public Pedagogical Universities in Poland

Name of university	site	Region of Poland
The Maria Grzegorzewska Pedagogical University	http://www.aps.edu.pl	Warsaw, central Poland
Jan Długosz University in Częstochowa	http://www.en.ajd.czest.pl	Częstochowa, south-west Poland
Cracow Pedagogical University	www.up.krakow.pl	Cracow, central-south Poland
Pomeranian University in Słupsk	https://www.apsl.edu.pl/	Słupsk, North Poland
Siedlce University of Natural Sciences and Humanities	https://www.uph.edu.pl	Siedlce, North-East Poland

In some of the Polish pedagogical universities secondary teacher education is organized at university level, but not by the special unit - Institute of Teacher Preparing like in Cracow Pedagogical University.

As a matter of fact, there is no national curriculum for Teacher specialization, but there are National Qualification Framework (2011) where they gather the basis of the main professional competencies and the curricula requirements. Regulations are just on a formal level. At the kindergarten and primary school level, the curricula are designed as three-years-Bachelor studies. A master diploma is required for teachers at the secondary school level. Students major in two school subjects, at least.

The Educational Teacher Program conducted in the Institute of Teacher Training of Pedagogical University of Cracow was created according to the National Qualification Framework (2011) and was amplified by some additional directives of Polish Minister of Science and Higher Education. On the whole, it consists of pedagogical and psychological module (10 ECTS) and didactical and practical module (15 ECTS). Pedagogical and psychological module is implemented by the theoretical courses like Basic of Psychology (the main course and the special course for primary school) - (4 ECTS), Educational Conceptions and Practices (the main course and the course for primary and secondary schools) - 5 ECTS, Safety and Hygiene of students and teachers working - 1 ECTS. Didactical and Practical module is realized by the theoretical course Didactic (the basic course and the course for particular school subjects) - 8 ECTS and the school training practice - 7 ECTS (Tab.2).

Table 2. Analyses of Teacher Training Program in Pedagogical University of Cracow

Moduls	Courses	ECTS
Pedagogical and psychological module (10 ECTS)	Basic of Psychology (<i>main course and course for primary school</i>)	4
	Educational Conceptions and Practices (<i>main course and course for primary and secondary schools</i>)	5
	Safety and Hygiene of students and teachers working	1
Didactical and practical module (15 ECTS)	Didactic (<i>basic course and course for particular school subjects</i>)	8
	School in-field training	7

As a result, after completing the Teacher Training Program students acquire teacher's competences (specified knowledge, teacher skills and abilities). After completing such program in the Institute of Teacher Training in Cracow Pedagogical University, students receive license for secondary school level teacher.

THE STUDY

The present study reports the first data or rather statements from an ongoing study (n=120) piloting large scale longitudinal qualitative student interviews between

2017–2019. The first part of the research started in 2017 with the aim to get better understanding how Polish teacher candidates are prepared to work with parents and how teacher education programs address this topic.

METHODOLOGY

To achieve research goals, the surveys and document analysis were carried out. Students of different specializations of Pedagogical University of Cracow (Poland) were examined (tab. 2). The research was focused mostly on bachelor and MS students who completed the first part of the teacher training program which they do in parallel to their major program.

Table 3. Overview on returns by the respondents

Program	Specialization	Number of the students
Bachelor	Biology and nature protection	20
	Mathematic	15
	German Philology	30
	Philosophy	10
	Animation of culture	15
MS	Mathematic	10
	English Philology	20

The data were collected from analyzing the student's eases with their self-evaluation as future teachers. The main points which were explored dealt with how well the students – future teachers are prepared for working with parents; their self-assessment of the level of preparedness for family-school partnership and how future teachers assess their preparation for cooperation with parents in their training programs?

To assess the curriculum content of the teacher training programs, relevant course documents have been collected as well as the additional information on the content and aims of the training program.

RESULTS

In this article, we present some preliminary results on certain aspects of the study. Our respondents confirmed the results of other authors (Lehmann 2016; Kroeger, 2011) about the importance of the topic Family-school partnership in teachers' preservice training (tab. 4).

Table 4. Analysis of surveys based on studying the eases with student self-evaluation as future teachers

Questions	Answers		
	Yes, %	Rather yes, %	No, %
Is family-school cooperation an important professional topic for future teachers?	95	5	-
Is it difficult for you to organize some meetings and/or discussions with parents of your future students?	65	20	15
Is it important to demonstrate communicative skill with parents during practical training in school?	15	40	45
Should family-school cooperation play a more important role in teacher curriculum	25	60	15

However, only 15% of the respondents stated that it is very important for students to demonstrate this skill during their practical training in school, whereas 40% viewed it as moderately important. (45% don't have an opinion on this issue). Addressees were also asked if the subject of family-school cooperation should be more prominent in their future curricula, either as a full course on the topic, or integrated with other topics in the course, or in any other form. Only 25% of the respondents agreed that „*Family-school cooperation should play a more important role in their curriculum*“.

Some essays demonstrate students' opinion on their expectation about Educational Teacher Program: „... Such topics like cooperation with parents should be more strongly emphasized in optional courses and should be offered by the Institute of Teacher Training”; “I feel a bit nervous before starting teaching activity, and I suppose I could change my mind after getting some practical experience.”, “I'd like to be more confident in *working with parents, my future students family and community*. The practical training could be useful, particularly direct and indirect interaction with parents. If possible, they should be comprehensive and prolonged.”

Assessment of the curriculum content of the teacher training programs showed that there were no specific courses on the topic of Teacher-School Cooperation in Educational Teacher Program in the Institute of Teacher Training of Cracow Pedagogical University. But elements of family-teacher cooperation occurred in a few elective courses. A close examination of the courses reveals that little attention is paid to communication. For example, in the course on Educational Conceptions and Practices, the general competencies concerned only teachers' ability to communicate with parents in order to inform them about their child's progress or the school program.

There are other important issues in the program of Basics of Psychology (conflict management and assisting families with special needs children). Preparing for family-school cooperation is also an important issue during in-field-training. Despite these efforts by the Teacher Training Institute of Cracow Pedagogical University, none of the respondents consider that preparation of teacher candidates for Family-school cooperation is really good.

CONCLUSION

In this explorative study, preparation of students-future teachers for communicative interaction between the actors of educational process in school was examined in the frameworks of teaching specialization as an additional selective course for the students of different specializations at Pedagogical University of Cracow (Poland), who wish to get a license for secondary school level teaching. The study indicated that preparation for parents-school cooperation is integrated into different courses of Teacher Training Program. Attention is mainly focused on theoretical research into family-school cooperation with significant emphasis on parent educational competences training (e.g. communication, psychological aspects of adolescent, influence of ICT and media on children's development, certain elements of health education, etc.). Unfortunately, insufficient attention is paid to the models of parents-teachers interactions in school, underlying power relationships or barriers as well as assessment on this topic. In the teacher training programs at Polish University more attention is paid to the theoretical preparation of students for cooperation with parents than to teaching practices for collaboration with families.

Although family-school cooperation is an important professional topic, students-future teachers considered it quite difficult to establish. In their essays, they often described future communication with parents as frightening and rather unpredictable. Finally, all respondents considered preparation for cooperation with students' families to be inadequate. They called for deeper attention to acquiring competences for parents-school interactions and more practical experience in this area. In the view of the respondents, teacher novices do not feel well prepared for family-school cooperation. Nevertheless, the universities are still reluctant about whether to give family-school cooperation more importance in future curricula or to introduce other changes in the curricula concerning preparing future teachers for family-school cooperation.

In this explorative study, only 120 candidates for getting a license for secondary school level were interviewed; therefore, no generalizations can be made regarding all candidates at the Pedagogical University of Cracow (Poland), or all practical teacher novices in Polish secondary schools. Nevertheless, the lack of attention to parents-school cooperation in the curricula as researched in this study as well as the insufficient preparation for this topic as perceived by respondents are consistent with other studies (Epstein and Sanders 2006; Denessen et al. 2009; Miller et al. 2013) and seem to confirm the conclusion that

preparing student-future teachers for communicative interaction between the actors of educational process in school is a difficult, continuing and extensive problem.

There is a necessity to conduct a comparative international research aimed at finding and implementing the best practices of Teacher Training Programs including various ways of developing student skills for building *partnership between school, home and community*.

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BLENDED LEARNING AT HIGHER EDUCATION: CASE STUDY FROM FACULTY OF ECONOMICS

Abstract: The article is focused on blended learning approach in higher education. The main goal was to identify and discuss advantages of blended learning for innovation purpose of teaching and learning at universities. Blended learning offers many advantages to students, faculty, and other institutions. Faculties which traditionally teach their courses should imagine how they could teach these courses in the blended mode. A case study was used to gather data about students' learning activity and their performance in a selected subject. As the findings of the learning process show, students who paid more attention to the learning process in both face-to-face and e-learning components, achieved the best learning performance. Our case study has shown a positive link between student activity in both blended learning components and the resulting subject assessment. Students, who participated in the final evaluation of the course, expressed high level of satisfaction with this form of teaching and learning. The study contributes to our understanding of blended learning application in an education process at a university.

Keywords: blended learning, university, e-learning, face-to-face teaching, evaluation, case study

INTRODUCTION

The permeation of technology in society has forced changes in employment and in education (Siddiq, Gochyyev & Wilson, 2017). It is declared that the role of ICTs in education is becoming more important in the 21st century. ICTs help to share availability of best practices and best course material in education. ICT based education causes changes in the educational objectives in the conception of the teaching and learning process. Current education at universities involves the use of audiovisual, computer and internet related tools in face-to-face, blended learning or e-learning education process. Innovative teaching methods supported by modern ICT have a positive effect on our way of teaching and learning (Flogie, Lakota & Aberšek, 2018).

Universities are now broadly using information and communications technologies (ICT) in their education processes (Tomczyk, 2015). E-learning and blended learning continue to develop rapidly, supported by increasing sophistication of ICT and by better understanding of how to make course content and delivery more effective (Eger & Egerová, 2013; Hartman, Dziuban & Moskal, 2007; Horton, 2006; Khan, 2007). In higher education blended learning has been implemented in a variety of contexts ranging from individual instructor-designed courses, to blended academic and professional programs, through to large institutional and system-wide initiatives (Owston & York, 2018).

Currently, new forms of e-learning and blended learning support systems are being introduced to higher education institutions. Many faculties in many study programmes have adopted a blended learning approach to deliver course content. This approach combines traditional face-to-face teaching (F2F) with the use of online courses in mixed approach. It is important to determine whether the increased use and availability of online courses and the use of a blended learning approach have made a positive impact on students' academic performance.

WHAT IS BLENDED LEARNING?

Original e-learning had its advantages and disadvantages, both pedagogical and technological. Blended learning as a combination of F2F and online learning brings possibilities how to avoid some disadvantages of pure online courses. Blended learning emerged as one of the most popular pedagogical concepts at the beginning of 2000 (Eger, 2004b; Egerová & Mužík, 2010; Güzer & Caner, 2014). Blended learning refers to a mix of instructor-led and technology-based learning.

Hartman et al. (2007) defined it as courses that combine F2F classroom instruction with online learning and reduced classroom contact hours (reduced seat time). One of a broader definition for blended courses comes from the U.S. National Center for Education Statistics that defines blended courses merely as those having some reduced in-seat time (Parsad, Lewis, & Tice, 2008).

Apparent simplicity of its implementation in today's education environments at our universities is perhaps the most common meaning of blended learning used in a higher education context (c.f. Wong, Tatnall & Burgess, 2014). Typically, blended learning at universities includes F2F classroom teaching, online e-learning, self-paced e-learning, and structured off-line study including set readings and doing (team) assignments.

A very important tool that helps execute blended learning is a learning management system. Petrovic & Kennedy (2005) defined a Learning management systems (LMSs) as a collection of online software applications, packaged together to deliver teaching and learning in either a distance education or an on-campus mode.

Moreover, LMSs offer a number of administrative tools to facilitate the management of courses and student accounts, grade books, usage statistics, content authoring, timed

release of materials, calendars, personal information and integration with other administrative systems (Ajide & Tik, 2009). LMSs are generally used for four purposes in an academic environment: resource/content provision, communication, assessment and administration and these features are all available to users 24 hours per day (Petrovic & Kennedy, 2005).

In recent years, blended learning, the mixture of F2F learning and e-learning, has been presented as a promising alternative learning approach to relieve the aforementioned problems, since it is characterized as maximizing the advantages of traditional learning and e-learning (Güzer & Caner, 2014; Wu, Tennyson & Hsia, 2010). Blended learning offers many advantages to students, faculty, and other institutions. Faculties which traditionally teach their courses should imagine how they could teach these courses in the blended mode. A persistent question asked by faculties and lecturers when they embark on the redesign process is how much time should be devoted to F2F teaching and learning and how much time to online activities (Owston & York, 2018).

Also students' self-control and self-regulated learning play an important role in blended learning approach and as pointed by Zhu, Au & Yates (2016) the impact of self-control on the participants' learning outcomes is mediated through their self-regulated learning and course participation. Broadbent (2017) compared students' self-regulated learning strategies and highlighted the relative importance of using time management and elaboration strategies, while avoiding rehearsal strategies. Similarly, Owston & York (2018) investigated the relationship between the proportion of time spent online in a blended course and student perceptions and performance and they concluded that instructors and institutions seeking to take full advantage of blended learning should consider replacing at least one-third of normal F2F time with online activities that facilitate student-to-student and instructor-to-student interaction.

To identify the degree of blending which may occur in teaching and learning process we can use classification based on the level of online resources by Jones et al. (2009). The continuum of blended learning begins with no ICT use, then progresses through the most basic level of ICT used to support F2F teaching, to intensive use, whereby the construct continues to teaching and learning process which is delivered online with minimal or no F2F interaction (Wong, Tatnall & Burgess, 2014). Lecturers who are looking for an appropriate mix for a blended learning package, can select from different options across the mentioned continuum (c.f. types of e-learning, Eger, 2004a; Wright, 2003).

The effect of blended learning on student performance has been researched in different contexts, e.g. higher education, adult education, and workplace training. The results have shown a positive impact of blended learning (Vo, Zhu & Diep, 2017). The actual very important research topic is the effect of blended learning across disciplines and of the concrete design of blended learning (Boelens, Wever & Voet, 2017). Other important research question is whether students' perceptions and performance are related to the amount of effort and time spent in blended courses. And next question is focused on

students' learning results and their engagement (collaboration) in the selected course: Why some students are more successful than others in blended learning courses?

MEASURING LEARNING OUTCOMES

Generally, learning outcomes can be measured in two domains - cognitive and affective. Learning outcomes in the cognitive domain refer to academic performance measuring learners' ability to remember and apply knowledge, the affective domain involves learners' attitudes, appreciations, values, and emotions. Satisfaction is an important measure of learning in the affective domain, while students' performance is typically assessed at course or subject matter levels by final course grade (Schilling, Applegate, 2012; Sundberg, 2002).

METHODOLOGY

This case study explores the topic of blended learning, its implementation in a selected subject at university context and it is focused on evaluation of teaching and learning process and students' performance. The purpose is to extend our experience with application of blended learning at a university settings and to increase conviction of advantages of this teaching and learning approach at a university. A quantitative approach is used in the conducted case study (Gray, 2009).

Different methods were used to address different stages of the application of blended learning to the one selected blended learning course. The research is focused on the evaluation of effectiveness of blended learning in the education process at the Faculty of economics in the West Bohemia University in Pilsen, Czech Republic. The described case study is based on the analysis of selected student learning activities, results of the learning process and on the final assessment in one selected subject.

The data capture lectures of F2F teaching, learning process and students' activities in e-learning part of study process and final evaluation. It is important to note that in our case lecturer and tutor are one person which is typical for an education process at a university.

RESEARCH QUESTIONS

To achieve the above mentioned objective, the following research questions will be addressed:

- How effective is blended learning in making students active learners in the study of a business subject?
- Is there a significant association between students' activities in both F2F and e-learning components and final evaluation?
- What is the students' satisfaction with the impact of blended learning course?

RESPONDENTS

University students, 21 males and 47 females, third year undergraduate study programme - business administration. Full-time study programme students had previously experience in e-learning and with using LMS. Students were divided into 3 sub-groups for seminar F2F teaching and learning. Purposive sampling approach was used according the aim of case study, students represent typical blended learning learners at university.

SUBJECT: BUSINESS NEGOTIATION TRAINING

The course is a ten – weeks course (one semester long course in final year = shorter semester of the study programme) with important F2F component and online component in LMS. The F2F component was structured as one-hour long lecture pre per week and one-hour long seminar focused on training (communication skills, skills for managing retailing, business presentation...) each week. Seminar was organised for 20–25 students to support collaborative activities and skills development in small groups. The online component of the course required students to use study materials for further readings and for sending the final task also in the electronic version. The online component also provides tutors' news, self-tests and essential information for complementing course assignments. LMS also offers tools for internal e-mails and chat but interactive electronic communication was not supported by tutor because the course used blended learning approach and students could meet lecturer – tutor each week at the faculty.

COURSE MATERIALS

Chapters as www pages were structured according to the methodology of distance learning text with aims, icons, headlines etc. (Eger, 2012, Horton, 2006). E-learning component also contains two special partial study blocs with interactive activities (these short external courses were available via hyperlinks). As mentioned above, 3 self-tests, study resources for further reading and 3 short videos were included in the e-learning component in LMS. Students were able to choose how and when they will collaborate online.

COURSE ARRANGEMENT

Mixed and congruent approach in sequence of the F2F teaching and learning and on-line parts of activities was used, the online component played mostly a supportive role. According to the the subject aims and purpose, the F2F seminar played a key role in teaching and learning process. The seminar learning activities required students to collaborate with their peers and to prepare their business presentation as the final practical output of their seminar work. The e-learning component offered basic study materials

and resources for further reading to students and the self-tests prepared students for the final written test that took place in a classroom in examination period.

We can describe the selected mix of F2F and e-learning components as a low blend (30% e-learning in LMS) or a supplemental blend. This means that online activities were added above and beyond the normal class time.

COURSE EVALUATION

Student must actively participate in half of the seminars in minimum. To receive the final assessment students have to successfully pass business presentation and successfully complete the final written test. Final written test takes place at the faculty (not online).

DATA ANALYSIS

F2F COMPONENT

Attendance at lectures is not mandatory and for this reason not recorded. The content of the lectures is can also be replaced by chapters in e-learning. However, the lecture at the faculty is supplemented by lecturer's comments and it is connected with discussion with students, and classical e-learning will never replace it.

Seminars that were focused on skills development were recorded as number of seminars attendance. They represent the active participation in teaching and learning process at the faculty. Attendance (compulsory) in the two final seminars that are focused on evaluation of students' business presentation is not included, which means that maximum of 8 points is available (Table 1–4, Seminars, active F2F).

E-LEARNING COMPONENT.

Students' behavior descriptive data are derived from the LMS, administrative part. It is an indirect observation connected with technology (LMS). The behaviour of the students was not affected by the presence of an observer. E-learning was divided into three similar parts. If student entered all chapters in each part, they received 1 point. Overallly, they could reach 3 points in this item (Table 1–4, E-learning, 3 parts).

EVALUATION COMPONENT

E-learning component includes 3 self-tests. If student passed the self-test, they received 1 point. Overallly, they could reach 3 points in this item. (Table 1–4, Self-tests)

Students had to successfully pass their business presentation. This was a necessary condition and the presentation took place in the last seminar. For this reason it was not recorded.

The final written test evaluated the gained knowledge of the whole subject matter. Its result shows the outputs of blended learning course in the cognitive domain. Czech evaluation is commonly based on grading system with 1 representing the highest grade and 3 the lowest one, 4 equals failing the class. (Table 1–4, Writing test grade) Performance was assessed by final course grade.

After the end of the semester, students are encouraged to evaluate subjects online. This anonymous additional electronic evaluation of each subject is voluntary. The students evaluate selected items (Table 5) by marks from 1 to 5 where 5 is the best evaluation.

RESULTS

Table 1. Group grade 1, first term exam

Respondent	Written test grades	E-learning, 3 parts	Self-tests	Seminars active F2F	SUMM learning process
F1	1	3	3	6	12
F2	1	3	3	5	11
M1	1	0.31	3	4	7.31
F3	1	2.22	1	4	7.22
F4	1	3	1	6	10
M2	1	3	3	6	12
F5	1	3	3	6	12
F6	1	0.11	0	6	6.11
F7	1	2.59	1	5	8.59
M3	1	3	3	5	11
F8	1	2.66	0	6	8.66
F9	1	3	3	5	11
F10	1	3	0	6	9
Average	9.68				
SD	2.01				

Table 2. Group grade 2, first term

Respondent	Written test grades	E-learning, 3 parts	Self-tests	Seminars active F2F	SUMM learning process
F11	2	2.8	3	4	9.8
F12	2	2.33	3	6	11.33
M4	2	3	3	5	11
F13	2	1.69	3	6	10.69

Respondent	Written test grades	E-learning, 3 parts	Self-tests	Seminars active F2F	SUMM learning process
F14	2	0	0	3	3
F15	2	3	3	4	10
F16	2	3	2	6	11
F17	2	1.72	3	5	9.72
F18	2	2.22	3	4	9.22
F19	2	0.22	0	5	5.22
F20	2	3	3	4	10
M5	2	0	0	5	5
F21	2	3	3	6	12
F22	2	0.11	3	5	8.11
F23	2	3	3	6	12
F24	2	3	3	4	10
M6	2	0.17	1	4	5.17
F25	2	3	3	6	12
F26	2	0	0	5	5
Average	8.96				
SD	2.84				

Table 3. Group grade 3, first term exam

Respondent	Written test grades	E-learning, 3 parts	Self-tests	Seminars active F2F	SUMM learning process
F27	3	3	0	6	9
F28	3	3	3	3	9
M7	3	1	1	5	7
F29	3	0	0	6	6
M8	3	0.35	2	5	7.35
M9	3	3	3	6	12
M10	3	2.93	2	6	10.93
F30	3	3	3	5	11
F31	3	2.22	3	4	9.22
F32	3	3	3	5	11
M11	3	3	3	4	10
M12	3	0	0	4	4
F33	3	3	0	3	6
F34	3	0.24	3	6	9.24
M13	3	0.11	0	6	6.11

Respondent	Written test grades	E-learning, 3 parts	Self-tests	Seminars active F2F	SUMM learning process
F35	3	0.22	0	6	6.22
M14	3	2.54	2	5	9.54
M15	3	0.17	1	4	5.17
F36	3	3	3	6	12
F37	3	3	2	5	10
F38	3	3	3	5	11
F39	3	1	0	4	5
Average	8.49				
SD	2.46				

Table 4. Group 4, second term exam

Respondent	Written test grades	E-learning, 3 parts	Self-tests	Seminars active F2F	SUMM learning process
F40	2	0.66	0	4	4.66
M16	3	0	0	6	6
M17	2	2.66	0	6	8.66
M18	3	3	3	4	10
F41	2	0.13	1	5	6.13
F42	2	3	3	3	9
F43	1	0.34	3	5	8.34
F44	3	0.11	0	6	6.11
M19	2	3	0	2	5
F45	2	3	3	5	11
F46	2	3	3	6	12
M20	2	1	0	3	4
F47	3	3	1	4	8
M21	3	0.33	1	5	6.33
Average	7.52				
SD	2.44				

The following text provides a commentary on the selected results in tables 1–3 and picture 1:

- The findings provide information on how active students were in both components of blended learning, items: E-learning, 3 parts + Self-tests and Seminars, active F2F.
- There are differences in the individual learning process. But, students no. F1, F2, M2, F5, M3, F9 spent an extreme amount of time to participate in e-learning and in F2F learning components and their final evaluation was 1 = the best. Also in table 2 we

Picture 1. Respondents, sum of their learning activities and levels of evaluation

can find 6 students with above 11 points in item SUM learning process. Tables 1–3 show that average time spent with learning process is higher for group with the best evaluation (Table 1) and the lowest for group with lowest evaluation (Table 3).

- Picture 1 clearly demonstrates the association between students' activity in learning process and final evaluation in the selected subject. Individual differences exist but the tendency from the picture is evident.
- Opposite extreme is represented by students from Table 4 who failed in the first term. Then some of them took advantage of e-learning and actively learned in e-learning component to prepare for a second term, see M18, F42, F45, F46.
- Students who spent less time to participate in both components of blended learning course had usually problems to successfully complete the final test.

An important course outcome that cannot be measured through attendance and assessment of the data is learner's satisfaction. The output from the university system for students' evaluation of the subject: Business Negotiation Training brings this type of data (this evaluation is voluntary and only 8 students evaluated mentioned subject in the selected term).

Table 5. Students' evaluation of the subject (n = 8)

Students' evaluation of the subject	Assessment from 1 to 5
Items	
Lectures were interesting	4.375
The lectures were understandable	4.5
The seminars were well conducted	4.625
Seminars were useful	4.5
Assessment of the knowledge after completing the subject was objective	4.5

Note: students use marks from 1 to 5 where number 5 is the best evaluation.

Table 5 demonstrates a key measure of perceived quality from students' perspectives. The subject is recommended for the last semester of the selected study plan and for this reason only several students evaluated subject before they graduated. The limited results of perceived quality from students' perspectives show a positive assessment.

Quantitative data from the case study are supplemented with qualitative notes in the following section.

DISCUSSION

There is no simple answer to our research questions because many other factors must be also taken into account. The implications of the above presented case study are significant for the design of blended courses. Our case study has shown a positive link between student activity in both blended learning components and the resulting subject assessment. In addition, students who participated in the final evaluation expressed their high level of satisfaction with this form of teaching and learning.

The application of ICT to support traditional teaching and learning methods is obviously not new. Dowling et al. (2003) analysed whether a hybrid, flexible teaching method, in comparison to traditional F2F lectures, improved learning outcomes. Their results suggested a positive change in student grades when a combination of the traditional approach and extensive use of multi-media resources was used. Potter & Johnston (2006) investigated the association between student use of a unique, interactive, online learning system, and their learning outcomes. The results showed that students' use of the new system was positively associated with both their examination performance and the internal assessment result. For example, Naaj et al. (2012) considered student satisfaction as an important factor in measuring the quality of blended learning. Their study proposed that students' satisfaction is influenced by a combination of factors which include the instructor, the technology, class management, interaction and instruction.

Güzer & Caner (2014, 4602) conducted meta analysis that was focused on blended learning and they concluded: "In all studies reviewed in this paper, it is observed that "blended learning" is perceived as useful, enjoyable, supportive, flexible and motivator for learners. However, these factors are not sufficient enough to create an atmosphere for successful learning. In other words, in order to create a positive learning environment, teachers using blended learning environment should encourage students to participate more in the environment and should find ways of creating social interaction through more collaboration. Furthermore, blending of face to face and online learning environments should be planned precisely in order to benefit more from this approach." New finding by Vo, Zhu & Diep (2017) confirms that blended learning is significantly associated with greater learning performance of STEM-disciplined students than with traditional classroom practice. Also Owston

& York (2018) report that students tend to prefer blended learning over traditional classroom instruction.

Many factors have influence on blended learning effectiveness, e.g. Owston & York (2018) emphasize: student characteristics, learning engagement, access to technology, teaching quality, instructor attitudes and openness to new pedagogical approaches, institutional support, learning resources, and nature of the subject matter (e.g., Alammary et al., 2015; Brown, 2016; Ellis, Pardo & Han, 2016). Findings by Boelens, De Wever & Voet (2017) emphasize: when designing blended learning more attention should be paid to increasing learner control, stimulating social interaction and fostering an affective learning climate.

The study has several limitations. First, this study is namely focused only on students' activity in F2F and e-learning components and on their performance which is measured by grades. It is required to give more attention on to other factors that have an influence on blended learning effectiveness. Second, conducted case study used only quantitative data. To gain deeper knowledge about teaching and learning process in a blended learning course, it would be useful to apply mixed methods research design. Third, the sample of the students in the case study is small, only 68 students. Therefore, to be able to generalize the results, the study should have involved more participants and different blended learning courses. Finally, the scope and depth of the discussion in the paper is compromised by being confined to the selected resources.

For future research it is important to consider other kinds of variables that can help us to improve our understanding of a learners' behaviour when studying blended learning course.

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DIGITAL PIRACY AMONG ADOLESCENTS — SCALE AND CONDITIONS

Abstract: The objective of the paper is to diagnose scale and mechanisms determining digital piracy among young people in Poland. This type of risky online behaviour is insufficiently covered by research into issues of media education. The research was carried out between January and April 2016, in a group of 1137 school students. So far, these are the most extensive analyses conducted in Poland. The survey was also used to identify mutual relationships between: frequency of downloading files from illegal sources, knowledge about technical solutions regarding piracy, parental control in the area of new media usage, styles of using digital devices, problematic use of the Internet and use of Facebook. The most important findings reveal that occasional piracy occurs in the biggest group of respondents, whereas several percent of the interviewed students regularly download files. Parental control is one of the factors that prevent this type of behaviour. Male adolescents have much more knowledge about piracy and download files from illegal sources more regularly than girls.

Keywords: digital piracy, mechanisms, Poland, youth, warez, P2P, parental control, PUI, Facebook

INTRODUCTION

PIRACY GLOBALLY AND LOCALLY

It is estimated that files from illegal sources consist about 42% of all global resources and potential losses they cause amount up to approx. \$60 billion (Chavarria, Morrison, 2014). In Poland, there is no current data in this area. However, it is assumed that national economy loses PLN 700 million (163 million euro) annually due to piracy (Regional Today, 2014). The collected numeric data imply that this phenomenon is socially and economically noticeable and thus, it is referred to in other spheres, including education that shapes behaviour patterns and standards. Despite being presented in common

narrations as socially harmless, piracy entails legal (for sharing files and downloading software), economical (financial loss) consequences, and establishes negative patterns of information technology use (Tomczyk 2017).

Digital piracy may also occur on a wider scale when criminal groups reproduce software, movie soundtracks, audiovisual work without author's or publisher's consent. Commercial piracy is determined by completely different factors than end-user piracy (Belleflamme, Peitz, 2014). At the same time, it should be emphasized that downloading and uploading are different types of piracy. Young Internet users much more often download than upload files (Cheung, 2013; Waldfogel, 2012). Legal publications mention and describe digital piracy but so far there are no comprehensive analyses of mechanisms and scale of this phenomenon. However, it is estimated that downloading files from websites and through dedicated applications is a prevalent practice (Buczowski et al., 2015). Digital piracy involves not only movies, music and software downloads but also unauthorized access to online magazines, broadcasts, software keys, specialist software used, for example, in automotive industry, access codes to satellite TV platforms or e-books. The nature of digital piracy evolves along with the development of information society.

The causes of illegal software downloading include (N=1000): excessively high prices of original products (73%), insufficient earnings of Polish consumers (53%), easy online access to pirated files (36%), belief that piracy is harmless (25%), belief that ordinary citizens benefit from piracy and big corporations, despite their loss, will not be affected by it (12%), lack of control of responsible institutions (Mróz, 2016). According to respondents aged 15 and more, the most frequently and regularly copied files are: music (39%), movies and TV series (34%), computer software (25%), computer games (18%) (Mróz, 2016). In Polish literature of the subject, piracy is often mentioned in the context of negative conditions for artists (financial losses caused by piracy), access to culture thanks to informal circulation of works (euphemism for piracy), conflicts between film distributors and online file repositories (and services that distribute movie subtitles), lack of innovations in the area of file distribution, anti-system attitude of pirates towards the entertainment industry (Hofmök, Tarkowski, 2007). However, these analyses do not consider important aspects of life environment and ways young people use media in the context of education and parental control.

Scale of the phenomenon allows to suggest few theories about its determinants. One of them is social learning and permission given to illegal file downloading that is commonly accepted in a family (e.g. by siblings) (Morris, Higgins, 2010) as well as ignoring this element in the process of education for safe use of media. Piracy determinants also include: saturation of family environment with digital devices, gender or speed of Internet connection (Popham, 2011). In this context, a diagnosis of competence level (in the form of an aptitude test) or self-assessment of this type of skills seem interesting

too. The subject matter literature also suggests that digital piracy is determined by: age (at the present stage of information society development this translates into level of digital competencies of young users, compared to older generations), level of ethics and confidence in legal solutions, Machiavellianism and subjective norms that determine behaviours (Al-Rafee, Cronan, 2006). Other factors include easy access to entertainment thanks to illegal files. Gaining relatively hassle-free access, for example, to ready-made homework or summaries of obligatory school readings is a typical, common characteristic of the so called Net Generations. In this context, piracy becomes one of many typical services — digital sources. In the context of education, in many cases there is also informal permission to cheat during class tests. One effortless process resulting in gratification (e.g. positive marks) may be transferred as an established behaviour into other areas of life. Other important predictors are also connected with prevalence of online repositories of illegal files, which makes it easy to access this type of sources (Novikova, 2013). Similar to other risk behaviours mediated by electronic media, piracy has its causes in life environment and educational processes. The phenomenon becomes multi-factorial, therefore it is necessary to identify determinants this process.

In a long-term perspective, piracy is minimised by educational activities, such as introducing copyright content to school curricula, social campaigns or increased security of digital materials (Sudler, 2013). It is possible to reduce piracy through, among others, lower prices of original products (73%), strengthening the message of information campaigns on consequences of piracy among youth in an individual aspect, e.g. by engaging artists and businesses that produce digital content (51%), education campaigns (34%), increased control and more severe sanctions for piracy (16%) (Mróz, 2016).

Piracy, unlike other media-related risk behaviours, is relatively the least frequently discussed subject. Relevant literature in the field of pedagogy covers issues like: addiction to new media, cyberbullying, sexting, physical changes caused by new technologies (Bayraktar, Barbovschi, Kontrikova, 2016) or the role of parents in socialization and media education (Zaman, Nouwen, Vanattenhoven, de Ferrerre, Looy, 2016; Bosman, Bayraktar & d'Haenens, 2015). This lack of complex research is also puzzling due to the fact that digital piracy is not a new issue. It first appeared in the 1980s (Chavarria, Morrison, 2014). One of more advanced European projects of diagnosing digital safety of children and youth — EU KIDS Online platform — identifies 40 types of Internet hazards. Digital piracy is defined as significant electronic threat only by 1% of the interviewed children (N=25142), what locates it at the end of this list (Livingstone, Kirwil, Ponte, Staksrud, 2014). In the EU Kids Online survey, piracy is listed in the matrix of e-threats but researchers focused on other areas. In Polish diagnostic surveys, this type of e-threat is also marginalized. Data gathered by Orange Foundation indicate that, according to parents, the most alarming risky behaviours and situations posing a threat

to children and youth are: Internet addiction, online communication with strangers, access to content inappropriate to children's age. Only 11% of the parents think that their children may be exposed to dangerous situations of downloading and sharing copyrighted materials (Orange, 2016). Studying digital piracy is difficult due to the nature of the diagnosed sphere that involves penalties for such behaviours. This aspect determines the use of several methodological solutions that increase research reliability (Kukla-Gryz, Tyrowicz, Krawczyk, Siwiński, 2015). This paper focuses on presenting the scale of the phenomenon as well as other important factors that determine risky Internet behaviours (Green, Smahel, Barbovski, 2014).

METHODS

RESEARCH OBJECTIVES

In the presented qualitative study, several research problems were posed. They have a common denominator, namely, answers to the question: What are the scale and mechanisms of digital piracy among adolescents in Poland? Detailed problems include the following research questions: What is the scale of digital piracy among youth in Poland? To what extent PUI, media usage style, parental control, evaluation of one's own competencies, knowledge about piracy and participation in offline culture determine regular downloading of copyrighted files? These questions were complemented by comparing them with independent variables such as: gender, type of school, average school results (ranges), behaviour grade, place of residence, family financial standing, presence of siblings who also download files illegally, other persons' knowledge about online activities, multitasking or attempts to limit the time spent on using new media.

SAMPLE CHARACTERISTICS AND SELECTION

The survey was conducted among 1137 students of public schools in Małopolskie and Silesian Voivodeships from January to April 2016. The sample was selected randomly. Considering the whole student population in this group (N=546,570) in the abovementioned voivodeships in 2016, selected in the information system of the Education Information Centre (*Centrum Informacji Oświatowej*) (CIE, 2017), index $\alpha=0.99$, whereas maximum error is 4% with fraction ratio of 0.6. On the basis of another nation-wide study measuring digital competencies, we can assume that the results presented below can be generalised and relevant to other voivodeships and, consequently, to whole Poland (Pyżalski, 2012). The average age in the sample group is 15.47, median 15 with standard deviation of 1.69. The detailed characteristics of the sample group is presented in Table 1.

Table 1. Sample group characteristics

	N	%
Gender		
Female	644	57%
Male	494	43%
Type of school		
Lower secondary (<i>gimnazjum</i>)	723	64%
Upper secondary (<i>liceum</i>)	183	16%
Technical	200	18%
Vocational	32	8%
Place of residence		
City	527	47%
Village	598	53%
Assessment of family well-being		
Very good financial standing	428	38%
Average financial standing	664	59%
Poor financial standing	31	3%

TOOLS AND DISTRIBUTION OF VARIABLES

The survey was conducted during individual meetings with interviewers in schools. Participation in the research was voluntary. The survey was completely anonymous. The interviewers have completed academic course in methodology of pedagogical research. Data was collected in compliance with scientific research ethics. Each questionnaire was coded to keep anonymity regarding class, school and city. Due to the nature of the survey questions, interviewers emphasised anonymous character of the survey prior to participation.

In order to increase reliability of the tool, a lie scale was used that allowed to eliminate 183 questionnaires out of total 1320. The lie scale involved two questions of the same meaning (referring to frequency of downloading audiovisual content) placed in two different places in the survey questionnaire. Providing inconsistent answers to the same question resulted in elimination of the record. The final version of the tool consisted of seven tools with numeric scale and a metric (nominal scales) describing: gender, type of school, average school results (ranges), behaviour grade, place of residence, family financial standing, presence of siblings, other persons' knowledge about online activities, multitasking or attempts to limit time spent on using new media.

RESULTS

DISTRIBUTION OF ANSWERS IN CERTAIN AREAS

Dysfunctional way of using new media is connected with frequency, time, self-assessment and self-control regarding the use of new technologies. Problematic use of the Internet (PUI) is a phenomenon related to an attempt to determine a degree of risk or Internet addiction. 1/3 of the respondents emphasise that they spend more and more time in front of their computers or feel bored when they do not have access to the Internet. One in four students stated they are concerned about getting addicted and use ICT in an improper time.

Table 2. Self-assessment of problematic use of the Internet (PUI)

	I agree		I disagree	
	N	%	N	%
(PUI 1) I notice that I spend more and more time in front of my computer	414	36.38	725	63.72
(PUI2) When I have a day off, I practically do not get away from the computer	196	17.22	943	82.84
(PUI 3) I am bored when I do not have access to computer for one day	368	32.34	771	67.76
(PUI 4) I am afraid I can get addicted to the Internet	294	25.85	845	74.25
(PUI 5) I often do not sleep at night in order to use the Internet	207	18.20	932	81.90
(PUI 6) I am afraid I can be addicted to the Internet	210	18.45	929	81.65

The students relatively highly evaluate their level of digital competences. Almost half of them declared that their ICT skills and knowledge are better than their teachers'. However, the style of using new media, including also creative use of digital tools, does not exceed significantly results gathered in previous research. Students use new media in a passive way rather than actively create virtual space.

Table 3. Style of using new media (SUNM)

	I agree		I disagree	
	N	%	N	%
(SUNM1) I know more about computers than most of my friends	386	33.92	753	66.18
(SUNM2) Level of my Internet browsing skills is higher than my teachers'	543	47.72	596	52.33
(SUNM3) I share my work on the Internet, e.g. graphics, music	326	28.65	813	71.46

	I agree		I disagree	
	N	%	N	%
(SUNM4) Internet is number one of my interests	126	11.07	1013	89.03
(SUNM5) I have my own blog or website	169	14.85	970	85.24

As for parental control, gathered data show that adolescents do not think that it is important their parents participate in their children's online activities. Most often parents engage in deciding about schedule and content, and they try to adhere to these rules. Types of games and applications are very rarely controlled by parents. They are the least concerned about installing applications that support parental control.

