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FOREWORD

Dear readers, dear colleagues!

I am pleased that we can meet again on the pages of this issue of our scientific journal where you can find very interesting topics. Three studies, three articles, one review, information about the conferences, and congratulations to the anniversary of a prominent Slovak pedagogue, Professor Erich Petlák.

The scientific study of Ádám Nagy and Levente Székely focuses on the area of tertiary socialization as an autonomous area in youth work. The study seeks answers to the question whether there is any homogeneous socialization field outside the school and family and how to involve young people in extracurricular activities. It is focused on the theories of environment socialization and creates a theoretical framework for empirical verification.

Many teachers claim that the instruction in a school is effective when students are interested in it. How to attract students when so much information is around? The study of Katarzyna Wójcik introduces the answer within the Theory of Multiple Intelligences.

Róbert Osad'án, in his study, focuses on primary school teachers and their perception of gender stereotypes and appropriate behavior to students. The results of his research confirmed the existing stereotype in understanding the gender roles among teachers in Slovakia.

The article of Lenka Pasternáková and Gabriela Sláviková is addressed to teachers as well. It deals with personality requirements of a teacher. The text of Jana Trníková and Erich Petlák brings remarkable new insight into the neuroscience and reveals the results of brain research concerning more effective teaching. Eugenia Rostańska draws the reader's attention to the positive communication of a child and an adult.

I wish the current issue of the journal Acta Technologica Dubnicae will be an inspiring stimulus for thorough professional discussion.

*Viola Tamášová
Editor*

CONTENTS

STUDIES

Ádám Nagy – Levente Székely

The Basis and the Structure of the Tertiary Socialization Field
and the “Youth-Affairs” as an Autonomous Area 1

Katarzyna Wójcik

Enhancing Learners’ Interest by Implementing Multiple Intelligence Theory 19

Róbert Osad'an

Gender Stereotypes and Elementary School Teachers 25

ARTICLES

Lenka Pasternáková – Gabriela Sláviková

Educational Process and Personality of the Educator 31

Jana Trníková – Erich Petlák

Neuroscience as a Basis for Innovations in Education 43

Eugenia Rostańska

Conversation between Child and Adult as Educational Experience 52

REVIEWS

Rastislav Metruk

Slovak-English Phonic Interference 57

INFORMATION

Tomáš Lengyelfalussy

The jubilee of an eminent personage of Slovak pedagogy
Professor Petlák 70-year old 59

Ladislav Várkony

International Scientific Conference & International Workshop
“Present Day Trends of Innovations 2012” 61

Viola Tamášová

European Educational Standards in the Quality Management Systems
of Higher Educational Institutions and Life-Long Learning Institutions 63

STUDIES

The Basis and the Structure of the Tertiary Socialization Field and the “Youth-Affairs” as an Autonomous Area

*Ádám Nagy – Levente Székely**

Abstract: Many models have been made during the study of the chronology and areas of the socialization process and thus the extrafamilial and extracurricular platforms have often been in focus. Many theories have been created about the periods preceding adulthood, i.e. youth. Now, on the borderline of the two areas a new profession is in the making, targeting youth in an extrafamilial and extracurricular context. This new area deserves thorough analysis with a focus on theoretical background since models of leisure environments outside the family and school are now on the same footing with youth education and socialization. The current study deals with leisure environment and youth. It reviews theories of socialization environments and venues, provides a grouping of them and introduces a new theory that best fits into the conceptual apparatus of the youth area and serves as a solid foundation for it. In addition, scientific and international agreements pertaining to the periods of youth will be looked at, and an attempt will be made to create a break-down by age group that is best adaptable to the extrafamilial and curricular environment. It must be stressed that the present study does not deal with the repertory of socialization themes, such as gender socialization, moral socialization, political socialization and others, but merely those environments where these take place.

Key words: tertiary socialization environment, youth work, youth profession, horizontal youth activities.

Many models have been made studying the chronology and areas of the socialization process¹ and thus the extrafamilial and extracurricular platforms have often been in focus. A new area deserves thorough analysis with a focus on theoretical background of models of leisure environments outside the family and the school. The current study deals with the extra familiar and curricular environment, setting up the theoretical background of youth work and tries to answer the following questions: Is there any homogenous socialization field beyond the school and the family? What are its characteristics? What does the youth work field involve? It reviews the theories of socialization environments and venues, and provides a grouping of them. It must be stressed that the present study does not deal with the repertory of socialization themes, such as gender socialization, moral socialization, political socialization and others, but merely those environments where these take place. It is our objective to create a sound theoretical framework without the empirical evidence; our model will become vital after some theoretical tests have been conducted.

We were devoted to justify the existence of the tertiary socialization environment (Nagy, 1991) and the role it plays in the youth field. Because the tertiary socialization field is not the main focus of other professions and the related activities require knowledge which other professions do not fully cover. That is why we can outline the mission of the youth workers: working with young people (people and communities) in the tertiary socialization field (in resocialization situation even all of the fields). At the same time, we do not know how to approach the youth activities (primarily those carried out in the tertiary socialization environment) and what distinct characteristics they are based on and according to which criteria they can be divided into specific areas. The following study is an attempt at raising a discussion about our proposed model of youth activities.

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1 The theories of socialization environments

The term “agencies of socialization” coined by A. Giddens (2006) refers to groups or social contexts in which socialization processes and cultural learning take place². He asserts that certain stages of an individual’s socialization might be realised through several agencies, which can be structured groups or environments where the key socialization processes take place. A. Giddens (2006) introduces four agencies of socialization: the family, peer groups, school/the workplace and mass communication devices, but also adds that in fact there are as many agencies of socialization as groups or social situations in which an individual spends a considerable period of his life³.

Other models differentiate only two environments of socialization. The first one is the family, generally referred to as early socialization or the primary or early environment of socialization. The family as a small, informal group is the first source of patterns, the scene of the first “we-experience” where the individual’s habits and behaviors⁴ are formed. The second one is the school, where late, or secondary (chronologically and not in order of importance) socialization takes place.

Socialization in the school can be examined from the following perspectives: that of child peers, the class as a social environment, and that of the teachers. T. Parsons – R. F. Bales (1995) also distinguish between primary socialization in the early years when the basic structure of personality is formed and secondary socialization when social patterns are acquired in an institutionalised system (Parsons – Bales, 1955). According to another theory derived from this one, the most important environments of secondary socialization are the school, peer groups and the media (Bodonyi et al., 2006).

Yet other theories propose a tripartite system with the family being the scene of primary socialization, the kindergarten and school those of secondary socialization and the workplace that of tertiary socialization: “secondary socialization refers to learning processes in groups of the same rank and takes place during childhood⁵... tertiary socialization is linked to adulthood, the period after school studies are completed, or more precisely to the years of active working life” (Kiss, 2002; Szabó, 2003). During the study of the chronological order of socialization environments in which he was examining whether there is a recession in the use of obscene language after childhood, S. Czeglédi (manuscript) defines secondary socialization as overlapping with childhood and regards tertiary socialization as the period of employment and active work⁶. In further classifications the family is the environment of primary socialization, obligatory (elementary) schools are that of secondary socialization, while colleges and universities are the scenes of tertiary socialization when the individual is preparing for a chosen career. C. Dupcsik (www.enc.hu) agrees that tertiary socialization involves training for a vocation or a profession.

Some research outlines a structure of four socialization environments: the family is defined as the scene of primary socialization, when basic norms and rules are acquired; the kindergarten and the school as scenes of secondary socialization; career socialization is defined as tertiary (secondary and tertiary education, and training for work); and the workplace is the environment of quaternary socialization. L. Trencsényi (2006) classifies the socialization environments according to the organization that carries out the task of teaching and thus differentiates natural communities and learning environments (family, relatives, neighbors), state institutions (children’s surgery, nursery, kindergarten, boarding school, advisory centre for education, centre for child well-being, children’s home, crisis care home, youth detention centre, youth prison, foster home, art school, cultural centre – institution with multiple purposes, cultural house, cinema, library, theatre, museum, concert hall, dance house, stadium), as well as service providers (childcare, youth entertainment facilities – arcades – disco, extracurricular courses, training courses (language school, driving school, dance school), swimming pool, sports centre-gym) and civil initiative (churches, organizations for children and adolescents, sports associations, cultural associations, art associations). The introduction of educational media (children’s magazines, children’s books, radio, TV, the Internet) is an advanced element in L. Trencsényi’s (2009) four-partite division⁷. He calls into doubt the generally highlighted

and exclusive role in secondary socialization of “traditional” educational institutions that are historically not so old since they developed at the time of social modernization (Trencsényi, 2009).

