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## Editor's Preface

The second number of *The New Educational Review* in 2018 is the fifty-second issue of our journal since the start of its foundation in 2003. In this issue there are mainly papers from: China, the Czech Republic, Indonesia, Jordan, Kazakhstan, Pakistan, Poland, the Slovak Republic, the Republic of Korea, Slovenia, Ukraine, the United Kingdom, and the USA, because our journal is open for presentation of scientific papers from all over the world.

In the present issue, the International Editors' Board have proposed the following subject sessions: Social Pedagogy, General Didactics, Pedeutology, and Special Pedagogy.

In the subject session "Social Pedagogy," we publish fourteen articles. The objective of the contribution by Utku Uçay, Petra Nettleship, Oľga Okálová, and Tomáš Jablonský is to provide the primary early care givers with recommendations for Fetal Alcohol Spectrum Disorder screening. The study by Jaroslav Veteška and Martin Kursch presents the results of research based on the review and identification of significant talent management methods used in different types of organizations. The article by Anna Babicka-Wirkus attempts to systematize the issue of resistance manifestations in the context of education. The research study by Lenka Ďurovicová and Zuzana Ladnová focuses on verification of the relationship between individual components of parenting and pubescent self-concept. In their paper, Zahra Masood Bhuta, Khadim Hussain and Minjuan Zhao explore the relationships between job crafting approaches and work satisfaction among the faculty members of Northwest A & F University, Yangling Shaanxi, China. The article by Mirosław Kowalski and Łukasz Albański outlines Beck's major concepts in order to show some theoretical frameworks for the study on migration, young people and possible conflict-laden interactions between them. In their study, GyeongAe Seomun and Wonjung Noh develop a tool for measuring adverse health effects in students who use digital textbooks. The relationship between remembrance narratives on national heroes and proliferation of political attitudes, values and

behaviours during democratisation, is considered by Patryk Wawrzykowski and Joanna Marszałek-Kawa. The research work by Sariyatun, Hermanu Joebagio and Bambang Sumardjoko aims to predict the direction of democratic education in Indonesia through the influence measurements of tolerance, multicultural sensitivity, and historical awareness of the democratic attitude. Stanisław Juszczyk and Suwan Kim, in their article, discuss the use of digital media in the processes of communication and developing interests by contemporary Polish and Korean youth. The article by Mukhit-Ardager Sydyknazarov and his co-workers is written on the basis of sociological research conducted by the Research Center of the Republic of Kazakhstan “Youth” for the preparation of the annual National Report “Youth of the Republic of Kazakhstan”. In his paper, Bogusław Śliwerski makes a critical analysis of educational policy in Poland during 28 years of the political transformation. The purpose of the study by Katarzyna Kącka, Bartłomiej Michalak and Joanna Piechowiak-Lamparska is to determine the existence and nature of the correlation between the impact of researchers’ publications and selected socio-demographic factors such as age, gender and family status. In their study, Ade Dedi Rohayana and Umi Mahmudah examine the relationship between the educational attainment and age of the first marriage of Indonesian youth.

In the subject session “General Didactics,” we publish four articles. The objective of the study by Janja Batič and Dragica Haramija is to establish the impact of illustration on the reading and interpretation of a poem in the case when only one illustration is provided with the text. The paper by L. Brovchak, L. Starovoit and L. Likhtiska highlights the problem of creative and artistic development of pre-schoolers by means of art. The study by Hongchi Jiang, Yan Liang and Juan Carlos Gonzales provides an understanding of the current situation of undergraduates’ free option power of learning. The aim of the paper by Eun-Kyeong Yun is to examine the communicative Arabic teaching methods currently used in Korean universities, which extend beyond Modern Standard Arabic to promote learner understanding and awareness of colloquial Arabic dialects.

In the subject session “Pedeutology,” we publish two articles. The objective of the study by Sanjeev Kumar is to analyse the impact of the “PRAYAS” in-service training program in science in the educational block Kandaghat block of district Solan of Himachal Pradesh. In their article, Endang Susantini, Sifak Indana and Insawati explore Indonesian pre-service biology teachers’ metacognitive skills, measuring the development of learning strategies used by teachers before and after the learning processes, and describing the teachers’ responses afterwards.

In the subject session “Special Pedagogy,” we publish two articles. A SWOT study by Hisham A. Almakani and Ali M. Alodat was conducted to analyse

parents' perspective on the degree to which Jordanian media covers the issues of children with disabilities. In his article, Jacek J. Błeszyński attempts to analyse the issue of students with autism spectrum disorders who attend two types of educational institutions – integrated classes in mainstream state school and special education institutions with separate classes for students with autism.

We hope that this edition, like previous ones, will encourage new readers not only from the Central European countries to participate in an open international discussion. On behalf of the International Editors' Board I would like to invite representatives of different pedagogical sub-disciplines and related sciences to publish their texts in *The New Educational Review*, according to the formal as well as essential requirements placed on our website: [www.educationalrev.us.edu.pl](http://www.educationalrev.us.edu.pl) – For Authors.



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**Social  
Pedagogy**







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## Solutions and the Algorithm of Screening Indicating the Presence of FASD in Preschool Aged Children in the System of Early Care

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### Abstract

Fetal alcohol spectrum disorder is an overarching term that describes the extent of effects of prenatal alcohol exposure. It includes the range of neurodevelopmental findings and other medical findings specific for FAS. Measurability of characteristics depends on several factors, such as diagnostic instruments, multidisciplinary focus, etc. The objective of the contribution is to provide the primary early care givers with recommendations for FASD screening. It involves suggestions that deal with recognition, protection and intervention of children with FASD in the most elaborate and unbiased manner. Results of the study offer selective intention of screening in preschool-aged children. The research was conducted with 173 children aged from 3 to 7 years. The authors used their own concept of selected domains indicating the occurrence of impairments in FASD domains. Specific quantitative and qualitative research methods were assigned to them. The impairments relate to anthropometric deviations determining early occurrence of FASD. The authors have selected the domain of basic anthropometry: head circumference, height and weight and philtrum and the obtained results from domains: auditory processing, selected cognitive components, motor system, speech and sensory processing. Conclusions define basic criteria for FASD screening in general population and basic algorithm of distribution of recognized child in a system of early care in the SR. They rely on the fact that there is urgent demand in Slovakia to involve participants in active FASD care.

**Keywords:** *Fetal Alcohol Spectrum Disorder (FASD), children, screening, early care, algorithm.*

## **What is FASD?**

Alcohol effect during pregnancy can lead to permanent brain damage and damage of other important organs, functions and structures of the fetus. The spectrum of FASD is an overarching term coined to indicate a wide range of various effects that can emerge from alcohol exposition. Some of these effects incorporate visible abnormalities: damage of the body, important organs and skeleton. However, the most serious damage is usually “hidden” in the brain. In the case of FASD, it is often found in the brain areas responsible for communication, behaviour and sensory issues and it can be mistaken for other disorders or impairments. The problems manifest themselves along developmental trajectory and they do not have to be apparent unless the important developmental milestones, affected by retardation or absence of required developmental skills, are reached. It does not have to be recognized as a consequence of alcohol exposure. Some of the measured deviations are not always typical of the FASD profile (Gibbard 2013: 26, as cited in: the Ministry of Health, New Zealand, 2015). However, common problems that can be visible are at the CNS level. These manifest themselves by structural, neurological or functional abnormalities.

## **Structural abnormalities**

Small head circumference at birth (at or below the 10<sup>th</sup> percentile, for FAS usually around 33 cm and less) or other measurable developmental deviations during the first year. During the prenatal development, not only the size of the brain, but also the size of its individual parts is reduced. Retarded growth may occur regardless of facial anomalies presence. The selection of the research that deals with structural brain imaging of children from 3 to 7 years with alcohol exposition before birth, and investigates its extent using MRI in comparison with control sample is shown in Table 1.

Children with FASD usually have difficulty in transmitting information between particular brain parts, they cannot process the information about self-control or abstract thinking. They have trouble receiving new information and retaining it. Disorders can also occur in other parts of the brain. Disruption of the child’s ability to make intentional motor movement can cause clumsy and abrupt movements. Reduction of the cerebellum size can cause sleep disorder and difficulties with

**Table 1.** Comparison between studies that also dealt with structural brain imaging of children with prenatal alcohol exposure, aged from 3 to 7 years and investigated their extent using MRI in comparison with control sample

The author of the study	Age	N CS	N EA	Phenotype	Structural abnormalities
Swayze et al. 1997 c	4–29	119 (65)	10 (4)	FAS, FASD	Microcephalies, minor anomalies
Riikonen et al 2005 Riikonen et al. 1999	3–23	10 (5)	12 (7)	FAS, FASD	Reduced hippocampal volume in FAS (L <R)
Lebel et al. 2008	5–13	95 (45)	24 (11)	FASD,	Reduced total brain volume
Johnson et al. 1996 c	4–20	-	6 (3)	FAS	Microcephaly, hypoplasia and agenesis corpus callosum
Bhatara et al. 2002 c	6–35	2 (1)	5 (1)	FAS,	Hypoplasia and agenesis corpus callosum
Archibald et al. 2001	7–24	41 (20)	26 (12)	FAS, FASD,	Reduced cerebral and cerebellar vault, parietal lobe, caudate nucleus in FAS
Bookstein et al. 2007	new-born	21 (16)	23 (10)	FASD	Bigger splenium angle

b Prospective study, c case study, CS – control sample, EA- sample of alcohol exposition. Compiled according to Dev Disabil Res Rev. the author of manuscript, available in PMC 2012 14th of September, published in final version as: : Dev Disabil Res Rev. 2009; 15 (3): 209–217.

balance control. These disorders can also appear among normal looking children without FAS facial abnormalities.

The structural abnormalities in MRI images are elaborately described in Dev Disabil Res Rev (2009; 15 (3): 209–217, as cited in: Norman, A.L., Crocker, N., Mattson, S.N., Riley, E.P.), with citation of the first original studies that confirm significant damage of corpus callosum and cerebellum (Jones and Smith, 1973, 1975; Clarren and Smith, 1978 ; Clarren, 1986 ; Coulter et al., 1993). A well-known FASD study, Mattson et al., (1997), proves the occurrence of structural abnormalities without facial dysmorphism.

## **Neurological abnormalities**

Seizures, problems with coordination, motor difficulties or another less severe neurological disorders.

## **Functional abnormalities**

The average IQ of children with FAS is about 68, compared to general population with an average IQ of 100. When facial anomalies and retarded growth are absent, we talk about a border zone or children with “normal IQ” with behavioural problems, such as impulsiveness, social disorders, misjudgement, mental retardation, inability to learn, poor study results, lowered executive functions, clumsiness, difficulties with balance control, difficulties in writing and drawing, problems with concentration and hyperactivity. (Chasnoff, 2016)

The latest studies, published between 2012 and 2017, are also worth noticing, as they have differentially defined the functional abnormalities mistaken for similar inaccurate diagnosis using research instruments.

Lange, S.; Rovet, J.; Rehm, J.; a a, S.: (as cited in: *BMC Psychol* . 2017; 5: 22., published online 2017 June 23. doi: 10.1186 / s40359-017-0191-2) elaborately analysed similarity between ADHD and FASD. Their findings reveal ten specific characteristics of behaviour recognised by the CBCL instrument, which potentially distinguished children with FASD from children with ADHD, simultaneously with a control group from 6 to 16 years of age.

The study was completed by Breiner, Nulman and Coren (2013) and later by LaFrance (2014) et al.

- They confirmed 94% sensitivity and 96% specificity in identifying children with FASD. However, it is unclear from which group children with FASD were discriminated (if the non-diagnosed group was combined with the control children), as the methods and results sections that describe it are inadequate. Further, this study retrospectively extracted items from CBCL in its entirety.
- This study also assessed possible age and sex-related differences, by comparing 11-year-old children with 12–17-year-old adolescent and boys versus girls.
- The NST showed higher sensitivity among adolescents in comparison with children, for the FASD group and the group of children prenatally exposed to alcohol. For the FASD group only, the NST showed higher sensitivity among boys when compared with girls.
- This study is not only the first to administer the NST as a stand-alone instrument, but it is also the first to differentiate children prenatally exposed to alcohol, who do not meet the criteria for FASD diagnosis, from typically developing control children (LaFrance et al., 2014).

## **FASD Screening in a common population**

There is not any conceptually managed prevention and recognition of children with alcohol exposure in the departments of neurology and paediatrics. Many injured children come to specialists who specialise, within MKCH 10, in types of diagnosis in P, Q, R, G, Z categories, with numbers in more detail. Children up to one year are monitored 9 times in the SR (medical examination by a paediatrician). Screening of the diagnostics of congenital hyperthyroidism, hyperphenylalaninemia, congenital hyperplasia of the adrenal gland (screening of congenital metabolic diseases), obstructive uropathy and limbal dysplasia with the use of ultrasound, was extended by implementation of universal auditory screening and retina reflex examination, which can reveal congenital retinal cataract. That is not enough in the case of FASD, though. According to our findings, many children with FASD are put into medical system along with other diagnoses, e.g. autism, diagnosis of auditory disorders, speech disorders, motor disorders, mixed developmental disorders, etc. Children up to 3 years of age stay at home because of the increased demands on care and therefore their school adaptation fails. Hence, their identification is necessary.

Based on our previously published studies of children diagnosed with FASD spectrum, we are able to measure impairment of domains, such as *cognitive skills/ IQ, organicity, speech/ social communication, development, motor activity and oral motor activity* at the age up to 36 months.

At the age from 37 months to 70 months, apart from the above-mentioned domains, we are able to measure impairments of domains, *such as adaptive/ social behaviour, psychiatric diagnosis, behaviour/ concentration/ activity, control of behaviour/ sensorimotor integration, abstract thinking, memory/ learning/ information processing, social skills and adaptive behaviour.*

## **Primary non-medical screening of FASD**

The objective of the study was mapping of selected screening data in children aged from 3 to 7 years in general population and identification of impaired domains with the domains indicating FASD. There were 173 children, 3 to 7 years of age, 74 of whom were boys.

The research was conducted by our facility in cooperation with partners, mainly with the specialized employees of the Health Prevention consulting facility.

The hypothesis was focused on answering whether it is possible to recognize children with FASD in general population by non-medical facilities that work in the field of early care and intervention. In the monitored children, we found out moderate and significant deviations in the domains connected with FASD symptoms (visual perception, speech, hearing, sociability, attitude to work, gross and fine motor skills, height, weights, head circumference, philtrum and sensory behaviour).

## **Research Methodology**

Cognitive screening was implemented in a questionnaire for elementary school teachers (Gerbová, M, 2017). It includes items such as visual perception, speech, hearing, sociability, attitude to work and concentration. It ranges from 0 to 3, where 0 represents norm, 1 represents mild impairment, 2 represents impairment and 3 represents danger.

For anthropometric measurements (height, weight, head circumference, philtrum), the standardized charts for Slovak population of boys and girls at the age of 3 to 18 years were used. In the case of philtrum, we used the scale assessing lips and philtrum typical of the white race, based on Susan Astley's manual from 2004. The above-mentioned self-administered cognitive screening questionnaire was used to compare visual perception, speech, sociability, attitude towards work and concentration (Gerbová, M., 2017).

Hearing was examined by two instruments:

- Audiometric calibrated audiometer. It is a portable diagnostic instrument, Senti from Path Medical Company, which measures an audiogram of a child up to 3 years of age, by means of the so-called interactive psycho-acoustical test MAGIC (Multiple-Choice Auditory Graphical Interactive Check). During this test, a child plays with the tool and it successively assesses the hearing thresholds of the child. Various images (symbols) of animals representing different frequencies are displayed on the touch screen of the device. In younger children aged 3 to 4, we measured frequencies of 500 Hz, 1000 Hz, 2000 Hz, 3000 Hz, 4000 Hz and in older children aged from 5, we measured 8 frequencies of 250 Hz, 500 Hz, 1000 Hz, 2000 Hz, 3000 Hz, 4000 Hz, 6000 Hz, 8000 Hz, taking the disturbing surroundings into account.
- Self-administered cognitive screening as a questionnaire for elementary school teachers (Gerbová, M, 2017).

Gross and fine motor skills were measured by the physiotherapeutic tests: T-239 test of specific learning disabilities (Novák), subtests: A subtest- spatial orientation, B subtest- body schema orientation, C subtest- sideways orientation at the opposite plane, fine motor skill test.

Ozeret's test – ball throwing, hand circles, putting matches into the box

Sensory Profile, Pearson Clinical measured sensory processing from the age of 3.

## **Study Results**

Cognitivity: we measured mild impairment – impairment of visual perception in 10.983% (19 children), speech in 45.665% (79 children), sociability 39.306% (68 children), attitude towards work in 23.121% (40 children), concentration in 6.3584% (11 children).

Anthropometry: we measured 29 children (16.763%) with height delay ranging from 3 to 25%, 34 children with weight delay 19.653% ranging from 3 to 25%, 19 children 10.983% with developmental delay of head circumference ranging from 3 to 25%. 52 children (30.058%) with philtrum established by value 3 and 4.

Hearing:

- audiometric – as many as 58.382% of the children (101) met the criteria of risk registered in the right ear at the frequency of 2000 Hz with 8.6705% risk and in the left ear at the frequency of 500 Hz with 19.075% risk.
- 34.104% of the children (59) met the criteria of mild impairment to impairment with values 1 to 2 in self-administered cognitive screening for elementary school teachers (Gerbová, M. 2017).

In the case of the gross and fine motor skills test, 57 children met the criteria of impairment (value 2) in gross motor skills and 29 children in fine motor skills. It amounts to 49.711%, which means almost a half of the total number.

Sensory processing shows norm values in 165 children. Values with deviation of +1SD and +2SD were found only in 8 children in the areas of emotional answer, motor and touch processing and oral processing.

## **The use of study results for multidisciplinary screening**

In the screening of the study we recorded 16.763% of children with height delay, 19.653% of children with weight delay and 10.983% of children with delay

of head circumference. As much as 30.058% of the total number of children had the values of philtrum ranged between 3 and 4. From the FASD prospective, these children met the criteria for risk, concerning the anthropometric data. Since many Canadian and American studies have described numerous diagnostic criteria for FASD in the multidisciplinary process, we can confirm, based on our results and literature mentioned above, that FASD could be diagnosed also in children without facial anomalies. In our sample, impaired cognitvity range was 6.3584% (concentration), visual perception (10.983%), attitude towards work (23.121%), sociability (39.306%), speech (45.665%). Based on the audiometric measurements, hearing was impaired in 58.382% of the children, mainly at 2000Hz frequency for the right ear and 500Hz frequency for the left ear, prevailing in the left ear. Only 34.104% of the children were impaired in the cognitive questionnaire.

Gross and fine motor skills were impaired in 49.711% of the children. Only 8 children had their sensory processing impaired in the areas of emotional answer, motor and touch processing and oral processing.

In the case of auditory impairment, we continued to implement control measurement, which did not confirmed auditory processing disorder under laboratory conditions. Activities such as an assessment of the severity of alcohol exposure were examined in the sample.

For further implementation of the study results, we suggest creating multidisciplinary teams in regional towns. They can differ depending on community infrastructure, usually consisting of a coordinator, a doctor, a psychologist, a logopaedist, a special pedagogue and a social worker. The team collects information about the child and their family, monitors their specific needs and assesses the objectives. Coordinators at the regional level should focus on finding out the child's current needs and coordinate supporting interventional and community services. Early care givers could provide not only the important diagnostic support, but also the objectivity of data collection during diagnostics and intervention.

Prenatal alcohol exposure confirmation is a complicated process, which includes reliable resources, ideally during pregnancy. Multidisciplinary assessment offers data about predictors and prognosis of cognitive and adaptive functioning of multiple domains and brain functions that are significant and dynamically developing in children up to 7 years of age. Screening (Hanlon-Dearman, A.; Green, H.R.; Andrew, G.; LeBlanc, N.; Cook, J.L., 2015) is considered to be a proper way of the naming of functional strong points and children's needs. They could be taken into consideration in the inclusive educational or therapeutical intentions of the child

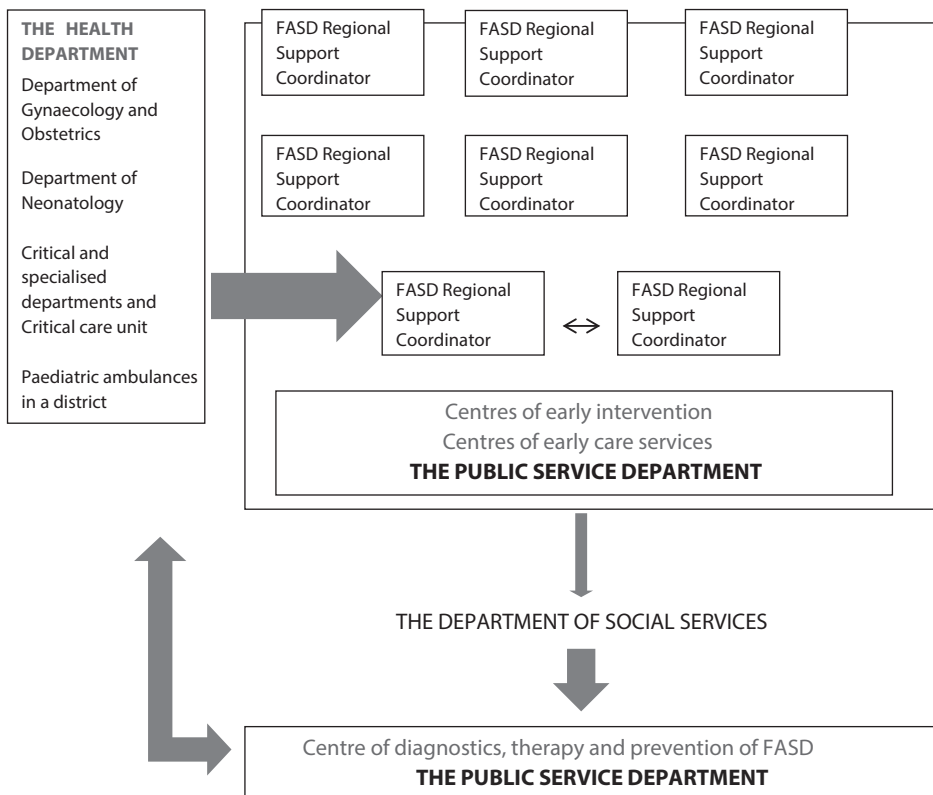


in the community and subsequently specified in further differential diagnostics. At their early age, these children can be stabilised and inserted into supporting inclusive systems that create supporting networks of early services.

### **Crucial solutions and strategies recommended for FASD in the system of early care in the SR**

#### **The algorithm**

According to the above-mentioned recommendations instruments and strategies, we suggest the following algorithm of early care in the case of FASD spectrum:



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# New Educational Review

## The Research on the Efficiency of the Methods of Talent Management within Organizations

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### Abstract

The study presents the results of research based on the review and identification of significant talent management methods used in different types of organizations. The study interprets the results of research conducted in 2016 on the set of 301 various companies operating in the Czech Republic. The authors of the study assume that the efficiency of the whole talent management should be based on the efficiency of its well-chosen methods. The research showed that there is a different understanding and application of talent management methods by organization management according to the size and legal form of the organization (company).

**Keywords:** *talent management, efficiency of methods, large organizations, small organizations, adult education, identification of talents, development of talents, retention of talents*

### Introduction

First we need to make clear what is the relationship of efficiency of different methods<sup>1</sup> of talent management and efficiency of the entire talent management. It is very important to realize that talent management alone could not exist without

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<sup>1</sup> The efficiency of the method means the ratio of all costs and inputs required for the use of a particular method, and all the benefits and outputs that a particular method achieves.

its processes and thus not without its methods. It is, therefore, misleading to talk about talent management without its components and it would be an empty concept. We will, therefore, assume that talent management is a set of activities, processes, tools and methods applied in the management of talented individuals in the organization. Under this assumption, we will consider the efficiency of talent management as a synergy effect of all of its elements. The efficiency of talent management is, therefore, a result of the effects of talent management efforts, both tangible and intangible, effects of using methods of talent management in individual processes (identification, development and retention of talents) and their related activities. Concepts of talent management and their problems can be also semi-finished by a lot of authors, e.g., Lewis, & Heckman (2006); Swailes (2016); McDonnell, Collings, Mellahi, & Schuler (2017) and Khoreva, Vaiman, & Van Zalk (2017).

Hatum (2010, p. 15) claims that “*there is no single blueprint for effective talent management*”. However, we dare to say that to be talent management effective, the cumulative effects of all its components must be observable and demonstrable in the positive result. Hatum (2010, p. 129) points out that inconsistency in talent management programs result is contrary to risks efficiency of their methods, staff frustration and talented individuals frustration.

To be able to objectively evaluate the performance of entire talent management, we should first dismantle the efficiency of all its components and consolidate their effects. Analysis of all components are beyond the scope of this study, therefore we focus only on the efficiency of methods of talent management, divided according to Kursch (2016a, p. 168). Over the efficiency of the whole program of talent management, we will consider only the total of the effects of its methods, and eliminate other influences, therefore assume no effects unrelated to their own methods and applications.

The research goal was to explore if methods perceived as effective for talent management are related to their frequent use in organizations, then which methods are considered most effective and whether efficiency is measured or not.

## **Research problem and questions**

We started with the proposition that the efficiency of talent management depends on the efficiency of its methods. We considered identification, development and retention of talented people as base methods. From our foundations, the following research problem is derived:

- **P:** How is the efficiency of talent management methods perceived in organizations of different types and sizes?

This research problem includes the following research questions:

- **Q1:** What methods do organizations consider as effective? (large – small, private – public), (related hypothesis: H1)
- **Q2:** Which methods are, according to organizations, most efficient for the identification of talents? (large – small, private – public), (related hypothesis: H2).
- **Q3:** Which methods are, according to organizations, most efficient for the development of talents? (large – small, private – public), (related hypothesis: H3).
- **Q4:** Which methods are, according to organizations, most efficient for the retention of talents? (large – small, private – public), (related hypothesis: H4, H5).
- **Q5:** Is the efficiency of talent management measured? (large – small, private – public).

## Hypotheses<sup>2</sup>

- **H1:** Methods that are used in organizations most often are also reported to be the most effective ones.
- **H2:** Private organizations consider an interview with experts as a more effective method for identification of talents than public organizations.
- **H3:** Large private organizations, contrary to small organizations, consider several methods based on individual development (coaching, mentoring, counselling, assistance, job rotation, individual development plan) as the most effective methods of developing talents.
- **H4:** Public organizations consider methods for the retention of talents on the basis of non-financial benefits as more effective than private organizations.
- **H5:** With the larger size of private organizations, the indicated efficiency of financial valuation decreases.

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<sup>2</sup> These five hypotheses make up only a part of the complete research, where twenty-two hypotheses were tested, so the research questions were appropriately sourced by research hypotheses and we could make objective conclusions.

## **Research Sample**

The sample was selected from the population of all organizations that have more than 5 employees and their headquarters in the Czech Republic. Population<sup>3</sup> is, therefore, all the organizations in the Czech Republic with more than 5 employees. The research tool was a carefully prepared questionnaire. We could not count on 100% returnability. If we want to reach an organization randomly, returned results will be in a small number (it can be assumed to be less than 20%) and heavily dependent on self-selection, i.e., the decision to answer or not. In our research, we focus primarily on organizations using talent management and its methods, thus self-selection here will not play a major role in distorting. The resulting parameters of the sample are summarized in Table 1.

Furthermore, the comparison of representativeness of the sample was conducted on the basis of the returned e-mail addresses of the distribution business sector in the population. The results are shown in Table 2.

**Table 1.** The resulting parameters of quantitative research

	Private25	Private25-250	Private250	Public
Population	52 212	17 034	1 468	12 762
Usable_mail/db	24 300	12 300	739	2 450
Usable_mail/populace	46.54%	72.21%	50.34%	19.20%
Summary/db	24 300	12 300	739	2 450
Random pattern	2 430	1 230	739	2 450
Pattern/usable_mail	10.00%	10.00%	100.00%	100.00%
Sent_summary	2 430	1 230	739	2 450
Reminded	1 x	1 x	2 x	not reminded
Returned	313	174	194	119
Date of execution	8.7. 2014 – 10.11. 2014	10.11.2014 – 5.1.2015	22.4. 2014 – 8.7.2014	5.1.2015 – 15.2.2015
Published E-mail returned	177	91	130	80
Returnability	12.88%	14.15%	26.25%	4.86%

<sup>3</sup> The concept of the population (or subpopulation) is used in statistical significance and represents a basic set (or part of it), cf. e.g., Hendl (2006, p. 37) and Veteška (2016b, p. 239).

	Private25	Private25-250	Private250	Public
Use TM	96	51	97	57
Ratio use TM/returned	30.67%	29.31%	50.00%	47.90%

Source: Own processing

Note: Private\_25 = organizations with less than 25 employees; Private\_25–250 = organizations from 25 to 250 employees; Private\_250 = organizations with more than 250 employees; Public = public organizations of all sizes; Population = the total number of organizations targeted by the criteria (number of employees); Usable\_mail/db = the number of organizations that can be reached from the database (indicated by e-mail); Usable\_mail/population = ratio of applicable organizations to population (percentage); Summary/db = total number of useful contacts; Random pattern = selected samples of the population, random 10% if there is a large population, 100% for small populations; Pattern/usable\_mail = ratio of selected random contacts (percentage); Sent\_summary = real number of organizations to which the survey was sent; Reminded = number of reminders during research; Returned = the number of returned useful answers; Date of execution = date of research and its duration; Published E-mail returned = the number of returnees who identified via e-mail; Returnability = percentage ratio of returned answers to the number of those where survey was sent; Use TM = the number of organizations that work with talents; Ratio use TM/returned = proportion of organizations that deal with talent management to returned answers;

**Table 2.** Verifying the representativeness of the sample – economic entities by business sector (private organizations only)

Industry group	Total	Ratio total	Returned total	Total rt ratio	Population expected	Selection expected	Chi square
Agriculture, hunting and forestry	3 2007	4.9%	12	3.0%	3 207	19.62	2.96
Mining and quarrying	142	0.2%	2	0.5%	142	0.87	1.47
Production	14 206	21.8%	101	25.4%	14 206	86.93	2.28
Manufacturing industry	1 417	2.2%	10	2.5%	1 417	8.67	0.2
Production and distribution of electricity gas, water, heat	1 410	2.2%	4	1.0%	1 410	8.63	2.48
Building	7 822	12.0%	45	11.3%	7 822	47.86	0.17
Trade	15 275	23.5%	97	24.4%	15 275	93.47	0.13
Transport	3 832	5.9%	10	2.5%	3 832	23.45	7.71
Services	16 265	25.0%	109	27.4%	16 265	99.53	0.90
Other	418	0.6%	1	0.3%	418	2.56	0.95
Financial services	832	1.3%	6	1.5%	832	5.09	0.16



Industry group	Total	Ratio total	Returned total	Total rt ratio	Population expected	Selection expected	Chi square
Research and development	215	0.3%	1	0.3%	215	1.32	0.08
SUMMARY	65 041	100.0%	398	100.0%	65 041	398.00	19.50

Source: ČSÚ [Czech Statistical Office – Business subjects by legal form and number of employees (ref: ORG5021UU\_KR)] – own processing

Note: Total = the absolute frequency of organizations in the population; Ratio total = relative frequency in the population organizations; Returned total = number of returned answers; Total rt\_ratio = relative number of returned answers; Population expected = expected frequency in the population (equal to the absolute); Selection expected = expected frequency in the sample of returned answers; Chi square = partial compliance calculations (Chi-squared test).

## Calculation of representativeness of pattern with Chi-squared test

$n_o$  – expected frequency

$n_e$  – experimental frequency

Test criteria:

$$\chi^2 = \sum \frac{(n_{ei} - n_{oi})^2}{n_{oi}} =$$

$$= \frac{(12 - 19.62)^2}{19.62} + \frac{(2 - 0.87)^2}{0.87} + \frac{(101 - 86.93)^2}{86.93} + \frac{(10 - 8.67)^2}{8.67} + \frac{(4 - 8.63)^2}{0.87}$$

$$+ \frac{(45 - 47.86)^2}{0.87} + \frac{(97 - 93.47)^2}{0.87} + \frac{(10 - 23.45)^2}{0.87} + \frac{(109 - 99.53)^2}{0.87} + \frac{(1 - 2.56)^2}{0.87}$$

$$+ \frac{(6 - 5.09)^2}{0.87} + \frac{(1 - 1.32)^2}{0.87} = 19.5$$

Degrees of freedom:

$$\nu = m - 1 = 11$$

Critical values corresponding levels  $\alpha = 0.05$  and  $\alpha = 0.1$  and given degree of freedom:

$$\chi^2_{0.95}(11) = 19.677$$

$$\chi^2_{0.90}(11) = 17.276$$

We find:

$\chi^2 < \chi^2_{0.95}(11) \Rightarrow$  the difference between the measured and expected frequency is not statistically significant at the 0.05 level of significance.

**Conclusion:** The sample is considered representative, statistically it is not significantly different from the population.

It can be stated that even the representativeness of the returned sample of responses from private organizations is satisfactory, since the distribution of the business sectors in the sample corresponds approximately to the distribution of the sectors of the population. Also, **Chi-squared test** shows that there is no significant difference in the distribution of sectors in the population and distribution sectors in the organizations. Public organizations are dominantly prevalent in the population schools (unless you count church organizations, municipalities and municipals)<sup>4</sup>, as well as in our sample of returned answers<sup>5</sup>, but we cannot make a conclusion of the representativeness of public organizations due to the small sample.<sup>6</sup>

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<sup>4</sup> It also includes associations, endowment funds, foundations, associations (federation, union, society, club, etc.), an organizational unit of the association, an association of legal entities, hunting communities, etc., were not taken into account as a public employee organizations and are not subject to our research.

<sup>5</sup> The most important aspect for all quantitative research was to get the questionnaire into the right hands. To secure that the answers were really valid, it was necessary to ensure that the relevant employee is either a human resource staff member dealing with talent management or a member of the management team working with talents or a representative of leadership familiar with this issue. Failure to do so may have caused distortion. This goal was achieved in two ways. The first was the purchase of a professional contact database, verified by other clients, and the second one was the pre-research implementation to verify the above-mentioned aspect of the “right matching, representing the entire organization”, confirming the validity of the overall research. A cover letter (e-mail) also put emphasis on this aspect, as well as explaining the importance of representing the entire organization, its goals and talent management programs in response, and not the attitudes and opinions of the evaluator. However, we realized that there might still be distortions affecting the results. These distortions, meanwhile, can only be minimal due to positive and negative effects after averaging all the results. Pre-research, therefore, identified the necessary facts that served as a basis for measures to ensure the validity of the final research.

<sup>6</sup> Our database has 2 450 usable e-mail contacts, 98 % of which were schools (elementary, middle, high).

## Research Results

Answers to the hypotheses are presented, including discussions on the connections found.

- H1<sup>7</sup>: Methods that are used in organizations most often are also reported to be the most effective ones (connections, cf. Table 3).

The values of the probability of random match are shown in Table 3. The actual matches are visibly larger and it is a recognizably strong association between the use of the most common methods and their highest regarded efficiency. The relationship was proved and we can **confirm the hypothesis**<sup>8</sup>.

**Table 3.** Association between the use of the most common and considered the efficiency of methods of talent management by individual processes and the forms and sizes of organizations

organization/ at least most used- most effective match	Identification (%)				Development (%)				Retention (%)			
	all	at least 2	at least 1	zero	all	at least 2	at least 1	zero	all	at least 2	at least 1	zero
organization/ most used-most effective match												
small private organizations	24.0	74.0	99.0	1.0	20.8	62.5	90.6	9.4	35.4	92.7	100.0	0.0
middle private organizations	23.5	76.5	98.0	2.0	13.7	66.7	94.1	5.9	39.2	100.0	100.0	0.0
large private organizations	22.7	70.1	95.9	4.1	16.5	58.8	89.7	10.3	35.1	86.6	99.0	1.0
private organiza- tions total	23.4	73.0	97.5	2.5	17.6	61.9	91.0	9.0	36.1	91.8	99.6	0.4
public organiza- tions	17.5	61.4	93.0	7.0	19.3	59.6	91.2	8.8	54.4	96.5	100.0	0.0
random match	0.5	12.7	61.8	38.2	0.2	8.1	51.7	48.3	5.0	50.0	95.0	5.0

Source: Own processing

<sup>7</sup> For each hypothesis, the operationalization of the variables were performed and their values (frequency of responses) compared.

<sup>8</sup> Also Chi-squared test showed that there is significant difference between our results and random match.

**Calculation:** We assumed that we had a selection from 12 methods for identification, from 15 methods for developing and from 6 methods for keeping talents. First, we selected from each group 3 methods used most often and then again three methods considered to be most effective. If we made this choice randomly, a match would be in different groups with probability  $\frac{1}{C(n,3)}$ , where  $n$  is number of methods and  $C(n,3)$  refers to a combination of all three from  $n$ . A match of at least 2 methods would be with the probability  $\frac{1+3 \times (n-3)}{C(n,3)}$ , a match with at least 1 method with the probability  $\frac{C(n,3)-C(n-3,3)}{C(n,3)}$ , no match with the probability  $1 - \frac{C(n,3)-C(n-3,3)}{C(n,3)}$ .

- **H2:** Private organizations consider an interview with experts as a more effective method for identification of talents than public organizations.

**This hypothesis cannot be confirmed.** Our findings point to the fact that in private organizations the method is used in 36 %, in public in 45 %. Originally, we assumed that private organizations can afford to pay experts to identify talents and therefore use this method more than public organizations, where there is a problem with funding. However, probably the factor of an abundance of experts in public organizations (such as schools, the teacher is an expert in the field) interfered with our results and therefore paradoxically an interview with an expert is cheaper in public organizations. The hypothesis is, therefore, refuted. Another reason may be the great efficiency of assessment centres in large organizations, where these centres are likely to have an interview with an expert.

- **H3:** Large private organizations, contrary to small organizations, consider several methods based on individual development (coaching, mentoring, counselling, assistance, job rotation, individual development plan) as the most effective methods of developing talents.

**This hypothesis can be confirmed** (cf., Table 4). Large private organizations label more often some of the methods on an individual basis between the three most effective methods, as opposed to small private organizations. Small organizations assign greater efficiency to methods of remuneration, valuation, education and special training. Explanations can be derived from the size of the organization again. Thanks to the greater anonymity of large companies, there are greater opportunities of moving and development (vertical and horizontal development) thanks to methods which are, on an individual basis, considered highly effective compared to those in small organizations. Another reason may

be the fact that in small organizations, because of their size, access to talented employees is regarded as individual (less interaction between people, narrower definition of objectives, etc.). Costs of a purely individual approach may also be high for a small organization. It is also necessary to mention that, e.g., mentoring is used in large organizations to resolve disputes with superiors, which could affect the reported efficiency.

**Table 4.** The efficiency of methods based on individual development

Organ-ization/ method	Couching	Mentoring	Counseling	Assistance	Work rotation	Individual development plan
large	46%	34%	0%	5%	26%	53%
small	30%	20%	2%	14%	18%	31%

Source: Own processing

- **H4:** Public organizations consider methods for the retention of talents on the basis of non-financial benefits as more effective than private organizations.

The difference is not so great – 94% of public, 81% private, but detectable. **So the hypothesis can be confirmed.** The explanation is the inability of public organizations to use multiple financial valuation (lack of funds), and less anonymity in public organizations and perhaps even force of non-financial rewards for social prestige in the public sector.

- **H5:** With the larger size of private organizations, the indicated efficiency of financial valuation decreases.

**We can confirm the hypothesis.** A downward trend is evident. Large private organizations consider the financial valuation as the most efficient in 59%, moderate in 71 % and small in 77%. For public organizations, on the contrary, financial valuation is considered as the most effective in the entire 94%. The considered large efficiency of financial valuation for public organizations is likely due to the lower nominal salary value of its employees, which is why many of them go to the private sphere and therefore valuation is very effective to retain such individuals. On the contrary, in large private organizations talented people deserve to be paid well, the company realizes their importance and thus valuing is not the most

effective technique. To keep talented employees requires a more sophisticated approach, combining multiple methods and differentiation of competition.

## **Answers to our research questions**

Let us review our goals we set at the beginning of this study. All the research questions related to the research problem P - the perceived (considered) efficiency of methods of talent management in different types and sizes of organizations.

- **Q1:** What methods do organizations consider as effective? (large – small, private – public), (related hypothesis: H1)

The most effective seem to be methods that are also most frequently used. When organizations consider methods that they often use themselves as effective methods, we can say that the selection of methods does not encounter any obstacles or lack of resources, but organizations choose methods proven to be efficient. Otherwise, there would have to be a very weak correlation between the reported efficiency and the most frequently used methods.

- **Q2:** Which methods are, according to organizations, most efficient for the identification of talents? (large – small, private – public), (related hypothesis: H2).

The methods considered most effective for identifying talented employees are presented in Table 5. Special assignment and evaluation are considered the most effective methods for identifying talents. For private organizations, they also precede the interview with an expert method.

- **Q3:** Which methods are, according to organizations, most efficient for the development of talents? (large – small, private – public), (related hypothesis: H3).

The methods considered most effective for developing talents are shown in Table 5. Education and training play the most important role in the development of talents and are considered the most effective method. For large private organizations, however, they come to the fore as methods based on individual development (coaching, mentoring, job rotation, individual development plan).

- **Q4:** Which methods are, according to organizations, most efficient for the retention of talents? (large – small, private – public), (related hypothesis: H4, H5).

The method considered most effective for retaining talents are presented in Table 5. There are non-financial rewards and financial valuation. For public organizations, what is primarily used is non-financial remuneration, compared to private organizations. Especially in large private organizations, the efficiency of financial and non-financial reward valuation increases, to the detriment of the efficiency of methods of individual development (career growth, special development programs).

**Table 5.** Three methods considered most effective in organizations

Cosidered most effective methods	Small organizations	Middle organizations	Large organizations	Public organizations
Identification	Special task Comparison of needed improvement in time Ongoing evaluation	Ongoing evaluation Special task Comparison of needed improvement in time	Ongoing evaluation Spicial task Review with expert in target area	Spicial task Ongoing evaluation Review with expert in target area
Development	Special training Remuneration (non financial) Edcation within organization	Special training Educa- tion within organization Individual personal development	Individual personal development Special Traing Couching	Remuneration (non financial) Valuation (fincial) Special training
Retention	Remuneration (non financial) Valuation (financial) Individual personal development	Individual personal development Remuneration (non financial) Valuation (fincial)	Individual personal development Remuneration (non financial) Valuation (fincial)	Remuneration (non financial) Valuation (fincial) Individual personal development

Source: Own processing

- **Q5:** Is the efficiency of talent management measured? (large – small, private – public).

The efficiency of methods of talent management is measured only in a small proportion of organizations working with talented employees. It amounts to about 25% of private organizations and 11% of public organizations. If organizations use talent management, then they do not usually have any instructions or recommendations on how to measure the efficiency of its methods. We found that organizations consider the most commonly used methods as effective as possible. A relationship has been demonstrated between frequent use and deemed efficiency. We did not find special ways of measuring and most organizations do not measure efficiency or do not know how to measure it. However, even with the organizations

that have indicated that efficiency measures were highly questionable outlined metrics and only in some cases were reliable and valid.

## **Other Conclusions**

- The method considered most effective for identifying talents is ongoing evaluation and special assignment. Based on theoretical assumptions, assessment centres should be considered as the most effective, but they are not. The cause is likely to be the financial difficulty of using assessment centres by some organizations.
- The method considered most effective in developing talent is continuing education and special training. Allowing further education plays a significant role in developing talent. Education is seen as the most effective method for developing talents in all scales of private and public organizations.
- The method considered most effective for keeping (retaining) talents is rewarding and valuation. This is hardly surprising, but it has been shown that the size of private organizations decreases the importance of rewarding and valuing and also other methods come to the fore. The explanation can be derived from the size of the organization. Thanks to the greater anonymity of large companies, greater opportunities to move (vertical and horizontal development) in large companies are the methods considered very effective on an individual basis, compared to small organizations. Another reason may be the fact that in small organization, access to talented employees is considered “individual” (less interaction between people, narrower definition of objectives, etc.). Costs of a purely individual approach may also be high for a small organization. It should also be noted that, e.g., mentoring is used in large organizations to resolve disputes with the direct superior, which could affect the reported efficiency.
- Efficiency of the methods is measured very rarely, they are not compared with each other, but rather against the existence and absence of the use of each method. Organizations are not able to compare the efficiency of several methods of talent management under *ceteris paribus*. Comparison of the efficiency of methods is demanding and when organizations compare the efficiency of the methods, it is more about intuition and long experience than an exact process.



- Where the efficiency of methods is measured, it is always in the context of a specific organization, but without isolation of other variables (e.g., a random factor, the number of proposals for improvement efficiency of algorithms, etc.). As indicated in the study, organizations that reported that they measure efficiency, use some simple indicators to determine the efficiency of talent management methods.
- There is no universal metric measuring the efficiency of the methods of talent management, but organizations using talent management implement different talent management metrics, processes, ways to demonstrate the benefits of talent management. There is demand for possibilities and ways of measuring the efficiency of methods of talent management and therefore it can be assumed that they will increase over time, together with the increasing implementation of talent management programs in organizations.
- Smaller private and public organizations work with talented employees more intuitively, less systematically and less formally, but certainly talents are supported using available and known methods for their identification, development and retention, like in large organizations. Research has shown that the methods used in various large organizations are not fundamentally different, although there are differences in the assumed efficiency and frequency of use of methods, but even these differences are very small.

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## A Three-dimensional Model of Resistance in Education

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### Abstract

The article attempts to systematize the issue of resistance manifestations in the context of education. The analyses presented in the article are an introduction to designing a three-dimensional model of resistance, which enables to examine acts of resistance from the angle of their three intertwined aspects: action, space and motivation. They are basic layers determining the analysis range of particular displays of resistance in education and society. These dimensions were developed based on the analysis of theoretical and empirical literature regarding the issue of resistance and on the author's own research on this phenomenon.

**Keywords:** *three-dimensional model of resistance, action dimension of resistance, motivation dimension of resistance, space dimension of resistance, education*

### Introduction

As indicated by numerous publications (Hollander & Einwohner, 2004; Raby, 2005; Johansson & Vinthagen 2014), resistance is a complex and multidimensional category, which means it is difficult to grasp and interpret. On the one hand, it is a disadvantage resulting from a definition of the notion being either too broad or too narrow, but on the other hand, it is an advantage showing the significance of resistance as an analytical category, a tool for interpreting reality, and/or a mean of changing the existing order.

The aim of the article is to present a three-dimensional model of resistance in education, a result of an analysis of the respective literature and the author's

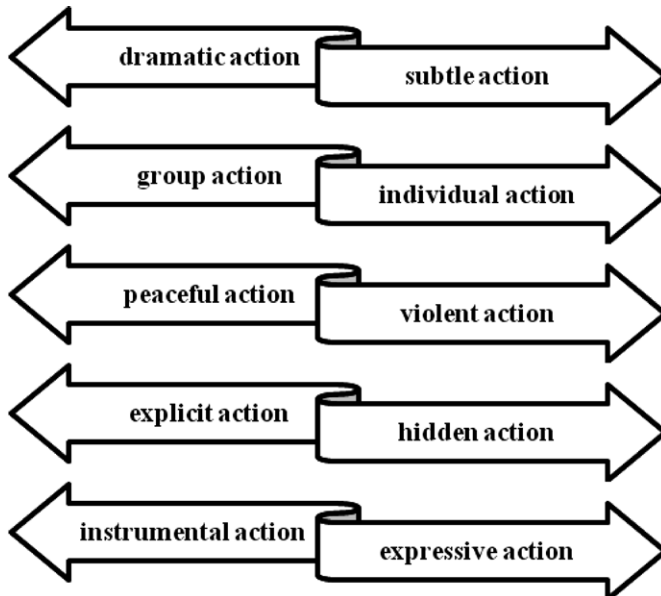
own research. The presented outline is an attempt to create an analytical tool for describing acts of resistance that occur mostly in educational space. The model proposed in this article extends beyond the existing models of resistance because it does not focus solely on the relation between the subjects participating in the act of resistance, as in the model by Hollander and Einwohner (2004), it is not only limited to the affective aspect being the primary aspect in the analyses of opposition actions, as in the model by Hynes (2013), and it does not limit defining resistance dimensions in the context of power, as in the concept of multidimensional character of resistance by Johansson and Vinthagen (2014). The model in this article is an attempt to combine and develop the aforementioned proposals. While introducing the category of the polarization of acts of resistance, the dialectics typical of this social phenomenon was taken into consideration. Polarization makes it possible to present how different continuums of resistance intertwine, to show its multiple aspects, and to conduct a complex analysis. The continuums of resistance in the aspect of action, motivation and space that are presented in this article do not constitute a closed list but are intended to show its multiple dimensions.

### **Action – a fundamental aspect of resistance**

Despite the multiplicity of approaches to defining resistance, researchers agree that action is the core of this phenomenon (Hollander and Einwohner, 2004). It is worth noticing that acting, being a key sociological category crucial for describing and explaining social life, is also fundamental to understanding resistance as a phenomenon constituting the social world of an individual. For the purpose of analyses, the article assumes Arendt's understanding of 'action'. The author derives her concept from the Greek and Latin etymology of this word. "To the two Greek verbs *archein* ('to begin', 'to lead', finally 'to rule') and *prattein* ('to pass through', 'to achieve', 'to finish') correspond the two Latin verbs *agere* ('to set into motion', 'to lead') and *gerere* (whose original meaning is 'to bear'). Here it seems as though each action is divided into two parts, the beginning made by a single person and the achievement in which many join by 'bearing' and 'finishing' the enterprise, by seeing it through" (Arendt 1998, p.189). According to Arendt, people distinguish themselves from others by acting and speaking. This is how they reveal "their unique personal identities" (p.179) and appear in the world, thus beginning their own story.

At school, or during a lesson or a break, one can encounter a wide-ranging repertoire of opposition actions of students, teachers and other members of the

school community, which can sometimes take opposite forms. This repertoire of daily acts of resistance comprising different forms, types, tactics and techniques is one of the resistance dimensions distinguished by Johansson and Vinthagen (2014). Limiting the dimension of resistance only to the repertoire of opposition actions makes this approach too narrow. For this reason, the author proposes describing resistance through the prism of its action dimension, which has a broader meaning and allows for placing a particular act of resistance in the social, political and cultural contexts that create this act. Through this, the same form of resistance might be seen as a dramatic action in one context and as a subtle action in another. What is more, the processual character of acting, which is not noticeable while analyzing resistance only from the perspective of the repertoire of its forms, is also emphasized. The processual character of acts of resistance promotes the occurrence of polarization (Figure 1).



**Figure 1.** Polarization of resistance actions

The first continuum is made up of dramatic actions and subtle actions. The former are of spectacular character, drawing the attention of the subject they are aimed at as well as the observers. Their obviousness makes them easily defined as opposition. Examples of such opposition actions are social movements, demonstrations, and strikes (Ølgaard, 2015).

At the other end of the discussed continuum, there are subtle actions, which occur more frequently but are not as spectacular as dramatic actions. Also, they are more often found in the actions of one person. Scott (1985, p.29) claimed that this type of actions are examples of everyday resistance, they require little or no coordination and they avoid a direct symbolic confrontation with the subject that they are aimed at. An example of such action is everyday resistance of pupils in the classroom, including participation in activities that are not allowed during lessons, e.g., playing games, or surfing the Internet on a mobile phone.

Group actions and individual actions create another continuum in the discussed dimension. The criterion for distinguishing between them is the number of people taking part in a particular act of resistance. Group opposition actions are displayed by social movements. Between them and individual actions, there are group actions reserved for a structured community, e.g., teachers. Individual acts, on the other hand, are acts of resistance performed by a single person. An example of such an action can be wearing a specific outfit that does not fit in the dress code specified by school regulations (Babicka-Wirkus 2015).

A popular distinction in literature (e.g., Roberts & Ash, 2009) is placing resistance on the continuum created by the aspect of violence and lack thereof. Therefore, there are opposition actions which are peaceful. They occur in the situations of protests and demonstrations which are based on neither verbal nor non-verbal violence. An example of such actions can be a nationwide protest of students against the ruling party in Poland. Violent acts of resistance are also visible in the school environment. They include all forms of aggression directed at teachers or pupils. Examples of this type of resistance are dramatic events, such as school shootings (Everytown for Gun Safety, 2017), or aggression and violence occurring in the teacher-pupil relation.

Next continuum is created by explicit and hidden actions. The former are easily recognizable by the subject they are aimed at, as well as the observers (Einwohner & Hollander, 2004). The latter are more difficult to observe since they aim at expressing symbolic opposition to signs of power and dominance rather than directly confronting them. This type of resistance remains within the limits set by the authority and, according to Scott (1985), it also has potential for political change. The opposite view is presented by Genovese (1974). An example of hidden resistance can be students extending the performance of tasks that their teacher gave them, which disrupts the lesson.

Opposition between instrumental and expressive actions (Bielska, 2013) creates the last continuum in the action dimension. Instrumental actions aim at achieving a given individual or group goal. An example of such a type of resistance can

be students' loud countdown to the end of lesson, with the aim of undermining the unofficial school rule that says that 'the school bell is for the teacher, not for the student'. Expressive actions result from the internal needs of an individual. They can be a manifestation of students' moral disagreement with their teacher's behavior. Nevertheless, they often coexist with instrumental actions.

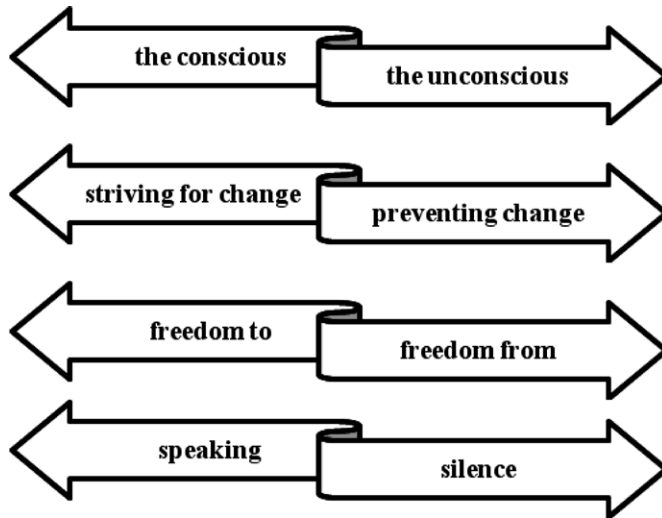
## **Motivation dimension of resistance**

A significant dimension of resistance is the motivation dimension. It shows the reasons for undertaking an opposition action, which are crucial for understanding the significance of a particular act to the person performing it as well as for the goal it is aimed at and for the observer. In a broad sense, motivation is "the general term for all the processes involved in starting, directing, and maintaining physical and psychological activities" (Gerrig, 2013, p.298). According to Arendt (1998), a motivation to act is the individual's drive to self-realization. This approach to motivation is in line with the assumptions of humanistic psychology, which says that needs determine human actions (Fromm, 1969). As a result of social changes, new needs and fears arise, which consequently causes a change in aspirations. Therefore, motivations result from interior, conscious or unconscious, needs of an individual that are shaped by the outside world. Action, on the other hand, is a process which aims at exceeding the existing boundaries (Arendt, 1998).