Table 4. Parents control over the ways children use new media (UC)

	No, never — 0		Usually not, but it has happened — 1		Yes, in some situations — 2		Yes, always — 3	
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
(UC1) At home, parents control whether you obey rules regarding the use computer and the Internet	4440	38.66	280	24.60	272	23.90	146	12.83
(UC2) Parents or guardians check what you do online	652	57.29	241	21.18	170	14.94	75	6.59
(UC3) Parents decide when and how long I use computer	564	49.56	245	21.53	203	17.84	126	11.07
(UC4) Parents decide what programs I can install	838	73.64	117	10.28	82	7.21	101	8.88
(UC5) Parents decide what games I can play	878	77.15	122	10.72	67	5.89	71	6.24
(UC6) Parents decide what websites I can browse	814	71.53	145	12.74	98	8.61	81	7.12
(UC7) I have an installed software, e.g. Beniamin, that controls the time I spend on the Internet	985	86.56	42	3.69	45	3.95	66	5.80

The respondents have diverse knowledge about technical mechanisms related to digital piracy. The biggest number of correct answers refers to applications that allow free “wholesale” downloading files and software that disables safety features in trial or demo versions. The biggest number of incorrect answers was given to questions about categories of warez services, even though these websites are very popular in Poland. It is also interesting that respondents have almost zero knowledge about functioning of applications that use P2P protocol.

Table 5. Knowledge about piracy (KP)

	Correct answer		Incorrect answer	
	N	%	N	%
(KP1) Warez	169	14.85	696	85.15
(KP2) Crack	594	52.20	544	47.80
(KP3) P2P service	190	16.70	948	83.30
(KP4) Hosting pirate files	361	31.72	777	68.28
(KP5) Software that supports downloading pirate files	551	48.42	587	51.58

Most frequently, young people pirate music. Audio materials are also systematically downloaded. Films and applications are downloaded less frequently. The scale of movie piracy is slightly distorted by the fact that there are many services that enable watching audiovisual materials without a necessity to actually download files on user's own computer. One of such solutions is, for example, VOD service.

Table 6. Scale of piracy (SP)

	No, never — 0		Yes, several times in life — 1		From time to time — 2		Minimum once a week — 3		Everyday or almost everyday — 4	
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
(SP 1) Have you ever illegally downloaded a movie?	746	65.55	238	20.91	106	9.31	23	2.02	25	2.20
(SP 2) Have you ever illegally downloaded music?	511	44.90	239	21.00	242	21.27	70	6.15	76	6.68
(SP 3) Have you ever downloaded illegal software from the Internet?	576	50.62	324	28.47	155	13.62	28	2.46	55	4.83

Participation in cultural activities in the real world becomes one of the characteristics of psychosocial functioning of young Internet users. Convergence of new and old media, interdependencies between participation in the real world culture and the one mediated by new media set new areas where we should look for correlations between spaces young people function in. The diagnosed students most frequently declare that they regularly watch films and have a lot of CDs. Concerts and discos are much less popular form leisure. The question about participation in culture in the real world results from research that reveal some dependencies between the two spheres and risk behaviours in the virtual space.

Table 7. Participation in culture (CP)

	I don't have / I haven't been — 0		Several / several times — 1		Over a dozen — 2		Several dozen — 3	
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
(CP 1) How many original music CDs do you have?	279	24.52	432	37.96	249	21.88	169	14.85
(CP 2) During the last 6 months, how many times have you been to a cinema?	181	15.91	784	68.89	139	12.21	23	2.02
(CP 3) During the last 6 months, how many times have you been to a concert?	745	65.47	337	29.61	30	2.64	13	1.14
(CP 4) during the last 6 months, how many times have you been to a disco?	547	48.07	476	41.83	69	6.06	39	3.43

Style of use of one of the most popular social media service is on of the variables showing how young people function in the world of new media. Young Internet users were asked how many friends they have, how many times they log into the portal and how many profiles they have. The vast majority of respondents have several hundred friends — more than 400 was the dominating answer. As for the number of Facebook logins, students most often declared that they are non stop online (almost 1/3 of the group). The vast majority of users have one profile in the community portal.

Table 8. Facebook use (FB)

(FB1) How many friends do you have in a community portal (e.g. Facebook)?													
I don't use it — 0		Below 50 — 1		From 50 to 100 — 2		From 100 to 200 — 3		From 200 to 300 — 4		From 300 to 400 — 5		More than 400 — 6	
N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
69	6.06	53	4.66	86	7.56	183	16.08	201	17.66	185	16.26	361	31.72
(FB2) How many times a day do you login to Facebook?													
I don't use it — 0		Few times a month — 1		Once a day — 2		Two, three times a day — 3		Four-five times a day — 4		More than five times a day — 5		I'm actually always logged in — 6	
N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
74	6.50	113	9.93	187	16.43	255	22.41	90	7.91	98	8.61	321	28.21
(FB3) How many Facebook profiles do you have?													
I don't use it — 0		One — 1		Two — 2		Three — 3		Four and more — 4					
N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%				
69	6.06	93	81.81	98	8.61	23	2.02	17	1.49				

RELATIONSHIPS BETWEEN WAYS OF INTERNET USE

The following table presents mutual relationships between problematic use of the Internet (PUI), style of using new media (SUNM), usage control (UC), knowledge about piracy (KP), scale of piracy (SP), participation in culture (CP) and use of Facebook (FB). The summary illustrates interdependencies between these areas.

Table 9. Digital piracy – interdependencies

	PUI	SUNM	CP	UC	KP	SP	FB
SUNM	0,196***						
CP	0,006*	0,065**					
UC	0,020*	-0,048*	0,052*				
KP	0,061***	0,285***	-0,007*	-0,195***			
SP	0,079***	0,299***	0,054*	-0,192***	0,328***		
FB	0,147***	0,082***	0,203***	-0,169***	0,095***	0,086***	
Number of questions	6	5	4	7	5	3	3
Mean value	1,48	1,36	3,296	4,44	1,638	2,455	8,753
Standard deviation	1,48	1,17	1,837	4,96	1,424	2,782	3,498
Skewness	,932	,707	,645	1,353	,550	1,309	-,734
Kurtosis	,110	,054	,822	1,312	-,655	1,419	,116
Alpha Cronbach	,607	,437	,438	,868	,645	,630	,587

* $p < 0,1$ ** $p < 0,05$ *** $p < 0,001$

The more active use of new technologies, the higher degree/risk of addiction to these technologies. Increased online activity is one of the factors increasing the risk of addiction to new technologies. However, it should be emphasised that criteria of ICT addiction have not yet been clearly defined. In this research, addiction determinants do not reveal connection with digital piracy. Style of use of new technologies is significantly connected with knowledge about piracy. This results from the fact that young users who have advanced knowledge and skills regarding use of new technologies (e.g. website or blog management) are also aware of other areas of ICT, such as software use, website development and other techniques of information management, that support digital piracy. However, the strength of relations between the variables indicates that this relationship is not clear. Similar dependence is visible among young Internet users who very actively download software, films and music. One type of highly specialized online activity that does not fit into legal or ethical categories is, however, connected with a risk behaviour (downloading files from unauthorised sources). Activity in social media has minimal impact on digital piracy but it is clearly connected with cultural activity (participation in offline events is connected with online activity). It is noticeable that lack of parental control becomes a key factor contributing to acquisition of

skills that allow to download files from illegal sources. Similarly, we can notice that young people who experience little parental control over their online activity (for example, through a set of rules how to use new technologies) are much more often active digital pirates and more often very active users of community portals (they log in more frequently, spend more time on social media and have definitely more friends than their peers who are controlled). Parental control is one of the most important factors in preventing digital piracy. When parents' control over the use of new media is reduced, there is growing risk that children will regularly download audio, audiovisual files and computer programs. We can also notice in Table 10 that regular downloading one type of files is strongly correlated with downloading other types of materials (e.g. music and movies). Parental control in one of these areas (UC1-UC7) translates into control in another.

Table 10. Parental control (UC) and scale of piracy

	UC1	UC2	UC3	UC4	UC5	UC6	UC7	SP1	SP2
UC2	0,602***								
UC3	0,524***	0,473***							
UC4	0,442***	0,500***	0,513***						
UC5	0,479***	0,505***	0,506***	0,643***					
UC6	0,518***	0,583***	0,459***	0,614***	0,684***				
UC7	0,355***	0,370***	0,281***	0,347***	0,422***	0,420***			
SP1	-0,103***	-0,068***	-0,107***	-0,142***	-0,094***	-0,132***	0,016*		
SP2	-0,129***	-0,133***	-0,110***	-0,143***	-0,098***	-0,149***	-0,051*	0,591***	
SP3	-0,179***	-0,156***	-0,121***	-0,215***	-0,155***	-0,199***	-0,087**	0,654***	0,644***

* $p < 0,1$ ** $p < 0,05$ *** $p < 0,001$

There is a visible dependence between knowledge on digital piracy in all of these areas. For example, knowledge about functioning of P2P services is correlated with knowledge about warez websites. Scale of piracy is closely connected with knowledge about technical solutions. So, use of services that accelerate file pirating is clearly related to digital competences (also in darknet area). It is noticeable that individuals who declare they have much more advanced knowledge about digital piracy than their teachers at the same time much more often download files from illegal sources.

Gender determines knowledge about technical aspects of digital piracy. Male respondents have definitely better knowledge in this area than young women. Similar relationship can be identified in terms of file downloading. Vocational school students download files least regularly, whereas technical school students do it most frequently — analogical dependency is revealed in the area of knowledge about file download. There is no dependence between grades student receive at school and file downloading. However, it is noticeable that students with "average grades" have better knowledge about tools supporting download of files. Students with the highest and the lowest grades got the poorest results in the test of knowledge about

digital piracy technologies. Behaviour grade determines the level of knowledge about piracy but it is a linear relationship. Students with “inadmissible” grade get the best results in this area, students with “excellent” and “unacceptable” — the poorest. The better behaviour grade, the lower indicator of regular illegal file downloading. Students with lower behaviour grades have slightly better knowledge in the analysed field. There is no statistically relevant difference between knowledge about piracy among adolescents living in cities and villages. However, young city residents download illegal files much more often. Family well-being is not at all connected with piracy among young people. But having siblings who regularly download files from illegal sources is significantly related to this type of behaviour among the respondents. Adolescents who declared that “it is better that no one sees what I do on my computer” have much more advanced knowledge about piracy and download illegal files more often. Multitasking is also typical for individuals declaring this type of online behaviour. Attempts to limit the use of new media are not connected with knowledge about piracy at all, but individuals who “pirate” regularly try to reduce their time on the Internet slightly more often (with negative effect).

Table 11. Style of new media usage, scale of piracy and knowledge about piracy

	KP1	KP2	KP3	KP4	KP5	SP1	SP2	SP3	SUN1	SUNM2	SUNM3	SUNM4	SUNM5
KP2	0,21***	-											
KP3	0,17***	0,25***	-										
KP4	0,20***	0,33***	0,27***	-									
KP5	0,21***	0,31***	0,19***	0,43***	-								
SP1	0,06**	0,23***	0,18***	0,19***	0,12***	-							
SP2	0,08**	0,24***	0,12***	0,21***	0,13***	0,59***	-						
SP3	0,09***	0,33***	0,20***	0,27***	0,16***	0,65***	0,64	-					
SUNM1	0,09**	0,27***	0,24***	0,22***	0,16***	0,24***	0,22***	0,30***	-				
SUNM2	0,05*	0,21***	0,17***	0,13***	0,13***	0,248***	0,21***	0,23***7	0,24***	-			
SUNM3	0,03*	0,05*	-0,01*	0,08**	0,10***	0,04*	0,05**	0,04*	0,18***	0,06**	-		
SUNM4	0,00*	0,00*	0,03*	0,00*	0,00*	0,06**	0,03*	0,03*	0,08**	0,13***	0,03*	-	
SUNM5	0,04*	0,02*	0,05*	0,071**	0,02*	0,09**	0,09**	0,08**	0,09**	0,09*	0,28**	0,12***	-

* $p < 0,1$ ** $p < 0,05$ *** $p < 0,001$

Table 12. Scale of piracy and knowledge about piracy among adolescents

	SP (scale)				KP (knowledge)			
	SS	df	MS	F	SS	df	MS	F
Gender	919	1	919	135.5***	230	1	230	125.7***
Type of school	632	3	211	29.29***	161.9	3	53.93	28.50***
Average school results (ranges)	4.57	4	1.143	0.147*	27.17	4	6.792	3.737*
Behaviour grade	256.4	5	51.28	6.795***	42.69	5	8.538	4.265***
Place of residence	82.07	1	82.07	10.76***	3.728	1	3.728	1.849*
Family well-being	16.79	2	8.393	1.07*	4.09	2	2.047	1.06*
Siblings	1917	4	479.3	78.89***	140.3	4	35.08	18.33***
Other people's knowledge about online activities	370.7	1	370.7	49.95***	39.36	1	39.36	19.71***
Multitasking	207.8	1	207.8	27.48***	64.76	1	64.76	32.79***
Attempts to limit time spent using new media	174.6	4	43.64	5.733***	17.83	4	4.45	2.205*

* $p < 0,1$ ** $p < 0,05$ *** $p < 0,001$

DISCUSSION

Studying the scale of digital piracy is a difficult task due to legal liability connected with some answers. Penalization of behaviours that infringe copyright and concerns about the consequences of declarations provided in the survey (which guarantees anonymity) may distort obtained data. Therefore, a series methodological solutions (e.g. the lie scale, external interviewers trained in gathering sensitive data) that ensure reliability of the study was introduced. Gathered data suggest that only several percent of the respondents regularly download files from illegal sources. Thus, despite previous results showing Polish Internet users as one of the bigger pirate group in the cyberspace, answers provided by the students present them in a little different light and destroy the myth of digital natives (O'Neil, 2014; Kirschner, De Bruyckere, 2017). The extent of knowledge about programs, websites, solutions that infringe copyright varies among the respondents. Discrepancies can be noticed in the ratio of correct answers about popular pirate apps and websites. Therefore, piracy among youth should be viewed not only as independent file downloading from partially hidden resources (i.a. warez services) but also in the context of peer distribution (e.g. on mobile devices). Digital piracy involves not only individual file downloading but also other forms of offline sharing (Pollock, 2014). There are many research results that show effectiveness of parental control exercised as set rules for using electronic media. This control becomes a factor that protects children against online risk behaviours (Hashim, Kannan, N., Maximiano, Ulmer, 2014; Wąsiński, Tomczyk, 2015; Tuukkanen, Wilska, 2015; Bayraktar, 2017). This assumption has been also proved by gathered data.

The research outcomes confirm that there is a dependence between competencies and knowledge on technical solutions enabling file download. This type of knowledge is connected with how often individuals download files and how they rate their own digital competencies compared to other groups e.g. teachers. It is also interesting that digital piracy is not statistically connected with other risk behaviours mediated by the Internet, such as PUI or excessive use of Facebook.

Behaviour grade determines respondents' declarations regarding systematic file download. This dependence seems interesting because this relationship is too obvious. Perhaps, this is due to expectations assigned, for example, to the role of an "excellent student". This dependence is a starting point for further research, e.g. qualitative studies among individuals who download and upload files. There is also other dependence indicating a relationship between some risk behaviours in the real world (that lower students' behaviour grade) and behaviours on the verge of legality or breaching intellectual property rights in the virtual world.

It is also interesting that presented results do not confirm the hypothesis that regular participation in cultural events — concerts, discos, cinema visits — is tightly connected with downloading music and video files. This dependency does not occur when we consider

the number of CDs owned by respondents. The study rebuts the hypothesis that strong cultural activity in the real world is one of the factors that determine informal circulation of culture through piracy (Filiciak, Tarkowski, Hofmøkl, 2013).

We also need to be aware that in the light of intellectual property protection laws, downloading files is classified differently than uploading copyrighted works in the virtual space (Mandel, Süßmuth, 2012). These are two different types of piracy, and Polish law additionally discerns between the types of files. Thus, it seems legitimate to include differences and similarities in uploading and downloading mechanisms in future studies, together with a diagnosis of related legal consequences (Lawson, 2017; Moores, Nill, Rothenberger, 2009).

The gathered data reveal also dependence between multitasking and discussed behaviour among adolescents. Multitasking is strictly connected with the frequency of illegal file download. Adolescents who download music, films and software are at the same time much more active users of new media than students who comply with copyright regulations (Fetscherin, 2005). This results also from the nature of downloading process which is spread over time (Chang, Nam, Kwon, Chan-Olmsted, 2017).

Digital piracy has a range of social, technical, economic, ethical, educational, legal, religious conditions that still seem to be an interesting area to investigate. This research sets further directions for studies into this type of behaviours among adolescents in Poland and other countries that are close in terms of culture and level of information society development (Ziemba, 2017).

SUMMARY

Digital piracy is one of taboo subjects in media pedagogy in Poland. This fact is proved by still insufficient number of analyses and studies into the scale and mechanisms of illegal file download. Poland is among the countries with the biggest number of downloads that infringe intellectual property rights, yet there are still no detailed analyses in this area. This paper intentionally fits into the risk paradigm of media pedagogy (Pyżalski, 2012; Potyrała, 2017) and sets further directions for identifying mechanisms of piracy among adolescents. Development of another tools seems particularly interesting. Such tools would enable even more thorough presentation of the scale of this phenomenon, thanks to separating the processes of downloading and uploading files (Yang, 2007), participation of young people in informal groups that circulate files (e.g. warez services), the role of peer environment or detailed inventory of internal factors that prevent this type of behaviour. Despite being a taboo, piracy is cognitively interesting from the perspective of prevention of online risk behaviours, ethics of using new media, ethical relationship between daily activities in the real and virtual world or ways electronic media are used. In a macro-social perspective, it seems important to learn about the specifics of mechanisms of social acceptance in terms of creating piracy habits (Tsui, Wang, 2012)

and assessment of this phenomenon by significant others in education process. To summarise, digital piracy is a real research and educational challenge, that involves ethical (Yu, 2012), individual, economic (Sundararajan, 2003), technical (Frosio, 2016) or social (Robertson, McNeill, Green, Roberts, 2012) processes.

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UNDERAGE GAMBLING IN COMPUTER GAMES

Abstract: Article focuses on the issue of children and adolescents betting in computer games. It presents a basic terminology and principles, which can be found in computer games with elements of betting and in-game items gambling industry. It uses a qualitative research method - a form created in Google Forms and distributed via link. Research sample consists of pupils of elementary and secondary schools. There were 255 participants, and their age was between 11 – 18 years. The paper presents numbers of gambling children in computer games and third-party websites.

Keywords: children, gambling, betting, pc games, ingame items, in-game items

INTRODUCTION

Children and adolescents these days have better access to betting portals and online casinos. It can be caused by the policies of these portals, which do not require any identity verification and age verification.

Czech betting agencies demand personal registration (Fortuna Entertainment Group EU, n.d.).

These websites and games introduce the world of hazard and gambling to underage children and adolescents. Such games usually let the players acquire virtual in-game items. These items are paid with real money. The items can be obtained via various means, this paper focuses mainly on trading and betting with these items.

Once the game with in-game items is released, it is closely followed by an appearance of these portals and sites arranging the trade of in-game items for real money.

An underage child can bet in-game without even noticing it. Children only need to use real money to buy something in-game (See chapter In-game items).

Parents might not know about this kind of child gambling. In a family or at school, gambling content sites can be blocked, but computer games and pages associated with trading of in-game items pass by any parental content filter. In the case of these computer games, parents may find it difficult to determine whether their children are gambling. One of the reasons could be the evaluation of PEGI and ESRB, which do not mention these gambling elements in their ratings.

I dare say that our society is getting into a new era of gambling involving minors. The worlds of computer games and online casinos (eventually also betting portals) are connected here. It is complicated to distinguish the game where the actual gameplay has nothing to do with the betting, but the acquisition of add-ons in the form of various skins is a glaring example of gambling.

How far will developers go after their way to profit? I believe it is possible that in a few years it will be common to buy chests in a majority of games.

TERMINOLOGY

Gambling addiction is defined by frequent and repeated playing of hazardous games. These activities dominate gamblers' life; interests and hobbies slowly disappear. Gamblers risk losing their job, falling into debt or even start to commit criminal activities to get funds to compensate for losses.

Most players describe a strong craving for the game, which is very difficult to resist. The thoughts of playing appear most often when they are somehow stressed.

The social consequences of pathological gambling can be: getting poor, distortion of family relationships and a schism of personal life (Nešpor, 1999, p. 16).

According to Nešpor, the most dangerous thing about gambling is the possibility of winning a prize, whether (it is) real or just the one dreamed. Gamblers often describe that the problems began shortly after some winnings. It is the winning that raises the craving (a strong desire for a gambling game) (2006, p. 10).

The term gambling is often confused with the term gaming. Reith (2007 as cited in Banks, 2014, p. 3) states that gaming has been associated with entertainment and leisure time and is therefore very often used in the gambling industry instead of gambling, which is generally understood negatively and evokes ideas related to the loss of financial resources as a result of gambling.

Game related terminology may vary from game to game, even on websites the information may not be whole.

The most mentioned term in this paper will probably be **Steam**, the online platform for distribution of games and software, created and maintained by Valve Corporation to distribute patches for games and later even whole games. First game distributed via Steam platform was *Half Life*¹. These days it is also used as a social network and chat application for gamers (Valve Corporation, n.d.-a).

¹ Counter Strike is a computer game published in 1999 by Valve Corporation via their Steam platform as a *Half Life* modification. It's well known as one of the most popular esports games until its full replacement on the competitive scene with Counter Strike: Global Offensive in 2012. There were many events connected with Counter Strike, such as national tournaments and world tournaments, which could be compared to any other big sport events (Valve Corporation, n.d.-a).

There are more online platforms for online game distribution, for example Battle.net, UPlay and Origin.

An important gaming term is an **inventory**, which has been used in the first computer games created. The meaning has changed over time. In the past, inventory meant a list of all items the player has in a game session or a save slot. In that case, items had an impact on gameplay and they were a necessary part of the game. After the release of Steam inventory, the meaning of the word “inventory” gained a new meaning. The items I want to talk about are no longer bonded to the game save slot or session. They usually do not have any impact on gameplay. The old meaning of inventory remained next to the new meaning in some games. For this paper, the term inventory will be taken to mean virtual in-game items, which do not affect gameplay and have only cosmetics purposes (such as clothes/weaponry colour or a whole different 3D model).

Steam has its **community market** for registered users with verified credit cards. Users can use it to buy/sell in-game items, trading cards, profile backgrounds and emoticons from/to other users. Each in-game item is purchased or sold for real money. Steam community market is not a free service. There is a Steam market fee (=5% of the requested price) and the game specific fee which is usually around 10% of the requested price. For example, if you are buying an item for 100 €, the seller will get only 85 € (Valve Corporation, n.d.-b).

The last thing I want to talk about are **Steam badges**. They go hand in hand with in-game items. Steam users earn from one to three Steam trading cards after they make a purchase in the game. After collecting 5 or more (depends on the game) different cards, users can transform a collection of cards into a badge. Each claimed badge will add experience points to the user Steam account. Most badges can be obtained more than once – users upgrade them to better ones (Each upgrade is awarded with experience for Steam profile level). Badges cannot be traded or sold (Valve Corporation, n.d.-c).

IN-GAME ITEMS

In-game items are implemented in plenty of games (most of them are published via Steam). As I mentioned before, they change the visual part of the game (for example there is a game character, and you can change the colour or the appearance of his or her clothes, armour, hair, tools or weapons).

Steam users can buy and sell those items on the Steam market (Valve Corporation, n.d.-b).

Users do not trade items 1:1 in most cases, the price of the in-game items starts at 0,03 € and can go up to 10 000 € or more. The leading price determining factor is supply and demand. The approximate price indicator is the item quality. For example, the game Counter Strike: Global Offensive has 5 item quality categories called exterior (See table 1).

Table 1. Percentage of in-game item drop rate per quality (category) in Counter Strike: Global Offensive.

Exterior and price data are retrieved from CSGOStash.com (RedQueen, n.d.). Drop rate data are retrieved from CSGOArray.blogspot.com (CS GO Case Chances and Knife Drop Rate, 2014).

Exterior (quality)	Price in Euros	Drop rate
Exceedingly Rare ★	50–10 000	0.45 %
Covert	2–2 000	1.01 %
Classified	0.40–1 000	3.30 %
Restricted	0.03–300	14.98 %
Mil-Spec	0.03–300	69.94 %
Industrial grade	0.03–10	-
Customer grade	0.03–10	-
Contraband	700 - 1200	-

Prices decrease with lower quality and the differences in prices between qualities can be significant. In-game items are called “skins” by most players.

OBTAINING IN-GAME ITEMS

In-game items can be obtained variously. The most common is a random drop. It depends on the game. Items obtained via random drop are usually the cheapest ones (most likely about 0,10 €). Some games have a guaranteed drop after reaching a certain level or another milestone in game progress. Items with highest drop rate are usually cases which can be used to get more valuable items for real money.

The second way to get in-game items is case opening. Cases are virtual chests with unknown in-game item or content. Each case has a list of items in the descriptions that can be obtained.

Opening cases is not free, you need to buy a key to open it. Keys cost usually about 2 € but it again depends on the game. Some games have a case opening animation which looks like slot machines.

Users can buy in-game items for real money directly in the game when they get to the main menu. After buying an item in game, users will obtain Steam trading cards. The second option to purchasing in-game items is to purchase via Steam community market. Steam platform allows users to trade in-game items, this feature made it possible for trading portals, skin casinos and other gambling sites to be created.

GAMBLING AND TRADING PORTALS

There are many websites allowing users to buy, trade and bet in-game items. Most of them do not verify the age of betters and buyers.

Trading portals are websites which only mediate users' offers and do not store in-game items. Offers (especially in Steam groups – a form of a forum) may look like this example:

"[H] Karambit Fade (Fn) [W] Knife downgrade + sweets".

[H] stands for "have" and [W] is for "want". Karambit Fade (knife) is an in-game item from the game Counter Strike: Global Offensive worth 370–500€. Fn (Factory New) means exterior (Valve Corporation, n.d.-b). This trader wants a cheaper in-game knife item and to get overpaid.

Overpaying is trend in trading more valuable (expensive) in-game item for more in-game items which are less valuable (meant as a single item). The user who is trading the more expensive item is downgrading and most likely expecting overpaying => he will get about 140% of his item market price. The user who is upgrading has to pay much more than desired in-game item cost.

There are following types of gambling portals: betting on esports matches, roulette and other minigames, case opening (same principle as in chapter Case, but online on the website). In-game items conversion to site dependent points is widespread. Each in-game item represents real money represented on these portals by their own currency or some kind of points. First examples are **CSGOLounge** and **DoTA2Lounge**, currently most widely used to meet and trade in-game items, it does not offer middleman services. There are many fraud attempts, and there is also a trend called overpaying. Users can use their Steam account to login and use it to send and receive trade offers.

Another service of this website was esports betting. Users were able to bet 4 in-game items on one esports match. Maximal value per item was \$ 75. It means you could bet \$ 300 per one match. But for more experienced users there was no problem to create another Steam account and bet much more than \$ 300 per one match. These pages have weak protection against multi-account owners (Borewik, n.d.).

Opskins is one of the most popular websites among the gambling and trading community, also one of the most well-secured ones. It is used only for exchanging in-game items for real money and vice versa. The website takes care of everything – it keeps the in-game items and money, which is very good because it protects sellers from credit card charge-back fraud (OPSKINS.com - CS:GO Marketplace, n.d.).

Hellcase is one of the newcomers, it has been online since late 2016, but it had a significant player base in the very beginning. The site has a perfect strategy on how to get new members. It offers a daily free case. This page is a little bit different from the majority. It sells virtual cases. It is similar to opening cases in-game, but in this case, users open cases online, usually for money.

Daily free case works like a fish bait, it attracts many users and builds new habits (regular website visits). I believe that owners of this website know that children are more likely to buy some case when they get money.

Price of the case differs depending on the promised content; more expensive cases will contain more expensive loot (in-game items), which makes sense. There are meager chances of getting a good item in game and I would not believe third party sites like this (Hellcase.com, n.d.).

METHOD

I used a quantitative research method - a questionnaire. Data was collected from two elementary schools and one high school with the promise of full anonymity in November 2017. As a student, I used non-probability convenience sampling. Studied schools are located in Prague, Czech Republic. There were 255 participants aged between 11 – 18 years. The boys formed 42.7 % of the research sample and the girls 56.9 %, one respondent left the gender-related question without the answer 0.4 %.

The primary purpose of this research was to find out how many underage children are gambling in computer games if any.

RESULTS

Figure 1. Number of Steam account owners and Counter Strike: Global Offensive players

There were 255 respondents in the reference group. Among the respondents, there were mostly 13-year-olds and younger (60% of all respondents). According to the statistics, 30.5% of the research sample (all respondents) own Steam account and 2/3 of these respondents are active Counter Strike: Global Offensive players (approx. 20% of all respondents). Many respondents are younger than the recommended age. Counter Strike: Global Offensive has ESRB 17+ content rating and there are 46.2% (36 of 52) of players younger (See figure 1).

Students use Steam community market more than I would expect, in most cases they buy in-game items (See figure 2).

Figure 2. Steam Market users' activities

About 34.4% of Steam market users buy in-game items, followed by keys to open the cases (29.5%). Less common is buying the actual cases (18%) and stickers (14.8%). Big purchases above 300 € are extremely rare (3.3%).

One of the most interesting questions was related to case opening (See table 2 and figure 3).

Table 2. Have you ever opened case in-game? Relative frequency.

Age	Yes	No	No answer	Total respondents
11	0%	11.1%	88.9%	27
12	14.7%	8.8%	76.5%	68
13	22.-%	13.6 %	64.4 %	59
14	11.4%	20 %	68.6 %	35
15	11.1 %	33.3 %	55.6 %	9
16	22.9 %	25.8 %	61.3 %	31
17	17.4 %	26.1 %	56.3 %	23
18	0 %	100 %	0 %	3

Almost 90% of case openers are males. Cases are opened in Counter Strike: Global Offensive (60.9%), followed by Player Unknown's Battlegrounds (8.7%), RUST (8.7%), League of Legends (8.7%) and Rocket League together with Overwatch (4.3%). About 95.7% of respondents (who said they open cases.) open up to 5 cases (1 case opening cost is approx. 2 €) daily. Only 4.3% of players open up to 10 cases and 10.7% of players claim that they do not open more than 30 cases per month.

Figure 3. Frequency of case opening across age (“Do you open cases, treasures or lootboxes?”)

The last question was related to scams and gambling portals. About 26,5% of players met scammer online on fraud website for trading or gambling. 42.8% of Counter Strike: Global Offensive players know new gambling portals. All answers to the last 2 questions came from respondents who have Steam account and play Counter Strike: Global Offensive. From the whole research sample ($n = 255$), those who definitely bet number 15.29 % and those who probably bet or used to gamble in the past number another 3.92 %. That's 19.21 % of gambling children in the worst scenario.

CONCLUSION

According to the results of the annual report about hazardous gaming in the Czech Republic from 2016, 23.3 % of 16-year-olds stated that they have played hazardous games in the past 12 months. In my research, these numbers are a bit higher, 23.3% of 16-year-olds (Mravčík, et al., 2017).

Another interesting trend is the decreasing age of children who have experience with on-line betting. The highest rate of betters is among the 13-year-olds (22%) and 12-year-olds (14.7%), followed by the 17-year-olds (17.4%).

“The Gambling commission report Young people and gambling 2017 found that 45 % of 11–16 year-olds were aware of “skin betting”, 11 % of 11–16 year-olds had placed bets using in-game items and 59 % of boys knew about the activity compared with 31 % of girls” (as cited in British Broadcasting Corporation, 2018).

BBC did interviews with gambling students on this issue. It revealed that there are real cases of gamblers who have lost over 2000 £. One of them is a 19 years old student, who started skin betting at the age of 15 (British Broadcasting Corporation, 2018).

Children shouldn't be allowed to have access to steam account and play any of the games mentioned until they reach the age of 13 (Steam) or the game recommended age.

According to "From Sponge Bob to Texas Hold'Em: Social Influences of Underage Gambling" study, the tendency of hazard elements in a child's early life is increasing. Probably the most common example is arcade games centres, where children earn coupons for winning in games.

A certain amount of coupons can be traded for attractive prices. Representation of toy in the form of the slot machine is also unexpected. The study highlights these trends of growing gambling elements in everyday life (Gupta, Shea, & Messerlian, 2006).

Player Unknown's Battlegrounds, a game that came out in May 2017, became very popular among all Steam users. This game contains in-game items and cases as well. Respondents named this game often in connection with CS:GO (Valve Corporation, n.d.-d). In 3rd May 2018 developers behind Player Unknown's Battlegrounds disabled in-game items trading, which was a reasonable response to the growing gambling websites (Mephie, 2018).

Valve Corporation made smaller restrictions to prevent gambling using Counter Strike: Global Offensive skins. Since 30th March 2018 every CS:GO skin trade is suspended for 7 days. This restriction has led some sites to cancel their activities. A longer trading time reduced the number of gamblers and casino profits, but it will not prevent children from gambling (Valve Corporation, 2018).

I think that in some cases, children and adolescents may not even realize the presence of hazardous elements in their favourite games. Especially when they open the cases while playing. The cases may seem like variegation and most children do not see the resemblance to slot machines. I personally believe that the main problem is the lack of age verification. Gambling sites would be acceptable with age restrictions and proper casino registration.

There are also questions for another research. Where do children get the money for their purchases? Do they have access to their parent's credit card or do they have their own credit card? Parents have an essential role to play in this issue. I will focus on their ability to recognise gambling elements in games.

The overall results are very disturbing, especially if we take the early age of some respondents into account. Parents and teachers should be informed about this situation to be able to prepare for a timely intervention.

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EDUCATION FOR SECURITY IN DISPOSITIONAL GROUPS. THE FACTUAL STATE AND PROSPECTS

Abstract: Security is one of the main human needs. As a state and process it gives a sense of stability, peace, confidence and protection against danger. National security is assigned to social groups, society, nation, state and international systems. Caring for safety requires constant education, implemented both within schools and universities as well as institutional educational and preventive undertakings. An important distinction in education for security is the sociology of dispositional groups, presenting a separate archetype of formations related to state security systems, changing along with social development and civilization progress. The ever-changing reality forces changes in the education process for security purposes also in dispositional groups, whose position in the state security structures plays a special role, which the authors pointed out in the article.

Keywords: security, state security, education for security, globalization, sociology of dispositional groups, education in dispositional groups

SECURITY AS ONE OF THE MAIN HUMAN NEEDS

Security is a state that fully provides man with his self – fulfilment (Maciejewski, Nowaczyk, 2005). The security of the community is a social community characterized by a strong internal bond resulting from contemporary beliefs, feelings and acceptance of values. While accepting the views of M. Berkowitz and R.G. Bock “national security can be defined as the ability of a nation to protect its internal values against external threats”. It is identified with the security of the state. It expresses itself and is oriented to the internal needs, interests and values of a given society (nation) and its political system. Therefore, the national security policy expresses the desire to protect the state and society against

external and internal threats. Hence, education for safety is an important element in achieving this goal. The issue of broadly understood education for security in the face of the accompanying changes is nowadays an extremely important and increasingly popular aspect of considerations, involving both researchers and a wide range of stakeholders to a similar degree. We live in a world where the main features are fear, uncertainty and permanent fear for the future (Bauman, 2000, Karpiński, 2002). The reasons for this state of affairs are to be found in many factors, such as the scale and types of changes, progressive globalization, pauperization of society, mass unemployment, deepening stratification of society, "commodification" of social life. There are much more factors than the ones mentioned above, but all of them contribute to the increased interest of science, culture, politics and the media with all kinds of threats, the early recognition and neutralization of which gives a greater sense of security. The need for security as one of the main human needs determines the possibility of satisfying other equally important needs (e.g. existence, identity and development). Caring for personal safety is the basis for a rational interpretation and co-creation of structural security (Pieczywok, 2012).

EDUCATION AND ITS IMPORTANCE IN THE PERCEPTION OF SECURITY

Education in general is an element of secondary socialization, it is a very important process in the life of an individual. Widely understood science enables full human development and the emergence of a very important personality traits, freedom of thought, sensitivity. Education is transferring knowledge from generation to generation through a direct contact. After the primary institutions responsible for upbringing and adaptation to the human environment, school education influences its further development. Education is above all schooling, educating from primary and secondary schools to high schools. In most industrialized countries, education is characterized by a developed institutional network, which ensures a high level of literacy. Education by Anthony Giddens is simply a combination of direct interaction, teamwork and independent learning (Giddens, 2004). With the development of civilization and the spreading industrialization, education underwent various specializations creating a system of education that became universal, which was more often based on the sciences of abstract subjects such as mathematics. The modern era does not give a chance for full existence in society without reading or writing skills, and mass education has taken the form of schooling through specialized institutions. Education has become one of the most important factors affecting the possibility of finding employment. Good work and professional career have an impact on all spheres of life, from which depends the way of existence to a large extent, and thus the place in the social structure. It can therefore be assumed that education has become a determinant of human social status. It is of great importance in the scale of created macrostructures. Human resources depend on the development of society - economy, politics, etc. which is, among others dispositional groups (Maciejewski, 2012), even

more important because they are responsible for the security of entire nations. Broadly understood education has a significant impact on matters concerning the entire community of a given country. It provides peace not only within a given country but also good cooperation with the external environment, including international organizations.

THE IMPACT OF GLOBALIZATION ON THE DEVELOPMENT OF EDUCATION FOR SECURITY

However, a huge spectrum of conditions, causing numerous changes, has an impact on today's shape of education and the contribution of omnipresent globalization. Numerous processes associated with it affect every level of social life, favouring the perception of the world as one common home. The idea of a "global village" is also evident in education, and the socialization mission of the school shapes young man in the spirit of global consciousness, striving to make such vision of the world to come true. M. McLuhan's convictions about the functioning of society within the framework of global systems: economic, technological, ideological and ecological are one of the foundations of globalization. The popularization of numerous international relations in the field of economics, enormous scientific and technological achievements, unprecedented development and the ever-expanding scope of information technology are the contributions to rapid overcoming of time and space as well as approvals for Western models of life or being, becoming at the same time the determinants of globalization. It is worth noting that globalization through the multiplicity of its dimensions begins to be perceived in the plural, more and more often it is referred to as globalizations, not globalization. The areas in which this gives the most severe expression is the globalization of finance or high technology industries. There is also globalization of information, crime, drugs, the environment and others (Dzikiewicz-Gazda, Maciejewski, 2001). Scientists dealing with globalization say that the danger poses this process for democracy, which can be manifested by numerous tensions, riots caused by various asynchronous changes taking place in the world (Maciejewski, 2001). The defence of universal democratic values addresses broadly understood education, mainly focused in schools. The spreading of global awareness should take place through the message: convictions about the existing universal elements of culture, the common biological status of people and their mental equipment, shaping the understanding of themselves and other people in relation to the world as an element of the Earth's ecosystem, developing the ability to see themselves and their own social group as active participants in the international life, perception of understanding civilization as common, global cultural resources created by humanity, realizing that the values of given cultures are based on different assumptions (Maciejewski, 2001). In the changing reality, education has evolved in an attempt to abandon traditional methods, means and organizational forms. Human rights appeared for the first time in the postulates of education, which has a significant impact on deciding on their

own fate. There are new ideas in education, axiology, education technology and social functions. In the local dimension, it was the implementation of the educational paradigm, occurring until the end of the eighties. Zbigniew Kwieciński described the crisis of education in particular, distinguishing three main types of crisis - functional, essential and existential (Kwieciński, 1995).

THE IMPACT OF POLITICAL CHANGES ON DEFENSE EDUCATION PROCESSES

Historical and geopolitical changes largely affected not only the socio-political sphere, but also the international strength of our geographical area. This also applies to changes in the attitudes of various formations and dispositional groups (including military, paramilitary, civil and volunteer groups) against the background of opportunities and prospects for cooperation, national integration regarding internal and external security of the state. Accessible groups as defined by Eliot Freidson are groups with a high degree of professionalism and joining them is conditioned by the opinion of the professionals themselves. They have a professional character and carry out specialized functions within a separate state security system, also fulfilling functions which are useful for its citizens (Maciejewski, 2012). They prepare to fulfil various security functions by undertaking ventures in various fields and areas.