Another division defines seven categories: childhood family, adult family, school, peer groups, mass communication, workplace, and other socialization environments (e.g. church and civil communities) (Vukovich, 2006). T. Kozma (1999) also reviews socialization environments and discusses each segment in detail; however, he does not apply a unified approach to the examination of the extrafamilial and curricular domains. He claims that the school is the environment of formal education, while the family, the neighbours, the workplace, the army, politics, religion and the media are those of non-formal and informal education.

Some other theories interpret socialization environments in relation to special groups and not general life situations. C. Bodó (www.adatbank.transindex.ro) studies the issue from the perspective of minorities, who learn Hungarian during secondary or tertiary socialization. “Adult speakers also use Hungarian during the tertiary linguistic socialization of teenagers, since young people at this stage are seen by the community as adults, individuals being initiated in the world of work, with whom the linguistic code characteristically used in typical community activities, i.e. the local Hungarian dialect, is regarded as adequate” (Bodó, www.adatbank.transindex.ro). E. Szabó (2003) applies the terms secondary and tertiary linguistic socialization to penal institutions.

A shared feature of the above theories is that the family (relatives) is defined as the primary environment of socialization, where private relationship patterns and communication skills develop, identity is defined, and basic behavioral (e.g. health behavioral) habits are formed. Learning takes place through personal experience: the persons involved in this environment cannot be substituted and the fundamentals of the individual’s interpretation of the world are created at this stage (these are very difficult to alter later on). The most important scenes of the secondary socialization are kindergartens and schools the aim of which is to acquire all the information, skills and values regarded by the society as important (sense of duty, reliability, accuracy, etc.). Secondary socialization occurs at a later stage of development, when new interpretations of the world appear, showing new sections of society and it introduces new hierarchies. In this environment – in contrast to the family, where mostly everything worked at a “subjective” level – individuals are primarily assessed according to their characteristics, and expectations and norms are becoming increasingly abstracted from other people. Cooperation with others must be learnt, expectations of others must be met and new rules of behavior are needed (sharing, competing).

With regard to the framework of interpretation, some of the theories (e.g. Giddens, Kozma) focus on a given stage of life and examine the related places, life situations and social time as its imprints, while others analyze and describe environments and main socialization stages of the individual’s development (e.g. Parsons, Kiss, Szabó, Dupcsik, Czeglédi). However, there are differences between schools based on developmental stages and also between those analysing a given social time (differences often occur within one particular school), with regard to their terminology (using words such as environment, scene, domain, group, etc.) and the number of environments (two, three, four) they define. Even similar schools differ in what these environments are – if there are more than two – and what their main drivers and postulations are. Thus, not all of these theories include a tertiary socialization environment, and even those that do differ in defining it (most of them refer to career socialization and preparing for work, but there is a number of exceptions) and in establishing if tertiary socialization has additional elements. The basis, conceptual background, reason and explanation found in literature are predominantly mainly based on conjecture and declarations (what is more, the same term is often used to denote different notions) instead of deduction and inference.

With regard to socialization beyond the family and the school, it is of key importance whether prior to adulthood the environment beyond the school and the family can be treated as a homogenous entity. It must also be established if the areas involved have any shared characteristics, and, if they do, what characteristics are distinct to all of these areas and at the same time they must be distinguished from

primary and secondary environments⁸. Another question is if peer groups play a synthesizing role and if they can be defined as an environment or only as an additional group (in order to avoid the confusion of concepts, a qualitatively new socialization interface will from now on be referred to as an environment or a (macro) domain, and those that are only new in regard to their content – e.g. if we enter a new workplace or group – will be called a scene or a group.). An interesting proposition is if relationships, friends, peers and loves differ in their essence to relationships in the family and the school.

2 Tertiary socialization environment

Simply defined, free time is the period of an individual's day when he does what he wants. Two general approaches exist: free time can be understood as the time left over after work is finished and everyday needs (meals, daily errands, workplace- and school-related activities) are satisfied (left-over time approach) or the time (and use of the time) when an individual can be engaged in free time activities (activity approach). A distinction can also be made between objective and subjective free time: objectively speaking, e.g. Sunday can be seen as free time, however, if someone feels their duty to do work around the garden, it is not free time in a subjective sense (Gábor, 2000; Gábor, www.ifjusagsegito.hu; Furlong et al., 2000). Fundamentally, only subjective time is real free time, i.e. when the individual feels that he is in control and free of any external obligation. This means that free time is not defined by time and activity but by the individual. That is, free time is a personal commitment rather than an opportunity presented by circumstances. Free time is the scene related to private life, belonging to a group and consumption⁹.

Since the strength of socialization is determined by the time and intensity of participation (Vukovich, 2006), we can use the term environment only when an individual spends sufficient time (and intensely enough) – without these a scene can certainly not be called a socialization environment (just socialization elements, of which we can find dozens or hundreds). There are at least three places where a young person spends sufficient time, which can be divided into at least three impact groups in the present context: the family, the school (work) and the free time (see also research on social time: Demetrovics et al., 2010; Szapu, 2002; Szabó – Bauer, 2002, 2005, 2009; Gábor, 2000; Gábor, www.ifjusagsegito.hu; Furlong et al., 2000, etc.). Thus, today a third one can be added to the primary and secondary socialization environments¹⁰: “a new socialization group agency, the peer group, can be added to the family, first complementing it, and later providing a counter-pattern” (Csepeli, 2006). While the impact of the traditional institutions of socialization (family, school) is weakened (Mátóné, 2009), the importance of a peer group¹¹ as a platform of interaction is increased (Váriné, in Somlai, 1975).

The activities in peer groups share many characteristics with those in the family and the school, but they also differ in many respects. “The peer group is the single social scene where a young person can reckon on relationships based on equality and where, he does not experience one-sided dependence from another individual, such as a parent or a teacher” (Csepeli, 2006, p. 406). While in the family the prescribed norms are obedience and authoritarian love, the peer group operates on the basis of cooperation and mutual agreement (Piaget, 1995, p. 40). The essence in the peer group phenomenon is not the seemingly deviant content but the process in which an individual takes voluntary action which is also determined by the community, and in conforming to the group steps outside the scope of individual interests. Informal groups are quintessential to the individual (Csepeli, 2006).

The table below (Table 1) is an attempt to sum up the similarities and differences between the three environments that outline a unified tertiary socialization environment. It can be seen that some of the characteristics of the proposed tertiary environment are shared by the other two, while there are some distinct characteristics that set it apart from them. From now on we will call this area tertiary socialization (free time) environment, within which we will differentiate between generally applicable

scenes of socialization (neighbors, etc.) and special scenes applicable only to certain individuals or groups: church, army. However, these scenes will not be analysed in depth in the current paper.

Characteristics	Family	School	Extrafamilial and curricular (mainly free-time) activities
Main characteristics, organizational principles	Main characteristics: given. Organizational principle: unconditional.	Main characteristics: obligatory. Organizational principle: conditional.	Main characteristics: voluntary (particular elements can be used voluntarily, joining can be voluntary). Organizational principle: optional (independent, free use of time).
Changeability	Cannot be changed in regard to people or framework.	Changes over time.	Relationships can be freely ended and started. ¹²
Mutuality	None (the relationships are mainly non reciprocal).	None.	Yes. ¹³
Presence of authority	There is a predetermined authority in the form of a natural hierarchy (parents); accepting discipline and rules is not voluntary.	There is a predetermined authority in the form of an artificial hierarchy (teachers); accepting discipline and rules is not voluntary ¹⁴ .	There is neither a predetermined authority, nor a predetermined hierarchy ¹⁵ ; accepting discipline and rules is voluntary ¹⁶ .
Appearance of environment	From birth (0-... years).	From school (kindergarten) (3-6 years).	The need for its elements arises approx. at the same time (8-12 years).
Level of institutionalization	More institutionalized.	Institutionalized.	Less institutionalized. ¹⁷
Relations	Given.	Obligatory.	Optional.
Time spent (ages 14-16)	Approx. 2-6 h.	Approx. 5-7 h.	Approx. 3-9 h.