The understanding of motivation presented above exceeds the affective concept of resistance described by Hynes (2013). Hynes mainly focuses on the potentiality of affect, which marginalises the aspect of action, which is key in the conducted analyses, from the deliberations on resistance, and empathizes the aspect of the "capacity to affect and be affected" (p.567).

Within this dimension of resistance, similarly to the action dimension, there are a few polarizations presented in Figure 2.

Motivations can be conscious or unconscious. This distinction is based on attributing different developmental and social potential to conscious and unconscious acts of resistance by Giroux (2001) and McLaren (1999). Depending on the form they take, they have different meanings to a resisting individual. Conscious resistance is a deliberate action aimed at achieving some specific results. In this approach, resistance not only rejects subordination but also challenges the ideologies that maintain and support it (Weitz 2001). Weitz gives the example of women's hairstyles as an expression of resistance against social structures that subjugate women: "Like slaves' rebellious songs, women's rebellious hairstyles can allow



**Figure 2.** Polarization of the motivation of opposition acts

them to distance themselves from system that would subordinate them, to express their dissatisfaction, to identify like-minded others, and to challenge others to think about their own action and beliefs” (p.670). School environment constantly deals with different displays of students’ conscious resistance which can manifest itself in deliberately wearing inappropriate outfits, putting on make-up while it is against internal school regulations, or being frequently late.

Acts of resistance can be addressed from the perspective of their relation to change, meaning they can be directed against or for it (Watson, 1971). The first type is currently present in many European countries, including Poland. Examples may be the protests of teachers and parents in relation to the planned changes in the education system.

On the opposite end of the continuum, there are acts of resistance focused on changing the existing order. According to Watson (1971), change is desired by all people. It can concern improving, among other things, one’s professional, health or financial situation. However, as the author indicates (1971, p.757), teachers are a professional group required to comply with the established norms of behavior more than any other group. For this reason, they find it more difficult to free themselves from the symbolic corset. However, recent events in Poland prove that teachers are a group that is able to rise and fight for matters significant from the educational and social point of view.



The next continuum of motivation for acts of resistance consists of ‘freedom from’ and ‘freedom to’. According to Foucault (1990) and Hoy (2004), resistance would not be possible without the existence of some degree of freedom provided by the authority. It happens because the restrictions imposed by the authority are never absolute. However, this freedom can be understood in a different way. ‘Freedom from’ can be identified with resistance which is about saying ‘no’ (Hoy, 2004, p. 6). It is seen as freedom from restrictions and orders, and it constitutes a goal in itself. There is no perspective of reflection on the consequences of unrestricted freedom here. ‘Freedom to’, understood as ‘resistance for’, results from critical reflection (Czerepaniak-Walczak, 2006). The aim of this type of resistance is to gain access to new areas and rights of freedom.

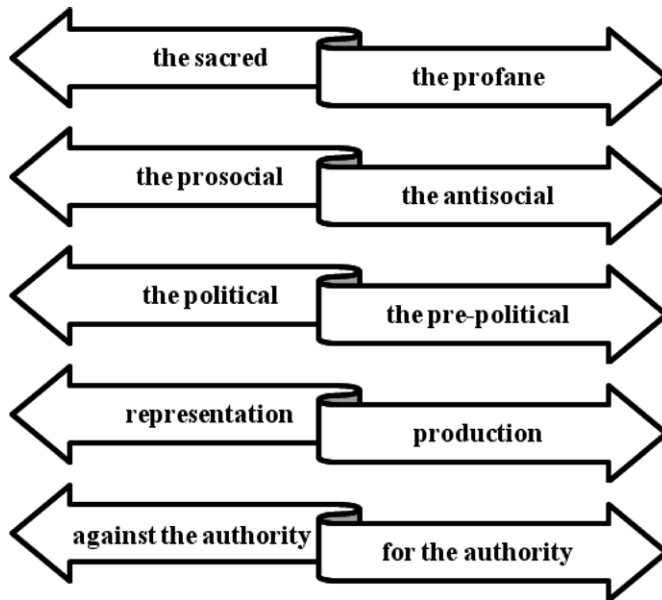
Resistance can also be considered as a verbal act or silence. In the former case, it is about students, teachers, and parents participating in discussions on the matters that are important to them. Such action requires courage to face the consequences of one’s action because it directly shows the views of the resisting individual or group. It can take various forms, from adventurous to factual presentation of one’s arguments. In the classroom, there are often situations where opposition is displayed in the form of teasing, ridiculing, or making fun of teachers by students, or the other way round. Silent resistance is a form of symbolic opposition (Scott, 1985), either conscious or unconscious. Lack of verbal reaction to the teacher’s request or question can lead to resistance actions, aggression, or indifference (Zembylas & Michaelides, 2004; Ollin, 2008). Consequently, students’ silence is a violation of the teacher’s dominant position (McLaren, 1999) by introducing discomfort which results from the aforementioned lack of reaction.

### **Spaces of displaying opposition acts**

The next dimension of resistance is created by the space where opposition actions are displayed. According to Hall (1990), space is linked to other components of culture in various ways. Therefore, it is impossible to exclude this dimension while discussing school culture. Arendt also indicates the significance of space for revealing oneself: “(...) action and speech create a space between the participants which can find its proper location almost anytime and anywhere. It is the space of appearance in the widest sense of the word, namely, the space where I appear to others as others appear to me (...)” (1998, pp.198–199). The space of displaying resistance strongly determines its manifestations, which is also emphasized by Johansson and Vinthagen in their studies on resistance dimensions

(2014). Opposition actions take different forms and scopes depending on the real or symbolic space they are displayed in as well as on the availability of these spaces to the resisting individuals. What is more, according to hooks, resistance develops mainly in the marginalized spaces. “[T]he space of refusal, where one can say no to the colonizer, no to downpressor, is located in the margins” (hooks, 1990, p.341). While referring to the concept of ‘Third Space’ by Bhabha and Soja, Johansson and Vinthagen stress that resistance occurs mainly in the space that enables creativity and openness (2014). Paradoxically, such spaces in schools include restrooms, hallway corners and changing rooms, where students are not directly controlled by their teachers.

In the space dimension, there are a few polarizations of resistance (Figure 3).



**Figure 3.** Polarization of resistance space

Resistance can manifest itself in the sacred or in the profane, or at the meeting point of these spaces. They determine various ways of functioning for an individual, which is emphasized by Eliade (1987, p. 14): “(...) sacred and profane are two modes of being in the world (...)”. Resistance in the sacred usually takes clear forms. In school, it is linked to festive events or spaces reserved for teachers, e.g., classroom space or teachers’ room. They are a type of sanctified places only a

few chosen ones have access to. Acts of opposition within these spaces are easily interpreted as resistance and violation of the established behavior patterns and boundaries. On the other hand, the profane is treated as a space where there is silent consent of the authority for some displays of resistance. Pupils' drawings on desks and walls in classrooms or changing rooms are an example of resistance in the profane. This sphere also includes the body, being the opposite of the soul, which is a manifestation of the sacred. According to Nietzsche (Hoy, 2004, p.12) and McLaren (1988), resistance is personified. Thus, it belongs to the profane. The body has its own public dimension because it is constantly exposed to contact with other bodies (Vlieghe, 2010).

Another continuum consists of a prosocial space and an antisocial space. They create and are created by various resistance actions. The prosocial space encourages undertaking acts of opposition which are conscious and aimed at fighting particular restrictions. It is a space of dialogue and exchange of arguments between equal individuals. The antisocial space is a place where resistance of little emancipation potential is displayed. In this case, it is the argument of strength that counts, not the strength of the argument. Resistance in this space usually fuels conflicts and does not lead to their resolution.

According to Scott (1985), acts of daily resistance have political potential and for that reason, it is crucial to capture the continuum created by the political and the pre-political in order to understand the significance of resistance in everyday life. However, according to Genovese (1974), only some forms of resistance are of political character. He refers to them as 'real resistance', as opposed to acts of pre-political and apolitical resistance. The latter is of adaptive significance and does not lead to the violation of the *status quo*, which is the essence of real resistance. Considering this distinction, school usually deals with resistance in the pre-political sphere, which allows for some of its forms as long as they do not overstep the established boundaries.

The space of representation and the space of production (Hynes, 2013) create another significant continuum of the analysis of resistance acts. In the sphere of representation, there are acts of resistance based on language and symbols imposed by dominating structures. They fall into the margin sphere for resistance actions determined by the authority. Examples of such acts are: using a mobile phone during lesson, or asking teachers difficult (silly) questions in order to ridicule or intimidate them. In the sphere of production, symbols and meanings are created via performance. It is of key importance for going beyond and transforming the existing order.

The last continuum in the space dimension is created by ‘for the authority’ and ‘against the authority’. Resistance is, at the same time, an element of power and its consequence. For this reason, it can take the form of acts that oppose the behaviors that challenge the authority, or acts that oppose the dominating rules and norms. Ruiz (2016) uses the expressions of a ‘good’ protester and a ‘bad’ protester to describe those who support the authority (good), and those who wander among the officially established paths (bad). In the school environment, this type of resistance supporting the authority can manifest itself in the form of endearing oneself to teachers, reporting on other pupils, etc.

## **Conclusion**

The three-dimensional model of resistance, constituted as a result of the three aspects of this phenomenon intertwining, helps to avoid numerous interpretational traps by making it possible to analyze acts of resistance in the dimension of action, motivation or space. Such an approach requires a thorough analysis of the manifestations of resistance and setting them in a broader context. This makes it easier to define resistance more precisely by taking into consideration its specifics that are typical of a particular action, the forces controlling it, and its special location.

It is worth mentioning that the adherence of a particular act to a specific continuum does not exclude its adherence to another continuum within one dimension and other dimensions. On the contrary, acts of resistance can usually be defined in various continuums. For example, act of resistance can be a subtle and individual action in the profane and it can also be unconscious. Each resistance action can be described through the prism of its three-dimensionality. What is more, it can be bipolar, located in a continuum.

The interrelation between these three dimensions shows the complexity of resistance at school and enables a better understanding of this phenomenon. The continuums within the dimensions of action, motivation and space, extended between opposing poles, indicate the absence of a rigid framework assigning a particular act of opposition to its one characteristic. Different aspects of a specific action intertwine, creating a complex structure set in a certain type of action taken as a result of a specific motivation, and manifesting itself in a particular space. The theoretical perspective on resistance adopted by the researcher, which is about paying attention to those aspects of particular polarizations that are typical of a given approach, is of key importance.

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## Perceived Parenting Style and Self-Concept of Slovak Pubescent Youth

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### Abstract

The research study focuses on verification of the relationship between individual components of parenting and pubescent self-concept. The aim is also to examine gender differences in perceived parenting and self-concept in pubescent youth. It is a correlation-comparative study with the research sample consisting of 119 pubescent youth aged 11–15. Research tools: the Parenting Style Questionnaire (Čáp & Boschek) and the Piers-Harris Children's and Adolescents' Self-Concept Scale 2. Research results allow for stating that perceived parenting significantly correlates with pubescent self-concept. Gender differences in perceived parenting appear only in mothers, in the negative emotional component and in the component of demands, with girls scoring significantly higher. A gender difference in favour of boys can be stated in the overall pubescent self-concept.

**Key words:** *self-concept, pubescence, parenting, parenting components*

### Introduction

According to Piers (as cited in Obereignerů et al., 2015), self-concept is a relatively stable set of self-attitudes reflecting both a description and evaluation of one's own behaviour and attributes. Campbell et al. (2003) conceptualize self-concept as an organized collection of ideas that a person has about himself/ herself. Baumeister (1995) defines self-concept as a total organized body of information that any given person has about himself/herself.

Anyway, self-concept of an individual is a result of long-term personality development, with a number of factors, people, situations and experiences involved in its formation. The central role, however, is played by people who are the individual's caregivers and who convey the surrounding world to him/her. By way of how they filter stimuli from the surrounding environment, interpret to the child his/her first experiences, small successes, failures, by their expectations and especially by their feedback they are involved, in a crucial way, in the formation of the child's self-image in early childhood. The foundations of self-perception are built on the parental approach. The child's significant others rear him/her, influence him/her, guide his/her development, and can bring him/her to self-assurance, self-confidence, as well as to feelings of insufficiency or even inferiority. It is not only parents who participate in the development of evaluation criteria in children, but also significant persons from their surroundings the children come into contact with: teachers, grandparents or other family members.

The period of puberty belongs to the most complicated stages in the individual's development. Now the young person becomes interested in questions of his/her identity, attempts to define him/herself in relation to other people, as well as parents. He/she is no longer a child, but not an adult yet. It is the curiosity and the urgency of these questions that motivates him/her to increased self-observation, effort to find out *who I am and what I am like*. Self-esteem and self-concept change not only depending on age, but also depending on the development of cognitive abilities, experience and one's own interpretation. The level of self-esteem changes through the effect of physical and hormonal changes as well as through the effect of the social sphere – feedback and comparison with others. At the beginning of puberty (about 11–12 years of age) a sharp and temporary decline in the level of self-worth is described (Muldoon, 2000). With the increasing age, self-concept becomes more differentiated (Harter, 2006). Therefore, it is not sufficient to explore the so-called global self-concept, its investigation should take into consideration important variations in its emotional, academic, social and behavioural domains (DuBois & Tevendale, 1999). Pubescent youth aged 12–13 are the most insecure-feeling group, with deeper feelings of insecurity recorded in girls (Beal, 1994).

Parenting style (Darling & Steinberg, 1993) is considered a characteristic of the parent that is stable over time and constitutes the environmental and emotional context for child rearing and socialization. According to Anderson (2011), parenting style involves the emotional climate and psychological constructs involved in the strategies used to raise children. Baumrid's (as cited in Yazdani & Daryei, 2016) original two-dimensional model of parenting factors (warmth and control) brought three major parenting styles: authoritarian, permissive and authoritative.



Authoritative parents have high demands on their children's maturity and self-control, while showing a high level of sensitivity, emotional warmth and involvement. According to the study by Yazdani & Daryei, the more authoritative the parenting style, the higher the children's self-esteem.

In our conditions, the established model of parenting styles (Čáp & Boschek, 1994) corresponds with the above. Parenting style within this concept, namely, includes the emotional relationship of parents to the child and parental control, made up by the combination of freedom and parental demands towards the child. The child's personality development benefits the best from a positive emotional relationship in combination with moderate parental control. Its effects are beneficial mainly to conscientiousness and purposefulness in children. It has a favourable influence also on children's appropriate self-evaluation and stability of their personality. The opposite, i.e., children's instability and impaired self-concept, reduced conscientiousness and persistence, is caused by a strong negative emotional relationship combined mostly with contradictory control.

Our research study is based on work focused on a correlation between parenting style and children's or adolescents' self-esteem. For instance, Hajná & Stránka (2011) have found out that it is the children from families with a prevailing extremely positive emotional relationship who have the highest self-esteem. Also, Valihorová & Gallo (2014) have stated that families with a prevailing positive emotional relationship between parents and children have a favourable influence on the children's self-evaluation. Correlations between the perceived parenting style and adolescent self-esteem have been also verified by Vanager (2012).

Thus, the main goal of our research activity was to verify the perceived parenting style as a possible source of self-concept in pubescent children. Our specific objectives were to:

- 1) verify connections between individual parenting style components in Čáp & Boschek's conception (1994) and the pubescent overall self-concept by the Piers-Harris Scale (Obereignerů et al., 2015);
- 2) find out gender differences, if any, in the overall self-concept of Slovak pubescent youth, as well as in their perception of individual parenting style components.

## **Research Methodology**

The research was carried out in two elementary schools in Banská Bystrica. Selective and convenience sampling were used in the research project implemen-

tation. The research sample consisted of 119 elementary school pubescent youth aged 11–15 ( $AM = 13.55$ ), including 77 boys (64.70%) and 42 girls (35.30%).

The following research tools were used:

**1) The Parenting Style Questionnaire (Čáp & Boschek, 1994)**

The questionnaire summarizes statements of children and adolescents assessing behaviour and attitudes of their parents toward them. The questionnaire has 40 items, 10 for each of the four components of parenting, with the child assessing mother and father separately: Positive Emotional Relationship ( $\alpha = .863/.748$ ), Negative Emotional Relationship ( $\alpha = .782/.810$ ), Component of Freedom ( $\alpha = .729/.735$ ), Component of Demands ( $\alpha = .765/.767$ )

**2) The Piers-Harris Children's and Adolescents' Self-Concept Scale 2 (Ober-eigerů et al., 2015)**

The questionnaire, with the subtitle *How I Perceive Myself*, has 60 items, is intended for children and youth aged 9–18. It includes 6 subscales evaluating specific domains of self-concept. They are Behavioral Adjustment (BEH,  $\alpha = .756$ ), Intellectual and School Status (INT,  $\alpha = .770$ ), Physical Appearance (PHY,  $\alpha = .778$ ), Freedom from Anxiety (FRE,  $\alpha = .829$ ), Popularity (POP,  $\alpha = .760$ ), and Happiness and Satisfaction (HAP,  $\alpha = .765$ ). The sum of the subscales yields a total score (TOT).

Obtained data were processed by the statistical program SPSS using the procedures of descriptive and inductive statistics.

## Research Results

First, the data were tested for the distribution normality of the variables studied (Kolmogorov-Smirnov Test). Our data did not meet the condition of normal distribution ( $p \leq 0.162$ ). Thus, a non-parametric correlation procedure as well as a non-parametric alternative of a 2-sample t-test were used. Table 1 shows basic descriptive indicators of the correlated variables, Table 2 presents descriptive characteristics of the variables in groups by the respondents' gender.

**Table 1.** Descriptive statistics of the variables studied ( $N = 119$ )

	AM	MEDIAN	SD	MINIMUM	MAXIMUM
KEK_O	25.13	26.00	4.517	11	30
ZEK_O	14.29	13.00	3.994	10	28
KV_O	19.04	19.00	3.248	11	28

	AM	MEDIAN	SD	MINIMUM	MAXIMUM
KP_O	16.92	16.00	3.467	11	27
KEK_M	25.99	26.00	3.416	14	30
ZEK_M	15.40	14.00	4.503	10	28
KV_M	19.25	19.00	3.632	10	27
KP_M	18.21	18.00	4.172	11	30
TOT	40.16	42.00	10.435	17	59

KEK\_O – Positive Emotional Component father, ZEK\_O – Negative Emotional Component father, KV\_O – Freedom Component father, KP\_O – Demands Component father, KEK\_M – Positive Emotional Component mother, ZEK\_M – Negative Emotional Component mother, KV\_M – Freedom Component mother, KP\_M – Demands Component mother, TOT – Overall Self-Concept, SD – standard deviation

**Table 2.** Descriptive statistics of the variables studied by gender  
(boys N = 77, girls N = 42)

	AM		MEDIAN		SD		MINIMUM		MAXIMUM	
	CH	D	CH	D	CH	D	CH	D	CH	D
KEK_O	25.39	24.64	27.00	26.00	4.574	4.422	11	14	30	30
ZEK_O	13.91	14.98	13.00	13.00	3.664	4.502	10	10	26	28
KV_O	19.17	18.81	19.00	19.00	2.904	3.827	11	11	28	28
KP_O	17.01	16.76	16.00	16.00	3.435	3.560	11	11	26	27
KEK_M	26.31	25.40	26.00	26.00	3.014	4.025	17	14	30	30
ZEK_M	14.52	17.02	13.00	16.00	3.929	5.058	10	11	24	28
KV_M	19.92	18.02	19.00	18.00	3.132	4.170	14	10	27	25
KP_M	17.49	19.52	17.00	19.00	3.956	4.284	12	11	30	30
TOT	41.91	36.95	43.00	34.50	9.947	10.661	17	21	59	56
BEH	10.29	10.12	11.00	11.00	2.924	2.965	0	4	14	14
INT	9.99	9.50	10.00	9.50	3.636	3.590	1	2	11	11
PHY	7.12	6.19	7.00	6.00	2.861	2.778	1	2	11	11
FRE	10.13	7.40	11.00	8.00	3.160	3.623	1	1	14	14
POP	8.53	7.64	9.00	8.00	3.160	2.904	1	1	12	11
HAP	8.09	6.86	9.00	7.00	1.988	2.637	3	0	10	10

KEK\_O – Positive Emotional Component father, ZEK\_O – Negative Emotional Component father, KV\_O – Freedom Component father, KP\_O – Demands Component father, KEK\_M – Positive Emotional Component mother, ZEK\_M – Negative Emotional Component mother, KV\_M – Freedom Component mother, KP\_M – Demands Component mother, TOT – Overall Self-Concept, BEH – Behavioural Adjustment, INT – Intellectual and School Status, PHY – Appearance, FRE – Freedom from Anxiety, POP – Popularity, HAP – Happiness and Satisfaction, AM – mean, SD – standard deviation, CH – boys, D – girls

In line with the first research objective, connection was verified between the perceived parenting style components in both the parents' and pubescent youth's overall self-concept. As indicated by the results (Table 3), the positive emotional component was in a positive moderate statistically significant relation to child self-concept. In turn, the negative emotional component in both parents was in a negative moderate statistically significant relation to the pubescent youth's self-concept.

As to the parental control dimension, only the demands component in both parents was related to self-concept. It was a weak negative statistically significant correlation. No connection between child self-concept and the freedom component appeared in our research sample.

**Table 3.** Correlation analysis of relationships between the pubescent youth's overall self-concept (TOT) and parenting components for both parents (N = 119)

	Self-Concept (TOT)	
	P	Significance
Positive Emotional Component_father	.431	.000
Negative Emotional Component_father	-.538	.000
Freedom Component_father	.053	.569
Demands Component_father	-.252	.006
Positive Emotional Component_mother	.402	.000
Negative Emotional Component_mother	-.478	.000
Freedom Component_mother	-.069	.458
Demands Component_mother	-.296	.001

In line with our second research objective, the variables studied were tested for possible gender differences. The Mann-Whitney U-test showed statistically significant differences between the boys and girls in the perception of mother, this in the negative emotional component and in the demands component, in both cases in favour of the girls (Table 4). In addition, also a statistically significant gender difference appeared in the pubescent youth's overall self-concept in favour of the boys. This made us test also individual self-concept dimensions. Results summarized in Table 5 show that there were statistically significant gender differences only in two subscales, i.e., the freedom from anxiety (FRE) and the happiness and satisfaction (HAP), in both cases, of course, in favour of the boys.

**Table 4.** Gender differences in perceived parenting components for both parents' and pubescent youth's overall self-concept

	p - value								
	KEK_O	ZEK_O	KV_O	KP_O	KEK_M	ZEK_M	KV_M	KP_M	TOT
CH (n=77)	.261	.213	.538	.561	.387	.008**	.15	.007**	.016*
D (n=42)									

CH – boys, D – girls; \*\*  $p \leq .01$  \*  $p \leq .05$

KEK\_O – Positive Emotional Component father, ZEK\_O – Negative Emotional Component father, KV\_O – Freedom Component father, KP\_O – Demands Component father, KEK\_M – Positive Emotional Component mother, ZEK\_M – Negative Emotional Component mother, KV\_M – Freedom Component mother, KP\_M – Demands Component mother, TOT – Overall Self-Concept

**Table 5.** Gender differences in self-concept domains by the Piers and Harris Scale

	p - value					
	BEH	INT	PHY	FRE	POP	HAP
Boys (n=77)	.758	.443	.066	.000**	.092	.024*
Girls (n=42)						

\*\*  $p \leq .01$ ; \*  $p \leq .05$

BEH – Behavioural Adjustment, INT – Intellectual and School Status, PHY – Physical Appearance, FRE – Freedom from Anxiety, POP – Popularity, HAP – Happiness and Satisfaction

## Discussion

It seems that the corner-stone of parenting style lies in parents' emotional relationship expressions, the essence of which is the consistency between the parent's inner experiencing and his/her outward behaviour. We can observe how parents communicate with the child, whether there are visible expressions of love for the child, how the daily regime works in family, whether and with what intensity parents assign tasks and control their performance.

The emotional relationship of parents to the child can be considered the key factor of the parenting style from the perspective of the child's favourable development (Hajná & Stránská, 2011, Valihorová & Gallo, 2014). Also, according to Ďuricová & Hašková (2016), a positive emotional relationship in family is a predictor of pubescent youth's self-concept of ability (thus, the positive school-related

self-concept according to Meyer). This is consistent with the results of our correlation analysis, showing that the perceived positive emotional component is in a positive relation to the child's overall self-concept and vice versa.

Ďuricová & Hašková (2016) have also stated that especially weak parental control contributes to pubescent youth's positive school-related self-concept. Hajná & Stránska (2011) have also found out that people from families with moderate to weak parental control have the highest self-esteem. These results are consistent with our finding of an indicated negative correlation trend between the perceived demands component in both parents' and the child's overall self-concept. It can be understood that perceived higher pressure on performance, orders, bans, and their consistent control by parents do not strengthen pubescent youth's positive self-concept.

Already Litovski & Dusek (1985) have maintained that parents contribute substantially to children's self-evaluation. Other research has specified that perceived parental acceptance predicts the child's global self-worth, but also self-evaluation of academic competence, physical appearance, and also social competence for girls (Ohannessian et al., 1998). According to Calafat et al. (2014), a positive parenting style is related to self-concept and school performance in adolescents. More precisely, adolescents fostered in an environment of parental acceptance, dialogue and affection have a strong sense of self-confidence. In contrast, parental coercive control reduces adolescents' self-concept (Boudreault-Bouchard et al., 2013).

Also, according to the study by McClure et al. (2010), a sensitive parental approach in combination with reasonable demands reduces the likelihood of low self-esteem. Other studies (e.g., Birndorf et al., 2005; Carlson et al., 2000; Youngblade et al., 2007) have also clearly shown the connection between the young person's self-concept and the perceived parenting style in his/her family environment. Together with our results, they are clear evidence of parents having the determining influence on the psychological development of their children, even in the period when the space freed up in the process of separation from family is occupied by peer groups and their acceptance is very important for the adolescent.

In our research sample, there is no relationship between the component of freedom in either of the parents and the pubescent youth's self-concept, although Vanager (2012) has reported a statistically significant relationship between adolescents' self-esteem and autonomy in parenting. The discrepancy may be a result of different methods used, as well as cultural differences.

As for our second objective, exploration of gender differences in the correlated variables, our tests of differences in individual components of parenting

styles show only the perception of mother as statistically significantly different, in particular, of her negative emotional component and demands component. These results lead us to consider that pubertal girls perceive mother's negative emotional expressions more sensitively than boys. We understand this as a signal that they do not get so much attention and loving expressions as they need in such a challenging period of their life. Moreover, in comparison with boys, they also report increased perception of mother's demands, thus the above-mentioned higher pressure on performance, maybe higher expectations, control of fulfilment of orders and agreements. We are aware of the limits of our study related to the research sample size, so we do not presume to generalize our results to the population of Slovak pubescent youth, but the outlined parenting stereotypes could be an incentive for further research.

In our sample, the Piers-Harris Scale shows a difference in gender in the pubescent youth's overall self-concept in favour of the boys, which is consistent with Beal's (1994) report as well as the gender differences in self-esteem found out by McClure et al. (2010). Thus, we decided to inspect more profoundly the domains loading it. In comparison with the girls, the boys scored higher in two of the six domains: in the Happiness and Satisfaction subscale and much higher in the Freedom from Anxiety subscale. These partial results correspond also with gender differences concerning socio-emotional health of secondary school students in the study by Pašková (2017). It can be stated that the gender difference in the level of anxiety in favour of women appears already at a lower developmental stage and may be related to the generally more intense emotionality in women, or girls. This is also confirmed by the results of the recent study by Sia & Kaur (2015), using the same method. However, some empirical studies (Ruchkin et al. in Sia & Kaur, 2015) suggest that the increased anxiety level is related to, or may be a result of, the parenting style characterized by high control, rejection and a lack of emotional closeness. This is approximately how the girls in our sample feel about their mothers.

## **Conclusion**

The parent should provide the child with security and safety, accept the child without reserve and any conditions whatsoever. It appears that children who are praised and positively accepted work better at school and home and they are more persevering. The opposite manner brings worse results. In his/her relation to the parents, the child does not have to deserve anything, does not have to be

successful, therefore the child should be praised, treated with love and respect, admired and encouraged.

We see the contribution of our study to research in the use of the method for self-concept measurement (Piers-Harris Scale), which is still relatively little established in our professional environment. Although we are aware of pubescent overall self-concept being influenced also by many other factors, it seems that the parenting style is not a negligible variable. A positive emotional climate in family, unconditional acceptance and trust in the child's competence facilitate the child's positive self-image and self-trust, trust in his/her own abilities, possibilities, potential. Since also school is significantly involved in the child's upbringing, it is more than desirable to apply these parenting attributes not only in family, but also in institutional education.

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## **Job Crafting Practices and Work Satisfaction: Evidence from Higher Education Sector in Shaanxi, China**

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### **Abstract**

We explore the relationships between job crafting approaches (task crafting, relational crafting and cognitive crafting) and work satisfaction among the faculty members of Northwest A & F University, Yangling, Shaanxi, China. The study reveals a significant and positive relationship between different types of job crafting and work satisfaction. Multiple regression analysis revealed a significant impression of task and relational crafting on work satisfaction but a non-significant impact of cognitive crafting on work satisfaction. Furthermore, the study indicates the importance of job crafting towards a higher level of satisfaction for teachers who are engaged in universities.

**Keywords:** *task crafting, relational crafting, cognitive crafting, work satisfaction*

### **1. Introduction**

Higher education can be considered as the main entity rendering competitiveness to an expanding knowledge-oriented global economy. As higher education systems flourish gradually, the quality of institutes becomes a major concern. In order to determine and encourage effective teaching practices in institutions, efficient evaluation procedures must be exercised. There are several ways by which such an environment can be forged in higher education institutions. Employee satisfaction is one of the prime factors in modern organizations. The most important

role in an education system is played by the teacher, hence motivating and keeping teachers satisfied is of vital importance as this brings benefits for the whole society.

Dissatisfaction among employees is mainly caused by less control on their professional lives, which hampers their ability to perform well. However, this issue has never been put into red light. Jobs, including teaching, are flexible in nature, which makes them prone to be molded according to the KSAO of job incumbents. Employees can feel more satisfaction by redesigning their jobs so that they utilize their strengths and overcome their weaknesses. It is the concept of job crafting, which allows employees to have control over their professional lives and remain satisfied. Thus, a workforce already in a state of job dissatisfaction can take advantage of job crafting to boost their work engagement and satisfaction (Tims, Bakker, & Derks, 2012).

Job designs provide a meaning to employees' work and the results of that work. Also, they give them a feeling of responsibility for their contributions and their outcomes (Hackman & Oldham, 1980). Research in this field has shown that job designs can serve as a starting point for an employee to make fundamental alterations for doing tasks and work relationships. Such a kind of changes means job crafting. In other words, job crafting involves re-defining and re-visualizing the design of employees' job according to their personal capacity (Wrzesniewski & Dutton, 2001).

Job crafting is a kind of activity which is usually undertaken by employees in order to make necessary changes to re-sketch their jobs. It is bottom to top activity, not top to bottom (Wrzesniewski & Dutton, 2001). Job crafting includes three approaches: task, relational, and cognitive. Task crafting occurs when employees change their routine work duties through adding, changing or ignoring tasks or through changing the time and effort they usually devote to varying tasks. Relational crafting revolves around how employees change their interactions with others while performing their job. Cognitive crafting involves change in employees' perception of the tasks and relationships that constitute their jobs (Berg, Dutton & Wrzesniewski, 2013).

Literature reveals that crafting for developing job design has not been practiced in institutes or organizations providing higher education. The study is designed to investigate how job crafting impacts work satisfaction. There is no previous research which supports the importance of a specific kind of job crafting and its relationship with different types of job crafting towards job satisfaction. This gap is the focus of the present study.

## **2. Review of past studies**

Previous research on job crafting showed promising results. Pioneers in the field, Wrzesniewski and Dutton (2001), showed how people with jobs having low status made their work meaningful and felt surprisingly positive. According to Tims and Bakker (2010), employees' self-initiated changes are the reason for job crafting that makes employees balance their job demands and resources with their individual needs and abilities. Bakker, Demerouti and Xanthopoulou (2012) found that individuals who were more involved in job crafting were more engaged in work and showed better performance. The more control or freedom individuals had, the more engaged they felt (Petrou et al. 2012; Leana et al., 2009).

In job crafting, physical task margins can be altered by shifting the scope and variety of work exercises, i.e., individuals decide to do more or less diverse tasks than those included in their original job description. Job crafting also involves altering the cognitive task limits, which is linked to shifting the job perception. For example, a sweeper may either view his job as cleaning up or as contributing to the comfort of individuals around. Altering relational boundaries defines modification in the quality and/or the degree of communication with colleagues. For example, an individual may prefer not to interact with less favorite colleagues. By altering these, employees can alter their job-design and surrounding environment at work themselves.

A few researchers have theorized job crafting as employees' proactive behavior which targets job characteristics and frames the Job Demands-Resources Model. It can also be defined as a modification which employees may make to stabilize their workload and related issues with their own skills (Tim and Bakker, 2010). Wrzesniewski & Dutton (2001) redefined job crafting from only changing tasks and relations to task crafting and relational crafting. Task crafting is linked to job requirements, i.e., varying one's responsibilities by making the demands more challenging and/or reducing unchallenging needs. Relational crafting is linked to job attributes, i.e., altering the existing social resources.

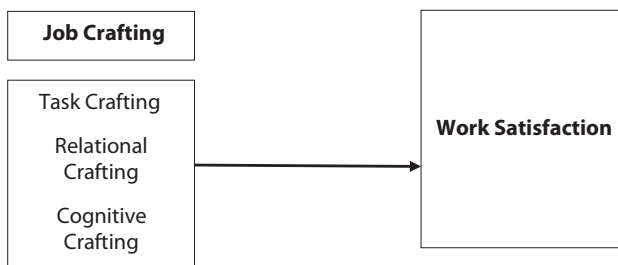
Petrou et al. (2012) explain job crafting as: (i) looking for contests; (ii) fewer demands; and (iii) looking for resources. Looking for challenges is seeking more challenging demands, i.e., considering new stimulating tasks, making oneself busy all day, or looking for more tasks after completing the already assigned tasks. This is to encourage work motivation and to remove boredom. Workers in dynamic jobs generally achieve success in tough situations, which promotes their learning. Diminishing demands mean lessening expressively or substantially challenging features of one's work to shrink one's capacity, which ensures that work does not

interfere with one's private life. So, in this way reducing demands is health-protecting coping. Looking for job resources is some sort of covering job needs, or accomplishing duties and attaining ambitions that increase overall well-being and presentation. For instance, asking for response or assistance from bosses or coworkers, or searching for opportunities to use innovative skills. Decreasing resources cannot be considered as a type of job crafting because it does not predict behavior with a purpose (Hobfoll, 2001).

Theoretically, the importance of job crafting has been verified by Petrou et al. (2012), who conducted research on one hundred staff members of different organizations. They observed that job crafting exists every day with fluctuations in job crafting ranging from 31% (seeking challenges), 34% (seeking resources) to 78% (reducing demands). The main difference among the above-mentioned models is that the JD-R framework emphasizes behavioral constituents and eliminates the cognitive extent of job crafting. As a conclusion, the limited research on job crafting clearly proves that job crafting is related to positive employee and organizational outcomes, which include job commitment, performance and gratification.

### **3. Study Hypotheses**

The research focuses specifically on the presence of job crafting. It is important to investigate which type of job crafting teachers want to practice more. Thus, the main objective of the present study is to use quantitative methods to explore how the presence of a specific type of job crafting relates to work satisfaction. Figure 1 illustrates the research framework of the present study.



**Figure 1.** The research framework

The published material related to job crafting and work satisfaction revealed that three hypotheses were tested (Wrzesniewski and Dutton, 2001). These hypotheses are the following:

*Hypothesis 1: The teachers who are engaged in task crafting are satisfied at work.*

*Hypothesis 2: The teachers who are engaged in relational crafting are satisfied at work.*

*Hypothesis 3: The teachers who are engaged in cognitive crafting are satisfied at work.*

*Hypothesis 4: The teachers want to engage in all types of crafting techniques.*

## **4. Material and Methods**

### **4.1. Work Satisfaction Measures**

In order to measure work satisfaction, the Job Diagnostic Survey (JDS), developed by Hackman and Oldham (1976), was used. According to this survey, the obtained scores were summarized into single generic item of work satisfaction. A higher score corresponds to a higher level of satisfaction while a lower score corresponds to a lower level of satisfaction.

### **4.2. Job Crafting Measures**

To conduct the survey, a questionnaire was designed to obtain the basic data required to check the influence of job crafting on work satisfaction. Job crafting was tested with the use of a job crafting questionnaire (Slemp and Vella-Brodric, 2013). It is a recently developed scale, which measures the level of the satisfaction of workers engaged in job crafting. The measured data comprise fifteen items and respondents specify the occurrence through which they want to engage in each of the activities related to job crafting. The scores range from 1 to 6, from “hardly ever” to “very often” respectively.

### **4.3. The Data**

The study was conducted in order to examine which type of crafting has the greatest impact on job satisfaction and find the association between job crafting and satisfaction. Data was obtained through questionnaires, which were provided to the faculty members of different departments of Northwest A&F University, Yangling, Shaanxi, China. A total of 100 participants were selected. Survey questionnaires were given to 150 teaching staff, comprising lecturers, assistant professors, associate professors and professors. Various methods of communica-

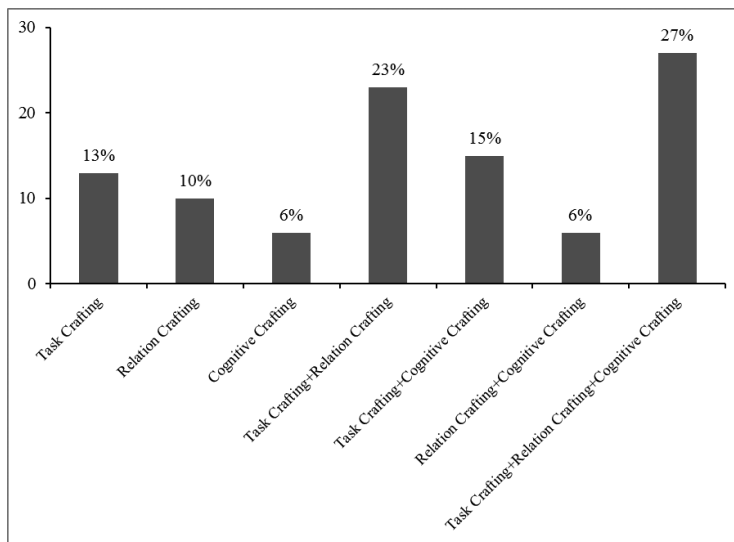
tion (personal contact and e-mail) were used to get the maximum feedback. The response rate was about 67% (100 samples) from 150 distributed questionnaires.

#### 4.4. Characteristics of the Respondents

One hundred university teachers participated in this study, of whom 75% were male and 25% were female. The majority of the respondents were in the 30–39 age category, while the lowest number of respondents belonged to the 50 and above age category. 6% of the faculty members were 20 to 29 years of age, 43% were 30 to 39, 41% were 40 to 49 and 10% were at the age of 50 and over. In terms of qualifications, 4% held the bachelor’s degree, 45% held the master’s degree and 51%, and thus the majority, were PhD degree holders. The faculty members who participated in this study were selected on the basis of work experience. The benchmark for work experience was one year at least. In terms of experience, 39% of the faculty had 1–10 years, 42% had 11–20 years, while 17% had 21–30 years and only 2% had 30 years and over.

#### 4.5. Categorization of Respondents

Figure 1 presents the percentages of the participants who preferred task crafting, relation crafting or cognitive crafting or a combination of these.



**Figure 1.** Categorization of respondents according to task crafting, relation crafting and cognitive crafting

It is clear from Figure 1 that the majority of the teachers (27%) preferred the combination of all the three types of crafting, i.e., task crafting + relational crafting + cognitive crafting, while there were two groups of teachers (each group consisting of 6% of the teachers) who preferred relation crafting + task crafting and cognitive crafting, respectively. There was another group of teachers (23%) who favored task crafting + job crafting as key factors for job crafting. Moreover, 15% of the teachers were involved in task crafting + cognitive crafting, 13% and 10% of the teachers were engaged in task crafting + relational crafting, respectively. Thus, it can be said that the teachers prefer a multidimensional approach to make their jobs more meaningful.

## **5. Results and Discussion**

### **5.1. Reliability Analysis**

Prior to testing the hypotheses, it is essential to check test internal consistency and reliability. The Cronbach alpha analysis is the most common measure of internal consistency, whereas a multiple Likert scale is used in a survey. The acceptable reliability coefficient is 0.7 in Cronbach's alpha reliability analysis. Lower thresholds are sometimes used in literature (Nunnally, 1978).

Task, relational and cognitive crafting consist of five items each and have Cronbach's Alpha of 0.75, 0.82 and 0.77, respectively. These values indicate a high level of internal consistency for our scale. Table 1 shows the descriptive statistics and a correlation matrix of different job crafting techniques and satisfaction.

### **5.2. Hypotheses Testing**

The hypotheses were tested with the use of correlation and multiple regression analysis. All the types of job crafting, i.e., cognitive, relational and task crafting, correlated positively and significantly ( $p < 0.01$ ) with work satisfaction (Table 1). Although significant correlations were obtained, the magnitude of correlation between task crafting and work satisfaction was stronger than the remaining correlations (Table 1). The correlations among the different job crafting approaches have been found positive and significant except the correlation between relation crafting and cognitive crafting (Table 1).

Table 2 shows that task crafting has a highly significant effect ( $p < 0.01$ ) on work satisfaction and relational crafting has a significant effect ( $p < 0.05$ ) on work satisfaction, whereas cognitive crafting does not significantly affect work satisfaction. Thus, hypotheses 1 and 2 are confirmed while cognitive crafting had no significant



**Table 1.** Correlation between job crafting and work satisfaction (N = 100)

Variables	Mean	Std	Worksat	Cogcraft	Relationcraft
Worksat	4.94	0.883			
Cogcraft	5.32	1.115	.258**		
Relationcraft	5.13	1.215	.343**	.180	
Taskcraft	4.73	1.198	.458**	.246*	.309**

Std – standard deviation; Worksat – work satisfaction; Cogcraft – cognitive crafting; Relationcraft – relational crafting; Taskcraft – task crafting

effect on satisfaction (Table 2), but it was positively correlated ( $p < 0.01$ ) with satisfaction (Table 1). Thus, hypothesis 3 is partially confirmed. Furthermore, the majority of the respondents are interested in practicing all the types of job crafting techniques (Figure 1). Hence, hypothesis 4 is confirmed.

**Table 2.** Multiple regression results for job crafting and work satisfaction

Variables	Beta	t-value
Task Crafting	0.362**	3.864
Relational Crafting	0.207*	2.243
Cognitive Crafting	0.132	1.460
R-square	0.271	
Adjusted R-square	0.248	
F	11.881	
Sig. F.	0.000	

\*  $p < 0.05$ ; \*\*  $p < 0.01$

The results of the present study prove the link between the job crafting types and work satisfaction. However, it is important to note that due to the lower response rate, the study sample may have variation towards the contribution in crafting of the teaching faculty we surveyed. In our study, the positive and significant relationship between task crafting and relational crafting with work satisfaction is supported by the earlier findings of Beer et al (2016). Job crafting is linked positively to work satisfaction and engagement to make jobs more meaningful (Table 1). People can bring different tactics and attitudes to their work even in similar jobs. Individuals who practiced job crafting were more likely to be engaged in and satisfied with their jobs.

In general, the results confirmed the hypotheses. Based on the magnitude of relationships of task and relational crafting with work satisfaction (Table 1), it is understandable that the teachers who want to practice job crafting are satisfied with their work. In this study, the teachers feel satisfaction when they practice two types of job crafting, i.e., task crafting and relational crafting. They feel satisfied when they change their assigned job responsibilities by adding, changing or avoiding the tasks or the time and effort assigned to different tasks. Furthermore, relational crafting also has an impact on satisfaction (Table 2), though less significant than task crafting (Table 2). The teachers feel good when they involve in changing how, when, or with whom they interact in the process of performing their job duties. It is worth noticing that cognitive crafting does not have any significant impact on satisfaction (Table 2). Tims and Bakker (2010) claimed that cognitive crafting is a type of avoidance coping because individuals adjust their viewpoint on those work conditions that do not meet their needs or preferences instead of really shaping their jobs. The results support this argument. Teachers do not want to alter their perceptions related to their tasks and relationships; rather they want to practice crafting by altering their tasks and relationships in the workplace.

## **6. Conclusions and Recommendations**

In sum, the presented study shows very important results which give very useful insights into ways of improving work-related job design in the future. The majority of the teachers working in Northwest A&F University want to practice task and relational crafting instead of cognitive crafting. Teachers play an important role in society; their job design should be considered important and should be modified in the way that is attractive enough to enhance employee satisfaction. Satisfied teachers will give better output to society.

Therefore, it can be recommended that a job should be designed in such a way that employees are given autonomy where they can easily craft their job to make it more meaningful. Their tasks should be redefined in a way that puts more stress on service and craftsmanship. It can be suggested to human resource departments or concern departments that during designing the jobs, they should consider employees' autonomy so that they can make their job more appealing by altering their jobs when needed. Although work is important for almost everyone for financial support, along with the sacrifices required by work, it can also be interesting to employees. Identifying teachers' attitude towards work can help a human resource department specify what employees require in their professional life and

let them alter their jobs accordingly to increase their satisfaction. This will in turn increase performance and commitment and reduce absenteeism and the turnover rate.

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## **Borders, Inequalities and Global Generations: A Preliminary Study on the use of Ulrich Beck's Concepts in the Polish Context**

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### **Abstract**

The article outlines Beck's major concepts in order to show some theoretical frameworks for the study on migration, young people and possible conflict-laden interactions between them. The example of Poland seems to be particularly relevant to the discussion about the validity of Beck's contribution to the understanding of divisions, contradictions, and desires of the global generation. Although Poland is not perceived as a country of immigration, many young people declare their greater orientation to migration. However, many young people also appear very reluctant to accept immigration to Poland. The article attempts to consider some explanations for this reluctance. The study is descriptive and designed to explore new perspectives. The main goal of the article is to start discussion about generational interconnectedness in times of rapid migration and set up a research agenda for work on Polish young people in a described framework.

**Keywords:** *young people, intra-generational conflicts, higher education, migration, U. Beck*

### **Introduction**

Research on migration, borders and a growing ethnic diversity has been primarily developed with reference to Western and Northern Europe. Central and Eastern European countries have been chiefly defined as migrant senders

or as transit countries, hence they have up to now remained on the fringe of mainstream discussions about the immigration policy in Europe and only recently began receiving noticeable immigration. Located on the periphery of the European Union, they were all sources of emigration, but immigrants remained a small proportion of their overall population. Thus, discourses about immigrant integration have been less developed compared with those concerning the issue of emigration.

Identified as an ethnically homogenous country, Poland has been widely recognized in the European Union as a sending country. Even if there are more and more young Poles for whom migration is part of their family and personal history, Poland itself is not perceived as a country of immigration. The idea of belonging is entertained in an asymmetrical manner. Crossing borders offers opportunities to live and work abroad, yet binding identity and borders together is the preferred means of national identification. Such a way of identification creates the affective and moral meaning of us, but it also maintains the stigmatized qualities of outsiders (Mucha, 2016). In Poland, external migration in the context of current European situation has been exposed in the media as hazardous to the nation and the nation-building project (Mach, Styczyńska, 2016). This belief is maintained by the majority of social survey respondents. The youngest participants (between 18 and 24) constitute the largest age group of opponents of external migration (over 80%) (CBOS, 2017: 3). On the other hand, however, for an increasing number of young people, migration is seen as an option. In some way, migration can be even perceived as a source of oppositional youth culture in Poland.

The combined problem of youth, migration and identity seems to be caught in a concept of methodological nationalism. Beck (2016: 36) defined methodological nationalism as a cognitive bias based on an equation of society and the nation state, and therefore states and their governments are treated as the cornerstones of social sciences analysis, while it misses a broader picture of global processes beyond nation-state boundaries. He claimed that social scientists needed a cosmopolitan outlook to understand the generational dynamics that exacerbates inter-generational tensions within nations and intra-generational affinities and conflicts between nations (Beck, Beck Gernsheim, 2009). One of his diagnoses of methodological nationalism showed the omnipotence of state in higher education, and in the humanities and social sciences in particular (Beck, 2012). According to him, under the impression of the national unity of state and education, many basic terms in the social sciences such as society, identity, inequality, or justice were vividly described as national (Beck, 2012: 55). As a result, both knowledge and education were limited to the framework conditions

under which the nation state was still prevalent, but at a time when boundaries were muddled in a globalized world.

Although Beck's concept of methodological nationalism has its certain limitations to the explanation of the significance of social memory and the preservation of cultural heritage as the crucial realms of social reproduction (Chernillo, 2006), it offers an important forum for discussion about the modes of interethnic and intergenerational conflicts between young people in Europe. Especially in times of rapid migration movements, when European societies face different scenarios of situations in which there are opposing ideas about national sovereignty and common future of the European Union, an understanding of the general dynamics of interethnic tensions within different units of global generation(s) seems to be particularly relevant to social sciences.

## **Research Problem**

At the age of migration and global risks, methodological nationalism can be particularly costly due to its limitation to public imagination and broad discussion. It defines most basic categories of thought and knowledge in the way that young people conceive of reality. As a result, it can provide inadequate justifications for global events as well as conserve false paths of education in the globalized world. The multitude of interconnections cannot be fitted together into making a unified picture of a nationally bound generation of young people.

## **Research Focus**

Applying Beck's concepts, the study provides some background for a preliminary discussion about the situations and positions of young people in the contemporary world. Drawing on the Polish example, it shows the contexts of tensions and contradictions between expectations of migration dreams of a better life, youth insecurity and education.

## **Research Methodology**

Because it is a preliminary study on the use of Ulrich Beck's concepts in the Polish context, this article is necessarily descriptive and based on critical analyses of the reference literature. It aims to provoke a discussion and set up a research

agenda for work on Polish young people in the context of experienced borders, perceived inequalities and education.

## **General Background of Research**

Traditionally, the term of generation has been used in the sociological literature as a territorially bound entity. Moreover, generations have been usually conceptualized as age-cohorts. These have limited the use of generation concepts to monolith-like categories with constant and passive identities. Recently, however, sociologists have tried to introduce a new concept of generation. The return to generation as an interesting sociological category is related to the efforts made by sociologists to grasp the idea of social change in the twenty-first century from a global perspective. To prove this point, Edmunds and Turner (2005: 566) have claimed that the global experiences of cultural traumas facilitated by the developments in new electronic communications have the potential for creating global generational consciousness. The emergence of global generations is connected with the growth of communication across national boundaries and substantial increase in global interactivity.

Although the experience of generations might be increasingly globalized by media, the inequality of global situations produced sharp dividing lines and conflicts across ethnic divisions. As Beck and Beck-Gernsheim (2009: 33) noticed: “while in the First World, and especially for younger people there, the risks and insecurities of life are growing, the countries that constitute it remain the dream destination for many of the young in the poor regions of the globe. Consequently, the existential fears of the former are going to encounter the hopes for the future of the latter. On the one side, a generation less, measured by proceeding decades, has to accept material losses, on the other, a generation more, motivated by images of an affluent First World, wants to share in that wealth.” The phenomenon of global migration shows well the conflict dynamic of the contemporary world.

Many critical studies claim that the combination of experiencing persistent insecurity and regarding one’s situation as a result of individual intervention could be considered representative of the neoliberal subject (Foucault, 2008; Rose, 1999). The illusion of choice created by neoliberal self-conceptions masks the continued entrenchment of different forms of inequality in the world. Combining the experience of precariousness among the younger generations with the forces of migration can deepen the division between various generational fractions of young Europeans and non-Europeans.

The expansion of the European Union and the commitment to internal mobility has created a new diversification of migration. As a result, the simplistic definition of the other has become fairly complicated. New migrants from Central and Eastern Europe perceived themselves as hard-working, wealth producing and filling a labor gap. It was migrants outside Europe who have been increasingly divided into the dichotomy of Islam and the West. In fact, many Western and Northern Europeans could tolerate outsiders from both outside Europe and its peripheries, but merely as guests. As Jeffrey C. Alexander (2013: 531–532) notes, “in neither social system could groups from the periphery enter into the center. Deference and sometimes even reciprocity were possible; genuine inclusion was not (...) Core groups have been willing to entertain the idea of incorporation only in an asymmetrical manner. It means that persons can be incorporated, but not their qualities.” In this climate, internal mobility and external migration affect national boundaries and jumble together the native and the foreign, but debates over multiculturalism and nationality have taken on a new urgency. From this sense of endangerment, contemporary social and political measures in Europe have followed. The rise to popularity of populist political parties has meant the struggle with every foreigner and other under threat of national extinction.

## **The Polish Background of Research**

Profound social and economic changes have been taking place in the Polish youth lives for over 25 years. Significant transformations after the collapse of the Soviet Bloc, re-shaped with European and global trends towards the dominance of free market combined with reduced welfare support, have left little choice, but to embrace neoliberal ideology and try the capitalist way in Poland. This change has had far-reaching effects on the structure of Polish society and the well-being of young people in particular. The background to this lies in, on the one hand, an increased focus on the differences in social development and social achievements between Poland and the countries of Western/Northern Europe, and, on the other, patterns of social and labor exclusion of young people, precarious employment has become a typical part of labor market transitions for all young people, including university graduates (Cybal-Michalska, 2014). This leads to the emergence of a culture of migration, in which spending a period of time working abroad becomes a normal rite of passage for young people. In some way, migration can be seen as a symbolic voice of opposition against the hegemony of previous generations and carries a simple message “I am leaving.” Especially, when the broken promises of a



better life have brought increasing alienation from official adult standards which promote both education and work (Albański, 2016).