Comprehensive, specialist education of current and future cadres of these groups play an important role in this case. Education for safety is generally carried out on two levels: within schools and universities as a teaching subject, and as many educational and preventive projects in the field of security organized by various state institutions (Wiśniewska-Paź, 2014). Education should be preparing as best as possible for all activities both in the face of threat and war as well as in peacetime through the transfer of appropriate knowledge and acquiring professional skills. The goals of education for security are generally clear. Their goals are, among other things, to create the right attitudes and values, as well as to acquire the necessary specialist knowledge and skills to act in difficult or conflict situations and to counteract various threats. Education, therefore, becomes the most important factor responsible for the shape of the trained participants of the dispositional groups now and in the future as well as the state of our defence. Defence education takes multifunctional and multitasking activities that are also subject to numerous differentiation and reforms. As an integral part of the education system, it is subject to a change to a similar degree as the entire educational system, focusing on the increasing importance of the forms and scope of parallel education. The idea of the national education system in the face of socio-political and economic changes is to understand contemporary civilization as an integral part of the scientific-technical and humanistic revolution and prepare society to face global and local problems, ensuring high quality processes and human factors in every sphere of life. The dynamic development of modern technologies, covering every sphere of life and the importance of information

exchange means is considered to be the largest factor of evolution in the education system. Such processes make the traditional education system constantly modify and adapt to the current needs of society.

The goals and content of education are the most important spheres in which current changes occur. The task and quality needs forced re-evaluation and changes in mechanisms that existed in the implementation of program reforms of theoretical and practical education at all levels. New education programs are prepared by actors of dispositional groups in general and professional specialist in accordance with the latest training doctrine. Educational units making new organizational and program assumptions in educational processes are guided by three paradigms: preparation for independent solving of problems resulting from professional situations; shaping professional and intellectual skills of self-improvement, enabling the implementation of rapid changes in all areas and spheres; preparation for cooperation in the structures of NATO, the UN and other international organizations (Kulczycki, Maciejewski, 2001). Specialization in the public security sector, ensuring reliability of state structures, as a result of socio-cultural development balances the progressive process of dynamic transformations. The construction of programs and ever-better education content has become a reference to the imposed tasks for particular military groups as well as paramilitary dispositions. Relations between entities of the security system are intensified along with task-oriented specialization (Stochmal, 2015). The institutional landscape of formation, services and entities responsible for state security are changing dynamically. The infrastructure of specialist education as a result of the introduction of new education technologies, computerization and multithreaded information has also changed significantly. Good equipment of training units is an important determinant of the quality of education, however the most important seems to be teaching and instructing staff as well as trainers themselves. The role of learners is important from the point of view of the selection of materials and content and the selection of methods for conducting didactic-specialist classes. The continuous development of information technology, the massive digitization of communication and education forces the introduction of the best education and information technologies.

THE ROLE AND IMPORTANCE OF EDUCATION OF DISPOSITIONAL GROUPS IN ENSURING SECURITY

Considering the specifics of the social system in which dispositional groups were set up and the functions assigned to them in the security system, they were divided typologically into military, paramilitary, civil and volunteer groups. The typology of dispositional groups adopted in this way the results from the specificity of the systems which they originate from, the scope of the activities assigned to them and the level of organization. A specific and dispositional structure in the military system is the army with its

various formations (Border Service, Military Police, Intelligence Agencies, Government Protection Service, etc.), whose availability is of special nature for internal and external security. The functioning of the Polish army in the structures of military organizations in Europe and the world is of great importance in the education of soldiers and personnel of the Polish Army.

It is important to mention the most important changes in education, among others cadets on the example of Military academies. The priority is to strengthen and disseminate knowledge necessary for proper functioning in the structures of international alliances. An important issue is outside specialist general education. In order to understand the demands put forward by NATO, one must learn about the principles of international security, the strategic concept, political, defence and economic issues relevant to Poland; cooperation of Polish armed forces with international institutions in shaping the international security environment. The cooperation of professional soldiers in international structures requires not only knowledge of the language, but also understanding of cultural and mental differences that have consequences for international cooperation. The importance of this type of knowledge is necessary in crisis situations in which soldiers of the Polish Army may be found, and there are also media tasks for commanders in the era of widespread interest in the mass media. International cooperation requires extensive knowledge on the functioning of NATO as well as the adaptation of education programs to NATO standards and, consequently, the preparation of teaching and commanding staff (Kulczycki, Maciejewski, 2001). Military academies place particular emphasis on educating their students in accordance with the standards of military alliances, implementing training objectives for the Armed Forces, in language courses, mastering military terminology and the ability to develop basic documents, as well as active participation in interoperability projects. These tasks are determinants of didactic, educational and logistic activities. The implementation of the assumptions is based on the timely achievement of objectives by the Polish Armed Forces through the training of officer cadres as well as the introduction of documents and command procedures in accordance with NATO standards. The tasks aimed at achieving integration are based on many joint programs and ventures. Military academies implement the above assumptions by smoothly changing cadet education programs, preparing teaching staff to complete new education programs, especially in the methodological field, training professional and contract soldiers according to NATO doctrines, making didactic casing adjusting the education base according to NATO directives, training according to NATO doctrines¹. The deepening of knowledge about the North Atlantic Alliance is carried out by promoting the role of Poland and the goals and benefits of cooperation with the Alliance, ensuring peace in the world, pointing to the place of the Armed Forces in the alliance and learning about its political and military structure, presenting issues related to international security. The sources of conflicts, methods of their prevention and methods of solving by means of the political and military factors of

the Alliance are also shown. Popularization of NATO's achievements, by humanitarian actions, but also showing unsuccessful activities, familiarizing officers, civilians with examples of such activities, is also education and training of professional soldiers and commanders. Other examples of education are introducing the actors of the dispositional groups to the ways of conducting tactical and humanitarian actions in order to maintain peace in the world, showing the importance of NATO for peace or revealing Poland's political goals for maintaining sovereignty through participation in the alliance (Kulczycki, Maciejewski, 2001).

The changes taking place in the education process of military dispositional groups are aimed at shaping such values as patriotism, civic and pro-state attitude, duly preparing for broadly understood international cooperation and using civilizational progress to adequately safeguard the external and internal sovereignty of the state.

Groups supporting military operations of dispositional groups are paramilitary groups that complement the needs of the armed forces to ensure internal security of the state and peace. Separation of specialized dispositional groups, included in the paramilitary system, is complicated, because although some formations are made on the military model, they are not officially military in character (Maciejewski, 2012). We include, above all, Police, Prison Service, State Fire Service and several other formations with officially paramilitary status are included in these groups. Their actions consist in maintaining social order in designated areas of activity. The states distinguished in the administrative structure strengthen its existence. Uniformed officers in these dispositional and uniform groups are subject to hierarchy, discipline, drill, barracking and significant limitation of family life for the benefit of inside and outside group social roles (Zagórski, 2000). In the civilian social system, along with the development of civilization, two types of dispositional groups have been formed, which may exist in the administrative structure of the state, as well as they function in self-government structures. As private units, they can also provide various services to counteract threats to life. Their main distinguishing feature is the lack of military and paramilitary elements in the organization and in action. These are all kinds of specialized emergency services (emergency medical, mining, energy, water, road, etc.). However, the consequence of the increase in public involvement of citizens in the prevention of threats, the catalogue of which is not covered by the activities of other professional dispositional groups, is a contribution to the creation of the so-called voluntary dispositional groups. The creation and functioning of volunteer of such groups is an expression of the high level of social and civic awareness of people who participate in them. The professional experience of volunteers acquired in the activities of these groups often allows them to move to paramilitary or even military groups later on. Considering the groups of available professional specializations created within the security system, fulfilling a special role for public safety, it is necessary to emphasize the importance of the requirements regarding knowledge and skills for the actors of dispositional groups. Their high availability due to the

specialized and specific nature of activities in a relatively limited scope, at the same time imposes the requirements of the highest degree of professionalization. In practice, this means that the participants of dispositional groups need to master many professions and specialties, to engage in the tasks of the group or organization, to present appropriate attitudes and ethical behaviours, self-fulfilment, self-control and self-assessment of achievements (Chojnacki, 2008).

Security understood as a state or process (expressing duration), ensuring a sense of stability, peace, confidence and security, as well as lack of threat and protection from danger (Wiśniewska-Paź) requires constant monitoring and implementation of modern educational processes in society. This necessity also applies to dispositional groups whose high professionalism and effective operation in a state of emergency provides the public with a sense of security.

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CATEGORICAL OBSERVATION SYSTEM OF HUMANISTIC ANDRAGOGICAL WORK OF AN ADULT EDUCATOR

Abstract: Unlike other areas with a strong focus on services, adult education has just recently begun to consider the role of ethics and its relationship to practice. Therefore the last few years have been showing the importance of ethics in our lives, not excepting the life of adult educators, because they affect the lives of other people. The ethical aspects of education and adult education have institutional, personal, and process dimensions. We consider the educator to be the most important process determinant that works directly in the implementation of adult learning processes. The ethical dimension of the andragogical activity of an educator should lie primarily in their relation to adult learners. A deeper explanation of the ethics of an educator can be found in the humanistic teaching about learning and education, and in the humanistic concept of the science of education. The study of the theoretical origins of the andragogical and ethical influence of the educator also requires tools to diagnose and support the development of their ethical capabilities. The paper presents a proposal for an observational categorical system of the humanistically oriented andragogical work of an educator. The system includes basic postulates of humanizing education and adult education.

Keywords: andragogical ethics, andragogical work of an educator, observational system

INTRODUCTION

Teaching and other pedagogical or andragogical professions are part of the occupations in which the human related matters and human dignity play a crucial role. It is therefore a surprising fact that there is no ethical concept in adult education in both the international and the domestic space. I. Siegel (2000) points to the fact that in the 1990s

a number of authors dispraised the fact that ethical issues are little addressed in the adult education literature, and specifically how the ethical concepts relate to the area of adult learning and its practice. Abroad, this topic has long been seen as an area that sparked a major debate on the need and the appropriateness of creating a universal ethical code for adult educators.

As stated by S. Ianinska and J. Garcia (2006), adult education has also a moral dimension, which is evident from the efforts of various groups in the US, to develop ethical guidelines for practice, e.g. The Coalition of Adult Education Organizations (1993), Michigan Adult and Community Educators (1994), the Association for Adult and Continuing Education (Lawler, 2000) and the Academy of Human Resource Development (1999). The mere existence of these efforts is a strong indirect indicator of the fact that adult educators encounter unpleasant ethical issues in their practice and seek help to address them. As far as the Slovak and Czech learning and adult education is concerned, there would be no point in looking for a conference or professional literature devoted to the ethical context of an andragogical activity throughout its history. However, it can be observed that the last few years have been showing the importance of ethics in our lives, not excepting the life of adult educators, since they affect the lives of other people. Unlike other areas with a strong focus on services, adult education has just recently begun to consider the role of ethics and its relationship to practice.

The following fact is also claimed by the authors I. Pavlov and M. Schubert (2016, p. 8) who state that: "The current andragogical theory contains only partial results of research on the application of ethical theories, concepts, models in learning and adult education in general and individually in applied disciplines of andragogy (professional, social, cultural and educational andragogy)". Authors (2016, p. 9) further note that they even consider this situation imprudent and state: "If we understand ethics as a reflexive theory of morality, then the absence of ethical aspects in andragogy is imprudent, especially because moral decisions are a regular part of the theory and practice of education and adult education". For the reasons mentioned above, the urgent need to conceptualize the starting points of the andragogical ethics was confirmed, and more attention has now been paid to ethical issues in the Slovak andragogical space. The result is an increasing number of studies related to ethics and the research project VEGA No. 1/0581/16 Andragogical Ethics in the Theory of Adult Education has been launched at the Department of Andragogy of the Faculty of Education of the Matej Bel University in Banská Bystrica in 2016. This scientific project deals with the current need for the improvement of andragogical work in learning and adult education through an interdisciplinary and multidisciplinary study of ethical theories applicable in andragogy. Hence creating a new theoretical concept of andragogical ethics (androetics), which reflects the need for ethically anchored practices in the creation of goals, contents, methods and forms in adult learning and education, in the presence of all parties of the andragogical relationship (educator / participant), but also of the providers of educational programmes and education.

Today, it is clear that ethics is an integral part of adult education, but greater awareness and sensitivity to ethical issues and reflections on adult learning is needed, as studies on the moral dimensions of andragogy can contribute to the development of effective and supportive mechanisms that could be relevant for all the elements in practice. The presented article focuses on andragogical ethics, specifically the personal ethical dimension and the role of an educator. The aim of the study is to introduce a categorical observational system of the analysis of the humanistically oriented andragogical work of an educator in learning and adult education.

THREE ETHICAL DIMENSIONS AND THE ROLE OF AN EDUCATOR

We can see the relatively broad-spectrum disposition of a graduate and the mission of an andragogue in the horizontal level of the practical disciplines of andragogy. Therefore the interconnection with ethics is urgently needed. I. Pavlov and M. Schubert (2016) claim that andragogical ethics examines the vertical intersection of three ethical dimensions on the horizontal level of its practical disciplines (professional, social, cultural and educational andragogy) (figure 1):

- personal – ethical codes of an andragogue and subgroups – educators, mentors, tutors, coaches, as well as the personality integrity of a person (participant);
- processual – ethics of education, ethical aspects of creation of programmes, goals, methods, forms and means of education, education and counselling;
- institutional – ethics of the provider of public education service, ethics of organization management and its entrepreneurship in education, ethics of trade with education service and the like.

Figure 1. Andragogical and ethical dimensions in the **intersection** of practical andragogy

Source: Pavlov – Schubert, 2016, p. 21

The world of adult education, from an ethical perspective, is highly dependent on the ethics of individual adult educators because they are seen as a key factor in the quality of adult education and their work has a major impact on learning outcomes.

Who actually is an educator? According to S. Hotár et al. (2000), the term originally referred to an external university teacher. Nowadays, it is used only as a concept for workers who engage in an interactive learning process of teaching in further education. The term was adopted in further education in the post war period in an attempt to distinguish between school and extracurricular education. The lecturer is a basic factor for the fulfilment of learning objectives, therefore the precondition for the performance of this activity is not only the professionally related knowledge of the educator but also the basic knowledge of andragogy. A certain andragogical mastery is required, which can be understood as the deep level of their theoretical knowledge and practical experience, complemented by lecturing skills, including andragogical, motivational, organizational, rhetorical, communicative, didactic and creative abilities.

Experts differ in their views on what personality traits should be available to the educator, but their ethics are, in our view, a very important prerequisite for educational activity that can be rightly considered one of the most important elements of the adult educator's personality.

The value-motivational relation of the educator to the educational activity will most likely be essential, perhaps decisive influence on the quality of educational activity. The value-motivational relation of the educator includes at least three types of relations:

1. relation to pedagogical work, in which the purpose and personal meaning of the work is defined;
2. relation to the personality of a learner, which is principal;
3. relation to the personality of an educator and hence their relation to themselves in the role of an educator (so-called self-concept) (Beňo, 2001).

Which concept is the principal from the viewpoint of the andragogical role of the educator in learning and adult education? In the educational sphere, we can see several "powers" – concepts that compete with each other. According to Š. Švec (1997), the psychodynamic, behavioural, cognitive and humanistic learning theories are the best known. Each of these approaches asserts its own concept of a learner, but we see the starting point in the humanistically oriented andragogical influence of an educator. As stated by M. Zelina (2004), the humanistic concept originated as a reaction to dissatisfaction with cognitive, pragmatic and classical theories and approaches to education.

It should be noted that the main purpose of the humanistically-oriented learning process is also to influence the emotional area of attitudes and value orientation of the learner. Humanistic education as a concept or approach in learning and adult education is crucial in terms of the andragogical activity of an educator in learning and adult education. The most important issue of humanization of the education is therefore the change of the personal attitude of an educator as its main participant. Thus the educator and the issues

related to their relationship to teenage adults come first when analyzing the question of how to educate.

According to M. Zelina (2004), it is necessary to do three things in the context of the philosophy of humanism and faith in man:

- to radically change the training of adult educators (with emphasis on the “educational aspect”, non-cognitive development, motivation, creation of a non-directive relationship, etc.);
- to change the policy of educational institutions; traditional educational policy is based on the authority and power of the educator. Rogers-oriented education is based on self-discipline, self-control and the independence and creativity of both learners and educator;
- to create a more flexible environment that creates positive attitudes towards discipline, success in education, education system goals and reforms.

STRUCTURED ANDRAGOGICAL OBSERVATIONAL SYSTEM (HUMANISTIC ORIENTATION)

The aim of the paper is to introduce a categorical system of humanistic education, the author of which is Š. Švec (1997). However, we have modified this system from the original pedagogical environment for the andragogical work of an educator in adult education. This system is built on the knowledge synthesis of multiple sources of cognition and fixation of beliefs. As noted by Š. Švec (1997), those are particularly: value orientations in the exemplary styles of his teachers – humanists; conceptual research and a systematizing analysis of contributions in this and related fields (various publications); his own research collaboration with his thesis writing students; introspection and reflection on his own work as a teacher of a humanitarian subject – pedagogy as an anthropological science of education. This system includes the basic postulates and means of education humanization and the main characteristics of the concept of humanistic education. Though, important to us is the fact that it constitutes a thoughtful and organized structure which underpins a systematic observation. Š. Švec (1997) states that this categorical system of humanistic education can be applied in the observation of the educational process from the point of view of purpose-selected elements of the categorical system of education analysis. The system consists of ten categories, each contains several indicators of humanistic education. The system has the following form after our modification:

1. Indicators of emotionalization of the educational process
 - 1.1 **expressive transfer of the factual meaning of a subject** (e.g. emotional words and statements, written emphasis or repetition of acquired concepts, principles and effective intonation, informative mimics, expressive gesture),

- 1.2 expressions of personal **sympathy to every learner** (e.g. smile, attentiveness, polite observation of the learner's expressions, indications of approval, approaching the learner, touch),
- 1.3 enabling learners to **openly** and emotionally **experience** and comment on the learning activity and its outcomes in the learning room and beyond, without any internal barriers and external interventions,
- 1.4 utilization and talking about **personal experiences** and using imagination of the learners to understand the existence and behaviour of other people,
- 1.5 demonstrating the **sensibility and empathy** of an educator in the area of goals, needs and problems of the learners,
2. Indicators of educator's transfer of enthusiasm and vitality to the learners
 - 2.1 "contagious" **demonstration of enthusiasm for professional help of the learners and their welfare**,
 - 2.2 demonstration of the **awareness of one's own philosophy of education** and its application in work,
 - 2.3 demonstration of one's **modesty**, signs of **self-assurance** and **self-trust**, adequate **self-concept**, and a **healthy confidence of an educator** (as a prerequisite for model formation of such behaviour, even in learners), especially in helping them to learn the humility to human knowledge and the desire to know and spread the truth...
3. Indicators of stimulation of the purposefulness, independence and creativity of the learners
 - 3.1 **accepting the learner's inputs** (reflection, development, commenting, summary, evaluation),
 - 3.2 promoting **spontaneity, self-control and self-regulation, initiative**, learning curiosity of the learners; demonstrating the ability to **motivate the activity** of the learners **without any pressure**,
 - 3.3 questioning learning tasks and other **stimulation** of the learners' **independent alternative and intuitive ideas**, unusual suggestions, enabling learners to independently, laterally (divergently) and **critically think** in any learning situation,
 - 3.4 provoking a **constructive, non-offending polemic among learners**, allowing them to argue also with an educator, encouraging group conversation, enabling learners to conduct a lecturer-aided conversation with an invited guest,
4. Indicators of respecting learners' uniqueness as unique individuals, distinctive self-
 - 4.1 creators, exceptional bearers of human rights, responsibilities and values.
 - 4.2 continuous survey of individual **learning potential, needs, interests and aspirations of learners**; their way of seeing and understanding the phenomena; the strengths and weaknesses of the personality,
 - 4.3 attempting to place **adequate demands on learners**, to optimize the learning load with respect to individual differences,

- 4.4 providing the learners with a **sense of learning** for their own life and personal perspectives, the sense of their own erudition and their own share in the learning process,
- 4.5 establishing **cooperative and partnership relations** between educator and learner,
- 4.5 demonstrating a full understanding of ontogenetic specifics and full **respect for the value of the personality of the learners** in terms of social integration and the differentiation of learners (with regard to the somatic, psychical and sociocultural differences between the learners, i.e. in view of their age, gender, physique, health, physical and mental disadvantages, talent, assumed capabilities, motivational structures, family, social and subcultural background, ethnicity, belief, etc.)
5. Indicators of the support of the learners' confidence, self-verification, self-realization, self-interpretation and assistance in the development of positive confidence and self-concept
 - 5.1 **encouraging learners** to complete tasks and tackle problems of gradual complexity,
 - 5.2 pointing to the advantages, potentials, aptitude, talents of the learners; **manifestation of belief in the potential of learners**,
 - 5.3 enable learners to **apply their own way of** self-expression and self-realization
6. Indicators of tolerance of different views, beliefs, attitudes, life philosophy, cultural preferences of other people
 - 6.1 creating **conditions for** identifying, **understanding, and accepting opinions of other or others** (e.g., finding out the sources and motives of different viewpoint of a learner, finding out if the different opinion and attitude is based on facts or norms, or even illusions, prejudices, doctrines, dogmas; analysis of ways of dealing with real cases of disagreements, quarrels, conflict behaviour; solution of model – simulated conflict situations.
 - 6.2 helping learners to **overcome all forms of prejudices** and to discover bias, tendentiousness, one-sidedness, e.g. raising awareness of the possible consequences of xenophobia, ethnocentrism, nationalism and national assimilation, modifying learners' attitudes towards foreign and their own culture, helping them to appreciate the richness of cultural diversity and understand the meaning of varied lifestyles,
 - 6.3 **tolerance of ambiguity, bilingualism and alternatives** in learning communication, with the effort to present both own and new ideas in a clear, consistent and appropriate way,
 - 6.4 playing the role of a **debater and a counsellor** rather than the one of a single judge in cases of opposing opinions,
 - 6.5 **tolerance of learners' opinions and attitudes** that are different from the opinion and attitude of the educator while at the same time directing learners to mutual tolerance.

7. Indicators of preferring positive (feedback) evaluation of learners by educator, other learners and self-evaluation
 - 7.1 (varied) emphasized **confirmation of the correctness of the answer**,
 - 7.2 (colourful) **positive feedback** on the learner's response,
 - 7.3 (diverse) **highlighting the originality** of learner's performance,
 - 7.4 looking for partial performance accuracy, finding positive elements in the incorrect answer, justifying the error of the learner, constructively **applying learning from one's mistakes**,
 - 7.5 **encouraging learners** to experience failure and lack of success...
8. Indicators of moral socialization and development of cultural and prosocial behaviour of learners
 - 8.1 **exemplifying the model**, including the model of learner and educator as an example of the virtuous life of a free, fair, responsible, democratic, social, tolerant, obliging, cooperative, independent and altruistic person,
 - 8.2 **careful assessment of values** (good-evil, justice-injustice, freedom-oppression, truth-lie, beautiful-ugly, health-sickness, etc.)
 - 8.3 **co-implying the solutions to social ailments** (lowering of the standards of working ethics and the overall work culture, unemployment, emigration, crime, vandalism, alcoholism, drug abuse, environmental pollution, neglect of social health, lowering of quality of life, taking over foreign models – consumerism and other lifestyles, greediness, addiction, religious intolerance, ethnic conflicts, racial discrimination, bullying, high divorce rate, alienation and other deficits in our and foreign cultures).
 - 8.4 ethisation, democratization and aesthetisation of interpersonal relationships and other means of **prosocial development and moral socialization of learners** as good fellow participants in the educational process, future efficient workers, free and responsible citizens, caring parents, good spouses, tolerant neighbours, believers, cultural communicators, travellers, bearers and creators of better relationships and new values.
9. Indicators of formation of favourable social-emotional climate and stimulative educational environment during educational process
 - 9.1 creating and maintaining a favourable atmosphere, true **personal freedom and authentic communication**, mutual openness and trust, mutual closeness, understanding and acceptance; mutual tolerance, support, aid and relative dependence; the atmosphere of cooperation,
 - 9.2 providing conditions of good **working atmosphere** (not being pressed for time during fulfilment of assigned tasks, etc.), good working mood, satisfaction with the educational process and work, both in pairs and in small groups,
 - 9.3 creating or **promoting cooperation** rather than the spirit of competition,

- 9.4 creating situations and conditions that make **learning meaningful**, non-schematic, entertaining, appealing, a positive experience, joyful and at the same time demanding, exhausting, adequately difficult, but also challenging, stimulating, developing,
- 9.5 educators' **self-control and self-regulation** of their interactive **behaviour** (to be able to be trustworthy, sensitive, empathic, affable, polite, loving, honest, patient, tolerant, fair, principled, impartial, democratic, vital, eager, creative, unifying, confident, respected) in order to be effective as a counsellor, consultant, partner, and at the same time to play a role of the "learner" in an effort to improve the quality of life of learners and the quality of educator's work,
- 10. Other observed manifestations of humanistic and andragogical work
 - 10.1 We leave the last category open as other possible indicators that occur in the educator's teaching activity and can be added during the observation.

CONCLUSION

The absence of ethical concepts in andragogical literature is a significant and motivating factor on the path towards exploration of ethical elements, theories and concepts in the Slovak andragogical space.

A categorical observation system can be used to detect the occurrence of phenomena on an interval scale. In the next step we will observe a group of educators and investigate which signs and manifestations of humanistic education occur (never-sometimes-often) in their teaching activity. Based on the results, it will be possible to draw conclusions, e.g. the order of occurrence of the individual categories; which category is the most represented and which is the least represented; what is the proportion of the category in relation to other categories, etc.

It is important that each category of observation is clearly and uniquely defined, to ensure validity and reliability. In order to ensure it, we will do the first field research in the pre-survey – we will initially verify the observation categories.

In an andragogical practice, the dissemination of research results can provide both current and future adult education educators with a greater understanding of the ethical aspects of their activities. Such research will also increase the visibility of the moral dimension of adult educational practice. Ultimately, the main output will be the design of an education program entitled "An Ethical Programme for Adult Education and Learning Educators" that can be used in the training of educators.

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MULTIDIMENSIONAL CHARACTER OF SELF-CREATION — THEORETICAL AND METHODOLOGICAL OVERVIEW

Abstract: Problems discussed in this paper may become a starting point of wider research and studies on self-creation as multidimensional reality of personal development. Such broad definition of self-creation reveals intentional character of human efforts to make their humanity real in their dynamically developed and transformed relationship with the world.

Here, complex and internally well-developed character of self-creation is considered both, in anthropological-axiological perspective of relation between men and the world, as well as in the context of lifelong autobiographical reflection of individuals as subjects who intentionally lead their own life. The first perspective allows us to see the process of personal development and growth in self-creation; process in which the drama of human existence becomes a reality. It reveals self-creation as a space of subjective choices and decisions regarding the key question of becoming more and more fully human. These choices and decisions are made for the most fundamental aspects of human existence, identified with agathological and axiological perspective. The other, biography-related perspective of self-creation, points out to its close relationship with the prospective nature of biography and human ability to reflect on their autobiography. It involves reflection on one's journey towards personal maturity that connects the spheres of contemplative, searching, ethical, designing and volitional thinking. The significance of biographical perspective of self-creation is shown in the fact that self-creation becomes a personal life project recognized as important existential challenge, rather than inner fight or struggle.

The last part of the paper is a discussion on the point and meaning of questions about self-creation in the perspective of potential research areas. It lists research areas regarding holistically viewed self-creation, and justifies the shift towards biographical research

anchored within the interpretative paradigm. Qualitative research perspective may be helpful in identifying the paths of personal self-creation of modern men.

Keywords: self-creation, multidimensional character of self-creation, agathological and axiological perspective of self-creation, biographical learning, potential research areas, qualitative research methodology

INTRODUCTION — IN SEARCH OF HUMANITY

We could ask what is a man who, having mind, is capable to learn and create, to rule and choose with his will, and to love while searching for good? (Krapiec, 1991, p. 11–25; see also: Chilsholm, 1964, 24–35; Kane, 1996, 21–31). What is his place in the world he lives in? In an attempt to answer this, we should conclude that humans — due to their specific traits — hold a unique position on Earth. According to J. Bruller: “Humanity is not a state we are born with. It’s a dignity we have to achieve” (Vercors, 1975). It is a dignity associated with ability to intentionally manage one’s own life and development, and the development of the Earth; dignity that involves refusal to accept evil and constant attempts to determine humanitarianism (Michnowski, 1999, p. 300).

J. Tischner had a point saying: “The only thing you can say about a man is that he is. And it is because he is in the stage of ongoing becoming. The meaning of this process is to transform from a person he is thanks to his very own nature, into a personality, that is, to reach his full spiritual and physical potential. The more he becomes that personality, the more is he human” (Tischner, 2000, p. 10). The course of this development is from an individual to a personality. This process is never accidental, however — besides intentional influences — it is also a result of unplanned events and circumstances. But without a doubt, being open to Others (love of people) is a necessary condition, as it provides opportunity for dialogue and meeting of Me and You.

Human life is a time when people construct their wholeness and search for their unique form of existence. It happens through ongoing transformations. Old forms evolve in new ones, and previous structures fall apart or become the foundation for new aspects of our existence, both physical and spiritual. Individuals are responsible for fulfilling the truth about themselves and the world. This dual truth about themselves and the world underlies all kinds of human efforts to transform the tangible reality (Pope John Paul II, 2005, p. 85–86).

Reflection on the process of becoming a human leads to another question: Are we experiencing the regress of humanity? In his first encyclical, Pope John Paul II wrote: “But the question keeps coming back with regard to what is most essential - whether in the context of this progress man, as man, is becoming truly better, that is to say more mature spiritually, more aware of the dignity of his humanity, more responsible, more open to others, especially the neediest and the weakest, and readier to give and to aid all” (Pope

John Paul II, 1979). Truly, it requires much strength, consistency and determination to live in today's world and not to lose sight of the values our humanity is based upon. In other words, refuse to yield to fashions, circumstances and technological innovations. We cannot stop technological progress but we should learn to live in the technicised world with dignity, evaluating "new" in terms of how much it fosters our humanity. According to Pope Benedict XVI: "If technical progress is not matched by corresponding progress in man's ethical formation, in man's inner growth then it is not progress at all but a threat for man and for the world" (Pope Benedict XVI, 2007).

Today we see these growing threats and the regress of humanity revealed, for example, in pathology of human behaviours or wasting human intellectual and spiritual inheritance (Michnowski, 1999, p. 300 and following.). People are lost in the present day, neglecting values, unable to see meaning in their lives, and passive — which is a tragedy of our times. The reason for this lies in neglecting the values that promote good, or confirm and strengthen humanity (Śliwierski, 2011, 11–25; Nowak, 2006, 149). In other words, without this foundation of values (axiological basis), individuals are torn by life's storms that quickly deprive them of their humanity. Courage is then replaced by cowardice and constant anxiety, and tolerance gives way to aversion to the world, other people and everything that does not fit into our worldview. What is left of the fullness of human existence, is just "burned stump" — not only unable to live but even too wretched to "truly die" (Górniok-Naglik, 2011, p. 154).

To summarise, when asking about humanity, we ask about the meaning of life that is an expression of self-awareness, a component necessary for our psycho-spiritual development. In our attempts to answer it, we turn our focus towards biographical studies. This allows us to show the phenomenon of personal self-creation and, at the same time, to avoid too analytical and reductionist (as defined by philosophical anthropology) approach towards the structure of human existence (Wolicka, 1985, p. 37; Nowak, 2008, 56; Rembierz, 2016, 136–138).

RELATION BETWEEN MAN AND THE WORLD VS. MULTIDIMENSIONAL NATURE OF SELF-CREATION

Relation between man and the world involves interactions and conditions leading towards harmonious coexistence. In these relations, individuals multiply their resources and, being part of the bigger whole and anticipating its order and simplicity, co-create new image of the world. Different interests, ambitions, needs and abilities are integral part of these relationships. These conflicts are necessary for ongoing development of humans, and they themselves undergo transformation along the way.

Man strives to achieve external unity with the world, as well as internal integrity. Forces active in this process complement one another, each of them shaping a new component of humanity. Lack of consent to one's inner harmony is necessary for this development:

complementing contradictions determine the order of self-organising systems. At the same time, some degree of dynamic imbalance is indispensable (Łukaszewicz, 1994, p. 63).

Everyday experiences and endless natural and artificial, real and imagined contradictions provoke questions about humanity. This phenomenon is a derivative of answers to question about the origin of human consciousness (Laszlo, 2002, p. 40–42). These questions, searching for meaning of life and reflection on human condition are some of the urgent problems of today's world; the world struggling with a deepening crisis of values and degradation of spiritual life, deprived of reflection upon man and his potential for growth and self-creation.

Depending on the adopted criteria, mutual relations between man and the world reveal three attitudes towards learning. First — **leaves people to themselves**, assuming that the world formed by individuals shaped this way will always turn out to be “some”. Second approach assumes that **people are shaped by their family, society and institutions**, thus they are a product, material to be processed whereas parents and teachers are the “producers” (Olbrycht, 2002, p. 9–10). From the point of view of progressive self-creation, third approach is the most relevant as it assumes **reflection upon man and what constitutes him**, and thus leads to creating humanity — understood universally in the aspect of man's presence in the world and engaging with others during present and future mutual interactions between himself and the world.

Humans do not live in a void: they exist and grow, constantly oscillating between “I” and “you”, between their own **individuality and their society**, and the world. Therefore, our attempt to define self-creation leads us to the following sources: **social** (family, society, institutions), **psychological** (becoming of personal “I”) and, perhaps first of all, **axiological**. R. Schulz defined self-creation as: “1) product of objective conditions resulting from increasingly complex internal environment of humans; 2) effect of new requirements of individuals' internal life; 3) result of currently approved value system” (Schulz, 1990, p. 238). This definition reveals the **necessity of adopting multidimensional approach to self-creation process**. Each of the above mentioned spheres of human existence (social, personal, axiological) has a different set of conditions and criteria that enable self-creation. We will not analyse them in this article.

An initial stage of self-creation (though at the same time, parallel) is **self-identification**. M. Gołaszewska lists the following main forms of self-identification: 1) self-identification through external forms of existence; 2) self-identification as a social role (“**being as**”); 3) self-identification through expressive behaviours (“**being self**”); 4) self-identification through implementation of ideas and values (“**being in service of ideas**”) (Gołaszewska, 1977, p. 164). Here, we can observe tension between the external and the internal, a process in which what is mine is reflected in the world, and the world, in turn, constantly enriches “me”.

In other words, manifesting living in a way to be able to keep balance between what is mine and what belongs to others and the world — this is the way towards self-creation.

We try to stay faithful to ourselves and, at the same time, we strive to transform ourselves and the world. Two foundational aspects intersect here: self-reflection and action, or an attempt to answer not only the question: *Who am I?*, but — maybe primarily — *Who am I becoming?* The questions that are so much needed and unique today.

While searching for meaning of his own life within the anthroposphere, man finds himself in different learning, acting and transcending situations (Gołaszewska, 1988, p. 100). They are subordinate to the situation paramount to man and his world — axiological situation. According to M. Gołaszewska, “both, the world and people are the source of values” (Gołaszewska, 1988, pp. 102, 103). This directs our attention towards **anthropological-axiological dimension of self-creation**. It is particularly important and definitely less exposed than **creative dimension** understood as **creative activity that transforms its subject**; an activity which cannot be reduced to some general pattern or stereotype and which would be impossible without prior reflection on what is important for the subject. Therefore, in this dimension of self-creation, it is also very important to identify values deciding about the meaning of achievements and life goals of the subject. In general, the normative dimension of self-creation forces us to investigate the issue of subjectiveness of individuals, their awareness, identity type and, in particular, the attitude of freedom that leads to a sense of duty and responsibility for values they have encountered so far. This leads directly to self-transcendence connected with intense experiencing of the recognized values.

Man should manage the whole of his life and its assumed meaning in the process of existing as *ens per se* (Gołaszewska) — as being shaped also for others. Finding this meaning is tightly tied to evaluation. S. Kunowski writes the following: “... evaluation results from the ability to love and connect with the good and the truth in your experience, therefore spirituality may create the highest ideals of Good, Truth, Beauty and Holiness, and follow these ideals” (Kunowski, 1993, p. 189; see also: Sinitsyn, Hentonen, 2015, 278–279). We need to emphasise that **self-creation (forming of self) takes place in agathological and axiological perspective** (Tischner, 2012, 61; Harvey, 1997, 15, 36–37; Wadowski, 2012, 101–122). This is connected with experiencing the drama of existence, which focuses on a dilemma of choosing between good and evil in relationships with other humans. Agathological perspective reveals ethical importance of choosing between good and evil, the latter understood in its radical variant as negation of good and opposing it, and in its relative variant, as choosing one good over the other, or affirmation of one good while rejecting another. This dilemma of choosing good is a challenge humans cannot avoid in the self-creation process. Rejecting good means not only taking intentional actions against it, but also rejecting one’s personal wellbeing, even though it is not always obvious in the very moment of making the choice. Existential drama we experience is expressed in subtle struggles with ourselves, in acts where — apart from our own good — the benefit of “other” is also allowed to speak. So, the key decision is whether I want to integrate my own good with the good of “other” through

unconditional acceptance and neighbourly love, or will I strive to tie my good with the good of another person in a relationship of conditional acceptance and pragmatic love. The second option blurs my vision of good of the “other”, as it is perceived from the perspective of my own wellbeing.

In this publication, we present **self-creation as conscious and intentional effort of a subject to internalise values and initiate life events and decisions he or she deems crucial**. It is motivated by the desire for personal development that takes place through gradual realisation of potential (possible) “I”. This is connected with discovering and experiencing one’s own humanity more fully (Wąsiński, 2007, p. 48–55). To summarise, **people search for meanings of their existence in the world** (Popielski, 2007, p. 32), **they desire inner transformation oriented towards vital values, first of all spiritual and sacral** (Węgrzecki, 1975, p. 50–51).

It is impossible to think about people’s life and aspirations, without considering their attitude towards values. Even declaration that everything now is meaningless and everyone can live according to their own rules, is also an expression of axiological position identified with one’s own *logos*. Such position is, however, separate from thinking in the categories of timeless *Logos* (Opoczyńska, 1999, p. 158–159). It is a relative answer to the question: Who and how am I supposed to be (Śleszyński, 1995, p. 99)? Efforts towards realisation of values recognised by the subject brings an existential depth to his or her life (Ablewicz, 2003, p. 234–237). The values define the meaning, and determine the goals people strive to achieve according to their imagined vision of self. Thus, the values are identified with discovering the things that are precious *per se* (Cencini, Marenti, 2009, p. 96–99).

According to Maria Straś-Romanowska, man’s attitude towards the world and himself is expressed in his cognitive openness, in endless interpretative possibilities in his mind. It is tightly connected with the need for *personal fulfilment and development through updating one’s natural potential and... experiencing the ever deepening sense in life* (Straś-Romanowska, 1997, p. 104). Therefore, this self-updating dimension of “I” can be described in the category of horizontal transcendence. Self-transcending dimension, determined by the rule of unity, is identified in the category of virtual transcendence. We refer it to the system of intersubjective whole with which man is in constant and dynamic relation. Self-transcending, seen as reaching “towards the other and others in a community”, involves “receptiveness, initiative, awakening and desire to create something new through action” (Wojtyła, 1979, p. 273–308). Unity is visible in the fact that individuals “can express themselves and somehow transcend themselves towards the world” (Górniewicz, Rubacha, 1993, p. 26).

Self-creation takes place in the course of human life. At every stage of this life, it takes different form and is influenced by different factors. Adopting some course of life is important here, as it allows to treat individual holistically as a subject of development, and to see continuity in those changes (Przetacznik-Gierowska, Tyszkowa, 2014,

p. 212–221). In the context of grasping the meaning of one's own life, it is necessary for the subject not only to realise the goal of self-creation but also to engage fully in the efforts to achieve it (Płużek, 2001, p. 33). This goal, or a set of interrelated goals resulting from the key values, is identified with self-creational projection of oneself (ideal “me”) confronted with the realised real “me”. For self-creation to happen accordingly, there has to be a strategy of implementing self-creational goals through certain decisions and actions (Cencini, Manenti, 2009, p. 125–130). What kind of existence would it be, should there be no important life goals and no desires for inner transformation to be fulfilled (Gadacz, 2002, p. 25)?