Table 1 *Similarities and differences in the socialization environments*

Socialization environments	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21	22	23	24	25	26	27	28	29	30
Primary (family – relatives)																															
Secondary (kindergarten – school)																															
Extra-curricular and familial activities																															

Table 2 *The impact of socialization environments on the individual (in relation to the age)*

The literature on socialization environments (see previously) does not say on what basis an environment can be defined as a socialization environment and therefore which environments do not qualify as such; nevertheless it suggests that the intensity of the socialization environment and the autonomy that results from it depend on the following three factors:

- The time spent in the socialization environment: most obviously, the individual spends a considerable amount of time in the family and the school, while it can also be ascertained that the time he spends outside these two socialization environments will reach and then supercede (even many times over) this level as he progresses in age (see Table 1).
- The intensity of the time spent in the socialization environment: in this case the intensity refers to the involvement of an individual in the given socialization environment, the depth of their participation and the strength of their ties to this environment. In the family and the school this intensity is by definition very high, with manyfold and deep ties. Authors who have written about the environment outside the family and the school maintain that the aforementioned relationship of an individual is of a similar intensity in the third socialization environment.
- A socialization environment must have its own system of rules and its own principles of participation: as can be seen from the Table 1, the set of rules governing the extrafamilial and curricular environment fundamentally differs from the rules and principles of the socialization environments of the family and the school.

Based on the above mentioned it can be stated that there is a distinctly delineable socialization environment outside the family and the school. Furthermore, with regard to the chronological emergence of this socialization environment in the life of an individual, we propose it to be called the tertiary socialization environment.

This tertiary socialization environment does not form the basis of any profession, since it is not regarded by any one of them as their main focus, especially not with the youth age groups at its centre. The activities related to this environment require knowledge that is not covered by other professions; thus, the mission of the youth profession can gradually be outlined: to render unsubstitutable support to the members of the youth age groups in becoming citizens responsible for their own actions and their communities primarily in the tertiary socialization area but in (re)socialization emergency situations in all the socialization fields.

Although the extracurricular and extrafamilial environment includes not only free time but also other obligatory activities – e.g. official affairs, medical check-ups – the amount of the time spent on these is not significant, and, broadly speaking, they can be linked to the tertiary as well as to other environments (medical check-ups at the workplace, medical tests for employment, or annual screenings, applying for a birth certificate, certificate of a good character required for university admission, or various affairs at public utility works, etc.). Z. Vajda – É. Kósa (2005) claim that the research into socialization focuses mainly on families, schools and peers (and less on broader spheres of interaction, primarily on mass communication). Although they include the Internet in mass communication it can be disputed in many respects (activity – passivity, individual – mass, etc.).

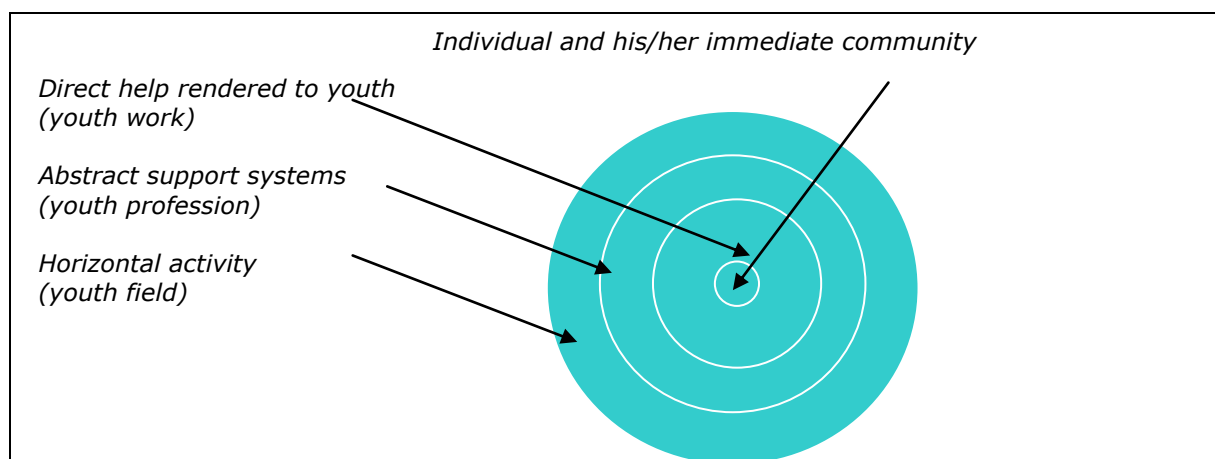
In the present context it is not so essential to establish whether mass communication can be regarded as an autonomous environment (cf.: cultural identity is now not formed in classrooms but in TV studios (György, 2002)). The situation is somewhat similar to the differences between theories pertaining to the sectoral division of society, where the three-sectoral (state, market, non-profit) approach clashes with the four-sectoral theory (state, market, non-profit, household), although the existence of the non-profit sector is debated by none of them. Here we have a similar case: the existence or non-existence of a quaternary environment does not affect the existence (or non-existence) of the tertiary environment. What is more, we can toy around with the idea that the “official world” (offices, healthcare, etc.) can be proposed as a quinary socialization environment in regard to its impact, although not in regard to temporality. The impact of this environment cannot be underestimated (see the public conditions in Hungary), and indeed: this element appears to come after the other four, as the fifth one.

3 Youth work, the youth profession¹⁸

In the following part of the study a model will be presented to systematize youth support activities. The model is based on the direct (concrete) or indirect (abstract) nature of activities involving individuals/communities. In the focus of the model is an individual (or the community he belongs to) carrying out the youth activity (in this study the youth activity comprises activities outside the educational system, conducted on a voluntary basis in one's free time to help youth groups). The innermost layer of the structure is formed by activities carried out directly by individuals (communities). The middle layer contains activities that are only indirectly connected with the individuals (communities) and "merely" provide an organizational structure creating synthesising theories for them. The outermost layer represents a horizontal youth approach and contains borderline areas, professions linked with youth work.

- a) Youth work is defined as the sum of activities realised through the interaction between youth groups and actors directly in contact with them. It is social, community and personal development and empowering work aimed at solving the problems specific to the examined age groups and facilitating their social inclusion partly based on their active participation and partly on the special tools of the youth profession. The key words of youth work are: exploration of self-image, self-knowledge, self-activity, community dialogue, group socialization dealing with challenges, free time activities, informal learning. Youth work is predominantly linked with factors directed at development (personality, community, group, regional, settlement development...) in which the positive signs, the promise and the potential of support, modernization and renewal are inherent and also indicated by key words such as empowering, encouraging, and inclusion. Youth work entails notions like solidarity, the active ability and skill to accept differences (and within that empathy). The range of its services differs from those offered by businesses in that they are (theoretically) generally available, low-threshold services without financial or other requirements.
- b) Youth profession: the middle section of youth activities which, through their content and methodology, can facilitate indirect youth work. It is a sum of activities at higher levels of abstraction aimed at providing the "background" for youth work.
- c) Youth field: any activity associated with youth groups, primarily within the activities of other sectors (education, social work, culture, economy, etc.), and aimed at the development of areas ranging from the development of family planning competences, support schemes, labor market and entrepreneurial competences, through child benefit schemes and learning, to youth media and culture (representing a horizontal approach).

Figure 1 *Structure of youth activities*



It has been obvious that the tertiary socialization environment is not a highlighted aspect of any profession, since it is not regarded by any of them as being specific to its profile, especially not in regard to youth groups. Activities related to the youth require knowledge that is not available in any other profession; thus, the task of the youth profession can be outlined: to render support – that cannot be substituted by any other – in regard to the process of young people becoming citizens responsible for themselves and their communities, primarily achieved through the development of the tertiary socialization environment and, in a (re)socialization emergency¹⁹, of all socialization environments.

Youth work is a collective term aimed, in part and as a whole, at helping young people in the process of growing up. Two important aspects must be focused on in regard to youth work targeting these age groups: the participants and the areas. Direct and indirect youth work will be examined from both aspects, since the overall standard of youth work depends on how successfully the various activities and groups of activities strengthen one another and thus facilitate the process of growing up. Numerous synonyms are known in everyday communication for the terms and expressions (e.g. youth profession, youth work) used in the youth field.