The interpretation of migration which enjoy the greatest legitimacy among young Poles is that of migrant individual agency and responsibility, although the relative weight placed on individual action and obstacles in explaining outcomes may differ according to the expected desirability of that outcome (Grabowska-Lusińska, 2014). This discourse fits within a broader ideological framework of an individualized society, centered on an exaggeration of the role of individual action and responsibility. It problematizes what is seen as a paternalistic approach, which makes young people passive and dependent. As a result, young people may downplay the existence of external obstacles as a factor, and make a more general argument that individual effort is all that is required for success (Cybal-Michalska, 2012). It rests on particular assumptions about themselves, i.e., having choice and agency.

From such a perspective, the popular conception of migration overemphasizes what individuals can do, and the extent to which what they do is individually chosen rather than structurally determined. Moreover, the idea of an individual that has the power to influence their life comes to determine a common understanding of selves, others and social relations. It seems that the casualization of labor force, combined with greater insecurity for young people, who are positioned as in charge of personal achievement or failure, and with migration seen as a safety valve implies a tendency to define one's life situation in terms of individual responsibility and accountability (whilst dismissing certain social obstacles), on the one hand. On the other, both vulnerability and lack of control lead to a heightened sense of insecurity (Albański, 2016).

At the time of writing, news screens are dominated by images of migrants attempting to reach Europe and its promise of a safer and better life. On its better days, Europe opened its door for migrants, imaging itself as a haven in troubling times; on worse days, the ethnic and religious qualities of the new wave of migrant outsiders challenged the collective identities of Europeans in increasingly distressing ways. More and more all the time, however, international headlines present Europe's vulnerability to migration as casting a grim shadow across its future. In Poland, a discourse of an encroaching disaster has monopolized online comments in the way in which migration is presented as a calamity (Mach, Styczyńska, 2016).

Young people's devotion to life on a digital landscape can challenge them as citizens in a particular way. Although the web is usually described in terms of tremendous opportunities for information, social mobilization and action, some studies also show that when people are faced with a social problem, they are likely

to search only for the others with whom they agree. For instance, in her new book, Sherry Turkle (2015) demonstrates how the use of digital technology trespasses on a time of discussion. In her view, getting online immunizes young people from the real conflicts and solutions of the public square. Online, they can choose to see those who share their opinions and offer the ideas they think their followers want to be attached to. Therefore, she warns that a growing tendency among young people for the participation in close-knit online communities will carry high social costs such as a loss of empathy for other people's situations and a growth of narrow-mindedness (Turkle, 2015: 41).

The digital availability of learning other voices does not enable people to see the world through the lenses of diversity. The diversity and inequality of life chances become all visible thanks to global media, but that is exactly what produces particular tensions and potential conflicts. The affective meaning of us is a fundamentally structuring social force, while the opposite side of otherness is powerful to see a sharp distinction: who are they, and why are they here?

## **Discussion**

In his essay *The return of social Darwinism or: Which university do we want?* (2012a), Beck addresses a pertinent question: what role should the university play in the changed world? He claims that the national model of the university is under siege for its deep roots in methodological nationalism. As he explains, it means that the university inculcates the national outlook in societies, whereas global problems create transnational interdependence (Beck, 2012: 59). Perhaps, nothing exhibits this as clearly as European reality, in which migration under the condition of a globalized world, global insecurities and inequalities links different units of global generations.

Higher education plays conflicting roles in dealing with the inherent uncertainty in social forecasts. The weakening of the traditional bonds of community, together with individualization of experiences, personal risk and global insecurity can also be seen as leading to a weakening of traditional social institutions and affiliations. Conditions of doubt penetrate all aspect of social life, and education is no exception. On the contrary, in the unacceptable face of uncertainty, many people demand more education as a perceived remedy for the complexity of today's globalized world. However, the question is what education they want. The promised edge of social sciences has been seriously broken by its processing marketization. In many ways, the nightmare of Weber's iron cage of rationalization has put its

stamp on the condition of higher education. The belief that higher education can set people free from the confines of ignorance, has been changed into the faith in the vocational policy premised on the human capital dictate (Albański, 2016).

The mission of the university to provide a liberal education that contributes to the production of a citizenry that is capable of being engaged in value-based discussions has been negated in favor of the vocational function of the university. Those who define education primarily as serving the needs of economy can play the card of youth unemployment to promote corporate universities and vocational training over social responsibility and intellectual engagement. However, the links between education and work seem to have become less obvious and powerful as young people come into adulthood, which involves a wide variety of routes, many of which appear to have uncertain outcomes (Melosik, 2013). The gap between opportunity structures and self-reliance is a constant source of frustration and stress for today's youth.

According to Beck (2012: 56–57), the combination of experiencing insecurity and regarding one's situation through the lens of a free choice to shape individual achievement or failure is a part of the dominant discourse on youth, education and unemployment, which positions young people in charge of their personal situation. However, those who define education primarily as serving the needs of economy can play the card of youth unemployment to promote selfishness and individuality over social responsibility and intellectual engagement. The neoliberal agenda on universities and youth unemployment, linked with the pressure of globalization and selfish individuality will help the return of social Darwinism. As a result, the ideas of survival of the fittest will prevail over intellectual and social virtues.

As a remedy, Beck (2012: 56) recommends the university of world citizenship, which will broaden the general outlook on globality and (human) social life on planet Earth. He believes that the social lexicon could be rewritten accordingly to grasp global variability and global interconnectedness. In his view, the purpose of the university is to sharpen one's own ideas through the confrontation with the world of global threats such as economic and migration crises, poverty, terrorism, and inequality. Moreover, it means that university graduates will get a better understanding of possible tensions within global generations and it can counteract the dichotomous cleavage between different conflict-laden units of young people.

## **Conclusion**

Criticizing bound thinking and conceptualizations of society and young people centered on nation states, Beck wanted to show global variability and interconnectedness between different units of young people within the framework of global generations. He believed that his contributions to youth studies would shed light on divisions, contradictions, and desires of the global generations. He predicted that the conflict-laden interactions would emerge as a result of intra-generational affinities and tensions. Especially in times of massive migration movements and a feeling of increasing insecurity among young people, expectations of life chances have far-reaching consequences. Hopes and dreams of migration are confronted with the fears of well-being and chronic youth unemployment.

Beck tried to warn his readers that the belief in closed national borders not only gives the overt justification to indifference towards global inequalities and human misfortunes, but also severely limits the capacity for understanding how people conceive of reality. According to him, the struggle over the dignity of the excluded other requires much attention because it seems to be an alternative, available and radical enough, for the construction of a better future, in response to the Hobbesian world of growing insecurity and violence.

The case of Polish young people seems to be a very interesting example for the discussion about cross-border relations within the frameworks of global generations. On the one hand, the migration of young Poles is often associated with both individual aspirations and structural constraints, on the other, Poland used to be a source of emigration and only recently has begun to be considered as a receiving country. An abrupt increase in immigration may be perceived as conspicuous by the majority of young Poles, who declare that they do not want to open their country for migrants. These perceptions may be reinforced by economic insecurity as well. Such observations are only a preliminary step toward a detailed discussion about young Poles in the context of the generational dynamics that exacerbates intra-generational tensions across national borders. Beck's thoughts will offer another look at the situation of young Poles and their declarations.

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## Development of a Tool for Measuring Adverse Health Effects Due to Digital Textbook Use

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### Abstract

This study developed a tool for measuring adverse health effects in students who use digital textbooks. The study tool was aimed at 690 sixth-graders who had used digital textbooks for more than a year in schools taking part in the nationwide digital textbook pilot program. We determined the validity and reliability of the tool. The tool for measuring adverse health effects of digital textbooks consisted of a total of 22 items, including 13 on physical symptoms and 10 on psychological symptoms. For the physical symptoms, two factors – whole body/musculoskeletal symptoms and eye symptoms – were extracted. For the psychological symptoms, the two assessed factors included negative and positive psychological symptoms. This tool will not only be helpful in preventing and managing adverse health effects of digital textbook use by identifying various physical and psychological symptoms, but will also be useful as a basis for the expansion of digital textbooks.

*Keywords: adverse effects, digital textbook, health, measure, tool*

### Introduction

South Korea has developed digital textbooks for schools so that teaching and learning activities can be carried out anywhere, keeping up with the trends of the twenty-first century society, in which easy access to information and knowledge is particularly valued (Korea Education and Research Information Service, 2011).

Digital textbooks had been planned to be distributed to all students in elementary, middle, and high schools by 2015 (Ministry of Educational Science and Technology, 2011). Learning with the use of digital devices is being implemented not only in Korea, but also in many countries, from elementary school students to college students (Czerniewicz and Brown, 2014). Expanding the use of digital devices in many countries can help to provide education without time and space constraints, which can reduce regional disparities such as between cities and rural areas. Therefore, countries with a larger area can extend the benefits of learning from digital devices more than others.

Digital textbooks, however, have some health-related issues. Seomun, Kim, and Noh (2012) pointed out that there are a number of physical and psychological health issues that arise in students who use digital textbooks during their adolescence, which is a period of rapid physical and psychological growth. These health issues must be considered, despite the considerable benefits of digital textbooks (Seomun, Kim, and Noh, 2012).

To examine the physical and psychological health issues of students who use digital textbooks, there is a need for an appropriate measuring tool. Expanding digital textbook use will result in considerable changes to the traditional classroom teaching and learning style throughout all school levels, and these changes might significantly affect student health. However, there is currently no appropriate tool for assessing digital textbook – health correlations. Although a similar measure, the visual display terminal (VDT) syndrome tool, is used to examine the health of people who use computers extensively in their occupational lives, it is not appropriate for assessing the effect of digital textbook use on students.

Therefore, we developed a tool for measuring the adverse health effects of digital textbooks so that we might better understand these effects in students. The tool was based not only on students' subjective opinions, but also on the opinions of teachers and experts.

## **Purpose**

This was a methodological study for developing a tool to measure potential adverse health effects of digital textbook use on students. After pooling the items and devising the tool, we examined its validity and reliability.

## Research Methodology

### Participants

The subjects were 690 female and male sixth-graders who had used digital textbooks for over a year at Korean schools taking part in the nationwide digital textbook pilot program. All the subjects' parents provided written informed consent. Among the subjects, 342 (49.6%) were males and 348 (50.4%) were females. Five hundred and fifty students (79.7%) used computers at home, 225 (32.6%) had spent more than 3 hours communicating with their family each week, 256 (37.1%) took breaks from Internet use at least every hour, and 350 (50.7%) reported middle-level grades. Regarding school life satisfaction, the majority of the students (426; 61.7%) replied that they were "satisfied" (Table 1).

**Table 1.** General characteristics of study participants (N=690)

Characteristics	Categories	N (%)
Gender	Male	342 (49.6)
	Female	348 (50.4)
Location of computer use	School	71 (10.3)
	Internet cafe	24 (3.5)
	Home	550 (79.7)
	Other	45 (6.5)
Communication time with family per week	Lower 30 min	52 (7.5)
	30 min ~ 1 hr	131 (19.0)
	1hr ~ 2 hrs	166 (24.1)
	2 hrs ~ 3 hrs	116 (16.8)
	Upper 3 hrs	225 (32.6)
Rest frequency while using the Internet	Every 30 min	213 (30.9)
	Every 1 hr	256 (37.1)
	Every 2 hr	63 (9.1)
	Every 3 hr	21 (3.0)
	Never	137 (19.9)
School record	Upper	232 (33.6)
	Middle	350 (50.7)
	Lower	108 (15.6)
Satisfaction with school life	High	426 (61.7)
	Middle	211 (30.6)
	Low	53 (7.7)



## **Procedure**

To develop a tool for measuring adverse health effects of digital textbooks, we reviewed the related literature and conducted in-depth interviews with the students and focus-group interviews with teachers and experts. We additionally conducted objective examinations of the students who used digital textbooks, including the evaluation of dry eye syndrome and carpal tunnel syndrome and administering brain activity tests. According to the results of the examinations, literature review, interviews, and focus groups, we created a preliminary questionnaire to measure adverse health effects of digital textbook use on students (Seomun et al., 2009). This preliminary questionnaire consisted of 21 physical symptom items and 24 psychological symptom items. The secondary tool consisted of 12 physical symptom items and 10 psychological symptom items. The items were rated on a 4-point scale, as follows: 1 (not at all), 2 (sometimes), 3 (often), and 4 (always). Higher scores indicated more severe adverse health effects.

For data collection, approval was obtained from the principals and teachers in charge of the subjects' schools, and letters explaining the questionnaire and participation consent forms were sent out to the parents and collected. We explained that the participants could withdraw from the study at any time if they wished and that the collected data would be anonymous and used for research purposes only.

## **Data Analysis**

The data were analysed with the use of SAS 9.2 statistical analysis software (SAS Institute, Inc., Cary, NC, USA) and IBM SPSS Amos 21.0.0 statistical analysis software (Amos Development Corporation). General subject characteristics were analysed using descriptive statistical methods. Construct validity was determined through item analysis, principle component analysis using a varimax rotation, and confirmatory factor analysis. Construct reliability was determined using the split-half technique and Cronbach's  $\alpha$  coefficient, which is a measure of internal consistency.

## **Research Results**

### **Validation verification**

We determined the validity of the tool by conducting factor analysis. First, we performed the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) measure, which examines the validity of a sample toward the entire population by comparing the size of the simple correlation coefficient and the partial correlation coefficient to assess the fitness of

the data for factor analysis. If the KMO value is under 0.50, it is considered inappropriate for factor analysis. However, if it is 0.80 or above, the data are considered to be suitable for factor analysis. The KMO values were 0.956, indicating that the data were suitable for factor analyses.

Additionally, the significance value was  $<0.001$  for both the physical and psychological symptoms according to Bartlett's test of sphericity ( $\chi^2 = 13735.016$ ,  $P = .048$ ). If the sphericity test significance value is  $>0.05$ , then the sample size compared to the number of questions is considered inappropriate. Thus, the sample size in this study was appropriate.

For the factor extraction model, we conducted a series of exploratory factor analyses to determine the number and essence of each potential factor. The factor analysis method used was the principle component analysis, which can predict and minimise data loss by extracting the minimum number of factors. The factor rotation used was a varimax rotation.

According to the results of the primary factor analysis, items that had factor loadings above the minimum of 0.40 and did not have high overlap loadings with other factors were selected to distinguish each factor.

In the physical symptoms, items that disagreed with the overall makeup of Factor 1, and items that had a high overlap loadings with Factor 2, including numbers 1 ("I yawn when I use digital textbooks"), 2 ("I become tired when I use digital textbooks"), 6 ("I get discomfort or stiffness in the neck when I use digital textbooks"), 9 ("I get a headache when I use digital textbooks"), and 10 ("I feel nauseous when I use digital textbooks") were removed. Questions that disagreed with the makeup of Factor 2 and those that had high overlap loadings with Factor 1, including numbers 4 ("The writing looks blurry when I use digital textbooks"), 13 ("I get bloodshot eyes when I use digital textbooks"), 18 ("I feel discomfort in my eyes when I use digital textbooks"), and 21 ("I get spasms around the eyes or twitching in the eyelids when I use digital textbooks") were removed. Through this factor extraction process, 12 items in 2 factors were selected from the total of 21 items after removing 9 items from the physical symptoms. Factor 1 consisted of physical symptoms affecting the whole body and musculoskeletal system; the eigenvalue was 4.370, the accumulative variance was 54.623%, and the factor loading for each item ranged from 0.597 to 0.816. Factor 2 consisted of eye symptoms; the eigenvalue was 3.384, the accumulative variance was 26.404%, and the factor loadings for the items ranged from 0.690 to 0.811.

For the psychological symptoms, items that had high overlap loadings with Factors 3 and 4, including numbers 4 ("I feel confused because digital textbooks

have too many functions”), 7 (“I become impatient when I use digital textbooks”), 9 (“I do not feel like moving even during break after using digital textbooks”), and 23 (“I get competitive when my friend next to me goes faster than I do when using digital textbooks”), were first removed. In addition, we removed numbers: 5 (“I do not look at other websites when using digital textbooks”), 10 (“Sometimes I do something other than study when using digital textbooks”), 12 (“I become more cautious in my behaviour when I use digital textbooks”), 13 (“Conversation time with friends decreases when I study with digital textbooks”), 15 (“I think digital textbooks are more efficient than paper textbooks for studying”), 17 (“I feel the urge to destroy the digital textbook when it does not work in the way I want it to”), 19 (“I have ruined the digital textbook at some point because I become irritated”), 21 (“I sometimes do not realise somebody is calling me because I become absorbed in the digital textbook”), 22 (“I am not interested in using the Internet at home on days when I use digital textbooks”), and 24 (“My concentration drops when I study with digital textbooks due to their various functions compared with paper textbooks”) because their factor loadings were  $<0.40$  and their overlap loadings were high with other factors.

Thus, through this factor extraction process, we selected 10 items in 2 factors by removing 14 items from the initial 24 for psychological symptoms. In the psychological symptoms, Factor 3 included negative psychological symptoms; the eigenvalue was 3.416, the accumulative variance was 48.805%, and the factor loadings for each question ranged from 0.633 to 0.744. Factor 4 included positive psychological symptoms; the eigenvalue was 2.452, the accumulative variance was 29.035%, and the factor loading for the questions ranged from 0.624 to 0.752 (Table 2).

Finally, we conducted confirmatory factor analysis to test goodness of fit to determine the 4 – factor measurement model:  $\chi^2$ , the Goodness of Fit Index (GFI), the Adjusted Goodness of Fit Index (AGFI), the Root Mean Square Error of Approximation (RMSEA), the Tucker-Lewis Index (TLI), the Normed Fit Index (NFI), the Comparative Fit Index (CFI), and the Root Mean Square Residual (RMR). The 4 – factor measurement model of the 22 items indicated a good fit for the instrument according to the fit indices (AGFI = 0.917, RMSEA = 0.049, NFI = 0.901, and RMR = 0.041). The factor loadings for the 22 items ranged from 0.597 to 0.816 (Figure 1).

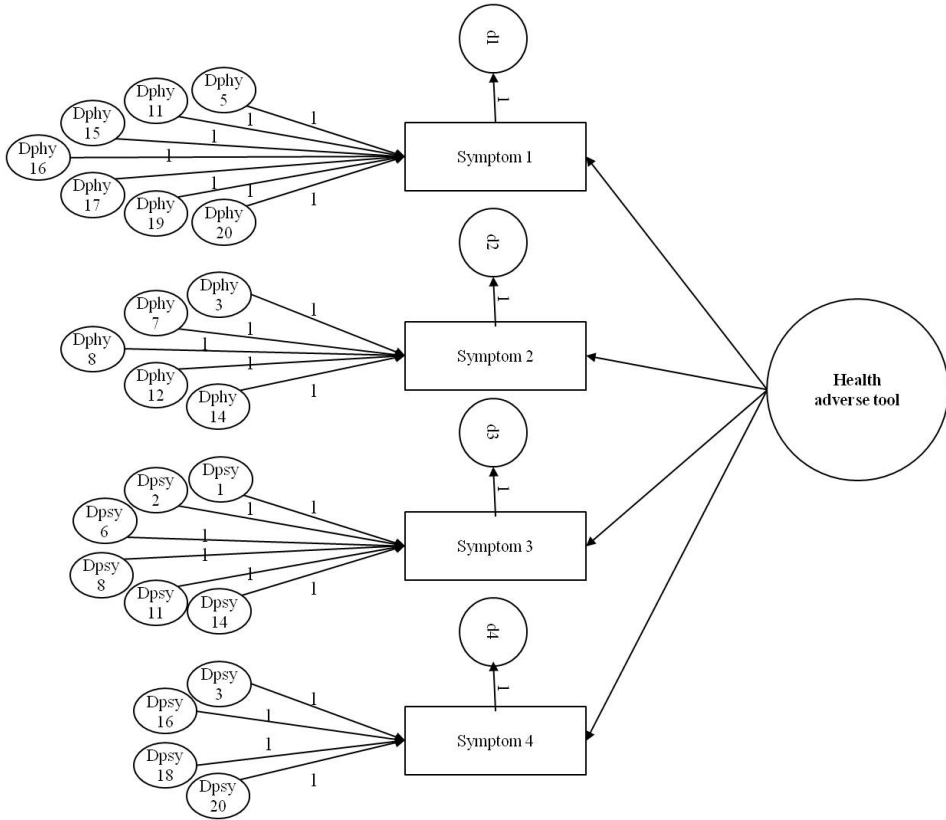
Table 2. Factor analysis

Factor	Item	Mean (SD)	Factor loading	Eigen Values	Accumulative Variance (%)
Physical symptoms	5. My fingers begin to feel numb when I use digital textbooks.	1.41 (0.83)	0.597	4.370	54.623
	11. My wrist hurts or goes to sleep when I use digital textbooks.	1.47 (0.81)	0.683		
	15. I feel pressure in my chest when I use digital textbooks.	1.49 (0.91)	0.724		
	16. I feel dizzy when I use digital textbooks.	1.62 (1.00)	0.767		
	17. I feel discomfort or pain in my shoulders when I use digital textbooks.	1.71 (1.00)	0.816		
Eye symptoms	19. I feel discomfort or pain in my back when I use digital textbooks.	1.65 (0.99)	0.790		
	20. I think my physical strength decreases when I use digital textbooks.	1.55 (0.92)	0.756		
	3. My eyes become dry when I use digital textbooks.	2.01 (2.15)	0.747	3.384	26.404
	7. My vision gets worse when I use digital textbooks.	1.88 (1.00)	0.726		
	8. My eyes sting and hurt when I use digital textbooks.	1.68 (0.94)	0.811		
	12. My eyes become tired when I use digital textbooks.	1.98 (0.99)	0.798		
	14. My eyes get teary when I use digital textbooks.	1.45 (0.83)	0.690		

Factor	Item	Mean (SD)	Factor loading	Eigen Values	Accumulative Variance (%)
Psychological symptoms	Factor 3: Negative psychological symptoms			3.416	48.805
	1. I become impatient when there is a problem with the digital textbook.	1.75 (0.87)	0.656		
	2. I become forgetful of what I should do when I use digital textbooks.	1.54 (0.81)	0.712		
	6. I become bored of repeatedly using the same functions on digital textbooks.	1.85 (0.97)	0.702		
	8. I become irritated when the digital textbook does not work.	2.41 (1.21)	0.633		
	11. I become stressed that the class does not go well with digital textbook use.	1.83 (1.04)	0.721		
	14. I become tired more easily when I study with digital textbooks than with paper textbooks.	2.02 (1.09)	0.744		
	Factor 4: Positive psychological symptoms			2.452	29.035
	3. I become more interested in studying when digital textbooks are used in class.	2.10 (0.91)	0.624		
	16. I can concentrate better with digital textbooks than with paper textbooks.	1.86 (1.12)	0.752		
18. I feel confident during classroom presentations because of using digital textbooks.	1.70 (0.92)	0.676			
20. I think using digital textbooks helps with understanding the course contents.	1.99 (1.01)	0.705			

Factor	Item	Mean (SD)	Factor loading	Eigen Values	Accumulative Variance (%)
Physical symptoms	5. My fingers begin to feel numb when I use digital textbooks.	1.41 (0.83)	0.597	4.370	54.623
	11. My wrist hurts or goes to sleep when I use digital textbooks.	1.47 (0.81)	0.683		
	15. I feel pressure in my chest when I use digital textbooks.	1.49 (0.91)	0.724		
	16. I feel dizzy when I use digital textbooks.	1.62 (1.00)	0.767		
Factor 1 Whole body and musculoskeletal symptoms	17. I feel discomfort or pain in my shoulders when I use digital textbooks.	1.71 (1.00)	0.816	3.384	26.404
	19. I feel discomfort or pain in my back when I use digital textbooks.	1.65 (0.99)	0.790		
	20. I think my physical strength decreases when I use digital textbooks.	1.55 (0.92)	0.756		
	3. My eyes become dry when I use digital textbooks.	2.01 (2.15)	0.747		
Factor 2 Eye symptoms	7. My vision gets worse when I use digital textbooks.	1.88 (1.00)	0.726	3.384	26.404
	8. My eyes sting and hurt when I use digital textbooks.	1.68 (0.94)	0.811		
	12. My eyes become tired when I use digital textbooks.	1.98 (0.99)	0.798		
	14. My eyes get teary when I use digital textbooks.	1.45 (0.83)	0.690		

Factor	Item	Mean (SD)	Factor loading	Eigen Values	Accumulative Variance (%)		
Psychological symptoms	Factor 3: Negative psychological symptoms	1. I become impatient when there is a problem with the digital textbook.	0.656	3.416	48.805		
		2. I become forgetful of what I should do when I use digital textbooks.	0.712				
	6. I become bored of repeatedly using the same functions on digital textbooks.	0.702					
	8. I become irritated when the digital textbook does not work.	0.633					
	11. I become stressed that the class does not go well with digital textbook use.	0.721					
	14. I become tired more easily when I study with digital textbooks than with paper textbooks.	0.744					
	Factor 4: Positive psychological symptoms	3. I become more interested in studying when digital textbooks are used in class.	2.10 (0.91)	0.624		2.452	29.035
		16. I can concentrate better with digital textbooks than with paper textbooks.	1.86 (1.12)	0.752			
		18. I feel confident during classroom presentations because of using digital textbooks.	1.70 (0.92)	0.676			
		20. I think using digital textbooks helps with understanding the course contents.	1.99 (1.01)	0.705			



**Figure 1.** Confirmatory factor analysis

**Reliability verification**

According to the results using the split-half technique, the reliability of odd number items was 0.888. The odd number items were 0.859 for physical symptoms and 0.815 for psychological symptoms.

Cronbach’s  $\alpha$ , which is a measure of internal consistency, of the final 4 factors and 22 items was 0.915. It was 0.921 for physical symptoms and 0.790 for psychological symptoms. Among the physical symptoms, the factor “whole body and musculoskeletal symptoms” had the highest value at 0.881, followed by “eye symptoms” at 0.851, “negative psychological symptoms” at 0.849, and “positive psychological symptoms” at 0.769.



## **Discussion**

In this study, we conducted literature reviews and in-depth interviews with students and focus-group interviews with teachers and experts to develop tools. These research methods are appropriate because previous researchers also developed and validated tools based on student, teacher, and expert focus group interviews when developing tools to measure student-related variables (Matorera and Fraser, 2016). Our analysis revealed that the 22 items in this adverse health effect tool were appropriate by using confirmatory factor analysis to test goodness of fit to validate the 4 – factor measurement model. The recommendations for a good fit were the following:  $\chi^2$ 's P values greater than 0.05, GFI/AGFI/TLI/NFI/CFI values greater than 0.90, and RMSEA/RMR values under 0.05 (Seomun et al., 2009). This tool indicated a good fit for our instrument according to the fit indices.

Two factors were extracted for physical symptoms: “whole body and musculoskeletal symptoms” and “eye symptoms.” These factors explained 81.027% of the variance. Furthermore, 2 factors were extracted for psychological symptoms: “negative psychological symptoms” and “positive psychological symptoms,” which explained 77.840% of the variance.

There were 7 items in the “whole body and musculoskeletal symptoms” factor, all based on the results of the literature review, interviews, focus-group interviews, and carpal tunnel syndrome tests. The musculoskeletal symptoms appeared to manifest across the entire body, and the correlations among these symptoms appeared high, i.e., they often co-occurred. Therefore, we assumed that the body and musculoskeletal system could not be separated and they showed roughly the same properties. Thus, we grouped them together. Whole body and musculoskeletal symptoms frequently occur in elementary students who use computers for long periods. In previous studies of the relationship between Internet addiction and VDT syndrome in elementary students, musculoskeletal pain and tiredness increased significantly according to the degree of Internet addiction, indicating that it occurs in students who use computers for long periods (Lee, Hwang, 2008).

The “eye symptoms” factor contained 5 items. According to the various interviews and preliminary examinations, which included dry eye syndrome tests, the students mainly complained about dryness or tiredness in their eyes, indicating that it was appropriate to extract these items. Moreover, in a study of VDT – related self-recognised symptoms in teenagers, eye symptoms were the second most frequently reported symptoms, after musculoskeletal symptoms. Thus, the extraction of this factor was appropriate (Lim, Kam, Han, Kang, and Cha, 2002).

There were 6 items in the “negative psychological symptoms” factor. The interviewed students reported being stressed due to program errors or Internet speed, and therefore the extraction of these items was deemed appropriate. The mental and psychological stress related to computer use also appeared in the study by Kim and Cho, which showed that people with computer addiction and high computer usage had more mental symptoms than whole body, musculoskeletal symptoms, or eye symptoms (Kim and Cho, 2005).

Finally, there were 4 items in “positive psychological symptoms.” This agreed with the results of Suh, Seo, and Hwang (2009), showing that using digital textbooks promotes learning activities that traditional paper textbooks do not allow and increases problem-solving ability (Suh, Seo, and Hwang, 2009). This helps students to be more interested in learning and concentrate on their studies and improves their studying efficiency by increasing their understanding of the content. These findings were also clear from the results of the interviews, indicating that our extracted items were appropriate.

According to the results of the split-half method, the odd number items were 0.888, the values for the physical symptoms were 0.859, and the values for the psychological symptoms were 0.815. Cronbach’s  $\alpha$  of the final 22 items was 0.907: of this, Cronbach’s  $\alpha$  for the physical symptoms was 0.867 and for the psychological symptoms was 0.819. Because the participants were primarily elementary school students and thus were very active, Cronbach’s  $\alpha$  of the physical symptoms appeared higher than that of the psychological symptoms.

### **Implication**

Thus far, many studies on the effect of digital devices on students’ learning have been performed (Hardman, 2005). However, studies on health effects have rarely been conducted with adequate measurement tools. In this study, we developed a tool with high validity and reliability by incorporating the opinions of students, teachers, and experts, as well as the results of objective examinations. Developing a valid and reliable tool that can measure adverse health effects is useful for long-term follow-up studies examining the physical and psychological symptoms associated with digital textbooks. Furthermore, this tool can help manage the symptoms of groups at high risk for such effects and add to the development of “healthier” digital textbooks. The use of healthier digital textbooks will expand the application of digital textbooks and reduce the education gap among regions.

## **Conclusions**

We developed a tool for measuring the adverse health effects of digital textbooks to identify the most common negative effects of using digital textbooks. In the item selection, we considered the subjective opinions of the students who used the digital textbooks as well as those of teachers and experts. The construct validity was examined through item and factor analyses, and reliability was determined using the split-half method and Cronbach's  $\alpha$ . This tool has high validity and reliability, allowing it to be effectively used to assess the adverse health effects that can occur in students who use digital textbooks.

Because digital textbook learning can minimise the gap of time and space, if we can resolve concerns about the adverse health effects caused by digital textbooks, it can be more secure in expanding education. The adverse health effects measurement tool developed in this study can be used to reduce these concerns through the assessment of adverse health effects. In addition, we suggest conducting a study in the future on middle and high school students, in addition to elementary students, to evaluate potential grade and/or age effects of digital textbook use on student health. An intervention study would be helpful for developing ways to prevent and manage the adverse health effects that we observed in this study.

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## Promotion of National Heroes as Civic Role-Models during Democratisation

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### Abstract

The paper considers the relationship between remembrance narratives on national heroes and proliferation of political attitudes, values and behaviours during democratisation. It discusses the impact of interpretations of the past on the development of civil society in the context of public education as an instrument of identity politics. Comparing the experiences of Chile, Estonia, Georgia, Poland, South Africa and Spain, the authors present the role of national heroes in the legitimisation of behaviours and attitudes, new elites and national unity. The discussed results prove that the establishment of a pro-democratic system of civic education increases chances for successful consolidation of democracy in post-authoritarian countries.

**Keywords:** *democratisation, civic society, civic education, national hero, remembrance, narratives*

### Introduction

Cicero praised history as a source of knowledge of reality in his famous maxim, *historia magistra vitae est*. For centuries, philosophers had been promoting this simplified understanding of the political role of the past, until Karl Marx noticed that relations between remembrance and social processes are far more about power and control. However, it was Maurice Halbwachs' (1992) works on collective memory that inspired scholars to discuss the role of remembrance narratives

as political assets and vibrant sources of shared identities and beliefs. Later, Jan and Aleida Assmann proved that interpretations of past events could serve as carriers for ideas and images, helping to disseminate them within society (A. Assmann, 2006; 2008; J. Assmann, 1995; 2011). In fact, now it is clear that history is more than a *magistra vitae*, as remembrance narratives have become a crucial instrument of social mobilisation or a way in which elites legitimise social order (Westen, 2008, pp. 41–49; Wawrzyński & Schattkowsky, 2015, p. 74).

The rapid development of memory studies in last decades has shown that interpretations of the past play critical roles in various aspects of social and political life – from identity politics through the distribution of wealth and resources up to the organisation of crimes against humanity. Remembrance delivers explanations and legitimises them in a broader context of historical causation, inevitability and the just world hypothesis (Marszałek-Kawa & Wawrzyński, 2016, p. 13). Its objective is to inform society about appropriate measures to overcome challenges and protect the imagination of community's 'Ideal Self' (Wawrzyński, 2017, pp. 298–300). It constitutes supporting evidence for opinions and beliefs presenting them as a part of some future-oriented historical process which makes society a better place for its members (Clark, 2018). Finally, remembrance narratives educate citizens and stimulate construction of their conclusions on issues which shape collective identities, political preferences, attitudes and behaviours (Hedtke et al., 2017, p. 11; Offen, 2017).

However, it remains unclear how governments use interpretations of the past to consolidate shared identities and promote social change. Moreover, scholars cannot answer why some memorisations cause dysfunctionalities – perpetuate antagonism and conflicting identities or promote prejudice and national chauvinism (Baliqi, 2018; Žuk, 2018). There are policies which popularise contents critical to the development of civil society: pluralism, democratic values and diversity of perspectives (DesRoches, 2016). There is not enough research evidence concerning the effectiveness of remembrance story-telling to show how governments may adapt their measures to the changing logic and media of social communication, preventing core narratives from fading into oblivion (Brauckmann, 2015, pp. 258–259). In this paper, we consider these aspects of the 'alliance of power and memory' in the context of the promotion of national heroes as civic role-models during democratisation. Therefore, we investigate the role of public education in the construction of post-authoritarian communities of values based on human rights protection, the rule of law, separation of powers and – what is crucial for our study – civic engagement (Agüero, 2007).

In the 19<sup>th</sup> century, the public education system became a central instrument of the government's management of collective memory – it has centralised supervision of school standards and curricula since then. It enables political leaders to control all crucial aspects: primary schools, high schools, professional training, universities, adult education and civic education, and consolidate them into one capable device of social influence (Boschki et al., 2015, p. 470). However, as Wolfgang Meseth and Matthias Proske (2015, pp. 177–179) noticed, even this complex machinery might become ineffective if pedagogical communication lacks appropriate strategies to involve the audience and address the problem of contingency. In fact, all the power of the education system is dependent on teachers and public educators, whose competences determine social and political outcomes of remembrance story-telling – if teachers fail, the remembrance policy fails as well (Short, 2015), but if they succeed, history may stimulate society to improve itself (McLaren, 1999).

Public education offers a unique opportunity to present a comprehensive interpretation of history to all citizens, as well as enabling authorities to contextualise it concerning the national identity and promoting the image of the nation's 'Ideal Self'. Its power comes from the completeness of communication. However, it is not limited to it, and as Yuval Dror (2001) states, it helps to construct emotional bonds between citizens and remembrance narratives, moral parallels and individual imaginations of the past. Educators do not merely tell stories; they present narratives as explanations and justifications of institutions, values, symbols of values (Gallant, Hartman, 2001), which is essential for identity reconstruction during political transformations. As a result, story-telling becomes an interactive ritual of commemoration and belonging (Yablonka, 2009).

At the same time, public education still is an instrument of political, indirect and direct, control. Authorities determine its organisation, funding and employment strategy, but they can also influence contents of school curricula and history textbooks. In the second case, curricula and textbooks promote specific definitions and understandings, or – as Alexander Bukh (2007) proved – define the nation's historical sensibility (Thomas, 1993; Storey, 2017; Kennedy, 2017). Therefore, remembrance narratives may mediate proliferation of civic attitudes, values and behaviours, causing some limitation to further democratic development (Komalasari, Saripudin, 2017; Hailat, 2017). They produce boundaries for public debates, defining which actions are either historically appropriate or against the nation's tradition or interests (Fukuoka, 2011). Finally, the public education system can serve as a medium for propaganda and manipulation of public opinion

– promoted interpretations of the past may legitimise social, economic or political order and refocus citizens from the current state of the nation to unresolved past injustices (Wang, 2008). State-promoted remembrance narratives articulate interests of political elites (Olick, 2007), which can result in both limitation and consolidation of democratic practices. Thus, these decisions are critical for the outcomes of democratisation and its persistence.

## **Methodology**

The paper presents results of the research project on relationships between the transitional government's remembrance policy and the reconstruction of political identities during post-authoritarian transformations. The study investigated if there is a standard model of remembrance story-telling during democratisation, and how new elites try to use national history to accelerate social, economic and political changes. In general, it considered interpretations of the past as a transitional asset which governments employ to disseminate the new vision of the nation's 'Ideal Self' and transform an authoritarian society into a democratic one (Marszałek-Kawa et al., 2017, pp. 116–117; Ingimundarson, 2007).

The study compared six cases of transitional remembrance policy: Chile, Estonia, Georgia, Poland, South Africa and Spain. We investigated four groups of sources – (1) legislation, policy documents, political strategies and roadmaps, (2) public speeches, interviews and writings of political and social leaders, (3) educational policy statements, school curricula and textbooks, and (4) landscape of memory and museum exhibitions. We used them to analyse relationships between remembrance story-telling and transitional reconstruction of national identity. We grouped all thirty-seven research questions (fields of impact) into eight categories describing the most dense areas of historical justification for: the power of new elites, presence of old elites, transitional justice, social costs of transformations, implementation of new standards, symbolic roles of democratisation, need for national unity and changing position in international politics. In few cases our interest in the transitional 'alliance of power and memory' overlapped with the issue of promotion of national heroes as civic role-models, which we discuss in the paper. We considered reconstruction of the national pantheon as an aspect of new elites' legitimisation (item 1–3), heroes as role-models of democratic attitudes in the context of new political standards (5–3), their role in promotion of new behaviours related to the symbolic role of democratisation (6–4) and new pantheon as realisation of national unity (7–4).



For all thirty-seven investigated fields of the impact of remembrance on transitional identities, we applied a qualitative-to-quantitative narrative analysis supported by a coding system with five degrees of relevance. Each of them was carefully described, evaluated and rated from the very low to the very high level of significance for the government's policy. As a result, we used descriptive statistics to process collected data and compare selected cases of post-authoritarian transformations. Moreover, it enabled us to discuss the models of political use of remembrance narratives during democratisation and consider the universality of this process.

## **Results**

In general, the observed role of remembrance narratives in post-authoritarian identity politics was rather moderate, on the edge of the low degree (average: 2.63 points; range: 1–5 points). It was important for the justification of the symbolic roles of democratisation (3.07) and a new identity in international politics (3.00), while rather irrelevant for the explanation of the social costs of transformations (1.83) and transitional justice (2.17). Results for only two categories were correlated with the general shape of remembrance story-telling during the post-authoritarian transition: symbolic roles of change ( $r = 0.96$ ) and its social costs ( $r = 0.91$ ). Three other – identity in international politics, the legitimisation of new elites and previous leadership – were characterised by very weak relationships. Using one-way ANOVA, we noticed that significant differences between cases occurred in justifications of transitional justice ( $p$ -value < 0.01), new identity in international politics ( $p$ -value = 0.01), symbolic roles of democratisation ( $p$ -value = 0.02), new leadership ( $p$ -value = 0.03). For the remaining four categories, the observed differences were insignificant.

In our context of national heroes and civic education, the most significant field of impact was the promotion of new behaviours related to the symbolic roles of democratisation (6–4). We ranked it as the fifth of all the investigated items with its average score of 3.5 points. Moreover, its correlation with the general result was one of the strongest observed ( $r = 0.75$ ), while the results for individual countries were different ( $SD = 1.64$ ). Reconstruction of the national pantheon to support the power of new elites (1–3) had a moderate influence on transitional remembrance story-telling regarding its average 3 points. The result for heroes as role-models of new democratic attitudes (5–3) was close to the general average, and it was the median of the data sample (2.67 points). Finally, the average score for the new pan-

theon of heroes as the realisation of national unity (7–4) was significantly lower than in the remaining three discussed issues (2.17 points). It was also the least differentiated – the standard deviation equalled 0.75, while for the other fields of impact it was around two times higher. Besides the first described, these items were not strongly correlated with the general result. However, we observed some significant relationships between them and other items and categories, including the strong correlation between the roles of national heroes in the legitimisation of new elites and democratic attitudes ( $r = 0.94$ ). In general, there were nineteen significant relationships between them and other fields of impact and five with categories (functions of story-telling).

**Table 1.** The role of national heroes as civic role-models during democratisation

Field of impact	Chile	Estonia	Georgia	Poland	South Africa	Spain	AM	r	SD
1–3: Reconstruction of the national pantheon	3	4	2	3	5	1	3.00	0.44	1.41
5–3: Heroes as role-models of democratic attitudes	2	4	2	2	5	1	2.67	0.57	1.51
6–4: Role of heroes in promotion of new behaviours	4	4	2	1	5	5	3.50	0.75	1.64
7–4: New pantheon as the realisation of unity	3	3	2	2	2	1	2.17	0.46	0.75
Average	3.00	3.75	2.00	2.00	4.25	2.00	2.83	0.76	

Source: based on calculations discussed in Marszałek-Kawa et al., 2017 (AM – arithmetic mean, r – Pearson correlation coefficient, SD – standard deviation; scores of fields of impact: 1 – very low role in transitional identity reconstruction, 2 – low, 3 – moderate, 4 – high, 5 – very high).

Therefore, we investigated four aspects of using national heroes in transitional identity politics, regarding new elites, political attitudes and behaviours or a need for unity. The average result for these fields was approximately 7.5% higher than the general average, and there was some apparent relationship between the results ( $r = 0.76$ ). Further, in the established simplified model MTR19 of nineteen most relevant items (Marszałek-Kawa et al., 2017, pp. 163–167) we excluded only the role of new pantheon as the realisation of national unity. The average for national heroes as civic role-models was still about 7.5% higher than the general average (3.06 points to 2.84), but the correlation became even stronger ( $r = 0.85$ ), which

proves that narratives on national heroes have a profound influence on transitional remembrance story-telling.

## **Conclusion**

Democratisation forces society to evaluate its political identity critically. Post-authoritarian conditions promote the establishment of the nation's new 'Ideal Self'. One of the core means of its proliferation are interpretations of the past. Moreover, remembrance story-telling seems to regulate emotional responses to transformations, and it explains changes as a predictable process (Marszałek-Kawa et al., 2017, pp. 169–171; Marszałek-Kawa, Wawrzyński, 2016, pp. 19–20). History becomes a political asset that can be used in the process of society's reconstruction or deconstruction of cultural patterns (Wawrzyński, Stańco-Wawrzyńska, 2016, p. 146). It is visible in the discussed context of national heroes and civic education.

Collected data showed that the significant transitional objective was to promote democratic behaviours thanks to compelling role-models. Their importance increased when the reconstruction of society and reconciliation were presented as aims of transformations (Chile, Estonia, South Africa and Spain). On the other hand, in countries like Poland, where governments limited their involvement in remembrance story-telling and identity politics, the emerging civil society was left without promoted democratic role-models. It might be an explanation why some post-authoritarian societies experience backslides in the consolidation of democracy because there are no established links between essential historical narratives and democratic 'codes of conduct' (Hall, 2018). For all societies, public education seems to be a critical area for this process (Schuitema et al., 2017). Yet, as we found in our study, some governments tend to underestimate it and focus mostly on legal and economic affairs.

We observed that national heroes are an essential instrument of the legitimisation of new elites, and this aim manifests itself in education policies. There are at least two types of historical justification. Firstly, heroes of the pro-democratic movement become role-models of civic behaviours and new school curricula protect their central position in the national pantheon. Secondly, the government incorporates other mainstream heroes into legitimising narratives to prove that new elites have full authority to govern the state. The South African case is a good example – during Nelson R. Mandela's presidency, the African National Congress centralised remembrance narratives around itself despite the indignation of other anti-apartheid organisations.

Both aspects influence the way in which national heroes promote democratic attitudes. Even if our study showed that governments express rather low interest in them, in countries like Estonia and South Africa remembrance narratives were a key instrument in the popularisation of civic engagement, activism, tolerance or reconciliation. However, as Nadine Sika (2016) proved, it might be the highly underrated aspect of democratisation where public education plays a critical role in the transformation of society. Finally, as in the case of Chile, reconstruction of the national pantheon may represent a political dream of national unity and inclusive community, despite its moderate role in transitional identity politics. Therefore, it should be present in divided or diverse societies (Baba, Aeysinghe, 2017, p. 47).

The results of our investigations prove that use of national heroes as democratic role-models is essential for civic education during transformation. We observed their significant position in the complex of remembrance narratives, especially if the government set reconstruction of society as a transitional objective. Also, we noticed that public education played a crucial role in the proliferation of historical interpretations associated with civic role-models. Considering the collected data, we believe that without the establishment of a pro-democratic system of education it is almost impossible to prevent backslides in the consolidation of democracy and classrooms are as essential areas of democratisations as public offices, courthouses, newsrooms or enterprises.

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## **Proliferation of Democratic Education in Indonesia: The Influence Measurement of Tolerance, Multiculturalism, and Historical Awareness on the Democratic Attitude**

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### **Abstract**

This research aims to predict the direction of democratic education in Indonesia through the influence measurement of tolerance, multicultural sensitivity, and historical awareness of the democratic attitude. The multiple linear regression test, coefficient determination test, and model accuracy test were used to measure the influence of the predictors and the dependent variable. The research participants were 300 students, aged between 17 and 18 years, who were taken proportionally in Senior High School (SHS) 1 Surakarta, SHS 5 Surakarta, and SHS 6 Surakarta. Results showed a simultaneous and partial influence of tolerance, multicultural sensitivity, and historical awareness on the democratic attitude. The authors found that there is no diversion in the proliferation of democratic education in Indonesia, in which tolerance, multicultural sensitivity, and historical awareness have a positive influence on the democratic attitude. However, the authors stated that the association between tolerance and democratic education in Indonesia remains problematic, thus, it should be noticed in future research.

*Keywords: democratic education, proliferation, democratic attitude*



## **1. Introduction**

Democratic education is an educational approach that posits the principles of democracy as the basic philosophy of theory and practice of education (Gutmann, 1999; Dewey, 2004). The origin of democratic education can be traced from ancient Greece to the enlightenment era and since the end of World War II, the concept of democratic education has developed rapidly alongside with the rise of the democratic government state (Cartledge, 2009). Along with this rapid development, democratic education is progressively associated with other philosophical dimensions of humanity, such as human rights (Russel & Briggs, 1941), liberty (Dewey, 2004), equality (Grant, 1978), tolerance (Gardner, 1993), individual freedom and civic virtue (Gutmann, 1993), morality (Puolimatka, 1997), multiculturalism (Green, 1998), emancipation (Waghid, 2014), and collective memory (Miształ, 2005).

The associations between democratic education and other humanity dimensions are reflecting the dialectical phenomena that can be called the proliferation of democratic education. From the authors' perspectives, the proliferation of democratic education could have a paradoxical impact. On the one hand, proliferation could evolve the theory and practice of democratic education from its dialectical process. On the other hand, the fusion of values in proliferation could provide a space for cooptation or subordination in which it could divert the direction of democratic education. The tendency to diversion was shown in Biesta's and Apple's studies. Biesta (2010) indicated the present democratic education seems to be socially rather than politically oriented. Meanwhile, Apple (2011) observed that the direction of democratic education becomes social as a result of values contestation in democracy. These observations indicated that the objective of the present democratic education becomes pluralistic. Hence, the study of proliferation becomes important in order to predict the direction and dynamics of future democratic education.

The symptoms of proliferation can be found empirically in the curricula of democratic states, such as Indonesia. In the context of Indonesia, democratic education has developed since the end of the 20<sup>th</sup> century, in line with the demand of modernity and decentralization in society (Hefner, 2001). The nuance of proliferation can be sensed in the design and content of Curriculum 2013, the current National Curriculum of Indonesia. The value of democracy is mentioned explicitly as one of the philosophical foundations as well as the main objective of Indonesian education, particularly in the subject of history and civic education. Based on the curriculum, democratic values should be achieved by experimental

and social re-constructivist approaches through the development of intellectual skills, communication skills, social attitude, and social participation. In addition, democratic values mingle with other philosophical values, such as nationalism, solidarity, multiculturalism, freedom, historical awareness, and local values.

Considering the above theoretical frameworks, the authors assumed that there could be a potent diversion in Indonesian democratic education. Following this proposition, the presented research aims to predict the direction of democratic education in Indonesia through the influence of tolerance, multicultural sensitivity, and historical awareness of the democratic attitude. These variables represent the operative dimensions in the Indonesian democratic education, which are adequate to become the predictors of the research.

## **2. Theoretical Review**

### **2.1. Democratic Attitude**

Democratic attitude, as one of the learning outcomes of democratic education, cannot be merely defined as an observed behavior. Perceived from the human psychological construction, the democratic attitude consists of the dimension of cognition, affection, and conation (Ajzen, 2005). Davies, Harber, and Schweisfurth (2002) stated that the democratic attitude relates to how the human being manages their cognition and conation in personal and social engagements. They mentioned four basic principles of democracy that cover the democratic attitude in the rights, participation, equity, and informed choice. In the same sense, De Groot (2011) enumerated the prerequisite dimensions of the democratic attitude, which consist of people's interpretation of democracy and diversity, people's capacity to participate in democratic society, the commitment and connection among people, the willingness to change, people's ability to engage in dialogue.

The democratic attitude is not solely psychologically constructed, but it is also affected by the social dimension. Schwarz (2007) considered the democratic attitude as the prejudgment of situated cognition in which the consistency of the democratic attitude depends on how the human being contextualizes themselves in any social situation. The psychological and social dimensions in the democratic attitude has been mentioned by many researchers. Perliger, Canetti-Nisim, and Pedahzur (2006) stressed the influence of the perception of democratic class climate on the formation of the democratic attitude. Samanci (2010) emphasized the importance of the student-centered learning approach in creating a democratic environment and democratic attitude in the classroom. Meanwhile, Duman (2010)

mentioned the outward dimension in the form of philosophical understanding, which had become one of the significant factors which affected the development of the democratic attitude.

Based on the theoretical review, the authors concluded that the democratic attitude refers to human perceptual aspects, emotional prejudgment, behavioral commitments, and responses to the principles of democracy in specific circumstances. The authors found that the democratic attitude is not only formatted by the psychological dimension, but is also affected by the social aspect, where other social dimensions such as tolerance, multiculturalism, and historical consciousness play a role in the construction of the democratic attitude.

## **2.2. Tolerance**

Tolerance is one of the components of the democratic attitude. Tolerance is represented by cooperation or the feeling and attitude to the presence of other people, which bridge the personal and social relationship in democratic society. Theoretically, the relationship between democracy and tolerance are mostly dialectical as well as controversial (Forst, 2014). On the one hand, White (1993) mentioned tolerance, especially in the form of personal trust and social trust, as the decisive element of multicultural democratic society. Moreover, d'Entreves (2001), through critical analysis of Sheldon Leader's thought (1996), showed that democracy arrangement tends to foster tolerance among groups with radical differences by the mechanism of shareable understanding. On the other hand, some scholars such as Comanducci (1997) and Dees (1999) doubted the coexistence of democracy and tolerance. Specifically, Ceva (2015) highlighted the problem of minority treatment and tolerance as an obstacle in creating an ideal democratic society. Based on that theoretical review, it can be concluded that the level of tolerance could influence the democratic attitude in a positive or negative way.

## **2.3. Multicultural Sensitivity**

The concept of multicultural sensitivity is identical with multicultural awareness (Pope & Reynolds, 1997) and intersected with the intercultural sensitivity concept (Chen & Starosta, 1997). In specific definitions, multicultural sensitivity refers to the student's response in dealing with cultural and personal diversity. It consists of some indicators encompassing responses to engagement, respect for cultural diversity, attentiveness, enjoyment, and confidence in dealing with others (Jibaja, Sebastian, Kingery, & Holcolmb, 2000). Those indicators show that multicultural sensitivity is intersected with tolerance as well as the democratic attitude through the dimension of personal and social trust, acknowledgement of others, openness,

and social solidarity. Furthermore, Banks (2017) stated that justice and multicultural awareness evoke the democratic attitude. Following the theoretical review, it can be concluded that multicultural sensitivity has an influence on the democratic attitude.

#### **2.4. Historical Awareness**

Historical awareness is a specific form of memory which covers the problems of how the student has learned about the past and how ordinary persons collectively understand the past (Seixas, 2005). Theoretically, the concept of historical awareness and collective memory coincides with social engagement (Halbwachs, 1992), multiculturalism (Brown, 2011) and democracy (Brendese, 2014). However, Misztal (2005) opposed the assumption that memory could positively influence democracy. Misztal stated that memory has a negative influence on democracy, in such a form as it undermines cohesion, high cost of cooperation, and causes moral damage. Based on the above, it can be stated that historical awareness theoretically influences tolerance, multiculturalism, and democracy. However, the influence can be positive or negative.

## **2. Research Hypotheses**

Based on the theoretical review, the authors predicted that there is a simultaneous as well as partial association between tolerance, multicultural sensitivity, and historical awareness and the democratic attitude. By this association, the authors predicted that there is no diversion in the proliferation of democratic education, in which tolerance, multicultural sensitivity, and historical awareness have a positive influence on students' democratic attitude.

## **3. Research Methodology**

The research population consisted of the Indonesian Senior High School (SHS) students. The sample of the research included 300 students ( $n=300$ ), aged between 17 and 18 years, who were selected proportionally from Senior High School (SHS) 5 Surakarta, SHS 6 Surakarta, and SHS 7 Surakarta. These schools are under state authority and already implemented the National Curriculum of 2013, which means that the design and content of democratic education are regularly implemented in those schools. Based on this empirical condition, these schools

became the representative sample to predict the direction of democratic education in Indonesia through the measurement of tolerance, multicultural sensitivity, and historical awareness of the democratic attitude.

In order to collect data, the authors compiled questionnaires regarding the democratic attitude, tolerance, multicultural sensitivity, and historical awareness. The questionnaires consist of 100 question items, which had been tested in terms of their validity and reliability. The validity tests, which were conducted by bivariate test with  $r$  table of 0.148, proved that the items were valid, whereas the reliability test proved that the items were reliable. The results of the reliability test are presented in Table 1.