Autobiographical experience and vision of self plays an important role in this process. This vision is revealed in subjective efforts towards personal self-creation, whereas the first factor is exemplified by a “story” of personal life journey. Along with new experiences, this “story” is constantly updated, reconstructed and reinterpreted. The other factor refers to “designing” one's own journey, or to something that is still a vision of ideal thought constructs. “Designing” reveals intention behind the creation, in the future intentionally modelled by an individual. Thus, the cognitive layer that allows to understand the process of self-creation in the light of a “story”, is the metaphor of a “journey”, while in the light of “designing” this journey — it is the metaphor of a “wanderer”.

The “journey” metaphor suggests sequential nature, continuity and open character of different stages or periods in human life. It also assumes designing next stages, anticipated by identified self-creational goals. At the same time, it does not define “place, time nor the end, or finishing line, assuming that every end has a chance to become a ‘new beginning’” (Tokarska, 2005, p. 126). **The metaphor of a “wanderer” is understood as searching for values** and openness to meanings originally associated with these values. This metaphor also emphasises the process of making choices oriented towards those values which could bring meaning to subject's life. More, it inspires creative design of the journey toward realisation of values the subject considers as crucial. However, the “wanderer” is aware of his own journey so far (autobiography). When thinking about his future, he cannot forget or neglect his past. Creating the narrative of his life (in the perspective of future life choices that will define his future journey), he is aware that he still gets another chances to assign meaning to certain acts of life by understanding his own history. The “wanderer” gives meaning to what is, with consideration of who he wants to be and what his goals are.

Reflection upon self-creation as a lifelong process that is updated in the course of life, directs our attention towards qualitative research or biographical approaches, conducted as narratives. This allows to recognise and interpret meanings adopted by the subject as crucial to understand his own biography (Dubas, 2011, p. 197–213). Disturbances and turmoil of present reality, especially in the area of axiological foundations of human existence, justify the necessity of conducting such research.

SELF-CREATION FROM THE PERSPECTIVE OF LIFELONG AUTOBIOGRAPHICAL REFLECTION

Analysis of the process of lifelong self-creation imposes biographical approach, because biography and self-creation are seen as interdependent spheres of human activity, expressed in narratives (Selvi, 2009, 51–66).

It is crucial to look at person's biography from the perspective of their individual life story that consists of their subjective feelings, observations, thoughts and experiences that reflect their being and living in the world (Bartosz, 1995, p. 54). As emphasised by M. Kohli, autobiography reveals the structure of life as a structure of experience and individual meanings of the subject. It is a methodology model of (hermeneutical) understanding the life of individuals and a way to enter into their historical or social reality (Kohli, 1981, s. 61–75; see also: Berryman, 1999, 71–84). The author of autobiographical narrative reflects on his or her own biography, becoming at the same time its disposer (holder) and creative interpreter. This biographical reflection reveals the structure and sense of axiological order identified as important in the construction of biography on the basis of some episodes from the subject's life (Schütze, 2008, s. 163–165).

Autobiography is not only a set of chronologically ordered events, behaviours, emotions and life choices kept in memory, or records of what happened and will never happen again. It is not about chronically replayed life, but rather interpreting the meanings — noticed and re-discovered by the subject in relation to individually selected sequences of events. These events are consciously revised in the perspective of lifelong experience and subject's own *logos*. It is the story of life, many times reflected upon and considered by the subject, playing an important role in the light of his present and future (Dubas, 2017, 65–69). According to M. Romanowska, autobiography enables the fullest self-understanding and “insight into the meaning of one's own being in the world — of one's own creativity. In the light of his whole life, the subject is able to see his present situation in the most adequate proportions, in the widest relations to other situations and with reference to the widest range of values” (Straś-Romanowska, 1997, p. 151). Therefore, autobiography plays an important role from the point of view of self-creational aspirations of the subject. Constructing narrative knowledge about self on the basis of autobiographical reflection (Trzebiński, 2005, p. 68–69) is crucial for the readiness to take up self-creational activities.

But paradoxically, it is not recalling the past that stimulates self-creational thinking and acting, but evaluating this past that empowers people to creatively design and rebuild their life (Lalak, 2010, 396). Autobiographical reflection allows people to step towards the future understood as intentional aspiring to what they think matters, what they think should happen, what they want to make real in their life. In the context of self-creation, the key value of biography is its prospective character. Biographical reflection does not end with thinking about what happened. Based on multiple interpretations and

reconstructions of biographical experiences in the course of life, it helps to lead one's own biography according to decisions and judgements that uncover meanings and values that are central to the subject (Morris, 1966, 31–53).

Complex nature of reflections undertaken in the process of **self-creation** is revealed in the fact that it combines different dimensions of human **existence**. Such multitude of approaches and perspectives to recognise self and life, and possible options for one's own future, is actually constantly updated and revalued decision about self and own becoming oriented towards reaching personal maturity. This reflection motivates the subject to set up symbolic signposts pointing towards the valuable goals. These signposts are seen in the **biographical perspective** that focuses on recognising and interpreting meanings adopted by the subject as crucial to understand his own biography. It is contemplative (what do I exist for?), searching (who am I and what am I like?), ethical (who and what should I be and become?), designing (who and what can I be?) and volitional (who and what do I want to be?) thinking.

The designing character of self-creation reflects subject's efforts to create himself through opening to new values or new meanings of values that are present in his axiosphere. On the other hand, it happens through narrative insights into his own biography. Thus, man remains in a state of creative confrontation with himself (Neckar, 2000, p. 144–147). When evaluating his past, he opens to the future by creating (in the presence) his own structured system of meanings.

According to J. Bruner, narrative is the main means to understand human existence in the world and the possibilities to shape this world. As he puts it, “narrative imitates life, life imitates narrative” (Bruner, 1990, p. 3). Narrative being and experiencing plays two important roles in human life. They are identified with ordering biographical experiences and assigning meanings to them, connecting seemingly unconnected events, re-interpreting and reconstructing them, and setting single episodes in a wider semantic context. Narratives allow to structurise experience, construct the image of self, enable self-awareness and self-understanding. A. Grzegorek says that without narrative forms of thinking “our experience would be pointless and unorganised, and understanding the world, other people and self would be impossible. Using narrative thinking about self allows us to construct stories about our life, and this is the base to build our (narratively understood) identity” (Grzegorek, 2003, p. 225). In this approach, identity is the story of life, in which subject finds answers to fundamental questions: “who am I and what am I like?”. On the basis of this story he can also decide about his own personal development (McAdams, 1985, s. 18).

Narrative identity is a general construction that joints important facts, both happy, inspiring, opening ones as well as traumatic, suppressed and closing certain stages in life. Thus, life-story is the process of ongoing interpretation of facts, assigning meanings to them and prioritising them. During this process, narratives created by the subject are organised in a complex but coherent structure with a main leading motive. The process

of biography construction ensures continuity and coherence of subject's life experience, and evaluates certain facts in this life by assigning meaning to them.

From the point of view of his narrative identity, man sees his own life and himself in a wider existential perspective, as a dynamically shaped subject in the process of personal self-creation. Autobiographical narrative is then treated as a "key" to discover and understand one's own existence (Skibińska, 2006, p. 146–149). The structure of biographical narrative can be viewed as a story, with its different components such as: storyline, place of action, character's traits. They integrate the whole story told by its main character about himself and his relations with the world. In the perspective of autobiographical narrative, self-understanding depends not that much on the reliability of archive information about self but rather on finding the "key" or the unique way of "mythicise" one's own life.

Narrative is a reflective referring to events that construct subject's own life. His *life-story*, enriched with new "stories" (partial narratives) together with their meanings and interpretations, involves past and present, and creates a coherent "journey story". Through narrative the subject also learns about and interprets the world and self, builds knowledge about the surrounding world and self, and at the same time organises and directs his actions. Thus, knowing self is a complex, lifelong process that takes place in the sphere of autobiographical narrative. **As a consequence, thanks to awareness of individual possibilities and potential of (un)lived life, this project called human life ceases to be a fight or a struggle, and becomes a challenge** (Rosner, 2003, p. 35).

M. Foucault points that out that since one cannot separate the life lived from the life told, it means life is how one interprets and re-interprets it, tells and tells it again (Foucault, 1990, p. 14–24). In this context of course, it is about identifying an imminent relation between biographical thinking that uncovers the reality in its subjective and intersubjective dimension, and understanding the reality and being ready to shape it. Biographical thinking is changeable and flexible in terms of interpreting and prioritising meanings that constitute organised self-awareness resulting from one's own life story. It ensures "the sense of continuity of cognition, experiences and actions, and constant interpretation of self" (Dyczewski, 1995, p. 67–68) in the process of personal transformation stimulated by environmental and individual factors.

Autobiographical narrative provides opportunities for adopting free and multidimensional attitude towards own life-story, and does it by comparing, modifying and prioritising, at its sole discretion, different narratives in one, coherent "journey story". The journey is then a metaphor of subject's wandering understood as the reality of internal development (Tokarska, 2005, p. 136). Through autobiographical narrative, individuals not only relate themselves to certain facts by assigning certain meanings to them, but also determine the range and depth of constantly formed individual world of meanings, of personal *logos* (Ablewicz, 2003, p. 198–200, 238–241).

Depending on individual understanding of being in the world, chosen type of relationship with the world and their own role in the world, individuals influence their

development through self-narrative. This development can be oriented towards different goals: adaptive, transgressive or transcendent (Wąsiński, 2011, p. 315–328). In this context, ongoing efforts of directing their own biography are the space of personal self-creation (Wain, 2007, 163–180).

CONCLUSION — THE POINT AND MEANING OF QUESTIONS ABOUT SELF-CREATION IN THE PERSPECTIVE OF POTENTIAL RESEARCH AREAS

Multidimensional and lifelong character of self-creation, with the use of subtle research strategies in qualitative approach. Depending on the exposed dimension of self-creation, different problem areas reveal themselves as cognitively attractive. Shift towards biographical research is connected with the need (and opportunity) to **set potential research on self-creation within the interpretative paradigm**, that is, with exposition of “qualitative way of thinking about human experience, by means of ‘scientific and intersubjective empathy’ that allows to grasp the meaning of individual and group experiences of the so called inner world” (Denzin, 1990, 68–70; 1989, 13–14, 34–42; 1985, 5–10; 1984, 4–5; Taylor, Littleton, 2006, 22–38; Konecki, 2005, s. 2). **Such research can (should) be also based on the idea of understanding cognition**, in which the category of “understanding” is sort of a cognitive attitude that “allows to grasp relations between meanings expressed in human life” (Malewski, 2010, p. 131).

Form the point of view of cognitive value or biographical analysis, self-narration is the key here, as it originally consists of: accounts from life and life-story (Kvale, Brinkmann, 2009, s. 201–218).

Autobiographical narrative enables further specification of individual profiles, shaping self in the course of life and, in further perspective, it allows to determine similarities and differences in the character of subject’s self-creation (holistic or reduced). In other words, it defines some common lines of development and differences, that depend on life experiences and different attitudes towards human existence (Feldman, 2002, 232–252).

- In the in-depth reflection on holistically seen self-creation, there are some inspiring research areas that focus on identifying:
- conceptual framework that determines the reality of self-creations of man as a person, and identifies their relational structure;
- anthropological and pedagogical sources and aspects of personal self-creation;
- characteristics of self-creation at certain stages of human life;
- importance of choices and judgements, made in agathological and axiological perspective, for the character and quality of personal self-creation.

Self-creation in the holistic approach The proposed research areas may result in an in-depth and multidimensional analysis of this process. Today, there is a growing need for holistic view on man and different dimensions of his existence. This type of study on self-creation seems to be of particular importance in the age of reductionism in research

on man and humanity. **This approach is possible if we derive indicators from analysis of individual narratives, that will be a signpost and, at the same time, a proof of other people's actions and experiences in the process of self-creation.** Focus on self-creation is particularly important and invaluable, because changes that occur through activities may testify for progressive spiritual development and, at the same time, they can facilitate development of this important aspect of human existence in other people who are personally related to the subject.

In other words, analysis of self-creation may become helpful in shaping one's own life, areas of development (especially spiritual), self-awareness, unlocking one's potential and recognising one's own abilities in the efforts of self-creating. In this context, results of research on self-creation may help to solve a "human dilemma" which, according to R. May, emerges from human ability to experience oneself simultaneously as a subject and an object. To recall May's words, "living inside this dilemma" is the source of human creativity (May, 1996, p. 3–24).

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CITIZENSHIP EDUCATION OF ADULTS – CURRENT STATE IN CZECH AND SLOVAK REPUBLIC

Abstract: The importance of citizenship education of children, youth and adults is currently increasing in relation to negative socio-cultural phenomena such as extremism, xenophobia, political radicalism. Its importance also grows in the range of the concept of promoting active citizenship as one of the primary objectives of lifelong learning. In this context, the role of citizenship education and active citizenship is accentuated in relevant international documents (UN, UNESCO, European Union). From the point of view of lifelong learning, it is possible to note a certain deficit in the attention paid to citizenship education of adults, especially in the context of theory and practice of adult's education. In Slovak and Czech Republic, there is an absence of scientific work with focus on a more complex curricular analysis of citizenship education of adults. In the context of these ideas, the aim of this study is to characterize and compare the current state of development of selected aspects of citizenship education of adults in Slovak and Czech Republic. Besides the theoretical resources, the submitted study also presents partial results of our own empirical research, which is currently implemented in the environment of subjects providing citizenship education of adults in Slovakia.

Keywords: lifelong learning, adult education, andragogy, citizenship education

INTRODUCTION

The sign that characterizes the social and individual realities of life in the global, national and individual dimensions has become the environment of change in the past decades (especially since the 1970's). These are changes that are frequently paradigmatic,

broad-spectrum (economic, social, political, cultural) and extremely dynamic. It is up to the individual, as well as the society, to look for mechanisms that can handle this situation, and in addition to „ad hoc” solutions, it is also necessary to look for those, which bear the sustainability potential. One of these mechanisms is a concept of lifelong learning that is, in given context, defined as any activity enabling each individual to gain such competencies that would enable them to functionally engage in life of society that they are, or want to be part of. In other words, lifelong learning helps an individual to react to changes in time and appropriately.

If we take learning not only as a lifelong, but also as a lifewide process, it opens the scope for consideration of its objectives, content focus as well as processing-implementation aspects. In accordance with the focus of this text, we will focus on specific segment, which is a citizenship education, which we analyze primarily from andragogical point of view.

OBJECTIVES AND IMPORTANCE OF CITIZENSHIP EDUCATION

Analysis a teleological aspects of citizenship education strikes one major problem, that is a significantly limited possibility to generalize, in particular the general objectives, the base of which is their strong link to the socio-economic and cultural-political conditions in which the citizenship education is carried out. In environment that is characterized by pluralism of opinion, diversity of social and political concepts is reflecting, inter alia, the specific historical and cultural experience is generally difficult to formulate universal educational objectives. This is particularly true for a field, such as the citizenship education, which is, by its very nature, oriented to the extremely dynamic and widely influenced spheres of social life.

Despite these restrictions, we are able, for several decades, to monitor efforts toward identifying, or formulation of the objectives to which the citizenship education should nowadays aim. In this context, we can consider inspiring, in particular, the resources of international provenience, presented in different documents processed in major multinational institutions (UN, UNESCO, EU). Their content analysis provides a basic framework of perception not only its goals, but also the significance and content orientation of citizenship education. As one of the first documents, which accentuate importance in solving economic, political and social problems can be considered so-called “Husén report - The learning society” (1974). The two decades later was, also at UNESCO, processed and published so-called “Delors Report - Learning: The treasure within” (1996). Emphasis on the importance of lifelong learning, aimed at a comprehensive development of personality in human society is in this document formulated in the form of “pillars” of education for the 21st century. In terms of the support and development of citizenship education can be as main considered pillars of “Learn to act” and “Learn to live together”, in which then is explicitly highlighted responsibility and activity of the individuals in the processes of their own learning. Partly formulation of the

above pillars can be found, for example, in the document “European Lifelong Learning Indicators” (2010), in which the indicators related to pillar “Learn to live together” are defined as: active citizenship, tolerance, openness and trust, and social activities. From the point of view of citizenship education is very important: identification of specific activities, in which such training is carried out volunteering, work in charitable organizations, private opinion, view of the societal issues, and membership of the political party and so on.

Issue of citizenship education continuously resonates also in the documents, which in the context of planning and implementing of educational policy, were created in the relevant departments of the European Union. Among the most important, specifically from the point of view of adult education, are: “Making a European area of lifelong learning and reality” (2001), “Adult learning: It is never too late to learn” (2006), “Action plan on adult learning: It is always a good time to learn” (2007), “Study on Active Citizenship Education” (2007). Special attention deserves a strategic, accepted not only among the professional public, the document “A Memorandum on Lifelong Learning” (2000). Importance and impact of the memorandum, inter alia, is the fact that many of its provisions were subsequently, at the national level transformed into the legislative standards and strategic documents-based on the area of education and training (Note: in the Slovak Republic see e.g.: Law on lifelong learning, Strategy of lifelong learning, and its Action Plan). In connection with the citizenship education is in the analysis of Memorandum necessary to point out that the promotion of active citizenship is, together with support of employment, defined as the primary objective of lifelong learning. Fulfillment of this objective is associated with the participation of people in all spheres of social and economic life, with realizing opportunities and risks faced by, with the rate of solidarity and the possibility to comment and affect the society in which they live (Memorandum, 2000, p. 5). More specific objectives and content of lifelong learning has been brought in a “Key Competences for Lifelong Learning - European Reference Framework” (2007). Competencies are defined here as a combination of knowledge, skills and attitudes appropriate to the context, and as the key are considered the competences needed by all individuals for personal satisfaction and development, active citizenship, social inclusion and employment. From the point of view of issues analyzed by us, we consider as important that the part of reference framework are also social and civil competencies, directly linked with the citizenship education.

Among current documents oriented specifically to the area of citizenship education of adults, are “Manifesto for adult learning in the 21st century” issued by European Association for adult education (2015). Document deals with fundamental pillars of adult education in Europe. One of the pillars is active citizenship, democracy and participation. Manifesto underlines that, through adult education, especially citizenship education, it is possible to support democracy, respect, participation and it is possible to strengthen and restore civil society (local, regional, nationwide).

On the content and comparative analysis referred to above, but also some other resources we can say that:

- Citizenship education is currently considered an integral and important part of life-long learning,
- At the supranational level is clearly identifiable to try to formulate its fundamental objectives and content,
- Citizenship education in biodromal context is directed toward promoting active citizenship, as one of the key competences necessary for life in the current society, characterized by turbulent changes,
- The importance of education is seen in complementarity of individual and social human existence.

CITIZENSHIP EDUCATION OF ADULTS IN SLOVAKIA AND THE CZECH REPUBLIC

At the beginning of this text, we have indicated that one of the basic characteristics of citizenship education is the close link to the specific socio-economic and cultural-political conditions in which is being implemented. Awareness of the need of such contextualization was in way epistemological background of our effort to comparative analysis of selected curricula aspects of this type of adult education in the conditions of the Slovak and the Czech Republic. One of the basic premises, which we use to legitimize our consideration, is the existence of several socio-cultural phenomena, which are for both countries common, or very related. In this context, we consider important:

- The strong breaches in the historical development of both countries, including their existence in the same state and from it the resulting cultural closeness,
- The coexistence in the same geopolitical area, currently strengthened by membership of the European Union, or other trans-national structures (e.g. V4),
- The common educational history, including continuously maintained and developed cooperation in the andragogical theory and practice.

Referred to, as well as many other common features, which is marked by a Slovak and Czech society evoke presumption that identical situation characterises the level of scientific knowledge and andragogical practice in the area of citizenship adult education of adults. Based on our research, however, we have come to understand that in addition to compliance there are certain specific features, or disproportions. The first of these is an ascertainment showing the different levels, but also a number of relevant scientific works or published research results oriented on the segment of adult education in Slovak and Czech professional literature. This direction oriented comparative analysis shows that the citizenship education of adults is in the Czech educational literature given greater attention. In this context, following particular scientific work of authors Hloušková and Pol (2008), Smékal et al. (2010), Kopecký (2011), Protivinský and Dokutilová (2012), Kalina and Matějka

(2013) etc., resonate more than others. In Slovakia, the work devoted to citizenship education of adults occur in a lower frequency (Čornaničová, Chomová, Strelková and Tazberík, 2005; Sládkayová, 2016), the monographic works devoted to specifically this issue are so far lacking in Slovakia. To complete the information we consider it necessary to supplement, that issues relating to civil education are, in the Czech Republic and Slovakia, implicitly analyzed in scientific work-based on general andragogical theory (Palán and Langer, 2008; Beneš, 2014; Veteška, 2016; Prusáková, 2005; Švec, 2008 and others). The above mentioned influenced also our comparative analysis of individual curricula aspects of adult education in the Czech and Slovak Republic. In this context, the lack of theoretical work devoted to citizenship education of adults in Slovakia in methodologically acceptable level was supplemented with the so far unpublished partial results of empirical research. The aim of the research is to identify determinants of curriculum development in citizenship education of adults and determinants that affect the formulation of objectives and content. The research sample represents the providers of citizenship education of adults in Slovakia. From the perspective of methodology, we are talking about qualitative research using interviewing and content analysis. We have been carrying out the research since 2017.

SYSTEM ANCHORING OF CITIZENSHIP EDUCATION OF ADULTS

From the broader educational terms basic paradigm, in which it is necessary to seek the anchoring of adult education, is a concept of lifelong learning. In relation to the categories of lifelong learning (Memorandum, 2000), we can say that there is a strong consensus. In the Czech and Slovak andragogical theories is a citizenship education of adults characterized as an educational process, which fulfills the primary features of non-formal learning with a strong interference in informal learning.

The second point of view, for the citizenship education of adults in the said, is legislative aspect. Comparison of adult education is complicated by the fact that in the Czech Republic there is no current legislative norm specifically focused on the area of adult learning. In Slovakia is a citizenship education of adults legislatively anchored in Law No 568/2009 Coll. on lifelong learning, where the citizenship education is characterized as one of the types of adult education together with interest education, training of senior citizens and other education, by which a participant of further education satisfies their interests, is involved in civil society and, in general, is developing their personality (§4, sec. d).

A specific approach need to be applied when comparing system anchoring citizenship education of adults in terms of its position within the established andragogical theories. Differences in the Czech Republic and Slovakia are resulting from different conceptual approach of internal structure of andragogy, or individual types of adult education. In Slovakia dominantly resonates theoretical concept of systematic andragogy. In this concept (Prusáková, 2005; Krystoň, 2011), a citizenship education of adults is defined as part of subsystem of cultural andragogy within which it acts as an independent type of adult

education. Modified view presents Čornaničová (2010), who sees a position of adult education as an alternative, i.e. as part of interest education of adults or as a single type of cultural-edifying andragogy. In addition, based on our theoretical analysis, we tend to the latter of the above claims. We are convinced that citizenship education of adults has enough specific characteristics, which legitimizes its special status in the structure of adult education. Our consideration of a separate status citizenship education of adults supports the analysis of theoretical approaches presented in the Czech professional literature. However, at the same time we want to draw attention to the fact that the achievement of such perception of adult education will require, *inter alia*, a much greater attention of theoreticians supported by relevant empirical research and/or scientific works based on the importance and specificities of adult education in the adult education.

In the Czech Republic, a concept of lifelong learning is internally structured into two basic groups: initial education (pre-primary, primary, secondary and tertiary) and further education (Veteška, 2010, 2011, 2016). Further education is then broken down into three types (subsystems):

- (Additional) professional education,
- Interest education,
- Citizenship education (Palán and Langer, 2008; Kalina and Matějka, 2013; Veteška, 2016).

OBJECTIVES OF CITIZENSHIP EDUCATION OF ADULTS

As we have said, a general objective of citizenship education is difficult, because it is this kind of adult education that is closely related to the social situation in the countries in question. When drafting changes in citizenship education, they can be based on international documents (UN, UNESCO, EU), in which the process of adult education is directed to the active citizen. In the Czech andragogy, the aim of citizenship education is considered to be developing a certain alternatives to the existing system and helping to develop social structures (Beneš, 2014). It also bears the objective to prepare man to „active participation in the life in the Czech and European society, which is based on Democratic and Christian moral principles” (Veteška, 2016). To find an explicit target citizenship education of adults in the Slovak andragogical literature is very difficult. It follows from the above-mentioned absence of scientific resources geared to this type of adult education. A general idea can be found only in the declaration of adult education in the structure of andragogical concepts, or in its basic legislative definitions. For complete picture of focus of citizenship education in Slovakia, it is possible to use views of citizenship education, which we have gained during our research. It also shows that the aim of adult education is to activate the citizens and to increase their participation in the life of society. In this context, however, we believe it is important to underline the fact that the individual organizations often formulate the targets of their activities without respect for the andragogical teleology. Based primarily on experience and subjective perception of current problems of society.

CONTENT OF CITIZENSHIP EDUCATION OF ADULTS

Another important category of curriculum is the content of education. As we have already stated, specialization of adult education, as its objectives, is largely influenced particularly by topical social situation in the countries in question. On the basis of the analysis content of components of adult education, as presented in the Slovak and Czech literature, we can state basic content compliance. In both countries, the area of citizenship education of adults represented by so-called traditional topics - globalization, demographic developments, European integration, ecology, etc. (Beneš, 2014). Those are periodically supplemented by new impetus to the response of the negative social phenomena (rise of extremism, radicalism, migration) and the related support of tolerance and democratic values. Certain differences bring the analysis of the results of studies that have been carried out in conditions of Czech Republic. Research of Hloušková and Pol (2008) focuses its content of adult education to three areas:

- Law
- Political commitment,
- The environment.

Our research findings prove that organizations that are linked to the European Union, aim their activities to content topics such as euro-citizenship, security policy, or field of EU funds. Regional Institutions (Civil associations) are dealing with the region and current issues of people living in the region.

Actors of citizenship education of adults

According to the analysis of adult education in the Czech Republic, implemented by Centre of citizenship education of adults (Smékal et al., 2010), we can say that the organizations that have citizenship education of adults as its central operation, are, in fact, non-existent. Rather, it is possible to identify institutions that have some overlap in the citizenship education of adults. Based on this analysis, authors set apart 4 groups of organizations and activities:

- Community activities and volunteering (community centers)
- Educational Organizations
- Experiential courses aimed at the development of personality
- Educational activity (Smékal et al., 2010, s. 35).

A different view of institutional implementation of citizenship education of adults offers Beneš (2014), who states that bearer of citizenship and/or political education (as author indicates), may be the state, the third sector, the political parties, the movements, the trade unions and the church. Experience shows that in the Czech Republic, as well as in the Slovak Republic an important role in the implementation of adult education plays mainly third sector (Civil associations, non-governmental and non-profit organizations).

To create a structure of institutional security citizenship education of adults is very difficult. It is also due to the fact of dynamic forming and demising of associations, or initiatives, dealing with the different types of activities related to the issue of adult education.

CONCLUSION

It is not only those two countries, but also the whole of Europe, that is in a difficult social situation, with many negative phenomena and problems. One of the solutions may be citizenship education. We find its use in level of prevention, confrontation and elimination against the negative social phenomenon. Citizenship education has a significant influence on promoting active citizenship, participation, or support for democratic values. Results of comparison of selected curricula aspects of adult education in the conditions of the Slovak and Czech Republic point to following facts:

- There is broad agreement in the content of citizenship education of adults and in identifying of implementing bodies of this education;
- Differences, or specific features are shown in the field of system anchoring of citizenship education of adults and the formulation of objectives.

In summary, however, it can be stated that in both countries (more distinct in Slovakia) it is necessary to continuously support citizenship education of adults by scientific-research and publication activities that would provide its respectable theoretical background.

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WHAT CAN THE TWIG LEARN FROM THE TREE?

*As the number of older people increases,
keeping pace with the rise in average life expectancy,
it will become more and more important to promote a widespread attitude
of acceptance and appreciation of the elderly, and not relegate them to the fringes.*

John Paul II

Abstract: Due to demographic changes, today's world focuses increasingly on the problems of late adulthood. A lot of attention is given to the quality of life of senior citizens, however, their enormous intellectual and social capital — a bridge between the worlds of young and old — is still overlooked. The goal of this paper is to present experiences of the elderly, that may become important lessons of life wisdom for the younger generations, and a starting point for intergenerational discussion. The analysis covered statements of 20 older people, aged 64–90, some of them students of the University of the Third Age. The method used was conversational (general) interview. The results were divided into four groups according to thematic areas of experiences that, in authors' opinion, are common for two generations: old and young people. Our findings indicate that life experience of older generation may be a timeless point of reference when it comes to making decisions.

Keywords: educational experience, intergenerational transmission, intellectual capital

INTRODUCTION

Today's world focuses increasingly on the problems of late adulthood. A lot of attention is given to the quality of life of senior citizens, however, their enormous intellectual and social capital — a bridge between the worlds of young and old Poles — is still overlooked.

According to W. Walkowska, if we talk about older people at all in Poland, it is most often about their present needs or necessity to provide material or social security. Most often, seniors are a bargaining chip in parliamentary or local elections (Walkowska, 2006, p. 184). As noticed by I. Lipowicz, communication regarding seniors often emphasizes their need for education and presents them as excluded individuals who, for example, struggle with obtaining basic computer skills, and therefore need training in this area. Despite the fact that such activities are beneficial for seniors, they lead to a belief that older people have nothing to offer to the younger generations (Lipowicz, 2014). The value of professional experiences and life wisdom of the oldest citizens is often questioned, without recognition that without them the world of values and traditions would be long gone. We live in times of prefigurative, future-oriented culture (Mead, 1978). All changes happen very fast and are unpredictable and potentially risky. Young generation is forced to respond to these changes, adjust to current conditions and constantly update their adaptation strategies. According to M. Mead, this culture rejects the past, tradition and former authorities. As a result, we have uncertain behaviors and unstable value system. Thus, there is a need to create a new tradition, to search for new standards and canons. This search is often based on trial and error method. Young generation is seen as having a solid knowledge about the surrounding reality and knowing how to function in the society. It is presented as a standard for the other generations. The consequence is weaker sense of family and group identity (Karmolińska-Jagodzick, 2012), and lack of rooting necessary for the development of man. *As the main evidence thereof, the proponents of intergenerational programs cite the disappearance of authority from the grandparent–grandchild relationship and the reinforcement of mutual stereotypical opinions which, in their opinion, may disrupt the transmission of tradition and cultural continuity.* (Newman, Faux, & Larimer, 1997; Kupetz, 1994; Granville & Ellis, 1999; Gamliel, Reichental & Eyal 2007).

Moreover, according to M. Marcjanik, “‘in the age of cult of youth’ (and achievements of cosmetology), as well as ever more advanced and wide spreading technologies and changing communication systems, old people are not only someone with whom young people have no mutually satisfactory relations but they even become obstacles in professional career (hiring retired workers blocks potential vacancies), loosing authority of more experienced persons — sages. They do not accept dynamic civilizational and moral transformations so they are a potential source of conflicts. While in 1970’s, an old person was jokingly called *Ra-moll* (*R-minor*) by musical school students (e.g. an evening in *R-minor* meant a ‘meeting in a company of old people’, TN: from Polish word *ramol* meaning a *dodderer* and *moll* meaning *minor scale* in music), today young people call seniors *resets* (someone who has begun to reset themselves), *screensavers* (someone who is fading off) or a *no IP buddies*. These recent expressions, derived from the computer language (...) are less of a word game and rather indicate intention to dominate, discredit old people (as less intellectually able) and even get rid of them as used and useless (2014, p. 17). However, we

need to remember that “the more we try to push old age away in the society, isolate it from our daily reality, the bigger loss for the whole society” (Mielczarek, 2014, p. 317). And it is not only about economical consequences. Our society will loose contact with one of the most important intellectual resource and repository of life wisdom.

Another major problem is the common belief that older people have no right to expect anything from life, to pursuit their dreams or set new trends and encourage young people. An example of this attitude may be words of an Internet user commenting the blog post “Ask the young” by a pedagogue, D. Chętkowski: “I’m creating a profession of Senior’s Mentor. Mentor means wise. Young people will be mentors. They understand modern world, communication, technologies. Old people struggle with it, do not get it mentally. What can I, at the age of 62, pass on to the generation 18+? Rubbish. Because I have lived in different times... Different world, different values” (Chętkowski, 2017).

Yet, knowledge and experience of the elderly are a precious source of reflections on life and building blocks of intergenerational solidarity, which should play the primary role in the knowledge society. The paper must have an abstract. The abstract should be self-contained and understandable by a general reader outside the context of the paper. According to the report untitled “Intergenerational Solidarity” from 2009, a large majority of EU citizens agreed with the opinion that older people make a big contribution to the society. Manly becasue of their voluntary work in charitable and community organisations in their country. The data shows that around 4 in 10 responders in Poland (39%) and Romania (43%), to more than 9 in 10 of the Irish, British, Portuguese and Dutch interviewees (between 91% and 95%) agree that older people make a major contribution to the european society (Intergenerational Society 2009: 20–21).

As noticed by McAdams and de St. Aubin (1992): “*the concern about passing on wisdom, knowledge, and skills to the next generation is one of the important aspects of generativity*”. The research indicate that the young generation in Poland — against assumptions of the dominating culture — constantly benefits form the spiritual inheritance created by previous generations. This process is not always conscious (Borowik, 2014, p. 91), although some activities for building the intergenerational dialogue are being undertaken, emphasizing mutual benefits that may result from such dialogue. Environments and spaces are set up, in which the capital possessed by seniors may be developed and transferred to other generations. There are also attempts to change the established, and often stereotypical, image of old people. In case of older people, these changes refer to their lifestyle and the way they see themselves and their role in the modern technology-based society. Activities undertaken within the initiatives like Universities of the Third Age are aimed at changing attitudes of seniors and the whole society.

The list of social attributes of seniors is long: long-term perception of reality; rather stable social status; self-awareness of personal needs and the most effective ways to meet them; emotional distance towards reality; years of verifying and internalizing values that shape social life (Borowik, 2014, p. 91). The list includes values that are necessary to

preserve continuity of life, sense of security and chances for constant development, freedom, justice, peace, solidarity and respect for others (Struzik, 2003, p. 118).

According to W. Wnuk, the potential of senior citizens includes the following elements:

- *Life wisdom* (knowledge and experience related to life). Life wisdom of seniors translated into their spiritual riches that involves such attitudes as: responsibility, caring, prudence, emotional balance or empathy;
- *Social potential*, or relational potential, described in literature as social capital (engagement in activities beneficial to the society, for example developing social bonds, restoring social relationships, volunteer activity) (Wnuk, 2003, p. 60);
- *Family life potential*, for example building family bonds, passing on family traditions;
- *Psychological potential* consisting of: knowledge that facilitates success; sense of effectiveness (trust in one's own abilities); optimism, hope (strong will, perseverance in achieving goals), distance towards life or flexibility (ability to persevere in difficult situations);
- *Cultural transmission potential* — refers to historical and patriotic memory regarding certain cities, regions, countries. This potential includes autobiographical knowledge that allows seniors to learn from their own biographies and biographies of others;
- *Potential in the form of mastering their profession* — involves professional expertise and practical experience often in “dying” professions, for example leather-working or black-smithing (Wnuk, 2003, p. 61–65).

METHODOLOGICAL ASSUMPTIONS

Because “wisdom, autobiographical competencies, experience, knowledge about life, that is, attributes of positive stereotype or positive mythologization of old age are rather occasionally present in the image younger generations have about old people, giving way to: lack of orientation in today's reality, inability to deal with official matters, struggle to use modern technologies and feeling of being ill-adapted...” (Mielczarek 2014, p. 322) — the paper sets out to analyze experiences of seniors, as important potential both in non-formal education and intergenerational dialogue. The authors believe this is an important task, as ageing process is a one-way and multidimensional process, and we cannot let it be marginalized and ousted by the younger generations. The research was qualitative and involved analysis of statements of 20 older people, aged 64–90, some of them students of the University of the Third Age. The method used was conversational (general) interview.

The following research questions were formulated:

- What is man's biggest source of life energy?
- Which of the advices given by parents proved to be true in the life of seniors?
- If they could turn back time, what would respondents change in their life?

- What do they regret?
- What message do they want to give to the next generations?
- What do people dream about in their late adulthood?

Seniors willingly shared their reflections and, despite they sometimes sounded like folk wisdom passed on through generations, they refer to matters that are very important in every person's life.

“EXPERIENCES OF THE TREE” — RESEARCH RESULTS

Experience is a valuable learning source. Learning through experience can happen not only in different circumstances and age, but also between different subjects (research). **Moreover in the opinion of Megumi** Tabuchi and Asako Miura, sharing negative experiences enriches young people with reflections, thanks to which they can avoid similar mistakes themselves (2016).

Intergenerational relations are a space where members of young generation develop and reach their maturity, whereas representatives of older generation orient and value their ageing. Quality of these relations also generates and shapes feelings, thoughts and actions towards others. There are some values typical for the old age that, when rejected, would deprive society of something very important, something that is inherent in human life as a whole, something that is foundational to preserving identity and development of the society (Struzik 2003).

Reflections resulting from seniors' experiences may change attitudes and quality of life of people who face different events, as well as those who listen to stories about them. Respondents' experiences were grouped into four main categories.

SOURCES OF LIFE ENERGY

Men are social beings and regardless of their historical and social conditions and stage of development, they need presence of others to survive (mainly during childhood and late adulthood) and maintain their life balance. Human nature is inherently relational. It determines the process of defining self and surrounding reality. Another philosophical truth is that at every stage of life, people want to feel needed and useful. This need intensifies with age when some activities are limited due to declining health.

This truth was expressed by the respondents:

- *knowing that someone needs you, that you are important to someone*
- *family that needs you*
- *certain responsibility, spending time with people and helping them with everything they cannot do themselves*
- *knowing that I am needed, setting tasks and goals, and making effort to achieve them.*

Emotionality is inscribed into relational nature of men. Love is one of the main feelings that drives human activities. The one felt towards loved ones (family) and the one experienced at the higher level (often accompanied by elderly wisdom) that covers all humanity:

- *love and assistance*
- *wonderful love towards grandchildren*
- *desire to live and love of people, and awareness that something good still awaits.*

Another value, especially in today's world full of various risk, is health. If you are healthy, you can pursue other values. With age, people realize how fragile health is:

- *health, because if you have it, you want to do all the other things*
- *health — why? Because when you are sick you have no energy at all.*

Respondents remind that human existence is based on activity. From the simplest, daily activity to a multidimensional one. The narrators want younger generation to realize that these mundane everyday tasks, like going for a walk or reading books, may bring joy. It is even an art of living — to be able to see value in this ordinary, daily existence. Contemporaries focus on the future (waiting for it to come or planning “big” things) or the past (dwelling on what they have lost). They do not know how to be “here and now”. To live and celebrate the fleeting, present moment. Seniors have learnt it. Limitations of age make activities, both physical and intellectual, listed below to be even more meaningful:

- *curiosity about the world because it stimulates psychical and physical activity*
- *travelling — being able to see something new*
- *everyday walks*
- *workouts, healthy lifestyle, participation in U3A lectures, I also read a lot of travel books, novels and biographies. I am active all the time, I exercise, manage my home, help my family and other people*
- *good activities, physical activity, reading and education, knowledge is very important*
- *reading as during intensive professional work there was no time for this*
- *opportunity to gain knowledge and learn about new developments*
- *rest.*

Older people also value work performed with commitment and, what is important, without coercion (Frąckowiak, Wnuk-Olenicz, 2008). This freedom from all the “musts” refers also to finances that seem to be one of the main determinants of human activity today:

- *one should work in such a way that he is fully satisfied, even if the salary is low*

This statement points to the fact that work fulfills many needs, not only financial ones.

Other sources of vital energy mentioned by the respondents are values that are also cherished by the young people, namely: independence and satisfaction:

- *independence and no coercion*
- *when you do what you want and gain material benefits from it*
- *professional success — testing your abilities*

- *intentional, chosen purpose in life — I know what I am trying to achieve — I want to pass on my life wisdom and my experience to young people*
- *satisfaction*

In fact, the above listed sources of life energy correspond with human needs identified by Maslow (1943, 1962, 1987). They can serve as a platform for mutual dialogue and solidarity. In case of seniors, the only difference is the level of needs and their intensity.