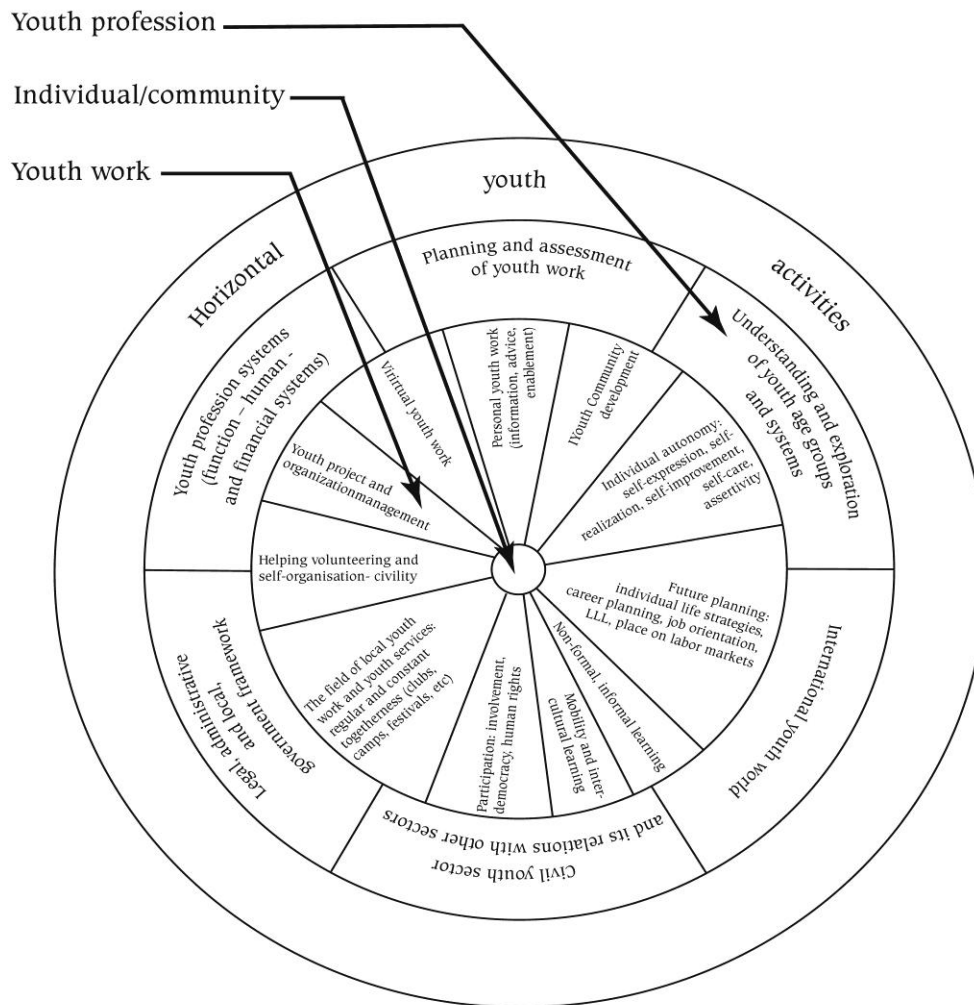
The phrase ‘youth work’ offers a wide range of interpretations, regardless of the fact whether the given uses are linked to one another; however, to some extent each one concerns young people’s growing up. Therefore, the term must be properly defined first. Many people associate youth work with some concrete job done by a young person as if at a workplace (youth work agencies target at this area). Moreover, in an everyday sense, youth work is done by the official working for a local government if he deals with tasks related to youth age groups. In the commonly used meaning of the term doctors, teachers, training officers, youth workers, swimming coaches also do youth work. There are a lot of people in the field engaged in a lot of activities, working in many areas, with entirely different qualifications and ideas, as well as fundamentally different methods and objectives. Indeed, young people who come into contact with them can also completely differ from each other, in regard to age, life situation, level of maturity, etc. People in the youth field only have two things in common: the role they play in the lives of young generations is in some way connected to the growing up, and their work is characterized by the activity and concrete actions. Strange as it may sound, only these can link a grandmother reading a bedtime story to his grandchild and a child’s dentist.

The definition previously used in this section about the youth profession can be made more accurate by establishing which three groups youth activity is related to:

- directly to the youth age groups – youth work;
- to the community of youth professionals and the youth sector of the state (government, local government, etc.) – youth profession;
- to the borderline areas of youth activities that do not form part of the youth profession but are affiliated with it; horizontal approach to youth – youth field (i.e. in our model youth culture, health, inhabitation, allowances, education, family, employment, etc., all belong to the horizontal youth area).

Regarding the areas of youth work, focus will be placed on those areas in which activities are directly aimed at the young generation and their members. As regards the youth profession, it contains the segments in which work carried out for young people is more abstract than the previously mentioned direct work, i.e. it is at a higher level of abstraction.

Figure 2 *Youth work, youth profession and horizontal youth activities*



4 Areas of youth work

Informal learning and youth activities

In the triangle of formal, non-formal and informal learning methods, the latter one appears the most characteristically in the youth area. Informal learning is a kind of learning in which the learning process as such is lost in other types of activities and contents that are not planned and assessed. Among others, edutainment (learning through entertainment) belongs to this category, but the knowledge acquired through the experience is also a form of informal learning. There is a close connection between informal learning and indirect (bottom-up) learning, in which tasks are the sources of impact, conditions are like relations and interrelations between pupils, and interactions are the primary means and mediators of behavior patterns (e.g. mutual check, mutual help, etc.). Besides informal methods, the youth field applies non-formal and, in our case, formal pedagogical methods. (Accordingly, e.g. organizing leisure programs can only be regarded as youth work if it fits into a pedagogical process.) This segment is a special transition between the group-oriented approach of community development and the individual approach of youth assistance, since the activities are conducted in groups but are aimed at the development of the individual.

Local youth work-institutionalised youth services

Youth services are generally, although not exclusively, (rendered to the) public services aimed at catering to the needs and other manifestations of different age groups of the generations growing up and expected to fulfil specific professional requirements (e.g. legal, labor market, psychological, drug-related, etc.). In addition, they must be relevant to the youth, i.e. the services not only have to meet the professional criteria of a given area but also include developmental tasks, or elements of socialization (preparing young people for adulthood). Thus, the youth services must effectively satisfy both demands. This area involves everything that facilitates the understanding of social processes through the services (and not directly) and encourages the active participation of youth age groups in these, empowering them to become active shapers of their life. Youth clubs, playgroups, adolescent centres, youth offices, youth information centres, festivals, camps, etc. are all regarded as youth services.

Personal youth work

Acquiring basic self-knowledge and peer knowledge and its development are quintessential to any assistance activity. The methodology of youth advisory activity has person to person relationships at its focal point – providing information, advice and assistance – determining assistance models, conflicts, conflict management, etc. Youth work is mainly built on communication, factors that facilitate or hinder it, and personality development methods. Although, in general, help is provided for and comes to fruition in a community, the emphasis in this area is still on person-to-person interaction²⁰.

Youth community development

Living in a society we all partake in various organizations, groups, associations and – if lucky – communities that represent quality. It is generally accepted that youth work can be done efficiently and effectively mainly in communities. One of the reasons why youth work is built on communities is that, besides its multifariousness, one of its main objectives is to ensure and develop the passing on of social and cultural values. The area deals with the youth elements of this, which include peer assistance and other methodologies. In dealing with youth groups, their establishment and development, special emphasis is placed on the inner mechanisms of youth communities and their development, as well as community development procedures implementable among the youth²¹.

Youth project and organization management

This area involves project activity specifically for youth communities. The segment is aimed at handling the youth aspects of stakeholder management, project cycle management and project area management (project focus, integration, time, cost, human resource, quality, communication and risk management). In another approach, it is the management of youth projects to the benefit of youth age groups, the initiation, planning, organization, implementation and direction of programs organised for youth (various events, festivals, camps, training courses, publications, etc.) as well as checking their realisation and closing them.

Mobility and intercultural learning

The balance of a given society largely depends on the relationship between the majority and minority cultures and the personal aptitude of the representatives of given groups. Key elements of mobility and intercultural learning are the assumable and real presence of diversity and pluralism, their acceptance by the wider and smaller communities involved, as well as the existence and necessity of learning openness and acceptance. Intercultural learning means more than cultural, national, ethnic and religious sensitisation but also the acceptance of “everyday othernesses” such as disabilities, sexual differences and identities, ideological differences, as well as the age, generation or even geographical differences that define the given stage of life of an individual.

Voluntariness

Voluntariness is the self-activity of citizens based on the solidarity between the members of society: it is an action freely rendered to people (not relatives), their communities or others, without expecting compensation. Cooperation with youth groups and organizations forms part of youth work. In certain cases it facilitates youth public life from the individual initiative all the way to the establishment of an organized entity. It is, therefore, important to mention altruism, youth cooperation, assistance to youth self-organization and the nature of voluntariness.

Virtual youth work

The opportunities provided by the information society fundamentally transform the notions of social environment, youth community space, youth social networking, etc. Virtual youth work addresses the following issue: in what regard can youth age groups be regarded as occupying a special position in virtual space (primarily but not exclusively on the Internet) (Tapscott – Williams, 2006; Tapscott, 2008). The area also deals with the changes of youth culture and youth communities (and their characteristics) organized in virtual space.