**Table 1.** Results of the reliability test of questionnaire items

Variable	Cronbach alpha	Reliability
Democratic attitude	0.890	Reliable
Tolerance	0.794	Reliable
Multicultural sensitivity	0.850	Reliable
Historical awareness	0.759	Reliable

Source: primary data processed, 2017

The questionnaires were used to collect data concerning the democratic attitude, tolerance, multicultural sensitivity, and historical awareness. The multiple linear regression test, coefficient determination test, model accuracy test, and t-test were used to analyze the data with the use of Statistical Package for Social Science (SPSS) version 20.00. Meanwhile, the significance level is accepted to be 0.05.

## 4. Research Results

### 4.1. Results of coefficient determination

**Table 2.** Results of the coefficient determination test. Model Summary

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.454a	.207	.198	10.943

a. Predictors: (Constant), Historical Awareness, Multicultural Sensitivity, Tolerance

Table 2 shows that the value of the coefficient of determination was 0.207. The value shows that the variable of the democratic attitude can be explained by the

variable of tolerance, multicultural sensitivity, and historical awareness of 20.7 % and the rest is 79.3 % explained by another model.

#### 4.2. Results of the model accuracy test

**Table 3.** Results of the model accuracy test. ANOVAb

	Model	Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	9225.619	3	3075.206	25.682	.000a
	Residual	35443.217	296	119.741		
	Total	44668.837	299			

a. Predictors: (Constant), Historical Awareness, Multicultural Sensitivity, Tolerance

b. Dependent Variable: Democratic Attitude

Table 3 shows that all the predictors simultaneously had an influence on the dependent variable. It was proved by the F values 25.682 with the probability values 0.000. The probability values were smaller than 0.05 (0.000–0.05), then the variables of tolerance, multicultural sensitivity, and historical awareness simultaneously influence the democratic attitude.

#### 4.3. Results of multiple linear regression and t-test

**Table 4.** Results of the Multiple Linear Regression Test. Coefficientsa

	Model B	Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	T	Sig.
		Std. Error	Beta			
1	(Constant)	25.480	9.805		2.599	.010
	Tolerance	.110	.054	.108	2.042	.042
	Multicultural Sen- sitivity	.446	.065	.363	6.911	.000
	Historical Awareness	.271	.083	.173	3.263	.001

a. Dependent Variable: Democratic Attitude

Based on Table 4, the authors formulated the multiple linear regression equation as follows, Democratic attitude:  $25.480 + 0.110 \text{ tolerance} + 0.446 \text{ multicultural sensitivity} + 0.271 \text{ historical awareness}$ . Furthermore, Table 4 shows that the influence of tolerance on the democratic attitude is confirmed by sig. values 0.042,

which are smaller than 0.05 (0.042–0.05). The influence of multicultural sensitivity on the democratic attitude is confirmed by sig. values 0.000, which are smaller than 0.05 (0.000–0.05). The influence of historical awareness on the democratic attitude is proved by sig. values 0.001, which are smaller than 0.05 (0.001–0.05). The results showed a partial influence of tolerance, multicultural sensitivity, and historical awareness on the democratic attitude. The value also indicates a positive and significant influence of tolerance, multicultural sensitivity, and historical awareness on the democratic attitude.

## **5. Discussion**

The results of the research show that there is a simultaneous relationship between the predictors and the dependent variable. The results also indicate that the predictors simultaneously have a positive and significant influence on the democratic attitude. The influence of the predictors on the democratic attitude confirm the research findings of Perliger, Canetti-Nisim, and Pedahzur (2006), Samanci (2010), Duman (2010), Yigit and Colak (2010), and Salinas and Booth (2011), which show that the democratic attitude is affected by the democratic environment. It also supports Schwarz's (2007) argumentation concerning cognition in the construction of the democratic attitude by proving a simultaneous influence of social dimensions, in the form of tolerance, multicultural sensitivity, and historical awareness, on the score of democratic education. Meanwhile, the results also show a partial influence of tolerance, multicultural sensitivity, and historical awareness on the democratic attitude. The partial influences confirm the argument that the democratic attitude is affected by tolerance (White, 1993; Leader, 1996; d'Entreves, 2001), multicultural sensitivity (Green, 1998; Banks, 2017), and historical awareness (Brown, 2011). However, the result of the research contradicts Misztal's (2005) argumentation about the negative influence of memory on the democratic attitude.

The results of this research, especially those concerning the positive relationship between predictors and dependent variables, show that the process of proliferation supports the direction of democratic education in Indonesia. Thus, the authors confirm that there is no diversion in the proliferation of democratic education, in which tolerance, multicultural sensitivity, and historical awareness have a positive influence on the democratic attitude. It means that, in the context of Indonesian education, the proliferation of democratic education is in line with the design of Curriculum 2013. Based on the result, the design and content of Curriculum 2013,

particularly social solidarity and multiculturalism as well as the experimentalism and social re-constructivism approaches, are consistent with the philosophical stance of democratic education. However, the positive and significant influence of historical awareness confirms the position of history education and civic education as an academic subject in the development of democratic education.

However, the authors notice a problem in the proliferation between tolerance and the democratic attitude. The results of the multiple linear regression tests show that the association between tolerance and democratic education remains problematic. It means that the caution of Comanducci (1997), Dees (1999), Forst (2014), and Ceva (2015) should be taken into consideration in the understanding of the relationship between tolerance and the democratic attitude. Specifically, Ceva (2015) pointed out the problem of minority treatment as the main problem of democracy.

The results of the research confirm the problem of tolerance in Indonesia. The contestation between democracy and religiosity in the political dimensions became a great enigma for Indonesian society (Ramage, 2005). It was supported by Hefner's observation that the problem of tolerance in Indonesia arises in the aspect of religious and ethnic intolerance (Hefner, 2018). It indicates that the problem of tolerance in religion and ethnicity affects the climate of the implementation of democratic education in Indonesia. This situation is different in Minelgaitė, Blažytė, and Littrell's (2017) observation that, in the case of European countries, the term of ethnicity becomes inadequate. Furthermore, in the analyses of Golubeva and Guntersdorfer (2017) and Kotnik and Krecic (2011), the sense of multicultural sensitivity should be promoted in democratic education to improve the intercultural competence and solve the problem of ethnicity in Indonesia. Thus, the problem of minority tolerance and treatment should be noticed more deeply in order to improve the implementation of the democratic attitude.

## **6. Conclusion**

This research proved that proliferation has a positive influence on the dynamic of democratic education in Indonesian. The authors conclude that there is no diversion in proliferation, in which tolerance, multicultural sensitivity, and historical awareness have a positive influence on the democratic attitude. However, other values that are mingling in democratic education should be more investigated to depict the complex problems of the associations among the values. The authors indicate the problem of tolerance and democratic attitude is particularly related



to the problem of religion and ethnicity intolerance, as one of the subjects that should be further analyzed in future research.

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## The Polish and Korean Youth in the World of Digital Media: Communication and Interests. A Comparative Analysis<sup>1</sup>

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### Abstract

The work discusses using digital media in the processes of communicating and developing interests by the contemporary Polish and Korean youth. The youth's typical behaviour in cyberspace is described together with an interpretation of their behaviour on the basis of selected theories of influence of the mass media on viewers and listeners.

**Keywords:** *iGeneration, digital media, communication in cyberspace, youth, South Korea, Poland*

### Introduction

Due to a permanent interest in and an intense use of digital media, and in particular of mobile media, mainly a smartphone, tablet or a notebook, the contemporary youth is becoming more and more often being called the 'iGeneration' ('iGen' for short, or Generation 'Z', who cannot function without an iPhone, iPod or an iPad, which are always on). It is a generation born after 1995. Generation Z is different from Generations X and Y (the latter were also called 'millennials',

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'network generation' or a generation 'addicted to technology', however, the phones of that time did not have as many functions as they have today and not each of their computers had access to the Web), whose life and activities were not dominated first by analogue, and then by digital media to such an extent. The characteristics of Generation 'Z' were found earlier among the Korean, Japanese or Chinese (e.g., Hong Kong) youth, than among the Polish youth, and these characteristics are the following: the head being leaned over the screen/display of a smartphone at school, on the bus, on the underground, in a tearoom or at a restaurant, not looking in their peers' or adults' eyes being in their environment, using an esoteric youth language, taciturnity, articulation problems, problems with the logical structure of a sentence, more often posting on social forums or writing short messages on Messenger, using abbreviations and acronyms derived from English (cf., Juszczuk, Kim, 2015:89–104). They have their friends rather online, who they find via the social media, rather than in the real world (we are observing in their case that differences between the online and offline worlds are fading away, between which worlds they are moving their activity easily, and they are moving their offline behaviour to the online world and vice versa); they are communicating with their friends, but not developing relations – the number of acquaintances struck up in the real world is consistently decreasing, as are face-to-face meetings and conversations. They are self-contained, having problems expressing their emotions, addicted to acquaintances on the Internet, sitting in their rooms, keeping their eyes fixed on their smartphones, isolated, they know what is going on on the Internet, and are not interested in the real world or their own environment. They are taking their phones everywhere with them, touching the screen, checking what is going on online, always analysing if they have got their notifications. They are posting photographs, videos on social networking sites: Facebook or YouTube and continuously checking if somebody has liked this information. They are not talking about their educational or life aspirations, the approval of activity on the Internet, activity which is often intriguing, unusual, and even shocking, being a sort of online exhibitionism, is becoming the most important for them. They are spending their so-called free time on the Internet, they are not getting bored there, they are up to date with what their friends are doing. They cannot function without being online, they are becoming addicted to it. The above behaviour is similar for the Polish and Korean youth, regardless of cultural differences of both societies and the specific nature of education (Juszczuk, Kim, 2016: 132–143; Juszczuk, Kim, 2017: 97–110).

## **Digital Media in the Life of Polish youth**

In June 2017, the results of the ‘*Nastolatki 3.0*’ (‘*Teenagers 3.0*’) research, conducted on the youth’s representative sample, carried out by the Laboratory of Educational Applications of Information and Communications Technologies of the Institute of Research and Academic Computer Network (NASK), to the order of the Children’s Ombudsman, were published in Poland. From the research, it appears that the youth’s digital life is very similar to the real one. They still, if they only can, mainly play, watch movies, listen to music and keep a social life, but also learn, develop their interests and discover the world’s better and worse sides. The research detailed results reveal 30% of the youth remain online all the time, regardless of their whereabouts. 93.4% uses the Internet at home every day, in the first place, to be in contact with their friends from school. A dominant proportion (85.4%) is also friends from outside school. 45.4% of the respondents declare to be constantly in touch (‘several times a day’) with their boyfriend/girlfriend via the Internet. Unfortunately, social life on the Internet has much the same drawbacks as that in the real world. Many from among the respondents have contact with cyberbullying on the Internet. ‘Negative occurrences the youth observe the most often are the following: calling their friends names (59.7%) as well as humiliating and ridiculing them (58.1%). Spreading embarrassing materials about their friends was observed by 33.3% of the respondents, threatening friends was observed by 34.2% of the respondents, and blackmailing them via the Internet by as many as 24.4%. There have been numerous attempts to impersonate other people (40.5%). 39% of the youth do not react and do not notify either their parents or their teachers of such situations. It turned out that today’s senior pupils started to use the Internet consciously at the age of 9 (the median), current secondary-school students started at the age of 10 (the median), but the age of initiation into the Internet is consistently dropping and nowadays already pre-school children have contact with the Internet. ‘The Internet has become a place that helps children and teenagers fulfil their need for affiliation and social acceptance as well as create their image and a social space. Permanent access to the Internet has become a fixed attribute of personal space and social interactions, and access to a virtual network ranks a teenager in a peer hierarchy as well as may affect their self-esteem. What a few decades ago was taking place in the school and street space has currently been moved to the screen of a smartphone and of a computer’ (<http://www.nask.pl/aktualności/wydarzenia> -2017).

## **Digital media used by Korean youth**

At the beginning of the 21<sup>st</sup> century Korea became one of the most powerful players in the global digital media space. Since 2002, Korea has been ranked first in the ITU's Digital Opportunity Index (<http://www.itu.int/ITU-D/ict/doi/index.html>), which shows that Korea is fully saturated in most information communication technology (ICT) sectors, including games, mobile media, new media production, and the Internet. In 2007, 77% of the Koreans used the Internet on a daily basis while young people under 30 made up the majority of Internet users, with a usage ratio of 99% (National Information Society Agency (NIA), 2008). Korean Internet users primarily access the Internet from home computers (96.3%) or from work (33.1%). Commercial sites such as *PC bang* (which literally means, PC room, a Korean form of Internet café) follow, as 20.9% of users frequent these sites (NIA, 2008). It can be said that youth digital media culture in Korea is deeply integrated into the existing commercial entertainment industry, which has actively incorporated digital media devices to expand its conventional venues. J. Jung, Y. Kim, W. Lim and P.H. Cheong (2005) showed that the Koreans use the computer mostly to find entertainment-related information, to play games, and to use email. Gaming is indeed the predominant online practice among Korean youth (44.6%) (Korean Game Industry Promotion Agency, 2005).

Han Woo Park and J. Patrick Biddix (2008) claim that due to rapid adoption rates, media penetration, and positive attitudes toward new and innovative technologies, Korea presents an ideal test case for understanding the everyday impact of digital media. They examined the national policies and public discourse concerning digital media education in a rapidly growing market.

The mobile phone, commonly referred to as *handphone*, with access to the Internet, can be treated as the main tool, driving force, which transforms Korea to the digital era. The youth mobile phone culture, which is centered on the use of text messaging and play culture, has become the icon of young people. Text messaging is still the most preferred mode of communication among Korean youth. Yet, the silent use of other mobile phone features – mobile phone imaging, sharing, and MMS messaging – is redefining the culture of *Eomjijok*, (the Korean version of 'Thumb Tribe'), which is another name for *N Generation* (Lee, 2003).

The youth prefers the mobile phone because it allows for informal, personal, and unregulated communication (Kwon & Choi, 2003). Korean youth becomes savvy mobile phone users at the early stages of their life. According to research by mobile phone carrier KTF (2009), Korean adolescents (aged 12–18) own first mobile phones comparatively earlier than those in Japan, China, India, and Mex-

ico, and 80.6% of Korean adolescents have their own mobile phone (compared to Japan, 77.3%; Mexico, 64%; China, 48.9%; and India, 30.6%). Mobile phones are treated as mobile screen media. Watching downloaded content (TV, dramas, animation, and movies) or browsing TV programs through a mobile TV service during their commute or down time is a typical pattern of mobile screen use (Ok, 2008).

According to H. Ok (2011), young people are the main residents of the cyberspace and are active in various online communities. In the socio-psychological approach, one can construct the image of Korean youth who easily accept cyberspace as an extension of the real world and enjoy exploring diverse new media tools for self-expression (Hwang, 2000; Soh, 2002). Sora Park, Eun-mee Kim, and Eun-Yeong Na (2015) studied the digital media literacy and networked individualism of Korean youth. Networked individualism enables Internet users to connect and socialize via their loose and transient multiple network, whereas digital literacy is a precondition of effective Internet use. Their findings indicated that online activities and skills influence the ways adolescents connect to others and perceive their social connectedness.

Blogging is another prevalent online practice of young people and J. Choi (2006, p. 173) wrote that Korea boasts the second largest number of bloggers in the world, surpassed only by the United States of America. In 1999, *Cyworld* was introduced, one of the first SNS services in the world, which represented the culturally specific tendency in the Korean blogosphere. With cute layouts, avatars, images, virtual goods, and hip multimedia content, *Cyworld* represents cute aesthetics, the unique operating principle of popular culture in Korea as well as in Japan (Hwang, Kim & Cho, 2008).

*Online game* and *PC bang* (Internet café) are two key words that not only represent Korean game culture, but also explain the rapid penetration of broadband. From the beginning, young people were major players on the gaming scene as well as the main residents in the thousands of *PC bangs* on every street corner. Online gaming has rapidly become a new cultural sector, with global revenues. The market value of gaming, including console/handheld, online, mobile, arcade and PC games, was as much as \$4.57 billion. The online game industry accounted for as much as 81.1% (\$3.7 billion), followed by console/handheld (11.5%), mobile, arcade and PC games (Korea Game Development and Promotion Institute, 2010). Korea has developed online games based on the increased speed of information-sharing through improved high-speed internet services, and Korean games are currently well received in the world, not in only Asia, but also in North America and Europe (Jin, 2011). The mobile phone is the common platform for



playing mobile games, which are mostly mobile versions of online games provided through mobile content services. Young female mobile gamers play with their peers in a more relaxed environment since the games do not require engagement with collective guild and clan activities found in serious PC-based online gaming (Hjorth, 2008; Jeong, 2007).

Studies of Korean youth media practices provide a fascinating lead to further our awareness of the integral role of culture in shaping technological use, by manifesting how the local appropriation of technology prefigures the potential of technology (Ok, 2008). In particular, social network service (SNS) has the characteristics of media influencing the thinking and behavior of youth, thus cyberspace improves solidarity, bond and mutual understanding and transforms the structure of consciousness, viewpoint and lifestyles of people based on the formation of shared values and tears down traditional social structure (Gong, 2016). It is worth mentioning that some research findings reveal that institutional regulations or policies have not been clearly laid out in Korea despite the developed technological and user-friendly environment.

## **Hermeneutical Analysis of Selected Theories of the Influence of the Mass Media on the Youth**

For several dozen years, many theories describing the influence of the mass media on a viewer or listener/user were developed in the 20<sup>th</sup> century (cf. Thompson, 2001).

The genesis of believing in a direct and strong influence of the mass media on society comes from the theoretical bases, being built within a behavioural paradigm, developed in an academic environment of the early 20<sup>th</sup> century. Behaviourism is interchangeably referred to as the psychology of reaction or the objective psychology and came into existence as a result of cooperation of such fields of science as biology and physiology, initiated by the works by Edward L. Thorndike (e.g., *Animal intelligence*) as well as a result of research carried out by John B. Watson and Vladimir Bekhterev. Based on this basic research, a behavioural communication model was created, based on the stimulus-reaction model that Denis McQuail (1981, 1983) and Sven Windahl (1983: 93) defined as a specific result or effect of 'specific stimuli, triggered off in such a manner that a close link between a media message, and viewers' and listeners' reaction can be expected or even predicted'. The subsequent research contributed to expanding the process of communication of viewers and listeners with the media, by introducing such

new terms as: viewers' and listeners' predispositions, auto-selection and selective perception, and also activity and demographic diversity, diversification of the level of education, profession and place of residence. The new theoretical bases of such a diversified process of communication were described by Wilbur Schram (1978: 243), which led to developing a theory about the minimum influence of the mass media on viewers and listeners. In the 1960s, a concept of moderate influence of the mass media was formulated, situating its analyses between the two previous extreme theoretical approaches. In concepts of moderate influence, further aspects of the influence of the media such as: cognitive aspects of communication, affecting a culture, knowledge, standards and values as well as viewers' and listeners' behaviour were further analysed. On the basis of a concept with a diversified scope of viewers and listeners' possessed individual knowledge it was found that individuals with greater intellectual capabilities (cf., Blumer, McQuail, 1968; Tichenor, Donohue, Olien, 1970: 158–170), but also with a higher economic status, higher education, and personal motivation (cf., Monzón, 1992: 292–293) achieve a wider scope and a greater degree of an understanding of media messages. As a result of an increase in the scope of disseminating pieces of information, these people display a tendency to get a given piece of information quicker and more fully than people with a lower social status and lower education, who often accept information being passed on to them – a theory of adaptation talks about this (Noelle-Neumann, 1983: 66–94).

Today, differences in knowledge possessed from the mass media (the so-called *knowledge gap*) between these two social groups are indicating an upward trend and forming the structure of a theory of information gap or of information chasm (Tichenor, Donohue, Olien, 1970, pp. 158–170; Donohue, Tichenor, Olien, 1975: 3–23). This theory well describes no familiarity of pupils from families with a lower economic status, residing in small towns or in the country, with popular computer games used in their environment, no access to information being disseminated in a peer group via mobile media, not oriented in topics discussed with their use outside school and outside a class team, which contributes to the occurrence of marginalising them, and even excluding them from this community.

The 1970s and 1980s were a period of developing theories of the influence of the mass media on not only individuals, but also on social groups and entire societies. The convergence of three different, but inter-related research areas took place: of an analysis of the role and influence of the media, an analysis of journalistic functions, and an analysis of mechanisms of forming and moulding the public opinion (Esparcia, Smolak-Lozano, 2012: 181–203). Theories of the indirect influence of the mass media on viewers and listeners, rejecting the

stimulus-reaction model, i.e., negating the role of direct contact with the media, and stressing the indirect influence of different social factors were developed one after another. Within this new trend of research into communication, the following theories were formulated, which also concerned the groups of children and teenagers, and were related to the theory of small groups, theory of two-step information flow as well as theory of indirect factors (McQuil, 2008: 446–491). Selection of the contents depended on the viewer's or listener's affiliation to a small group, type of family or to a peer group, including a class team. Most often, information comes to the so-called informal opinion leaders, and only then to the other members of a user community from them. To a considerable extent, it is them who decide about a message interpretation, its evaluation and possible use. Finally, in the theory of indirect factors, the fact is stressed that the media do not act in a social vacuum, but each of the viewers and listeners functions in some small or large social group, is linked to an environment by a network of social dependencies and in connection with this the media's all and any influence should be analysed in terms of social, cultural and educational contexts. The medium that has been considered the most active in social terms is television, which has ranked high among media affecting viewers and listeners to this day.

The best known theory of the influence of the mass media was the theoretical concept of '*uses and gratifications approach*' (short: *uses and grats*) (Blumer, McQuail, 1968; Blumer, Katz, 1974; Katz, Blumer, Gurevitch, 1973–1974: 509–523) or 'use and fulfilment' (Mattelart, Mattelart, 1999: 253). Therefore, the contemporary youth make use of digital media, 'use them' for a specific purpose, they need them for various activities, to develop skills and fulfil needs, including the need for acceptance and affiliation to a group in the first place.

Also, research into the climate of the public opinion in society as well as within intergroup and intragroup relationships was carried out, to which Elisabeth Noelle-Neumann (1974: 43–51) made the most significant contribution, and returned in her discussion to the thesis of great influence of the media (Noelle-Neumann, 1983:66–94), eliminating the minimum influence theories. Researchers stopped focusing on persuasion processes, but started focusing on selected cognitive processes, determining manners in which the media present and construct social reality. In connection with this, an aspect of individually perceiving an opinion-forming social climate by an individual was stressed, and also intentionally raising the significance of specific problems, and at the same time marginalising other subjects was emphasised. E. Noelle-Neumann (1991: 256–287) diagnosed dependencies between mass communication, interpersonal

communication, and an image an individual is developing about their own opinions in relation to views of other people who are a part of a social group or society. In the researcher's opinion, an individual often takes over opinions of the majority moulded by the media despite the fact that they may be false. In her opinion, the fear of social alienation has become the driving force of the spiral of silence. For this reason, people first observe what others do and say, and then copy this because they feel more comfortable when others agree with their opinions than when they express their original, often opposing, opinions in an environment. When an individual has opinions which are not popular in an environment, they will try to hide them, to remain silent, and at the same time they lose self-confidence (Noelle-Neumann, 1983: 66–94).

Children's and youth's communication with the media is flawlessly described by the model of structural pluralism (Tichenor, Donohue, Olien, 1970: 158–170), referring to a diversity of media, sending by them diverse media messages, appealing to viewers and listeners diversified in social and demographical terms. These factors make media messages appealing to viewers and listeners similar in social and demographical terms trigger off similar reactions, and changes of these factors result also in changes in reception perception. Primal groups, such as family and peer groups, strongly affecting similarities in the reception of messages, assimilation of standards, attitudes and opinions, have considerable significance for the reception of messages.

According to the theory of the socialisation function of the mass media, the media play a role in early socialisation and in socialisation at a later age, and the socialisation process itself takes place both outside a viewer or listener, and in them. In connection with this, a viewer or listener internalises standards, patterns of behaviour (e.g., dress, appearance, food and drink, relations with others and individual consumption models) and social values coming from media messages. Effectiveness of the socialisation function depends directly on the following: the amount of time young viewers and listeners set aside for receiving information from the media, social roles the viewers and listeners perform, motives of selection of messages, which refers to the theory of uses and gratifications, and also on confidence in individual media. However, it should be taken into consideration that the socialisation process is continuing over time, and furthermore influence of the media is subject to modifications of other social factors and different socialisation variables in family (Hedinsson, 1981). The most often, two aspects of the media participation in the socialisation process are presented. On the one hand, the media may strengthen and support other institutions participating in socialisation, however, on the other hand – the media are seen as a potential

threat to the values parents, class tutors, and other people exercising social control, instil in children. So, the media offer life models and patterns of behaviour before a young viewer or listener encounters analogous situations in their life (Rosengren, Windahl, 1989).

It is worth taking into consideration George Gebner, Lear Gross, Michael Morgan and Nancy Signorelli's 'cultivation' theory (1994), considered also as a theory of cultivating attitudes in viewers and listeners (Griffin, 2003), which, however, is narrowing down its scope since it concerns also beliefs about the universality of occurrences, and not only their evaluation and attitude towards them. A theory of the long-term influence of the media is supposed to concern mainly television, treated as an institutionalised social narrator, showing drama unfolding in real life, whereas a member of the audience is perceived as a passive viewer. Watching similar programmes, having similar storylines and behavioural acts, every day and for a long period, a young viewer becomes convinced of the existence of their equivalents in people's experiences and behaviour in the real world, and even becomes convinced of the universality of certain events (e.g., of a tragic death, often being of symbolic nature) and acts. Therefore, television is not a reflection of reality, but is becoming a reality itself.

A synthetic analysis of theories or models of the influence of the media on viewers and listeners, of which only a few selected ones are discussed above, is based either on observing the media and analysing the contents of messages, or on researching the audience (viewers and listeners) and analysing the effects of these messages. Despite these two diametrically different approaches, these theories derive from the same critical school. However, many theories are poorly supported methodologically because it is difficult to prove if the influence described in them exists or how strong and long-lasting it is. The media carry out their own tasks and have their own ideology to be a transmitter of information (e.g., about scandals, crises, social pathologies, and also about innovations), which may become an impulse for change. They stimulate taking action, arouse and cause anxiety, probably disturb the established order, which proves their potential for generating changes.

## **Conclusions**

Contemporary young people, both in Poland and in Korea, download and upload files, surf the Internet, talk on chats, blogs, post on social forums and are do not part from their mobile phones. The age of the youth's initiation into the Internet is dropping every year and nobody will successfully decrease the youth's

willingness to function in cyberspace, therefore we should promulgate media education not only at school, but also in family.

The youth need adults' wise backing so that the time spent on the Internet is used as safely and as usefully as possible. It is the parents' and teachers' responsibility to acquaint the youth with new social spaces, consisting in controlling, explaining and structuring new contents and meanings so that they are safe and valuable in cognitive and educational terms.

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## Values of the Youth of Kazakhstan

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### Abstract

This article is written on the basis of sociological research conducted by the Research center of the Republic of Kazakhstan “Youth” for the preparation of the annual National Report “Youth of the Republic of Kazakhstan”. The authors of this article were the authors of the section “Values of Youth” and “Readiness of the youth of Kazakhstan for migration”. This article reflects on the results of the research, the “Values of the Youth of Kazakhstan” section. The National report of the Republic of Kazakhstan “Youth of Kazakhstan 2017” does not include all the findings and conclusions of the research group, so this article contains the most comprehensive data on the issues under study, namely – the values of the youth of Kazakhstan in dynamics and various correlations: age values, region (oblast) values, gender values, the level of education values, religion values, employment values, city or village values.

### Introduction

Analyzing the values of the Kazakh youth, we proceed from the following common definitions of the concept of “value”.

The value here also acts as a characteristic of the subject or phenomenon, indicating the recognition of its importance in the scale of values of young people. Values are also considered in the philosophical aspect, pointing to the personal, social and cultural significance of certain objects and phenomena in the life and consciousness of young people. We do not avoid including values of the economic

aspect in the considered concept, namely the value as a synonym of the concept of “consumer value”, i.e., the importance, usefulness of the subject for the studied consumer, namely youth.

The study of **young people’s system of values** is the most important, as the future of independent and sovereign Kazakhstan depends on the younger generation, on their consciousness, the values that prevail in their understanding of the world<sup>1</sup>.

## **Research Methodology**

Analysis of the available statistical information on various fields related to the youth of Kazakhstan has demonstrated the existence of a problems in its collection and systematization. First, the discrepancy between the age groups of young people in the statistical ranks of different spheres was revealed. Second, there was a difficulty in gathering up-to-date statistical information. In the preparation of the national report of the Republic of Kazakhstan “Youth of Kazakhstan 2017”, and the sections specified by us, the specialists of the research center “Youth” used official statistics, data of the state bodies of the national and local levels, information received from national companies of Kazakhstan, youth organizations, scientific, informational and analytical materials, data of sociological research.

When preparing this article and the section of the same name in the National report, the results of mass sociological surveys of the research center “Youth” were shown, which were commissioned by the order of the Ministry of Education and Science of the Republic of Kazakhstan in 2017, are given. The volume of the Republican sample for each study comprised 2000 young respondents. The study used comparative, comparative-historical, empirical, systemic, sociological methods and content analysis.

## **Research Results**

Among age cohorts (cf., Table 1), the age group from 14 to 18 years (73.5%) consider themselves the happiest. This is followed by the young people aged 19–23 (67.7%), and, further, these sensations are on the decline – 62.1% of the

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<sup>1</sup> The administrative division of Kazakhstan includes 14 regions and 2 cities of republican significance. [http://www.akorda.kz/en/republic\\_of\\_kazakhstan/kazakhstan](http://www.akorda.kz/en/republic_of_kazakhstan/kazakhstan).

24–29-year-old respondents. The young people aged 24–29 consider themselves “somewhat happy” (Table 1).

**Table 1.** Self-identification of the Kazakh youth by the “happy-unhappy” dichotomy

		Age		
		From 14–18	From 19–23	From 24–29
		% by column	% by column	% by column
1 Generally speaking, would you say that you are...	a happy person	73.5	67.7	62.1
	somewhat happy rather than unhappy	23.7	28.9	34.2
	rather an unhappy person than a happy one	1.9	2.0	1.7
	an unhappy person	.4	.2	.3
	hard to say	.6	1.2	1.6

The young people in the age group 14–18 and 19–23 years (23.7% and 28.9% respectively) identify themselves as “somewhat happy” rather than unhappy.

Less than a half of the percentage of young people among all the age groups identified themselves as unhappy. Thus, the Kazakh youth has a rather optimistic mood in the identification of themselves in the “happy-unhappy person” dichotomy.

The girls are more optimistic, the percentage is higher among them (68.2%) than among the boys (64.9%) (cf., Table 2).

**Table 2.** Self-identification of the Kazakh youth by the “happy-unhappy” dichotomy. Correlation by gender

		Gender	
		Male	Female
		% by column	% by column
1 Generally speaking, would you say that you are...	a happy person	64.9	68.2
	somewhat happy rather than unhappy	31.1	29.1
	rather an unhappy person than a happy one	1.9	1.8
	hard to say	.4	.2
		1.8	.7

It is important to note that studying youth feel much happier (75.6%) than non-students (63.3%) or working youth (60.6%).

The hierarchy of values in the life of young people is as follows (average values) (cf., Table 3):

**Table 3.** Values of the Kazakh youth. "Values-age groups" correlations.

		Age			
		From 14–18 % by column	From 19–23	From 24–29	
			% by column	% by column	
2 What is the most valuable thing in life for you?	Faith, Religion		11.1	13.9	12.3
	Family		80.5	78.8	85.8
	The ability to get pleasure, have fun		3.7	5.5	5.9
	Power		3.1	3.9	5.1
	Friendship		44.2	32.4	25.2
	Peace of Mind		7.4	8.7	11.2
	Health		51.2	56.8	61.2
	Knowledge, education		22.0	12.6	7.7
	Interesting work, profession		8.4	12.3	10.4
	Love		14.4	16.0	15.9
	Financially secure life		9.3	15.6	19.5
	Public recognition, fame, reputation		1.0	1.7	1.8
	Helping people		4.5	4.4	3.9
	Self-realization, self-respect		3.3	7.1	5.0
	Career, high position in society		6.0	7.1	5.2
	Creativity		2.7	2.5	1.0
	Other		0.0	0.0	0.0
	None of the mentioned		0.0	0.0	.1
	Freedom, independence		0.0	.2	0.0
	Happiness		0.0	0.0	0.0
Hard to say		0.0	0.0	0.0	

At the same time, the values of freedom, independence, happiness mean little to the Kazakh youth, gaining a maximum of 0.2. Thus, the value of freedom and independence, understood both as personal and as a whole, of one's country, the state, does not have a pronounced priority. As can be seen, these spiritual values are not significant enough, which is an indirect manifestation of a certain conformity of the youth.

It should be noted that the older the youth, the more family and health values, as the most important two pillars, play a role in life. Among all the age groups, social acceptance plays a less important role.

In the ranking of values, the Kazakh youth considers family as an absolute value among all the three age groups. Moreover, there is a tendency: the older and more mature young people are, the greater is the importance attached to the institution of the family in their value hierarchy: 85.8% of the young aged 24–29 years, 78.8% of those aged 19–23 years, 80.5% of those aged 14 to 18 years. The family, according to almost 79% of the respondents, is responsible for the spiritual and moral education of Kazakh youth (to be kind, honest, responsible, etc.). At the same time, the role of the school, state bodies for the support and development of young people, religious institutions, and unions of peers is noted.

### **Family is an absolute value for the young people, without exception, of all the regions of Kazakhstan**

Happiness in the category of value is absolutely not perceived by young people: none of the respondents attached importance to it, even in tenths. The values of career, high position in society, and financially secure life prevail over the desire of helping people. Ambitions of public recognition, fame, reputation, as an established opinion about self in society also occupy a negligible place in the youth's hierarchy of values.

The high value given by the young respondents to such categories as friendship and love testifies to the fact that the positive, romantic model of interpersonal relations dominates in the youth environment. Accordingly, the model of future family relations is focused more on positive experiences and intimate and personal relationships. Based on the results of the survey, we can draw a cautious conclusion that modern marriages among young people in Kazakhstan in most cases are based mainly on the free choice of a spouse, on their own feelings and personal decision. In particular, the motive of “the desire to be together with a loved one” absolutely prevails among the surveyed youth of all the age cohorts (69%) over the

“advice and insistence of parents” (11%) and “the desire to have children” (10%), to start a family. However, it should be noted that childishness (or child-centered motives) as a motive for starting a family is second in the ranking of the youth, but higher than the “insistence of parents” and the desire to “be like everyone else”. Thus, the image of the future parent, educator, as an important integrative indicator of parent-child relations occupies an important place in the system of values of the Kazakh youth.

The results of the research clearly indicate an extremely high degree of importance of the **family as an indispensable value**. Moreover, it is possible to note the transformational nature of the development of the family institution in Kazakhstan, clearly showing the **revival of traditional Kazakh family reproductive behavior with a priority focus on a large family** (an average of three age cohorts - 10.3%), against those who believe that the family should have no more than one child (3.4%). Moreover, regardless of the number of planned children, the respondents point to the desired image of the family, in which “grandparents live together with children and grandchildren. In fact, it is a **multi-faceted** (multi-generational) type of family, where three generations live under one roof: grandparents, their adult children and grandchildren.

Among goal-setting in life, the most important goal in life for the young men is material security (43.7%), and this goal is updated with age. In the second place – being a good family man, and in the oldest age cohort of young people (24–29 years) is the most desirable image of the future (50.5%), which means for them much more than material security (47.2%).

For the representatives of the female half of the youth of all the age cohorts, the main goal in life is to be a good family person (44.9%).

And without exception, in all the age cohorts, **ideal family is a full family, where there are both parents**.

It is worth noting that the number of those wishing to have a good family is much higher among the **non-studying and non-working youth** (59.2%), which is most likely due to the way of stability in life associated with having a family of their own than among the working youth (47.2%) and students (35.4%). In the third place of the youth’s vision of itself in the future, there is a professional in business, a good worker, and those most of all among the studying youth (34.4%) and among those who do not study, do not work, but look for work (26.6%), than among the those working (25.7%) and not working, not studying and not looking for work (20.1%).

For the young people of all the age groups of Kazakhstan, **to be happy** is an **abstract and insignificant category**, occupying the last place in the line of pref-

erences, not even reaching 0.5%. Also, the young people do not consider **seeing the world and travelling** as the main goal, apparently believing that becoming financially secure (1<sup>st</sup> position), having a good family (2<sup>nd</sup> position), being a professional (3<sup>rd</sup>), becoming a worthy citizen (4<sup>th</sup>), being famous, while maintaining the quality of an honest and principled person, a sense of happiness and the opportunity to travel will come together with all this.

The older the young people are, the less altruistic they are: **helping people** is not such an important value for the respondents.

The young people of Kazakhstan are focused on **work** as the basis of all their future achievements, believing that to achieve these goals it is necessary to work tirelessly. This is the opinion of the vast majority of the respondents, agreeing that “work is a vital need of a person, contributing to the development of their personality”. It is logical, however, that the largest number of those who doubt that “work does not always contribute to success, the main thing in life is luck, good family and friendship ties” belongs among the non-studying, non-working and non-job-seeking youth (22.3%).

The results of sociological research have shown the absolute dominant orientation of the young people to the patriarchal **type of interactions between spouses**.

The youth of Kazakhstan in most cases does not choose the egalitarian (partner) model of family relations, based on the recognition of equal rights and responsibilities of spouses, and is inclined towards the patriarchal type of interactions between spouses in the family, as demonstrated, e.g., by the European youth, where the results of similar studies indicate a high starting readiness of spouses for competition (struggle) for leadership and advocacy of individual interests. All the three age cohorts are in solidarity in the distribution of future/present role – playing roles in the family: the male – breadwinner, the female – keeper of the family hearth.

**Table 4.** Instrumental values. Values that the Kazakh youth wants to instill in their children

Which qualities do you think are most important to raise a child?	Independence, autonomy	28.6%	25.7%	24.8%
	Diligence	66.3%	65.5%	69.6%
	Sense of responsibility	42.4%	38.7%	40.8%
	Love for the home country	38.1%	38.7%	37.5%
	Respect for the traditions and customs of one’s ethnic group	13.4%	18.8%	16.2%

Which qualities do you think are most important to raise a child?	Tolerance and respect towards others	21.2%	22.2%	20.8%
	Frugality and careful attitude to money and things	10.7%	13.6%	14.1%
	Determination, perseverance	14.0%	18.0%	17.3%
	Religiosity	4.3%	5.4%	5.2%
	Unselfishness	12.1%	11.3%	12.7%
	Obedience	9.9%	12.8%	9.2%
	Other	.2%	0.0%	0.0%
	Courtesy, good behavior	.2%	0.0%	0.0%
	Savvy	0.0%	0.0%	.1%
	Pursuit of knowledge	0.0%	0.0%	.2%
	Honesty	0.0%	0.0%	.1%
	Sensitivity	0.0%	0.0%	.1%
	Financial literacy	0.0%	0.0%	.1%
	Decency	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%
	Hard to say	.6%	0.0%	.9%

Of the **instrumental values** (Table 4), which they would like to instill in their future and current children, the young people choose the top five: **diligence** (on average – 67.1% in all the three age cohorts), **sense of responsibility** (40.6%); **love for the home country** (38.1%); **independence and autonomy** (26.4%), **tolerance and respect towards others** (21.4%).

The vast majority of the young people have knowledge about the official state symbols of Kazakhstan and their components, i.e., over 90%.

The presence of “independence and autonomy” among the goals that they would like to instill in their future and current children is discordant with the recognition of independence as the least important value of the young people (under 0.2%). This is a paradox: independence and freedom are not values for the interviewed youth- present and future parents, but they want to see it in their children.

**Religion and faith** occupy a definite place among the young people.

**Faith, religion as a value** among the interviewed youth are important after the family, health, friendship, knowledge and education, love, and financial security. And among the men, this index is higher (14.1%) than in the female part of the respondents (10.9%).



Most of the respondents are practising believers, i.e., those who “sometimes” or “very rarely” perform religious rites. The number of believers “participating in the life of their religious communities, according to the following religious norms” (10%) is lower than that of those who identify themselves as “believers, but not participating in religious practices” (43%). At the same time, the share of those whom “religion helps in spiritual and moral education” is slightly larger (on average 40%) than those who believe that “family, education and the state are more important in these processes” (on average 23%). At the same time, it is paradoxical that the contemporary and future young parents do not give such a high, expected priority to the education of religiosity, as becomes apparent from numerous publications in print and electronic media devoted to the growth of religiosity among young people. The youth of Kyzylorda region (10.1%), Almaty (6.3%) pays the most attention to the education of religiosity in future generations. In other regions, this figure does not exceed 6%.

What are the priority sources of information among the youth of the Republic of Kazakhstan?

The **sources of news** for the young people are (in descending order) – news releases on television (from 49% to 61.8%), news websites (from 46.3% to 61.8%), news releases on the radio (24.% to 39.1%).

The vast majority of the young people in Kazakhstan use **the Internet** daily (82.3%). Only 3.4% of the respondents do not use the world wide web at all.

**Social networks** (from 84.6%, 87.7% and 82.6% respectively) are the undisputed leaders of views and sources of relevant information among the young people. The leaders among the social networks used by the youth in Kazakhstan are the following: **WhatsApp** holds the first place, then, **Vkontakte**, **Instagram**, **Facebook** are located on the popularity scale of the network. Moreover, when getting older, the 24- to 29-year-old respondents increase the tendency to exhibit, increasingly turning to Facebook (35.2%). Snapchat and Twitter are also popular. So far the more active social networkers are the female respondents. 6% of the young people do not have social media accounts.

The situation is almost similar with **the reading of printed and electronic newspapers and magazines**: almost a third of the respondents refer to them during the week, and two-thirds have not used them. Moreover, regular publications are still read relatively more (29.6%, 31.4%, 38.9%), than electronic ones (23.3%, 25.2%, 31.1%).

The culture of reading among the young people in Kazakhstan is depressing: the number of those who have read, watched or listened to **books** during the last week, including **electronic or online ones**, is much smaller (29.8%, 30.6%, 32.5%) than that of those who have not (65%, 65.4%, 63.6%).

Traditional **libraries** of all types and levels are consistently losing ground to frequent visits by young people. **Print media** still retain their predominant influence among the youth of Kazakhstan, though less than 50%.

The results of the study revealed some **dependence** of certain aspects of the values on the **respondent's gender**.

Those who read **fiction** are mostly among the female part of the respondents (31.4%) rather than male ones (24.7%). Those who have not recently read fiction are mostly among the men (74.4%) than women (67.8%).

**The musical preferences** of the Kazakh youth are interesting. Most of all, using their gadgets the respondents listen to Western music, and this is most characteristic of the age group of 14–18 years (34.4%), 19–23-year-olds and 24–29-year-olds' interest in Western music declines year by year (30.6% and 25.5% respectively), on the contrary, interest in Kazakh music (26.5%) and classical music (14.8%) increases. Modern Kazakh music is also an absolute favorite among the musical tastes of the young people: the older they are, the more interested they become in the national music (26.5%). Interest in the roots of folk music (8.6%) has also been growing steadily with age.

**Cinema as a cultural object** is the most visited place among the Kazakh youth. There are still some people who perceive an exhibition as a cultural event. There are more of those who have never visited an exhibition: in the context of regions those comprise 30% to 85%. Visiting museums as historical, cultural and scientific centers is also of little interest to the young people: the number of those who have never visited is more than those who visit them once-twice a year. Almost one-third of the respondents of all the age groups also **have never been to the theatre or attended concerts**. There are about 60% of those who actively attend theatrical and concert productions (from once a month to 3–6 times a year).

Most respondents regularly visit **places of worship**: mosques and churches with varying degrees of regularity. So, once-twice a year they have been visited by 27% of the young people of all the three age cohorts, 14.8% visit them 3–6 times a year, 15.6% – once a month. Of the respondents, urban youth, with a slight advantage, visits mosques and churches more often than rural youth. 17.9% of the respondents in the cohort aged 24–29 and 26.7% of the young people in the 14–19 age group have never been to mosques/churches/synagogues.

A third of the urban youth, and over 40% of the rural youth in Kazakhstan, according to polls, have never attended a **gym**. 15.5% of the city youth, 8.7% of the rural youth, go to the gym once a week. The single youth goes to **gyms and swimming pools** more often than their family peers.

Despite this, the vast majority of the respondents lead a **healthy lifestyle**: 86% do not smoke.

Urbanization as a process is gaining momentum. Most of the youth of Kazakhstan would like to see a multi-ethnic city as their place of residence. A third of the respondents would like to live in a city where the representatives of its predominant ethnic group live. 11% of the young people mentioned a village as their preferred place of residence, and the numbers of those wishing to live mainly in mono-ethnic or multi-ethnic villages are relatively the same.

## **Discussion and Conclusion**

Value orientations and needs, as can be seen from the results of the survey, generally determine **the life plans of young people**. Despite the fact that the distribution of the respondents by age groups (cohorts) gave the opportunity to analyze changes in the value orientations of intergenerational interaction in the transition from one age group to another, from adolescence (14–18 years of age) to adulthood (24–29 years of age), the main results show an overall similar view on the hierarchy of values, solidarity positions in many value systems, bearing modern character, in terms of content approved and justifying the priority of the spiritual over the material.

As already stated, paternalistic expectations are not typical of the youth of Kazakhstan in general, but the most popular **leader of social expectations** are **projects assisting in employment** (54%). Next, the following **initiatives** are in demand (in decreasing order): **crime prevention, suicide prevention** (29%), **projects for labor and social adaptation of young people** in difficult situations, **projects to support talented youth, projects for the prevention of religious extremism and terrorism**. Paradoxically, the issues of housing, reduction of bank interest, free education, international mobility in the rating of the young respondents' expectations did not occupy a significant place, not exceeding 0.2%.

However, the young people (over 60%) believe that “the state should play an active role in society”, although the proportion of those who do not believe in, or are indifferent towards the participation of the state in their lives all in all is more than a third of the respondents.

**Competitiveness** through computer literacy and **knowledge of languages, the preservation of national history, maintaining a healthy lifestyle, the cult of knowledge** – these are the four priorities that roused the most lively interest

among the young. To sum up, we can say that the youth of Kazakhstan as a whole retains the continuity of the system of values, while based on the current political, economic, social and cultural context, new value guidelines have been developed. The decline in the economic standard of life, which resulted from the double devaluation of the national currency in 2015, the growth of religiosity among young people, and other factors also have an impact. The total number of values that are the property of young people is structured by them in certain systems, and their origins can be traced to culture, society and its institutions, and their influence – in all behavioral priorities and attitudes.

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## The Polish Educational Policy after 28 Years of Political Transformation

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### Abstract

In this article I make a critical analysis of educational policy in Poland during the 28 years of the political transformation. In the transition period in Poland, from 1989 to 2017, education did not become a source of ongoing changes in the country. Further formations of political power, selected through elections, instead of decentralizing the school system, allegedly led to the creation of new models of school in a corset of centralism. To make matters worse, the prime ministers of the following governments from different political parties, taking into account their own or party interests, created the ministry of national education (or their decision-making power apparatus) who had disturbed communicational relationships with the public.

In this article, I explain the reasons for the betrayal of elites in the context of fundamental assumptions of the “Solidarity” movement in the years of 1980–1989. As a result, Polish society abandoned the deliberative and participatory democracy. I look at how education, as a science and practice of education, fits into democratization of the Polish state and society. What is of key importance is the perception of education as a common good, as environments and entities, institutions or management practices which participate in a democratic society.

**Keywords:** *educational reforms, educational policy, critical pedagogy, school, democracy, contradiction, educational perpetrators, educational policy*

## **Introduction**

The political transformations initiated in Poland in 1989 enabled a change of the state's political system, including (also educational) administration. The question was raised, then, whether (and if so – to what extent) it would be possible to elaborate and present a coherent and complex concept of the Polish education system in its final shape. It is difficult to reform education if, within the state of relatively modern but quasi-democratic authoritarianism, there is no well-organized and efficient system of education, which would remain under social control and public administration service above the level of political parties. Without decentralization and independence of school education as well as without its society-based management, Polish education will not get out of its deeply rooted remnants of “homosovietism” and will not be able to construct modern and effective teaching and moral education of young generations of Poles. Such an education will not take up the challenges of post-modernity, as the paternalistic role of the state in the educational policy draws back social and individual development by the participation of education, although the next political reform is implemented under the apparent care for children's good.

## **Analyses of the political transformation commencement**

Undertaking an analysis of the early years of the transformation towards a democratic country and free market economy in the Polish People's Republic, Edmund Wnuk-Lipiński, a sociologist, was fully aware of the lack of theoretical models for conducting social studies in this field (E. Wnuk-Lipiński, 1996). Therefore, sociologists had to apply some available analytical models, out of which each allowed for capturing the typical – of this system of determinants – processes and mechanisms occurring within it as well as their consequences. The totalitarian model enabled the description and explanation of the socialist system in macro-political categories. The structural-functionalist model completed the knowledge concerning the institutional role of the authorities and social structures in the process of taking political decisions. The model of political culture facilitated studies of citizens' attitudes and behaviour patterns in a totalitarian state, whereas the developmental model oriented researchers towards its evolving, depending on economic, social, etc. changes. Pluralistic models, as the antinomies of some models of totalitarian states, were useful for noticing various groups of interests, for the development of corporationalism, local authorities, etc. Finally, the bureaucracy model allowed for

explaining the functioning of the administration apparatus and the structures of political rule in the state, while the model of the “patron-client” relation enabled taking into account in social diagnoses the phenomena associated with reaching the ruling power and developing (within it) various influences, paternalism, corruption, nepotism, etc. (ibid., pp. 17–18).

In the early 2000s, while I was taking part in some team studies concerning teachers in post-communist countries as victims and perpetrators of manipulation, researchers had to elaborate theoretical assumptions for the diagnosis which would allow them to verify their state of attitudes and experiences as a hypothetical remnant of the homo sovieticus syndrome (ed. Alina Wróbel, 2010). At that time, we reached for two theoretical models for diagnosing and interpreting teachers’ attitudes in Poland, the Czech Republic and Slovakia – the psychological theory of manipulation (R. Cialdini, 1996; A. Grzywa, 1997; R.V. Joule, J.L. Beauvois, 2006; A. Wróbel, 2006) and Jürgen Habermas’s philosophical theory of human rationality (as cited in: R. Kwaśnica, 1987). If we had wanted to examine teachers’ level of engagement in educational changes, innovativeness or creativity, we would have had to reach for different theoretical foundations, which would have allowed for a proper interpretation of empirical data. However, the set of available theoretical models was limited, because the process of transformation, resulting from the grassroots but peaceful revolution, did not find supporters of its exploration within pedagogical sciences. In the debate on the research results, Monika Popow rightly indicated that what could be used for the analysis of macro-political determinants of teachers’ work after the political transformation were the assumptions of post-colonial pedagogy, which undertook the emancipation of teachers in the school system (M. Popow, 2010).

Therefore, researchers’ interest was in “decolonization of teachers’ minds”, until recently dominated by the practices of totalitarian rule. This was aimed at studying the feeling of objectification and of being manipulated or of conscious self-effectiveness or co-effectiveness in manipulating others. *Thus, postcolonial teachers have the task to deconstruct the concepts of eternal fight between various groups – normal citizens and social pathology, the governing and the governed, winners and losers* (ibid., p. 53). In the post-socialist state, teachers should take active part in the process of transformation towards democracy so that both learners and their parents can recognize the possibilities of participation in co-deciding about the quality of kindergarten and school education as well as become active actors in these processes.

While diagnosing teachers’ level of adaptation (submissiveness, being a victim of manipulation) or emancipation (sovereignty) on a sample of 376 people work-

ing in all types of schools and with different degrees of career promotion in three post-communist countries, it turned out that: (...) *12% of teachers presents 0–20% of manipulative behaviour patterns. Among the vast majority of teachers (70%), manipulative behaviour patterns constitute 20–40% of all the behaviour. Teachers whose majority of behaviours consists of manipulative behaviour patterns constitute 15.2 %* (A. Śliwerski, 2010, p. 247).

It was possible to diagnose a significant interdependence between teachers' manipulative behaviour patterns towards learners and all the indicators of job burnout. It turned out that, e.g., the higher teachers' level of job burnout was, the more intensive tendency to manipulation they had. It would be very interesting to find out to what extent teachers present submissive attitudes in relations with educational supervisors or learners' parents, in which teachers become victims of their manipulation. This only confirms that the educational environment is affected by market – but antagonistic – competition, resulting in the fact that: *their common fate was exposed at the mercy of an impetuous game of market powers, making the lack of long-term economic and social policy the only policy* (A. Szahaj, 2014, p. 17). In the neoliberal state, people are discouraged from citizen activity and youth is socialized into faking it. My studies on the lack of socialization of school education, including children and youth, clearly confirm the breakdown and deep crisis of citizen education (B. Śliwerski, 2013).

## **Lack of democratization in the school education of the Republic of Poland**

In the light of my research, carried out for 28 years, into democratization of public education, it can be confirmed that Poles still live in a centralized state. What is still active in this state are some parts of the ruling elites (aptly called by Leszek Balcerowicz the “soviet activist”), who keep making the law that have remained from the previous system, but the former models of centralism have been replaced by statism, kept hidden by the authorities (B. Śliwerski, 2013). The period of socialist statehood must have consolidated the tradition of hostile attitudes to state authorities among Poles for many years. Yet, among a large part of the pedagogical environment, it also enhanced the feeling of omnipotence (e.g., ideological categories: teachers – nation's educators, or legal categories: pedagogical sovereignty), of the superiority of ruling authorities and institutions over the people they should serve.

When looking back and postponing, at least for a while, one's own interests, animosities and ideological or axionormative differences, it can be noticed that



the school system in the Third Republic of Poland (3rd RP) has not been subjected to a deep and politically (in the constitutional and statutory pro-democratic – for education – sense) intentional reform. This results from the elimination by the consecutive ministers from the process of change of the answer to the fundamental (for the type and size of the changes) question of general political nature: Why is the school system not subjected to democratizing (socializing) processes but has had to and will still have to keep the status quo – to stay within the state's disguised unfulfilled political prerequisites and the assumed functions of Polish education? This process of conservation in education and with its participation of different types of despotic rule, its monopolizing inner “hardware” reforms (infrastructural ones – ownership relations, economy, management, equipment) and “software” reforms (Heliodor Muszyński's term), which comprise the curriculum, social relations (untouchable hierarchy and authoritarianism, the antagonized teachers' environment, e.g., by the system of career promotion, penitentiary nature of pedagogical supervision, etc.) and non-participatory cooperation of all actors of education, make society totally disoriented. This takes place within chaos and mutually exclusive solutions, inadequate to the state of knowledge concerning the development of children and youth or the methodologies of their education.