GRANDMA TOLD, MOTHER TOLD... — OR WHAT WORKS IN LIFE

Every society develops a certain system of standards and values that govern behavior of its members and define margins for deviations. This system is passed on through generations and determines, among others, certain social roles and status of certain individuals in the hierarchy (Miszczak 2006, p. 306).

From the scientific point of view, an interesting issue is the subjective evaluation of timeless nature of family intergenerational messages. Content of these messages is very diverse. Which of the advices proved to be true in the life of seniors?

- *All of them. I am who I am thanks to my mom who nurtured these traits in me, that she herself had, and as I don't have my own children, I passed them on to my students.*

Some messages told about building relationships and emphasized that people are the greatest value and, regardless of age, they should be respected. Seniors referred to the evangelical principle of love of neighbor and savoir vivre rules. In this category, they listed:

- *you need to be open to people and love them, and first of all, remember that good always comes back*
- *to be good, loyal to people who deserve it*
- *do not do unto others what you would not want done to yourself*
- *reliability in conduct towards yourself and others*
- *“go often where they are happy to see you and never where they are not”.*

The respondents called young generation to show care to older people and generation that has already gone, according to the saying that “a man lives as long as he is remembered”:

- *... respect for grandparents and parents. Remembering those who passed away. Love in the family. Honesty in your conduct.*
- *respect for the elderly, faith in God, honesty in every situation*
- *respect for older people*
- *take care of the older and help them because you will need it too.*

Part of this spiritual message referred to principles that, if obeyed, would ensure a happy life:

- *composure, precision, politeness, perseverance in reaching your goals, courage*
- *being independent and educated*
- *rules: be good and thank*
- *live an honest life*

- *I can't remember any advices but I know my father's life very well — his life was his advice — you have to think and work.*

Two persons declared that teaching and advices they received in their family did not work in their life.

As in every generation, there were also narrators who rejected some elements of their parents' cultural message. They explained:

- *fortunately, they kept their "good advices" to themselves...*

A TIME WILL COME... – DEALING WITH THE PAST

It is typical for older people to think back about the past and evaluate their whole life (Straś-Romanowska 2000, p. 263–292). This evaluation is determined by different factors: to what extent their goal have been achieved, individual emotional and social maturity and present circumstances (Susułowska, 1989). A person engaging in one area usually withdraws from some other. The researchers were interested what would seniors do differently if they could go back in time.

Their responses indicate that close relationships are a very important element of human existence, and often motivate to action. In retrospect, there is always a thought that more attention and time could have been given to family:

- *I would make my dream about building a house sooner, a real home in an old-fashioned way*
- *I would probably have spent more time with my family.*

Some statements referred to education. The respondents lived in times when education was not as important as it is today. As U3A students, they realized that investing in their own education could have bring them tangible benefits and improve their existence:

I would try to use my time better to get a solid education

- *maybe I would choose other profession*
- *I wish I could have continued my education, I would be in a different place today*
- *I would graduate from medical studies to be able to help people better.*

The respondents would also change their approach to old age (in the private and professional sphere):

- *I would take care of my physical condition*
- *I would not give up work*
- *I would not go into politics*
- *I would not make mistakes I had done in my youth*
- *I would not have made certain decisions the consequences of which I had to deal with.*

Several people declared they would not want to go back to the past as they think of it as "closed":

- *I wouldn't do it There is no point!*
- *I wouldn't change anything*
- *I don't want to go back in time.*

Acceptance of their own choices, and successes and failures resulting from them as “something that had to happen” is one of the components of one’s ability to integrate ego (Erikson 1968:139). Acceptance of the past positively affects the way we experience life during ageing and old age (see: Błachnio, 2002; Kowalik, 2001; Cibor 2008):

- *it wouldn’t change anything; my choices in certain situation would be the same (they were the best possible, I could not predict everything)*
- *I would repeat my life choices.*

Among the experiences worth passing on to the young generation, there were also actions and decisions, that became the source of negative emotions or lack of fulfillment. The respondents cannot turn back time, but other do not have to make the same mistakes. The following “thorns” were listed:

- *that I was not myself, but I tried to be the person others wanted to see*
- *sin of negligence, laziness*
- *I did not care about my health*
- *I talked too little about our family history with my grandparents*
- *I lived in the times when you could not travel around the world and today I have no health, nor money to do it*
- *not knowing foreign languages*
- *no grandchildren*
- *retirement*
- *social work that did not give me satisfaction, giving myself to work instead my family*
- *I spent too little time talking to my friends*
- *I was too picky choosing my partners, I had very high expectations and zero tolerance. Now, I am alone*

Only one person said “*I regret nothing*”.

MESSAGE FOR THE NEXT GENERATIONS

When young people talk about the old ones, they often forget they actually talk about themselves too, as by reaching certain age, each one of them will become an old person. Thus, it is extremely important to show and convince the young that old age is not only a natural process but a part of life. The way old age is perceived depends on the adopted perspective of time and circumstances. What we prepare young people to now, may bear fruit in the near future. We should look through the eyes of the future (Łuczyński, 2014, p. 35). In their messages addressed to the next generations, seniors talked about human relationships and attitudes towards life assignments.

The respondents were raised to respect other people and take responsibility for themselves and for the others. Their statements refer to the evangelical message of the love of neighbor:

- *“Have a heart and look into your heart”*
- *Have a good relations, both with your family and social; be decent, do not envy and do not be greedy*
- *Take care of relationships with loved ones and friends, nurture them. Love yourself and others, because life is short*
- *Show respect to other people*
- *Think not only about yourself but also about your loved ones*
- *Live following your own conscience and treat people the way you would like them to treat you. Enjoy every day because life passes quickly*
- *Live honestly so no one would suffer because of you.*

These messages are very relevant, especially now, in the age of common moral relativism, extreme individualism and rejection of any responsibility.

Second group of reflections refers to the attitudes towards life assignments and faced difficulties. Seniors point out to the value of work which not only provides means for living but also shapes and refines the character of man:

- *Strive for excellence, strive for good, truth and beauty as components of excellence*
- *Learn and work*
- *“Ora et labora”*
- *Live in such a way that would never have to be ashamed.*

Respondents also want to instill the ability to keep distance to the things that happen to us, not to worry about our failures and to consistently pursue our goals:

- *Be yourself and think about yourself in the first place*
- *Do not get discouraged by your failures but keep doing your job*
- *Jump up like kangaroos.*

A common ground for intergenerational dialogue are plans and dreams. Dreams of the elderly show that despite the lack perfect knowledge about technology, despite age and many other imperfect — according to young people — attributes, they still have something in common with the young people. According to Newman and Newman, image of late adulthood people have at different stages of their development (children, youth, young adults) determines the way they experience every stage of their life. If they see old age as a time of new experiences, full of excitement and challenges, they will see every preceding period as successful, full of optimism and trust (Newman, Newman, 1984, p. 503). Thus, it is worth to show that adults in their middle and late stages of life still have desires and dreams. What else would the respondents like to do in life?

Interestingly, quite a few seniors answered they would like to see interesting and beautiful places in the world. Old people are aware of their fading strength and limitations of their motor system, that is why their bucket lists include:

- *See many interesting places in the world, to travel*
- *Overcome fear from cycling, see all European countries*

- *Climb Gerlach (TN: the highest top in Tatra Mountains) again*
- *Go somewhere where water and air are not polluted.*

The statements reveal longing for contact with nature, a space free from the negative consequences of civilizational development. Perhaps, these are the dreams of returning to the world of their childhood.

- *Seniors would also like to enjoy a peaceful life:*
- *I'd like to live the time I have left in peace, without pain, and see Poland happy, live to that day when young people will live in peace, without hate, like it used to be when I was young*
- *Live like now a little bit longer.*

A separate group are dreams regarding evaluation of life. The respondents would like to change some elements in their biography:

- *Live through my youth again without making mistakes*
- *Experience a beautiful, returned love*
- *Travel by plane because I have never done that.*

There are also statements expressing altruist desires: to be useful to the younger generations and to leave a mark:

- *To be useful with my professional and life experiences*
- *To be fit and help to raise my grandchildren*
- *To pass on my reflections to young people — I would like to organize teams of inter-generational dialogue between four generations, to solve difficult problems of human communities in the 21st century, in particular, to deal with information chaos.*

There was also a dream cherished by the young generation:

- *To amaze the world.*

This picture of old age is against common stereotypical beliefs that it is only a "death's waiting room" (Brzezińska, Hejmanowski, 2005, p. 629). The interviewed seniors want to learn new things and skills, and experience sublime feelings. In this context, we can assume that Polish seniors, like seniors in Nigeria, do not see their old age as a problem (Ogunbameru, 2017, p. 95). These desires are universal and may be shared by people at any age.

CONCLUSION

An Old Testament words perfectly summarize the above reflections: "Pay attention to what old people say, for they learned from those who came before them. You can learn from them, and they can teach you how to have an answer ready when you need one." (Sir. 8:9) Messages given by Polish seniors correspond with advices of American seniors who took part in Pillemer's study (2011). This fact shows that human experiences are transnational. Mission of older people as educators of the young generation, creates an opportunity preserve traditions and values, that often decline in our contemporary,

globalized world (Chabior, 2014, p. 46). Spending time with seniors (grandparents, neighbors), especially when they are cheerful and accepting themselves, are precious experience thank to which young people receive hope and faith that human life makes deep sense (Brzezińska, Hejmanowski, 2015, p. 662). It is worth to present old age as it really is. Esther Vilar in her book *Old age is beautiful. The manifest against cult of youth* (*Starość jest piękna. Manifest przeciwko kultowi młodości*) encourages to speak openly "old people are old." It is very important to create space for old age but not old age dressed up as youth. Vilar writes: "We are fed up that you limit us and push us away from everything. We are tired of ghettos, you so perfidiously call senior homes, senior centers, senior clubs. Go live there yourselves, meet there yourselves. We are really tired of them! And we are fed up with your evenings, bowling and chess tournaments for seniors, trips for seniors, gymnastics for seniors. You can save it all to yourselves. Leave us alone! If we want to do any of these things, we will find a dancing or pottery course, not necessarily for seniors. We don't want to spend future in our own company but also with you" (Vilar, 2008). This voice of the older generation points to the natural need of looking for common spaces and integration of the society, without artificial divisions into young and old.

As rightly pointed out by Halina Bortnowska, intergenerational communication would be much better if:

- the process of preparing people to their old age began much earlier. Ignoring the perspective of old age, resulting from the lack of or false imagination of how this old age will look like, often leads young people to false beliefs about it;
- old people changed their belief that they can teach something without changing their own behavior." It is just discrimination if young people are afraid seniors will bore them to death and waste their time. (2014, p. 19). The study indicates that seniors willingly share their experience if they are given such opportunity.

Survey of contemporary theories and empirical research which concerns intergenerational education indicates that although it is in the new, exciting "place", it still requires some changes, which not only improve situation between generations, but also include improvement of ecosocial well-being (see: Mannion, 2016).

From the perspective of open society, active ageing becomes very important. Passing on own experiences and knowledge to younger members is the necessary element of shaping this kind of society, so that young people would be able to understand next generations and themselves better (Kozara, 2014, p. 26). However, the process of intergenerational communication needs a new system of meanings, based on understanding and new standards of interpretation of reality. Modern (young) people function in the culture that is constantly redefined, it is the culture that removes national or linguistic differences, and is timeless — detached from the past. Thus, it is possible for a representative of the young generation to have stronger relationship with a global teenager across the world than with a representative of older generation living next door (Karmolińska-Jagodzik,

2012, p. 205). Therefore, considering all the changes in the society, we should be looking for solutions that would allow different generations to meet in one place (Tomczyk, Klimczuk, 2017). In this context, experiences of "the tree" are the perfect tool to begin a dialogue with the experiencing "twig".

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LIFELINES IN STUDIES ON BIOGRAPHIC DETERMINANTS OF DECISIONS TO TAKE UP PHD STUDIES AT A TECHNICAL UNIVERSITY

Abstract: The article aims at presenting the potential and limitations of lifelines as a method used to collect biographic data. The lifeline facilitates recollection and sequencing of personal events. For this reason, it is helpful both for a person trying to recreate their own life history, and for a researcher who analyses the biography of such a person. The lifelines can be triangulated with other data collection methods to confirm and complete a life history. A sample lifeline from a study of PhD students at the main technical universities in Poland and Ukraine were used to demonstrate the application of this method to research of biographic determinants of important life decisions.

Keywords: biographical research, lifeline, academic teacher, higher education, phd studies

INTRODUCTION

The positivist doctrine of science provided social scientists with some procedures of conducting research which were to bring academics closer to objective cognition and ensure the scientific character of their study and exploration. "The codes of methodological norms standardized researchers' activities to resemble an industrial production line, making sure that they conform to industrial values of the times of modernism: efficiency, recurrence, and reliability" (Malewski 2017b, p. 117). Qualitative studies which have been dynamically developing for the last several decades, "extend the barriers of researchers' methodological freedom" (Malewski 2017b, p. 118), forcing academics to be independent, reflective, imaginative, and courageous in their work (Malewski 2017a,

2017b). This is expressed both in researchers' actions undertaken at the time of collecting data, as well as during data analysis and interpretation—actions which mostly involve looking for paths leading to cognition, understanding, and explanation.

Biography studies are based on the analysis of (auto)biographical narrations—stories about one's own or another person's life. The main method of collecting data by biography researchers is a narrative interview or studying memoirs, diaries, (auto)biographies, (auto)biographic essays, etc. Another useful (though applied less often) method of obtaining and analysing data is the usage of lifelines.

„Life histories are data collection strategies that detail an individual's life. Lifelines are a visual depiction of a life history, displaying events in chronological order and noting the importance, or meaning, of events” (Gramling, Carr 2004, p. 207). The lifeline „can serve as retrospective and holistic representations of experiences, helping participants link past experiences with subsequent actions” (Arnault, Shimabukuro 2011, s. 315). In literature, the concept of lifeline is often used interchangeably with a timeline (see e.g. Berends 2011). Elzette Fritz and Grethe van Zyl (2015) differentiate these two terms, explaining that timelines can be constructed in order to capture a certain sequence of events related to some kind of experience and can be created not only by the author participating in these events. In turn, drawing a lifeline allows a person to think about their own life history and situate selected events (which were momentous, important in life) on a lifeline. When adopting such a differentiation, it can be claimed that biography researchers creating a visual image of the course of life independently (based on previously collected study material) or with a narrator, use a timeline (though they sometimes they also call it a lifeline). Timelines are very useful in extensive research projects with a large number of study participants and/or when the collected study material is extensive. Timelines also allow to keep data in order and compare it more easily. In turn, researchers asking study participants to visually present their life history use lifelines. Preparing a lifeline is a perfect introduction to the next stage of the study and helps to reflect upon one's life, put it in order, choose the key (from a certain perspective, at a specific time) events and find their meaning, show them in a wider context; it also helps to prepare to construct an autobiographic narration. Most frequently, researchers use lifelines and timelines as an introduction to the construction of an autobiographic narration or to put in order an already prepared one.

A different approach is proposed by Hanne Kirstine Adriansen (2012) who claims that her method of collecting data is a timeline interview. Constructing a timeline is a joint effort of both the narrator and the researcher. The line is created during an interview and new information is added on the go. The narrator decides which event starts and ends the line. Not always is it a line showing the course of life from birth to the interview. Sometimes, the narrator may place certain events from before they were born on the line, as well as mark something in the future. An image showing a timeline is often divided into two parts—the first one showing the most important events listed by the narrator,

and the other one which includes supplementary data to key events. Looking at the line, we can find several sections presenting different histories which affect one another. During the interview, the narrator may find certain relations between these histories—connections which they had not noticed before. Thus, the analysis of such a narration starts already during the interview (Adriansen 2012).

This article aims at presenting the potential and limitations of lifelines as a method used to collect biographic data. The example of studies conducted among PhD students at the main technical universities in Poland and Ukraine will demonstrate the concept.

METHODS AND SAMPLE

Perceiving a teacher as a researcher “independent in their cognition as a reflective, creative scientist of their own practice, of an open mind, critical and searching in their professional development and competences” (Dróžka 2014, p. 229) inspired us to conduct comparative studies on biographic determinants of engineers’ decisions to start a PhD program at a technical university and, at the same time, to become an academic teacher. The main objective of this study was to find biographic determinants of a decision to start PhD studies at a technical university. By conducting our study, we also wanted to determine the importance of young people’s life experience and biography in making important life decisions. Our aim was to encourage PhD students to reflect upon the history of their life in the context of an already made decision to start a PhD program.

In order to answer the presented research questions, we conducted a biography study based on the material of lifelines and autobiographic essays prepared by PhD students at the Wrocław University of Science and Technology and the National Technical University of Ukraine in Kiev. The group of studied persons was selected according to the principle of purposive sampling. The study included 56 participants (Poland: 28 persons, including 10 women; Ukraine: 28 persons, including 2 women) of 23 to 30 years of age. The average age of a participant was 25. The majority of participants came from a big city (29 persons), 14 participants—from a medium-size town, 9—from a small town, and 7—from the countryside. The PhD students who participated in the study were working within the following disciplines: architecture, electronics, IT, management, automatics and robotics, mechanical engineering, and biotechnology.

The PhD students were asked to draw their lifelines and mark them with all elements (events, persons, places, etc.) which they considered important in their biographies for the decision to take up PhD studies and the role of academic teachers. Aware of the fact that many engineers decide to obtain a PhD degree not because they see their future in academia, developing in science and teaching at a university, but because they want to develop their career in industry and business, we also asked to include this factor in the prepared materials. Lifelines were supposed to serve as an introduction to the task of writing an autobiographic essay in which participants could elaborate on elements marked on their lifelines.

A significant majority of the PhD students asked to prepare their lifelines and autobiographic essays consented to such conditions. Interestingly, not all PhD students submitted the materials they had prepared, as they considered these materials too personal. The PhD students participating in the study often stressed that the reflection upon their own biographies was an interesting lesson for them, the first moment when they consciously reflected upon their lives and decisions in the context of analysing their whole autobiographies.

The analysis and interpretation of the studied material (i.e. lifelines and autobiographic narrations) were conducted in accordance with a method of a multi-level analysis and hermeneutic interpretation (Kruchowska 2010). Lifelines and autobiographic essays were prepared in participants' mother tongues (i.e. in Polish and Ukrainian). That is why the first stage of analysis (i.e. coding, selecting theme motifs and key categories related to the studied problem in every narration and lifeline) was conducted by each of us individually. At the second stage, we worked together to look for categories that were common to PhD students of the Wrocław University of Science and Technology and of the National Technical University of Ukraine in Kiev, and for categories that differed in these two groups. Data were organized under each category and reviewed, noting the commonalities and differences. Then, we performed a so-called external interpretation, within which we compared the discovered meaning to theoretical models and empirical studies on biographic determinants of life decisions. Thus, the study was of an explorative character, with an inductive approach to a qualitative analysis, assuming no initial categorizations around which the analysis of data is conducted (Gramling, Carr 2004; Riessman 2005).

The results of the study on biographic determinants of decisions about taking up PhD studies at technical universities will be presented in a different paper. This text presents the conclusions resulting from a formal analysis of PhD students' lifelines and concentrates on presenting a potential and limitations of a lifeline as a research method used to collect biographic data. We focus our reflections on the analysis of a temporal and visual level of lifelines of PhD students participating in our study.

RESULTS

A TEMPORAL LEVEL OF A LIFELINE

A biography is "an individual destiny of a person, extended between their birth and death (time of life), and, at the same time, the act of this person's own creative activity" (Lalak 2010, p. 39). A human being, when telling a story of their life, is not able to reconstruct all events, and has to choose those which they for some reason consider important to include, mention, and interpret. Reflecting upon past events also encourages us to create plans for the future, look for relations between the past and present, and find the

sense and meaning of past events from a time perspective (see: Demetrio 2000). That is why, as Elżbieta Dubas claims, “biographic narrations show three, and sometimes even four time perspectives: past, present, future, and eternity” (Dubas 2014, p. 22).

The analysis of lifelines prepared by PhD students included a close look at their temporal dimension. Each lifeline presented a person’s past, which constituted the longest part in drawn schemes of life paths. The remaining time perspectives were not so obvious. The present time was shown by 48 persons, future by 20 persons, and eternity was marked symbolically by 2 persons (see tab. 1).

Past events were visualized on lifelines prepared by study participants by marking birth (24 persons), childhood (32 persons), adolescence (46 persons) and early adulthood (56 persons). All lifelines are the most detailed in periods related to formal education (starting with primary school, up to academic education), with the university level being the richest in details. They reveal both the learning process that run unconsciously, spontaneously, non-systematically, and learning resulting from intentional actions placed in formal education (see: Mazurek 2015).

A VISUAL ASPECT OF A LIFELINE

The study participants independently decided on their method to graphically present their lifelines, which resulted in a huge diversity of adopted solutions in this area.

The lifelines usually took the form of a straight horizontal or a vertical line or, rarely, a wave on which participants marked points with short descriptions naming events or persons involved. The majority of lifelines prepared that way also included the years when specific events took place. The future was marked with a dotted line, ellipsis, or a question mark. Some of the participants decided to present their lifelines metaphorically as a path (a straight one or a path with numerous turns, sometimes also with bifurcations or intersections), on which the most important events were marked. Another way to present one’s lifeline was to portray one’s self at specific stages of life (e.g. a baby in a sleeping bag, an infant playing with toy bricks, a boy with a computer, a group of people, a man pushing down a pram) or use small drawings symbolizing events/persons and separated with arrows which show the course of life. One lifeline consisted of six houses symbolizing the subsequent stages of life, connected with footsteps leading from one house to another.

- Many lifelines show small drawings presenting:
- life experiences (e.g. baby’s sleeping bag as a symbol of birth, suitcases as a symbol of moving home, wedding rings as a symbol of getting married, mountains as a symbol of one’s passion),
- persons (usually portraying the participant, sometimes close relatives, friends, teachers, students, or even other persons who inspire the participant to think about their lifeline),

Table 1. Time perspectives included on lifelines

Temporal perspective	Elements on a lifeline	Explanation of the meaning of one's developmental stage for the biography and decision about starting PhD studies
PAST	<p>Childhood</p> <p>Life/personal events (e.g. participant's birth, school competitions, visiting participant's father's factory)</p> <p>Daily life events which are important from the present perspective (e.g. playing a school imitation game, constructing with toy bricks, logical games, memory games, explaining the world through important persons, helping students with learning difficulties)</p> <p>Difficult/ground-breaking moments on few life paths (e.g. mother's serious sickness, parents' divorce, breaking an arm at school)</p> <p>Important persons: parents, grandparents, siblings, less frequently teachers</p> <p>Self-image (e.g. curious about the world, constantly asking "why", with good grades)</p>	<p>A current period, which is not very important or is poorly remembered (e.g. "Dark Ages," "nothing interesting on this topic," "a normal kid of up to 10 years of age")</p> <p>The interests start to shape:</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1) under the influence of important persons (mostly parents, grandparents, teachers; parents' educational and professional background is important here) 2) as the effect of participants' own activity (e.g. playing a school imitation game, first competitions)
	<p>Adolescence</p> <p>Life/personal events (e.g. presents shaping one's interests, e.g. computer, telescope, participation in competitions, school olympiads and achievements in this area; a matura exam; engaging in social life as an expression of teenage angst)</p> <p>Everyday life which is important from the present perspective (e.g. the development of interests, school education, giving private lessons)</p> <p>Difficult/ground-breaking moments on few life paths (e.g. mother's depression, father's death, parents' separation)</p> <p>Important persons: teachers, less frequently parents and peers</p>	<p>A period of shaping interests, discovering talents and skills</p> <p>A period of important successes (especially in school competitions)</p> <p>A period of first life failures (e.g. unsatisfactory results of one's matura exam, events which get out of control, engaging in social life)</p>
	<p>Emerging adulthood / Early adulthood</p> <p>Life/personal events (e.g. selecting a field of studies, selecting a specialty, defending one's thesis, finding one's life partner, getting married, first job, birth of one's child, networking with an important person at the university—usually a thesis supervisor, participating in first research projects and internships abroad)</p> <p>A global event (war in Donbass)—currently on 3 lifelines of PhD students from Ukraine</p> <p>Everyday life which is important from the present perspective (e.g. studying and having difficulties in that area, passing exams, giving private lessons, working professionally)</p> <p>A self-image (e.g. I am no longer the best, I willingly help other students with studying)</p> <p>Difficult/ground-breaking moments on few life paths (e.g. participant's sickness, separation with a close person, giving birth to a child, supervisor's death)</p> <p>Important persons: academic teachers (most frequently PhD thesis supervisor), less frequently—partners and parents</p> <p>Numerous lifelines showing this period spread into two or more directions (e.g. PhD studies and professional work, doing two fields of studies, studying at a university and having a hobby)</p>	<p>A period of life with a lot of possibilities for development</p> <p>A period rich in decisions which are important in life, and the need to face the consequences of one's own decisions</p>

Temporal perspective		Elements on a lifeline	Explanation of the meaning of one's developmental stage for the biography and decision about starting PhD studies
PRESENT		A graphically presented moment of creating a lifeline, most frequently complemented with a question (e.g. Where did it all start? How did I get here? What am I doing here?)	Participating in research as an event initiating reflection; a moment which is frequently presented as the first one in life when we consciously and deeply think about one's life path and its connections with a decision to start tertiary level studies
FUTURE		Presented as a complementary part of a lifeline with many different methods: 1. an uncompleted, empty lifeline which is an extension of previously presented periods 2. a line with marked years with anticipated events, plans for the future 3. a symbolically marked objective to strive for 4. question marks	Future presented as: 1. hope, 2. a precise plan, 3. something unknown.
ETERNITY		Symbols associated with death (i.e. grave at the end of a lifeline, participant's own death as a point which ends a lifeline)	Eternity presented symbolically, with no description or explanation of how it is understood

Source: authors' own study

- places (e.g. home, kindergarten, shelter),
- emotions (e.g. a bomb by the question: “Am I pregnant?!” or a heart between two people, a smiling or sad face),
- reflections (e.g. a drawing of a dog and leash with a comment at the side saying “I am not on a leash”; then a ship sailing with a small fish below it and a person on the bottom with a comment under the drawing: “I hit rock bottom”; then, a figure of a person and a question mark, with a question “What am I doing” under the drawing; then, a clenched fist with a part of a person visible in the fist with a comment below saying “I am holding myself together”; many lifelines feature question marks symbolizing the need to make a decision, make a choice, or think about the future).

CONCLUSION

Changes occurring in methodological practices in social sciences are visible, among others, in weakening the potential of a scientific method and strengthening the position of a researcher (Malewski 2012). A researcher finds individual, often original, research solutions (Pryszmont-Ciesielska 2016) to get to know, describe, and explain the social world with its contextual character and the diversity of how people perceive and understand it. Thus, a researcher seeks unconventional paths providing them with an insight into their social reality. As Malewski claims, “Researcher’s reflection, imagination, and competence determine whether the used methods and techniques lead to the

achievement of assumed cognitive and practical objectives. It is the only criterion of validating methodological correctness of conducted studies” (Malewski 2012, p. 43).

In our studies, the use of a lifeline was a pretext to inspire PhD students to reflect on their life histories and made decisions (see also: Vynoslavska 2003; Sladek 2016). This function has been fulfilled, which is visible in the created lifelines and comments shared by the study participants. For reviewed students, their lifeline creation was creative work combined with deep reflection – sometimes such a deep one, that some participants refused to share their creations with the researchers. The created lifelines were extremely diverse in terms of their content and form. What was surprising, many lifelines included symbols which graphically presented different life (also ground-breaking) experiences, emotions, the meaning of life events for one’s biography. Some lifelines included comments which served as an attempt to start a dialog with the researchers.

We did not notice any significant differences in the lifelines prepared by PhD students from Poland and Ukraine. However, among the most important differences are the presence of global events only on the lifelines of PhD students from Ukraine, more precise plans for the future of Ukrainians, a greater saturation of emotions as well as events unrelated to formal education on the lifelines of Polish PhD students.

Lifelines have a potential in studying biographies, as they are helpful both for a person trying to recreate their own life history, and for a researcher who analyses the biography of such a person. Lifelines are a bridge connecting one’s real experiences and their memory and recreation, as well as the act of telling the story of these experiences (Berends 2011, p. 2). A graphic representation of one’s own biography can help in putting one’s life history in order and organizing it, which requires some reflection. Inspiring reflection and self-awareness of a study participant is an educational and therapeutic function of biography studies (see: Dominice 2000, Lalak 2010, Mazurek 2017).

The process of creating lifelines may occur on different stages of biography studies. Drawing a lifeline may precede the construction of an autobiographic narration or function as its introduction, but a lifeline can also be its final stage. A lifeline can also be created at the time of constructing a narration. It is also an interesting solution to draw a lifeline before telling one’s life story, and then modifying the lifeline depending on the narration.

Lifelines are especially helpful as a tool to conduct extended research projects with a large number of participants and/or extensive study material. However, it would be difficult to use a lifeline as the one and only study method, as different elements presented on a lifeline are too symbolic. For the researcher decoding the lifeline is difficult. The lifelines can be triangulated with other data collection methods (for example interview, analysis of personal documents such as autobiographical essay, diary) to confirm and complete a life history. Thus, a narration is needed to provide a description, interpretation, and a meaning for presented events, persons, places, etc.

Concluding, we see a huge potential in a lifeline as a method of collecting biographic data, but also as a didactic tool which can be used during biography workshops and other forms of classes. It can support self-creation and self-development (Goodson, Scherto 2011; Sladek 2017).

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THE AMATEUR PRACTICE OF ART AND ITS EDUCATIONAL BENEFITS AS SEEN THROUGH THE EXAMPLE OF A CHORAL SINGER

Abstract: Regardless of the form it takes and the field it is realized within, the practice of amateur art requires physical, emotional, cognitive and, principally in the case of group activities, social engagement. Thus, it can influence different aspects of human life. The research results presented in this paper refer to the effects that participation in an amateur choral group has on the educational sphere of adult life. The objective of the study was to identify the ways in which the amateur performance of art influences the educational sphere of adult life. The research problem was formulated as the following question: What are the educational benefits of choral singing? The case study has been chosen as the most appropriate method for answering this question. The data were gathered by means of an unstructured, in-depth interview. For Adam, the respondent, the amateur choir turned out to be an environment that provided him with the right conditions for learning and developing. As a result of his involvement in choral singing, he gained certain educational benefits which can be assigned to three categories: intellectual, social, and moral.

Keywords: amateur choral singing, educational benefits, case study, adults

AMATEUR PRACTICE OF ART AS A FORM OF CULTURAL EDUCATION

Cultural education can be understood in two ways. The broader, humanistic approach, being a consequence of the global understanding of culture, combines all areas of human activity, from artistic creation, to philosophy, science, law, morality and all other components of human existence (Depta, Pólturzycki, 2004). Cultural education in the narrower sense involves education *to art* and *through art*. The first consists of preparing an individual for the widest possible acceptance of various artistic phenomena, as well as sensitization to beauty. In turn, education through art goes beyond shaping the aesthetic

sensitivity of a human being, as it refers both to the internalization of values and to the unlocking the creative potential of the individual (Jedlewska, 1999). Education through art is associated with the education of the full personality of man, including the intellectual, moral, and social spheres (Wojnar, 1995).

The non-professional artistic movement is where education through art occurs. However, contemporary researchers have pushed the topic to the margins of culture, as can be seen by the fact that the theoretical base for reflections on the amateur practice of art in Polish pedagogy and andragogy is still based on the classic pedagogical concepts of Stefan Szuman (1947), Helena Radlińska (1961) and Aleksander Kamiński (1971).

The amateur practice of art is sometimes simply ignored by the social sciences. Independent, amateur artistic groups usually do not receive public funds and so they remain invisible as far as cultural statistics are concerned. For example, the report *Cultural practices of Poles* lists numerous forms of cultural activity, divided into 'classic' (going to the cinema, theatre, art galleries etc.), non-institutional (practiced at home) and so-called new practices (e.g. a party, a weekend away, or a festival) (Szlendak, 2014, p. 141–210), yet it does not mention the amateur practice of art at all. The report *Cultural hierarchy*. New distinctions and duties in culture and social stratification is similar in this regard. In their attempt to answer the question about how Poles participate in culture, its authors identify various types of activity: domestic, institutional, and sport-recreational, but amateur activities are not mentioned in any of these categories (Bachórz et al., 2016, p. 28–35). Visible gaps in describing the issue of adult participation in amateur artistic activities can also be seen in the domain of qualitative research.

Neglecting this significant and extremely intense form of cultural experience in the modern discourse of social sciences may be misleading; individuals are shaped not only by the aesthetic experiences that result from the reception of art but also, or perhaps even first of all, through the non-professional practice of their own artistic activity (Wojnar, 1995). The amateur practice of art can be understood as all those activities undertaken by an individual within a particular field of art purely for reasons of love, voluntarily, for pleasure and for the sake of one's own development (Litawa, 2014). Since it is generally related to positive experiences, the amateur practice of art is an extremely attractive form of education and development for adults. In accordance with the concept of aesthetic education (Jedlewska, 1999), contact with art meets, and at the same time shapes, the various needs and aspirations of the individual; it can therefore cause changes in her attitude to life or her lifestyle.

METHODOLOGY

The data for the current study were part of a larger data collection. Only the methodology relevant to the findings reported here is included in this paper. In the analyses presented in this text, I referred only to those parts of the subject's narrative in which he points to the relationship of amateur art practice with the educational sphere of his life.

Since the aim of this study was to understand the lived experience and attitude of an individual in detail, the research was conducted within a qualitative perspective. The qualitative research is an arranged activity that places the observer in the world; it is an interpretive, naturalistic approach to the world to which the researchers seek to lend meaning or to interpret phenomena using the terms that are used by the subjects (Denzin & Lincoln, 2009).

The reflections presented have been grounded in an interpretative paradigm oriented towards explaining and understanding social behaviors. The objective of the study was to identify the ways in which the amateur performance of art influences the educational sphere of adult life. The research problem was formulated as the following question: What are the educational benefits of choral singing?

The case study has been chosen as the most appropriate method for answering this question. This method narrows down the studied subject to one or several cases, somehow special in their uniqueness (Pilch & Bauman, 2001). The study of an individual case allows the researcher to get closer to 'noteworthy aspects of the general by connecting the individual unique life with a common humanity' (Eatough & Smith, 2008, p. 183). The data were gathered by means of unstructured, in-depth interview. The interview makes it possible to obtain information about the respondent's experiences and the way he or she perceives and understands reality. While talking about something, the narrator is already interpreting it, assigning it his own network of concepts, which extends the statement to the context. 'From the point of view of the exploration objective of the research, it is extremely valuable because it provides an insight into the perspective of the research participants and allows this perspective to be better reflected in the study' (Gudkova, 2012, p. 116). The unstructured, in-depth interview allows the researcher to maintain more control over the conversation with the respondent, while at the same time leaving space for the participant in the study to offer new meanings to the topic of the study (Galletta, 2013).

The participant of this study was referred to as Adam to preserve his anonymity. He was a 24-year-old bachelor, and he was Polish. He was a construction student at Cracow University of Technology, Poland. He has been singing in an academic choir for five years; he started participating in the first year of his studies.

Adam volunteered for the conversation. The interview was conducted after choir rehearsal. It was recorded with the permission of the respondent, and then transcribed in full and verbatim. It lasted 40 minutes. The participant was assured of the anonymity and confidentiality of his answers. Adam was asked about the root causes of his interest in choral singing, his motivations and decisions to participate at different stages in his life, and the changes to his life that occurred as a result of belonging to the choir. The data gathered were categorized in thematic groups. The educational sphere of the respondent's life was defined as the unit of analysis.

RESULTS

In his childhood, Adam undertook music education several times. His mother enrolled him in various kinds of music classes. He learnt to play the keyboard, and then the guitar. However, the classes he participated in did not yield many results. As he admits: '(...) a few people wanted to teach me music, but I was resistant (...) somehow it did not involve me.' It was only in the choir that Adam felt that music interested him. The need to develop his musical skills and knowledge did not appear until he learnt to sing. As he reports: '(...) I broadened my horizons and musical knowledge, I mean, I became more interested in choral music.' Undoubtedly, the person who played a particularly significant role in changing Adam's attitude to music study was the conductor. The respondent appreciated her professionalism - he pointed out that during the rehearsals she used musical terminology, proposed various voice exercises, conducted additional individual classes on voice projection, and also ensured that the band's repertoire was varied not only in terms of difficulty but also musical genre. Such a way of conducting classes meant that for Adam each rehearsal of the choir was a 'valuable lesson of music'.

The amateur practice of choral singing motivated Adam to study music and gain an education in this field. He began to think about his passion in professional terms. In order to get a diploma, he enrolled in a 4-year-long program of Diocesan Organ Studies in Tarnów: 'The study gives me a diploma that entitles me to play in every church that is not a cathedral, so in villages without a problem. When you graduate with a grade 5, you can play practically everywhere, though you are still not allowed to play in cathedrals'.

In Diocesan Organ Studies he learnt musical notation: 'Until then, I hated notes, I did not understand them, I did not know what I needed them for. I enrolled in the studies and I began to understand why it is worth knowing the notes. I've known them for a year.' With the increase in musical competence, Adam's need to deepen his musical knowledge has increased. He plans further training — after graduating from Organ Studies, he wants to apply for interfaculty studies with a focus on church music: 'I decided that I have been in this for so long that maybe it is worth trying to get paid for it and making it partially my income.' His ambitious intention indicates that his aspirations have also increased.

Singing in the choir consumes a lot of time, thus requiring self-discipline from the singers. Before joining the choir Adam could not manage his time - he wasted it on 'meaningless activities'. As he himself admits: 'Both the choir and the school, they organized my life because I've noticed that the more I'm doing the more I can do... When I had too much time it was like: I'm going to study later, I'll do this some other time. And now, the less time I have, the more I begin to appreciate it'. As a result of his engagement with choral singing Adam became a more orderly person. As he claims, he learned to be punctual and to manage his time.

Regular meetings during rehearsals bring the participants closer to each other. In the choir Adam met people who shared his passion for music, and he formed several valuable relationships: 'The choir is not only rehearsals and concerts. It is above all a group of good friends. I've met really fantastic people here. We also see each other outside the choir, we help each other, we go to parties.' As he himself admits, Adam is very attached to his choir. The desire to remain a member prevented him from making a snap decision to give up his studies and mobilized him to work and continue his education at the Cracow University of Technology: 'To be honest, the choir many times kept me at university, I mean, I was holding on to the choir. I repeated a year twice, at one point I was about to switch to weekend studies, which would have meant moving to Tarnow but I decided to stay for the choir (...)' *From a person who had difficulties studying and had to repeat a year, Adam became a disciplined, well-organized man who combines studying at the University with his education in Organ Studies and his choir rehearsals. The sense of belonging to the choral community in Adam's case turned out to be so strong that it motivated him to repair the deficiencies in his studies.*

The respondent perceived the choir as 'one soul in several dozen bodies'. In fact, choral singing is a team activity. In order to achieve satisfactory artistic results, singers must cooperate, understand, and trust each other. It is also important to take one's duties seriously. In the case of the choristers it means that they should, among other things, regularly take part in the rehearsals. As the respondent claims: '(...) it was in the choir that I obtained the ability to work in a group and to adapt to the needs of the whole team'. Being a part of a choir Adam learned to put the group's interests first. This resulted from his sense of responsibility for the group and his colleagues, and their work in common.

CONCLUSION

The educational sphere of human life is strictly connected with learning; that is, the process of forming the intellectual side of one's personality. This process leads to changes, not only in the learners' minds 'but also in other aspects of their personality such as opinions, beliefs, interests, aspirations, emotions and readiness to act practically' (Kargul, 2009, p. 23). The study as it was conducted leads to the conclusion that for Adam membership in an amateur choral ensemble brought certain educational benefits. They can be assigned to three categories: intellectual, social, and moral (Wojnar, 1995).

The concept of aesthetic education (Jedlewska, 1999) suggests that engaging in the amateur practice of art helps individuals to experience life and enriches their everyday impressions, and at the same time brings a huge educational and cognitive potential. For the respondent, the choir turned out to be an environment that provided him with the right conditions for learning and development. He gained and subsequently expanded his musical knowledge. Moreover, his involvement in choral singing allowed him to discover his potential and then motivated him to pursue further education, to take on new

challenges, and contributed to an increase in his cultural and educational competencies. In other words, as a result of being involved in an artistic activity, Adam broadened his cognitive horizons and discovered new perspectives for development.