Participation: involvement, democracy, human rights

This means all the activities carried out by youth communities and organizations to involve young people in the lives of the local communities; for example, to promote youth participation in the lives of settlements/regions etc. (organization and operation of local youth governments, youth representation), activities carried out by formal youth organizations and non-formal youth communities, assistance rendered to youth by other organizations and professionals, as well as other activities aimed at the better interiorisation of democracy and its institutions, and activities promoting the education, practice and reception of human rights etc.

Future planning (life strategies, career planning, LLL)

This involves everything that concerns “not the present but the future”: life strategies, personal and vocational planning, learning competences necessary for employment, career planning, etc.

Individual autonomy: self-expression, self-realization, self-improvement, self-care, assertivity

This area is mainly concerned with the individual and identity: how responses should be expressed, how to respond to impulses, how to organize, express and develop oneself, one’s body, mind and spirit. Self-expression and assisting others in their development can be the most effectively done while people are still young.

5 Areas of the youth profession

Legal framework of youth activities

This area primarily covers youth legislation (specifically applicable to the youth field and adopting a youth approach across its entire volume) and justice, its examination and implementation. It defines child rights (limitation of autonomy, assertion of legal capacity), youth rights (operation of special support systems) and youth law (one of the principal arguments for the autonomy of the youth field is the need for a separate legal framework). The legal framework of youth activities examines the position of youth in law: regulations pertaining to youth must pervade the entire legal system. It deals with the theoretical (constitutional) starting points of the legal approach taken to children, i.e. the

fundamental characteristics of legal relations, the consideration of age-specific characteristics of individuals otherwise having the same legal capacity, the restriction of exercising rights and enhanced legal protection as well as with the rights and obligations of those working with children (youth workers). The legal framework for youth activities raises awareness regarding the state's obligations in connection to children's rights which are stipulated by the constitution and international agreements and relevant laws. The area also addresses issues that have not been defined and settled legally (e.g. what happens, what is the legal assessment in the case of adolescents taking on public roles; is the youth worker regarded as a person of public authority, i.e. if someone confides in him/her that he/she smoked a joint, what is his/her legal duty, is he/she obliged to report the case?). The problem of the youth act also forms part of this area, and although there is no legal obligation to draw up such an act, its existence would indicate the state's commitment and systematic approach to the situation of the youth. Borderline areas that are not specifically part of the youth field but play a significant role regarding the legal regulation of the area (organizations, legal regulation of civil framework, procedures, etc.) also fall within the legal framework of youth activities.

Study and research of youth age groups

This area essentially examines the social layers of young people, stratification, the local cross-sections of the youth, as well as small and big groups organized along specific values, model patterns, free-time and work. Important disciplines that form part of the study and research of young age groups include cultural anthropology, ethnography and political sciences. This area reviews the various youth research activities from the preparatory work required by projects, collection and processing of the data, through their interpretation and to their systematic study-level presentation and publication. This segment also reviews the methodology of youth research, which, in addition to its sociological foundation, applied, already at the very beginning, various psychological approaches and some of their tools, the approach and study methods of social psychology, combining the research methods used in sociology, management theory and pedagogy. The development of methods determined by the objectives of projects and comparative analyses belong to such research.

Planning and assessment of youth work

This area covers forming of the strategy and related action plan, as well as their monitoring. Youth strategy is the long-term (10-20-year long) arrangement of actions of a given community, society or large social group in regard to the youth, according to specific objective(s), as well as the designation of resources for its implementation. The content of the area pertains to young age groups, although truly "usable" strategies and action plans cannot disregard the adult population. Action plans elaborate the actions to be implemented in a short term (2-4 years), as inferred from the strategy, and designate the sources and people in charge. Monitoring examines the rationale behind the implemented measures and compares them with the plans. However, strategies and action plans are not only "youth" because they focus on the youth but also because young generations, communities and organizations actively participate in their formulation and implementation.

Youth systems

This area deals with the definition and operation of the public tasks of the youth, determines their indicators and evaluates them. The area also deals with the financial systems (from the tender system to the governmental development activity) and human systems (training system, youth networks, etc.).

International youth activity

This area analyses the supranational cooperation in regard to youth activities. Youth organizations, government structures, and research processes have grown beyond their initial frameworks and have introduced services, opportunities and challenges that can only be realised through the broad-based cooperation extending beyond national borders. The area deals with the objectives, content, methods

and forms (e.g. networks and cross-border cooperation) of international youth activity, the framework institutions, organizations, their operation, interdependence, structure, important documents, support programmes, primarily – but not exclusively – in a European dimension.

Civil youth sector and its relations with other sectors

The most important element of the non-profit sector is that in regard to its fundamental attributes it differs from the state and economic organizations (in addition to the traditional division of state and economic, the third one is the so-called non-profit sector). The non-profit sector is distinct from the state (it has no functions of public authority) and the economy (it is not driven by making a profit), and it most often comprises civil organizations, i.e. organizations established by volunteers and operated on a self-active basis. The area focuses on the rules and phenomena of the youth segment of the civil sector, and the youth work conducted in the segment.

This area involves the strategies and techniques regarding the representation of the members of a given community, organisation, government or local government organisation, etc. and the assertion of the interests of youth age groups (or a part of them), as well as the communication of these strategies and techniques and also its special characteristics in the youth segment. Youth representation involves the analysis, discussion and communication of situations, problems, action plans and consequences carried out by the members and representatives of youth age groups in order to impact decisions affecting the youth and influence decision-makers – both individuals and institutions – to the benefit of the youth. The members and representatives of youth age groups can be local non-formal communities and their leaders, local or higher level – regional, county, nationwide, international – formal organizations and their leaders, as well as forums of cooperation affiliated with certain institutions (e.g. student government of public educational institutions, youth divisions of company trade unions). The area of youth representation also includes institutions and actors with a leading role in the youth field and the authority to impact it, and entails cooperation with decision-making bodies, youth dialogues, and preparatory work carried out before decision-making, the role of control, as well as lobbying for youth interests in the profit or non-profit sector alike.

6 Horizontal youth activity

We did not divide the so-called horizontal youth activities into parts, since different social systems, countries, and approaches require different divisions they deem sensible and compliant with their own social philosophy (since horizontal youth activities concern the relationship between the youth sector and other sectors). The following division has started to take shape in Hungary:

- youth and formal education,
- youth and family,
- youth and culture, consumption and media,
- youth and the world of health,
- youth and the world of work,
- youth and politics,
- youth and deviance crime,
- youth and poverty, segregation, marginalization,
- youth and those living with disabilities,
- youth and liveable environments,
- youth and europeanness,
- youth and national identity.

Summary

Many sociologists and pedagogues deal with those scenes, periods of life and phases in which socialization occurs. However, up until now, no comprehensive study approached the extrafamilial and extracurricular scenes of socialization based on their shared characteristics. The present study was aimed at describing the tertiary socialization environment in regard to the social time of young people and the groups of impacts affecting them.

The tertiary socialization field is not the main focus of other professions, and related activities require knowledge which other professions do not fully cover. That is why we can outline the mission of the youth workers: to work with young people (people and communities) in the tertiary socialization field.

We made an attempt to classify youth activities in the tertiary socialization environment from the perspective of the individual (community), applying this approach to youth work, the youth profession and horizontal youth activities. We divided youth work into eleven and the youth profession into six areas, while we did not divide horizontal youth activities.