It is not without significance whether educational, transformational reforms are made with the main actors of the change or against them or one of them. As my analyses of the state's educational policy over the last twenty five years show, it is not possible to change school and its educational process if the boundary, system-wide conditions of its functioning are from a different political epoch and culture. Undoubtedly, it is possible to consume individually or institutionally the so-called material aid for school education by feigning changes and by their fragmentary exemplifications, which appear and disappear along with the inflow or its lack of financial resources from the EU. Yet, this does not substantially affect the developmental prospects of education that precede what is taking place “here and now”. The EU resources pumped into education improve only the material condition of their beneficiaries, mostly project contractors, but they do not enhance the activation of self-regulative, self-creative and innovative processes, because as regards the system – it still involves supervision and control, standardization and limitation of the activity of subjects responsible for the quality of education.

Even the project of educational leaders or leadership crashes against the glass pane of bureaucratically executed authoritarianism, which allows the educational authorities to use the school system to manipulate society. The fundamental cause of this status quo is the educational macro-policy of the Polish state, which involves control of business and educational authorities acting as a corporation

pyramid. It is not surprising that those drawing the profits at the top would not give them up on their own. This is not what they aimed at while climbing for power. For the system of school education, the effects of resigning from a system reform of education as supplementation of the state administration reform were the following:

- maintaining the dualistic public administration, with its division into government and local authority. With the lack of consensus and a coherent common strategy and tasks for both organs, this brings about unceasing conflicts and a counterproductive policy concerning educational management, executing pedagogical supervision by local authorities (organs running educational institutions). It should not be surprising that the educational policy is not coherent and uniform, especially in the regions where government and local authorities are from opposing political formations;
- partial decentralization of tasks and competences towards local authorities but resulting in a war between the territorial administration and government, triggered by increasing tasks and decreasing subventions for them.

Procedural democracy does not allow for distinguishing between democratic and non-democratic systems as it is limited democracy or pseudo-democracy that are situated between the two. An educator can take one of the three positions in the antagonized political world – being an enemy, ally or someone neutral in the relations between the authority and society. It is quite natural that the authorities will strive for allies and people not engaged in the natural social conflict, but fight against enemies. Teachers, as neutral subjects, are important for the authorities only as much as they can be transformed into enemies or allies. This explains the situation which took place after changing the political system in Poland in 1989, as a result of which the educational authorities stopped being interested in teachers as neutral subjects of education.

At first, the authorities acted in such a way in order to free the autonomy of teachers, learners and their parents as well as to create the foundations for the grassroots process of socializing public education and to strengthen participatory competences of all these subjects in the process of co-deciding about educational quality at schools and transparent solving all problems and conflicts during the course of school education. However, after the return, in 1992, of post-socialist political powers (also in education), which were explicitly hostile to democratization and self-governance, the antagonistic relations of educational authorities and representatives of the scientific world were introduced to the political arena and got consolidated there. From that moment, the ruling authorities were interested in the restitution of a totalitarian state and in maintaining a centralized educa-

tion system. In order to co-manage this system, the focus was on teachers-allies, mostly from neo-leftist or later neo-conservative formations, completely ignoring and disdaining the essentially neutral but critically engaged teachers. They were defined as enemies of the ruling authorities, which – in an unceasing political conflict – needed nothing but allies.

Unfortunately, what still exerts influence in Polish society is the myth of conflictlessness, avoiding or hiding conflicts so that the rulers would not have to justify their decisions. Yet, such an attitude is typical of totalitarian or authoritarian, not democratic, states. An educator as an enemy in democracy is treated as an alien, who is either tamed, pacified, isolated, stigmatized, excluded, or whose views or research results are maximally neutralized. In the education system, such teachers enter the non-public sphere, where they can keep their sovereignty – though even there this takes place at the cost of a certain piece of this sovereignty.

### **The position of science in the policy of educational transformations**

What should not be practiced is escaping from politics, just the opposite – one should engage in or strengthen the movement of radical change projects which would refer to democracy and the common system of values not to enable the solidification of the political scene of the state and the constant and treacherous manipulation of citizens by the ruling “sly dogs”. In the politics created in this way, people become a means for achieving aims, only apparently taking into account their needs and respecting their rights. It is necessary to revalue all values into the new counterculture movement to prevent the consolidation or advancement of the ideology of merciless social Darwinism.

Not without fault are here the representatives of humanities and social or economic sciences, a part of whom have drifted away from the humanistic sources, being infatuated with mathematical models and the pressure of quantitative approach to (not only economic) phenomena associated with the transformations in the 3rd RP. This is known as the process of categorization, evaluation, accreditation and parametrization of the sphere which might be approached in the model (idealization) way but in reality is very distant from it. *Ignoring the complexity of social life and of the humanistic dimension in economy resulted in previous years in expanding arrogance of some economists, especially all kinds of economic experts (mostly of neoliberal and libertarian origin), who lectured their truths as the obvious in the way that allowed no objection and with evident disdain for those who had*

*a different standpoint and a long time before had warned of the approaching crisis* (A. Szahaj, 2014, p. 54). What can be seen, with growing accuracy, in education is that the problems of the Polish school system and education of the young are adjusted by state authorities to political interests and goals of international global economic organizations (OECD, World Bank). This can be exemplified in the best way by financing from the state budget the political monitoring of the apparently scientific studies on 15-year-old learners' skills and knowledge (PISA programme) and even on other age groups of Polish society (B. Śliwerski, 2016). Greed, cynicism, meanness of rulers can be seen in the distribution of EU resources for development, within such programmes as, e.g., "Human Capital".

It is painful that the elites of the Third Republic of Poland have violated the elementary principle of justice by letting the perpetrators of socialist totalitarianism in Poland remain unpunished, by not getting even with the executioners of those times. *Society received a demoralizing signal: no matter what you do in life, if you keep with the stronger, with those who ensure protection and support, you can expect success (...) The beneficiaries of the new system were mostly those who had been well also in the old system. The material success of the representatives of "the only right force" did not result from extraordinary ability or heroic diligence but from the so-called deals and contacts, which turned out to be the most precious economic capital in the new times (many people talked about solidarity so they acted in "solidarity"). Unfortunately, the lesson of "getting of the guilt" and the later success of post-communists has demoralized also the other side of the political arena* (A. Szahaj, 2014, pp. 72–73).

After 28 years of liberty, demoralization enhanced by the system is still present. A. Szahaj understands this as breaking the fundamental principles of the state of law, democratic state, which is gradually appropriated by interest groups which achieve success owing to certain social arrangements, the access to the office-political and business class, nepotism, bribery, and dishonesty. The demoralization of political classes co-occurs and is supported by treachery of clerks – the part of elites which hope for quick wealth owing to their servile attitude to the authorities. The ruling powers disdain, marginalize, undermine the opinions of critics who do not tolerate the transfer of public money to private hands. What is even worse, (...) *academic scholars and intellectualists have disappointed as well, letting themselves believe that without personal wealth they mean nothing, so they took to collecting it with energy, finding neither time nor will to participate in public life; we have all disappointed, being busy with our private matters, ignoring the public sphere, forgetting about a republican principle that good life requires good society – and this can only be achieved when the care for one's own good is combined with*

*the care for common good. By turning away with contempt from politics, we have paved the way for people who have turned out not worthy of our trust* (A. Szahaj, 2014, p. 79).

## **Pedagogy as a servile science**

Ever since its beginning, pedagogy – due to its assumed function – has been a part of the sphere of public affairs and goods, associated with the rule of people, institutions and environments over the learning generation, which participates in educational and socializing processes. It is impossible not to refer here, particularly today – in the period of assessing the role of pedagogy in the socio-political transformation of the 3rd RP, to the issue of democracy and its relations with educational sciences and didactic craft. Examining the relations between pedagogy and socio-political processes should be of crucial significance, because without revealing them, without appropriate recognition of their essence and the scope of influence (or its lack) it is not possible to answer the question concerning the direction for which Polish education heads. Therefore, it is necessary for researchers to undertake further macro-political studies of the ruling processes in Poland, including those within education and aimed at it in order to leave Plato's cave of ignorance and helplessness.

Across all the consecutive political formations governing the state, educators as well as representatives of other social sciences in Poland have not used the transformation time which they were offered for strengthening grassroots initiatives and the simulation or protection of socialization processes of the Polish school system and higher education. Education has become an inhibitor for Polish democracy and the authorities of the Ministry of National Education have done their best to ruin the efforts of parents and some teachers and scientific environments aimed at transforming school and introducing into kindergartens not feigned collaboration for the common good. The authorities discourage educational subjects from their authentic participation in decision making processes, in shaping the educational policy, citizen dialogue and social engagement. The freedom regained by the nation is not given to it for ever. If people want not only to defend but also to consolidate the regained liberties, they – as a society – have to withhold the possibility of violating them, also by the authorities, by civil counterbalance.

What has not changed since the fall of socialism is the situation of educational experts in their relations to the group that makes decisions concerning the implementation of the planned educational change in the Polish school system.

Against the statement that it has a public character, in fact the system is still a centralistic structure with a hierarchical organization of rule (supervision). The relations between scientists-experts and the authorities were already focused on in 1987 by Zbigniew Kwieciński, who distinguished three categories: 1) experts who constitute a part of the environment and have been invited or summoned to cooperate (including full time staff of the informational and executive background of the central authorities or some outer specialists treated by them as professional authority), 2) independent specialists, developing the knowledge of education and its changes for the good of education itself, science and society, not for the use of the authorities, 3) critical experts, who in public provide their opinions on the reformers of the centralistic rule and indicate its errors, dysfunctions, pathologies, or who point at the possibilities of alternative reforms, more efficient and functional for the interests of certain large group, or who make attempts to understand what is going on, what has occurred, why and with what effect (Z.Kwieciński, 1987).

Educators who adjust their models, projects or offers to political manipulation with law are servants of political social engineering, they do not serve the essence and quality of the educational process. Often against their own declarations about recognizing multitude and pluralism in the world of ideas, scientists serving political interests of the authorities become fundamentalists, apologists of a one-sided vision of reality, which excludes the existence of any other reality. Such an attitude may co-occur with blindness, fanaticism or fervency of the engagement in the only right matter, its promoting and fighting against different ideas. If a political subject is the one who uses the measure required by the current arrangement of powers (someone ready to use anyone to achieve their goals), education – along with pedagogy as a science – can be subordinated to these requirements and be summoned to fight in the public space.

Pedagogy servile to centralistic authority is a kind of pedagogy which instrumentalizes a human being, whose dignity is manifested in being only a means and a certain instrument or “thing” for achieving others’ goals. By creating educational reality in an antagonistic way, such a pedagogy will aim at influencing this reality from the only right and valuable, one’s own *paidagogia*, no matter whether someone notices, understands and accepts this or not. Its essence is making people dependent, committed to promoting it, making them join the struggle against any other pedagogy, not collaborating with it. Therefore, pedagogy in service becomes also a media and marketing product of contemporary times. It generates its own authorities and ridicules or depreciates others. If educators are unable to persuade others what they need and why this must agree with their ideology, they will cyn-

ically create such needs and expectations with the use of social engineering and political manipulation. If such a strategy turns out not to be effective enough, they will start a negative offensive, consisting in triggering fear, anxiety, fearful visions of what can happen if their ideology is not implemented in education. Fascination with effectiveness and the instrumentalization of the indicated goals results in pedagogy not noticing its “counter-effectiveness” – if achieving particular goals is excessively wanted, the opposite is achieved in fact. The servile nature of pedagogy as an element of spiritual culture of modern civilization leads to barbarianism by destroying and degrading culture, by decomposing people’s attitude to the world of values. Such a pedagogy will always be statist, ideological, subordinated to the interests of the ruling political parties.

### **Pedagogy of social service**

Building pedagogy of social service is based on the counterpoint principle – such a pedagogy has to indicate the black side of the opposing pedagogy to evoke objection, rebellion, discord towards it in order to threaten with potential, thus unverifiable here and now, results of its further functioning in society. This pedagogy needs to trigger fascination with itself and rebellion towards any other, so that all other pedagogies will fall down, become absent, disappear from the scene. It is not possible to be in two systems of ideological reference to pedagogy as this reveals the paradox of human functioning, of being inside and at the same time outside a particular ideology. Pedagogy in service gets limitlessly subordinated to every rule, regardless of its ideology. It is a kind of servile, submissive pedagogy which resigns from its own autonomy.

Researchers should not sell their soul to the devil and undertake action in the name of political correctness or individual aims. This ethical imperative concerns particularly them as they can read and understand, much better than other citizens, the discourse of the authorities which steer society not always for its good. This is even more important now, when politicians’ lies are more and more frequently hidden with the help of subtle public relations techniques – with the use of scientific knowledge. A lie in politics is intentional in the same way as not noticing it by scientists – if they do not reveal it to society, they support the destruction of both the public sphere and democracy to the same extent as its perpetrators. Unaware of the threats on the part of the authorities, citizens experience not only personal but also social loss, because their sensitivity to dysfunctions and pathologies (developing due to ignoring their real sources) is

being suppressed. This sensitivity is a *sine qua non* for existing in the public sphere in citizen society.

Educators, as neutral subjects in education, who do not impose their standards or research results to make the public debate or decisions their hostage, do not function in the public space, in the educational process, as subjects with the feeling of rightness and moral superiority. Such an educator is someone who is guided not only by their own interest but also by the feeling of the moral value of an act in order to testify the truth. It is much easier to meet such attitudes in deliberative democracy. In the times of brutal intervention of political and economic interests, the need for protecting humanity, its dignity and culture is of crucial significance. Pedagogy of social service should make people aware of the contamination of human minds with falsehood or criminal ideas, it should detoxify human consciousness by unmasking falsehood, bad intensions, ignorance, dehumanizing theories. Such a pedagogy ought to enhance an awareness open to liberty, truth, democracy, good and tolerance, to regenerate the world of social and citizen values, to evoke human conscience and responsibility for one's own and others' life. It is a necessity here to protect a person as a free and sovereign being in relation to society/the state, which is also a sovereign and works for common good.

The role of modern pedagogy of social service should consist in bringing back to life a public human, and – in this way – in the return to building a civil society. Both these categories are destroyed by the ruling group. They do their best, with huge EU financial resources for promotion (social campaigns, locating ideas as products in media) and public relations specialists, not to let content-based arguments clash in the public debate and to substitute this debate with the “stardom system” in empowering the authorities' decisions. The more opposing the authorities' standpoint is (both in terms of public interest and scientific arguments), the more frequent and stronger use of the methods and means of political propaganda takes place – often with the support of celebrities, including some scientists, obedient to this strategy of the rulers. In this situation, educationalists need to join the tackling of numerous myths, constructed and disseminated by the authorities, as well as meaningless statements (announced by intellectual stars), which draw society's attention away from many important dangers and damage to which the government's technocratic politics leads.

Like the underground resistance movement against the totalitarian rule in the People's Republic of Poland, today – in the state with a quasi-democratic school system, there is a new agora. It is a world of virtual protest, parallel to the real world of the authorities' manipulation, which has the nature of a rhizome and



a hyper-text and non-physical structure of the network of interpersonal relations that report the expression of differences from the position of outsiders demystifying the lying and hypocrisy of the ruling authorities. They shift the moral awareness of the elites to make them collaborate apparently within educational modernization and reforms and, in fact, to undertake actions contradicting the values they should serve. Thus, what might be a mistake of educational elites is seeking the chances to join school reforms and the improvement of Polish education within the areas (defined by arrogant and incompetent authorities) of possible activity so that it will not infringe the authorities' hidden interests which are – as a result of undertaken decisions – contradictory to the national interest.

## **Conclusions**

In a democratic state, intellectuals should blow up the stereotypes and solutions which limit human sovereignty and public communication, resist and express the fears, views, feelings or opinions of those who fear the consequences of their own courage. A critical educator should take the position of an “uninvited outsider”, independent from the expert's authority, who will question the imposed appearance and falsehood, reveal “the kiss of death from the establishment” acting for the collaboration with the rulers despite considerable differences of standpoints. In the opposite case, by keeping silence, educators accept the state of growing pathology and become its co-perpetrators. In erosion affected democracy, this becomes a consent to develop politically correct nomenclature, which can be fought against only by opposing the attempts to pack the elites into the framework of the authorities' interests. It is impossible to change the existing pathology by participating in its processes in collaborative activity.

What seems necessary is breaking the consensus machinery to stop citizens' indifference. Unfortunately, some educationalists, psychologists and, in a growing number, sociologists have been degraded (of their own will) to submissive attitudes by yielding to the neoliberal authorities and providing them with selected – thus manipulated – transformations in the last decade. This is the reason why the authorities overuse the terms “collaboration” and “good practices”, washing them away of their right sense, giving them the meanings which slyly hide the truth instead of undertaking actions aimed at genuine transformations. Therefore, what should be the role of pedagogy is equipping society with theoretical tools so that it could understand the processes which take place within it and with infringing its interests.

Several decades have passed of reliable studies in critical pedagogy. The time has come to broaden the knowledge of macro-political determinants of the educational policy of post-totalitarian countries, reaching for, e.g., an emancipatory, anti-authoritarian and critical pedagogy. Educators ought to stop being co-perpetrators of pretending democracy and destroying self-governance by consecutive elites of political authorities in the world full of hypocrisy and political lies.

*Translated by Agata Cieniła*

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## Impact of Scholarly Publications and the Selected Socio-Demographic Factors

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### Abstract

In a dynamically developing scientific environment, there is a tendency toward creating mechanisms that objectively evaluate the output of individual scientific units. Selected indicators can be applied, inter alia, to work out specific criteria for awarding funds for scientific research activities. One of the most important indicators used is the impact of researchers' publications, which today determines the overall outcome of the evaluation of a research unit. The key question in this context is whether any socio-demographic factors are correlated with the impact of the scholarship work of individual researchers and, if yes, what those indicators are, specifically.

The purpose of this study was to determine the existence and, if confirmed, the nature of correlation between the impact of researchers' publications and selected socio-demographic factors such as: age, gender and family status. The study sample included all the academic employees of the Faculty of Political Sciences and International Studies, Nicolaus Copernicus University, in Toruń (Poland). The results demonstrated that the socio-demographic factors considered showed little correlation with publications' impactfulness as measured in the Polish evaluation system of research units.

**Keywords:** *evaluation of scientific research, publication impact, socio-demographic variables, social sciences, the humanities*

## **1. Introduction**

The issue of the effectiveness of tasks carried out at work is one of the most important topics in the field of HR research, also in the domain of science (Carayol & Matt, 2006). Therefore, the question arises which factors make scholars work better, more efficiently and effectively. At present, quantitative and qualitative assessment is carried out also for universities that must provide reports on their scientific and educational activities. Evaluation of scientific and research activity is, however, very difficult; should one take into account the number of Nobel Prize winners employed, the quantity of prestigious publications or the monetary value of registered patents? Maybe all of the above and some additional elements should be combined into a complex multifactor calculation model? One undisputed fact, however, remains – that the basic channel of communication between scientists, but also between the world of science and its social and economic environment, are scholarly publications.

So far, no research on the impactfulness of publications taking into account a broad range of sociodemographic factors has been conducted in Poland. Often in the atmosphere of reluctance, protests and dissent, the scientific community was until recently engaged in the laborious exercise of determining what is a prestigious publication. Now in the case of Polish science there is no need for further discussions – this problem has been solved institutionally by the Ministry of Science and Higher Education (MSHE). In a broad definition, an employee with high impactfulness of publications is one that publishes a lot and in prestigious journals. University management should, thus, be interested in which factors are correlated with the high impact of a researcher's scholarly work, which in turn is profitable for the university (Jeran, Kącka & Piechowiak-Lamparska, 2017). Every employee, after all, can be described in terms of family situation, age and gender. It is thus worth investigating whether any and – if yes – which sociodemographic factors are correlated with the impactfulness of publications. What makes the presented research results unique is the addition of family status to the range of factors considered. The discussion of the impact of gender and age can be found in the work of other researchers, but such a detailed and comprehensive approach as the one presented herein is very rare.

Similar studies have been carried out at the University of Helsinki, Finland, where Puuska (2010) stated clearly that the scientific productivity of university employees is sensitive to some sociodemographic variables only. After examining data of 12,400 Norwegian scientists, Rørstad & Aksnes (2015) showed that scientific productivity and impactfulness is more significantly influenced by one's

position than gender and age. However, these deviations at the individual level must depend on factors other than those taken into account by these authors. It is thus reasonable to suggest investigating other sociodemographic factors as possible co-determinants (e.g., family status), instead of agreeing that this issue must remain elusive and must be attributed solely to undefinable “inspiration”.

The study is based on a detailed analysis of the structure of scholarship work and the socio-demographic variables of the complete population of employees of the Faculty of Political Sciences and International Studies (FPSIS), Nicolaus Copernicus University (NCU) in Toruń (Poland). Due to a relatively small sample, the results of the analysis cannot be extrapolated onto the entire scientific community in Poland and the authors of the paper are well aware of the fact. Nevertheless, the sample size allows for the research to be considered as a *case study*, which may be an interesting contribution to any research focused on scholars and research units at a national level, as well as to studies analyzing particular domains of science or disciplines. The basic research question put forward in this paper is: Are socio-demographic factors correlated with the impact of scholarship work of individual researchers? The answer is particularly interesting since the present study is a pioneering one—so far, no results of multi-variate analyses focused on links between a scholar’s publications’ impact and socio-demographic variables have been published. One of the barriers in conducting such research is the difficulty of the acquisition and aggregation of sensitive data.

## **2. Research Methodology**

### **2.1. Materials and variables**

The following data sets were used to perform the presented analysis:

1. Scientific publications of the staff of FPSIS for the years 2013–2016 (parametric evaluation period).
2. Information on the key socio-demographic traits of the researchers employed by FPSIS: age, sex, civil status (married, cohabitating, single), family status (dependent minor children under direct care of an employee, no such dependent children).
3. Specific point scores obtained by individual employees were calculated on the basis of publication data from the Expertus system (Bibliography of publications of employees and doctoral students at NCU in Toruń). The publications were catalogued and aggregated according to the division provided for in the MSHE Regulation (2016). Next, they were assigned

parametric points in accordance with the same MSHE Regulation (2016) and the *Catalogue of Scientific Periodicals with a full history of their position in the published catalogues of scientific periodicals in the years 2013–2016 and corresponding points to be awarded* (2017). In the analysis, the total points earned by the employees according to the MSHE scoring system were split into two categories: 1. Relevant (impactful) points (points for publications that were taken into account in the final parametric evaluation and were above the cut-off line (177); and 2. Irrelevant (lost) points (points for publications that were not considered in the parametric evaluation of the unit (below cut-off point).

## 2.2. Objectives of the study

The purpose of the study was to determine the existence of (and if existing, the nature of) a correlation between selected socio-demographic variables (independent variables) and the publication impact of the researchers employed at the FPSIS as measured by relevant points awarded by the MSHE for scientific publications of the unit's employees depending on their ranking as part of the process of parametric evaluation of scientific and research units in Poland (dependent variable).

The following specific research questions were posed:

**Q1.** Is there a statistically significant relationship between employee age and impact achieved by their publications in terms of the final number of impactful points awarded in the evaluation, and if so, is it positively or negatively correlated?

**Q2.** Do men and women differ in the impact achieved by their publications in terms of relevant points obtained in the evaluation process?

**Q3.** Does the civil and family situation of a worker correlate with the impact achieved by their publications in terms of impactful (relevant) points awarded in the evaluation?

These questions led us to the suggested interlinked answers (research hypotheses):

**H1.** There is a negative and statistically significant relationship between employee age and the impact achieved by their publications in terms of relevant (impactful) points obtained in the evaluation process.

Researchers' age is one of the basic factors analyzed in studies addressing the issue of scientific productivity and impactfulness (cf., e.g., Costas, van Leeuwen & Bordons, 2010; Abramo, D'Angelo & Di Costa, 2011; Rørstad & Aksnes, 2015; Abramo, D'Angelo & Murgia, 2015). The results obtained definitely show that it is not the main determinant of increased productivity and impact of publications, although indeed the older the employee the less they publish. The analyses carried

out by Cole (1979) at the end of the 1970s show that, in fact, scholarly productivity of researchers is noticeably decreasing with age, but this fact was attributed by Cole primarily to low attractiveness of reward systems in place in the scientific community, and not age as expressed purely in numbers. Studies by Cronin & Meho (2007) confirm these results. However, these two authors also draw attention to the fact that productivity and impact in terms of publications decrease with age, because creativity of well-established academics can be and is at that stage expressed in various alternative ways, e.g., through reviews or efforts aimed at popularization of one's research results, which significantly reduces the number of publications.

Taking into account the conclusions from the above studies, we also assumed that among the academic employees of the FPSIS, age is not a factor significantly influencing the publication impactfulness scores. Of course we are aware that the younger (and less tenured) the employee, the more they should want to demonstrate their scientific abilities and scholarship. It would, thus, be logical to expect that younger employees would exhibit greater scientific activity than older researchers simply for pragmatic reasons related to their professional situation and desire for prestige. They would therefore want to demonstrate their suitability and usefulness for the organization that employs them, to expand their scholarly output needed for professional advancement, increase their personal prestige, and consequently gain access to financially more lucrative positions within the unit.

## H2. Gender is not correlated with the number of relevant (impactful) points scored by an employee.

Usually, gender is a differentiating factor, and results of analyses show different outcomes for men and women. The practice of distinguishing this particular socio-demographic variable as a relevant one has a very long and well-documented tradition in research. In some fields of research, gender is even a key predictor. Such is the case, e.g., in the study of electoral behavior, where, regardless of the current socio-political context, there is a continuing trend of greater voting activity of men than women.

So far, there have been many studies focusing on the relationship between gender and productivity in terms of publications. The conclusions from these studies have been evolving over the years, and the newest indicate that gender is not a variable significantly influencing scientific productivity and impact of one's scholarly publication (in the early 1990s, research conducted in the Netherlands at the University of Leiden showed that women can be well organized and publish prolifically, Noordenbos 1992). Moreover, Kelchtermans & Veugelers (2013) have



shown that in biomedical sciences women are more productive over the long-term. Kretschmer & Kretschmer (2013) refuted four misconceptions about women in science and, at the same time stated that the widespread popularity of these myths may be the reason for the under-representation of women at the highest levels of hierarchy in the world of academia.

We assume that also among the FPSIS employees gender is not a factor differentiating the impact and productivity of a researcher's publications. Nevertheless, we decided that, despite many studies in this area, it is still worth analysing the widest possible range of sociodemographic factors in our work, gender included.

**H3.** Absence of family responsibilities in the form of a spouse (or steady partner) and minor children remaining directly under a researcher's care promotes a larger number of relevant (impactful) points obtained.

From the conducted review of literature on scientific productivity and impact as measured by publications, it became clear that analyzing the correlation between the impactfulness of a researcher's publications and their family obligations is a unique and innovative approach. No one has conducted similar analyses thus far.

We hypothesized that lack of family responsibilities and obligations such as those arising from marriage or partnership and having no children under direct care (i.e., not only sharing in the costs of a child's maintenance, but living together in one household with the child, which gives rise to additional time-consuming responsibilities) should facilitate obtaining more relevant (impactful) points for one's publication. We are aware that in practice familial relationships and related obligations of science employees (as in other professions) go far beyond matrimonial/partnership and parental relationships. Without knowing the exact personal situation of an individual, any inference based solely on their marital/relationship status and their number of children can only be of a very simplistic nature.

### **2.3. Characteristics of the data set**

The collected data set consists of 61 units of enquiry (61 academic employees of the FPSIS), and the analyzed data are mostly quantitative variables. All dependent variables referring to employee publication impact (as expressed by the number of relevant points obtained during the unit evaluation process) and the independent variable "age" are ratio variables. Only the variables of gender, civil status, and family situation are nominal, the first of which is of dichotomous nature. This gave us the opportunity to analyze and test the statistical significance of the collected data using tools such as regression analysis and correlation coefficients (R-Pearson and Spearman's rank correlation coefficient). The analyzed dataset is not a repre-

sentative sample, but can be treated as an independent and discrete population, thus giving the authors an opportunity to treat their research as a *case study*.

**Table 1.** Socio-demographic characteristics of the analyzed population

Variables	N	%
<b>Gender:</b>		
Women	21	34.43
Men	40	65.57
<b>Age:</b>		
Under 35	10	16.39
36–40	16	26.23
41–45	10	16.39
46–50	7	11.48
51–60	9	14.75
Over 60	9	14.75
<b>Civil status and family situation:</b>		
In a steady relationship (marriage or cohabitation)		
At least one dependent minor child under their direct care	52	85.25
	29	47.54
<b>Total</b>	<b>61</b>	<b>100</b>

Source: Own analysis of data records on FPSIS employees.

### **3. Research Results**

The main purpose of the study was to verify the hypotheses posited as possible answers to the research questions formulated.

**H1.** There is a negative and statistically significant relationship between employees' ages and the impact achieved by their publications in terms of relevant (impactful) points obtained in the evaluation process.

In this case, the independent variable was employee age, and the dependent variable analyzed were the point scores (for "total" and "impactful (relevant)" points) awarded by the MSHE for each employee publication depending on its rank. Among all the regression models tested with the use of the curve estimation function in the SPSS software (*Statistical Package for the Social Sciences*), the best-fit and most statistically significant ( $p < 0.05$ ) models turned out to be linear regression (for the relevant (impactful) points obtained variable) and logistic

regression (for the total points obtained variable). However, their coefficient of determination is still negligible ( $R^2 = 0.082$ ) and does not explain even 10% of the variance.

This does not mean, however, that researcher age does not matter. The Pearson  $R$  correlation coefficient, assuming the above significance level, was recorded at  $R = -0.282$  for the first of the dependent variables and  $-0.0286$  for the second. This indicates that there is a negative, if weak, correlation between age and number of relevant (impactful) points obtained by an FPSIS employee. If one additionally analyzes the data broken down into the two categories resulting from recoding the ratio variable “age” into a dichotomous variable “employees under 40 years of age / over 40 years of age,” a clearer relationship between these categories emerges.

**Table 2.** Analysis of correlation between age of FPSIS employees (criterion of under/over 40 years of age) and the number of relevant (impactful) points obtained for publications

		Report		
Under 40 years of age		Points by the MSHE	Relevant (impactful) points	Irrelevant (lost) points
No	Sum	3701.9	1258.5	2275.4
	Median	88.237	26.000	51.667
	Mean	105.769	35.957	65.012
	Std. Deviation	81.3579	35.8577	53.1395
	N	35	35	35
Yes	Sum	3037.4	1294.5	1526.9
	Median	107.375	39.000	47.500
	Mean	116.824	49.788	58.728
	Std. Deviation	73.1951	41.0580	41.6347
	N	26	26	26
Total	Sum	6739.3	2553.0	3802.3
	Median	98.667	36.333	49.237
	Mean	110.481	41.852	62.333
	Std. Deviation	77.5468	38.4522	48.2933
	N	61	61	61

Source: Own analysis.

Employees up to the age of 40 (inclusive), as shown in Table 2, demonstrated on average a higher number of total points obtained, a higher number of relevant (impactful) points obtained, and a lower number of irrelevant (lost) points. The differences are marked – the median in the first two cases is higher by more than

a dozen points. Interestingly, the “young” researchers scored more points in total for their publications (1294.5) and recorded fewer irrelevant (lost) points (1526.9) than the group of “older” academics (1258.5 and 2275.4 points respectively), despite the fact that the population of the former was overall smaller.

**Table 3.** Analysis of correlation between age of FPSIS employees (age brackets) and the number of relevant (impactful) points obtained for publications

Age brackets		Report		
		Points by the MSHE	Relevant (impactful) points	Irrelevant (lost) points
Under 35	Sum	961.9	449.0	404.9
	Median	90.464	37.750	34.048
	Mean	96.186	44.900	40.486
	Std. Deviation	60.1884	41.5878	24.2164
	N	10	10	10
36–40	Sum	2075.6	845.5	1122.1
	Median	113.750	50.000	60.833
	Mean	129.723	52.844	70.129
	Std. Deviation	79.3359	41.7851	46.6552
	N	16	16	16
41–45	Sum	1423.3	490.5	848.8
	Median	103.903	39.000	64.403
	Mean	142.332	49.050	84.882
	Std. Deviation	119.1626	46.2568	77.6320
	N	10	10	10
46–50	Sum	804.6	248.0	508.6
	Median	116.417	25.000	55.417
	Mean	114.940	35.429	72.655
	Std. Deviation	67.3189	37.1791	38.1132
	N	7	7	7
51–60	Sum	859.5	358.7	500.8
	Median	103.000	36.333	62.000
	Mean	95.500	39.852	55.648
	Std. Deviation	56.9649	34.2638	30.4543
	N	9	9	9

		Report		
Age brackets		Points by the MSHE	Relevant (impactful) points	Irrelevant (lost) points
Above 60	Sum	614.5	161.3	417.2
	Median	66.000	13.000	31.000
	Mean	68.279	17.926	46.353
	Std. Deviation	45.4768	15.7892	46.5751
	N	9	9	9
Total	Sum	6739.3	2553.0	3802.3
	Median	98.667	36.333	49.237
	Mean	110.481	41.852	62.333
	Std. Deviation	77.5468	38.4522	48.2933
	N	61	61	61

Source: Own analysis.

A more detailed breakdown of the variable “age” into a number of age brackets (Table 3) shows that the most productive age group in terms of relevant (impactful) points obtained are the employees in the 36–40 age range. They obtained the largest number of total points and relevant points for the FPSIS and had the highest median value for the latter of these parameters. It should be noted, however, that the number of irrelevant (lost) points was also the highest in this particular bracket. At the opposite end of the spectrum were the oldest scholars (over 60 years of age), with 614.5 points in total, out of which 161 were relevant (impactful) points. The medians for both parameters were 66 and 13, respectively, and were also the lowest recorded for all the brackets analyzed. Moreover, this oldest group is also the least internally varied in this respect (lowest value of standard deviation). However, the most interesting age group in the data set are the researchers aged between 46–50. The median for the number of total points obtained for this category was the highest of all (over 116), but in terms of parametrically impactful (relevant) points, the median value recorded was second to last (25 points). This is the biggest difference in median value position for the two variables among all the age brackets compared. This points to significant publishing potential that was not translated into impactful (relevant) points for the unit.

Calculation of the Spearman rank correlation coefficient ( $r_s$ ) to examine correlations between the employee age brackets listed in Table 3 (independent ordinal variable) and the number of points obtained (dependent ratio variable) did not confirm the correlations between these two variables. The results of the test performed were not statistically significant – statistical significance ( $p > 0.05$ ) was recorded only

with respect to employee performance in terms of relevant (impactful) points:  $r_s = -0.284$ . This suggests a weak but nevertheless negative correlation between employee age (bracket) and the number of impactful (relevant) points obtained. Still, this conclusion backs up the arguments supporting our initial hypothesis.

**H2.** Gender is not correlated with the number of relevant (impactful) points obtained by an employee.

It turns out that in the studied population, contrary to expectations, gender is a differentiating factor in terms of the number of relevant (impactful) points obtained by an employee. As presented in Table 4, the women recorded higher median values by well over a dozen points, both for total points awarded and parametrically impactful (relevant) points. Analyzing the minimum and maximum point scores for both categories, however, it can be seen that the average number of points per publication is still higher for the women than the men. The women scored in the range of 45 to over 454 points (total points), 0 to 178.5 points (for impactful (relevant) points) and 13.8 to 264 for irrelevant (lost) points. For the men, these ranges were 13–237.5; 0–130.5; and 0–168, respectively.

**Table 4.** Analysis of correlation between gender of FPSIS employees and the number of relevant (impactful) points obtained for publications

		Report		
Gender		Points by the MSHE	Relevant (impactful) points	Irrelevant (lost) points
Women	Sum	2788.7	1,016.0	1580.7
	Median	111.000	38.000	51.667
	Mean	132.795	48.381	75.271
	Std. Deviation	102.5277	46.4155	59.2522
	N	21	21	21
Men	Sum	3950.6	1537.0	2221.6
	Median	96.583	26.500	48.952
	Mean	98.766	38.425	55.541
	Std. Deviation	58.7533	33.6884	40.6225
	N	40	40	40
Total	Sum	6739.3	2553.0	3802.3
	Median	98.667	36.333	49.237
	Mean	110.481	41.852	62.333
	Std. Deviation	77.5468	38.4522	48.2933
	N	61	61	61

Source: Own analysis.

**H3.** Absence of family responsibilities in the form of a spouse (or steady partner) and minor children remaining directly under a researcher's care promotes a larger number of relevant (impactful) points obtained.

A very limited number (9) of employees who were not in steady relationships during the period under evaluation makes it impossible to make a fair comparison and verify the hypothesis that the lack of family commitments (marriage or cohabitation) is positively correlated with the number of impactful (relevant) points obtained (Table 5). If we consider the element of having minor children directly under one's care, then it turns out that both the number of total points obtained and the number of impactful (relevant) points obtained are higher among the employees taking care of children than among the childless. The median value difference is over 41 points in the total points and almost 17 for relevant points. The number of irrelevant (lost) points is also higher in that same category. This clearly demonstrates the fact that childcare does not constitute a barrier to frequent publication of one's scholarly work and, in the light of our data, even seems to be slightly beneficial for such activity.

**Table 5.** Analysis of correlation between family situation (dependent children under one's care) of FPSIS employees and the number of relevant (impactful) points obtained for publications

		Report		
Dependent minor children under their direct care?		Points by the MSHE	Relevant (impactful) points	Irrelevant (lost) points
No	Sum	3062.8	1283.2	1587.6
	Median	70.000	26.000	45.000
	Mean	98.800	41.392	51.214
	Std. Deviation	70.1558	39.3895	35.7717
	N	31	31	31
Yes	Sum	3676.5	1269.8	2214.7
	Median	111.833	39.000	57.542
	Mean	122.551	42.328	73.823
	Std. Deviation	83.9859	38.1264	56.8583
	N	30	30	30
Total	Sum	6739.3	2553.0	3802.3
	Median	98.667	36.333	49.237
	Mean	110.481	41.852	62.333
	Std. Deviation	77.5468	38.4522	48.2933
	N	61	61	61

Source: Own analysis.

## 4. Conclusions

The aim of the study was to determine the correlation (if such exists) between scientific productivity of researchers as expressed in publications and selected sociodemographic factors, such as age, gender and family situation. As the dataset analyzed was a small and unrepresentative sample in relation to the population of researchers in Poland, it cannot serve as a basis for any general conclusions. However, the authors see the study as an interesting pilot, a “prospective study” in an area previously not investigated. Firstly, the sociodemographic factors considered in the study are either entirely uncorrelated with scientific output and impact of work of a researcher, as measured by the number of points awarded by the MSHE in the process of the evaluation of scientific units once every four years, or correlated to a relatively small degree only. On the other hand, our research has shown that there is some connection between certain variables we were examining. First of all, gender turned out to be a differentiating factor in terms of point scores obtained (productivity). The women proved to be more productive in this respect than the men. We consider this to be an important and surprising finding, which of course requires confirmation in subsequent studies. In the case of the FPSIS employees, age was also significant. The scholars under 40 years of age obtained more impactful points for their publications than the older age bracket. It is worth noting that the results of our analyses, although carried out on a small population, are consistent with conclusions from other studies carried out worldwide. As concerns the new socio-demographic factor taken into account in our study, the results of the examination of the relation between family obligations and scholarly output and impactfulness were interesting as well. It was determined that the researcher’s family situation impacts scientific productivity to a small degree only.

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## Canonical Correlation for Analyzing the Relationship between Educational Attainment and Marriage of Indonesian Youths

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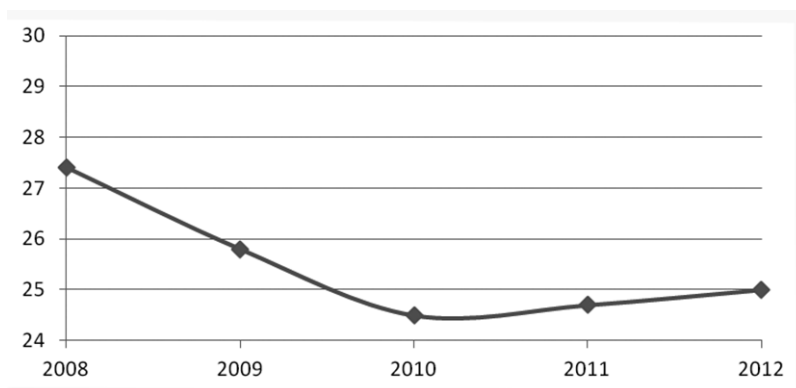
### Abstract

Youth plays a significant role for the future of a country in facing the rapid changes of time. This study examines the relationship between educational attainment and age of the first marriage of Indonesian youth. Data concerning Indonesian youth published by Statistics Indonesia in 2015 is used, which includes as many as 34 provinces of Indonesia. This study uses five age groups of first marriage as dependent variables ( $y$ ). There are also five groups of educational attainment that are used as independent variables ( $x$ ). Canonical correlation analysis is applied to analyze the strength of correlation between these two data matrices by using R program. Results provide five functions, which reveal that canonical correlations of these variables are 0.82, 0.60, 0.32, 0.16, and 0.01. Furthermore, the first and the second functions accommodate as much as 74.45% and 20.36% of the canonical relationship, respectively. Meanwhile, the rest is accommodated by the other three functions. The results also reveal that early marriage of Indonesian youth has a negative relationship with educational attainment.

*Keywords: educational attainment, age of first marriage, youth*

## **Introduction**

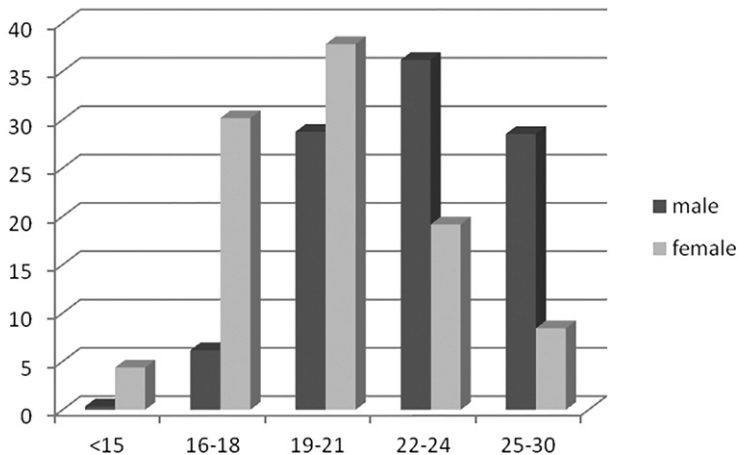
Indonesia as a developing country puts high expectation on youth in order to compete globally. According to the Law of the Republic of Indonesia Number 40 Year 2009 on Youth, youth includes Indonesian citizens aged 16–30. All young Indonesians, whether they are students or have completed their education, are the foundation of the nation in actualizing the ideals of the nation as well as maintaining Indonesian supremacy in the world. Other than that, young citizens are expected to be agents of change in order to improve the nation's competitiveness in the international arena. Therefore, Indonesian youth character must be strengthened and empowered to provide strong leadership character so that they can carry out their duties properly. It is well known that youth faces a complexity of problems in their lives, which are a huge challenge for the country in providing the right direction so that their abilities can be maximized for the betterment of the country. Quality education is a good way to give youth a chance to prepare themselves for future competition. Therefore, educational attainment of youth can be used as reference of their quality. Meanwhile, Indonesia also faces a serious problem regarding marriage at an early age, where based on the national socio-economic survey from 2008–2012, 17% of women who got married at the age between 20–24 reports that they got married before the age of 18 years (Statistics Indonesia, 2015). The following figure shows the fluctuation of the percentage of married women aged 20–24 years where they got married before 19 years.



**Figure 1.** Percentage of married women aged 20–24 years who got married before the age of 19

Source: Statistics Indonesia, 2015

Statistics Indonesia (2015) reports that based on the national socio-economic survey in 2015, the population of Indonesia was approximately 254.9 million people, where as many as 61.68 million people (24.20%) was youth. Further, the percentage of youth by age groups can be explained as follows. As much as 32.38% (or around 19,969.28) of youth are aged between 16–20 years, whereas those between 21–25 and between 26–30 years of age amount to 33.51% (or 20,672.42) and 34.11% (or 21,041.61), respectively. Meanwhile, the majority of youth (55.79%) is not married, as compared to married youth, at 42.64%, whereas the rest are those who are divorced or dead. Figure 2 shows the percentages of married youth based on the age of first marriage and gender in 2015.



**Figure 2.** Percentages of age of first marriage and gender  
Source: Statistics Indonesia, 2015

Figure 2 indicates that young women tend to get married at an earlier age, compared to young men. Further, early marriage is also dominated by female youth, where the percentages of married girls and married boys who married for the first time at the age under 15 years are 4.39 and 0.36, respectively. Meanwhile, the percentage of young women who got married for the first time at the age group of 16–18 years is about 30.18, compared to 6.16 of male youth. It is important to note that early marriage in Indonesia is regulated in marriage laws, where article 7 states that the permitted age of the bride and the groom are 16 years and 19 years, respectively. Figure 2 also shows that the majority of male youth (36.19%) tends

to get married for the first time at the age between 22–24 years. Table 1 presents the percentage of Indonesian youth based on gender and educational attainment in 2015.

**Table 1.** Percentage of Indonesian youth

Education	Male	Female	Male + Female
Never go to school	1.04	1.25	1.14
Do not pass primary school	5.35	3.82	4.60
Primary school	20.22	19.47	19.85
Junior high school	32.78	33.73	33.25
Senior high school and upwards	40.61	41.73	41.16
<b>Total</b>	100.00	100.00	100.00

From Table 1 it can be seen that the percentage of Indonesian youth who has senior high school diplomas and upwards is about 41.16, whereas 33.25% of Indonesian youth has graduated from junior high school. Further, there are 4.60 and 1.14% of Indonesian youth who has not completed primary school and never gone to school, respectively. Thus, there is 5.74% of youth who does not fulfill the obligation of the nine-year education. It is important to note that the Indonesian government implements a nine-year compulsory education program for all its citizens by issuing the Law of National Education Number 2 of 1989.

The main purpose of this study is to analyze the correlation between the educational attainment and age of first marriage of Indonesian youth. This study uses canonical correlation in order to analyze two sets of variables, where both the educational attainment and age of first marriage cover as many as five variables. Canonical correlation was first introduced by Hotelling (1936). Borga (2001) states canonical correlation is used to measure the relationship between two multidimensional variables, where one variable is treated as a dependent variable and the other is treated as an independent variable.

There are studies that investigate the relationship between education and marriage. Torr (2011) analyzes the relationship between education and marriage by using multinomial logistic regression (in the United States), which focuses on the changing relationship between education and marriage for both white and black women. Results reveal that education had a negative relationship with marriage for both white and black women in 1940, but they had a positive relationship in 2000. Musick, Brand and Davis (2012) also investigate the relationship between

education and marriage, using data from a national longitudinal survey of youth by applying propensity score analysis. Their results show that the effect of college attendance on marriage is significantly increased.

Meanwhile, canonical correlation is used in the context of student score analysis (Dai et al, 2011). Nanayakkara and Peiris (2017) use canonical correlation to analyze the effect of a mathematics course on engineering programs in Sri Lanka, which uses as many as 626 engineering students at the University of Moratuwa. Their results show that mathematics performance has a significant influence on engineering students.

Therefore, it is necessary to explore the relationship between the educational attainment and age of first marriage of youth in Indonesia. Thus, this study can be used as one of the references providing the right direction for Indonesian youth in order to improve their qualities by improving educational attainment, which is expected to have an inverse relationship with early marriage. Further, this study is expected to provide an overview of early marriage in Indonesia and its relationship with the level of education.

## **Research Methodology**

In order to analyze the correlation between the educational attainment and age of first marriage of Indonesian youth, this study uses as many as 34 Indonesia's major political subdivisions, where the dependent variable consists of five groups of the age of first marriage, i.e., the age group under 15 years ( $y_1$ ), the age group of 16–18 years ( $y_2$ ), the age group of 19–21 years ( $y_3$ ), the age group of 22–24 years ( $y_4$ ) and the age group of 25–30 years ( $y_5$ ). There are also five variables in the set of independent variable, which represent educational attainments, i.e., youth who has never gone to school ( $x_1$ ), youth who has not graduated from primary school ( $x_2$ ), youth with a primary school diploma ( $x_3$ ), youth with a junior high school diploma ( $x_4$ ), youth with senior high school diplomas and upwards ( $x_5$ ).

This study uses canonical correlation to investigate the association between the educational attainment ( $x$ ) and age of first marriage ( $y$ ) of Indonesian youth, where both the dependent and independent variables consist of five variables. The main purpose of this analysis is to measure the correlation level of these two multidimensional variables and then describe the relationship structure in both the dependent and independent variables. Rencher (2002) states that this analysis is the development of multiple correlation, where there is one dependent

variable ( $y$ ) and several independent variables ( $x$ ). According to Hair et al (2010), canonical correlation can be elaborated as follows. There is a group of independent variables ( $x_1, x_2, \dots, x_m$ ) and there is a set of dependent variables ( $y_1, y_2, \dots, y_n$ ). There is a new indicator from linear combination  $n$ , which is defined by  $P$  so that  $Q$  is the new indicator from linear combination  $m$ , where these combinations have maximum correlation, so that it can be written as follows:

$$\begin{aligned} P &= a'x = a_1x_1 + a_2x_2 = \dots a_mx_m \\ Q &= b'y = b_1y_1 + b_2y_2 = \dots b_ny_n \end{aligned} \tag{1}$$

From equation (1) the following equations are obtained.

$$\begin{aligned} var(P) &= a' Cov(x) a = a' \sum_{xx} a \\ var(Q) &= b' Cov(y) b = b' \sum_{yy} b \\ Cov(P, Q) &= a' Cov(x, y) b = a' \sum_{xy} b \end{aligned} \tag{2}$$

Therefore, the correlation between  $P$  and  $Q$  can be written as follows:

$$\begin{aligned} Corr(P, Q) &= \frac{Cov(P, Q)}{\sqrt{var(P)} \sqrt{var(Q)}} \\ Corr(P, Q) &= \frac{a' \sum_{xy} b}{\sqrt{a' \sum_{xx} a} \sqrt{b' \sum_{yy} b}} \end{aligned} \tag{3}$$

Furthermore, Hair et al (2010) report that there are three methods in interpreting canonical correlation analysis, which are canonical weight, canonical loading and canonical cross loading. The first method describes the magnitude contribution of the original variable in its canonical variables, while the second method measures the correlation between dependent and independent variables and its canonical variables, whereas the third method illustrates the correlation between the original variables in one group and its canonical variables in another set.

## Research Results

This study employs the data statistics of Indonesian youth of 2015, published by the Sub-Directorate of Social Welfare and Education Statistics of Statistics Indonesia, which are the results of the national socio-economic survey and the national survey of Social and Culture and Education Module in 2015. The publication covers the condition of Indonesian youth, which is conducted every year. A brief description of youth in Indonesia is presented, which includes the demographic structure, education, health, employment, access to media, and socio-cultural activities of Indonesian youth. However, this study focuses on the association between the educational attainments and age of first marriage of Indonesian youth by applying canonical correlation analysis. All of the 34 provinces are analyzed using R program in order to comprehend the relationship of the two sets of dependent and independent variables. Table 2 presents the descriptive statistics of the expected variables, whereas Tables 3, 4 and 5 describe correlations among the original dependent and independent variables.

**Table 2.** Descriptive statistics

Variables	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std Deviation
<b>Dependent variables</b>				
y1	0.50	6.25	3.23	1.42
y2	8.85	29.52	21.28	5.04
y3	27.64	38.40	34.08	2.40
y4	19.32	32.14	25.36	3.18
y5	9.67	30.95	16.05	4.57
<b>Independent variables</b>				
x1	0.41	24.24	1.76	4.05
x2	0.63	19.86	6.43	3.92
x3	7.84	28.99	18.85	5.41
x4	22.77	40.78	30.18	3.94
x5	26.82	66.30	42.77	9.77

**Table 3.** Correlations of age of first marriage

Variables	y1	y2	y3	y4	y5
y1	1.00	0.88	0.09	-0.86	-0.73
y2	0.88	1.00	0.33	-0.94	-0.90



Variables	y1	y2	y3	y4	y5
y3	0.09	0.33	1.00	-0.38	-0.65
y4	-0.86	-0.94	-0.38	1.00	0.80
y5	-0.73	-0.90	-0.65	0.80	1.00

**Table 4.** Correlations of educational attainment

Variables	x1	x2	x3	x4	x5
x1	1.00	0.14	0.05	-0.38	-0.35
x2	0.14	1.00	0.54	-0.31	-0.64
x3	0.05	0.54	1.00	0.25	-0.90
x4	-0.38	-0.31	0.25	1.00	-0.26
x5	-0.35	-0.64	-0.90	-0.26	1.00

**Table 5.** Correlations between educational attainment and marriage

Variables	y1	y2	y3	y4	y5
x1	0.00	0.07	0.26	-0.07	-0.17
x2	0.51	0.54	0.36	-0.63	-0.50
x3	0.58	0.68	0.44	-0.70	-0.68
x4	-0.06	0.15	0.21	-0.05	-0.22
x5	-0.50	-0.68	-0.59	0.69	0.74

The results of correlations among the original variables show that the correlations between the educational attainment and age of first marriage are not excessive, where the largest value is 0.74 between the age group of 25–30 years ( $y_5$ ) and youth with senior high school diplomas and upwards ( $x_5$ ), as presented in Table 5. Therefore, from Table 3 it can be seen that the largest correlation of the within-set of dependent variable is 0.94 (negative correlation) between the age group of 16–18 years ( $y_2$ ) and the age group of 22–24 years ( $y_4$ ). Further, Table 4 indicates that the largest correlation of the within-set of independent variable is 0.90, which is a negative correlation between the youth with a primary school diploma ( $x_3$ ) and the youth with senior high school diplomas and upwards ( $x_5$ ), whereas Tables 6 and 7 illustrate the canonical coefficients of the dependent variable  $y$  and independent variable  $x$ .