Based on their review of the modern international scientific literature, the Australian researchers White and Hede (2008) delineated a range of positive social effects that result from encounters with art. These effects refer to health and quality of life, development and identity, attitudes and behaviors, ideology, social diversity, and inclusion. Membership of a choir provides participants with opportunities for friendship, companionship, happiness, a sense of belonging, and acceptance (Joseph & Southcott, 2015). As previous research on peer interactions has suggested, 'trust and rapport, musical and moral support, encouragement and validation, peer modelling and informal mentoring all emerged as important aspects of singer to singer interaction in choral rehearsal and performance' (Bonshor, 2016, p. 291). Undoubtedly, social aspects resulting from the fact that the respondent belonged to a choral community played a notable role in maintaining his commitment, educational effort, and motivation for development. For Adam, who struggled with his studies, the strong friendships he formed and the awareness that these would be lost if he gave up singing were of great importance. We may risk the statement that it is because of the choral community that the respondent became a responsible and conscientious person.

Artistic engagement entails many other consequences that reach beyond the area of educational and social effects. The amateur practice of art may also cause changes in one's attitude to life (Jedlewska, 1999; Wojnar, 1995), it therefore may shape the moral aspect of a person's existence. As a result of his involvement in choral singing Adam became more mature and creative. He began to plan his future career, undertook new challenging decisions regarding his education, and took concrete steps towards the realization of his ambitious goals. Adam's experiences of being a choir member led to the transformation of his *modus operandi*. His words indicate that he was aware of this: 'I generally think that the choir changed me and my character'.

There is no doubt that the amateur practice of art plays an important role in the lives of adults. The influence of art on humans is a complex, multifaceted phenomenon perceived and understood depending on the experiences and perspective of each individual, and is connected with countless different influences (White & Hede, 2008). According to previous research the scope of the benefits that result from individuals' engagement in group singing is large and may affect different spheres of their lives (see for example: Bailey & Davidson, 2013; Einarsdottir & Gudmundsdottir, 2016; Johnson et al., 2016; Linnemann et al., 2017; Litawa, 2018; Sanal & Gorsev, 2014). This study provides important insights into the role of amateur choral singing in the educational sphere of a person's life. Adam's example shows that amateur artistic activity is not only a way of spending free time, but it is also a form of intense education and development for those thus engaged.

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SATISFACTION PARADOX IN OLD AGE

Abstract: Demographic ageing is a phenomenon noticed in many societies, but its dynamics and characteristics are different. This paper presents results of research on life satisfaction in old age among Polish citizens, in the perspective of positive ageing. Obtained average value of wellbeing of Polish seniors fits within the window most representative for societies of economically developed countries. According to Ed Diener, this value expresses the level of general life satisfaction, with openness to change in single areas of one's activity. Educational background and marital status have statistically significant impact on general life satisfaction among seniors, whereas age and gender did not matter much. Place of residence was important for seniors' wellbeing.

Keywords: ageing, quality of life, wellbeing, satisfaction paradox; age (un)friendly environment

INTRODUCTION

Population ageing continues, and its consequences substantially change functioning of individuals and whole societies. Demographic revolution of silver populations reveals new research problems in a wide and interdisciplinary area of gerosciences. Last decades brought introduction and popularisation of model of positive, successful and good ageing and old age (Bowling, 2007; Hill, 2009; Błachnio, 2017). It is a counterbalance for pessimistic forecasts about regularly increasing percentage of people with disabilities in the global society; a group seen only as generating constantly growing economical and social costs because of support and care they require. Fear of disability and dependence in old age was confirmed by many results of research on health-related quality of life (HQOL). They showed that with age, life satisfaction decreases due to multimorbidity, polypharmacy, growing dependence and limited mobility.

Further studies on life quality in old age confirmed that health is an important area and its importance grows in late adulthood when human body gets older and weaker (Halicka 2004). With age, people suffer from more and more ailments and chronic diseases. Epidemiological data show that more than half of people over 60 is treated with three or more chronic diseases (Michałkiewicz, Wróbel, 2012; Gryglewska, 2013; Piotrowicz, 2013). Diseases and health status are not indifferent factors in individual evaluation of life satisfaction among seniors (Błachnio, Maliszewski, Molesztak, 2017; Ziółkowski, Błachnio, Pąchalska, 2015). However, relation between health and evaluation of life quality of ageing persons is not based solely on a simple correlation. It is true that often declining health means lower quality of life, and improved health leads to increased life quality, but these are not all possible patterns. Based on empirical evidence, subject literature shows the so called satisfaction paradox — very positive subjective assessment of life quality in situations where objective health indicators are unfavourable (Heszen-Niejodek, 1996; Whitley, Popham, Benzeval, 2016).

Theses about environmental impact on functioning and wellbeing of seniors also appear in discussion about quality of ageing (Błachnio, 2014; Błachnio, Maliszewski, 2014). There is a tendency to lower the level of life satisfaction among Poles (Trempała, 2014). In individual assessment, theses results that are not a canon in research practice, become the basis for geopolitical and economic divisions of the world. This, in turn, deprives certain societies of chance for positive ageing (Coleman, O'Hanlon, 2017). This problem affects Polish seniors in particular. It motivated the authors of this paper to take part in discussion on the nature of old age and chances our society has for successful ageing.

OLD AGE IN POLAND AND SATISFACTION

Statements about “two speeds” of ageing in Europe and in the world, that can be found in global literature, are shocking. Assigning Polish society into the category in which chances for successful ageing are lesser because of geographical location, is surprising. In science, emotional arguments do not convince as much as numbers. They may be a base for further qualitative research aimed at deepening and extending the research question of how do old people understand and experience their own successful ageing. Thus, the objective of the research and analyses was to verify to what extent successful ageing strategy describes ageing Poles.

In gerontology, life satisfaction is connected with the category of successful ageing, as shown in classic publications by Bernice L. Neugarten, George C. Williams, Robert James Havighurst or Hans Thomae (Halicki, 2010). This practice has been kept till today, and life satisfaction is considered a herald, an identifier or a feature of successful ageing (Halicki, 2010). Therefore, authors' intention was to study the way Polish seniors evaluate their own life satisfaction in subsequent decades of old age. Also, the authors tried more thoughtfully and critically to identify factors that affect wellbeing during ageing and in old age. Their analyses covered individual (gender, education, marital status) and environmental (place of residence) variables.

MATERIAL AND METHODS

The study included 731 persons of whom 379 were women (52%) and 352 men (48%). Sampling criteria were the following: age of 60 and more, Polish citizenship, no diseases that could cause death within next 6 months, no significant cognitive disorders. The youngest respondent was 60 and the oldest 95 (mean age 74.60, SD 7.44). The sample was selected by means of snowball method in the following administrative regions (Polish *voivodships*): kujawsko-pomorskie, wielkopolskie, mazowieckie, warmińsko-mazurskie, pomorskie, lubelskie and śląskie. The detailed description of sample demographic variables is presented in Table 1. The participants were informed about the purpose of the study and tested individually.

Table 1. Socio-demographic characteristics of the sample

	Men (n=352)	Women (n=379)
Age (average, standard deviation)	74.72 (7.41)	74.49 (7.47)
Marital status (n, %)		
Married	246 (70%)	172 (45%)
Widowed	82 (23%)	171 (45%)
Divorced	16 (5%)	24 (7%)
Single	8 (2%)	12 (3%)
Education (n, %)		
Elementary	92 (26%)	133 (35%)
Vocational	105 (30%)	71 (19%)
Secondary	96 (27%)	130 (34%)
Higher	59 (17%)	45 (12%)
Place of residence		
Big City	155 (44%)	144 (38%)
Small town	47 (13%)	53 (14%)
Village	150 (43%)	182 (48%)

They completed the Satisfaction with Life Scale (Diener, Emmons, Larsen, Griffin – Polish version adapted by Juczyński, 2001). The questionnaire contained 5 statements to measure global cognitive evaluation of one's life satisfaction. The statements refer to past, presence and future, and are very general. They allow to compare respondent's life with an ideal picture of it, and assess satisfaction from what has been achieved so far.

Each item is evaluated using a 7-point scale that ranges from 7 — strongly agree to 1 — strongly disagree. According to the SWLS, higher scores indicate greater life satisfaction. Each participant gave consent for participation in the study. The Statistica 12.5 software

was used for analyses. For the purpose of statistical analysis, the measure of descriptive statistics, and analysis of variance were used. The level of statistical significance was assumed at $p < 0.05$.

RESULTS

The main objective was to diagnose wellbeing of Polish seniors. Obtained data enabled evaluation of general life satisfaction among the respondents. The results are presented in Table 2.

Table 2. Socio-demographic characteristics of study sample

	N	Average	Minimum	Maximum	SD
Wellbeing	731	21.534	1.000	35.000	5.943

According to interpretation pattern proposed by Ed Diener (2006), the obtained average value classifies obtained result to average value range (from 20 to 24). This level of life satisfaction is typical for economically developed countries. It includes most people who are generally satisfied but have some areas (one or two) they wish to improve.

In order to identify the sources of life satisfaction of Polish seniors, multiple regression analysis was conducted. Influence of four variables was estimated: gender (women, men), age divided into decades (3 age subgroups were identified: 60-, 70- and 80-year olds), education (primary, vocational, secondary and higher) and marital status (married, widowed, divorced, single).

Table 3. Multiple regression results – summary

N=731	R= .173 R ² = .030 Corr. R ² = .0245 F(4.726)=5.588 p < .00020 Std. error of estimate: 5.869					
	b*	SE with b*	b*	SE with b	t(7a6)	P
Intercept			31.112	45.652	0.682	0.496
Gender	-0.008	0.038	-0.100	0.449	-0.222	0.825
Age (60/70/80+)	0.031	0.039	0.251	0.316	0.794	0.428
Education	0.119	0.038	0.480	0.154	3.109	0.002
Marital status	-0.113	0.040	-0.463	0.164	-2.826	0.005

Out of the analysed regressors, educational background and marital status had statistically significant impact on general life satisfaction of seniors. The value of the coefficient

of multiple determination reveals that percentage variation explained by both variables after eliminating communalities, explains 3% of the total variability.

In the next stage, a series of analyses was conducted, comparing results of respondents in different subgroups. In authors' opinion, particular attention should be given to the results that cover seniors in the subsequent decades of old age — as an attempt to verify the thesis about decreasing level of wellbeing among seniors in less prosperous societies from the former Eastern block (Coleman, O'Hanlon, 2017).

Figure 1. Life satisfaction in subsequent decades of old age

The first subgroup 60+ consisted of 199 respondents. They obtained average value of 21.925 (SD=5.78) on the life satisfaction scale (SWLS). Second subgroup 70+ included 334 respondents. Their life satisfaction is expressed by the average of 21.371 (SD=6.16). The oldest subgroup 80+ consisted of 198 respondents. The average SWLS value in this group was 21.414 (SD 5.738). Minor differences in life satisfaction values are not statistically relevant.

Statistically relevant differences occurred at the level of life satisfaction among people ageing in different environments. The analyses were conducted in three subgroups: residents of rural areas (N=332), towns (N=100) and big cities (N=299). The results are presented in Figure 2.

Figure 2. Life satisfaction of respondents living in different environments

General life satisfaction was the lowest among the residents of rural areas ($M=20.79$ $SD=6.24$). The highest results were among seniors living in towns ($M=22.84$ $SD=5.81$). Residents of big cities evaluated their life satisfaction at 21.92 ($SD=5.55$).

DISCUSSION

Relation between age and wellbeing, and its fluctuation in the course of life is verified in the latest meta-analyses. There is a strongly emphasised fact of increase in wellbeing level after the age of 70. These results were obtained in American and Western European sample groups (Andersen-Ranberg, Petersen, Robine, Christensen, 2005). As for less prosperous societies of Eastern block, an opposite tendency is described — of constant decrease of the level of wellbeing, that begins already in middle age and lasts till advanced old age (Coleman, O'Hanlon, 2017). Research conducted among 731 Polish seniors did not confirm this tendency. Based on a single study, we cannot totally reject the proposed thesis. However, it is a serious argument for conducting further research in order to verify the reliability and accuracy of this assumption. It may lead to many harmful interpretations of old age experience in Poland. It is simplified and may lead to political and economical segregation of Polish society.

The very process of ageing and experiencing old age is diverse, individual and heterogeneous. Experiencing old age is also dynamic in its nature. Therefore, a single factor such as geo-political location, cannot be a key determinant of the range of senior wellbeing. Of course, less prosperous societies, identified as Eastern block, do not have comparable resources in health and social assistance sector, assigned for geriatric patients and ageing citizens. Feminisation and pauperisation of old age in Poland is a painful fact (Szukalski, 2011, 2013; Cudak, 2007; Zrałek, 2014). This does not mean that economic disadvantage of old people deprives them totally of the chance for successful ageing. Worse economic conditions, like health factor mentioned in the introduction, are not indifferent to life satisfaction. However, its individual evaluation is much more complex and depends on other factors as well. The role of family (Błachnio, Maliszewski, 2015), quality of interpersonal relations (Majewska-Opielka, 2009) or loneliness (Fabiś, Fabiś, 2014) are just exemplary determinants of differences in evaluation of life satisfaction by seniors.

The research allowed to gather results that enabled authors to identify another relevant problem, namely, differences in functioning of seniors living in rural and urban areas. There is empirically visible tendency to disfavour people from outside of urban agglomerations. It is believed to result from hidden exclusion of seniors from their local communities. This exclusion is expressed in lack of access to information, insufficient care provided by family and lack of acceptance from the surrounding environment. In rural environments, individual resources and functional ability are main factors favouring optimal ageing. Situation is much better in cities where it is often regulated by administrative rules and the needs of silver citizens are met. This is thanks to a program of Age Friendly Cities, initiated in 2007 by the World Health Organisation, of renewing cities in the context of ageing societies (Labus, 2013).

CONCLUSION

Polish seniors experience their old age in the same way as their peers in economically developed countries. However, place of residence and educational background are still important in determining the quality of own old age and the level of general wellbeing. Presented results regarding life satisfaction among seniors are a clear argument for the heterogeneous nature of old age. Description and generalisation of thereof is difficult due to the dynamics with which it changes under the influence of environment and individual experiences. Thus, quantitative measurement, though important and valuable in denying some dangerous and dividing stereotypes resulting in excluding older people from some societies with limited economical resources (Coleman, O'Hanlon, 2017), is insufficient. It is reasonable to extend the measurements with qualitative research, especially narratives that have become more and more popular in recent years. For practitioners and people functioning with ageing and old persons, it is the evidence and inspiration

that successful ageing is not only a theoretical construct, but is possible for an individual to actually experience it. People need knowledge and skills in obtaining and leveling individual and environmental resources to be able to better manage of own old age.

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ETHICAL DILEMMAS IN INCLUSIVE EDUCATION: THE CASE OF HOMELESS CHILDREN

Abstract: Educational issues regarding homeless children nowadays are close interrelated with the social issues of poverty, domestic violence, family dysfunction, lack of health insurance et cetera. In consequence of that, the homeless children's participation in education is becoming an especially important concern for educators. Teachers and school leaders need to develop an awareness of the context of homelessness and understand the impact of this worldwide growing phenomenon on the children academic achievements.

This paper focuses on the open questions in the area of teacher competency for work with homeless children. It is developed in two directions: using a theoretical approach to present what is relevant knowledge that will help future educators implement educational programmes for homeless children, and, exploring the students' attitudes and beliefs regarding their readiness to contribute for surpassing of children abuse and neglect. Macedonian context is understood. The needed research has been made among the students at the Faculty of Education in Bitola. Survey aims to determine students perceptions of both the benefits of creating productive educational environment for homeless children, from one hand, and the barriers, i.e. ethical dilemmas arising in the educational practice that must be overcome, from other hand.

Keywords: educators, homeless children, children care, educational policy, ethical dilemmas

INTRODUCTION

The essential changes in the development of humanity in the early 21st century and the intensification of human activity have led to man's multiple impact on the surrounding world. These changes can be noticed in the environment and in the society. They reflect even on the life of the human being himself, that is, they gain a global character. The philosophical and cultural vector of education in the modern era should be directed not

only to the natural-scientific expertise of the new ideas, but also to the ethical element of the enlightenment. In that sense, the norms of pedagogical ethics have a particular importance in the modern society. Pedagogical ethics explores and analyzes the behavior of the teacher (the educator) towards the student, and vice versa, the behavior of the student towards the teacher. There are a number of essential tasks: the teacher should deeply appreciate the personality of the student, and the student, on the other hand, should also respect the teacher, follow his advice and gain his confidence. As said the experts: “we do specify an appropriate aim such as the development of individual potentialities or the development of intellect and character, then the aim would be intrinsic to what we would consider education to be” (Peters, 2015, p. 27).

In that line, next generation competencies should be based on knowledge, skills, attitudes and values which will lead to the well-being of the individual and the whole society. Key features of quality education for all are the human right approach and inclusive learning environments. Inclusive education is human right and brings social, economic and educational benefits. It is a process which should be recognised as involving both legal reform and transformation of awareness, values and policies (i.e. systems, environments and sustainability). The right to education without discrimination and on the basis of equal opportunity is a fundamental human right. Therefore, educational policy is slowly, but steadily, trying to move from content focus to focus on educational (learning) outcomes.

The world is changing fast and expectations of schools and schooling are continuing to grow. Social invisibility, exclusion from learning, vulnerability and poverty still are serious obstacles for many children towards their inclusion in education. In this context, “loss a home is a traumatic experience for anyone... for children this loss comes at a point in their lives when the absence of stable, nurturing settings is most injurious, when they are developing a sense themselves, of their own identity, a sense of what they are capable of doing and their own self-worth” (Rivlin, 2014, p. 9). Homelessness is a reality for many countries in the world. Current research establishes a strong connection between a young child’s early experiences and the developing of their brain structure because the early years of life can provide a strong or weak foundation for all future learning, behavior and health.

Homelessness is defined in a number of different ways. Homeless children are children who:

- are sharing the housing of other persons due to loss of housing, economic hardship, or a similar reason;
- are living in motels, hotels, trailer, parks, camping grounds due to the lack of alternative adequate accommodations;
- are abandoned in hospitals or are awaiting foster care placement.

For example, there is a historic high number of homeless children in the United States, based on the most recent U.S. Department of Education count of homeless children in public schools and on the 2013 U.S. Census data. There was an 8% increase nationally in

the number of children experiencing homelessness from 2012–2013. In the United States 1 in 30 children are homeless (Costa et al., 2016).

As a result of the transition and the unfavorable economic situation, the numbers of homeless children and families have increased dramatically in the Republic of Macedonia over the past decade. The statistical data showed that 233 children on the street were registered in 17 cities around the country. Most children who face this kind of destiny are in Skopje, Bitola, Kumanovo, Veles, Gostivar and Kichevo. Among them, there are even babies with just a few months, and the biggest ones are at the age of 17. Every day the large number of homeless children wander on the streets and in the most unfavorable weather conditions offer some services. Most often they wipe the wind-screen of cars, sell small items, beg on boulevards and streets where there is a high frequency of traffic imperiling their lives and the lives of the other participants in the traffic. They often do other things, such as collecting scrap metal, food or old clothes from waste containers or just wander. Such children are rarely educated and not have the opportunity to gain the qualifications needed to get employment and make a living. Usually, they come from families where parents are with less education and unemployed (*A Multidisciplinary Protocol for Treatment of Street Children in the Republic of Macedonia*, 2010).

In the Municipal Center for Social Work in Bitola 23 street children aged 4–13 are registered (9 children are male and 14 are female). All children are members of the Roma community. The Center has a capacity for work with 10 street children. Otherwise, 15 children live with both parents, and 8 children with one parent. Children or the family use social financial assistance and folk cuisine. The Municipal Center for Social Work has good cooperation with the health institutions in Bitola and provides adequate health care for street children. Of the registered children 11 are involved in the educational process and regularly attend classes, and 6 children are not included.

Homelessness in early childhood is associated with poor educational well-being and low academic achievement and engagement in elementary school. Because of that, the researches in this field underscore the importance of ensuring that young children who are homeless have access to education together with their peers (DeCandia et al., 2012).

The ultimate aims of research are to generate data regarding the readiness of future teachers and pedagogues from the Faculty of Education in Bitola to work with homeless children and to gain knowledge, skills and competences in accordance with the needs of the democratic multicultural society.

METHODS

This research, the results of which are outlined in the subsequent pages, was conducted in order to gain insights into how the students' attitudes and beliefs influence their readiness to work with homeless children.

Additionally, a broad-based analysis is made regarding “ethical dilemmas” as an umbrella term for all explicit and implicit issues arising in front of future educators in the field of homelessness.

The methodology of the research rests upon the preparation and design of a standard questionnaire adapted to the four mentioned categories. The representative sample comprises 30 students from the Faculty of Education in Bitola. Of the total number of interviewees, 10 students are enrolled in Elementary School Teacher Programme, 10 are enrolled in Pree-school Teacher Programme, 10 are enrolled in Social and Rehabilitation Pedagogy Programme. Questionnaires were handed out to all students selected to participate in the survey, providing enough time for their completion. Once completed, the questionnaires were collected in a way that ensured anonymity. Data collection was worked on from January 29th, 2018, through February 5th, 2018. Respondents were given two tasks. First, to evaluate the contents of curricula regarding the frequency of elements which are connected with homeless children education. Second, to explain their attitudes regarding homeless children education. Answering of the questions was by checking one of the offered options: “sometimes”, “often” and “very often”.

RESULTS

In order to explore student familiarity with homeless children education, the Figure 1 provides an overview of the responses of the three categories of students to the following question: *Are you familiar with the contents of the curriculum that refer to the education of street children?*

The survey data shows that students from the three different study programmes at the Faculty of Education in Bitola have a modest experience regarding learning contents connected with the homeless children education. Most of them (22 students) sometimes have learned about homeless children education issues. Only 7 students claimed that they are familiar with such a curriculum content often, and only 1 student declared that very often is in the position to learn about the above mentioned issue.

To examine the students' attitudes and beliefs regarding their readiness to contribute for surpassing of homeless children abuse and neglect, the questionnaire offered four affirmations on which the students were asked to provide their opinion with regards to the degree of his adoption. The affirmations are described in the Figure 2.

Of the total number of surveyed students (30), 24 agree with the affirmation that homeless children should be educated in special institutions, or 22 respondents disagree with the affirmation that homeless children should be educated in public schools. Also, only 8–10 students feel ready to create individualised support measures for homeless children and flexible approaches to learning for homeless children. Generally, all three categories of students show a low degree of development of competences for work with homeless children.

Figure 1. Overview of the responses of students participating in the research to the question: Are you familiar with the contents of the curriculum that refer to the education of street children?

Figure 2. Overview of the responses of students participating in the research with regard to the four affirmations:

ANALYSIS OF THE RESULTS

The results of the research shows that more interventions are needed into the syllabus of the teacher training faculties as well as into the capacity building of the prospective teachers and pedagogues for working with homeless children.

The Ministry of Education and Science is responsible for the educational process, that is, the inclusion of all children children in educational institutions. For all students included

in primary and secondary education the Ministry of Education and Science provides free textbooks and scholarships to vulnerable children in order to improve their inclusion in education and the regular attendance at school. In that way the Ministry try to improve the students success and reduce the dropout from compulsory education. But, in practice, there is missing many key elements regarding homeless children education: provision of reasonable accommodation, provision of individualised support measures, development of specific education plans and development of flexible approaches to learning. The teachers are messengers of democratic knowledge, skills and values in the society. In that line, the most important role in the preparation of future teachers and pedagogues play the formal educational system. Teaching social justice requires an understanding of demographic structure in various cultural communities and developing skills among students for social action. Also, teaching should put emphasis on “cleaning” the myths and stereotypes associated with gender, age, race, religious affiliation or other kind of discrimination (Gulevska, 2015).

According to the findings, teacher training faculties in the Republic of Macedonia should to reconsider current curricula and create a possibility for its upgrading. The educational principles are fundamentally moral principles, i.e. each curriculum for education in democratic society has an ethical base. With other words, inclusive education is relevant to all subject areas. The integration of contents that comprehend homeless children education across a variety of subject areas will provides the students with a more coherent and richer learning experience. The need for changes in the curricula includes textbooks and teaching aids (theory and practice), the media and any other educational material that can be used by teachers and students.

The belief is that families of the homeless children were dysfunctional because of different reasons, usually economic conditions. Thus such children “placed outside of the normal flow of urban life in the developing world, and the street then becomes their home with their own secret code (their own idiom) and values (crime, drugs and prostitution), confront traditional life and values. Thus, the description of street children is more than defining a social group; it includes the demise of their families and the moral values of the children. It stigmatizing and perpetuating their exclusion and low status” (Aptekar & Stoecklin, 2014, p.96).

Surprisingly, of the total number of surveyed students (30), 24 agree with the affirmation that homeless children should be educated in special institutions. From this point of view, It is exceptionally important that the students acquire knowledge for what is segregation contrasted with the inclusion in the schools. It is a larger educational philosophy in the acceptance of diversity in educational systems, i.e.in the helping all children who face some kind of barrier to learning. Therefore, the future teachers and pedagogues could create own values and beliefs that allow them deal with different children and their needs in regular school system. Thus, they will enhance their competencies for work with homeless children.

CONCLUSION

Generally, the research shows that students' perceptions regarding homeless children education are focused on the several ethical dilemmas. According to the opinion of the interviewed students, many of above mentioned issues have to do with questions of value, and many straightforwardly have to do with educational ethics. On the other hand, the analysis of the obtained results shows that the students believe that they need ethical knowledge in the first instance to enhance their competencies for inclusive education. In this context, "civic virtues" such as: community awareness, civility, service, volunteering and so on are structured on the very low level in their worldview. The same is situation with "moral virtues" i. e. compassion, gratitude, honesty and integrity. The experts claim that civic virtues require looking outward from within. They are concerned with fairness and community, with others outside one's self. They require individuals to come together, relate with one another, and feel each other's joy and pain (Stronks & Stronks, 2014). Also, there is the little doubt that the moral virtues are important for the inclusive equality and competitive individualism responsible for much of the innovation and growth incubated in a global world (Ignatieff, 2017). Because of that, more interventions are needed into developing community culture that will motivate and promote inclusive education. The educational institutions also should provide environment (in and out of the classroom) that will equip students with the language, knowledge, understanding about different children obstacles towards education. Finally, it seems that helping students connect with their strengths and giving them more autonomy, power, and control over their work, lead to the boosting of their intrinsic motivation for character development (Anderson, 2016) and, also, it will lead to the enhancing their competencies for work with homeless children. For the education of homeless children a key role plays the teacher who can create an atmosphere for children inclusion in the school. Many children can find their warm home in the classroom and with the help of the teacher to achieve successful academic results. According to our opinion, every education system should strive towards this goal.

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KNOWLEDGE OF A SELECTED GROUP OF FACULTY OF EDUCATION AT CHARLES UNIVERSITY STUDENTS IN THE FIELD OF PREVENTION OF ADDICTIONS

Abstract: One of the areas to which it is necessary to take into special consideration already at an early age, is the issue of prevention of socially negative phenomena, including addictive behavior. The contribution discusses the results of the questionnaire survey, which aim was to determine the knowledge of selected students studying bachelor studies in the fields, which ensures the, from the field of primary prevention of addictive behavior. This part of the research is only one part of a long-term research, which should serve to improve the quality of teaching in subjects relating to the prevention of addictive behavior and addiction treatment. A questionnaire survey is being attended by 180 students of the third year of the bachelor study program studying in full-time study and combined forms of study.

The questionnaire contained 13 closed questions and one open question, in which respondents described how they would behaved, in the case that the pupil will be under the influence of addictive substances in the classroom. The questionnaire was presented within the first hours of the course Seminar on Addictions Prevention. The largest errors were seen in questions relating to effective primary prevention, school documents, which relate to the prevention of addictions and in the case of expressions describing the syndrome of addiction. Expected output long-term research will be study support to the subjects that relate to addictive behavior.

keywords: knowledge, prevention of addiction, questionnaire survey, students

INTRODUCTION

Healthy development of young people is conditioned by a good family background and other social relationships outside the family (with adults and peers). For proper mental development of an individual, a positive relationship to oneself is essential as well. It is widely known that the youngsters have a greater tendency to take risks, because they are more prone to test their limits and fear less of the consequences (Čerešník, 2015). Young people are threatened by numerous health risks typical for this life stage. It has been shown that the manifestations of risk behaviour often occur simultaneously. They frequently tend to have the same causes as well as identical risk and protective factors (Sobotková, 2014).

The term risk behavior represents such behavior which can lead to a verifiable increase in the health, social, educational and other risks for an individual or the society. In the current school prevention, the following areas of risk behavior are distinguished: truancy, bullying and extreme forms of aggression, adventure sports and risk behaviour in traffic, racism, xenophobia, negative impact of sects, sexual risk behavior, a range of eating disorders and dependency behaviour, substance abuse, netolism and gambling (Miovský et al., 2010).

One of the major problems for young people in the Czech Republic, but also in a global scale, is the overuse of addictive substances. These mainly include alcohol, cigarettes (including electronic ones) and cannabis (European Monitoring Centre for Drugs and Drug Addiction [EMCDDA], 2017). Addictive substance use can be considered a risk behaviour involving a lot of factors. It is well known that substance use at a youthful age is associated with an increased risk of disorders of drug use at a later age, mental health problems, which may result in a considerable burden of diseases, followed by significant social and economic costs (DeWit, Adlaf, Offord & Ogborne, 2000; Gil, Wagner & Tubman, 2004; Rehm et al., 2009). The Czech Republic has repeatedly participated in the international survey of the European School Survey Project on Alcohol and Other Drugs (ESPAD). In the European context, the experience of Czech 16-year-olds is above average, especially concerning the life experience with the use of legal and illegal drugs. They have ranked at the top in the occurrence of cigarette smoking and alcohol drinking in the past 30 days and in experience with legal substances under the age of 13. As for illegal drugs, the Czech 16-year-olds have the highest incidence of cannabis use in life and in the past 12 months. Experience with the use of drugs other than cannabis in Czech students is comparable to the average of other European countries. The occasional cigarette smoking and a reasonable alcohol drinking, as well as experimental and occasional use of cannabis are not considered very risky by the Czech 16-year-olds (Chomynová, Csémy, & Mravčík, 2016).

To improve this situation, only systematic preventive action on youngsters, both by their families, as well as schools can help. Due to heavy workload, parents often spend only

a few hours a day with their children, therefore the impact of the school environment may be decisive for a variety of matters, including the effect on risk behaviour (Hajný, 2001). School and teachers take over a vital role in preventive action.

Schools should shape an individual to become an independently acting person. It focuses on performance and enables to gain knowledge, as well as intentionally and unintentionally affects the integration of individuals into the social and interpersonal relations, but also connects vocational training with preparation for family life. Therefore, schools are places where educational activities take place, but at the same time, they play an equally crucial role in upbringing. The school environment represents an environment to explore not only the material world, but it is also an area in which a person becomes involved with the world of relationships where the socialization of the individual, interpersonal communication and personal growth are performed. Teachers have therefore a unique opportunity to take advantage of this opportunity in the life of their students towards the promotion of the process of establishing and strengthening of moral values, increasing social competencies and personality development. The role of the teacher is very difficult, because in addition to the knowledge and skills required for education in a particular field, it also includes additional requirements in social skills. Prevention, not only of addictions, is a very important part of the professional life of a teacher. It is necessary that each educational worker had at least fundamental knowledge in risk behaviour (Gillerová, 2003).

Teaching staff must be adequately prepared to understand their students to be able to detect any problems in time and were capable of giving advice to the parents, who can help their children to solve the arising issues effectively. In the Czech Republic, a unified system of education of teaching workers in the area of prevention has not been introduced yet. Based on the VYNSPI project, a complete system of teacher and consulting worker training in primary prevention of risk behaviour has been developed in the Czech Republic, which includes a four-level model of education and standards for educators in this area, but it still has not been fully put into practice (Charvát, 2012).

The faculties of education do not systematically teach prevention. Department of Education of Faculty of Education at Charles University, however, provides its students an option to be educated in the field of risk behaviour prevention in several courses (e.g. crime or bullying prevention). The courses include a Seminar on the prevention of addictions. Increasing knowledge and skills of future educators in prevention of risk behaviour also motivates the teachers at the Faculty of Education at Charles University to continually improve the quality of the curriculum and its adaptation to the knowledge and skills of the students. For these reasons, a survey was conducted to identify input knowledge of third-year Pedagogy students in the field of addictology and prevention of addictions.

METHODOLOGY

Input knowledge validation of the students in the area of risk behaviour prevention and addictology basics included 180 third-year students of Bachelor studies (130 students in full-time study, 50 students in combined forms of study) who had been studying in the Department of Education of the Faculty of Education at Charles University. The data presented in this text represents only partial results of a long-term study which aims to improve the curriculum in selected training subjects. The main objective of the survey presented herein was to determine what input knowledge the students coming to study the course Seminar on the prevention of addictions have. The data presented here was obtained in the years 2015–2017.

A questionnaire consisting of 15 questions was used for detecting the information. 14 questions were closed, and one question was open. In the questions checking particular knowledge, only one option was correct. The questionnaire was distributed in a paper form at the first session of the course Seminar on the prevention of addictions. All students submitted their completed questionnaires to a predetermined place after a maximum of 30 minutes. The students were asked not to sign or otherwise mark the questionnaire and to carefully answer all the questions. At the beginning of the questionnaire, there were questions focused on the gender, age, form of study and length of the student's educational practice. They were followed by questions on knowledge of notions in the field of healthy lifestyle (the notion of health) and legislation (a dependent child) and questions on knowledge in risk behaviour prevention and basic terms in addictology. The final open question examined how the students would proceed in the event when an obviously intoxicated student was present in their class they were going to teach. The data from the questionnaires was converted into Microsoft Excel spreadsheets and processed. After that, frequency and percentage of each answer were obtained. All distributed questionnaires were used in the survey.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

All the closed questions were answered by all students, so 180 responses were obtained to all the closed questions. The last open question was answered by 128 students, i.e. 71.1%. 135 women (75%) and 45 men (25%) participated in the survey. From a total of 180 respondents, 140 (77.8%) had no previous teaching experience and only 40 (22.2%) had already had some pedagogical practice. 12 respondents had had practice for 1–12 months, 8 respondents for 13–60 months, 15 respondents for 61–120 months and 5 respondents for more than 120 months. One of the questions in the questionnaire examined whether the students during their previous studies had already received some information regarding the risk behaviour prevention. 139 (77.2%) of the students replied that they had already heard of the primary risk behaviour prevention during their studies, 16 (8.9%)

of the students replied that they had never heard about the primary prevention in the course of their study so far and 25 (13.9%) of the students responded that they did not remember. The students were also asked whether they believed that the knowledge of primary prevention of risk behaviour was important for their work. 115 (63.9%) of the respondents said that this knowledge was important to them, 28 (15.6%) of the respondents did not deem it significant and 37 (20.5%) of the students did not know yet. It is pleasing that 63.9% of the students consider knowledge in primary prevention significant. It is important to motivate teaching professionals to expand their education in the field of primary prevention of risk behaviour. The period of school education is crucial in shaping the personality of young people and everything that fails to be formed in this period, is very difficult to be corrected in adulthood. This is also the reason why such special attention is dedicated to the prevention of risk behaviour manifestations in the school population. The training of educational workers in primary prevention is also one of the objectives of the National strategy of primary prevention of risk behaviour for the period 2013–2018 (Ministerstvo školství, mládeže a tělovýchovy České republiky [MŠMT], 2013). On the other hand, 37 (20.5%) of the students responded that they believed that they would not need the knowledge in primary prevention. Therefore, a question arises whether these students do not consider the knowledge of primary prevention necessary because they are considering another job outside the teaching profession, or that they really do not deem primary prevention important.

In the first knowledge question, students were asked whether they knew how the term “health” is understood nowadays. 153 (85%) of the respondents answered this question correctly. Health is considered a comprehensive concept, i.e. the state of physical, mental and social well-being (World Health Organisation [WHO], 2014). 20 (11.1%) of the respondents still thought health to be only a state without a physical illness. Among the answers, it was twice (by 1.1%) given that health is merely the state of psychological well-being and 5 respondents (2.8%) felt that none of the above answers described the current importance of the concept of health.

In the second question, the students were asked who could be considered a “dependent child” according to the Czech legislation. The most frequent answer of 108 (60%) was that this is a person up to the end of compulsory schooling or up to the age of 26 at latest, if they are consistently preparing for their future profession (Česká republika, 2007.). This answer was correct. It was followed by an option that this was only a person under 18 years of age (43 respondents - 23.9%), 12 (6.8%) of the respondents answered that it was a person who the parents could not take care of and 17 (9.4%) respondents did not regard any of the offered options correct. The results indicate that the students have a relatively good understanding of these notions. The remaining questions were focused on the area of primary prevention and addictology. The question asking what the main objective of primary prevention of substance abuse was, was answered correctly by 153 (85%) of the respondents. i.e. that the main goal is to try to ensure that young people

avoid substance use or at least postpone it. It was followed by an option that the purpose of this prevention was to warn the parents of addictive substance users from the effects of these substances and it was chosen by 15 (8.3%) of the respondents. 8 (4.5%) of the surveyed students felt that the goal is to dissuade the substance users from their behaviour and 4 (2.2%) did not consider any of the above options correct. This was followed by a question, which of the available activities the students considered as effective primary prevention against substance abuse. Only 72 respondents (40%) answered correctly that effective primary prevention may be truthful communication of both positive and negative effects of substance abuse with regard to the age of the listeners. 48 (26.7%) of the respondents considered effective prevention of mere educational film watching, 45 (25%) of the students considered a lecture on negative effects of drugs organised at the same time for all classes in the school as effective primary prevention, and 15 (8.3%) students felt that none of the answers were correct.

The next question focused on knowledge of the documents which state the information concerning the risk behaviour prevention. Only 80 respondents (44.4%) out of 180 would search for such information correctly in all the relevant documents (i.e. in the minimum preventive programme, the school regulations, the school crisis plan), 69 (38.4%) students would search for it only in the minimum preventive programme, 26 (14.4%) only in the school regulations, and 5 (2.8%) of the students would not search for this information in any of the aforementioned documents. Most of the surveyed participated students were studying full-time, and therefore, apart from the mandatory practice, they had not had any long-term experience in working as teachers. As expected, the above-mentioned task was managed more successfully by the students who stated that they had already had some teaching practice. This question was answered correctly by 40 students who stated in the questionnaire that they were working or had worked in the school.

The following four questions focused on knowledge in addictology. The first of the three questions examined whether the students knew what the term “craving” means. 66 (36.7%) of the students responded correctly that it was a strong, irresistible desire for an addictive substance, and at the same time one of the diagnostic criteria of an addiction (WHO, 2016), 51 (28.3%) of the students felt that it was the pleasure from the acute effect of an addictive substance, 15 (8.3%) of the students opted for the answer that it was a state during an overdose of an addictive substance and 48 (26.7%) of the students felt that no answer was correct. The following question checked whether the students were familiar with the term “withdrawal”. 60 (33.3%) of the students correctly selected the answer that it represented the unpleasant symptoms after the removal of the psychoactive substance (WHO, 2016), 36 (20%) of the students chose the option that this was the decision of an addicted individual to stop taking an addictive substance, 12 (6.7%) of the students thought that it was a state of adaptation in the therapeutic community (40%) and 72 students did not consider any of the options correct. The results show that most of the students have not yet been more closely familiarized with diagnostic criteria of

an addiction (ICD-10.2016) during their studies, and in particular with the notions of “craving” and “withdrawal”.

The subsequent question related to professionals who can prescribe drugs with addictive potential.

71 (39.4%) of the students correctly stated that drugs with an addictive potential may be prescribed by any doctor (the National monitoring centre for drugs and drug addiction, 2013). 64 (35.6%) of the students felt that these drugs could only be prescribed by a psychologist, an addictologist or a psychiatrist, 33 (18.3%) opted for the answer an addictologist and a psychiatrist and 12 (6.7%) of the students thought that no answer was correct. The use of medication that can cause an addiction also applies to pupils and students at primary and secondary schools. According to the ESPAD (2011), drugs with a sedating effect have been used by 10.1% of the respondents (8.4% of boys, 11.7% of girls) at some time in their lives. The use of sedatives and hypnotics in the past 12 months and the last 30 days was not monitored more closely. From the study Health Behaviour in School-aged Children (HBSC) of the World Health Organization from 2010 focused on health, lifestyle and behaviour in relation to one's own health among children aged 11, 13 and 15, which involved 4,167 pupils from the Czech Republic, it appears that most children have taken medication for headache and abdominal pain. Hypnotics and sedatives had been used during the previous month, according to their own words, most frequently by children at the age of 11 years (hypnotics - 6% and sedatives - 8% of children), with increasing age, their use was reduced. Girls have given higher rates of use for analgesics, hypnotics as well as sedatives (Csémy, 2011, Nechanská, Mravčík & Popov, 2012).