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Notes

- ¹ In the present case socialization is defined as the process of acquiring knowledge and skills enabling the individual to become a member of society. During this process the individual acquires knowledge of himself/herself and his/her society, acquires the rules of living together as well as the possible and expected behavioural patterns (Bagdy, 1994). Education is aimed at influencing this process, while socialization can be an unconscious process. Therefore, in our definition socialization is a broad category: it is not restricted to a closely delineable process but rather a wide range of phenomena (from formal socialization agencies to non-formal actors) (Vajda – Kósa, 2005), where the socialization process is not only the result of conscious learning but can occur via hidden mechanisms (Pecheron, in Murányi, 2006). Socialization, one of the notions shared by psychology and sociology, and in this sense is not identical with social development, part of which is the formation of the individual with a distinct emotional world and individual behaviour.
- ² Although the socialization agencies and social mobility share many characteristics, in the present study these agencies are not defined as areas of mobility (about social mobility, see: Sorokin's studies).
- ³ These agencies of course do not trigger mechanic responses but rather urge the individual to participate in a particular framework in his/her social practice (Giddens, 2006).
- ⁴ We first see the relations between roles, symmetrical and asymmetrical relationships here, and we learn the status value of different roles, the hierarchy of statuses and the principle of mutuality in the family. The socialization functions of the family: care and protection (learning love as the primary social emotion), providing interaction space – providing models and learning roles, acquiring the fundamentals of the I, the I system, and inner control functions (formation of systems of stimulating and inhibiting action, delaying, frustration tolerance and the ability to control oneself in receiving reward and punishment) and the foundations of the order of communication (verbal and non-verbal communication and their harmony).
- ⁵ These groups of various sizes (school classes, gangs, associations, clubs, etc.) contain individuals with shared interests and represent typical social patterns, themes as well as a relatively homogenous language and style.
- ⁶ P. W. Musgrave (1979) explores the areas of work and professions. In his view, the first stage of career socialization is determined by learning the occupational roles linked to the system of careers and after every decision the repertory of roles decreases since the range of available opportunities is narrowing. P. W. Musgrave (1979) discusses professional socialization in detail, the developmental stages of which include, firstly, the (concealed) learning of the roles of preliminary professional socialization (attainment of career knowledge), followed by entering a professional field, stepping onto a career path, career expectations and reality, and, finally, real professional socialization begins when the individual's final role behaviour and meeting the requirements of the given career is formed. For P. W. Musgrave (1979) tertiary socialization emerges when an individual changes his/her career or activity, but since this is only a coincidental overlap of terms, we will not deal with this area in detail.
- ⁷ In this division L. Trencsényi only includes conscious actors (not denying the existence of "spontaneous" socialization effect).
- ⁸ The delineation of this environment is necessitated by theoretical (does extrafamilial and curricular socialization have shared motives, elements and a foundation that link them into a distinct category with shared characteristics) and practical reasons (establishing the basic statements of the youth professions).
- ⁹ Free time for youth is also a trial of adulthood: it is a time of autonomy, self-management and self-realization where multiidentity manifests itself most visibly. Due to the cyclical nature of a year, the following types of free time activities can be examined:
 - a) free time on weekdays (typically afternoons);
 - b) free time at week-ends;
 - c) free time during holidays (especially in summer).

Free time during weekdays, week-ends and holidays can be described based on the results of free time and youth research (Demetrovics et al., 2010; Szapu, 2002; Szabó-Bauer, 2002, 2005, 2009; Gábor, 2000; Gábor, www.ifjusagsegito.hu; Nagy, 1991, etc.):

- a) free time during weekdays: watching TV, listening to music, “hanging about”, going out to places of entertainment, shopping (consumption), going to shopping centres, entertainment in general, going to the cinema, studying and home work, computer and internet games, time spent together with friends or peers in a community or organization (sport, culture or art, student body, local government body, church, civil/youth organization), reading, doing sport or dancing, raising children, non-computer games, cultural programs: theatre, concert, exhibition, restaurant, café, pub, other activities.
- b) free time at weekends: same as during the weekdays, plus going to a disco, house party, trips, other activities;
- c) free time during holidays: same as free time at weekends, plus going on holiday with friends, with family, with partner, alone, other activities.

In these periods of time the activities can be divided into two main groups based on the intensity of the activity: there is a strong distinction between functional, physically, intellectually and emotionally demanding free time activities (shopping, meals) and non-functional, passive reception (hanging about). (About the shopping centre as social space, and about functional and non-functional free time activities, see: Demetrovics et al., 2010).

- ¹⁰ Peer groups, without a predetermined hierarchy of people with equal rank, the world of shopping centres, the Internet, the media and small community interaction, etc. Large institutional systems of education (work) and family affairs are unable to substitute the predominantly voluntary and self-organised third socialization environment, and it is not their task either.
- ¹¹ About peer groups and more about globalization, see: Hervainé, 2009.
- ¹² Csepeli, 2006.
- ¹³ “If we examine the world of youth interaction, we must see that the principle of mutuality cannot be practised in any other context” (Csepeli, 2006, p. 406).
- ¹⁴ There are attempts (e.g.: Nahalka, 2003) to introduce extracurricular developmental activities into the classroom, however, these do not go beyond the traditional approach to roles, with a teacher playing the key role, and do not provide the opportunity for real community roles to be formed. The tertiary socialization environment is different from school exactly because the roles develop in relation to the forming community.
- ¹⁵ For more about authority in the family and the school, see: Vajda – Kósa, 2005, about peer groups Csepeli, 2006; Piaget, 1995.
- ¹⁶ Csepeli, 2006.
- ¹⁷ Cf. disco dance floor vs. shooting association. The peer group falls outside the institutionalized social network (in our case institutionalized constitutes an objective existence independent of the will of the group members). Adopting an extreme approach we could say that formal groups play an essential role by carrying out activities directly beneficial to the society (e.g. work), while informal groups play a similarly essential role by engaging in activities directly beneficial to the individuals (e.g. games, leisure time, entertainment) (Csepeli, 2006), although the borders between these two groups are becoming less and less defined. The institutions of a consolidated society try to “tame” initiatives organized outside the official institutions with varying degrees of success (Trencsényi, 2006).
- ¹⁸ The youth paradigm is tossed about like Charon’s boat: although it can be primarily regarded as an autonomous pedagogical discipline, it can form part of sociology, can be seen as a politological entity, youth work, partly social work and partly a pedagogical activity. Being an autonomous entity it is supported by the very fact that it does not fully form part of any one science or profession.
- ¹⁹ More about the decomposition of the primary socialization environment, see e.g.: Alpár et al., 2009; the problems within the secondary environment, and primarily about behavioral issues and learning

difficulties, see: Kósáné, 1989; Kósáné – Münnich, 1985 (although only in relation to its solution within the school).

20

It is not age (or age difference) that plays the main role in the counselling interview but that the helper should not have any selfish motives in his/her relationship with the one helped during the period of the helping relationship. (Here anything that did not form part of the personality of the helped person at the outset or anything that was initially and remained the monopoly of the helper can be regarded as selfish, even the most positive manipulation by a priest, doctor, psychologist, teacher, etc. in the counselling interview is forbidden. This requirement constitutes a problem because even today the experts working in the area of the so-called helping professions unquestionably regard themselves as the knowers in the counselling interview, thus establishing an asymmetrical relationship of roles and excluding the chance for a symmetrical interpersonal relationship. Helpers only have the right to bring to the surface the inner “powers” of the person they are helping and let these powers move into action. Helpers must also be fully aware of the limitations of their own competence.) Moreover, it is important that helpers know exactly up to which point an interview is successful and effective but does not overstep the limit by interfering in the others’ life (keeping a symmetrical relationship, and staying within the familiar stranger status). Situations requiring medical treatment and help rendered to people in a psychologically critical condition do not fall within the parameters of helping relationships, only those who need temporary help in a given situation and under given circumstances, e.g.: if those helped need information and, facts or applicable procedures they do not know about; they need help to be able to face their real situation, knowledge, competences, and opportunities; they need to be “released” from the various consequences of pangs of conscience or need help to let the accumulated excess emotions and anger be “purged” from their system; need help to recognise their values and powers, achieve a positive self-evaluation, confirmation and support; or they need help with (psychological) cramps resulting from misconceptions, false beliefs, and misunderstandings. The helping relationship is always based on a request, is always individual and unique. (In an ideal case, the request is formulated, but often the potential helper has to decide if the communication conducted with him/her contained the element of a request.) Taking on the role of a helper is also always a matter of the free, personal decision of the potential helper. The helping relationship occurs within the framework of a kind of contract concluded for the duration and aimed at the concrete subject of the relationship even if this contract is unspoken.

21

The more communities the members of the youth age groups actively participate in, the more they strengthen the local and ultimately the entire society, especially if they do not forget the patterns learnt as young people when they enter adulthood. Key words of the area: community, community development, guided conversation, voluntariness, animation. This activity providing help for the youth is development aimed at the social environment and the (human) community which young people need to learn to accommodate to and in which they have to be able to find their way, role, self-expression, self-validation, self-representation and the representation of others, as well as assuming responsibility and bearing consequences, i.e. they have to learn decision-making. Self-expression is not the only focus in community development, but the exploitation of the potential and resources inherent in communities enabling them to achieve things they individually could not. Thus, the other focal point in community development is locality, i.e. action and development at local, municipal or regional levels. Community development primarily constitutes the development of the skills of initiative and action, in which citizens play a key role, along with communities and their networks, as well as – depending on the local tasks – community developers, whose encouraging, stimulating, informing, and networking work is often invaluable. Community development has the potential of exploring, complementing and strengthening the resources of a community. Youth community development is also realised at least in two spheres: in an informal world (street workers) and in formalised youth organizations, and in neither of these two areas do the participants have to possess simple attributes linked to a teacher role. Moreover, community development can be studied in a further dimension: there are activities carried out by young people, and those by experts that started working in the field in their youth.