**Table 6.** Canonical coefficients of dependent variables

Variables	Ycan1	Ycan2	Ycan3	Ycan4	Ycan5
$y_1$	29.83	8.54	-15.27	18.94	-162.12
$y_2$	29.98	7.12	-14.58	17.48	-162.17
$y_3$	30.06	7.49	-14.34	18.24	-162.09
$y_4$	29.74	7.10	-15.08	17.99	-162.18
$y_5$	29.91	7.61	-14.30	17.77	-162.20

**Table 7.** Canonical coefficients of independent variables

Variables	Xcan1	Xcan2	Xcan3	Xcan4	Xcan5
$x_1$	5.40	36.72	136.52	-50.29	74.31
$x_2$	5.49	36.90	136.73	-50.46	74.02
$x_3$	5.43	36.95	136.23	-50.49	74.38
$x_4$	5.43	36.63	136.64	-50.57	74.15
$x_5$	5.34	36.88	136.44	-50.47	74.23

Tables 6 and 7 show canonical coefficients which define the relationship between the variables in one group and its canonical variations. The dependent variable has five canonical variations, i.e., Ycan1, Ycan2, Ycan3, Ycan4, and Ycan5 and the independent variable also has five canonical variations, i.e., Xcan1, Xcan2, Xcan3, Xcan4, and Xcan5. It is important to note that these canonical coefficients have similar meaning to the regression coefficients by assuming that the outcome variable is the canonical variation. Meanwhile, Table 8 indicates the correlations between canonical variates of the dependent variable  $y$  and independent variable  $x$ .

**Table 8.** Canonical correlation analysis

Roots	Canonical Correlation	Squared Canonical Correlation	Eigen Values	Percentages	Pr(>F)
1	0.82	0.67	2.03	74.45	0.01
2	0.60	0.36	0.56	20.36	0.47
3	0.32	0.10	0.12	4.27	0.93
4	0.16	0.02	0.02	0.91	0.95
5	0.01	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.98

Table 8 shows canonical correlations which are correlations for the canonical variate pairs, where the first canonical correlation is 0.82, which is the largest value among the others, while the last canonical correlation is the smallest value (0.01). Further, the second pair has a correlation coefficient of 0.60, while the correlation coefficient of the third and fourth pairs are 0.32 and 0.16, respectively. In order to show the relationship between early marriage and educational attainment, Table 9 presents coefficient regression where the dependent variable is defined by the variable of the age group under 15 years ( $y_1$ ), while the independent variable are the five educational attainments. Meanwhile, Table 10 indicates the coefficient regression, where the dependent variable is the age group of 16–18 years ( $y_2$ ) by using the same independent variables.

**Table 9.** Coefficient regression of dependent variable  $y_1$

	B	Std. Error	<i>t</i>	Sig.
(Constant)	16.07	6.14	2.62	0.01
$x_1$	-0.18	0.08	-2.18	0.04
$x_2$	-0.07	0.12	-0.60	0.55
$x_4$	-0.20	0.11	-1.88	0.07
$x_5$	-0.14	0.05	-2.59	0.01

**Table 10.** Coefficient regression of dependent variable  $y_2$

	B	Std. Error	<i>t</i>	Sig.
(Constant)	47.93	19.74	2.43	0.02
$x_1$	-0.36	0.27	-1.33	0.19
$x_2$	-0.02	0.38	-0.06	0.95
$x_4$	-0.24	0.35	-0.69	0.50
$x_5$	-0.44	0.17	-2.54	0.02

Tables 9 and 10 show similar results, where all the independent variables provide negative values of coefficient regression, which indicates a negative relationship between the educational attainment and early marriage of Indonesian youth. However, there is one excluded variable, i.e., youth with a primary school diploma ( $x_3$ ), due to a collinearity problem.

## **Discussion**

Analysis of the results shows that the correlation matrix of the dependent variable, which is defined by the ages of first marriage of Indonesian youth, is 5x5 because there are five variables in this group. The dependent variables are highly correlated, where the highest correlation is 0.94 (between the age group of 16–18 years and the age group of between 22–24 years). Furthermore, there is a high correlation between the age group of 16–18 years and the age group of 25–30 years, which is 0.90. High correlations are also indicated by the variables of the age group of under 15 years and the age group of 16–18 years (0.88), the age group of 22–24 years and the age group of 25–30 years (0.80). Meanwhile, the lowest correlation was found between the variables of the age group of 16–18 years and the age group of 19–21 years (0.33). The results of these correlations influence the summary of this group as a linear combination of dependent variables.

Correlations among the original independent variables provide different results with dependent variables, as can be seen in Table 4, where there is only one correlation coefficient close to 0.90, which is the association between youth who has diplomas of primary school and senior high school and upwards. The second highest correlation is 0.64 (between youth who has not graduated from primary school and youth with a diploma of senior high school and upwards). Further, the results also obtain the 5x5 correlation matrix as his group consists of five variables. Overall, the variable of the age of first marriage has a higher correlation than the educational attainment.

Furthermore, the analysis results in Table 6 reveal that the canonical coefficients for all the dependent variables have values that are not much different from one another regarding each variation of the variable of the age of first marriage. Based on Table 6, it can be explained that a one-unit increase in the age group under 15 years ( $y_1$ ) provides as many as 29.83 units of increase in  $Y_{can1}$ , which is the first variation of the age of first marriage ( $y$ ). A one-unit increase in this variable ( $y_1$ ) leads to 8.54 unit increase in the second variation of dependent variable ( $y$ ) and a 15.27 unit decrease in the third variate of  $y$ . The age group of 19–21 years has the largest canonical coefficient, i.e., 30.06, while the age group of 22–24 has the smallest value, i.e., 29.74, in the first variation of dependent variable  $y$ . Further, the third and fifth canonical variations provide negative values for all the elements in dependent variable  $y$ . Table 7 indicates canonical coefficients for independent variable  $x$ , where there is only one variation, i.e., the fourth variation ( $X_{can4}$ ) obtains negative values for all variables  $x$ . The third canonical variation ( $X_{can3}$ ) provides larger coefficient values than the other ones, where the youth who has

not finished primary school ( $x_2$ ) has the largest coefficient, i.e., 136.73. Further, a unit increase in youth who has not finished primary school ( $x_2$ ) leads to 5.49 and 36.90 units increase of in the first and the second canonical variations of the educational attainment, respectively.

From Table 8 it can be seen that there are five roots that indicate the first function to the fifth function, where canonical functions are chosen based on the eigenvalues from the largest to the smallest values. However, these values are calculated by using the values of squared canonical correlation. For example, the first root provides the eigenvalue of  $0.67/(1-0.67)$ , which equals 2.03, whereas the second root has the eigenvalue of  $0.36/(1-0.36) = 0.56$ , etc. The squared canonical correlation indicates that the variance proportion of canonical variation in one group is explained by the canonical variation of the other group. In other words, these values have similar meaning to R squared in regression analysis, where the first value of squared canonical correlation is calculated by  $(0.82 \times 0.82) = 0.67$ . Further, the sizes of eigenvalues are associated with the correlation tests where the higher eigenvalues provide lower  $p$ -values, which is associated with F value. Therefore, the higher the canonical correlations have higher probability to be significantly different from zero.

Furthermore, the canonical correlations for the five roots are presented in Table 8, where the first and the second pairs have coefficient value of 0.82 and 0.60, respectively. Meanwhile, the third pair has the correlation coefficient of 0.32 and the coefficient values of the fourth and the fifth variations are 0.16 and 0.01, respectively. From Table 8 it can be seen that the first function accommodates as much as 74.45% of canonical relationship, while the second function accommodates 20.36% of canonical relationship. There is 4.27 % of canonical relationship, which is accommodated by the third root, while the fourth and the fifth functions only accommodate as much as 0.91 and 0.01% of canonical relationship, respectively. Based on these results, the first function is more meaningful than the other functions. However, the second function also has a considerable contribution.

As mentioned before, early marriage for female and male youth in Indonesia is considered when the ages of the bride and the groom are 16 and 19 years, respectively. From Table 5 it can be seen that early marriage as represented by the ages under 15 years old ( $y_1$ ) has a zero correlation with the variable of  $x_1$  (youth who has never gone to school), while the correlation coefficients between this variable and the variable of youth who has not graduated from primary school ( $x_2$ ) and who has a primary school diploma are 0.51 and 0.58, respectively. Further, the correlation coefficient provides negative values between the variables and youth

with diplomas of junior and senior high school and upwards, which are -0.06 and -0.50, respectively.

Meanwhile, Tables 9 and 10 indicate that early marriage has a negative relationship with all the variables of educational attainment. However, this study uses two variables in order to define early marriage in Indonesia, which states that the bride's and the groom's ages have to reach 16 and 19 years, respectively. Therefore, these variables are the ages under 15 years ( $y_1$ ) and the age group of 16–18 years ( $y_2$ ). Table 9 shows the regression estimates, where the dependent variable is the ages under 15 years ( $y_1$ ), which indicates that the two variables have a significant negative effect on early marriage ( $y_1$ ), which concerns the youth who has never gone to school ( $x_1$ ) and those who have diplomas of senior high school and upwards ( $x_5$ ). Further, when the youth of the age group of 16–18 years ( $y_2$ ) is used as the dependent variable, then, based on Table 10, it can be seen that there is only one variable significantly influencing early marriage ( $y_2$ ), which is the youth with diplomas of senior high school and upwards ( $x_5$ ). Overall, it is safe to conclude that the early marriage of Indonesian youth has an inverse relationship with educational attainment. This means that by increasing the level of education of youth, early marriage rates can be reduced. This result is in line with previous studies, which report that education and marriage have an inverse relationship (Musick et al (2012) and Torr (2011)).

## **Conclusions**

This study explores the correlation between the educational attainment of Indonesian youth and the ages of their first marriage by using canonical correlation analysis, which is very useful in investigating the relationship between two dimensional variables. There are five variables in both dependent and independent variables, which are analysed using R program. The results reveal that there are five functions accommodating the canonical relationship but the first and the second functions have higher meaning, accommodating as much as 74.45% and 20.36% of canonical relationship, respectively. Furthermore, the results also reveal that all the variables in the educational attainment negatively influence early marriage of Indonesian youth.

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2021 New  
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**General  
Didactics**



## The Role of Illustration in Interpreting a Multimodal Literary Text

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### Abstract

The objective of the study was to establish the impact of illustration on the reading and interpreting of a poem in the case when only one illustration is provided with the text. The research study involved 408 students of the Faculty of Education and Faculty of Arts. The students were divided into two groups, of which one was given the poem *Učenjak* (Scholar) written by Niko Grafenauer and illustrated by Lidija Osterc, while the other had the same poem illustrated by Marjan Manček. Both groups had to answer a number of questions regarding personal traits of the literary character, his appearance and the environment he lives in. The results showed that the illustrations had a significant impact on the interpretation of the physical features of the literary character and the environment he is set in. This in turn affected the understanding of the message of the poem.

**Keywords:** *illustration, multimodal text, interpretation of illustrated text, visual literacy.*

## Introduction

### Research Problem

Modern era has been characterised by an abundance of visual images surrounding us at every step. During their teaching practice, educators and teachers frequently deal with multimodal texts, which are texts that “incorporate a variety

of modes, including visual images, hypertext, and graphic design elements along with written text” (Serafini, 2011, p. 342). So, textual literacy is not enough for the understanding of multimodal texts. In order to be able to fully process a multimodal text, one needs visual literacy as well. “Visual literacy is the ability to (a) read and interpret a visual image and (b) communicate information using visual representation” (Vasquez, Troutman and Comer, 2010, p. 2). It is the ability to read and interpret visual images, which is fundamental to understanding multimodal texts such as picture books and illustrated books, among other things. Understanding the meaning of illustrations is based on the reader’s ability to read both visual and verbal components. Subsequently, the reader’s interpretation of illustrated sequences is based on understanding the interaction between the two codes. A necessity to use this reading method is particularly evident in picture books, where the interaction between the visual and the verbal can form an entirely new meaning. Lawrence R. Sipe (1998, pp. 98–99) defines the interaction in a picture book as follows: “In a picture book, both the text and the illustration sequence would be incomplete without the other. They have a synergistic relationship in which the total effect depends not only on the union of the text and illustrations but also on the perceived interactions or transactions between these two parts.” Mazepa-Domagala (2017, p. 225) notes: “A good illustration says something more than what was said in the text. Although it derives from the text, not necessarily directly, it additionally discusses, interprets, adds, and, what is also important, should keep up with the text because children are upset when they need to look for the right image many pages later. An illustrator is a co-author of a book.” Nikolajeva and Scott (2000) explain the various types of interaction between pictures and texts in picture books: symmetrical interaction, complementary interaction and enhancing interaction. We can see the respective forms of interaction also with relation to a single illustration and corresponding text.

### Research Focus

The reader’s ability to read the illustration corresponding to a text is a fundamental element of comprehensive reading. Children who are read illustrated texts by parents (or other adults) in their pre-reading period, will begin to understand ‘how images and the written word can weave together to form a story’ (Hosack Janes, 2014, p. 23). However, as Peter Felten (2008, p. 62) notes, this kind of comprehensive reading is not sufficiently promoted later on: “Schools have traditionally placed primary emphasis on textual literacy.” That opens the question as to what approach should be used in reading a multimodal text such as an illustrated poem.

There is a clear difference between the verbal and the visual codes for conveying messages. And the narrative powers of the two differ as well. The first major difference is related to the way space is conveyed. Nodelman (1996) highlights the importance of the viewing angle and focus. The representation of time is another crucial component alongside the representation of the setting. In a society that reads from left to right, time perception is related to the left-to-right concept (Nodelman, 1996). Understanding the visual is closely related to the ability to read various symbols and codes which help define the meaning of an illustration, though only providing that the reader is able to recognise their meaning. An illustrator can change the meaning not only through what they choose to represent but also by how they depict it. Being familiar with the basics of art theory (visual elements, ways of composition, etc.), recognising differences among art techniques and their expressive possibilities is a prerequisite for understanding illustrated literary works.

## **Research Methodology**

### **Research General Background**

Reading an illustrated book is actually a complex process. Several authors, e.g., Nodelman (1988), Sipe (1998), Nikolajeva and Scott (2000), have focused on the interaction between text and image in a picture book, highlighting some typical characteristic of the latter, such as the sequence of pictures in the book, dynamics, rhythm, interaction, the meaning of paratext, etc. The main question is, however, how does an illustration affect one's interpretation of a literary text in the case of a poem with a single illustration. A survey, the goal of which was to identify the impact of an illustration on the understanding of a poem, was conducted in June 2014.

### **Research Sample**

The convenience sample (n=408) included students of the Faculty of Education and Faculty of Arts in Maribor, Slovenia, majoring in preschool education (35.8%), primary education (38%), fine arts education (6.1) and Slovenian studies (20.1%). During the survey, the respective students were enrolled in the first year of the 1<sup>st</sup> cycle (17.6%), second year of the 1<sup>st</sup> cycle (37.5%), and third year of the 1<sup>st</sup> cycle (44.9%), the cycles referring to the ones defined by the Bologna Process. The survey sample included 92.2% of female and 7.8% of male participants. Participation in the survey was voluntary and anonymous.

### Instrument and Procedures

The students were divided into two groups and shown the illustrated poem *Učenjak* (Scholar) by Niko Grafenauer, which was projected on canvas. The first group (54.7% of the students) was given the version of the poem illustrated by Lidija Osterc (hereinafter referred to as Pedenjped A), while the other group (45.3%) was given the same poem illustrated by Marjan Manček (hereinafter Pedenjped B). The students were asked to fill in a questionnaire comprising open-ended questions (e.g., What is Pedenjped like? What kind of books does he read?).

The criteria for the selection of the poem were literary (a renowned Slovenian poet) as well as artistic (the poem was illustrated by two prominent Slovenian illustrators). For a better understanding of the paper, here is the entire poem *Učenjak* (Scholar) by Niko Grafenauer (translation by Dušan Rabrenovič).

*Pedenjped loves browsing through/ big heaps of books of various kinds./  
He reads aloud and nods his head/ at notions from all sorts of minds./  
Slouched o'er books at all times,/ each page he studies with intent./ His  
noggin bobbing from insights,/ he props his head up with his hands./ At  
home, he doesn't mind the jumble,/ with 'la-la-la' his time he passes./ But  
if over a word he stumbles/ at once he dons his reading glasses.*

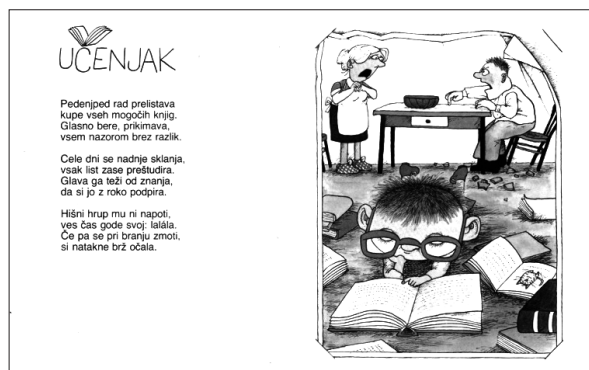
The poem consists of three four-line stanzas with alternate rhyme and a rather regular rhythm (in the Slovenian version a trochaic rhythm is used, though not consistently), with enjambment occurring twice in the first line. The phrase 'glava ga teži ...' (translated as 'his noggin bobbing') has several meanings in the Slovenian language (e.g., to be knowledgeable, to be worried, etc.). The interpretation of the poem is based predominantly on two keywords, namely, the verb to read and the noun noise. We could understand this poem to be about joy of reading, which nothing can interrupt.

Lidija Osterc (Figure 1, Pedenjped A) complemented the poem with an illustration of a boy with bushy hair, round glasses, shorts, striped socks and pointy little shoes. His shorts and socks resemble the fashion from the first half of the twentieth century. He is depicted in an upright position, holding in his hand the book titled *ABECEDA* (Alphabet), which is turned upside down. There is no representation of space, and the illustration is placed right next to the text. Judging by his body proportions, we can assume that it is a schoolboy rather than a preschool child.

In his illustration, Marjan Manček (Figure 2, Pedenjped B) places Pedenjped in the foreground. He is a boy with a big head (his body proportions suggest he is a young, possibly preschool child), big red glasses, brown tousled hair, blue trousers,



**Figure 1.** Učenjak  
[Scholar] (1969)



**Figure 2.** Učenjak [Scholar] (1979)

and red shoes. There is a thick open book in front of him. Marjan Manček made a coloured drawing with yellow, blue and red as the most prominent colours. The illustration by Manček accentuates the child's world (worm's eye view, strong chromatic colours) and the significance of the environment (family life, books), while also depicting the jumble (parents' quarrelling or, more precisely, an angry father and a scared mother).

### Data Analysis

The students' responses were grouped into categories, each denoted by a statement (e.g., 'Pedenjped wears eyeglasses'). Each statement was a variable with two possible answers (yes, no). The resulting data was analysed with the use of SPSS software, using descriptive statistics (frequency) and inferential statistics (chi-square test). The chi-square test was used to determine whether there was a statistically significant difference between the two groups of students (cf., Field, 2013).

## Research Results

### Description of Pedenjped's character traits

First, we were interested in Pedenjped's character. The students' most frequently recurring answers were: 'he likes to read or thumb through books' (44.9%), 'he is sophisticated, intelligent, learned' (34.6%), 'he is inquisitive and eager to learn' (31.1%), 'he is playful, naughty, roguish' (14.7%), and 'he is a diligent and obedient

child' (12.0%). The answers showed no statistically significant difference between the students who looked at illustration A (by Lidija Osterc) and those looking at illustration B (by Marjan Manček).

### What kind of books does Pedenjped read and does he actually read?

When asked about the kind of books Pedenjped read, most students were unanimous in that he read all kinds of books (83.1%). Only a minor proportion of the students (26.2%) specified or described the books in more detail (e.g., picture books, encyclopaedias, thick books). A modest share of the students (6.4%) noted that Pedenjped read educational books. A statistically significant difference between the two groups was identified with the answer 'All kinds of books or various books.' 86.6% of the students who looked at illustration A (by Lidija Osterc) and 78.9% of the students who looked at illustration B (by Marjan Manček) noted that Pedenjped read 'All kinds of books or various books' ( $\chi^2 = 4.187$ ,  $P = 0.041$ ). When asked whether Pedenjped actually read or not, over half of the interviewees (68.1%) answered that Pedenjped did not really read but rather pretended to read. Analysis showed that in this case, there was no statistically significant difference between the replies of the two groups.

### Physical features and appearance

The most frequently observed feature of Pedenjped's physical appearance was his eyewear, his haircut and/or hair length. The students also noted that Pedenjped was a child or a young boy. The results were analysed in view of the illustrations looked at (A or B) and it was established that none of the students in the group analysing the illustration by Lidija Osterc described the colour of his eyeglasses. On the other hand, none of the students looking at the illustration by Marjan Manček characterised Pedenjped as a big boy nor did they mention his socks. There were statistically significant differences in some of the other questions (Table 1).

**Table 1.** Pedenjped's appearance

Pedenjped's appearance		A L. Osterc		B M. Manček		Total		$\chi^2$ - test	
		f	f%	f	f%	f	f%	$\chi^2$	P
		'Pedenjped wears eyeglasses'	yes	147	65.9	141	76.2	288	70.6
	no	76	34.1	44	23.8	120	29.4		
'Big eyeglasses'	yes	6	2.7	46	24.9	52	12.7	44.708	0.000
	no	217	97.3	139	75.1	356	87.3		



Pedenjped's appearance		A		B		Total		$\chi^2$ - test	
		L. Osterc		M. Manček		f	f%	$\chi^2$	P
		f	f%	f	f%				
'Colour of eye-glasses'	yes	0	0.0	33	17.8	33	8.1	43.279	0.000
	no	223	100.0	152	82.2	357	91.9		
'Hair length'	yes	129	57.8	59	31.9	188	46.1	27.417	0.000
	no	94	42.2	126	68.1	220	53.9		
'Hair colour'	yes	30	13.5	50	27.0	80	19.6	11.819	0.001
	no	193	86.5	135	73.0	328	80.4		
'Young boy, child'	yes	62	27.8	104	56.2	166	40.7	33.827	0.000
	no	161	72.2	81	43.8	242	59.3		
'Big boy'	yes	24	10.8	0	0.0	24	5.9	21.155	0.000
	no	199	89.2	185	100.0	384	94.1		
'Protruding or large ears'	yes	3	1.3	28	15.1	31	7.6	27.388	0.000
	no	220	98.7	157	84.9	377	92.4		
'Shirt details'	yes	25	11.2	10	5.4	35	8.6	4.345	0.037
	no	198	88.8	175	94.6	373	91.4		
'Trousers details'	yes	33	14.8	4	2.2	37	9.1	19.579	0.000
	no	190	85.2	181	97.8	371	90.9		
'Socks details'	yes	25	11.2	0	0.0	25	6.1	22.094	0.000
	no	198	88.8	185	100.0	383	93.9		
'Shoes details'	yes	21	9.4	6	3.2	27	6.6	6.237	0.013
	no	202	90.6	179	96.8	381	93.4		
'Messy, poor hygiene'	yes	19	8.5	6	3.2	25	6.1	4.895	0.027
	no	204	91.5	179	96.8	383	93.9		
'Slim figure'	yes	26	11.7	0	0.0	26	6.4	23.038	0.000
	no	197	88.3	185	100.0	382	93.6		

### The environment in which Pedenjped lives

Firstly, we were interested in the students' interpretation of 'hišni hrup' (jumble) from the last stanza. A large proportion of the interviewees noted that the jumble referred to the sounds in the apartment (chores being done, the sounds made by pets, etc.). Over half of the interviewed students (62.0%) explicitly noted that the jumble was caused by the parents' quarrelling. Analysis of the results showed there was a statistically significant difference between the answers with regard to the illustration observed. 93.7% of the students who looked at illustration A (by Lidija

Osterc) and 44.3% of the students who looked at illustration B (by Marjan Manček) noted that the 'Jumble refers to the sounds in the apartment' ( $\chi^2 = 102.634$ ,  $P = 0.000$ ). 7.6% of the students who looked at illustration A (by Lidija Osterc) and 74.6% of the students who looked at illustration B (by Marjan Manček) noted that the 'Jumble refers to the parents quarrelling' ( $\chi^2 = 192.514$ ,  $P = 0.000$ ). When we inquired after the environment in which Pedenjped lived, the students described it as an environment in which one cannot have peace and quiet, an unsettled environment, a friendly and stimulating environment, etc. Statistically significant differences were noticed in all the answers (Table 2).

**Table 2.** The environment in which Pedenjped lives.

Environment		A L. Osterc		B M. Manček		Total		$\chi^2$ - test	
		f	f%	f	f%	f	f%	$\chi^2$	P
'Environment with no peace and quiet'	yes	66	29.6	77	41.6	143	35.0	6.423	0.011
	no	157	70.4	108	58.4	265	65.0		
'Unsettled environment'	yes	9	4.0	69	37.3	78	19.1	72.345	0.000
	no	214	96.0	116	62.7	330	80.9		
'Friendly and stimulating environment'	yes	76	34.1	0	0.0	76	18.6	77.482	0.000
	no	147	65.9	185	100.0	332	81.4		
'Poor relationships'	yes	15	6.7	53	28.6	68	16.7	34.988	0.000
	no	208	93.3	132	71.4	340	83.3		
'Conflicts between parents'	yes	5	2.2	62	33.5	67	16.4	72.045	0.000
	no	218	97.8	123	66.5	341	83.6		
'Family environment'	yes	45	20.2	19	10.3	64	15.7	7.507	0.006
	no	178	79.8	166	89.7	344	84.3		
'Pedenjped retreats to his own world due to parents fighting'	yes	2	0.9	28	15.1	30	7.4	30.091	0.000
	no	221	99.1	157	84.9	378	92.6		

## Discussion

Illustrations play an important role in the interpretation of the physical features of a literary character and the environment he/she is placed in. As a result, illustrations may change the reader's understanding of the message of a text such as a poem.

So, who is Pedenjped? According to the analysis of the results, there are no statistically significant differences among the answers of the two focus groups related to Pedenjped's personal features. Pedenjped likes reading or thumbing through books, he is smart, inquisitive, naughty, playful, etc. However, we did find statistically significant differences with regard to the features incorporated in the illustration. Thus, Pedenjped A is a tall and skinny boy, while Pedenjped B is a younger boy or a child with protruding ears and big red glasses. Over a half of all the students thought that Pedenjped did not really read but rather pretended to read, regardless of which illustration they analysed. From the point of view of literary theory, the interpretation of the text is closely related to the characteristics of the character (Pedenjped). We assume that a teacher (a student) will interpret the message of the poem differently depending on whether they will be dealing with the younger or the older Pedenjped. The message of the poem is altered considerably, depending on whether we see him as a child that cannot read yet or an older boy that does not read (possibly implying context, such as learning issues, developmental issues, his social status). Furthermore, the environment in which Pedenjped lives affected the interpretation of the poem as well. The phrase describing the environment—'hišni hrup' (jumble)—was interpreted as the parents' fighting by over a half of all the students. The students analysing the illustration by Lidija Osterc (Pedenjped A) accounted for a minor portion, while a large share were those analysing the illustration by Marjan Manček (Pedenjped B). The latter frequently described the environment as one with no peace and quiet, messy, characterised by poor relationships and the parents' quarrelling. On the other hand, the students who were given the illustration by Lidija Osterc (Pedenjped A) described the environment as friendly and stimulating, frequently also as a family environment.

Apparently, the illustration plays a crucial role in the students' perception of the character, his environment, and the message of the poem. Pedenjped A is an older boy who does not read but lives in a friendly and stimulating environment while Pedenjped B is a younger boy who does not read, either, but lives in an unsettled environment characterised by parental conflicts and poor relationships. When we interpret the poem based on the first illustration (Pedenjped A), the message is conveyed through the written text and the literary character (the issue related to the character's age). However, if we interpret the same poem based on the second illustration (Pedenjped B), the message is conveyed through the written text, the literary character, and the environment. The latter is the element that adds a very specific context to the poem. In their description of the environment, the majority of the students examining illustration B (by Marjan Manček) noted that Pedenjped retreated to his own world due to his parents quarrelling, which implies that the

illustration has in fact changed the meaning of the poem. The written text says that he likes thumbing through piles of books but does not provide any reason for that particular behaviour.

## **Conclusions**

The results of our analysis clearly indicate how powerful a single illustration can be with regard to the interpretation of poetry. Hence, they are of vital importance for teachers at all levels of education as well as for researchers. Preschool children and primary school pupils frequently come across illustrated poems. For this reason it is essential that the analysis and the interpretation of an illustrated literary text equally incorporate the visual code. For an integrated interpretation, the teacher will need literary as well as adequate art knowledge. This kind of knowledge enables them to point students to the key elements of an illustration, which might change the meaning of the written text. We must emphasize that quality illustrations are works of art. Viewing works of art is a process that involves both perception and reception. Krasoń (2017, p. 160) notes: "Reception of art is transferred along channels other than perception and it requires more than mere knowledge, for in a situation of reception experiencing emotions and being moved are states appearing simultaneously."

When working with multimodal texts, class teachers instructing all subjects might have an advantage over specialist subject teachers, as they possess basic knowledge of both disciplines (visual arts and literature). Unfortunately, practice shows that class teachers still regard illustration as an accessory that the reader might or might not take into the account. The situation with specialist subject teachers who teach students in higher grades of primary school is quite the opposite. Visual arts are within the domain of specialist art teachers who generally do not discuss poetry in their classes. On the other hand, literature is within the domain of (first) language teachers, who do not possess sufficient knowledge of visual arts. For this reason, it would be necessary to do some research on how students of different disciplines perceive the visual component of illustrated poetry when interpreting the verbal content.

Also, it is necessary to develop a more specific model of cross-curricular teaching, which would better prepare students for independent reading and interpreting of multimodal literary texts. The process of developing and implementing such a model should involve—along with class teachers and language teachers—also specialist art teachers. In the light of our survey results, such an education model

should be based on three Is, namely Illustration, Interaction (between visual and written text), and Interpretation.

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## **Pedagogical Conditions for Creative and Artistic Development of Children of Senior Preschool Age by Means of Art**

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### **Abstract**

The paper highlights the problem of creative and artistic development of preschoolers by means of art. The place and role of art in the creative and artistic development of children of senior preschool age are determined. The content and peculiarities of the creative and artistic development of children in the process of educational activity by means of art are revealed. The pedagogical conditions for the creative and artistic development of preschool children in the process of artistic activity are singled out on the basis of analyzed modern concepts. On the basis of pedagogical conditions, a model of creative and artistic development of children of senior preschool age by means of art is designed. Researchers reveal in children of the senior preschool age the dynamics of creative and artistic development and the degree of the development of the investigated qualities in children of the control and experimental groups is analyzed. The necessity of searching for rational ways and precisely specifying the mechanism of using art in the process of creative and artistic development of children of the senior preschool age is emphasized.

**Keywords:** *development, creative and artistic development, art, senior preschool age, pedagogical conditions.*

## **Introduction**

In modern pedagogical research connected with the problem of improving the functioning of the pedagogical system, increasing the efficiency of the educational process, there is an important task is to identify, justify and test the pedagogical conditions that ensure the success of educational activities. From the pedagogical point of view, preschool age is a favorable period for the development of creative and artistic abilities because at this age the child realizes the relationship between themselves and the outside world for the first time. The use of works of art in the educational process is a significant contribution to the formation of the moral and aesthetic worldview of children of preschool age.

Analysis of pedagogical and methodological literature shows that in the practice of preschool education the problem of using works of art in classes in pre-school establishments has repeatedly been investigated. In today's conditions of social development, complicated by the spread of destructive, destabilizing tendencies in Ukraine, the cultural role of art grows to a large extent, and the scope of its aesthetic functioning is expanding. At the same time, there arise new problems related with the necessity to improve the content and forms of the introduction of art study disciplines in the educational process of educational institutions of Ukraine. Nowadays, teachers do not pay enough attention to works of art, and in our opinion, it is a problem because what we do through art is form in children the love of beauty and create a respectful attitude to folk traditions.

**The purpose of the paper** is to consider the influence of pedagogical conditions on the dynamics of the child's creative and artistic development by means of art. **The tasks of the paper** include the separation of pedagogical conditions for the artistic and creative development of children by means of art and the presentation of a model of artistic and creative development by means of art, the discovery of dynamics of artistic and creative development among children of the senior preschool age by means of testing and performing creative work, comparing the degree of development of the studied qualities in children of the control and experimental groups, comparing the results of the current and the final tests.

## **Research Methodology**

With the orientation on the mentioned theoretical tasks and in order to assess the degree of the artistic and creative development of children, we conducted the experimental work. For the experimental research, 756 children of the senior

preschool age were involved (376 – control group, 380 – experimental group). We offered creative tasks aimed at artistic and creative thinking and predicted the discovery of the level of individual indicators of the artistic and creative development of children. To obtain objective data, we used the method of analyzing the products of creative activity of students and the method of generalization of independent characteristics. In order to find out the existence of a significant difference in the results of the experimental and control groups, i.e., the effect of the developed methodology, and not the influence of random factors, the criterion of Pearson's chi-squared test was used.

## **Research Results**

Organization of special pedagogical conditions is a methodologically grounded organization of the educational space, which defines all components of the educational process. In the effective pedagogical conditions for the artistic and creative development of the child by means of art we included: orientation of the educational process for the acquisition of children's artistic and aesthetic values of art, actualization of the educational potential of works of art in the process of the artistic and creative activity of the child, involvement of preschoolers in various types of artistic and creative activity, and systematic influence of works of art on the formation of the intellectual, emotional and axiological components of the child's consciousness.

*The focus of the educational process on children's acquisition of artistic and aesthetic values of art* should be within the aesthetic cycle through preschoolers' gradual acquisition of artistic and aesthetic experience, in particular, mastering artistic knowledge and ideas and skills to delve into the perception of the emotional and artistic-figurative content of the work. The main thing in this process is to make children focus on the value-significant components of the artistic work, the formation of awareness that the work of art is self-sufficient; the ultimate artistic meaning of it with the greatest completeness is contained only in it itself, in its artistic form and disclosed only in the process of its perception. Since this content is realized by the author according to the laws of this kind of art, artistic qualities become valuable and significant: harmony, expressiveness and imaginativeness of the language, proportionality, symmetry, rhythm, etc. In its combination of the creation of an artistic image, the work of art in the unity of its content and form embodies a certain artistic and aesthetic value, expressed by artistic means. The important thing in this process is the child's communication with the best



examples of Ukrainian heritage of high artistic value, formation of landmarks, standards, criteria of evaluation of artistic works.

*Updating the educational potential of works of art in the process of the child's artistic and creative activity* involves emphasizing the teacher's attention to the identification and implementation of the educational potential of artistic material of various types of art, which will strengthen the developing essence of the artistic and creative cycle.

One of the integrators of artistic content can be a common theme, i.e., the discovery of common themes embodied in the works of various types of art, which will help to consider similar material simultaneously from different sides, with the help of various artistic means. The following areas may be: "Nature in Embroidery", "The Breath of Pottery", "Art in Everyday Life", "Fairy-Tale Mood in Vytinanka (Papercutting)", "Fantastic Motifs in Decorative And Applied Art", "The Dance in The Workshop of the Blacksmith", "Bright Colors of Music", "Melody of Poetry," etc. Using them we will have an opportunity to reveal the value of each type of art, being in a single thematic space, to reveal universal human and artistic-aesthetic values embodied in works of various types of art, to expand the range of children's artistic interests, to form their associative thinking, etc.

*Involving preschool children in various types of artistic and creative activity.* Children in the establishments of preschool education perceive not only knowledge of the surrounding world and ways of mastering this world, but also certain ways of human behavior, their relationship, understanding what is good, and what is bad, what is beautiful, and what is ugly, etc. Thus, preschoolers are involved in moral, aesthetic and other types of human experience. Any kind of social experience is assimilated through activities that are adequate to this experience. You cannot learn how to draw or to sing, without doing certain exercises, and it is impossible to become a good person without doing good deeds. Therefore, it is important that the child's activities have a personal meaning for them, coincided with their point of view – have become an indicative basis for the actions to be performed. The personal acceptance of the indicative basis of the actions performed is a specific feature of the assimilation of any social (including artistic) experience (Krasoń K., 2016).

*Ensuring the purposeful and systematic influence of art on the formation of the intellectual, emotional and axiological components of the child's consciousness.* An active attitude to reality in the process of its reflection is manifested not only in the selective attitude to the events and phenomena of the world, but also in the selection and use of those rich artistic means possessed by art. Art for children should be rich, diverse in content, in the sense that it creates, as well as in artistic

expressiveness. Homogeneity of subjects, genres and methods of performance hampers the child's general and essential development.

Children are characterized by an active attitude to events. One can observe that some preschoolers "sound" depicted actions while drawing. Children's passion for the content of their drawings, active discovery of a personal attitude to the characters being depicted – all these facts make children's work more expressive. It is no coincidence that many painters turn to child creativity as an inexhaustible source of sincerity, immediacy, and artistic expression.

The unity of children's aesthetic knowledge and artistic practice on the material of art is fundamentally important, and first and foremost, such methodological techniques are developed that stimulate children's creative creation of independent compositions, rather than copying techniques of art. Selection of works of art in the process of studying art should be based on a well thought-out system of methodological techniques.

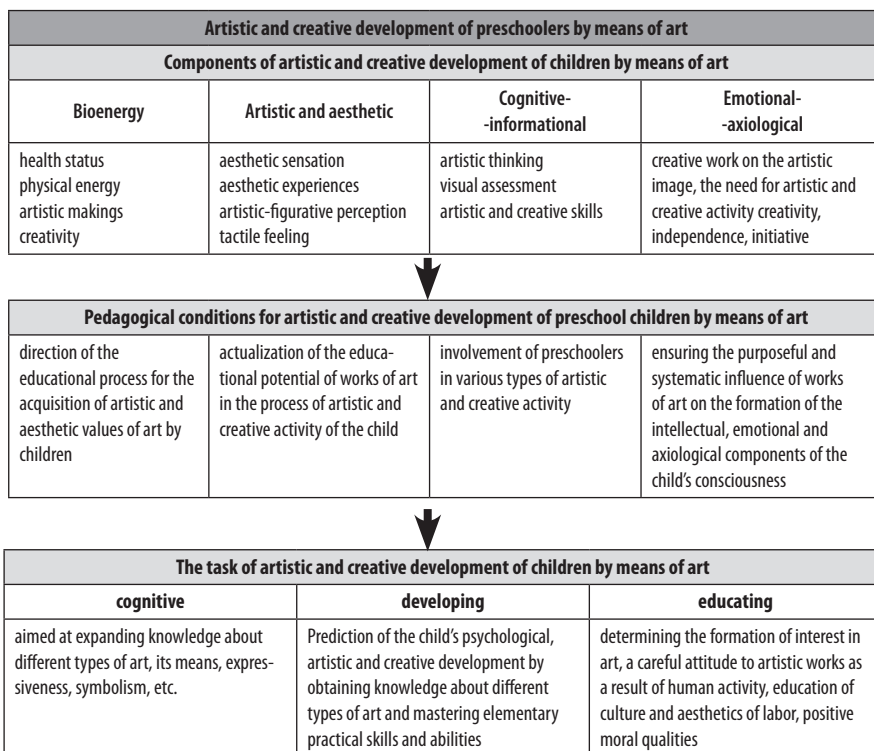
Therefore, for the effective organization of the educational process of preschoolers and for the creation of an artistic cycle in which the transformation of the child's personality traits and raising their level of artistic and creative abilities during the pedagogical interaction will require the implementation of pedagogical conditions aimed at the effective use of art in the process of artistic and creative development of children of senior preschool age. For the effective implementation of these pedagogical conditions, it is necessary to clearly identify ways of implementing the educational and developing potential of art in working with preschoolers.

In accordance with the determined pedagogical conditions, a model of artistic and creative development of children of the senior preschool age was developed by means of art, which is presented in Figure 1.

## **Discussion**

To identify the dynamics of artistic and creative development, a control test was made which allowed for quantitative expressions of qualitative changes in the state of artistic and creative development of preschool children that took place under the influence of the introduced pedagogical conditions and the developed method of artistic and creative development of children in the process of familiarizing with works of art.

The tests were administered to the experimental and control groups, which covered 756 children of the senior preschool age. Allocation of the preschool children to the experimental (EG) and control (CG) groups was carried out on the basis of



**Figure 1.** Model of artistic and creative development of children of the senior preschool age by means of art

the results of the final stage of the experiment; the experimental group included 380 children, the control one – 376 children.

Analysis of the tasks performed to reveal the level of emotional-axiological attitude to works of art and their interaction, revealing the preschoolers' capability of emotional "immersion" in the figurative content of the work of art, showed that the children from the EG quite freely identify the emotional load of the work of art: they get the verbal characteristics of the emotional states embodied in the works of various types of folk art (48.2%), determine the artistic qualities of the work of art, combine works of various types of art in accordance with emotional state, transmit emotions through various artistic means, in particular in color, forms, with some of them (35.8%) doing it independently without the help of the teacher. This testifies to the preschoolers' understanding of emotions evoked by the piece of art (regardless of the type of folk art) and their awareness of their own emotional attitude. At the same time, the children from the CG also quite freely

found the corresponding verbal characteristics of the emotional content of the work of art, but this concerned mostly well-known works of art.

The results of the study according to the emotional-axiological criterion are presented in the Chart 1.

**Chart 1.** Levels of children's artistic and creative development in accordance with the emotional and axiological criterion

Markers	Levels					
	Low (EG/CG)		Mid (EG/CG)		High (EG/CG)	
	%	%	%	%	%	%
Interest in different types of art and their interaction	1.8	6.6	68.6	67.8	29.6	25.6
Emotional-axiological attitude to art	14.4	42.2	53.5	44.8	32.1	12.9
Generalized indicator	8.95	24.4	66.1	56.3	25.9	19.3

Diagnosis in accordance with the cognitive-associative criterion was carried out according to tasks similar to the stage of the experiment. Analysis of the results of the study showed that there were qualitative changes in the preschoolers from the EG on the formation of a sufficient artistic thesaurus (according to age) from different types of folk art; they are capable of characterizing artistic images created by different artistic languages, comparing them, revealing concepts, coordinating in different arts and giving characterization. At the same time, the children revealed mostly average (46.7%) and low (39.2%) levels of artistic and creative knowledge and representations, which was characterized by a sufficient vocabulary of artistic terminology; the presence of characteristics of artistic images in art. During the control test, the indicator of high and average levels of artistic and creative knowledge and representations of the preschoolers from the EG significantly increased compared with the children from the CG (average: by 64.5% of the children of the EG – by 46.7% of the children from the CG, high: by 22.4% of the children from the EG – by 14.2% of the children from the CG). Analysis of the diagnosis of the presence in the preschoolers of the ability to associate art testified to the active development of associative thinking in the children from the EG. Qualitative changes in the possibility to make association were expressed in the ability to independently establish artistic associations, to make analogies between different forms of art in the process of perception and creation of artistic images

(24.2% - high level, 66.6% - average). The children from the CG revealed mainly average and low levels of artistic association ability, a vast majority of them tried to make artistic associations, to conduct analogies between images and means of different types of art only with the help of the educator. The results of the study by the cognitive-associative criterion are presented in Chart 2.

**Chart 2.** Levels of artistic and creative development of children of senior preschool age in accordance with the cognitive-associative criterion

Markers	Levels					
	Low (EG/CG)		Mid (EG/CG)		High (EG/CG)	
	%	%	%	%	%	%
Artistic and creative erudition	13.2	39.2	64.5	46.7	22.4	14.2
Ability to make artistic associations	9.5	25.8	66.6	64.6	24.2	9.8
Generalized indicator	11.4	32.5	65.6	55.7	23.3	12.0

Identification of levels of the artistic and creative development of children of the senior preschool age by the creative-operating criterion was carried out according to tasks which were similar to the tasks of the final stage of the experiment.

Analysis of the results showed that the preschool children have certain artistic and creative skills (26.8% of the children have high and 65.1% average level) compared to the children from the CG (9.7% – high, 54.2% – average ): they independently choose the means of expressiveness of one of the types of art for the implementation of artistic images, are capable of artistic interpretation of the image from one language to another (e.g., to stage, “to voice” a work of decorative and applied arts, to create illustrations to a literary or musical work, etc.). At the same time, the children from the CG mostly have average and low levels of artistic and creative skills, performing similar tasks subject to preliminary discussion with the teacher, or according to the proposed model.

Pedagogical observation confirmed the positive dynamics of the levels of the artistic and creative development of the preschool children from the EG: these children at the end of the study showed great creative activity in class compared to the children from the CG (21.6% of the children from the EG and 14.4% of the children from the CG) and in comparison with the final stage of the experiment, where the high level was only 3.2%. After the control test, it was ascertained that

45.6% of the children of the senior preschool age show initiative to independently create an artistic image, choose the means of its artistic embodiment, offer the embodiment of images using various means, their own variants how to stage works, etc. It is noted that 68.9% of the children from the CG also show an active desire to create artistic images, but using the means of only one type of folk art, in the form of artistic activity they captured better. The results of the study on the creative-operating criterion are highlighted in Chart 3.

**Chart 3.** Levels of artistic and creative development of preschool children in accordance with the creative-operating criterion

Markers	Levels					
	Low (EG/CG)		Mid (EG/CG)		High (EG/CG)	
	%	%	%	%	%	%
Artistic and creative operating	18.1	36.1	65.1	54.2	16.8	9.7
Artistic and creative activity	13.2	16.7	65.2	68.9	21.6	14.4
Generalized indicator	8.5	17.4	64.1	59.8	27.4	22.8

The results of the research in accordance with the criteria for the development of artistic and creative abilities are presented in Chart 4.

**Chart 4.** Levels of artistic and creative development of children of the senior preschool age according to the results of the control test

Criteria	Levels					
	Low (EG/CG)		Mid (EG/CG)		High (EG/CG)	
	%	%	%	%	%	%
Emotional and axiological	8.95	24.4	66.1	56.3	25.9	19.3
Cognitive-associative	11.4	32.5	65.6	55.7	23.3	12.0
Creative-operating	8.5	17.4	64.1	59.8	27.4	22.8
Generalized indicator	9.4	34.7	65.2	52.3	25.4	13.0

Analysis of the research results showed that the preschool children from the experimental group revealed a positive dynamics of the state of artistic and creative development. In particular, the quality changes recorded in expanding the artistic interests of the preschool children and shaping their emotional and axiological attitude to art, which was characterized by “objectification”: the children explained their own emotional experiences on the basis of the understanding of the aesthetic values and acquired artistic knowledge and skills (particularly, with the use of art associations). These positive changes signaled the expansion and enrichment of the artistic perception of the preschool children. The children from the experimental group revealed a formation of artistic and creative skills: they chose their own means of expression of one of the arts to embody the artistic image; demonstrated the ability to translate the artistic image and one artistic language into another. The preschoolers from the EG revealed a stronger desire, compared to the children from the CG, to express themselves in different kinds of artistic and creative activities.

Statistical analysis was performed to get more exact conclusions obtained during the forming stage of the experiment. In order to find out the existence of a significant difference in the results of the experimental and control groups, i.e., the effect of the developed method and not under the influence of random factors, the criterion of Pearson’s chi-squared test was used. Initial data were taken at the beginning and end of the experiment in the experimental and control groups.

Analysis of calculations according to *the emotional-axiological criterion* showed that there is no probable change in the preschoolers from the CG in the control test of the forming stage compared to the final stage ( $\chi^2 = 0.18$ ). At the same time, probable changes were detected in the preschoolers from the EG ( $\chi^2 = 19.22$ ).

Analysis of the *cognitive-associative criterion* calculation at the stage of the experiment did not reveal a probable difference between the control and experimental groups ( $\chi^2 = 0.09$ ). At the same time, a probable difference in the control test was found for both the CG and the EG. Positive probable changes occurred in the frame of the CG compared with the final stage ( $\chi^2 = 11.31$ ) and within the frame of the EG compared with the final stage ( $\chi^2 = 59.61$ ). Effectiveness of isolated pedagogical conditions and methodological aspects of the use of art in working with preschoolers is confirmed by the probable difference between the CG and the EG in the control section ( $\chi^2 = 24.73$ ).

Similar conclusions can be drawn on the results of calculations according to *the creative-operating criterion*. At the final stage of the experiment, there was no significant difference between the control and experimental groups ( $\chi^2 = 0.0051$ ). After the control test, the probable difference was detected for both the CG and

the EG. Positive probabilistic changes occurred in the frame of the CG compared with the final stage ( $\chi^2 = 69.77$ ) and within the frame of the EG compared with the final stage ( $\chi^2 = 103.37$ ).

Comparison of the generalized indicator of artistic and creative development of the preschool children from the CG and the EG between the confirmatory and forming stages of experiment showed the following: at the stage of the investigation – the probable difference between the CG and the EG was not revealed ( $\chi^2 = 0.0039$ ), in the control test of the forming stage of the experiment, the probable difference was detected as for the CG, and for the EG. Positive probable changes occurred in the frame of the CG compared to the final stage ( $\chi^2 = 16.07$ ) and within the frame of the EG compared with the final stage ( $\chi^2 = 54.31$ ). Thus, we can conclude that the traditional system of education and the proposed, we have a positive impact on the level of artistic and creative development of children. But the effectiveness of pedagogical conditions and methods of artistic and creative development of preschool children is confirmed by the probable difference between the CG and the EG in the control test of the forming stage of the experiment ( $\chi^2 = 14.14$ ).

## **Conclusions**

Qualitative and quantitative analysis of the results of experimental work, their statistical processing confirmed the effectiveness of the developed pedagogical conditions and methodological aspects of the artistic and creative development of preschoolers by means of art. In view of the above, in order to solve problems of the development of the artistic and creative abilities of preschool children by means of art, it is necessary to adhere to the following pedagogical conditions: orientation of the educational process to children's acquisition of artistic and aesthetic values of art, actualization of the educational potential of works of art in the process of the child's artistic and creative activity, involvement of preschoolers in various types of artistic and creative activity, ensuring the purposeful and systematic influence of works of art on the formation of intellectual, emotional and axiological components of the child's consciousness.

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## Problems and Solutions to the Undergraduates' Free Option Power of Learning: A Case Study of One "211 project" University in Central China

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### Abstract

Students' free option power of learning is an important part of students' power of learning. It emphasizes respect for students' learning rights and freedom, so that students have a certain freedom of learning choice. In the theory and practice of Chinese higher education, undergraduates' free option power of learning has long been weakened and restricted by various factors. This study provides an understanding of the current situation of undergraduates' free option power of learning through 20 interviews with undergraduates from a university in Central China in a pilot project, whose purpose was to provide students with freedom in selecting higher education options. The interviews address three areas where students were given the option to select: learning content, (b) learning processes, and (c) learning environments. Discussion follows on the problems experienced by Chinese undergraduates' in the free option power of learning project. Lastly, as China hopes to expand this project beyond the pilot, we advance recommendations to promote effective implementation of the free option power of learning of Chinese undergraduates, such as: (a) establishing sound laws to ensure the effective implementation of the power of students; (b) empowering undergraduates to have more choice to choose and change their majors; (c) carrying out the flexible program duration to let students have free choice of getting credits; and (d) establishing a sound and perfect transfer mechanism to let students have more choice of universities.

**Keywords:** *China, undergraduates, higher education, qualitative research*

## **Introduction**

University is a kind of academic organization, which is made up of academic persons. Faculty and undergraduate students are the most important academic persons in a university. “Undergraduates are what decide university to be university rather than other distinctive groups” (Dong, 2012, p. 85). The university should be concerned with improving undergraduates’ higher education experiences. Part of improving their experience, in the Chinese context, is to provide them with more power and freedom to learn so that they can become more willing, efficient, and engaged learners. Students’ free option power of learning is an important component of their power. The university, attaching great importance to the students’ learning freedom is a reflection of the pursuit of academic freedom; undergraduates are the consumers of higher education, the free option of learning is their natural right.

It is pointed out in the Chinese government document, *The Guidelines of the National Program for Medium and Long-term Educational Reform and Development* (2010–2020), that the university’s most important work should be student cultivation, making each student develop actively and lively, respecting the law of students’ physical and mental development, and providing appropriate education for each student (Ministry of Education, 2010, p.1). “The establishment of the students’ status and the development of the students’ subjectivity depend largely on the ability of higher education professionals to empower undergraduates” (Li, 2004a, p. 93). In universities, learning is an indispensably important channel for undergraduates’ physical and mental health development. The importance of undergraduates’ power of free option in learning is self-evident.

However, in the policy and practice of Chinese higher education, the students’ free option power of learning has long been weakened. This problem is caused by many factors, such as: external conditions, ideological influences, and reality. External conditions include unavoidable objective factors, such as the belief that “undergraduates are all just transient guests in universities.” Ideological influences include the traditional belief that “students are just passive recipients of knowledge” (Li, 2004b, p. 16). Regarding reality, it is difficult for the power of students’ freedom of learning option to counter the two main powers present in Chinese universities - the faculty and administration, who still believe that the more power and freedom is given to student, the more their power is somehow lessened.

In recent years, attaching great importance to students’ free option power of learning is not only a trend of higher education reform, but also a key characteristic of the modern Chinese university system. With the further development

of Chinese higher education reform, students' free option power of learning is becoming more popular. In Chinese universities, this option is beginning to be of great importance to students. Han & Jin (2011) believe that university students' learning right is composed of the right of learning autonomy, the right of learning guarantee, and the right to enjoy learning outcomes (p. 65). Additionally, Fan (2012) believes that learning freedom is an important part of academic freedom. Learning freedom is composed of outer freedom and inner freedom. The inner essence of learning freedom is the freedom of thought. The most important thing for education is the guarantee of students' freedom of thought. The external manifestation of learning freedom is freedom of choice, including the right of course options, the right of professional options, the right of teachers options, and the right of school options (p. 16). Gao & Ji (2013) pointed out that "learning freedom is an extension of the concept of freedom in the education field, it is the human free spirit embodied in learning activities ( p. 34). However, Zhong (2002) argued that "learning freedom does not mean the teacher is indulgent with students or completely not responsible for students. Freedom and authority, freedom and discipline, and freedom and guidance are inseparable in the process of learning (p. 8.).

In this research, a *211 project* university in central China was selected for our case study. In China, the *211 project* was initiated in 1995, after the approval of the Chinese government. It was meant to meet the challenges of the world's new technology revolution in the 21<sup>st</sup> century. The Chinese government concentrated power in all aspects of the central and the local governments, focusing on the construction of around 100 universities and key disciplines to make them reach the level of the world first-class university. It is the largest key project approved by the government in the field of higher education since the foundation of China in 1949. In 2015, China had a total number of 115 *211 project* universities.