The last question of this set of four focused on knowledge of legislative documents. Students had to choose in which of those documents they would be looking for information about narcotics and psychotropic substances. A majority, 141 (78.3%) of the students, correctly chose the answer that it should be in the Act on addictive substances (Czech Republic, 1998) and the Criminal Code. 32 (17.8%) of the students would search for such information in the decrees of the Ministry of Health of the Czech Republic, 11 (6.1%) of the students would look for it in the Constitution of the Czech Republic and 20 (11.1%) of the students felt that none of the answers was correct.

The last question in the questionnaire was open. It was not answered by all the surveyed students, but only 128 (71.1%) of those surveyed; 52 (13.9%) left the question blank. The students were supposed to write down how they would proceed in case they found out that there is an obviously intoxicated student present in a class in which they were about to teach. The answers to these questions were divided into the following categories: correct, almost correct and incorrect.

There were 39 (30.5%) correct responses. In them, the students provided the recommended procedure, i.e. that they would at first determine the health condition of the pupil and, if necessary, summon a doctor; after that, they would inform the school board, the pupil's parents, or alternatively a worker of the body of social and legal protection of

children (OSPOD), or the police and would write a report on the event (MŠMT, 2010). The second category “almost correct” included 53 (41.4%) of the questionnaires. In them, the students said they would inform the school board, the pupil’s parents and the police, and fill in an incident report (in 31 cases) or that they would inform someone from the school, the parents or OSPOD, the police, or alternatively call a doctor (22 cases). The last category “incorrect” (36 (28.1%) of the questionnaires) included the questionnaires with answers as follows: I would call the police and the Director (someone from the school administration (12 cases), I would take the pupil away and call the police (9 answers), I would take the pupil away and write a report (4 replies), I would call the parents of the pupil (3 answers), I would write him a note (3 answers), I would do nothing (3 answers), I would send the pupil to the hallway (2 answers). Better knowledge of teachers with practice was reflected in this question as well. The truly correct answer was given only by 30.5% of the students, wherein 83% of those had practice in the school.

CONCLUSION

The students have shown fairly good knowledge in the field of prevention of addictions and basics of addictology at the beginning of the Seminar on the prevention of addictions. The most mistakes were made concerning the effective primary prevention and the notions from addictology. The obtained results so far show that in the course of the seminar, students should, inter alia, focus on the basic terms from addictology and become thoroughly familiar with the procedures of effective primary prevention of risk behaviour, which is based on scientifically verifiable knowledge and evidence derived from research studies and pedagogical knowledge.

This contribution is only a part of long-term research. Since the amount of data that has been collected so far, is not yet sufficiently large, more detailed statistical results are not given here.

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MODERNIZATION PROCESSES IN THE TEACHING CURRICULA IN EFL CLASSES IN R. OF MACEDONIA

Abstract: The teaching process is a dynamic process that is constantly changing, modifying and adapting to the needs of a society. Adjusting these changes can also refer to the needs of the labor market, the needs of a society from a particular professional profile, the needs of individuals and the needs of a particular social group. Most often the changes in a process lead to its modernization, responding to the contemporary challenges and the new time. Changes may relate to teaching methods, techniques, teaching and supervising tools, literature used for a particular subject, organization of the environment where the teaching process is carried out, and many other aspects of the teaching process that may be subject to change.

The English language teaching process is not at all an exception to these processes of change and modernization, both globally and locally, respectively in the Republic of Macedonia. The aim of this paper is to review the literature used for studying English as foreign in secondary schools in the Republic of Macedonia. This will give an overview of how methodically the material has to be mastered during the four-year secondary compulsory education, i.e. through which forms of work are designed and modeled the processing units. Also, through interviews with the teaching staff who use the literature that is the subject of research in this paper, their views will be presented, i.e. if they agree with the methodologically placed teaching and how much it gives positive results.

Keywords: teaching in English, literature, teaching process, teachers

INTRODUCTION

In every country, and so in the Republic of Macedonia, which is still in the process of development, the educational process is the basic branch where more attention needs to be paid and serious work to be done. With the advent of modern methods and techniques in global education, teachers and teachers of methodics, both specific and general, after

teaching in the country strive to improve the educational process, in order to *equip* our educational institutions with quality staff.

From the earliest times, the meaning of the school is to convey some knowledge to the students. Traditionally, the teacher is the one who is in the center of attention, whose role is dominant in the classroom. Much of the person's life is spent in educational institutions. There, one acquires basic, as well as extended knowledge, builds its character and prepares its future. The teacher is often called a "second parent" because of his influence on the student's opinions and abilities. The teacher has the final saying and leaves no place for discussion. The students are passive listeners and are dependent on the teacher even with the smallest assigned assignment.

But with the new techniques and approaches in education, the focus is placed on the student itself as the most important individual in the educational process.

One of the features of the modern school is learning through research (in Macedonia *Учење низ истражување*), which frees and motivates students, and thus their results are even more qualitative. The most successful students are those who have come to the conclusion by themselves; actively came to the correct answer, whereby the teacher is only a facilitator, an instigator, a tool with which the student is served in the thinking process. We live in a time when everyone has a quite easy and unlimited access to information - besides the books; the written word offers a number of possibilities through the Internet. With only one step we get the necessary data and statistics, research reports, etc. The students who accurately and in their own way reproduce the acquired knowledge managed to master the material and overcome the passive state of the class (Westwood, 2008). Teaching methodology constantly directs its curiosity towards finding the most useful ways to successful education for each student. The change of forms and forms of work in literature in primary and secondary schools in the subject of English as foreign is obvious (Blog.udemy.com).

The aim of this paper is to present the most widely used methods for studying the English language in the Republic of Macedonia, i.e. to see which methods are most widely used and with that to show that the teaching process in the Republic of Macedonia has changed and has directed itself towards the needs of the students.

As a beforehand, presented are the most commonly, widely accepted teaching methods that both the literature and the teachers interviewed accentuated and confirmed that are most commonly found in schools around the world. Later on, the results from the research implemented for the needs of the paper are elaborated and explained.

FORMS OF TEACHING

The forms of teaching are an inevitable part of the teaching activity. Over the years, they have taken different forms and underwent smaller and/or bigger changes, and educators, advisors and scientists themselves have taken measures to improve these forms,

depending on what has been proven to be the most effective and which are obsolete and poorly accepted by students. Some forms of teaching work are enriched for better student performance and facilitated teacher work. Essentially, they serve to empower students and therefore their nature and use depend on the age, the affinities of students for learning and their individual characteristics. Other factors that influence the features and function of the teaching forms are the teaching structure which also examines the teacher's approach.

Called *teaching procedures*, types of teaching, often also interfere with the notion of teaching methods. In a form of teaching work, several teaching methods can be used, with the teacher acting as coordinator, director, motivator, and guidance.

The most widely known and for that matter, the most widely used forms of teaching are divided into frontal, group work, pair work and individual work.

FRONTAL FORM OF TEACHING

From the time of J. A. Comenius, this sociological form of teaching is one of the oldest, and it is still called a collective form of work. If we return even further in the past, the ancient Greeks were known for their oratory abilities, and often an individual publicly addressed to a larger group of people. Solon, Pericles, and Demosthenes are just some of the prominent speakers and thinkers at the time. In their addresses to the audience they talked about political and legal issues, opened up philosophical dilemmas and encouraged the soldiers. For the purpose they had to persuade their audience in what they claimed. In churches and monasteries, the faithful listened to the sermons of the priests.

The negative effects and results in this way of working in the classroom have been proven - it is intended for the "average" student, at a time when there are not enough teachers, schools and premises intended for educational process, when one teacher was believed to be able to work with 100 students at once. More recently, it is seen that it is impossible for a teacher to enroll students at the same number of numbers at the same time to pay enough attention. The basic features of the frontal work are the active teaching of the teacher, the same pace, the same content at the same time for the whole class. During this class, the student and his speaking and leadership abilities are placed in the background, and the teacher addresses all students. This form of teaching does not allow individualization of teaching. When working with a larger group of students at the same time, with each student being given the same tasks and directions, their interests, characteristics and opportunities do not come to the fore. One and the same teaching unit is exposed and demonstrated simultaneously to the entire classroom. Here, the individual needs of the student are neglected, he is lost in the crowd, resulting in an unsatisfactory level of knowledge and abilities that he demonstrates to be evaluated.

Advantages of the frontal form of teaching work

There are many reasons why exactly this form of work has remained present in the classroom so long. The biggest issue was and maybe in some environments, still is the economy. When there were not enough literate people, a small number of teachers and priests held lectures, and this way of working proved to be the most suitable. It saved both time and material resources.

For another value, the systematicity is considered - the teacher is the implementer of the class, so certain goals and tasks are fulfilled. At the same time, the students behave more appropriately and at the same time a harmonious working atmosphere prevails. The teacher is the one who gives directions, so there is no concern that a student misses something important.

The weaker students work together with the average, so they are thought to achieve better results. Similarly, by getting to know and to socialize with children, their communicative abilities, the feeling of empathy and the competitive spirit increase.

Weaknesses of the frontal form of teaching work

In the past experience and research, the frontal form of teaching has proved to be the weakest and full of deficiencies. Starting from its onset, the frontal shape was intended for the average student, which means that there is no differentiated approach. Weak students are struggling with the pace and weight of the teaching unit, and for gifted and talented, this approach is unstimulative and too easy. Furthermore, the student is a passive subject to whom knowledge is given "on a tray". With the fact that the answers and the definitions of a certain topic are already said, the student has nothing left but to mechanically repeat and learn. Namely, his thinking, creativity and fantasy are not activated. Another important disadvantage is the interaction between the teacher and the student individual. Because of insufficient time and patience, the teacher does not realize any closer relationship with the students, does not receive feedback on the work done, and the student learns only about the grade from his assessment and achievements. Every student is questioned in the same way that the possibility of freedom of expression is lost. Finally, the frontal form does not leave room for the practical application of the acquired knowledge; it does not create real situations where the student can show what he learned and do something on his own.

GROUP FORM OF TEACHING

This approach is considered innovative and has long been used. The basic feature of the group form is the possibility of its application at all stages of the teaching process. The teacher acts as guidance in the group work - at the beginning of the lesson he gives instructions and divides the class into smaller or larger groups. Each of the groups work together and performs some tasks, work on a particular problem, and the results are presented

before the whole class. Basically, there is a division of the class who then again has to be reunited into a single whole. Groups can be selected instantly (*ad hoc*), or be permanent. In practical work, we come across several types of groups: friendly groups, game groups, working groups, groups by place of residence, basic groups, and groups for students with special needs, groups for improving weak students, homogeneous and heterogeneous groups. Depending on the goals to be achieved, the teacher tries and decides on the appropriate type of group in a particular situation.

Each group has two basic characteristics:

- Mutual action
- The only goal

Group size

Particularly important for the proper organization and achievement of goals is the size of a group. In the past, the groups were larger, but research has shown that smaller groups of 3 to 6 are more effective, but the size directly depends on the current conditions in the classroom. Since the basic goal of the group form of teaching work is that all members participate equally, so the groups are formed with fewer members for everyone to realize their own initiative. Students help each other, counsel, share their work, and learn to communicate with one another.

As a factor that also affects the size of the group is age. Younger students are more suited to work in larger and older students work better in smaller, focused groups. In smaller groups there is greater cohesion, which brings greater agreement among students, and less restlessness and conflicts. Internal collaboration in the group will be easier if the students are arranged in a circle, shaped like a horseshoe, in order to preserve the face-to-face address.

The size of the group depends on:

- The age of the student
- The work material
- The duration of the lesson
- The student's interest
- The student's solvency for independent work

Group work in schools is usually carried out in such a way that two types of tasks are given, both homogeneous and differentiated. Historical assignments are those that are given to the whole grade, and the differentiated tasks are when each group solves a special task from one teaching unit. The use of differentiated tasks strengthens the essence of group work. Differentiated tasks allow each student to function in their own way in the group.

Advantages of the group form of teaching work

By grouping students into one whole, internal interaction is created. The competitive spirit is reinforced, and each member is active with the role allocation. In the group,

defects in the frontal shape are avoided. Every student whether gifted, average, weak, introverted or extroverted gets and uses a chance to prove himself. The very act of sharing responsibilities brings together students, so there is no shame in the small friendly circle, there is any rivalry and selfishness. It achieves discipline, a sense of responsibility and motivation. The students learn from one another, that is, they are reflecting on the friend in the team, so one can conclude that they accept positive examples. In addition, students learn to seek and accept help, and to develop a sense of working in a team.

Weaknesses of the group form of teaching

Certain curricula and lessons are not suitable for working with more students. For example, in preparing a written work, essay, formal letter, etc., when analyzing a poetic work, the student must work independently.

Thus, in studying harder work, it is better for the teacher to assume the dominant role and then to develop into groups, because not all pupils have equal individual abilities.

WORK IN PAIRS

Working in pairs, one of the most common forms of English language teaching today, is still called tandem. There are records from the distant past that say that this innovative form was successfully used in the original social communities where the elderly taught younger men in hunting, fishing, and later in the metal period as tools were made. In the Middle Ages, it had the role of a support system, where the capable student helps the weaker. Later, such helpers were called mentors. The work in pairs in teaching is characterized by a pleasant working atmosphere, abandoning the ego-centric attitude of the student, accepting other opinions and producing original ideas. Students united in pairs, solve problems and difficulties gradually and at a pace that suits both of them. Challenges are overcome faster; feedback is received on time, and interest in learning increases. According to surveys, work in pairs is the simplest and most appropriate form of work per hour, especially in classes intended for repetition and exercise.

Social characteristics of working in pairs:

- Develop friendship, unity and empathy
- Getting to know your personal identity
- Organized formation of attitudes and ambitions in accordance with social norms
- Faster strengthening of students' social development.

Advantages of working in pairs

The most important moment in pair work is that the responsibilities are easy to divide, and both members get an equal chance to academically *shine*. Students with learning disabilities or with less satisfactory success find something in which they are good, and they are motivated to continue to improve their success and learn and adopt a new thing in a new way.

Weaknesses of work in pairs

According to Warren Lichtenberger, there are two critical moments in working in pairs: complete kinship and complete absenteeism. In the first case, the students have exactly the same opinions, so there is no room for constructive criticism or for corrections. In the case of disagreement between partners, anarchy of opinions and attitudes occurs, no communication, or one performs all the work, while the other only uses the outcomes and answers of the other partner. Problems arise when choosing pairs, attention should be paid to the mutual relations of students outside of the school as well as their achievements.

Working in pairs requires a certain social maturity - both members must take responsibility.

INDIVIDUAL FORM OF TEACHING

Tradition and experience show an image in which the teacher is the one who has all the information and the whole control, while the students passively sit and wait for him to have a say what they will learn and give them directions. As a new didactic doctrine particularly important in the teaching of English as foreign is the individual form of teaching work. Through an individual form, students are most active - they independently gain data, seeking the best way to reach them in order to achieve their teaching goals. Students continuously explore, observe, collect and analyze information. The acquired knowledge is applicable in practice so it is relatively permanent for students. With this kind of teaching the student begins self-education and is able to use a textbook, vocabulary and other research tools, which is essentially an autodidactic system. The type of tasks varies, each student can get the same task or different according to individual abilities. Individual work is a kind of indirect teaching.

We come across three forms of individual work:

- Individual work of a teacher and student
- Same tasks for all students
- Different tasks for all students

Advantages of the individual form of teaching

It has been shown that students learn to think independently, make decisions and to choose when and how to work on their own. With the achieved success they are motivated and in the future they choose bigger responsibilities. Their self-esteem increases, fixing the image they have for themselves. The teacher becomes aware of the needs and abilities of each student, even the "quietest" one. Thus, each student receives assignments that correspond to his abilities, and each receives a reward and / or assessment of his / her own effort.

On the other hand, the individual form of teaching work saves in time and the whole teaching process takes place more quickly.

Weaknesses of the individual form of teaching

If all the students are repeatedly given the same tasks and the same developmental thinking processes, there will be no benefits from the individual work. Students should receive different tasks, to everyone as it is best for him and in which she/he is most productive. Another disadvantage is the isolation, the students do not cooperate with one another, and unhealthy competition is possible. At the very end of the class, it is very difficult for the teacher to check the various tasks in such a large number.

METHODOLOGY OF RESEARCH

In the curriculum of the nine-year primary education and education enacted in 2007, the English language teaching is provided from first to ninth grade. For the first time in the framework of primary education in the Republic of Macedonia, a foreign language has started to be studied as a compulsory subject, starting from the first grade.

In the interviews conducted with teachers and professors, in the research of pedagogical practice and in English literature as foreign in primary and secondary schools, a conclusion has been reached that the frontal form of teaching work is already obsolete and not used.

It is obvious that a major change in the teaching process occurred.

The primary school "Gorgi Sugarev" and the high school "Taki Daskalo" were deliberately chosen for the purpose of the research. The primary school "Gorgi Sugarev" is the only school in the city of Bitola in which students with disabilities in their psychophysical development are studying. In this school, there are a large number of students from Roma ethnicity, so in the survey were included students from several ethnic communities.

The secondary school "Taki Daskalo", on the other hand, is the largest general gymnasium in the city of Bitola, and it includes gymnasium and vocational education.

The aim of the research was to find out how the English language lessons were structured, and how teachers and students adapted to teaching without the presence of a frontal form, that is, whether this *teaching of teaching*, as they called it, was fruitful, that is, the teaching process and the learning process is facilitated.

Also, for the needs of this paper, a review of literature used for studying English as foreign in secondary schools in the Republic of Macedonia was made. This will give an overview of how methodically the material is to be mastered during the four-year secondary compulsory education, i.e. through which forms of work are designed and modeled the processing units.

RESULTS

As it was previously mentioned, the aim of the research was to show how much the teaching model has changed. The focus was directed to the use of frontal method towards Teacher Talking Time or the time the teacher spends talking in the classroom

(giving instructions, defining terms, storytelling, questioning). Much of the teachers and professors, especially when they are inexperienced or have a shy, quiet class, spend most of the time talking and sometimes just for the sake of fulfilling the quite time. It is important to note that the lessons today should be focused on the student, in the sense that he is the one who is the leader of the hour, active and takes the initiative. The teacher is the only facilitator, and the student devotes his own academic fate.

The results indeed contributed to the aim of the research, i.e. they showed that even though the frontal method of teaching is the oldest one and it is the most sought after, today the teaching process of EFL is very much modernized and it has turned towards student-centered classrooms. The analysis that follow will show that.

ANALYSIS

In elementary school, students work with the following textbooks *Messages*, *Set Sail*, *Welcome*, and *PET Buster*.

With younger students there is a case where textbooks go to an individual form of teaching work. More rarely, there are tasks that encourage the students to work in pairs. The tasks are set so that the student's independent work is emphasized. So in Module 1 - Facts, in the *Messages 1* textbook, there are instructions like : *Write the alphabet (A, B, C ...) in your notebook; Look at the words in the balloons. How many sentence can you make? ; Make true sentences about you. Tell the class; Complete the sentence in the box; You guess these Can words ?; Listen again and follow in your book. Then complete the information.*

Working in pairs is usually given when exercising the language functions of speaking and listening. Instructions appear like: *Test a friend. Read the numbers to a friend. Your friend say Can the next number ?; Work with a friend and ask and answer the questions in 6a; Work with a friend. Ask about his / her shop.*

It's interesting to note that the frontal method is missing, and the group work is very rare (*Imagine you're in a band with your friends, or with your favorite stars. Copy and complete the list, then ask your classmates about their bands...; Make sentence with it, him, her or them . Your friends must guess what it is, or who it is*). The opinions of the teachers were divided, but most agreed that in smaller classes it is easier to work individually or with an affiliate, because in large groups the focus is shrinking and there is a negative storm of ideas.

Similarly, in the *Welcome 1*, Unit 13, *The Picnic* textbook, there are many examples of an individual form of teaching work, and just one exercise requiring work in pairs - Listen and repeat, then talk with your friend. In the *Welcome 2* textbook, the individual form of teaching work prevails, with instructions such as: *Read and circle; About you: ask and answer; Read and underline, and the last exercise in each lesson takes the form of working in pairs (Listen and repeat, then talk with your friend).*

In the seventh grade, through the textbook *Messages 2*, in Module 3, Out and about, for developing and practicing grammatical units, reading, writing and learning a vocabulary is again encountered in an individual form (*Match these words with the letters on the map. I've got three minutes! Read the notice and the newspaper article Answer the questions How do you say these words in your language? Read the article again and write the words for numbers 1–10*). To develop English speaking skills, exercises like: Role play: *If you have time, work with a friend and practice the conversation; Work with a friend. Look at the map and imagine you are in Albert Square. Make at least one more conversation; Make a list and then share your ideas*). The work in pairs method is implemented for practicing pronunciation and everyday expressions and vocabulary. On the contrary, in the processing of heavier and new teaching units the teacher only gives directions for work, and each student contributes independently.

The textbook *Messages 3*, for studying vocabulary for kitchen utensils, included an exercise that required for the student(s) to work with a partner (*Tell your friend to close the book. Choose a definition and read it out. Can your friend remember the word?*) ; The grammatical part requires working individually again (*Put the verbs in the right form and write complete sentences*), and as the last exercise to speak at the end of the class, a group-like work of instruction is given (*At a restaurant, Work in groups. One person is the waiter. Choose what you want from the menu in 2a, and then tell the waiter. If you prefer, invent your own menu*). Also, there are fragments that encourage the creativity of the student and give him sufficient freedom in exercising the vocabulary, for example *Share your ideas; Use what you know; Try this! ...*

For the 9th grade, who use the textbook *PET Buster*, work is done in pairs to a smaller extent, and individual to a larger one. The individual form consists of making the student fill in spaces and incomplete sentences, deciding which expression is correct and who are incorrect, writing short essays, letters and e-mail. Some of the instructions read as follows: *Complete the letter with have to , do not have to , must or must not ; Look at the pictures and find out what these teenagers say about mobile phones; Read the definitions below and underline the words in the article; Identify the type of text format*. Working in a group is used to practice speaking and communicative skills, as well as writing - *Discuss the questions with a partner; Work in pairs. Tell your partner what you can see on the photo; Your friend would like some advice on how to lead a healthier lifestyle. Write a letter to your friend; Practice the mini-dialogues in pairs. Then listen and check; Write two sentences, correct and incorrect, for the text in Ex.2. Ask your partner to decide which is correct or not correct*.

In secondary school, there is a difference in the teaching methods than the one done in elementary school, in the percentage of representation of group work in literature. The number of pairs work has been increased, which is also implemented in grammatical units. The textbook *Think 2*, usually requires the individual work, so students master the content independently (*Read the letter, write the names under the photos; Complete*

the form about Nicola; Match the questions with the answers to make mini-dialogues; Complete the sentences with the correct form of the verbs in brackets). In the first module, *Amazing People*, on every two pages of the textbook there are nine to ten exercises that require independent work. Mainly, the individual form of teaching is used for activities like writing, and listening to a native speaker. Talking activities are usually given to work with a partner, for example: *Work with a partner, practice the conversation; Discuss the photos with a partner; Work in pairs, ask and answer questions; Work in pairs, ask each other about your families; Tell your partner about the person you admire; Ask and answer questions about the plans you have for the next weekend.* There is less work to be done in groups: *Ask your other students in your group your questions; Report back to the group; Discuss in small groups; Work in groups of 8 - each person takes one of the questions from ex.2 and thinks about 2 more questions to ask.*

In the *Close-Up* textbook, sections like *Use the questions* can be seen to find as much information as you can, ex. *You will need this information to complete the task successfully Think and What do you think?* which stimulate higher thinking processes and encourage an extended response from each student. Further exercises that contribute to the individual form work, are *get the meaning ...*, *find the words*, *over to you!* and the students were eager to resolve such interesting and short sections. In Module 5, *A Place to Call Home*, there was plenty of work in pairs in both communication and grammar. Exercises for phrasal verbs, modal verbs and personal questions were provided for working with a partner: *Look at each group of sentences with a partner and decide which function the modal verbs in bold have. Then complete the sentence under each group with these words or phrases; Work with a partner, solve the brain teaser below. You have 2 minutes!*

Probably due to age and ability to function as a stable pair, there are more and more grammar exercises in pairs in the literature used for the secondary education level. However, in the *New Opportunities* series of textbooks, the most individual form of teaching is the most present one.

In the fourth year of secondary education, in the *Opportunities* textbook, in each lesson of the module there is one task to be developed in pairs (*Discuss these questions with a partner*) and one section *Tell the class some of your answers.*

CONCLUSION

The research, conducted in the academic year 2016/2017, showed that in the teaching of English as a foreign language, both in primary and secondary schools, there is no use of the frontal form of teaching. In the current literature, the learning is modeled to happen through research, which means that the student himself comes to the conclusion and builds on his own attitude.

For the purposes of the paper, talks with teachers and professors in schools who perform practical work were made. Although the opinions were divided, most of these teachers

agreed that the frontal form was obsolete and not used at all because it was not effective and the students did not perform well during that method of work, as well as the results which were quite negative and unsatisfactory. The time spent by the teacher speaking during the lesson has been significantly reduced, the student is encouraged to speak and choose what will be most suitable for him/her, i.e. which form of work.

Different types of teaching work are applied in the teaching - individual, group and work in pairs. Students achieve better results, and are satisfied with the combined instruction that allows them to be involved.

Taking this into account, we can conclude that the frontal form of teaching work is no longer used in English language teaching, and students have enough freedom and opportunities to progress in the educational process.

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COMPETENCES IMPORTANT FOR STUDENTS IN THE SELF-CREATION PROCESS IN THE CONTEXT OF LABOUR MARKET EXPECTATIONS

Abstract: One of the key requirements of late modernity is the necessity of permanent creation of oneself and one's own life. This process is particularly important during the period of emerging adulthood. The expectations of the labour market are an important determinant of the self-creation process for young people commencing studies. The purpose of this paper is the characteristics based on the studies of the students' self-creation activities which point to the development of competencies required by employers in Poland. The studies were carried out in the interpretive paradigm and concerned the characteristics of self-creation activities of students of three universities. This paper presents a fragment of the analysis of the research material. The analysis shows that among the three dimensions of the students' self-creation distinguished in the studies – relating to the sphere of corporeality, psychosocial well-being and vision of the future – mainly the activities associated with creating the vision of the future point to the shaping of the competences (mainly professional and personal) expected by employers. They are also partly related to the dimension of creating one's psychosocial well-being, however, then they also point to the need to create personal development potential and well-being (mainly personal competences). The analysed studies show that students are trying to create themselves and their lives taking into account both social requirements and their own preferences and goals.

Keywords: self-creation, self-construction, students, emerging adulthood, personal and social competences, labour market expectations

INTRODUCTION

One of the key requirements currently imposed on a person is the necessity of the continuous process of shaping oneself and one's own life (Giddens, 2001). We can say that the socio-cultural changes of late modernity not only create favourable conditions for the self-creation process, but even force them. It is especially that the emphasis on the individuality and uniqueness of the person results in paying more attention to the individual responsibility for one's own biography and constructing one's own identity (Świątkiewicz-Mośny, 2015).

According to Zbigniew Pietrański, self-creation is a process of relatively independent and autonomous impact on the figure, the transformation of oneself and the way of life in which we can distinguish the activities that are consciously and intentionally aimed at self-development, as well as spontaneous actions which are intentionally aimed at other goals and areas, but their side effects are developmental (Pietrański, 1992). Thus, this process signifies the individual and conscious shaping of one's own biography with the use of internal and external resources. The self-creation can be perceived narrowly as personality development, or broadly as the development of the whole person, including such spheres as: physical, cognitive, emotional, personality, spiritual and shaping one's own future. Over the course of life, a person can focus on self-creation activities in various spheres of development, however, this process is rarely fully global (Pawlak, 2009). In this paper, apart from the concept of self-creation, the notions of creating or constructing oneself are used interchangeably.

From the perspective of the person's development, the most appropriate self-creation process falls within the late period of maturation and emerging adulthood (Pawlak, 2009). Self-creation tendencies are particularly evident during the period of study, at the stage of emerging adulthood (Arnett, 2014). The cognitive development at this stage enables independent decision-making, anticipation and planning of the future, designing activities in line with one's own value system or assessing oneself and the activities undertaken. Extending the education process favours the specification of career plans and draws attention to the preparation for entry (transition) into the labour market (Cybal-Michalska, 2013). The studies alone provide an opportunity to test oneself in terms of made choices. At the same time, a number of educational and non-educational situations may cause young people to face many decisions regarding, for example, spending free time, developing their interests, making friends and pursuing non-work dreams and plans. The period of studies favours not only professional development and reflecting upon one's own career, but also the development of identity or shaping one's own views, interests, as well as establishing and building interpersonal relationships. Therefore, it provides young people emerging adulthood with a number of opportunities to create (construct) themselves and their life that are associated with educational and non-educational activities.

At the same time, the self-creation process takes place in a specific social context. In self-creation activities, young people are guided not only by their needs, dreams, but to a large extent also by social expectations they are facing, be it from the closest environment, university, or the labour market. The context of social expectations, especially those imposed by academic education and the labour market, focuses attention on the concept of competences (Sulkowski 2016) and their role in the self-creation process. The studies on the Polish labour market indicate that employers – in addition to professional competences – consider personal and interpersonal skills as particularly important for young people (Analiza kwalifikacji i kompetencji..., 2012; Bilans Kapitału Ludzkiego w Polsce, 2015). This issue draws attention to the need to take these competences into account in the students' education process (Mazurek, 2015). On the other hand, the employers' expectations seem to be one of the essential factors determining the self-creation activities of students at the stage of their preparation for transition into the labour market. It leads to the question of whether students are aware of the employers' expectations regarding competences and what activities they undertake in connection with that.

This question designated one of the directions of analysis of materials collected during the studies on the characteristics of self-creation activities undertaken by the students of the three universities in Wrocław. The studies involved 195 students of the first year of master's degree studying in different fields at three universities in Wrocław: 67 students of pedagogy from the University of Wrocław, 64 students of nursing and physiotherapy from the Wrocław Medical University and 64 students of telecommunications and biotechnology from the Wrocław University of Science and Technology.

The aim of the research was to characterise the self-creation activities described by the surveyed students and to determine the dominant categories of those activities. The aim of the studies was, therefore, the characteristics from the perspective of the subjects themselves, and thus the interpretative paradigm was adopted as the basis (Jurgiel, 2013). The subject of the studies was the opinions of students on their self-creation activities in the indicated areas. The research material was obtained by means of a questionnaire, which included open questions about the activities undertaken by the respondents in the distinguished areas of self-creation. Based on theoretical criteria, the following seven areas were distinguished: taking care of one's appearance, physical fitness, health, intellectual development, personality development, well-being and shaping one's own future (Pawlak, 2009). In each of the indicated areas, the respondents were to describe up to five most important self-creation activities they undertook. The assumption was made that what is verbalized is part of consciousness and may be subject to more or less conscious control and change, which indicates the self-creation process (Pawlak, 2009). The qualitative and quantitative analysis of the research material (Silverman, 2012) was carried out in two stages. In the first stage, the activities described by the respondents were subject to substantive coding (Rubacha, 2008) in each of the seven areas of self-creation indicated in the tool. The qualitative analysis of the material was based on an inductive

model. At the second stage, the aim of the analysis was to provide a comprehensive description of the students' self-creation activities in all areas jointly. The starting points were the categories of activities distinguished in the first stage, which were then subject to frequency analysis. Its aim was to determine the dominant categories, based on the frequency of indicating certain activities by the respondents. Next, the links between the determined categories of activities and the seven areas of self-creation distinguished in the research tool were analysed. Assigning activities to a specific area of self-creation indirectly suggested their purpose. This allowed to describe a specific "map" of self-creation activities of the surveyed students, which contained the dominant categories of activities along with the presentation of their purposes.

This study presents a fragment of the analysis of research results concerning the description of these categories of respondents' self-creation activities, which indicated a reference to the expectations of the labour market in Poland. Employers paid attention to many competences, especially those useful regardless of the profession. The scope of competences indicated by employers differed depending on the division adopted in the studies. Among them, the three main groups can be distinguished:

- personal competences (mainly: cognitive, self-organization and related to personality traits),
- interpersonal competences (mainly communication skills, cooperation in a group and the ability to resolve conflicts),
- professional competences (including knowledge and skills specific to a given profession, professional experience, knowledge of foreign languages and computer skills) (Sladek, 2017).

It can be concluded from the analysis of students' expectations towards the labour market, that young people are aware of what employers expect from them. In connection with this, they try to expand their competences in order to increase their chances on the labour market. At the same time, they also have unrealistic expectations, e.g. regarding the amount of remuneration (Wronowska, 2015). The aim of the presented analysis was to draw attention to what extent and scope the surveyed students take into account the expectations signalled by employers in their self-creation activities.

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This part of the article will present the results of the analysis of the research material, on the basis of which the dominant categories of activities were determined for the entire self-creation process of the surveyed students first. Then, based on the analysis of the links between the distinguished categories of activities and their main purpose (as indicated by the area of self-creation, to which the activity was originally assigned by students), the three main dimensions of subjects' self-creation were outlined. The categories

of students' self-creation activities with these three dimensions of self-creation are presented in Table 1. They concern: the sphere of corporeality, psychosocial well-being and vision of one's own future (in the table marked with three colours). It is difficult to assign some categories of activities only to one dimension, as they had very different meanings for the subjects.

When looking at the frequency of particular categories of self-creation activities indicated by the students (Table 1), it can be noticed that the categories related to the sphere of corporeality are the most exposed. This applies in particular to physical fitness, nutrition and beauty treatments, which seem to be the most important for the surveyed students in the dimension of creating their image and body. At the same time, in this dimension the students also indicated activities related to health care, mainly in the somatic dimension. Secondly, the dimension of self-creation associated with broadly understood psychosocial well-being was distinguished. It can be noticed that physical fitness and nutrition, as well as relaxation and spiritual development are the categories that were important both for creating one's corporeality as well as for the psychosocial well-being of the subjects. In this second dimension of self-creation, it turned out that also the activities that related to interpersonal relationships, development of interests, participation in culture, development of personal competences, to a large extent also non-formal and informal education were important (including in particular personal dimensions of learning connected with interests), and partly also social activity. The third dimension of the subjects' self-creation activities concerns the vision of their own future.

Table 1. The general number of indications of individual categories of self-creation activities by the surveyed students along with the distinction of three dimensions of their self-creation (own study).

Dimension	Sphere of corporeality						Psychosocial well-being						Vision of future			
	1.	2.	3.	4.	5.	6.	7.	8.	9.	10.	11.	12.	13.	14.	15.	
Lp.	1.	2.	3.	4.	5.	6.	7.	8.	9.	10.	11.	12.	13.	14.	15.	16.
Categories	Beauty treatments	Health care	Risky behaviour	Physical fitness	Nutrition	Relaxation and spiritual development	Interpersonal relations	Development of interests	Participation in culture	Development of personal competences	Social activity	Non-formal and informal education	Formal education	Professional training	Planning of future	No answer
No. of indications	395	191	111	1076	606	227	415	193	124	118	68	847	257	173	44	40

(Remarks: the three colours indicate which categories are included in the given dimension of the respondents' self-creation. Some categories can be assigned to two dimensions.)

The following categories are specific to this dimension: formal education, vocational training and the planning of the future. Non-formal and informal education also partly appear beside them (they mainly indicate activities aimed at meeting social expectations, such as taking up studies and learning in classes, courses, training and acquiring additional qualifications), as well as social activity. These last two categories are important both in the dimension of creating a vision of one's own future and psychosocial well-being. When looking at the description of particular categories, one can notice the interpenetration of three self-creation dimensions of the surveyed students, especially the indirect role of self-creation in the dimension of psychosocial well-being.

A detailed analysis of distinguished dimensions and the categories of self-creation activities of the surveyed students exceed the framework of this article. This paper focuses on one of the directions of analyses, concerning the reference of self-creation activities presented by the students to the labour market expectations. Even a cursory analysis of the distinguished categories of self-creation activities indicates that the shaping of one's own future, including the professional future, is an important area for the respondents, thus determining one of the dimensions of their self-creation activities. The analysis of individual categories related to the vision of one's own future allows to find many references to the labour market expectations. At the beginning, it is worth to look at the category of activities related to formal education in which students mainly pointed to studying and learning as part of the classes. There were also additional, but less numerous activities, such as: studying in another field of study or planning to undertake doctoral studies, as well as scientific work (participation in science clubs or conferences). Therefore, the indicated activities emphasize the need to acquire knowledge and skills specific to a given field, and hence also the profession, as well as the need to improve them. Therefore, it can be concluded that the surveyed students attribute high importance to formal education in shaping their professional future. In this sense, taking up studies in a given field can be treated as an expression of more or less conscious choice that increases certain chances on the labour market. The activities related to professional training have similar meaning. Apprenticeships, internships or casual work (not always related to the future profession) are treated as a way to broaden knowledge and skills useful in the future work and an opportunity to gain work experience. Young people believe, therefore, that the university degree will give them a better future. They are also aware that this education requires supplementation (Woroniecka, 2015).

The surveyed students attribute particular importance to the categories of activities related to non-formal and informal education. It is worth noting that it refers to the two dimensions of the respondents' self-creation: vision of the future and psychosocial well-being. The activities in the field of non-formal and informal education interweave in the students' statements, hence they were presented as one category, which includes: learning foreign languages, attending various courses, training or workshops (apart from university classes), reading (from scientific and popular science literature to fiction),

watching various films or programs (media) in order to expand knowledge, but also practising cognitive skills (e.g. solving puzzles, crosswords, logic games, practising memory or perception). It is worth paying attention to the different functions that activities related to non-formal or informal education fulfil for students, as indicated by the area of self-creation to which they were assigned. The respondents indicated that they primarily take up learning foreign languages and attend courses, trainings and workshops, or generally improve themselves in order to shape their future. These are, therefore, non-formal education activities aimed at acquiring qualifications and competences required on the labour market. In turn, in relation to shaping their psychosocial well-being (development of personality and mind), the students considered the following activities as the most important: reading, practising cognitive skills and expanding knowledge using various sources. These activities, in turn, have the dimension of more personal learning and creating one's cognitive potential, as well as developing interests or broadening the horizons, and are mainly associated with informal education.

It can therefore be seen that different meanings are assigned to formal, non-formal and informal education, depending on the perceived purpose of self-creation. On the one hand, an important purpose is to acquire qualifications and develop competences that are useful on the labour market in accordance with social expectations. In this respect, however, the activities related to professional training, formal and non-formal education prove to be more important for students. In turn, the second purpose of students' self-creation is related to developing one's intellectual potential and broadening horizons through reading, watching programs or developing cognitive skills. This purpose is more connected with informal education. Both purposes therefore indicate a significant need to learn as a way of self-creation. In contrast, in the activities indicated by the students we can see different ways of learning and different meanings ascribed to them, depending on the adopted purpose of self-creation: the construction of one's future and career or personal development. Both purposes also reflect the developmental tasks that are significant during this period.

The category defined as the planning of the future was also associated with the dimension of creating the vision of one's future. It was not particularly often indicated by the respondents, however it drew attention to certain personal competences which are important for the students' self-creation. Namely, they pointed to the planning of various types of activities, most often one-off and not in longer time horizon, as well as to saving, developing independence and time management. These last two activities were indicated relatively rarely. The described activities related to the planning of the future, however, point to a certain reference to the expectations of employers, especially regarding self-organizational skills (Analiza kwalifikacji i kompetencji..., 2012; Bilans Kapitału Ludzkiego w Polsce, 2015). On the other hand, these are activities that are important for constructing one's own future, not only professional future. They have a wider meaning for the self-creation process. Poor frequency of these activities may, however, suggest that

the short time horizon prevails in the students' thinking about their own future (Zajac-Lamparska, 2013).