Enhancing Learners' Interest by Implementing Multiple Intelligence Theory

Katarzyna Wójcik*

Abstract: Learners' interest is agreed by most of the educators to be significant for effectiveness of teaching and learning process. However postmodern society becomes more and more tranquilized or overactive (depending on the person) because of hundreds of information, pictures and others attacking people's minds. Therefore gaining students' attention and then attaching it to the subject becomes more and more difficult. The article makes an attempt to answer the question *What is the role of Multiple Intelligence in enhancing learners' interest level?*

Key words: multiple intelligence, interest level, young learners, effectiveness.

The whole secret of life is to be interested in one thing profoundly and in a thousand things well.
Horace Walpole (1717-1797)

1 Introduction

The level of learner's interest has been found by many scientists (for example Renninger, McDaniel et al., Tauer – Harackiewicz, etc.) to be extremely important in the process of teaching and learning. Especially concerning its influence on attention, reaching goals or levels of learning, is emphasized by many authors (Hidi – Renninger, 2006). Although it is recognized as a rudimental condition for learning, educators struggle with uninterested students, not knowing how to help them develop their interest. Apparently postmodern reality makes educators' life more and more difficult and requiring great effort, teenagers ignoring authorities, as well as thousands of pieces of information for an hour, millions of pictures attacking students' minds, noises and many other factors independent of teachers' control, those are components of a modern reality that educators have to wrestle with. Some of those tired, often resigned educators may ask if there is a possibility of enhancing interest or is it lost cause (teachers often surrender competing with computers, internet, television or other media). Therefore this article is an attempt to prove there is still the chance to raise interest level (or a better word might be to grow, comparing interest to seeds) by means of Multiple Intelligence Theory. Results of a research on putting into practise MI theory, while working with young learners in a traditional Polish school system are to be presented below. However, before providing further details about possibilities and results of implementing MI theory into the practice of teaching, background information on the MI theory and conceptualization of interest is reviewed below.

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2 Background

Interest is a psychological state of being engaged with particular classes of objects, events or ideas over a specific period of time (Hidi – Renninger, 2006). According to the neuroscientific research, interest includes affective and cognitive components as separate but cooperating systems. The affective component is understood as positive emotion accompanying engagement and cognitive aspect relates perceiving and representing information accompanying engagement (LeDoux, 2000). Nevertheless, interest is also an interaction between a person and particular content and it is very often encouraged or depreciated by the nearest environment (Krapp, 2000).

In the context of teaching methods there are two most important types of interest: situational and individual. Individual, concerning personal preferences and predispositions and situational, related to affective reaction to presented action, information, activated by educational situation designed by the educator. The situational interest is based on environmental stimulus and it positively influences cognitive performances as well as the individual interest (Hidi, 1990). What is more, it focuses attention, enables integration of information and enhances the level of learning, positively impacts recognition and effort (Hidi – Renninger, 2006). Thus the solution can be Multiple Intelligence Theory.

The theory of multiple intelligences created by H. Gardner (1993) may be the mean of increasing either individual or situational interest. For ages, the intelligence has been found to be a single inviolable capacity which is a special property of human beings not equally given to everyone. Therefore people can be ranked as less or more clever, smart or intelligent, or those who should or should not start academic career (Gardner, 1993). Nevertheless, this attitude has been found to be wrong as IQ does not assure success. On the contrary, H. Gardner presents the idea of relatively autonomous human intellectual competences, called multiple intelligences. Seven following types of intelligence are introduced by H. Gardner (however according to the author of MI theory it is an open collection) (Gardner, 2002):

- Linguistic intelligence, which is one of the most appreciated in the traditional education system. It involves interest, sensitivity and special skills or capacity to spoken or written language significant for actors, poets, lecturers, teachers, public speakers and writers.
- Musical intelligence, considers skills in performing, composing and appreciating musical patterns, it is believed to often accompany logical-mathematical intelligence. Rudimental for instrumentalists, singers, conductors, orators, writers and composers, etc.
- Logical-mathematical intelligence is responsible for the ability to analyze problems logically, carry out mathematical operations or solve problems and it is commonly appreciated by teachers. It is also often indentified with general ability to think or with fluid intelligence.
- Spatial intelligence provides recognizing and using patterns of space, and imagination to project space, moreover it is an ability to visualize thoughts, words, spaces etc. It is significant for painters, sculptors, architects and drivers.
- Bodily-kinesthetic intelligence is a potential to know and use one's body consciously. It is typical for actors, acrobats, sportsmen, pilots, builders, police-officers, fire fighters and surgeons.
- Interpersonal intelligence is understood as capacity to recognize and emphasize intentions, feelings or motivations of other people. It is rudimental for cooperation or team work, therefore for all the types of work where contact with clients or teamwork is necessary, for example teachers, managers, counsellors, politicians, managers and social workers;
- Intrapersonal intelligence entails the ability to understand and appreciate oneself, which is a key competence for the success, whatever the occupation is. However it is particularly important for philosophers, psychologists, counselors and members of clergy.

As H. Gardner (1993) believed it is an open collection, two more have been recently added: naturalistic intelligence, providing great interest and capacities in nature and existential intelligence understood as spiritual or religious intelligence. Each of those intelligences not only helps to choose future path of education or vocation, but also determines content interest and the style of learning presenting some level of particular intelligence means having some set of features or abilities, which are the strong side of a student. This information can be used to plan learning strategies, as well as the whole process of education.

Applying multiple intelligence theory into practice entails teaching and learning based on learning strategies, specific for each type of intelligence. Therefore the model of intelligence must be recognized and teaching process in a classroom has to be organized adequately to the students' needs, form and style. Next chapter presents conditions and results of the research on applying MI theory into practice in traditional Polish school.

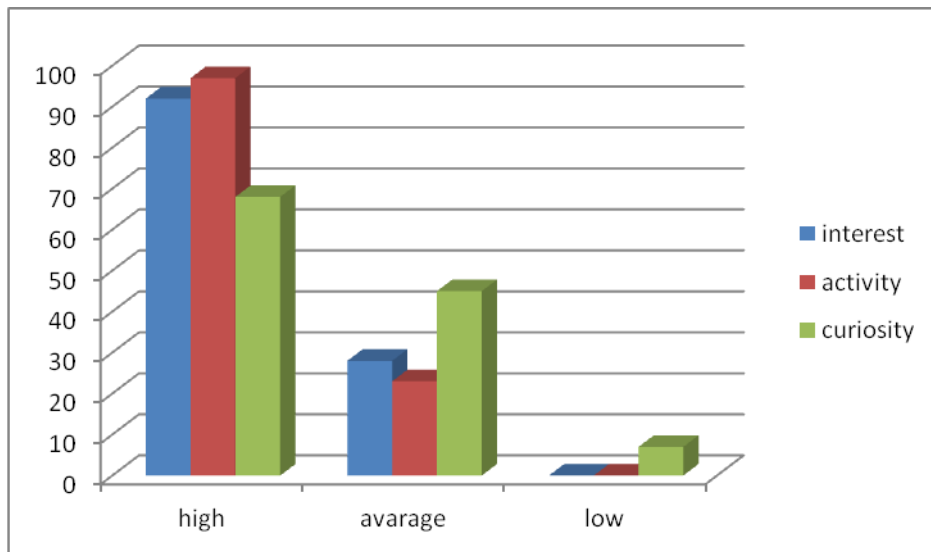
3 Research

The research on implementing MI theory into teaching young learners is aimed at investigating its influence on effectiveness of teaching, considering individualized teaching as well as improving students' interest. The methods of the research were the pedagogical experiment, pedagogical test, observation and opinion poll. Two experimental groups took part in the research, both counting fifty students, aged 9-10 years old, moreover 150 teachers of grades 1-3 took part in the opinion poll and 120 hours of lessons applying MI theory were observed.