This case study focuses on a key factor that is part of the 211 project universities, namely undergraduates' free option power of learning. Additionally, we will explore the current situation and problems, and the recommendations for the free option power of learning of undergraduates in China.

## **Method**

This qualitative case study addresses the research questions through conducting 20 interviews with undergraduates. The interviews were conducted from April to June, 2014.

The primary purpose of this study was to investigate the current situations and problems of the undergraduates' free option power of learning in a Chinese university. The goal was to find some recommendations for the problems. To achieve these goals, we chose 20 students as participants in a *211 project* university (Dizhi University) in central China. The reason we choose this university was that it is a national leading university directly under the administration of the Ministry of Education of the People's Republic of China, and was among the first universities to join the national 211 Project. Dizhi University maintains a balanced program of science, engineering, humanities, management, economics, law, education, and philosophy. There are 25,690 full-time students in Dizhi University. So the sample university is quite representative of popular universities in China.

Data were collected through structured interviews, follow-up emails, and document analysis. A sample of 20 students (10 males and 10 females) from 15 disciplines was selected. Convenience sampling was used, since the two authors worked and studied in Dizhi University.

Table 1 shows the demographic backgrounds of participants.

**Table 1.** Demographic background of student interviewees

Pseudonyms	Academic Majors	Grade	Gender
Anhua	Jewelry Identification	Sophomore	Female
Beiyun	Jewelry Design	Junior	Female
Caiwen	Automation	Freshman	Male
Dawei	Software Engineering	Sophomore	Female
Ejiao	Materials Science and Engineering	Sophomore	Male
Fuke	Physics	Sophomore	Male
Gecheng	Geology	Junior	Male
Hongzhi	English Language and Literature	Sophomore	Female
Iguo	Information Engineering	Sophomore	Male
Jiangwei	Jewelry Design	Sophomore	Female
Kexiao	Law	Sophomore	Female
Longmei	Electronic Information and Engineering	Junior	Male
Meili	Water Resources / Hydrological Geology	Junior	Male
Nongshan	Materials Chemistry	Sophomore	Female
Oyang	Art Design	Senior	Female
Pengchen	Mechanical Design and Automation	Senior	Male
Qingfen	Jewelry Identification	Senior	Male
Renlong	Software Engineering	Junior	Female
Songhua	Law	Senior	Male
Tengfei	Physics	Senior	Female

After the participants had been recruited, we interviewed them for about 30 minutes each. During the interviews, we asked each of them seven questions concerning the current situations and problems of the undergraduates' free option power of learning in Dizhi University. Our interview questions contained these areas: (a) the option power in learning content, (b) the option power in learning process, and (c) the option power in learning environment. The seven questions asked were: (a) Do you have the power to freely choose different types of courses the university offers? (b) Do you have the power to freely choose your major in the university? (c) If you find you are not interested in the major you have chosen, do you have the power to change it? (d) Do you have the power to freely choose your course schedule? (e) Do you have the power to graduate in advance or put off your graduation? (f) Do you have the power to choose classrooms in the university? (g) Do you have the power to freely transfer to another university? To clarify the participants' answers, we followed up interviews with discussions via emails. Some university documents about student power were also reviewed and analyzed.

## **Findings**

### **The Option Power in Learning Content**

The option power in the learning content is the students' power to choose what they want to study arranged by the university. Specifically, the option power in the learning content of this research includes: the power to select courses, the power to choose a major and the power to change the major.

**The power to select courses.** A course is commonly understood as a multi-discipline that students should study. The university should provide a wide variety of courses for undergraduates to select. They can freely choose the courses they want to study, this is the power to select courses freely. The interview question in this aspect is: "Do you have the power to freely choose different types of courses the university offers?"

Anhua, sophomore, whose major is **Jewelry Identification**, said:

*I know the compulsory courses include professional compulsory courses and public compulsory courses. The professional compulsory courses are the courses that each school arranged according to their own professional requirements and curriculums. Also, the professional compulsory courses are the courses that students must learn. The public compulsory courses (also called general education courses), including the ideological and political theory courses, military theory courses, foreign languages courses,*

*computer courses, sport courses, etc. The elective courses are made up of professional elective courses and public elective courses. students can choose several courses in the professional elective courses, as long as they get the required credits. The public elective courses are provided for all the students in the university, the students can choose public elective courses freely*

**Longmei**, junior, whose major is **Electronic Information and Engineering**, stated:

*The students cannot choose compulsory courses freely, whether they are the public compulsory courses, regulated by the university, such as Marxist philosophy and English, or the courses regulated by school according to the requirements of a major. But we can choose elective courses according to our own interests, as long as we complete the credits required by the university. But in my opinion, as there is not a variety of elective courses in our school, the elective courses fail to meet the needs of each student.*

**Gecheng**, who is a junior majoring in **Geology**, said:

*The compulsory courses are the courses that students must study according to their professional requirements. Students can choose elective courses freely, but these elective courses are too limited. So, there is a problem. If I want to study a course of computer science, I can't choose the course in the course election system. As the computer science neither belongs to my professional course, nor in the course election system, I cannot choose this course. Even if I attend this course, I can't get the credit.*

As can be seen, the compulsory courses in Dizhi University are arranged in advance. Students cannot choose the compulsory courses freely. The elective courses are arranged for all students, students can choose their favorite courses, as long as they complete the required credits. But the number of elective courses is limited, they cannot meet the interests of most students. And students can only choose courses in a prescribed course election system.

**The power to choose a major.** A major refers to the principal subject which undergraduates study as a particular field. The choice of a major is often related to the future job. The power to choose a major means that undergraduates can choose a major according to their own interests and abilities freely. The interview question in this aspect is: "Do you have the power to freely choose your major in the university?"

**Caiwen**, who is a freshman majoring in **Automation**, said:

*I chose this major just after the College Entrance Examination. At that time, I was muddle headed and I didn't know what this major was about. Now I am still at a loss.*

**Jiangwei**, who is a sophomore majoring in **Jewelry Design**, said:

*I thought jewelry design was very suitable for girls when I chose it as my major after the College Entrance Examination. Besides, this major requires higher grades and I just met the score requirement. now I like this major very much.*

**Hongzhi**, who is a sophomore majoring in **English Language and Literature**, said:

*I chose this major just after the College Entrance Examination. At that time, I was not quite clear about the majors in this university. But I was very interested in physics, Unfortunately, my parents thought physics is useless for a girl and didn't wish me to choose physics as my major. Besides, my understanding of a major related to physics was very fuzzy then. So, I chose English Language and Literature reluctantly. But after studying this major in the university for two years, I found it was a mistake for my choice and everything was too late to change.*

As can be seen, students in Dizhi University choose their majors just at the end of the College Entrance Examination. At that time, they do not quite understand how to choose a major. Besides, most of them have no ways to get some suggestions and advice on the choice of majors from professionals.

**The power to change the major.** The power to change the major means that students can change their majors freely at any time in the university. The interview question in this aspect is: "If you find you are not interested in the major you have chosen, do you have the power to change it?"

**Ejiao**, who is a sophomore majoring in **Material Science and Engineering**, said:

*I think there is not so much freedom to change the major. There is only one opportunity to change the major in Dizhi University, i.e., at the end of the first year. To be honest, at the end of the first year, I wanted to transfer to jewelry identification, but jewelry identification has a demand for higher GPA (Grade Point Average) than that of other majors. So the change of the major is easier for students who are good at studying. If you want to change your major, you have to attend an interview by the school you want to go to. It is not so easy, only if you have passed the interview can you change your major. My GPA didn't meet the requirement of jewelry identification after the end of*



*the first year, so I lost the opportunity to change the major. I like jewelry identification very much, but I have no chance.*

**Gecheng**, who is a junior majoring in **Geology**, said:

*As far as I know, I don't think the change of major is easy. There is a certain restriction for the proportion of students. Also, there is a requirement for GPA and, it seems, an interview.*

**Longmei**, who is a junior majoring in **Electronic Information and Engineering**, said:

*It is certain that the change of major is not so free. You can't choose the major you like easily. If there isn't any relationship between the major you are studying and the major you want to choose, then it is very difficult for you to change your major. The university has a certain degree of freedom for you in this area, but it is very limited.*

As can be seen, the students of Dizhi University can change their major at the end of first year. And there is only one chance. The change of major has certain requirements, such as the proportion of students, GPA and an interview. Only a very small number of students(5% of the total) are lucky enough to change their majors. It is difficult for most students in Dizhi University to change majors.

## **The Option Power in the Learning Process**

The learning process refers to students' arrangement of courses and academic achievement. The option power in the learning process in this study involves two aspects: the power to choose the course schedule and the power to determine the length of studying.

***The power to choose the course schedule.*** Courses can be divided into compulsory courses and elective courses. Because each student can choose elective courses freely, the time arrangement for each student is not the same, the order of courses for each student is also different. So the elective courses will not be discussed in this part. The courses we discuss here refer to the compulsory courses. The order of courses refers to the order of students' studying of compulsory courses. The interview question in this aspect is: "Do you have the power to freely choose your course schedule?"

**Oyang**, who is a senior majoring in **Art Design**, said:

*The compulsory courses are arranged by the university, it is a rule that every student should attend compulsory courses. Students cannot choose compulsory courses freely.*

**Tengfei**, who is a senior majoring in **Physics**, said:

*Whether it is a public compulsory course or a professional compulsory course, the student is unable to choose the order of their learning courses. The public compulsory courses refer to the courses related to the basic knowledge, theory and skills that students from all the majors are required to master. The order of professional compulsory courses is arranged generally by the law of knowledge, that is, we should learn easy things first, then the difficult ones.*

**Meili**, who is a senior majoring in **Water Resources and Hydrological Geology**, said:

*It is certain that the student cannot choose the schedule of professional courses freely. In fact, the schedule of professional courses have already been arranged by the university. In my opinion, students don't need freedom in choosing the schedule of professional courses. As we have no idea which professional course should be learned first to lay the foundation for the learning afterwards, the arrangement by the university must be more scientific. The previous course is a foundation for the later one, it is impossible to change the order of these courses. The public courses, such as military theory and English, are arranged by the university. So students cannot choose the public courses schedule freely. For elective courses, I feel we can make our choice freely. We can choose the courses we are interested in freely, we can also choose the courses in different semesters according to our own learning progress, interests and ability. The arrangement of mine is different from many of my classmates'.*

As can be seen, students in Dizhi University do not have much power to choose the compulsory course schedule. They usually make their course schedule according to the teaching plan of the university.

***The power to determine the length of studying.*** In Chinese university, nearly all undergraduates complete their study within 4 years. The power to determine the length of studying means that students can have more choice about their study. That is to say, they can complete their studying within less than 4 years or more than 4 years. If they get enough credits in advance, they can graduate in less than 4 years; and if the students put off the time of getting enough credits, they can also delay their graduation. The interview question in this aspect is: “Do you have the power to graduate in advance or put off your graduation?”

**Kexiao**, who is a sophomore majoring in Law, said:

*Our university allows students to postpone their graduation. If a senior doesn't get enough credits in the senior year or the senior fails too many courses in the sophomore or junior year, he cannot graduate normally within four years. As for the student's graduation in advance, I have never heard of this.*

This point can be reinforced in the interview with **Pengchen**, who is a senior majoring in **Mechanical Design and Automation** in Dizhi University:

*I haven't heard of graduation in advance. But I know an undergraduate that has put off his schooling. He is in his sixth year in the university now because he has failed too many courses.*

As can be seen, the students in Dizhi University have some freedom and some restrictions in the power of choosing the length of studying. During the four years of study, if the students do not get enough credits, they have to postpone their graduation (their study can be extended for two years at the most), but the students who get enough credits in advance cannot graduate in advance.

## **The Option Power in the Learning Environment**

Learning environment refers to the external and internal conditions that support learners. Narrowly speaking, students' learning environment can be divided into the school learning environment, family learning environment and social learning environment. School learning environment refers to the buildings, teachers, teaching conditions, school spirit, study style, etc. These are the factors that affect students' studying. The option power in the learning environment in this paper involves two dimensions: the power to choose classrooms and the power to transfer to another university.

***The power to choose classrooms.*** Classrooms refer to the place in which undergraduates attend classes. From the point of the class content, classes in university include theoretical classes, experimental classes and practical classes (internship). As different kinds of classes have different inherent requirements and objectives, teachers' teaching methods and students' ways of study are also different. Thus, different kinds of classes should be carried out in different places. Theoretical classes are generally in the classroom, experimental classes are held in laboratories,

practical classes (internship) are held in different places based on the major, such as a plant, field, primary and secondary schools, companies, etc. The classrooms in this paper refer to “theoretical classes”. The interview question in this aspect is: “Do you have the power to choose classrooms in the university?”

**Iguo**, who is a sophomore majoring in **Information Engineering**, said:

*The classrooms in the Dizhi University are arranged by the university, you cannot choose the classrooms on your own. Students usually have their classes in the fixed classrooms and I think there is no need to have this kind of freedom.*

**Beiyun**, who is a junior majoring in **Jewelry Design**, said:

*The classrooms are scheduled in advance in the university teaching schedule. You cannot choose classrooms freely. Even if the faculty wants to change the classroom to somewhere else, they must discuss in advance with the staff who is in charge of the arrangement of classrooms in the teaching and management department.*

**Dawei**, who is a sophomore majoring in **Software Engineering**, said:

*The classrooms are arranged by the university in advance. Even the faculty have no power to change freely, we have no choice but to obey.*

As can be seen, the students in Dizhi University have no power to choose classrooms. Classrooms are usually arranged in advance by the university.

**The power to transfer to another university.** The undergraduates’ power to transfer to another university refers to the fact that the undergraduates can transfer to another university to continue their study if they meet the basic qualifications and requirements of the university they want to study at. The interview question in this aspect is: “Do you have the power to freely transfer to another university?”

**Nongshan**, who is a sophomore majoring in **Material Chemistry**, said:

*I have never heard that undergraduates can transfer to another university, but I know that the rules of transfer to another university in our Dizhi University are very complicated. There are lots of documents and requirements imposed by the provincial administrative department of education. In my opinion, it is very difficult and complicated to transfer to another university.*

**Dawei** who is a sophomore majoring in **Software Engineering**, said:

*It seems that undergraduates' transfer to another university doesn't work in China. It is very rare, unless the student has special ability.*

This point can be reinforced in the interview with **Qingfen**, who is a senior majoring in **Jewelry Identification** in Dizhi University:

*It is certain that undergraduates cannot transfer to another university. How could it happen? There is no case of successful transfer to another university in Dizhi University. If you don't want to study in the university, you can go back to attend the College Entrance Examination again. If it is possible for undergraduates to transfer to another university, then everyone would like to go to better universities, such as Tsinghua Dizhi University and Beijing university. There is no doubt that there will be many problems. And it is not so easy even if the student wants to transfer to a university of the same level. My friend in another university told me there was one case of transfer to another university in his university, but it is very rare. And the university won't let us know how to operate it specifically.*

As can be seen, the students in Dizhi University have almost no power to transfer to another university. In reality, very few undergraduates can transfer to another university successfully. There are many requirements and there is little practical validity.

## **Recommendations**

The above survey analysis suggests that students' free option power of studying in Dizhi University in China is limited, which is manifest in the following aspects:

In terms of the option power in learning content, students cannot choose compulsory courses freely. They can choose their favorite elective courses freely, but the number of elective courses is limited. Students can only choose courses in a prescribed course election system. In other words, it is a kind of restrictive elective courses. Students choose their majors just at the end of the College Entrance Examination. They cannot get any professional advice on choosing majors so that they make their decision blindly. After entering the university, although there is a chance for students to change their majors at the end of the first year, it is very

difficult for them to change successfully because of the limitations concerning the proportion of the student numbers and GPA.

In terms of the option power in the learning process, students have no power to choose the learning sequence because compulsory courses are in accordance with the curriculum. The students in Dizhi University have some freedom of choosing the length of studying, but there are some restrictions. They can extend their studying (it can be extended for two years at the most) if they do not get enough credits, but the students who get enough credits in advance cannot finish their study and graduate in advance.

In terms of the option power in the studying environment, students have no power to choose classrooms because they are generally arranged in advance by the university. At the same time, students have almost no power to transfer to another university because the requirements and procedures of transfer to another university are very complex, and there is little practical validity.

Thus, how to guarantee the free option power of studying for undergraduates becomes a main problem we have to face. Useful solutions need to be found to guarantee student power.

- **Establishing sound laws to ensure the effective implementation of student power**

On the one hand, undergraduates' power should be included in the law. The establishment of concepts cannot be done by simple influence and infiltration, which also needs effective support of strict laws. From the national point of view, if the legality of student power is written in laws, the implementation of student power can be imperative. "Guarantee provided by the legal system is the most stable and mandatory. When student power is shielded by the extruding from the traditional binary power, student power should be guaranteed by the mandatory of legal system." (Dong,2012.P82). As can be seen, including student power in the law not only makes its legality undoubted, but also makes it mandatory. It is the greatest guarantee for the effective implementation of student power.

On the other hand, from the university point of view, the university should lay down relevant institutions and systems to ensure that all aspects of student power can be implemented effectively. Also, how to put the free option power of studying into the academic power system and how to make the free option power of studying accepted by the academic power should be focused on.

- **Empowering undergraduates to have more choice to choose and change their majors**

As we all know, Job-specific Human Capital Theory holds that the mismatch between students' personality and majors will affect the efficiency of education

investment. In order to promote the best practice of undergraduates' free option power of study, the requirement that students choose their majors before they are enrolled in university should be changed. Also, the time and frequency for undergraduates to change majors should be changed.

Firstly, the time of choosing majors should be put off till the end of the first year. In order to let undergraduates familiarize with majors, the university must arrange a course about "the introduction of majors" in the first year. This course should be taught by the teachers responsible for professional instruction in each school. Besides, this course should be compulsory for all freshmen, which can make students have a general understanding of every major. Thus, students will no longer blindly choose their majors at the end of the first year.

Secondly, the time and frequency for undergraduates to change majors should be changed appropriately. When some undergraduates study a major for a period of time and lose their interest, we think the university should give them more choice to change their majors, which should be their basic power of studying.

- **Carrying out a flexible program duration to let students have free choice of getting credits**

The Chinese university should loosen the restrictions of program duration and provide students with respect and trust, allowing students to graduate in advance when they get enough credits. They should be also able to extend their studying.

The reform concerning the program duration may initially result in some inconvenience and confusion for university management, but flexible program duration reflects respect to undergraduates and the symbol of modern university.

- **Establishing a sound and perfect transfer mechanism to let students have more choice of universities**

The Chinese university should establish a specialized organization responsible for students' transfer to another university and develop relevant policies and regulations to make some detailed provisions about students' transfer.

What is more, the university should establish a communication channel concerning students' transfer among universities. Each university can set diverse standards for academic achievement, overall quality and other aspects according to their own requirements. Applicants who meet these standards should be accepted.

Besides, this organization is also responsible for answering students' questions about transfer to another university, providing some necessary help when students encounter difficulties in the process of transfer to another university, making clear regulations concerning specific requirements.

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## Developing Communicative Competence in Spoken Arabic: A Survey of Korean University Students<sup>1</sup>

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### Abstract

This study aims to examine the communicative Arabic teaching methods currently used in Korean universities that extend beyond MSA to promote learner understanding and awareness of colloquial Arabic dialects. Arabic is characterized by a diglossic linguistic situation, which means that it consists of both diverse colloquial dialects used in different regions and social classes, and the written standard of Modern Standard Arabic. Recent trends in the field of language education have been moving toward a communicative approach to instruction. Since both MSA and spoken Arabic are important language variants that cannot be ignored, university curricula should integrate both variants into language courses. In the spoken Arabic education awareness survey conducted in the present study, the majority of the respondents answered that they wanted to increase the number of spoken Arabic classes offered at their university. Concerning colloquial Arabic, the majority also answered that they preferred the Egyptian dialect, followed by the Gulf and Levantine dialects. In terms of the timing of colloquial Arabic instruction, most respondents answered that they thought it should start in third year or in second year at university. It is also important to develop textbooks and other teaching and learning materials to aid the efficient instruction of spoken Arabic, which will give students the communicative skills necessary to be effective and competent communicators regardless of where they travel, study, or work in the Arab world.

**Keywords:** *Arabic education, diglossia, communicative competence, Modern Standard Arabic, colloquial spoken Arabic*

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## **Introduction**

Arabic is characterized by a diglossic linguistic situation, which means that it consists of both diverse colloquial dialects used in different regions and social classes, and the written standard of Modern Standard Arabic (MSA). MSA is both the standard Arabic and the official language of the Arab world, but this variant is an artificially taught language that children learn after entering school, somewhat like a foreign language. In daily life, Arabs communicate with each other using their own unique colloquial spoken Arabic dialects.

Recent trends in the field of language education have been moving toward a communicative approach to instruction. In the United States, since the revision of the Arabic Proficiency Guidelines in 1989, the efficiency of Arabic education in consideration of Arabic diglossia has improved. According to the guidelines, high proficiency-level Arabic learners must be able to communicate effectively in both variants of Arabic, with understanding of the differences between MSA and colloquial dialects, and how the language changes depending on the discourse situation (American Council on the Teaching of Foreign Languages [ACTFL], 1989, p. 374).

However, considering these circumstances, domestic Arabic education conditions do not satisfy learners' needs and the current demands of Arabic education as teaching efficient means of communication. The current Arabic curriculum in Korea is based on MSA, while the instruction of spoken Arabic is relatively neglected (Yun, 2015a, p. 3). Students who only receive grammar and translation instruction in Arabic will experience many difficulties in conversational situations with Arabic native speakers, and they will recognize the need for improved sociolinguistic abilities to communicate and understand the spoken Arabic used by native speakers.

Therefore, in light of the circumstances described above, this study examines the communicative Arabic teaching methods currently used in Korean universities that extend beyond MSA to promote learner understanding and awareness of colloquial Arabic dialects and spoken Arabic instruction.

### **Research Focus**

Teaching methods in foreign language education are focused on improving communication skills. 'Communicative competence' is the term that was first used by Hymes in 1972. According to Hymes, communicative competence refers to learners' ability to understand and utilize the sociocultural context of foreign culture and communication based on their knowledge of language (Hymes, 1972, p. 32). According to this perspective, the core of foreign language education

must be based effectively on the four functions of language: listening, speaking, reading, and writing. In order to improve communication skills, it is necessary to understand and properly use these four communicative functions. Based on the knowledge of the phonological, syntactic, and semantic systems of language among the four subcategories of communication, it is necessary to have the sociolinguistic ability to express language appropriately in a given situation. In particular, in Arabic, a balanced education of spoken Arabic as well as literary Arabic is needed to improve one's overall language ability, taking into account the unique sociolinguistic characteristics of Arabic diglossia.

Many scholars have pointed out that 'Arabic diglossia', which consists of both MSA and various spoken Arabic dialects and sociolinguistic functions, is a fundamental consideration in learning Arabic as a foreign language (Cadora, 1965; Ferguson, 1971; Zughoul, 1980; Badawi, 1985; Alrabaa, 1986; Oh, 1995).

According to Ferguson, MSA (al-Lughah al-Fuṣḥā), or the 'high' variety, and spoken Arabic (al-Lahajāt al-Ṣammiyyah), the 'low' variety, coexist in parallel in Arabic diglossia (Ferguson 1959, p. 327). Al-Fuṣḥā, commonly referred to as MSA today, is the official standard language of all Arab countries and is used in a unified form and formal style (al-Toma, 1969, 3). On the other hand, colloquial dialects appear as diverse forms in various countries depending on geographical, religious, and social characteristics as a medium of communication in everyday life and literature.

In the case of university students majoring in Arabic, they often do not experience difficulties in writing and reading when they study Arabic in the foreign language classroom. However, learners face considerable difficulties in understanding the spoken Arabic used in everyday life in the countries where they have gone to study. Given that the ultimate goal of learning a foreign language is communication, the need for balanced instruction in both MSA and spoken, colloquial Arabic must be taken into account, in addition to the need for considering the sociolinguistic characteristics of the language.

Al-Batal (1992) proposed a variety of teaching methods that can be applied in Arabic language education in consideration of Arabic diglossia, including the Classical Arabic Approach, the MSA Approach, and the Colloquial Arabic Approach. Among these three, the MSA Approach is the most commonly used approach today. Although this approach does not fully reflect the actual situation concerning how Arabic is used in the modern world, it can be considered an effective approach to dealing with the complex situation of Arabic diglossia. However, it is difficult to expect effective Arabic learning to be achieved if the MSA Approach is aimed at training Arabic learners to perform specific functions in specific situations with the aim of general language proficiency. In contrast, the

Colloquial Arabic Approach is an approach that focuses on speaking in a particular national or local Arabic dialect. This approach has been found to help learners become more interested in learning Arabic. However, most Arabic learners, especially Korean learners, are interested in mastering Arabic holistically. Thus, the Colloquial Arabic Approach cannot satisfy these learners' needs. Thus, MSA and spoken Arabic should both be taught in Arabic language classes to develop effective communication abilities in learners, and the rate of learning of these two variants should be appropriately regulated according to the level of learners, their needs, and the learning objectives.

### **Arabic Education in Korea**

There are five Korean universities with Arabic language departments. Among them, Hankuk University of Foreign Studies (HUFS), established on 1 January 1965, has the longest history of providing Arabic language education in South Korea. In this department, most first- and second-year courses focus on the four functions of the Arabic language: reading, writing, listening, and speaking. In third- and fourth-year curricula, various courses such as 'Advanced Arabic Reading', 'Advanced Arabic Conversation', and 'Arabic Essays' are taught with the aim of mastering Arabic at an advanced level. Among the courses on spoken Arabic are 'Comparative Studies of Written and Colloquial Arabic' and 'Studies of Colloquial Arabic' offered in the first and second semesters of the fourth-year program. However, these courses are based on MSA. Thus, students cannot expect to receive sufficient instruction in colloquial Arabic.

Busan University of Foreign Studies (BUFS) was the third university in Korea to establish an Arab studies department in March 1983. BUFS offers Arabic courses using various media, and the program is unique in that the course 'Colloquial Arabic I' is offered in the second semester of the second year, which helps intermediate learners to deepen their understanding of spoken Arabic. Then, in the first semester of the third year, the course 'Colloquial Arabic II' is offered. Of the other three universities in Korea with Arab studies departments (Myungji University, Chosun University, and Dankook University), none offers courses related to spoken Arabic (Yun, 2015b, p. 4). And there is the Graduate School of Interpretation and Translation (GIST) at HUFS, in which 23 students, who completed their bachelor's degrees at five Korean universities, are currently studying (2017) to gain a master's degree in Arabic translation and interpretation.

Most of the Arabic courses offered in Korean domestic universities focus on MSA, and few courses on colloquial Arabic are offered. As mentioned above, this educational reality poses problems for Arabic language learners when they visit

Arab countries and cannot understand the spoken Arabic used in daily life by native speakers. As Versteegh (2004) pointed out, MSA is a language variant used by Arabs in official discourse and business, and it is not used in daily conversation. However, fluency in MSA is considered as a measure of social status and educational background. On the other hand, colloquial Arabic is used by Arabs in daily conversations with their family and friends, and it is the actual language that enhances intimacy among its speakers.

It is true that MSA must be prioritized in Arabic as a foreign language education. However, to develop effective communication skills that can be used in real-life situations, students must also learn colloquial, spoken Arabic. Thus, universities should offer first- and second-year courses focusing on MSA, and then provide third- and fourth-year courses focusing on spoken Arabic.

## **Research Methodology**

### **Instrument and Procedures**

The purpose of this study was to investigate the awareness and learning needs concerning spoken Arabic among Korean university students majoring in Arabic language studies. A survey was conducted with 90 students at HUFS, BUFS, and the Graduate School of Interpretation and Translation (GIST) at HUFS.

Surveys were conducted to assess the students' opinions of the Arabic language instruction in their university courses. The surveys were composed of 10 items to meet the aims of the study; the students responded to the items on a five-point Likert scale: (a) strongly agree, (b) agree, (c) neutral, (d) disagree, or (e) strongly disagree. A total of 90 students (43 students from HUFS, 24 from BUFS, and 23 from GIST) participated in this survey. The questionnaire was conducted for 20 days, from 1<sup>st</sup> to 20<sup>th</sup> December 2017.

## **Research Results**

This section explores the results of the questionnaires filled in by the students, concerning their Arabic language education and experience. Table 1 presents the responses to Q1, which asked about the students' understanding of the difference between literary standard Arabic and spoken Arabic. In response to Q1, over 81% of the respondents answered that they understood the difference between standard Arabic and spoken Arabic.

**Table 1.** Do you understand the difference between literary standard Arabic and spoken Arabic? (Q1)

	Strongly Agree	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
Responses	45	28	12	5	0
Percentages	50%	31.1%	13.3%	5.6%	0%

According to the responses to Q2 and Q3, the 71 students who answered that they had studied for six months or more in an Arabic-speaking country were placed in Group A. The distribution of the students' study-abroad experiences by region are shown in Table 3.

**Table 2.** Have you studied Arabic for more than six months in an Arabic-speaking country? (Q2)

	Yes	No
Responses	71	19
Percentages	78.9%	21.1%

**Table 3.** Where did you go for language training? (Q3; Group A)

	Gulf countries	Jordan	Egypt	The Maghreb
Responses	5	20	27	19
Percentages	7%	28.2%	38%	26.8%

**Table 4.** Do you think you need to learn colloquial spoken Arabic to communicate effectively in Arabic? (Q4)

	Strongly Agree	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
Responses	52	21	12	5	0
Percentages	57.8%	23.3%	13.3%	5.6%	0%

In response to Q4, more than 80% of the respondents answered that they needed to learn spoken Arabic. Students in Group A were asked questions about the status of MSA education and the need to use spoken Arabic in the Arab world. The results are presented in Tables 5 and 6.

**Table 5.** Before your study abroad experience, had you ever studied spoken Arabic? (Q5; Group A)

	Strongly Agree	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
Responses	0	14	9	32	16
Percentages	0%	19.7%	12.7%	45.1%	22.5%

**Table 6.** Was it possible to have daily conversations with native speakers using only the standard Arabic you learned in class? (Q6; Group A)

	Strongly Agree	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
Respondents	2	10	15	36	8
Percentage	2.8%	14.1%	21.1%	50.7%	11.3%

Given that courses in spoken Arabic are typically not offered by universities until fourth year, most students go to Arab countries for language training without having learned any spoken Arabic. Q6 asked about the students’ abilities to communicate with native speakers using the Arabic they had learned in their classes. Only 16.9% of the students answered ‘Strongly Agree’ and ‘Agree’ in response to the question ‘Was it possible to have daily conversations with native speakers using only the standard Arabic you learned in class?’ On the other hand, 21.1% of the respondents answered ‘Neutral’ and 62% of the respondents answered that they had difficulty communicating with Arabic speakers using only the MSA that they had learned in their university courses.

**Table 7.** Do your professors teach spoken Arabic as well as Modern Standard Arabic in your courses? (Q7)

	Strongly Agree	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
Responses	0	9	14	45	22
Percentages	0%	10%	15.6%	50%	24.4%

Q7 asked whether the respondents learned both MSA and spoken Arabic in their university courses. Only 10% of the respondents answered ‘Agree’. To increase communication skills efficiently, it is desirable to teach both MSA and

spoken Arabic in courses. However, the survey results indicate that currently MSA continues to be the only Arabic taught in university Arabic language courses in South Korea. Most students responded that they required more classes in spoken Arabic, as shown in Table 8.

**Table 8.** Do you think you need more spoken Arabic classes in your Arabic course?

	Strongly Agree	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
Respondents	39	38	8	5	0
Percentage	43.3%	42.2%	8.9%	5.6%	0%

This finding indicates that the students with experience in the Arabic language, regardless of their level of difficulty in communicating with the use of only MSA, commonly require more instruction in colloquial Arabic. As mentioned above, the field of foreign language education is changing rapidly in response to the need to improve learners' communication abilities. Moreover, learners also demand teaching methods aimed at improving their communication skills. Analysis of the survey results demonstrates that the demand for improvement in Arabic communication skills through instruction in spoken Arabic seems to be urgent for the students of HUFs, BUFS, and GIST. These results are consistent with the findings of the National Middle East Language Resource Center in the United States, showing that more than 86% of Arabic learners in 37 different higher education institutions in the United States were interested in learning spoken Arabic (Al-Batal & Belnap, 2006, p. 393).

In addition, the survey asked the respondents about their preferences concerning the dialects of colloquial Arabic that they most wished to study. The results are presented in Table 9.

**Table 9.** If you had more colloquial Arabic classes, which local dialect of Arabic would you prefer to study? (Q9)

	Gulf Arabic	Levantine Arabic	Egyptian Arabic	Maghreb Arabic	Other
Responses	23	20	44	3	0
Percentages	25.6%	22.2%	48.9%	3.3%	0%

The majority of the respondents preferred Egyptian Arabic (48.9%), which reveals the students' perceptions of the Arab world, perhaps owing to the fact



that Egypt has represented a political, economic, and cultural centre of the Arab world since the 14<sup>th</sup> century. Moreover, Egyptian Arabic is a useful dialect to learn, given that the Egyptians account for one-third of the total population of the Arab world. The second-most preferred dialect of the respondents was Gulf Arabic (25.6%), followed by Levantine Arabic (22.2%). This result may be related to the students' increasing awareness of the Gulf region due to increasing numbers of medical tourists coming to South Korea from Gulf countries. Finally, few students expressed interest in learning Maghreb Arabic (3.3%). These results are consistent with the findings of Al-Batal and Belnap (2006, p. 396), who found that most Arabic language students in US higher education institutions were interested in learning the Egyptian and Levantine dialects of Arabic.

In terms of the timing of colloquial Arabic instruction, most respondents answered that they thought it should start in third year (50%), while many others answered that they thought it should start in second year (33.3%). Few respondents (8.9%) answered that they thought colloquial Arabic instruction should start in first year. The results of this question are presented in Table 10.

**Table 10.** In which year do you think colloquial Arabic instruction should be commenced? (Q10)

	First year	Second year	Third year	Fourth year	No response
Responses	8	30	45	6	1
Percentages	8.9%	33.3%	50%	6.7%	1.1%

In order to create a curriculum that includes spoken Arabic in the courses offered by university Arabic departments, it is first necessary to consider which dialect(s) should be taught. For practical reasons (e.g., textbooks, learning materials, and available instructors), not all dialects can be included in the curriculum. Thus, a good way to determine the colloquial dialects to be taught would be to consider the preferences of the learners themselves.

## **Conclusions**

This study examined the communicative Arabic teaching methods currently used in Korean universities focusing on students' opinions concerning spoken Arabic instruction. Currently, the learning contents of spoken Arabic courses focus on theoretical comparisons of MSA and colloquial Arabic, such as the

Egyptian and Levantine dialects. Therefore, it is urgent to develop more varied and practical learning content for spoken Arabic courses, and develop textbooks and other learning materials to support students in the learning process.

In the spoken Arabic education awareness survey conducted in the present study, the majority of the respondents answered that they wanted to increase the number of spoken Arabic classes offered at their university. Concerning colloquial Arabic, the majority also answered that they preferred the Egyptian dialect, followed by the Gulf and Levantine dialects. Concerning the timing of spoken Arabic instruction, the majority of the respondents answered that they preferred to start in second or third year. These results demonstrate that Korean learners have a strong awareness of learning Arabic as a means of developing effective communication abilities for practical purposes in response to the current changes taking place in the field of foreign language education.

Since both MSA and spoken Arabic are important language variants that cannot be ignored, university curricula should integrate both variants into language courses. Considering the preferences of Arabic learners in Korea, it is appropriate to design a curriculum that focuses on teaching MSA in the first and second years, while also instructing students about the basic features and differences of spoken Arabic. In the third and fourth years, various courses should be offered with the aim of implementing efficient learning of various regional dialects of Arabic. The point to note is that local dialects that are in fact effective and meet learners' needs and learning objectives should be chosen. It is also important to develop textbooks and other teaching and learning materials (e.g., multimedia) to aid the efficient instruction of spoken Arabic, and hiring qualified university Arabic instructors from various regions that can teach their own local dialect of Arabic, which will give students the communicative skills necessary to be effective and competent communicators regardless of where they travel, study, or work in the Arab world.

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**Pedeutology**



## **Professional Preparation of In-Service Teachers for 'Prayas' Program in Science and Impact in Classrooms**

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### **Abstract**

Today most teachers enter teaching by means of a one or two-year undergraduate program in education (B.Ed.). There is provision of in-service training for teachers to make teaching effective in bringing quality to education. Various in-service teacher training programs are organized by District Institutes of Educational Training and State Institute of Educational Management and Training under Sarva Shiksha Abhiyaan in Himachal Pradesh. Yet, the impact of the training has not been reflected in the classrooms for the last fifteen years. There is not optimum improvement in the academic achievement of students. It is necessary to make teaching enjoyable and flexible through various activities, small projects and ICT in the new era. Creative and experimental activities are very much needed in the teaching of mathematics and science subjects. These activities help in building student confidence and give students more opportunities of learning. 'PRAYAS' at the upper-primary level is one of the programs organized by the DIET Solan to professionally prepare in-service teachers for implementing it at the school level. The objective of the study was to study the impact of the 'PRAYAS' in-service training program in Science in the educational block Kandaghat block of district Solan of Himachal Pradesh. Three schools were conveniently selected, two Govt. Senior Secondary Schools Chail and Kalhog, and one Govt. High School, Sakori, of the concerned educational block. Data was collected with the use of a semi-structured interview and the observations were recorded. It was found in the study that students made models and activities on the topics of their textbooks under the 'PRAYAS' program with eco-friendly materials and waste materials, utilized where suited.

In this way, students learnt to use waste materials in everyday life. The models and activities were very low cost and easy to handle and care. The students learnt and understood the concepts easily. The outcomes of the program are discussed in the paper, which will be beneficial for the educational planners and administrators and in-service teachers of the State.

**Keywords:** *PRAYAS, science, in-service teachers, DIET, SSA.*

## **Introduction**

Today most teachers enter the teaching profession by means of a one or two-year undergraduate program in education (B.Ed.). There is provision of in-service training for teachers to make teaching effective in bringing quality to education. Various in-service teacher training programs are organized by District Institutes of Educational Training and State Institute of Educational Management and Training under Sarva Shiksha Abhiyaan in Himachal Pradesh. However, the impact of the training has not been reflected in the classroom for the last fifteen years. There is not optimum improvement in students' academic achievement. It is necessary to make teaching enjoyable and flexible through various activities, small projects and ICT in the new era. Creative and experimental activities are very much needed in the teaching of mathematics and science subjects. These activities help in building student confidence and give students more opportunities of learning. PRAYAS at the upper-primary level is one of the programs organized by the DIET Solan to professionally prepare in-service teachers for implementing it at the school level.

## **History of the Program (PRAYAS)**

DIET Solan launched the 'Sunehra Kal' program in one educational block, Ramshehar, in 2014, in which activities and models were constructed for maths and science content in primary and upper-primary school with the collaboration of the Praptham Education Foundation. Science and Maths fairs were organized to demonstrate these activities, in which students' parents and the local public also participated, along with teachers and students. A Science fair was organized on a large scale on 28/02/2015 at Govt. Senior Secondary School, Baddi. Students demonstrated mathematical activities and science models in front of administrators, teachers, students and the local public. They were praised for their work and self-confidence.



The DIET Solan organized a five-day workshop, 'Making Maths Activities and Science Models,' in Government (Boys) Senior Secondary School, Solan, in March 2015, in collaboration with the Pratham Education Foundation for increasing the publicity of science fairs. 120 students of the school participated in this workshop and made various mathematical activities and science models (working and non-working). The 6<sup>th</sup> to 8<sup>th</sup> grade students made 30 science models and 20 mathematical models in this workshop and displayed them on the sixth day of the fair. The teachers and head teachers of the adjoining schools were also invited to participate in the fair. Taking into consideration the success of this fair, DIET decided to prepare three in-service teachers from each educational block through in-service teacher training program on 'Activity based Teaching' and prepared a District Resource Group (DRG) in April, 2015. All the science and maths teachers from Arki and Dhundan educational blocks were trained for this program and fairs were organized. The Pratham Education Foundation shared these experiences and program in Bilaspur district and DIET Bilaspur (Jukhala) converted it into 'PRAYAS' and implemented it in the whole district. Then, DIET Sirmour (Nahan) launched this program in two educational blocks. This program produced positive results and was popularized in the State. The State Project Office, Shimla, implemented this successful program in the State this year at the upper-primary level (6<sup>th</sup> to 8<sup>th</sup> grades).

## **Review of Related Studies**

The review of the related studies helped the researcher to find a gap among the studies in the selected area. Sim, Ju Youn (2011) studied the impact of an in-service teacher training (INSET) course in Korea on teachers' classroom practice and their perception change. The main finding in this study indicated that the two examined teachers faced some difficulties and challenges in implementing new ideas or knowledge obtained from the INSET course into their classroom practice, and did not do so to the same extent. The contextual differences between the INSET and real practice, the content of the INSET, and lack of school support were identified as constraining factors that limit implementation. Uysal, H.H. (2012) studied evaluation of an in-service training program for primary school language teachers in Turkey. The study evaluated a one-week INSET offered by the Turkish Ministry of Education to explore its sustained impact on language teachers' attitudes, knowledge-base, and classroom practices. The program was first evaluated against the criteria for effective INSETs suggested by previous liter-

ature. Then, data were gathered through course material analysis, interviews with trainers and teachers, and through a questionnaire distributed to 72 teachers 18 months after the course had ended. Findings indicated that although the teachers' attitudes towards the course were positive in general, the program had limitations especially in terms of its planning and evaluation phases, and its impact on teachers' practices. However, teachers expressed a need for more time and resources such as handouts, materials, CDs to be used for future reference and for classroom use. Berry, B., Daughtrey and Wieder (2010) suggested that preparation and professional development are closely interwoven with collaboration and leadership opportunities. Due to these connections, the best proposals for creating and supporting professional learning for effective teachers will incorporate elements of each. Nemser focuses on different ways of conceiving and carrying out teacher preparation. He discusses the state of the art of programs of initial teacher preparation and indicates where conceptual, empirical and practical work is needed. The academic orientation focused attention on the distinctive work of teaching. What distinguished teaching from other forms of human service is its focus on helping students learn worthwhile things they could not pick up on their own. What follows is that preparing someone to teach means helping them develop ideas and dispositions related to this goal. These studies provided insights into in-service teacher training and governments' initiatives in various places around the globe. The studies also investigated the aspects teachers found easy/hard to implement, their reasons for any difficulties they faced in their schools, and their needs for future in-service teacher education programs. Because any changes in teachers' beliefs, attitudes and behaviors are considered to take place after a long period of time, once teachers have an opportunity to test new ideas and observe the outcomes in student learning. Hence, the present study was undertaken to study the professional preparation of in-service teachers for the 'PRAYAS' program and its impact in classrooms in Kandaghat block of district Solan of Himachal Pradesh.

### **Objectives of the Study**

1. To study the professional preparation of in-service teachers for the 'PRAYAS' program in the educational block Kandaghat.
2. To study the impact of the 'PRAYAS' in-service training program in the science subject in the educational block Kandaghat.

## **Methodology**

A descriptive research method was used in the present study.

### **Place of Study**

The present study was conducted in the educational block Kandaghat of the Solan district of Himachal Pradesh, India.

### **Duration of the Study**

Four months: 05/09/2017 to 04/12/2017

### **Type of Study**

School and community based qualitative study.

### **Sampling**

The study was carried out in one educational block, Kandaghat of district Solan. There are 51 upper-primary schools in the block, from which 12 schools were selected by the DIET Solan for the 'PRAYAS' program. The researcher selected three schools conveniently, two Govt. Senior Secondary Schools, Chail and Kalhog, and one Govt. High School, Sakori, of the educational block in question. Data was collected with the use of a semi-structured interview and observations were recorded. Six teachers, 10 students and 10 SMC members were selected conveniently for recording their views concerning the 'PRAYAS' program in science.

## **Data Analysis**

The outcomes of the observations made were recorded categorically and interpreted as follows.

### **Professional preparation of in-service teachers for the 'PRAYAS' program**

In Himachal Pradesh, science is taught by trained graduate teachers in medical high and senior secondary schools and by trained graduate teachers in non-medical middle schools. The related stream teachers were selected by the Block Resource Coordinator and five-day professional in-service teacher training was organized by the DIET Solan for science. On the first three days, inputs were given regarding making various activities and models (working and non-working) of the 6<sup>th</sup> to 8<sup>th</sup> -grade syllabus in collaboration with the Pratham Education Foundation. The

follow-up of the program was conducted on the fourth day, and the following day a fair was organized at the DIET level to demonstrate the activities and models prepared by the participant teachers. This group was referred to as a District Resource Group (DRG).

This training was conducted by the DRG members for one day at the block level in science to the in-service teachers of the streams and selected schools in which the 'PRAYAS' program is implemented. The follow up was also conducted on the next day of the training. In the Kandaghat block,  $\leq 10000/-$  were given to 12 selected schools for science and maths kit under the 'PRAYAS' program and  $\leq 2756/-$  were allotted for making charts/models/activities of the topics of their textbooks of science and mathematics to other middle and senior secondary schools of the block.

### **Impact of the 'PRAYAS' in-service training program in science**

The trained teachers at the block level implemented the training in their schools. The normal school routine was not disturbed but the teachers implemented the 'PRAYAS' program in their normal classroom teaching. The students made charts, activities and models (working and non-working) for science. The date of the fair was announced by the BRCC Kandaghat. The schools organized a fair to display the activities and models in front of all the students of the school, teachers, School Management Committee (SMC) and community members. The students explained the details of their models and activities with great confidence. The SMC members also interacted with the students along with the science teachers of nearby schools. The BRCC Kandaghat Smt. Kiran Thakur also interacted with each student and asked about the details of the charts/models/activities. She commented, "The students are learning the basic concepts of science with the help of these activities. The concepts are clear to students as they are learning the concepts of their textbooks by doing the activities in question." The researcher studied the impact of the 'PRAYAS' in-service training program at the basic level with the help of a semi-structured interview scale and recorded the views of science teachers, students and School Management Committee members of the selected schools.

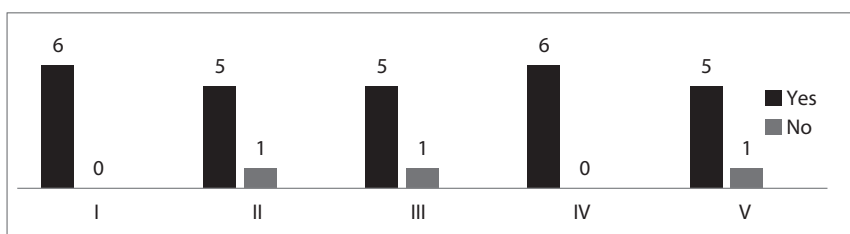
### **Views of Science Teachers**

The science teachers' views were recorded by the investigator with the use of a semi-structured interview scale. The concept of making a model or activity

has been given to the students by the teachers. The students mostly used waste material for making the models. One of the teachers said, “The students are taking interest in learning the concept for developing the model and I think that they have learnt the concept more deeply than in normal classroom learning.” Another science teacher said, “The students amazed all of us with their active involvement in these activities and good results in FA 2 and FA 3 tests. I think this will be the best program for science learning at this stage. I appreciate it personally.” The views of 10 selected science teachers are presented in Table 1.

**Table 1.** Science teachers’ views about the ‘PRAYAS’ program in science

Sr. No.	Statement	Yes	No
I	Is the ‘PRAYAS’ program in science useful to students?	6	0
II	Are the students participating actively in developing the model/chart/activity?	5	1
III	Is the program helpful in the thorough learning of the concepts for which the model/chart/activity is developed?	5	1
IV	Is a scientific attitude developed in the students?	6	0
V	Is the students’ performance in unit tests better than before implementing the program?	5	1



**Figure 1.** Views of Science Teachers towards 'PRAYAS' Program

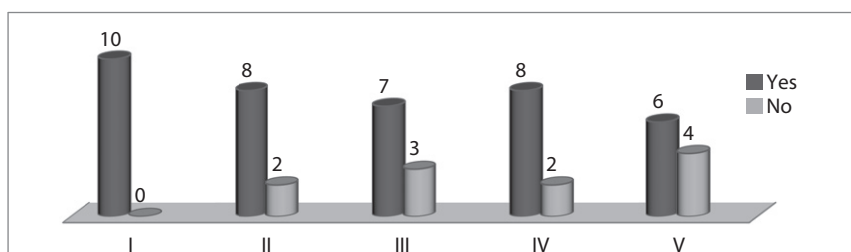
Table 1 and Figure 1 show the science teachers’ views concerning the ‘PRAYAS’ program in science. All the science teachers stated that it is useful for the students and scientific attitude is developed in the students, 5 teachers stated that the program is helpful in the thorough learning of the concepts for which the chart/model/activity has been developed and all the students actively participated in doing the activities, and the students’ performance in FA 2 and FA 3 tests was better than before implementing the program.

## Students' Views

The students' views concerning the implementation of the 'PRAYAS' program in science in schools were recorded with the use of a semi-structured interview scale. The students were found more interested in making charts/models in class with the help of their teachers. One student of the 6<sup>th</sup> grade reported, "I was a slow student in science. The concepts were tough for me to understand, but, by making a chart/model with the help of the teacher I understood the things better and got good marks in FA 2 tests." Another student of the 8<sup>th</sup> grade said, "I really enjoyed doing the activity myself as I read about it in my textbook. It boosted my confidence to do more in future." Vivek Sharma of grade 8 said, "I felt proud when teachers of other schools appreciated my model along with the skill of explaining how it worked. I am self-motivated and now I will do more activities of other topics of my syllabus. I have learnt the concept and I cannot forget it now." The recorded views of all the sample students are shown in Table 2.

**Table 2.** Students' views about the 'PRAYAS' program in science

Sr. No.	Statement	Yes	No
I	Did you get guidance from your teachers in making the chart/model?	10	00
II	Have you learnt the concepts in-depth with the help of all charts/models developed by the class?	8	2
III	Have you got good marks in FA 2 and FA 3 tests after learning through these activities?	7	3
IV	Would you like to develop more charts/models for other concepts?	8	2
V	Are you planning to develop charts/models for other concepts?	6	4



**Figure 2.** Students' Views towards 'PRAYAS' Program in Science

Table 2 and Figure 2 present the students' views about the 'PRAYAS' program in science. It is clear that all the students were guided by their respective teachers

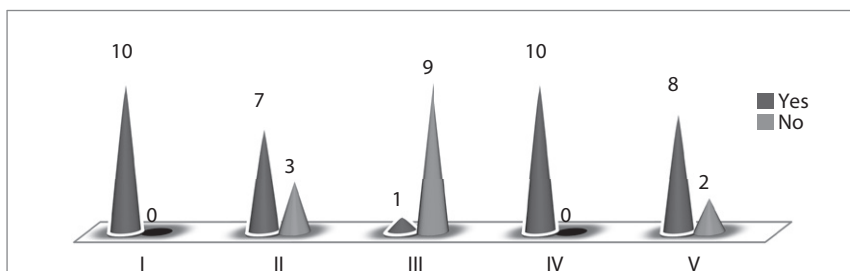
for developing the chart/model/activity in science. 8 students stated that they had learnt the concepts of their syllabus books easily and in-depth with the help of the material developed in the program and got good marks in FA 2 and FA 3 tests. 8 students would like to make more materials of other concepts of science in future and 6 students planned their strategies for making their project during the program. The remaining 4 students were also planning to make their activities of the topic of their interest related to the syllabus.

### Views of School Management Committee (SMC) Members

The students' views about the implementation of the 'PRAYAS' program in school were recorded through a semi-structured interview scale. The SMC President of one school said, "The PRAYAS' program is the best program to create the interest of the students towards science. The children are enjoying their learning by creating things themselves." The parent of a student stated, "The students are taking a keen interest in making their models. They are learning the basic concepts more easily and I think this learning is permanent." The views of all the SMC members are presented in Table 3.

**Table 3.** SMC Members' views of the 'PRAYAS' program in science

Sr. No.	Statement	Yes	No
I	Did you like the work done by the students?	10	00
II	Did your children make these charts/models with interest?	7	3
III	Did the children need money for making these activities?	1	9
IV	Do you think such a type of activities and fairs should be continued in future?	10	00
V	Did the performance of your children increase during this program?	8	2



**Figure 3.** View of School management Committee Members towards 'PRAYAS' Program in Science

Table 3 and Figure 3 show the views of the School Management Committee members concerning the 'PRAYAS' program. All the SMC members liked the students' work and planned this type of activities in future. 7 members made their charts/models with interest and 8 members were of the opinion that the performance of their children in science increased due to the implementation of this program.

## **Conclusion**

Science is a subject which should be taught by activity-based methods. This type of activities help students to understand the concept easily and discourage rote learning. The students made their models using eco-friendly material and waste material was also utilized where suited. In this way, the students learnt to use the waste material of everyday life. They were low cost models and activities and easy to handle and care for. This is the outcome of the professional preparation of the 'PRAYAS' in-service teacher training program. The SMC members and community members appreciated the program and wanted to implement it in all the remaining schools of the block. It is concluded that the 'PRAYAS' program for science is successful in all the selected schools as BRCC Kandaghat reported. The students learnt the basic concepts of the syllabus of their textbooks very easily, which was proved by their results in FA 2 and FA 3 tests. The science subject should be taught with the students' active participation to increase their interest in the subject.

## **Recommendations**

1. The 'PRAYAS' program was found useful for the students in the practical subject 'Science'. The students' performance was increased after the implementation of the program. Hence, the program should be implemented in other schools, as well.
2. The grant  $\leq 2840$  is not enough for making the models in one school. It should be enhanced up to  $\leq 4000$  for each school.
3. No program is successful without the active participation of the community. Therefore, SMC members should encourage their children for making more models/charts/activities.
4. Science teachers should be trained at the national level to make the program more effective and fruitful.



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## Using Metacognitive Strategy to Teach Learning Strategies: A Study of Indonesian Pre-Service Biology Teachers

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### Abstract

The research aims at exploring Indonesian pre-service biology teachers' metacognitive skills, measuring the development of learning strategies (LS) used by the teachers before and after the learning process, and describing the teachers' responses afterwards. There were 25 subjects studied using a pretest-posttest design. Results showed that there was an increase in students' metacognitive skills and their LS knowledge. Moreover, they stated that they had got a lot of benefits after the learning process. This research concludes that metacognitive strategy can be used to teach LS so that students can broaden their LS understanding and thus enable to choose LS that fits them.