One of the distinguished categories of self-creation activities of the surveyed students was defined as the development of personal competences, and was related to the second dimension of self-creation, which is psychosocial well-being. This category includes personal competences which emphasize various ways of shaping self-awareness (mainly through improving self-knowledge, self-reflection and self-esteem), strengthening one's motivation (mainly by building a positive attitude) and self-regulation (primarily through self-improvement and various ways of increasing self-control). This category emphasizes the activities that favour the development of self-creation competences (Pietrasinski 1992, Dudzikowa 1993). Partially, they can be linked to the expectations of employers, in particular regarding personal characteristics, such as openness to learning and development, commitment and responsibility (Sladek, 2017).

The remaining categories of students' self-creation activities related to the psychosocial well-being – i.e. the development of interests, relaxation and spiritual development, participation in culture – to a lesser extent indicated the reference to employers' expectations. These categories also emphasized different ways of learning, but they were important for students in developing personal potential (link to the area of the development of personality and well-being).

However, the two following categories of the respondents' self-creation activities – interpersonal relationships and social activity, also linked to the dimension of creating psychosocial well-being – partly point to the activities related to social competences expected by employers. It arises from the students' statements that interpersonal relations – in particular meetings with relatives and friends, discussions and accompanying exchange of views, experiences, as well as getting to know new people, including the emphasis on representatives of other, different cultures, are essential to improving well-being and personality development. The indicated categories of self-creation activities are closely related, as it can be seen, to the developmental tasks of this period, in particular to building close relationships, including intimate ones. In terms of social activity, volunteering was a distinctive category, although it was not so significant in relation to the total number of the activities indicated by the students. Only a few indications referred to participation in activities for the student community or university (e.g. being part of the student government). The self-creation activities described in both categories can be partly associated with the possibility of developing social competences, especially communication skills. Volunteering or social activity can play a particularly beneficial role in this area (Bacia, 2015). The students themselves see a certain connection between taking up social activity and shaping their own future. However, it is not taken up too often by them. On the other hand, meetings and conversations with friends and relatives foster, according to the surveyed students, mainly the expanding of psychosocial well-being, while the social competences developed at the same time seem to be rather overlooked by them.

From the analysis of the above-described categories of self-creation activities of the surveyed students, we can therefore conclude that young people, through their activities, try to meet social expectations, especially of education and the labour market. First of all, in the above-described activities, the surveyed students take into account the requirements associated with the development of professional competences (knowledge, skills and additional qualifications, including foreign language skills) and try to gain even minimal professional experience (apprenticeships, internships, and casual work). In this way, they try to shape their opportunities for the future. In their activities, the respondents also take into account the shaping of personal competences, mainly related to the expansion of self-awareness, self-regulation and motivation. These competences partly correspond to employers' expectations (including knowledge of their own strengths and weaknesses, self-organization skills). However, apart from meeting social expectations, they primarily contribute to the development of self-creation competences, owing to which students strive to give their biography an individual shape.

CONCLUSIONS

In conclusion, it is worth noting that based on the analysis of the students' statements, the three self-creation dimensions described – corporeality, psychosocial well-being and vision of one's own future – permeate and complement each other. The characteristics of particular categories of activities indicate the reference to developmental tasks falling within the period of emerging adulthood, i.e. shaping one's own identity, dealing with the lack of ambiguity, preparing for future social and professional roles, creating one's individuality and understanding one's adulthood (Arnett, 2014). For young people, the process of constructing oneself now means a constant struggle with the traditional and subjective criteria of understanding adulthood (Silva, 2012). The analysis of students' self-creation activities shows that in their process of creating themselves and their own biography, social expectations related to the roles of adulthood (especially professional roles) clash with their needs, desires and personal visions of adulthood. Through some of the undertaken activities, the subjects showed that they were aware of the labour market expectations and took them into account in their plans and activities. First of all, these activities were connected with shaping professional competences. Thus, they were associated with the creation of the so-called career capital (Cybal-Michalska, 2013). These types of activities were aimed at increasing the chances of young people on the labour market. In this respect, formal education and various forms of professional training (those organized within the university, as well as obtained through non-formal education) played a key role for the respondents.

On the other hand, the self-creation activities taken up by students also showed the willingness to pursue personal preferences, for example in terms of free time, interests or developing abilities. Shaping one's image also held an important place in the respondents'

activities, which was connected not only with the sphere of corporeality, but also with the development of personal competences and qualifications. The efficiency and effectiveness of action were important criteria for the self-esteem among adults. Among personal competences, the most essential were those related to the expansion of self-awareness, self-regulation and motivation. These types of activities pointed to more individual and subjective visions of their own adulthood.

When making life choices, young people are increasingly guided by a quest for balance between different spheres of their lives. For this reason, they emphasize that the opportunity of personal development within the framework of work, and not only the amount of remuneration, becomes a job-seeking criterion for them (Arnett, 2014; Marianowska, 2103). This approach may help young people to integrate the process of creating themselves and their own biography to a larger extent. However, it requires from them to develop a range of personal competences, such as improving the ability of self-reflection, critical self-esteem, openness to various dimensions of development, as well as the ability to reinterpret existing visions of themselves. On the other hand, it also requires taking into account relationships with other people and developing social competences. The presented study shows that while the sphere of interpersonal relationships is of great importance to students in the process of self-creation, these relationships rather serve personal development (especially in terms of well-being and personality development). The students, however, do not see in these activities the opportunities to develop their social competencies, useful also on the labour market. This self-creation dimension seems to require more support, especially in academic education and adult education.

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THE COMPETENCE FROM SELECTED STUDENTS OF THE PEDAGOGICAL FACULTY OF CHARLES UNIVERSITY TO PREVENT CHILD SEXUAL ABUSE

Abstract: The study introduces the readiness of future experts (selected students for the last years of the master or the subsequent Master study of the Pedagogical Faculty of Charles University in Prague) for the prevention of abuse and neglect of children. For the data collection method was used for the quantitative survey of technology Computer Aided Web Interviewing (CAWI). The sample was determined by random stratified selection. With a total of 300 respondents were studying last year master's full-time study in the academic year 2014/2015 and 2016/2017 on selected Faculty of Charles University. When the evaluation has been used an ordinal (point, grading), which allowed to establish the order of results. On the basis of the information standard has been drawn up of the minimum knowledge, part of which was a proposal on the functioning of the interdisciplinary cooperation.

Keywords: child abuse and neglect syndrome, faculty of education, Charles University in Prague

INTRODUCTION

It has been more than twenty-five years since the Czech Republic ratified the International Convention on the Rights of the Child. Since then much has been done to protect children, e.g. repeated amendments of the Act on Social and Legal Protection of Children or re-codification of civil law. In 2013 the Czech Republic ratified the Optional Protocol to the Convention on the Rights of the Child on the sale of

children, child prostitution and child pornography. The document stipulates among other things an obligation to ensure due training of personnel working with child victims of crime and emphasizes awareness raising using all suitable means, education and training (Sdělení Ministerstva zahraničních věcí, 2013). The protocol has definitely had an impact on the latest amendment of the Act on Social and Legal Protection of Children where multidisciplinary cooperation is regulated by means of case conferences and development of individual plans of child protection. On the other hand, it should be noted that the Czech Republic has long been criticized for not having one governmental department responsible for child protection matters, instead communication and cooperation of several ministries, in particular Ministry of Labour and Social Affairs, Ministry of Education Youth and Sports, Ministry of Health and Ministry of the Interior and Ministry of Foreign Affairs, is required to ensure good functioning of the entire system of child protection. This problem might be solved by ratifying the Optional Protocol to the Convention on the Rights of the Child on a Communications Procedure. The Czech Republic ratified this protocol in 2016. Furthermore, the government has adopted the National Action Plan for Transformation and Unification of the System of Care for Children at Risk imposing on the authorities in charge of child protection to use multidisciplinary cooperation. New steps will include the establishment of a mutual notification system and also a registry of children at risk in the Czech Republic.

Child protection also includes protection against child sexual abuse (the CSA syndrome) which is largely covered by another part of the paper. The issue of sexually abused children has been given an increased attention in the Czech Republic recently and the society is more sensitive to these cases as compared with the past. This shift has been occurring despite the continuing attitude deeply rooted in wide public that sexual issues are taboo and not to be discussed with children. With the very families where sexual abuse occurs we can see how the family often tries to forget about the whole issue. Family members are forced to pretend that nothing happened and also to refuse any intervention in the family (Dunovský, 2005).

In the Czech Republic as well as in other civilized countries sexual abuse is defined as an inappropriate exposure of a child to a sexual contact, activity and behaviour. It includes any form of sexual touching, sexual intercourse or exploitation by anybody to whose custody the child was entrusted or by anybody who abuses the child. Such person may be a parent, relative, friend, professional/volunteer or stranger (Hanušová, 2006).

The severity of this phenomenon is documented by a number of professional publications on this issue. (e. g. (Dubowitz, 2017; Fergusson, 2013; Lipovsky, 2013; Pereda, 2009; Runyan, 2002).

The authors of the study firmly believe that we cannot effectively combat the child sexual abuse syndrome (CSA syndrome) or the syndrome of an ill-treated, abused and neglected child (CAN syndrome) without quality interdisciplinary cooperation.

They have based their basic research question and hypothesis on this belief. The underlying idea of the entire research is that if we are to be successful in combating the CSA and CAN syndrome in our population, it is necessary to create interdisciplinary teams from experts who are trained for this purpose, at the best within a pre-gradual training. The authors therefore focused primarily on students at their own workplace (Faculty of Education, Charles University, Prague), i.e. future teachers. Because it is mainly the teachers who can detect a problem at an early stage and call for appropriate help.

RESEARCH STUDY

The study aimed to ascertain the preparedness of selected future professionals (last grade students of the Faculty of Education, Charles University in Prague) in the area of child sexual abuse syndrome prevention.

OTHER GOALS

To carry out a framework analysis of knowledge regarding the child sexual abuse syndrome (CSA syndrome) and to identify strengths and weaknesses of training on this issue;

To define “standards of minimum knowledge regarding the CSA syndrome” for students of the full-time study programme entitled Training Teachers of General Subjects at Primary and Secondary Schools.

HYPOTHESIS

The level of knowledge of students studying in the academic year of 2014/2015 and 2016/2017 will differ at least by 8%. There will be a tendency of improvement.

METHODOLOGY

The quantitative education research was carried out as follows: problem definition, formulation of hypotheses, verification of hypotheses, and presentation of conclusions.

Research sample was selected using the method of stratified random sampling. The authors contacted full-time students of the “Training Teachers of General Subjects at Primary and Secondary Schools” programme at the Faculty of Education, Charles University in Prague. Both parts of the research focused on last grade master or follow-up master study programme students. In each case 150 students were randomly selected from the sample.

The authors used a quantitative questionnaire and the CAWI technique. In terms of individual research steps, a pre-research was carried out first. Data obtained by means of closed-ended questions were encoded for further processing and analysing. Scales consisting of 5 categories were used (classification scale: 1 – excellent, 2 – very good, 3 – good, 4 – satisfactory, 5 – unsatisfactory). If a respondent answered “I don’t know” or did not fill in the question, he/she was evaluated as “unsatisfactory”. If a respondent checked no answer in a particular section of the questionnaire (he/she disregarded this section and skipped it), such section was not evaluated.

Clear criteria were defined for scaling, e.g. if a respondent checked more answers than indicated in the instructions to the questions, he/she was evaluated as a respondent who strictly followed the instructions.

SELECTED STUDY RESULTS

The authors questioned the total of 300 selected last grade students of a master or follow-up master study programme of Training Teachers of General Subjects at Primary and Secondary Schools at the Faculty of Education, Charles University in Prague. The overall return rate of the survey was 56.3%, i.e. 169 out of 300 questionnaires. In the academic year of 2014/2015 150 questionnaires were distributed and 53.3% (80) questionnaires returned. In the academic year of 2016/2017 59.3% questionnaires returned, i.e. 89 out of 150 questionnaires.

A framework question of the second part of the questionnaire was to find out whether the students had already encountered the issue of CSA in their studies at the Faculty of Education, Charles University in Prague. 62.1% of students responded positively. In the academic year of 2014/2015 50% and in 2016/2017 73% of respondents at the Faculty of Education, Charles University in Prague, encountered this issue. These percentages might seem quite high; however, partial results of individual questions show that the result was positively influenced by students who have a subject dealing with this issue as part of their study programme. Nevertheless, it must be pointed out that all students at the Faculty of Education, Charles University in Prague, have the issue of the CAN syndrome as one of the questions for the state final examination in Pedagogy and Psychology for Teachers and 82% of respondents had already passed this examination and therefore must have encountered this issue at least when preparing for this examination. Evaluation of the closed-ended question part revealed that most respondents’ answers were correct. On the other hand, it should be pointed out that the battery of 13 questions included also questions which were generally more difficult for all groups of respondents. We can mention for example question No. 7 (Would you agree to keep information confided to you by the child confidential?) and No. 12 (Is there any Option Protocol to the Convention on the Rights of the Child which would deal with the issue of child sexual abuse?).

Table 1. Correct answers of selected students at the Faculty of Education, Charles University in Prague, regarding the issue of the CSA syndrome

Question	Academic year 2014/2015	%	Academic year 2016/2017	%
Is the child in danger of sexual abuse by a familiar person?	71	88.8%	81	91 %
Victims of sexual abuse always intentionally behave in such a way to provoke the offender.	68	85 %	83	93.3 %
In order to recognize whether a child is ill-treated, abused or neglected, we have to consider the following	65	81.3 %	84	94.4 %
What would be your reaction to a child exhibiting markedly promiscuous behaviour or interest in sexual issues?	60	75 %	78	87.6 %
Is it suitable to try to get more information on abuse from a child who was or is subject to sexual abuse?	55	68.8 %	72	80.9 %
What should you do if a child confides to you that it is sexually abused?	56	70 %	72	80.9 %
Would you agree to keep information confided to you by the child confidential?	39	48.8 %	42	47.2 %
A victim of sexual abuse must be immediately „withdrawn” from the environment where the violence occurred.	50	62.5 %	51	57.3 %
A person who ascertained in a credible way that an offence of abuse of a child in custody or murder had been committed and did not report it to a social and legal child protection authority acted against the law.	61	76.3 %	83	93.3 %
Does any article of The Convention on the Rights of the Child deal with the issue of sexual exploitation of children?	74	92.5 %	78	87.6 %
Is there any Option Protocol to the Convention on the Rights of the Child which would deal with the issue of child sexual abuse	52	65 %	43	48.3 %
During the therapy it is best not to talk with the victim about what (happened)	69	86.3 %	77	86.5 %
Total average		75 %		79.1 %

The results in table No. 1 show that students' level of knowledge regarding closed-ended questions did not have an increasing character. In the survey carried out in the academic year of 2014/2015 75% of answers were correct; in 2016/2017 it was only 79.1%.

For the time being it is not possible to compare data due to continuation of the research and changing conditions. The above mentioned survey will be completed in December 2019. According to information available to the authors no similar quantitative research has been done so the results could not be compared to relevant outputs. One of the authors (Hanušová) carried out a similar, albeit qualitative, research. One of the authors developed a "standard of minimum knowledge regarding the CSA and CAN syndromes for pre-gradual students" in 2009 (Hanušová, 2008; Hanušová, 2009). This handbook has been repeatedly verified and used within the master, follow-up master or bachelor study programmes of several study fields (e.g. health education, pedagogy, special pedagogy, kindergarten teacher training, education, vocational education teacher training) at the Faculty of Education, Charles University. The authors realize the topicality of the issue and the need to update the existing minimum standard by adding new topics and information.

For now it is possible to compare only the first and the second part of the research (two time periods). The research hypothesis assumed that the results in 2014/2015 will differ by at least 8% from the results in 2016/2017. The assumption has not been confirmed. Although there has been an average improvement of knowledge by 4.1%, in some of the questions the results were worse. This was the case for example in the following questions: Does any article of The Convention on the Rights of the Child deal with the issue of sexual exploitation of children?" (deterioration by 4.9 %) or „Is there any Option Protocol to the Convention on the Rights of the Child which would deal with the issue of child sexual abuse“ (deterioration by 16.7 %) or „A victim of sexual abuse must be immediately “withdrawn” from the environment where the violence occurred.“ (deterioration by 5.2%).

Based on the evaluation of the research results the authors concluded for the time being that students often lack adequate knowledge for early and effective diagnosis of an emerging issue.

CONCLUSION

In 2013 the Czech Republic ratified the Optional Protocol to the Convention on the Rights of the Child on the sale of children, child prostitution and child pornography. The document stipulates that the states shall ensure due training of personnel working with child victims of crime, in particular training in the area of law and psychology. The emphasis is on awareness-raising using all suitable means, education and training (Sdělení Ministerstva zahraničních věcí, 2013). An essential part of awareness-raising is ensuring informedness of general public including children, which falls within the

competence of teachers. Therefore, we need to prepare our graduates for all levels of prevention and to set a high level of professional sensitivity to problems negatively affecting children's lives. If we are looking for the most effective solution to the problem, not only in economic terms, we are certainly finding them in such solutions that enable us to prevent the problem at the very beginning. Primary prevention is without a doubt the best thing we have to strive for in practice. Everything else, i.e. secondary, tertiary as well as quaternary prevention is less effective and more expensive. However, we still fail to achieve 100% effective primary prevention in practice. Therefore, we need to prepare our graduates for all levels of prevention and to set a high level of professional sensitivity to problems negatively affecting children's lives. However, the authors of research believe that it is necessary to take very seriously every sign of incompetency which might lead to professional misconduct in a real situation. Another negative effect of this grave ignorance is the situation when an expert himself/herself gets lost in the system, does not know competencies of individual players and in a decisive moment he or she is not able to deal with the situation himself/herself or to find out an appropriate expert partner for dealing with the crisis.

This led one of the authors (Hanušová) to the idea of performing similar research with a larger target group compared to the described research, including other selected faculties (e.g. Protestant Theological Faculty, Faculty of Science, Faculty of Mathematics and Physics, Hussite Theological Faculty, Faculty of Physical Education and Sport) and other study fields at the previously researched Charles University faculties (Faculty of Education, Faculty of Law and medical faculties).

The research tool was updated with regard to legislative development and a model scenario exercise will be added. The results of this study will be published in a separate publication. Achieving necessary level of education and sensitivity in all occupations that might be involved in interdisciplinary addressing of problematic situations in children must be systematic, optimally combining theory, training of social skills, interdisciplinary communication skills and strengthening personal qualifications of students.

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DIAGNOSING SCHOOL READINESS OF HEARING-IMPAIRED CHILDREN

Abstract: This article presents the problem of diagnosing school readiness of hearing impaired children in the light of the new legislation of the Ministry of Education, which introduced compulsory pre-schooling diagnosis for all children. The author, as a surdopedagogue and speech therapist, examined in 2008–2011 the school readiness of hearing impaired children using an original set of diagnostic tools. This set explores readiness to learn math, reading, writing and general language skills.

The author also examined teachers teaching children with hearing impairment, parents of these children and staff of psychological and pedagogical institutions diagnosing the school readiness of mentioned children.

It turned out that the readiness level for math and literacy is high (89% and 83% respectively). The lowest results were achieved with linguistic efficiency (52%). The key factors determining achievement of school readiness of the examined children are the knowledge and skills and external factors: detecting hearing defects immediately after birth, parents' involvement in rehabilitation process and child's school attendance for at least 2 years. It has been found that the teachers in the examined group are experienced and well-prepared (they have completed at least 2 fields of studies) educators; while involved in the diagnosis of school readiness, they often create their own diagnostic tools.

Among the parents surveyed, the study found a low level of knowledge about the school readiness. The levels of involvement in rehabilitation process varied greatly. Examined psychological and pedagogical institutions oversee only a small percentage of total number of hearing-impaired children. Many clinics lack of specialists: surdopedagogues and SLPs with experience of hearing impaired patients. Only 26% of clinics provide psychological support to the family, and 31% diagnose school readiness with tools tailored to the needs of the hearing impaired child.

Since the diagnosis of school readiness is an important element of elementary school recruitment, especially for children with hearing impairment, its current state conduct should be improved. The process of rehabilitation of children with hearing impairment should be intensified as well.

Keywords: school readiness, child with hearing impairment, diagnostic tools, factors conditioning school readiness

INTRODUCTION

Currently in Poland all children are diagnosed with their school readiness before beginning school education in 1st grade of primary school. In accordance with the new legal acts issued by the Ministry of National Education (Regulation of the Ministry of Education from December 23rd 2008, an announcement of the Ministry of Education from September 21st 2009, Regulation of the Ministry of Education from May 28th 2010), a kindergarten teacher is required to: conduct pedagogical observations and diagnose the school readiness of each 5-year-old child, to research and realise an individual program of assistance and correction of school-development, and to inform the child's parents about the school readiness of their child. These requirements, which are posed to the school candidate, are described in detail in the program base of kindergarten education, which can be found in the Regulation of the Ministry of Education from June 17th 2016 (Journal of Laws from 2016, item 895). This describes in detail what, and on which level, a child should master in the following areas: social; independence, hygiene and culture; speech; intellectual; health and physical fitness; safety; art; readiness to learn mathematics; readiness to learn reading and writing; family, civic and patriotic education.

Specialists should according to contemporary legislation, diagnose these areas at the appropriate time and with the help of suitable diagnostic tools. The diagnosis of able-bodied children is not particularly problematic, due to the availability of numerous tools, both traditional and more modern, all in compliance with the latest regulations of the Ministry of National Education. It is the diagnosis of handicapped children that poses a problem. In the case of the hearing-impaired children, the diagnosis of school readiness has not always been conducted, and the tools, which have been used, are frequently not designed for this specific type of diagnosis (K. Bieñkowska 2013).

Hearing-impaired children can currently attend public and integration schools, and it is therefore important to establish precisely whether the candidate can meet the requirements of these institutions. Taking into account this state of affairs as well as the fact that in Poland up till now there has only been one School Maturity Test for Hearing-Impaired Children (U. Eckert, 1986) new methods have been commenced with a new set of tools diagnosing school readiness for hearing-impaired children. The definition of school readiness, which encompasses this reality, created by U. Eckert (1986, p.44) has been taken into account, according to which, it is "...reaching such a level of physical, social, emotional and intellectual development and such level of adjustment in the scope of the impaired function, which allows the child to cope at school."

ORGANISATION AND THE CONDUCTING OF RESEARCH AND THE CHARACTERISTICS OF THE TESTED GROUPS

The tests were carried out in 2009–2011 all around Poland in schools and education centres for children with hearing defects and in psychological-pedagogical centres. 159 children from 18 institutions, 159 parents, 45 teachers (Teachers of the Deaf and Hard of Hearing) of classes 1–3, and from 41 centres were tested. The tested children were between 6 ½ to 8 years old. Their hearing was impaired in a variety of degrees, with most of them (72, 96%) having a defect above 70 dB, so could be described as deaf. Most of the group (61, 64%) were boys. Among the tested group 60,38% had their hearing defect diagnosed during hearing screening tests, 23,27% did not have these tests (they were not introduced when the children were born), and 15,72% did not have their defect indicated in the screening, in one case the test was unsuccessful. The reasons for the hearing impairment were different: congenital genetic defects and defects acquired in the perinatal phase, as well as acquired in the postnatal phase as an effect of a disease or of unknown aetiology. Almost all children had hearing aids: 81,13% had behind the ear apparatus, 16, 98% - cochlear implants, and three (1,89%) did not use any devices. The time of using these devices was very different. Also the timing when the children began their rehabilitation was different. It varied between the first and sixth year of age, and in the case of 6 children (3,77%) it was not executed at all. Most of the tested children (87,42%) attended kindergarten. Those were special, integration and public institutions. The time-period of attendance varied.

Among the tested parents, 73,58% were women. The tested parents were in different age groups, with most having high-school education. In 39 families (24,53%) both parents had a hearing impairment, and in 9 families (5,66%) only one parent had a hearing impairment. Among the tested teachers the majority (95,56%) were women from different age groups with a range of professional experience. All of them held at least one extra degree, and there were also cases of teachers with three extra degrees. The most popular extra degrees were: Early school education, Speech Therapy, Kindergarten education and Oligophrenic pedagogy.

The psychological-pedagogical centres, which take care of children with hearing impairments and conduct diagnostics regarding school readiness were included within the study.

METHODS OF ENQUIRY AND DIAGNOSTIC TOOLS USED TO TEST SCHOOL READINESS OF HEARING-IMPAIRED CHILDREN

In the study the following methods were used: school achievement tests, diagnostic enquiries and observation. Research techniques were chosen: interview, enquiries, and school achievement tests. Also research tools were applied: questionnaires of the school readiness tests, questionnaires of the interviews, inquiry questionnaires, and observation questionnaires. Below a detailed description of all the research tools can be found.

TOOLS GATHERING INFORMATION ABOUT THE CHILD AND ITS ENVIRONMENT

QUESTIONNAIRE OF THE INTERVIEW

The purpose of the interview is to gather information regarding the child, the course of medical diagnosing, the course of rehabilitation, and the manner of communication in addition to information about the family. The interviews were conducted with the legal guardians of the child, parents, or people from the child's closest environment, who were able to answer the questions contained in the interview.

OBSERVATION QUESTIONNAIRE *SOCIAL MATURITY OF A HEARING-IMPAIRED CHILD*

Used by a teacher who conducts observations during a child's stay in kindergarten. The observation's scope is in accordance with Attachment no. 1 of the regulation of the Ministry of National Education from December 23rd 2008. During the observation the basic everyday life child's behaviours are examined.

TOOLS FOR THE EXAMINATION OF THE CHILD

The basic assumption is that the tools meant for the examination of a hearing-impaired child, apart from the part testing the speaking abilities, are wordless tests. As to testing the school readiness of the child, the author suggests examination with the following methods and research tools:

APPROXIMATE LATERALIZATION TEST

The test is conducted by observing the child's behavior specified in the test description. The essence of the observation is determining which hand, leg, eye and ear dominate in the child being tested.

QUESTIONNAIRE TESTING READINESS FOR READING AND WRITING

The questionnaire consists of 12 sets. Each set (with the exception of XI and XII) is preceded by an instruction (in the form of a drawing) indicating how to perform each exercise. If this is not sufficient, the person carrying out the test may provide additional explanations so that the child understands what is expected from him or her.

In set I the odd one out symbol should be crossed out.

In set II and III a child's task is to recognize signs with the same shape and to outline them with a colored crayon.

Sets I, II and III check, whether a child is able to recognize and remember certain shapes, letter-like forms and letters.

Set IV, V, VI, VII and VIII – are sequences of respectively two and three shapes. The task of a child is to mark the appropriate fragment of the sequence according to the given pattern.

Set IX and X check the child's readiness for writing. Models of various shapes are presented, and subsequently they are dotted (various). Children are supposed to choose and outline ones, which fit the given patterns. This determines whether they have the appropriate manual dexterity and eye-hand coordination necessary for drawing, cutting and learning to write.

Set XI and XII are cartoon strips, which a child should put in the order of performed activities. These sets allow us to check whether the examined child links cause and effect and is able to predict what can happen.

The set is regarded as completed correctly when the examined child properly fulfills at least two out of three tasks from a set. A detailed score, description and suggested interpretation can be found in the instructions attached to the questionnaire.

QUESTIONNAIRE TESTING READINESS FOR LEARNING MATHEMATICS

The questionnaire consists of 12 sets. Prior to each set of exercises (with the exception of III and IV) an instruction is provided (in the form of a drawing) indicating how to do each exercise. If this is not sufficient, the person carrying out the test may provide additional explanations, so that the children understand what is expected from them.

Sets I and II test the perceptiveness of a child and the ability to notice a common feature of objects (elements) belonging to a given set. In set I the common feature is a shape, in set II – a function.

Sets III and IV concern classification of objects according to a common feature (in set III – shapes, in set IV- size).

Sets I, II, III and IV test the ability to classify and group objects.

Set V regards recognizing and distinguishing objects of a given shape.

In set VI, through matching objects in pairs, children examine quantitative relations between sets (comparing the size of sets). This set tests the ability to determine the numerical equality of sets.

In set VII, through selecting the appropriate pieces of dominoes, the examined child establishes the numerical equality of sets, which has a fundamental significance in shaping the notion of a natural number.

Set VIII and IX concerns division into equal parts. Assigning to a “girl” – two (three or four) apples (sweets, chocolate bars) prepares children to understand the notion of division as splitting ‘into equal parts’, ‘equal’ division.

Sets VII, VIII and IX check the skill of counting and differentiating between incorrect and correct counting.

Sets X, XI and XII contain tasks testing understanding and establishing suitable spatial relations.

In set X placing slips of paper in the proper configuration allows the evaluation of the comprehension of such concepts as: 'on', 'under', 'above'; in set XI – 'between', 'next to'; in set XII – 'behind', 'in front of'. These exercises check whether a child is able to establish and determine the location of objects in relation to other objects.

The set is regarded as completed correctly when the examined child properly fulfills at least two out of three tasks in a set. It is assumed that completing a single task can be accidental, and thus would not be able to clearly demonstrate understanding instructions and thought-out action. A detailed score, its description and suggested interpretation can be found in the instruction attached to the questionnaire.

QUESTIONNAIRE TESTING LINGUISTIC COMPETENCE OF A HEARING-IMPAIRED CHILD

In Attachment No. 1 of the Regulation of the Ministry of National Education from 23rd December 2008 regarding the core curriculum of pre-school education and general education in particular types of schools, a child who is ready to start attending school should *try to speak correctly, in respect of articulation, grammar, inflection and syntax, should speak fluently, not too loudly, adjusting the tone of voice to the situation. The child should be able to listen carefully, ask about incomprehensible facts, formulate longer utterances and speak about his/her needs and decisions*. Thus, the child should have linguistic competence, which, according to S. Grabias, regards both thinking and understanding. This is the result of linguistic competence of a systemic, social and situational kind. (T. Gałkowski, G. Jastrzębowska, 2003). The proposed set of diagnostic tools tests the linguistic competence of a hearing-impaired child in all basic areas taking into account specific difficulties in speech development of these children.

The most important is systemic competence. In this area the subject of testing is speech that is speaking and understanding.

TESTING UNDERSTANDING

- On the level of single words (names of objects, phenomena, activities, words defining spatial and size relations). This test makes use of Picture Questionnaire and the Questionnaire testing linguistic competence in the following ways.
- On the level of word collocations – testing the ability to understand grammatical structures and inflected forms. To test these abilities the Questionnaire testing linguistic competence is used, making use of section including "Questions", "Gapped sentences", "Instructions" and the "Park" board, which is used to test understanding and determining spatial relations.

- On the level of complex sentence – testing the ability to understand syntax structures. Here complex questions are used. The ability to understand this type of questions is regarded among hearing-impaired children as additional, in view of the delayed speech development in the case of the majority of these children, which results in the fact that this skill may not be developed yet. Thus, this part can be omitted in the overall examination.
- Testing the ability to lip-read. This skill is tested by the “Instructions” test. A child points to the item in the picture, which the examining person is talking about. The test is conducted with the hearing aid turned on. The child is seated opposite the examining person.

Each of the above-mentioned tests are described in a detailed way in the corresponding instructions. These also describe the assessment of the level of performance in particular tasks, the number of points obtained by the examined child and the interpretation of results.

TESTING OF SPEAKING

- In the phonetic aspect – determining the range of sounds. This is tested by a Picture questionnaire designed to test articulation, contained in the tool set.
- In the lexical aspect – determining the range of active vocabulary. This is tested with the Picture questionnaire and a Questionnaire of linguistic competence. In total, containing: 345 words, of which 279 constitute nouns, 24 verbs, 18 adjectives, 10 prepositions, 6 pronouns, 5 numerals, 2 conjunctions and 2 adverbs. A child might use more words during the examination, which would indicate a larger vocabulary range.
- In grammatical aspect – evaluating the ability to use inflected forms and to construct sentences. This is chiefly tested through the Linguistic competence questionnaire and, to a lesser extent, the Picture questionnaire.
- In expressive aspect – testing the fluency and prosodies of speech. In this test, the “Story”, “Questions” and “Gapped sentences” sections should be used. In “Story” a child’s task is to describe what he or she sees in the picture. This attempt is not obligatory in view of the different level of speech development of hearing-impaired children, out of which some may not manage to complete this task. This may be omitted if a child cannot cope with the story.

THE RESULTS OF THE CONDUCTED RESEARCH

READINESS FOR LEARNING READING AND WRITING

As a result of the conducted research on hearing-impaired children, it transpired that 132 (83,02%) reached readiness for learning reading and writing. Taking into account the particular skills, which are within this scope, you can find the detailed results below:

- Identifying shapes, signs similar to letters, and letters – 139 (88,05%) children completed the task correctly;
- Identifying and remembering written and printed letters – 114 (71,45%) children completed the tasks correctly;
- Sets checking the readiness to learn writing were correctly completed by 110 (69,50%) children;
- Tasks checking the correctness of linking cause and effect were correctly completed by 124 (77,99%) children.

READINESS FOR LEARNING MATHEMATICS

The conducted research allowed establishing the level the children represent when it comes to the readiness for learning mathematics. This level was reached by 142 (89,31%) children. More detailed results concerning the skills, which are contained in the scope of this kind of readiness, are presented as follows:

- Perceptiveness and the ability to notice a common feature – 139 (88,05%) children completed the tasks correctly;
- The ability to establish equality of sets – 138 (86,79%) children completed the tasks correctly;
- The ability to classify and group objects – 137 (86,32%) children completed the tasks correctly;
- The ability to count and differentiate correct counting from incorrect counting – 92 (57,86%) children completed the tasks correctly;
- The ability to establish spacial relations without words – 81 (50,94%) children completed the tasks correctly.

READINESS TO GAINING LINGUISTIC COMPETENCE

Taking into account the total results of the linguistic competence of the researched children, it transpired that 69 (43,40%) of the tested children achieved this. The level of linguistic competence should be analysed individually, therefore the general analysis gives only an idea of the general pattern in the group of tested children. The different detailed skills in the scope of linguistic competence appear through different manners. They have been presented below considering the division into two basic aspects: understanding and speaking.

UNDERSTANDING:

- Single words – a positive result was reached by 111 (69,81%) children (they knew more than 50% of the words given in the research material; these were sourced from different parts of speech);

- Word collocations – a positive result was reached by 30 (18,87%) children. Results of 40–50%, that is close to positive were reached by 84 (52,83%) children;
- Complex sentences – a positive result was reached by 26 (16,36%) children. Results of 50% were reached by 67 (42,13%) children. Due to delayed speech development in the case of hearing-impaired children, which predicted considerable difficulties in the correct fulfilment of this task, these results were not counted in the general evaluation of linguistic competence.
- Expressions of special relations – a positive result was reached by 146 (91,82%) children. Among 80 (50,31%) children completed the task without a single mistake. The results of this task should be compared with the results achieved in this scope concerning the readiness to learn mathematics, in which 81 (50,94%) children completed the task correctly;
- Lip-reading – a positive result was reached by 132 (83,03%) children. Up to 119 (74,84%) children achieved a level of 80%.
- Speaking:
 - The range of correctly pronounced sounds – 73 children (45,91%) pronounced sounds in such a way that their speech was understandable in the articulation aspect;
 - The range of active vocabulary – over half of the proposed vocabulary and all of the contained parts of speech were used by 69 (43,40%) children;
 - The ability to use inflected forms and building sentence structures – a positive result was reached by 30 (18,87%) children, and results in the range 40–50% were reached by 84 (52,83%) children.

SCHOOL READINESS IN THE OPINION OF THE TESTED TEACHERS

Following the enquiries conducted among teachers of children with hearing impairments, it emerged that their knowledge regarding aspects of school readiness is at a high level. The teachers knew the tools used for this diagnosis, and 40% independently create such tools to examine their own students. Unfortunately a large group of the tested teachers (29%) declared they have no access to the results of the diagnosis of school readiness of children who start 1st grade

SCHOOL READINESS IN THE OPINION OF PARENTS

The research conducted among parents of hearing-impaired children proved that their knowledge on the subject of school readiness is on a rather low level. All respondents thought that their children achieved school readiness, but there was a small group of parents (6%), who did not know if their children were successfully diagnosed as school ready.

SCHOOL READINESS IN THE OPINION OF WORKERS OF PSYCHOLOGICAL-PEDAGOGICAL CENTRES

Workers of psychological-pedagogical centres were also tested. The questions, which they were asked concerned diagnosing the school readiness of hearing-impaired children. It was shown that the school readiness of hearing-impaired children is often diagnosed by people who are not specialists in the scope of the development of these children. It was concluded that among the workers of these centres there is a small amount of Teachers of the Deaf and Hard of Hearing (17%) and Speech Therapists (10%). However, over a half of them (53%) would like to participate in workshops and studies connected with the development of hearing-impaired children, and a vast majority (93%) believe that the professional help of specialists would increase the achievement of school readiness for hearing-impaired children. During the tests, it was established that only 31% institutions use a specialist test of school readiness for hearing-impaired children. The workers of the centre believe that the tests for hearing children would not be used for diagnosing hearing-impaired children. They declared that out of the various types of therapy, which the centres conduct; on average only 45% of parents (maximum 75%) participate. This is an unsatisfactory amount, as it hinders the continuation of exercises at home and produced therapy that is unsystematic and therefore it does not bring the anticipated results.

CONCLUSION

As a result of the conducted research it can be concluded that among the diagnosed children, the level of school readiness is varied. Most of the examined children (132 children that is 83,02% of the entire group) achieved readiness for learning reading and writing. An even higher result was achieved in the scope of readiness for learning mathematics – which was achieved by 142 children (89,31%). The weakest results were achieved in the scope of linguistic competence. This was achieved by only 69 children (43,40%). The children, who achieved school readiness in the presented inquiries realised the course of 1st grade of elementary school and advanced to 2nd grade. This proves the reliability of the conducted research and the diagnostic tools, which were employed.

Based on the conducted research, a list of factors was created, which have significant influence on the school readiness for hearing-impaired children. Among the most important are:

- Early detection of the hearing impairment
- The parents' involvement in the rehabilitation process
- Early hearing aid equipment
- Early beginning of systematic rehabilitation
- Attending kindergarten by the child (min. 2 years).

What proved significant was the method by which the children communicated. Among 82 children, who achieved school readiness, 69 used sound language in their native language, and 13 used the system of sound and sign language, that is their native language in the spoken and sign version. Children, who communicated in other ways (including the Polish Sign Language, that is the natural language of the deaf), did not achieve school readiness.

The described research did not display a dependency of statistical significance between the achievement of school readiness and the degree of the child's hearing impairments, gender, or type of kindergarten they attended.

Taking into account the verification of the original research tools used for the examination of school readiness for hearing-impaired children, as well as analysing the statements of the examined workers of the psychological-pedagogical centres and teachers, satisfactory diagnosing conditions were reached. It was agreed that the diagnosis should be conducted by specialists with extensive knowledge of child development with hearing impairments (Teachers of the Deaf and Hard of Hearing, Speech-Language Pathologists (SLP)), also with the participation of doctors and psychologists. It is also necessary to use the right diagnostic tools for diagnosis, which may be adjusted to the needs and possibilities of the examined children.

The original research tools, which were described in this study, have proved successful in diagnostic practice. Among their advantages is clarity of structure, which allows the researchers a rapid implementation of their studies. In addition, they contain a complete set of research aids, which means that the researcher does not need to additionally look for, construct or prepare other materials.

During the conducted tests it has been ascertained that over 80% of tested children demonstrated an interest in the tasks comprised in particular tests and completed them with enthusiasm. Interesting and attractively presented diagnostic material is a significant component of tools of this kind, since the tested person does not get tired or discouraged from work, and the tasks are not difficult or monotonous.

The construction of the described tools is also in accordance with the expectations of specialists diagnosing school readiness of children with a hearing defect in counseling and guidance centres. In the course of the research carried out by the author it turned out that the employees of these centres would like to use these tools, which are easy to use, based on pictures, contain simple vocabulary, are adjusted to the specifics of the development of a child with a hearing defect and enable a complex assessment of the school readiness. The described tools are standardized, normalized, reliable and valid.

The brief scope, if this text did not allow a full presentation of the execution of the research and the presentation of all conclusions. Full information regarding the conducted tests, obtained results, as well as conclusions, can be found in a separate publication by K. Bieńkowska *Gotowość szkolna dziecka z uszkodzonym narządem słuchu* (2013).

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