*Keywords: learning strategies, metacognitive skills, pre-service biology teacher.*

### Introduction

It is crucial for pre-service teachers teaching with a good learning strategy that is relevant to students' needs and characters, along with contextual factors such as academic domain, task type, or task difficulty level (Callan & Cleary, 2014; Cleary & Chen, 2009; Hadwin, Winne, Stockley, Nesbit, & Woszczyzna, 2001). When performing as a real teacher, they should prepare a learning activity by considering how their students can process the delivered information and associate it with their schemata. Moreover, the teacher must be able to create a situation where

students can easily process and understand the information being embedded to their long-term memory (Zakaria & Iksan, 2007). In such a situation, pre-service teachers need to be familiarized with kinds of learning strategy. Teachers' willingness to enhance science performance through more effective instructional strategy has increased their awareness in recent years. The importance of students' focus in a teaching and learning activity requires a knowledge of how students learn and understand particular concepts (Jegede, Alaiyemola, Okebukola, 1990).

One of the instructional strategies in biology class is metacognitive strategy. The use of metacognitive strategy often has a solid association with improving students' achievements especially in science learning as it involves awareness of self-thinking measured with an appropriate strategy in the learning context (Ibrahim, et al., 2017; Akyol, Sungur, dan Tekkaya, 2010; Callan, Marchant, Finch, German, 2016). Metacognition is a set of skills that enables students to recognize how they learn, evaluate and adapt the skills in order to achieve an effective learning process. Metacognitive skill plays an important role in most problem-solving activities faced by students in daily classes (Boyle, Ronsen, Forchelli, 2016). Metacognitive strategy is considered to be more salient than other ones in conducting practice-based learning (Kistner, Rakoczy, Otto, Klieme & Büttner, 2015). In this research, the metacognitive strategy is used to teach learning strategy to pre-service students, covering both the theoretical concept and modelling technique. As its implementation, lecturers either suggest they should use a certain strategy or inform them about a concrete way and situation where to apply the learning strategy (Paris & Paris, 2001).

### **Research Problem**

In recent years, there have been numerous studies focusing on the metacognitive strategy in developing students' metacognitive skills in learning (Schellenberg, Negishi, & Eggen, 2011; Paulson & Bauber, 2011; Stewart, Seifert & Rolheiser, 2015; Milis, 2016). Several studies among them have explained explicitly how the metacognitive strategy can develop metacognitive skills, not yet defining how it can be used to teach other learning strategies. The metacognitive strategy is considered by some scholars as more salient in teaching a practice-based subject (Kistner, Rakoczy, Otto, Klieme & Büttner, 2015). The metacognitive strategy can be used to teach kinds of learning strategies to pre-service teachers, instead of only developing students' metacognition. This research aims at (1) exploring pre-service biology teachers' metacognitive skills during the learning process of learning strategy types using the metacognitive strategy, (2) measuring the improvement of pre-service teachers' knowledge related to learning strategies in the pre- and

post-learning process using the metacognitive strategy, and (3) describing pre-service teachers' responses at the end of the meetings.

### **Research Focus**

This research focuses on how to teach a particular learning strategy to pre-service biology teachers. The teaching and learning process, revealed in this research, uses the metacognitive strategy. Through its application, it does not merely teach the pre-service teachers learning models or methods, rather, it develops students' metacognitive skills. As a basic idea, this research aims to explore pre-service teachers' metacognitive skills during the teaching and learning process of kinds of learning strategies using the metacognitive strategy, to measure the increase in pre-service teachers' knowledge about learning strategies, and, also, to obtain their responses after the learning process ended.

## **Research Methodology**

### **Research General Background**

Metacognitive strategy-based research involves a theoretical review of learning strategies, modelling regarding ecosystem topics, and workshop of constructing learning tools oriented at learning strategies. In the learning process in the metacognitive strategy applied in this research consisted in asking students to write their schemata, write the acquired knowledge, and compare both. Moreover, students finally assessed their conceptual understanding. All data of students' metacognitive skills and knowledge improvement about learning strategy were analyzed using n-gain score, while students' responses were analyzed qualitatively in the form of description.

### **Research Sample**

The participants in the research were 25 pre-service biology teachers, who were in their second year of study and were enrolled in the Biology Department at Universitas Negeri Surabaya. Their age ranged from nineteen to twenty. They had already taken pedagogical courses such as Philosophy of Education, Learning Theory, Learning Media, and Process Assessment and Learning Outcomes. However, they had never had real classroom practice.

### **Data Collection and Analysis Methods**

The pre-service teachers' metacognitive skills were measured using a Self-understanding Evaluation Sheet (SUES), which consisted of three types, namely

SUES I, II, and III. The indicators of the evaluated metacognitive skills included determining the self-confidence level, comparing concepts, and determining scores. Each indicator was assessed using 1 to 4 score, as shown in Table 1.

**Table 1.** Scoring technique for metacognitive skills.

Indicators	Scores			
	1	2	3	4
Self-confidence Level	The answer was wrong, but she/he was confident that the answer was correct.	The answer was correct, but she/he was not confident that the answer was correct.	The answer was wrong, and she/he was not confident that the answer was correct.	The answer was correct, and she/he was confident that the answer was correct.
Comparing Concepts	There was a difference between the schemata and the new knowledge. Then, she/he stated that they were similar to one another.	There was no difference between the schemata and the new knowledge. Then, she/he stated that they were different from one another.	There was a difference between the schemata and the new knowledge. Then, she/he stated that they were different from one another.	There was no difference between the schemata and the new knowledge. Then, she/he stated that they were similar to one another.
Determining scores	The difference between the scores given by the lecturer and the pre-service teachers' expectation was 10.	The difference between the scores given by the lecturer and the pre-service teachers' expectation was 8 to 10.	The difference between the scores given by the lecturer and the pre-service teachers' expectation was 4 to 7.	The difference between the scores given by the lecturer and the pre-service teachers' expectation was 0 to 3.

The pre-service teachers' learning strategies (LS) scores were given by the lecturer. There were five indicators in LS, namely explaining (1) the aims of LS application in the learning process, (2) various characteristics of LS, (3) basic theory of the LS-oriented learning process, (4) the characteristics of the LS learning process, and (5) steps of the learning process using LS. The tests were conducted twice, before and after the teaching and learning process using the metacognitive strategy. The pretest and posttest scores, then, were analyzed using n-gain. Afterwards, the obtained N-gain score was interpreted according to the criteria adopted from Hake (1999) as;  $0.7 \leq <g> \leq 1$ , categorized as high;  $0.3 \leq <g> < 0.7$ , categorized as middle; and  $0 \leq <g> < 0.3$ , categorized as low.

The responses to the metacognitive strategy were obtained from the checklist sheet given to the pre-service teachers, which consists of 12 questions and an

open comment. The pre-service teachers answered “Yes” if they agreed with the provided statements, and “No” if they disagreed with the given statements. Afterwards, the responses were analyzed using a descriptive qualitative approach.

The implementation of the metacognitive strategy was conducted in three phases. The first phase was in accordance with the theoretical review of learning strategies. In this phase, the pre-service biology teachers were familiarized with kinds of learning strategies, syntax, teacher behaviors in each phase, and characteristics of the material, which were relevant to the learning strategy. The second phase was modelling of a learning strategy in which the pre-service biology teachers observed the modelling of a learning strategy in ecosystem topics. The last phase was a workshop consisting in composing biology learning tools oriented towards learning strategy. The pre-service biology teachers planned the teaching and learning process regarding the topic relevant to the characteristics of a learning strategy. The pre-service biology teachers’ metacognitive skills were evaluated through their skills in determining the self-confidence level, comparing among concepts, and determining scores. The obtained data were in the form of metacognitive skills, which were recorded in SUES I, II, and III.

## Research Results

### Metacognitive Skills

The pre-service teachers’ metacognitive skills were assessed by calculating the average score of their skills in determining the self-confidence level, comparing concepts, and determining scores. Data was recorded three times in SUES I, II, and III. The results of SUES were categorized as shown in Figure 1.

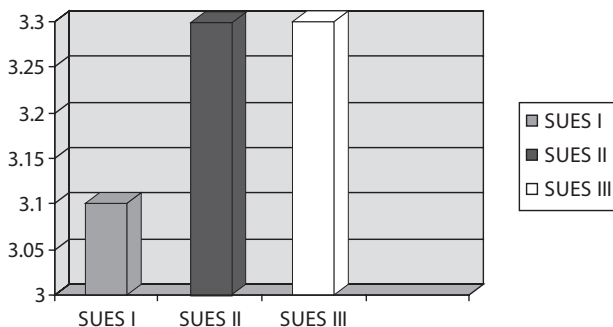


Figure 1. Comparison of scores obtained in SUES I, II, and III.

### Learning Strategies

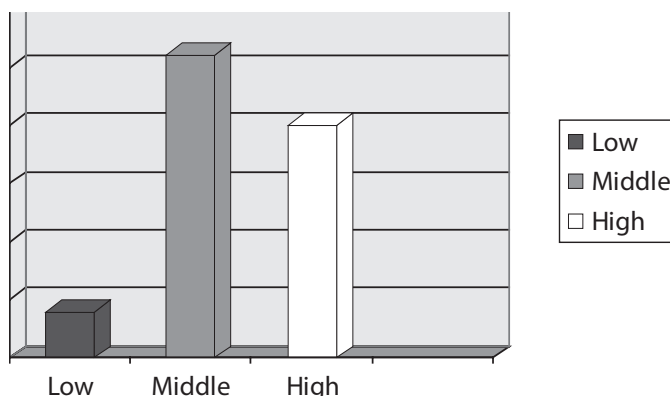
Improvement in the pre-service teachers' LS understanding was measured with the use of a test administered before and after the learning process, using the metacognitive strategy. The test covered five indicators. Table 2 shows each indicator completion percentages.

**Table 2.** Completion percentages of LS indicators

No.	Indicators	Completion (%)
1	Explaining the purpose of LS application in the learning process	96
2	Explaining various LS characteristics	64
3	Explaining the basic theory of learning oriented in LS	80
4	Explaining the characteristics of LS learning tools	64
5	Explaining learning steps using LS	78

Table 2 shows that the completion scores of each indicator are higher than 60%. The metacognitive strategy showed that the pre-service teachers can explain the purpose of applying LS in the learning process very well (96%), explain the characteristics of various LS (64%), explain the basic theory of the learning process oriented to LS very well (80%), explain the characteristics of LS learning tools well (64%) and explain the learning steps well (78%). This data could show how the metacognitive strategy helped the students in understanding and learning a particular learning strategy.

The results of n-gain scores from the pretest and posttest given to the pre-service teachers also indicated that the knowledge of LS increased. There were three



**Figure 2.** N-gain scores: Pretest and post-test of pre-service biology teachers' metacognitive skills.

categories of different levels of improvement, namely low, middle, and high. In this research, the n-gain scores obtained from 25 pre-service biology teachers were 8% (categorized in low level), 52% (categorized in middle level), and 40% (categorized in high level) (cf., Figure 2).

### **Pre-service Biology Teachers' Responses**

Generally, all the pre-service biology teachers gave a positive response to the metacognitive strategy-based learning process. Most of them stated that the learning process using the metacognitive strategy helped to find a salient concept. Through the use of SUES, they could assess independently the understanding of the concept of LS. During the learning process, they were confident in admitting that their schemata were wrong. The statements that have the highest score are described as follows.

*Statement 1: SUES helps to discover a prominent concept of LS.* The pre-service teachers argued that SUES can help them in finding essential concepts during the teaching and learning process in both individual or group work. P1 argued, "LS learning process using the metacognitive strategy is attractive and makes students independent." P2 stated, "LS learning process is far from boring as students can share knowledge among group members." Moreover, P3 added, "SUES helps me in determining prominent concepts of what to learn, so that it can be applied in the learning process, especially in a certain material that promotes most misconceptions."

*Statement 2: Students can conduct self-assessment regarding the understanding of the LS concept by using SUES.* Some pre-service teachers argued that SUES indirectly helps them in assessing their understanding. Using SUES, they are actively involved in the learning process so that they can get a new knowledge and find differences between the new concepts and schemata. P4 said, "The LS learning process with the metacognitive strategy using SUES can help me assess my understanding about a particular concept. Moreover, it can also help me to know my ability before and after the learning process." P5 added, "The LS learning process tends to be more directed so that I can notice my fault directly and it gives me feedback. Then, I get a new knowledge of a learning strategy, namely metacognitive strategy, which I can apply."

*Statement 3: SUES trains us to be honest.* Based on the results of the questionnaire administered, 100% of the pre-service teachers stated that SUES can help them to promote honesty. This fact is supported by 92% of the pre-service teachers who are confident to admit that their schemata is incorrect. P6 stated, "By being honest and confident of admitting misconceptions, it helps me to know my initial and final potentials after the learning process."



## **Discussion**

This research shows that the metacognitive strategy can help pre-service teachers in understanding learning strategies. This result indicates that the pre-service teachers' metacognitive skills can be explored with the use of the metacognitive strategy. The metacognitive strategy is assessed based on three indicators, namely determining the self-confidence level, comparing concepts, and determining scores using SUES. During the assessment of the pre-service teachers, some interesting findings related to indicators were revealed after they had been taught about LS through the metacognitive strategy. The pre-service teachers' capability of evaluating themselves, determining scores decreased at each meeting, whereas there was an increase in comparing concepts in the last SUES application. The students' self-evaluation results can give teachers a lot of important information about how well the students understand the tasks and how this information can improve the teaching and learning process (Montgomery, 2000). The improvement indicator in comparing concepts is relevant to the research conducted by Ozsoy & Ataman (2009), in which the steps in the metacognitive strategy may help the pre-service teachers to achieve the highest cognitive process and to find good solutions, to train to connect the previous with the recent information. The steps of the learning procedure in applying the metacognitive strategy in this research were the following: the students were asked to (1) write their schemata or previous knowledge, (2) write their recently acquired or new knowledge, (3) compare both, and (4) self-assess their concept understanding.

The test results of LS of each assessment show that the metacognitive learning strategy can help pre-service teachers to promote their pedagogical skills directly. Wilson & Bai (2010) explained that metacognitive knowledge had a significant metacognitive influence on the pedagogical understanding of metacognition. Their results show that teachers who have a good understanding of metacognition still need to possess the metacognitive concept and strategy to make students understand metacognition well. It shows the rationale of learning strategies taught with the use of the metacognitive strategy. LS is taught to make the pre-service teachers become good future teachers and reflective and critical thinkers. The improvement of LS completion is indicated through the increase in the pre-service teachers' N-gain scores. Both indicators of explaining the characteristics of various LS and the learning tools show the two lowest completion scores compared to others. Based on the students' response, it can be seen that it is important to provide students with intensive assistance, for them to understand various LS and their application in developing an appropriate learning tool regarding the used LS. The

metacognitive strategy-based learning process, generally, gets a positive response from the pre-service teachers. Most of them stated that the learning process using the metacognitive strategy helped them to find a salient concept. Through the use of SUES, they could assess independently their understanding of the concept of LS. During the learning process, they were confident in admitting that their schemata were wrong. They further argued that the metacognitive strategy could be implemented in some materials in which there are often misconceptions and help them in patterning materials for determining an appropriate learning strategy.

## **Conclusions**

Overall, this research suggests that the metacognitive strategy can be used to teach other learning strategies to develop students' metacognitive skills. Students who have a knowledge related to learning strategies can determine a relevant strategy to learn materials precisely. There is a question found in the field regarding the implementation of this learning strategy, whether the metacognitive skills are indeed being demonstrated during the teaching and learning process. In accordance with that problem, it is important to further cooperate with teacher training centers to implement the metacognitive strategy in pedagogy as continuous efforts in advancing the implementation of learning strategies.

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**Special  
Pedagogy**



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Jordan

## Issues of Children with Disabilities as Reflected in the Jordanian Media from their Parents' Perception: A SWOT Analysis

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### Abstract

A SWOT study was conducted to analyze parents' perspective on the degree to which Jordanian media covers issues of children with disabilities; the study sample consisted of 129 parents. The researchers constructed a scale consisting of 28 items; furthermore, validity and reliability coefficients of the scale were extracted. Results showed a moderate level of media coverage regarding issues of children with disabilities; social media was given the highest rating followed by visual and audio media, and lastly print media such as newspapers and magazines. However, the majority of media coverage addressed physical and health issues and communicative disorders. Finally, recommendations to improve practices were provided.

**Keywords:** *issues of children with disabilities, Jordanian media, SWOT Model, special education*

### Introduction

Media information is presented in many forms, which are very diverse and aimed at addressing all facets of society including education, culture, health, sports, politics, economics, and disability in particular (Ellis & Goggin, 2015; Ellis & Kent, 2011; Haller et al., 2012) The wide range of media topics and categories of information raises many questions about the delivery of media messages and the

extent of coverage for various topics and issues (O'Shaughnessy & Stadler, 2012; Perse & Lambe, 2016). Furthermore, questions are raised about the impact on those who follow media coverage in terms of increasing awareness or influencing new trends; these questions are of particular concern for families of children with disabilities (Briant, Watson, & Philo, 2013; Sarrett, 2011; Zhang & Haller, 2013).

### **Media Coverage of People with Disability**

Since the 1970s, media in the United States has increasingly focused on issues related to individuals with disabilities in response to organizations that have undertaken efforts to defend the rights of disabled individuals and promote equal opportunities despite a person's disability (Haller, Dorries, & Rahn, 2006). For example, the medical profiling and negligence towards women with disabilities in sports has reinforced concerns about the stereotypes and preoccupation with physical disabilities (Pirofski, 2001; Thomas & Smith, 2003).

There are two models of media coverage concerning children with disabilities. The first model is a medical model that takes the traditional perspective of challenging disabled persons to enhance their performance and make accomplishments despite the person's disability (Chen, Hsu, Shu, & Fetzer, 2012). The second model is depicting disabled individuals as minorities in society who deserve for their rights and interests to be advocated as well as the model of promoting cultural diversity and fostering positive and progressive perceptions of disabled individuals and their concerns (Matthews, 2009; Oliver, 2013).

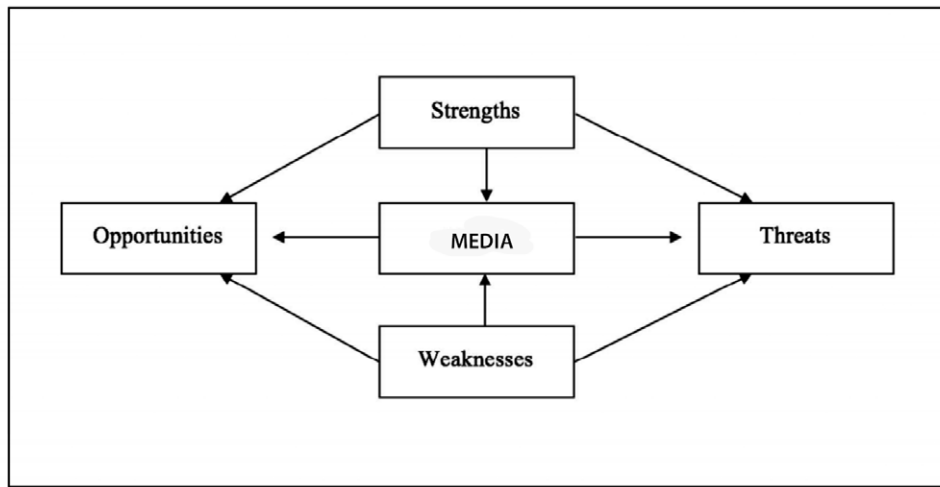
In analyzing the perceptions of persons with disabilities in printed media, Inimah, Ndeti, and Mukulu (2014) conducted a study on how persons with disabilities are presented in Kenyan publications. The study sample consisted of 70 persons with disabilities in seven organizations. The study results showed that the print media presented disabled persons in a negative light as a burden on society and as a segment of the population that is sorrowful and in need of sympathy. The results showed that 14.2% of the sample felt that the media was fair, and 42.8% felt that the media organizations were biased against them.

In the Arab culture, the majority of media coverage about individuals with disabilities is limited and superficial; media reports and broadcasting focus on charitable donations and philanthropy for disabled persons, but does not address the practical issues, daily problems, or inalienable rights of disabled persons and their families (Al-Gosaibi, 2007). Moreover, there is a shortage of disability image presented by the Arab drama. People with disabilities were presented with a stereotype of weakness, who deserve empathy, or they were presented as a subject of abuse and neglect (Abu Salha, 2011).



### Conceptual Framework

SWOT (Strengths, Weaknesses, Opportunities and Threats) is an analysis method and decision-making tool suggested in 1971 by Ken Andrews in the management field (Görener, Toker, & Uluçay, 2012; Ying, 2010). Even though the SWOT model is a management framework, 5.3 % of the studies that used the SWOT model were in the education field (Ghazinoory, Abdi, & Azadegan-Mehr, 2011). For example, SWOT analysis was used to identify internal and external factors that affect deaf bilingual education in Spain (Munoz-Baell, Alvarez-Dardet, RuizCantero, Ferreiro-Lago, & Aroca-Fernandez, 2011). In this study, the researchers built a scale to identify the issues of children with disabilities as presented in the Jordanian media and its possibility to increase positive or negative perceptions that might be devolved by parents. The researchers created a SWOT framework based on the following factors. Strengths: issues that are presented in a positive way in the Jordanian Media. Weaknesses: issues that are presented in a negative effect in the Jordanian Media Opportunities: Content that may have a positive effect perceived by parents. Threats: content that may have a negative effect perceived by parents. (Figure 1)



**Figure 1.** SWOT Analysis Model for Issues of Children with Disabilities in Jordanian Media

### **Study Rationale**

In consideration of the foregoing statements, this study is intended to pinpoint the realistic perspective and interests of parents who follow Jordanian media about the issues that affect children with disabilities. Undoubtedly, those parents are particularly concerned and have emotionally invested in public awareness, widespread publications, expert opinions, and other informational materials regarding the afflictions of children with disabilities. Hence, this study aims to clearly identify the parents' perspective of the quantity and quality of Jordanian media coverage regarding children with disabilities using a SWOT analysis. Furthermore, the goal of this study was to rank the various forms of media (social, audio, visual, and print) in order of the extent to which disability issues are covered in each method.

The importance of this study is two-fold in that it addresses the theoretical and practical aspects of the subject matter. In the theoretical aspect, the purpose of this study is to distinguish how parents of disabled children perceive the various forms of Jordanian media coverage about children with disabilities as compared to the perceptions of media broadcasts by other segments or members of society. The theoretical aspect of this study is significant because it is the first investigation into Jordanian media – and one of the rare Arab studies – that addresses media coverage of children with disabilities from the viewpoints of parents whose children are disabled. In the practical aspect, this study is intended to present meaningful results that will serve as a basic foundation for re-shaping current media practices and guiding future media policies for producing and broadcasting information that meets the needs and desires of families with disabled children. Furthermore, this study is also important in providing a reference to assess the role of Jordanian media in covering and addressing the issues of children with disabilities.

## **Research Methodology**

### **Research Sample**

The study sample consisted of 129 parents (66 females and 63 males) randomly selected from the families of disabled persons who are enrolled at special education centers in Zarqa Governorate in Jordan.

### **Instrument and Procedures**

To achieve the objective of the study, the researchers designed the study to consist of 28 measurements divided into four categories representing the dimensions of the SWOT model (strengths, weaknesses, opportunities, and threats). The

measurement data was gathered by allowing the participants to answer questions or provide responses according to the degrees of the Likert Scale (1–5).

**Data Analysis**

The validity of the study was verified by a review panel of qualified arbitrators as well as parents of disabled children. Eight of the arbitrators were faculty members of Hashemite University, who were subject matter experts and followed media coverage pertaining to the issues of children with disabilities. There were nine parents on the panel, each of whom had a least one child afflicted with a disability. The parents reviewed the initial draft of the study—which comprised 35 measurements—to ascertain the applicability of the measurements to the study’s objective, the clarity of the questions and statements, and the validity of the study’s content. The output and feedback from the review panel yielded an 80% consensus that the measurements were well-aligned and appropriate for the purpose of the study; the remaining 20% recommended rewording the questions and statements to be more concise and observed that some measurements were duplicated or inherently implied in other paragraphs. Taking into account the recommendations and observations of the review panel, the study was modified and resulted in 28 points of measurement, which represented the four dimensions of the SWOT analysis model with seven measurements per dimension. The degree of correlation between each measurement and its associated SWOT dimension is shown in Table 1.

**Table 1.** Internal consistency coefficient of the scale’s dimensions

Indicators	Strength	Weakness	Opportunities	Threat
Total	0.586**	0.300-	0.927**	0.439**

The Cronbach Alpha equation was used to calculate the stability of the study instrument. The results of the analysis showed appropriate degrees of stability of the instrument, based on the performance of 40 parents outside the sample of the study. As shown in Table 2, the values are suitable for the purposes of the study.

**Table 2.** Cronbach alpha equation of the scale’s dimensions

Indicators	Strength	Weakness	Opportunities	Threat	Total
Reliability coefficient	%89	%76	%74	%78	%71

## Research Results

The results showed an average SWOT analysis score of 3.41 for Jordanian media coverage of children with disabilities. As shown in Table 3, the scores for each index were 3.20, 3.73, 2.97, and 3.74 for strengths, weaknesses, opportunities, and threats, respectively.

**Table 3.** Averages and standard deviations of the study responses in correlation to SWOT analysis

Indicator	Mean	Standard Deviation	Media Coverage	Rank
Strength	3.30	0.510	L	3
Weakness	3.73	0.454	H	2
Opportunities	2.97	0.572	M	4
Threat	3.74	0.362	H	1
<b>Total Scale</b>	<b>3.41</b>	<b>1.104</b>	<b>M</b>	

Note: L: Low. H: high. M: Medium

### Strengths Index

As shown in Table 4, the degree of the Jordanian media coverage pertaining to issues of children with disabilities was moderate in correlation to the strength index. The highest ranked measurement was “The media provides me with the causes of disability in my child” under the section “Other Matters and Success Stories for Children with Disabilities”.

**Table 4.** Averages and standard deviations of the study responses in correlation to strengths

No.	Rank	Survey	M	SD	Media Coverage
1	4	The media provides me with the causes of disability	3.88	0.680	H
2	5	The media informs me of the problems facing my child and children with disabilities	3.62	0.801	M
3	3	The media tells me the future of my child's disability.	3.49	0.781	M
4	1	The media informs me about the categories and characteristics of individuals with disabilities.	3.48	0.638	M

No.	Rank	Survey	M	SD	Media Coverage
5	6	The media treats my needs as a family with a child with disabilities and guides me to the sources of support that I can use.	3.07	0.871	M
6	2	The media provides me with the best and most successful ways to deal with my children with disabilities.	2.77	0.602	M
7	7	The media provides me with social support by presenting experiences of other parents and success stories of children with disabilities.	2.05	0.822	L
<b>Total</b>			3.20	0.510	L

### Weaknesses Index

As shown in Table 5, the degree of Jordanian media coverage pertaining to issues of children with disabilities was relatively high in correlation to the weaknesses index. The highest ranked measurement was “The media does not show me when I present the issues of children with disabilities where I provide the service I need or access”, and the lowest ranked measurement was “Persons with disabilities are closer to compassion or charitable work”.

**Table 5.** Averages and standard deviations of the study responses in correlation to the weaknesses

No.	Rank	Survey	M	SD	Media Coverage
1	14	The media does not provides me with places or locations that provide disabilities services	4.13	1.102	H
2	10	The media presents information related to disability in a superficial and traditional manner that is not dealt with in depth and in keeping with modernity in the presentation.	4.03	0.683	H
3	13	I believe that putting the issues of people with disabilities in the media just in order to fill a media space with no quality of the content.	3.98	0.695	H
4	8	The media is repeating the same issues concerning children with disabilities in a way that does not motivate me to follow up.	3.75	0.810	H

No.	Rank	Survey	M	SD	Media Coverage
5	11	The media does not adequately answer the questions that concern me and my children with disabilities, such as assessment, diagnosis, behavior modification, rehabilitation and integration opportunities, etc.	3.60	0.654	M
6	12	I see that some of the disability-related issues in the media are not applicable or can't be applied	3.43	0.934	M
7	9	The media presents children with disabilities more closely to compassion, kindness or philanthropy.	3.19	0.829	L
<b>Total</b>			3.73	0.454	H

### Opportunities Index

As shown in Table 6, the degree of the Jordanian media coverage pertaining to issues of children with disabilities was moderate in correlation to the opportunities index. The highest ranked measurement was “The media provides me with opportunities to identify the needs of my child with disabilities and my needs as a family”, and the lowest ranked measurement was “The media allows me to identify national and international efforts of organizations in various institutions for the benefit of children with disabilities”.

**Table 6.** Averages and standard deviations of the study responses in correlation to opportunities

No.	Rank	Survey	M	SD	Media Coverage
1	16	The media gives me opportunities to recognize the nature of my children's needs and my family's needs.	3.57	0.864	M
2	15	The media provides me with opportunities to identify early intervention methods for disability and prevention methods to prevent their future occurrence.	3.47	0.857	M
3	17	The media provides me with opportunities to identify the nature of the educational, health, social, psychological and support services that can be provided to my children with disabilities.	3.30	0.834	M
4	20	The media gives me opportunities to recognize the potential impact of disability on my child's development.	2.84	0.754	M
5	21	The media lets me know my child's personal, professional and social future and what he/she can do.	2.72	0.695	M

No.	Rank	Survey	M	SD	Media Coverage
6	19	The media provides me with opportunities to familiarize myself with the laws, legislation and rights of my children with disabilities.	2.55	0.865	M
7	18	The media provides me with opportunities to identify national and international efforts in various institutions for children with disabilities.	2.37	0.707	M
<b>Total</b>			2.97	0.572	M

### Threats Index

As shown in Table 7, the degree of the Jordanian media coverage pertaining to issues of children with disabilities was moderate in correlation to the threats index. The highest ranked measurement was “I see that the information space for presenting children’s issues is not devoted to their issues”, and the lowest ranked measurement was “I believe that disability-oriented information is seasonal in the sense that it addresses issues of persons with disabilities on specific days or days of the world “.

**Table 7.** Averages and standard deviations of the study responses in correlation to threats

No.	Rank	Survey	M	SD	Media Coverage
1	24	The information space presenting children with disabilities issues is not dedicated to their issues; only paragraphs within programs or columns within pages are included.	4.41	0.767	H
2	28	The lack of media in dealing with modern trends in the field of disability, especially those associated with the disability of my child as self-determination.	3.94	0.753	H
3	22	I see that media attention to the issues of children with disabilities is limited to specific categories of people with disabilities, such as the cases of the Sun drum and autism.	3.92	0.766	H
4	26	The media simply presents theoretical scientific knowledge in the field of disability without dealing with practical experience.	3.74	0.576	H

No.	Rank	Survey	M	SD	Media Coverage
5	25	The characteristics of the media space do not match the specificity of the issues of children with disabilities. In the visual media, it is an example that is often presented in the morning and can't be followed up.	3.65	1.24	M
6	27	The media only presents specific aspects of issues of children with disabilities, such as medical aspects, as an example and does not expand to cover other aspects.	3.50	0.697	M
7	23	I feel that the media oriented towards people with disabilities is seasonal in the sense that it cares about the issues of people with disabilities on specific days or on global days.	3.04	0.818	M
<b>Total</b>			3.74	0.362	H

As shown in Table 8, the most important forms of media coverage pertaining to the issues of children with disabilities are electronic media (41%), visual media (31%), audio media (16%), and reading media (12%).

**Table 8.** Distribution of media types frequency

Variable	Variable Alternatives	Frequency	Percentage
<b>Media</b>	Electronic media	53	41
	Visual media	40	31
	Audiovisual media	21	16
	Readable media	15	12
<b>Total</b>		129	100

As shown in Table 9, the results indicated that the most prevalent media coverage pertaining to children with disabilities addressed physical and health disabilities related to medical treatment (25%), autism (16%), learning disabilities (15%), mental disability (13%), behavioral and emotional disorders (11%), and hearing disabilities (9%), visual impairments (7%), and communicative disorders (4%).

**Table 9.** Most prevalent disability topics by frequency of media coverage

Variable	Variable Alternatives	Frequency	Percentage
<b>Disability category</b>	Physical and health disabilities	32	25
	Autism	21	16
	Learning difficulties	19	15



Variable	Variable Alternatives	Frequency	Percentage
Disability category	Mental handicap	17	13
	Behavioral and emotional disorders	14	11
	Hearing disabilities	12	9
	Visual disabilities	9	7
	Communication disorders	5	4
	<b>Total</b>	129	100

## **Discussion**

Limitations of media coverage for disability issues, especially those related to the causes of disability, are evident. It is important to focus attention on the causes of disability in order to raise awareness, guide public opinion, and foster understanding about the root of disability issues. However, media attention shows the nature of the services needed by children with disabilities and their families and provides information on the places of service delivery that may be part of the promotion of media and marketing places of service and this is what the various media are keen to avoid. Additionally, it shows change in the perception of individuals with disabilities in general, being no different from individuals without disabilities. This may be the reason for the interest of different media outlets to view the nature of the services needed by children with disabilities and their families to be able to meet or access. Regarding the various forms of media, electronic publications have become the most prevalent and widely used medium in society compared to other forms of media. The lack of interest and low ranking of print media is due to the low demand for reading materials and the substandard presentation of issues pertaining to children with disabilities.

The high percentage of physical and health disability topics covered in the media is due to the numerous cases, prevalence of concerns or questions, and variety of conditions such as neurological disorders, musculoskeletal problems, and most recently communicative disorders. The media space devoted to the issues of people with disabilities, who seek media in different forms to cover the topics of the most interested segments of society, which pose vague questions and many urgent ones, but there is little question about these disorders compared to other disability categories

## **Conclusions**

In the light of the study findings, the researchers give the following recommendations to improve the coverage of disability issues in Jordanian media:

1. Conduct scientific research in the field of disability and further studies to identify the issues of families with disabled children as well as the children's needs.
2. Identify the perceptions of disability as reflected in the media and attitudes of Jordanian society towards children with disabilities and their various issues.
3. Urge the media to play a more significant role in raising public awareness about the issues of individuals with disabilities especially in cases where indicators of weaknesses or threats have emerged according to the results of the study
4. Devote greater attention to covering all the topics and issues regarding various forms of disability.
5. Develop informative programs aimed at the issues of children with disabilities such as specialized studies that address the issues and meet the information needs of persons who are interested in disability topics.

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# The Quality of Life of Pupils with Autism Spectrum Disorders – Comparative Research on Mainstream Integrated Education and Special Education Institutions in Poland

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## Abstract

The article attempts to analyse the issue of students with autism spectrum disorders who attend two types of educational institutions – integrated classes in mainstream state school and special education institutions with separate classes for students with autism. Popularity and availability more often than effectiveness affect the choice of an educational institution. Parents' decisions may also stem from lack of awareness of the scope of educational activities conducted in each institution. One of the measures of educational success is the evaluation of the quality of life in certain spheres of students' lives.

*Keywords: autism spectrum disorders, quality of life, education system*

## 1. Introduction – autism and the quality of life

The phenomenon of researching the quality of life was initiated by Martin E.P. Seligman, who started to change the approach to this problem. According to Seligman, it is important to create what is best rather than correcting the worst in life (M.E.P. Seligman, 2000, pp. 415–422). As suggested in a number of studies (e.g., C. Ching, T. Mei-Hui, S. Jeng-Yi, 2014), it is vital to take it into consideration in care and educational activities, as well as when checking the potential happiness as an element of personal well-being. David Lykken pointed out that personal

well-being is shaped by biological factors (genetics) but within broad limits an individual can make choices instead of letting genetics take over (D. Lykken, 1999; J Broadbent, I. Galic, , & M.A.Stokes, 2013).

These considerations are especially important for people with perception disorders entering the social environment or interaction. Autism spectrum disorder (autism earlier – classifications of the DSM 5, or infantile autism – ICD) is characterized mainly by communication difficulties (ranging from restrictions to complete impossibility), and entering social interaction. The main features of autism are empathic disorders (G. Golarai, K. Grill-Spector, A.L. Reissa, 2006, pp. 145–160; M. Uljarevic, A. Hamilton, 2012; M.. Chowdhury, B.A. Benson, A. Hillier, 2010), perception disorders, problems with transferring emotions (M. Claude, B.A. Bertone, 2016, pp. 115; R.T. Schultz, 2005, pp. 125–41; K. Gillespie-Lynch, et al., 2012) and thus inadequate perception of the social situation. These specific symptoms, often referred to as the autism triad of impairments (e.g., J. Gould, Wing, 1979; U. Frith, 2014), are relevant for the perception of children diagnosed with autism spectrum disorders (according to the latest DSM 5 approach). Audrey F. Burgess and Steven E. Gutstein (2007, pp. 58–1040) have identified indicators that increase the QoL level of autistic people. Results of research conducted mainly on adult individuals showed that they experience a lower quality of life compared to others (Barbara F. C van Heijst, Hilde M Geurts, 2014, pp. 158–167). By conducting a deeper analysis of the functioning of people with autism spectrum disorders, it is important to consider their quality of life and the impact of the education system they were influenced by. In the case of education for people with disabilities, in most countries there is an eclectic, mixed-segregation system with a focus on social inclusion. The main factor influencing the development of social skills is the ability to imitate, which, depending on the adopted systemic solutions, takes place through modelling on the behaviour of peers and adults or is limited to the therapeutic effect system – the introduction of the family environment into the therapy system

Research on the quality of life of children and adolescents with autism, which the author has been running for many years (J.J. Błeszyński, M. Orłowska, 2016a), initially encountered mistrust of the environment. This was mainly due to the approach of people with a diagnosis of autism spectrum disorders as degrading consciousness and self-determination. Comparative studies conducted in the group of students with intellectual disabilities of varying degrees (mild, moderate, severe) and then in the group of students with autism changed the view of the problem and social acceptance of these individuals (J.J. Błeszyński, M. Orłowska, 2016a; J.J. Błeszyński, M. Orłowska, 2016b).

Based on the grant obtained by the author's home university – Nicolas Copernicus University in Toruń (WNP-169), an attempt was made to analyse the quality of life of students involved in integrated schools and special education institutions, assuming that the main distinguishing feature is the availability of peer contacts and thus increased self-determination in decisions about entering social interaction.

## **1. Theoretical assumptions**

In this study, the author's research is based on R. Cummins' ecological theory (R.A. Cummins, E. Gullone, D.A.L. Lau, 2002). The research concerned the perception of the quality of life and was conducted in cooperation with Deakin University in Australia. In the design, the issue of the quality of life was recognized subjectively and objectively, which allowed for making wider analyses and comparisons. The analyses included variables related to occurring and co-occurring disorders and recordings of statements of the surveyed subjects. Extensive material allowed for presenting some of the most representative or specific results against a larger group, which is the value of the research and the subsequent analysis.

The research used 7 questions (Personal Wellbeing Index – Intellectual Disability 3rd Edition – Robert A. Cummins, Anna L.D. Lau, 2005) on the main spheres influencing the quality of life measured by respondents alone, with support or alternative communication, using symbols (emoticons, Makaton or Bliss System). In some cases, transcripts of the statements that were given during the survey was made additionally or instead of marking the chosen answers.

The study took into account the prevalence of disability in children as well as the age and level of development. With the consent of the University of Deakin in Australia and after obtaining the right to conduct research in Poland (the author's study was qualified as coordinating research), the researcher translated and adapted the test to the Polish environment.

## **2. Methods**

### **2.1. Subjects**

The study included students from two mainstream state schools and two educational institutions (where students with a type of disability are placed with parental consent) with an option of boarding for pupils diagnosed with autism spectrum

disorders, randomly selected in northern Poland. The chosen institutions are education and care centres, working according to the Polish education system, with the same core curriculum but organised in different manner and working at different levels of intensity. In mainstream state schools (in which most classes are organized with / for children diagnosed with autism spectrum disorders), groups were composed of children with different development disorders (on average in a class there were about 8 students) and various working methods were used. However, in the educational institutions attended by children with autism, work was often carried out in the model: three children and a therapist – but there were also team activities (groups were mainly composed of the wards of the resort) and the dominant method of work was cognitive behaviourism.

In total, 58 students (9 girls and 49 boys) were surveyed and they completed questionnaires and 23 students (2 girls and 21 boys) were interviewed. The students had not been diagnosed with multiple disorders. The study group ranged in age from 8 to 26 years. The students attended elementary, middle and vocational schools.

## **2.2. Ethical considerations**

The research was carried out under the grant of the Faculty of Education of Nicolas Copernicus University in Toruń (WNP-169). The first step was to obtain the consent of legal guardians for the participation of their children and adolescents in the study. Subsequently, the respondents were informed about the purpose of the research, the degree of communicativeness and the extent of knowingly giving answers (that was the first question) were determined, then the research was conducted.

## **2.3. Measures and organization of the research**

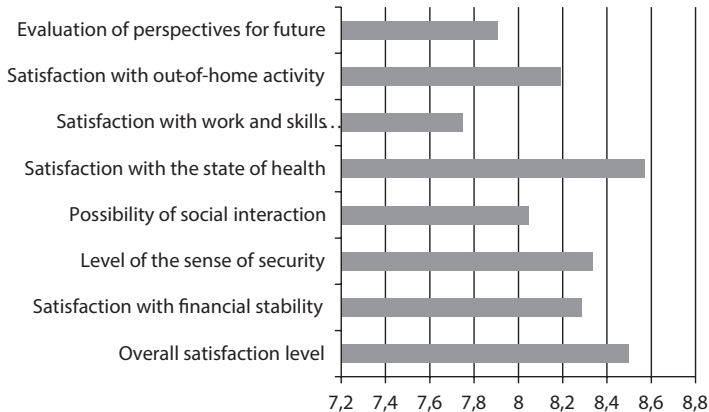
The study was conducted on a one-off basis, depending on communication possibilities, by presenting a list of questions, reading questions or using an alternative communication system. The study included 2 state schools with integrated classes and 2 educational centres with classes for children with autism spectrum disorders (in which classes were held only with the children with diagnosed autism).

The study was conducted in May and June 2017 as an integral study of perceptions of the quality of life of people with disabilities. The examination of each student lasted an average of 10–20 minutes.

### 3. Research results

#### 3.1 The quality of life of (as chosen by) students with autism spectrum disorders

After setting appointments with the school head teachers, the study was conducted according to the schedule. In the case of 23 students, it was necessary to conduct qualitative research in the form of an interview, which further enriched the research results. In the case of the overall evaluation of the quality of life, regardless of sex and school, the highest results were (in order) in the evaluation of the sense of security and financial satisfaction and the prospects for future life. The lowest results were obtained in assessing the possibilities for interaction and satisfaction with the activities performed outside the home.



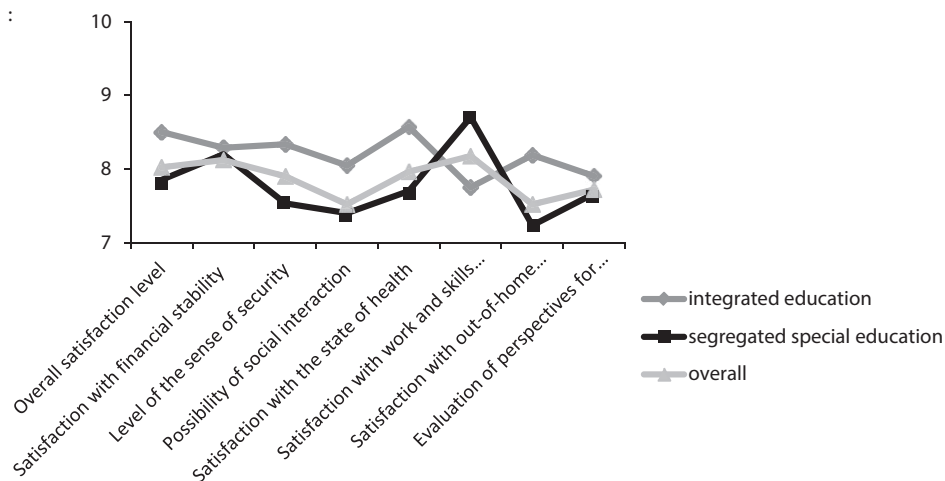
**Figure 1.** The quality of life of (as chosen by) pupils with autism spectrum disorders.

Source: own research

It can be said that the stages of education are an important element of the introduction to society as well as the acquisition of interpersonal skills, shaping a positive perspective on the further acquisition of social skills, above all, being and performing various social roles.

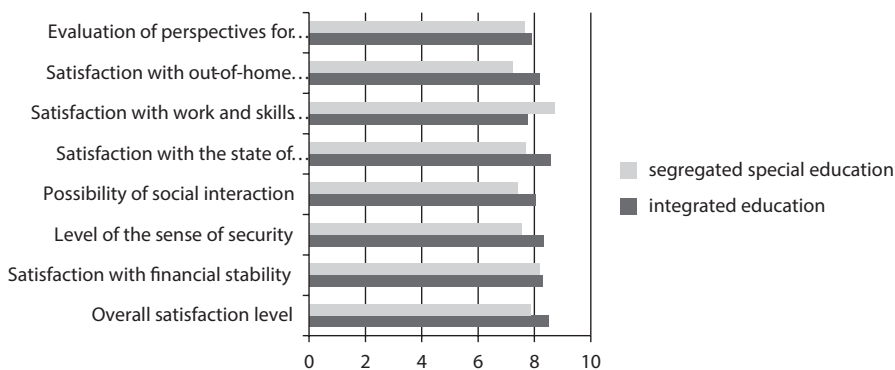
It should be noted that all the participants' responses indicated a high degree of satisfaction (above 7.5), which suggests that the percentage value of satisfaction with the quality of life of the students with autism spectrum disorders indicates their satisfaction with life.





**Figure 2.** The quality of life of (as chosen by) students with autism spectrum disorders- overall results [N=57]  
Source: own research.

Another element of the presented analyses was the diversification of the obtained average results by the education system, and above all the verification if being among peers while learning in state mainstream schools has its values presented in the obtained results of the survey of the quality of life.



**Figure 3.** The quality of life of (as chosen by) students with autism spectrum disorders learning in special educational institutions (segregation) [N=37] and in state mainstream schools with integrated classes (integration) [N=21]  
Source: own research.

The results obtained indicate that changes must be made to the outlook on needs and actions in the education systems. The most similar results in both groups are (average results and differences are shown in brackets):

- satisfaction with the material level (S = 8.2 and I = 8.3 –difference 0.1);
- evaluation of future perspectives (S = 7.7 and I = 7.9 – difference -0.2).

The biggest differences related to:

- satisfaction with out-of-home activity (S = 8.2 and I = 7.2 – difference 1.0);
- satisfaction with work and skills acquired (S = 8.6 and I = 7.7 – difference of 0.9);
- satisfaction with the state of health (S = 8.3 and I = 7.5 – difference of 0.8);
- overall satisfaction level (S = 8.5 and I = 7.9 – difference of 0.6);
- possibility of social interaction (S = 8 and I = 7.4 – difference of 0.6);

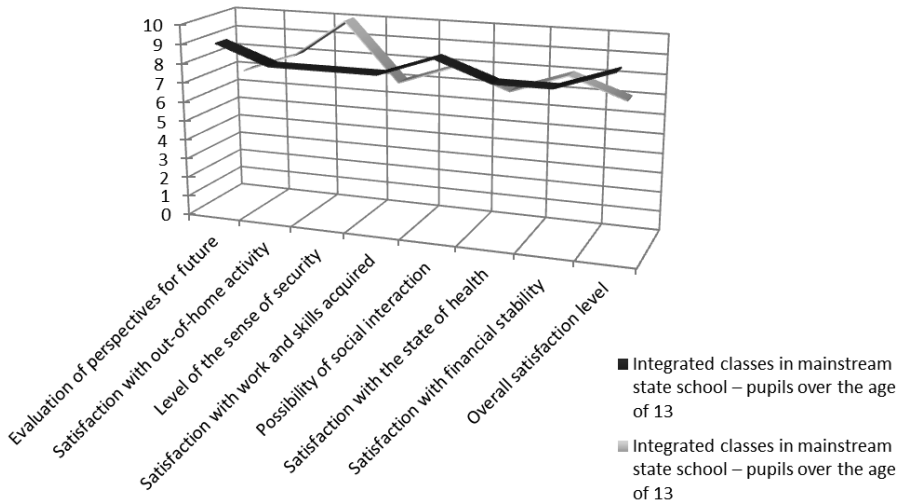
and in the opposite correlation:

- sense of security (S = 7.8 and I = 8.7 – difference -0.9);

After analyzing the results obtained, it can be stated that integrated education, in addition to the sense of security, in all the examined areas indicates a higher level of satisfaction with the quality of life of the ASD students.

### 3.2. Quality of life at different stages of education

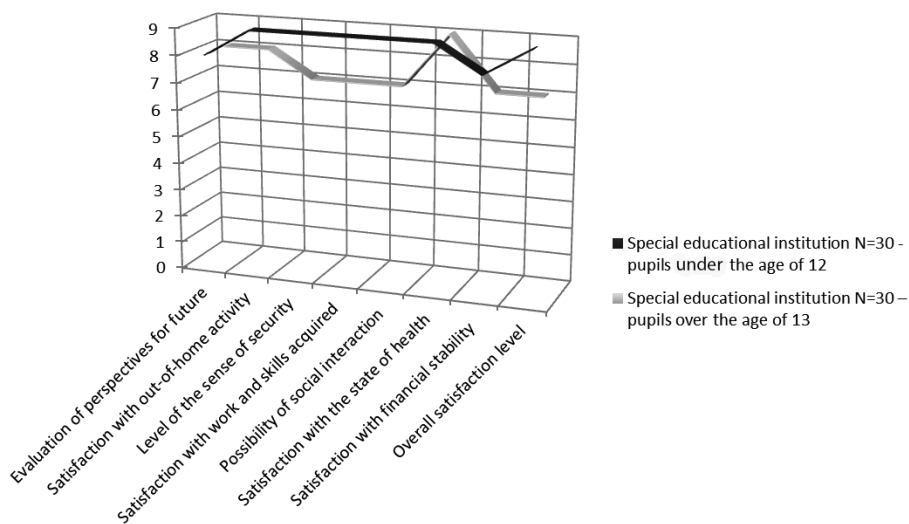
Average results in the timetable are interesting when presented at different educational stages.



**Figure 4.** Results at different stages of education – state mainstream schools with integrated classes [N=21]

Source: own research.

In the case of the presented studies, it can be concluded that in integrated education there is an increase in the results relating to health state assessment connected with age, but less satisfaction of the respondents with their work, skills and their perspectives.



**Figure 5.** Results at different stages of education – special educational and care institutions [N=37]

Source: own research.

In the case of segregated education, the quality of life (financial satisfaction, satisfaction with the state of health, with the possibility of interaction, with work and skills acquired, evaluation of future perspectives) are lowered with age, and the level of satisfaction with safety is increased. The level of satisfaction with out-of-home activities remains unchanged.

Although the results of the data obtained are high (above 7 in 10 points), there are differences that are undoubtedly visible due to access to extended social interactions, which may be the consequence of the place of residence (because of the zoning of integration education, which is not the case with special education).

#### **4. Discussion and conclusions**

The study was conducted on a small number of subjects ( $N = 58$ ). However, the study group consisted only of ASD students without multiple disabilities. The possibility to conduct the research as well as obtain the required consent to carry it out (especially diagnosis and interviewing) was a serious constraint, but the author was not refused either by the tutors or the teachers.

In this study, the students gave answers very objectively and appropriately to the questions asked. Quite frequent inquisitiveness and perspective drew the attention of the researchers.

In response to the last question about the prospect of further life, the younger students talked about their specific professional dreams and the near future (e.g., "I will be a firefighter. I will go to Croatia for holidays, I will be with my parents, we will go to the sea-side, I will have to study and work hard. I do not know what I will do in the future"). The older students' statements were characterized by more general assertions and awareness of support (e.g., "It will be good, after lower secondary school, I will go to vocational school, I may become a mechanic, I'd like to be a shop assistant"). There were also responses full of uncertainty (e.g., "This is in question, I would like to be a driver of an ambulance" - which often resulted from the respondents' recent personal experience), or awareness of constraints influencing the ASD individuals' functioning in society (e.g., "I'm afraid that I will not have a good job as I have a problem with contact with other people - it is necessary in life; in the future it will also be bad"), focusing on positive look to the future (e.g., "I know I must be optimistic").

Significant, though seemingly imaginary, responses were the ones in which high-status professions were indicated ("I would like to become a surgeon and be with my family in the future, and I have always wanted to be a professor of history, but I haven't decided yet"). These choices are related to the specifics of the profession (there is no need to enter into a closer interpersonal relationships) and the level of skills and intellectual abilities is typical of people with ASD. There are also interpersonal responses, such as "I have not thought about what I will do in the future; I have no idea who I'd like to be in future and what I'd like to do; Maybe I'll have a wife." The statement about the desire to start a family appeared in responses three times and was associated with the better functioning ASD individuals. This points to the observation of the environment and modelling on it.

By making a comparative analysis of integrated and segregated education on the basis of the results obtained, it is important to notice that special education institutions are centres for students with different degrees of intellectual disability not

only for ASD pupils. This can be an important factor in raising the awareness of the quality of life, providing a sense of security. However, it limits the acquisition of social interaction (acquisition of appropriate behaviour patterns), as students are often confined to the school environment (as mentioned earlier, the important factor is zoning, which does not apply to special education institutions).

It should be noted that the results obtained in the research are high on the list, which can prove the adaptation of the ASD students to the environment and social determinants. Nevertheless, there are differences that result from the quality (not just quantity) of social interactions students are able to enter. A lesser sense of security in the case of integrated classes may also result from higher requirements for students, which should facilitate the transition to adult, independent life with different situations and possible social roles. However, it would be a mistake to show the superiority of integrated education over segregated education because of the number of people surveyed. In this sphere, an individual's predispositions and the family environment in which the child is raised and introduced to society (social inclusion) are vital.

## **5. Implications and recommendations**

This study approach to the problem of the quality of life allows for presenting the thesis that it is necessary to conduct research which should not analyse levels and but the dimensions of the sense of quality of life in relation not to the type of disability, but to other determinants, often resulting from the environment, individual predispositions and the system in which the inclusion takes place. Expanding research into the education system (with the same requirements – the core curriculum), gender, the educational stage will allow for a broader look at the quality of life issue, as suggested in this type of research (C. Barnes, G. Mercer, 2003; O. Speck, 2016). Nevertheless, the inclusion of personalized statements of the surveyed students showed a fuller aspect of the perception of the quality of life. Finally, the author stipulates that it is advisable to link quantitative and qualitative research, with particular regard to the analyses conducted, with the results obtained with regard to the specificity of the researched group and the situation.

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