However many practitioners have tried to put a soul into the theoretical skeleton, most of them, like for example B. Campbell (1991), decided to rearrange not only methods, forms, but also organization of classes as well as classroom space. Polish traditional school functions in class-lesson system, with quite strict curriculum, supported by external tests, and accompanied by quite low expenditure. Therefore organizing special corners or centres of learning would be impossible, because of the financial and organizational aspects. Owing to that fact, the experiment was based on discovering students' profiles of intelligence, consequently their strong features, and organizing teaching according to strategies of learning specific for each type of intelligence. Strategies used in the experiment are fully described, inter alia, by E. Arnold (2007), but had to be adapted to Polish language and curriculum (it was the matter of different orthography, grammar, social and mathematical content of curriculum). Each of the students was examined and observed to find out his or her profile of intelligence (understood as a set of intelligences, presented on different levels, in most of the cases one was leading), and received a set of methods of learning compatible with their needs. Teacher planned each lesson to use strategies, methods and resources for each of the intelligences, including rhymes, songs, games, etc. Students were examined with a pedagogical test twice, at the beginning and at the end of the research, which proved growth of teaching effectiveness. Despite that fact, the results of the observation are the most significant for the subject of this article.

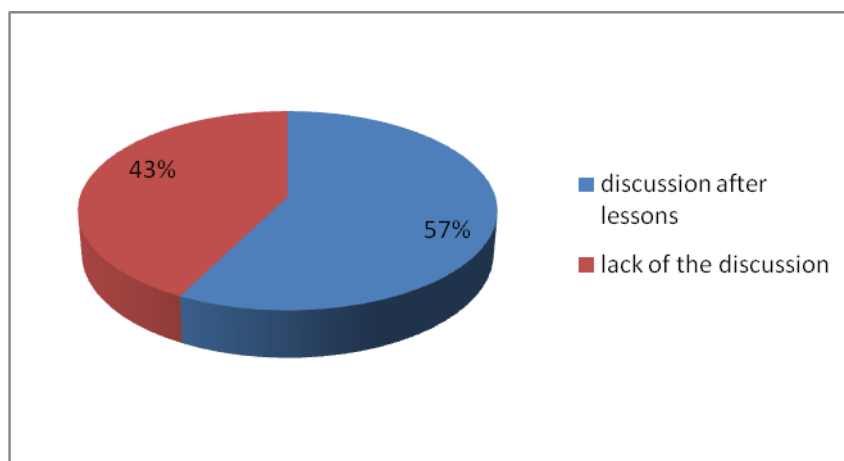
As mentioned before, 120 hours of lessons were held and observed in the tested group. The main subject of interest was the students' behaviour during and after classes. Four aspects were the matter of observation – students' interest, curiosity, activity and appearance of the discussion after classes. Those variables were chosen as they are believed to be rudimental for personal and content interest. Profiles of intelligence are fundamental as they often determine abilities and interest, in general or in a particular content. The results of the observation are visible in the figure below.

Figure 1 *Occurrence of interest, activity and curiosity during the lesson*



During 81% of the lessons time, high level of students' activity was observed and 19% of lessons were on the average. High level of interest was observed in 76% of the lessons, average level in 24% of the lessons. There was no case of lack of interest, which is considered to be a success, especially among young postmodern learners. During 57% of the lessons a high level of curiosity was observed, 38% lessons evoked average curiosity, and during 5% of the lessons curiosity was not observed at all. These results proved not only the improvement of effectiveness, but also enhancing learners' interest by implementing MI theory. Another factor was the occurrence of discussion after the lessons, in 57% of lessons a discussion without teachers' participation occurred.

Figure 2 *Occurrence of discussion after lessons*



Interviews with students also proved that teaching based on MI theory is easier and more interesting for young learners. Parents were also glad to receive information how to help their children learn in an effective way. It seems the individualization can be the key to success.

Conclusion

To begin the conclusion, an allegoric story about an animal school, written by M. J. Stein (Gajdzica, 2005, p. 18) will be presented: Long, long time ago animals went to school. They were taught to run, swim, fly and climb. Whatever the animal, it had to learn to do the same activities in the same way. The duck was very good at swimming, even better than the teacher. It was quite good at flying, but it did very poor at running. Therefore the teacher made the duck stay longer after lessons to practice running, and consequently it was always too late for swimming lessons. After few months duck became average at swimming and satisfactory at running. Being average is highly recommended at school, so everybody, except of the duck were glad. A rabbit started its education as a top student at running, but making up difficulties at swimming contributed to nervous breakdown and the rabbit had to leave school for special treatment. A squirrel was the best at climbing, but the teacher forced it to fly of the top of the tree. Practicing this skill was so exhausting that soon the squirrel became only satisfactory at running and climbing. While the digging was forbidden at school and not included into curriculum prairie dogs had to find private tutors for their children. At the end of the school year a retarded eel, who was average at all subjects, became the best student in the school.

This story is an outstanding, humorous parallel to the traditional education system in which abilities, interests, preferences, styles of learning, types of intelligences are not important, and the best student is the average student, as he or she does not cause any problems to the teacher. It is commonly known that the individualization of education is necessary. However, knowledge and practise do not always go in pairs. Despite an undoubtedly important role of the curriculum, it is necessary to teach in different ways, to organize didactic process differently, according to students' needs and including their personal interests.

As it has been mentioned in the background, interest can be enhanced by:

- positive emotions accompanying the process of teaching and learning,
- developing students' interest, where interaction between the person and the content is important,
- environmental stimulus.

Therefore the concept of multiple intelligences is a possible or even, as it might be believed, a necessary solution. First of all, the best remedy for enhancing positive emotions is the positive climate of a class and the positive attitude to learning. Concerning the climate, B. Campbell (1991) proved in his research that the improvement of climate is possible by means of implementing MI theory. On the other hand it is commonly known, as well as proved by neuroscientists, that positive environmental stimulus during the learning process ensures positive emotions and results (LeDoux, 2000). This positive environmental stimulus can be provided by H. Gardners' theory, owing to methods and resources of teaching and learning adequate to students' expectations.

Secondly, supporting interest development is remarkable in MI theory, as it encourages students' advantages. What is more, teaching and learning based on individual features, contributes to the interaction between the learner and the content, by reaching the goals in a respective manner and finding their paths to successful future. And last but not least, implementing MI theory maintains stimulus specifically chosen for the recipient, which not only arouses interest but also optimizes creating engrams in students minds (Buzan, 1999).

To sum up, it has been proved that implementing multiple intelligences theory into educational practise improves quality of teaching according to the results of the research. It provides either situational or individual interests and consequently arouses cognitive performance. Hence the first and the fundamental responsibility of a teacher/educator is to lead, or guide the child in the world of science and to show that learning is an interesting adventure waiting for them which should last forever. And only those who can handle such great responsibility can call themselves TEACHERS.

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Gender Stereotypes and Elementary School Teachers

*Róbert Osad'an**

Abstract: In this study we explored the perception of gender stereotypes among elementary school teachers. Respondents (280 teachers) answered questions about their perception of the suitable behaviour according to the gender. Significant interactions emerge between teachers' and pupils' gender. The primary purpose of this paper was to find out on how teachers' stereotypes affect their behavior towards elementary school-children. Results of the research were generally consistent with gender role stereotypes.

Keywords: gender, children, teachers, stereotypes.

Introduction

Schools are considered public places. However, within the public sphere of school there also lies a very private domain. Staying neutral seems to be the most common attitude adopted by teachers when confronted with gender-challenging behavior. Is it really so? Do teachers realize their gender stereotype attitude? These were the questions in the focus of our research. Stereotypes are "overgeneralized beliefs about people based on their membership in one of many social categories" (Anselmi – Law, 1998). Gender stereotypes vary on four dimensions: traits, role behaviors, physical characteristics, and occupations (Deaux, 1985). For example, whereas men are more likely to be perceived as aggressive and competitive, women are more likely to be viewed as passive and cooperative. Traditional gender stereotypes are most representative of the dominant (white, middle-class) culture. H. Landrine (1985) asserts that although race and social class may not be mentioned when inquiring about gender stereotypes, most people will make assumptions about these categories. Her research suggests that when race and social classes are specified, different gender stereotypes emerge. Physical characteristics and occupations have also been considered consistent or inconsistent with masculine or feminine roles. Behavior is strongly influenced by gender roles when cultures endorse gender stereotypes and form firm expectations based on those stereotypes (Eagly, 1987). It is generally accepted that stereotype knowledge is acquired early in childhood, is highly overlearned, and is relatively resistant to change (Devine, 1989; Wilson et al., 2000).

By the age of three, children readily distinguish between males and females, and associate certain objects (e.g. trucks) more strongly with one gender (boys) than with the other. At the same time, with the development, children typically show a strong increase in gender stereotype flexibility and recognition that the gender stereotype can be inaccurate (Serbin – Sprafkin, 1986). For instance, older children admit that although trucks are more commonly associated with boys, girls can play with trucks as well. Thus, to the degree that stereotype knowledge can influence spontaneous behavior (Strack – Deutsch, 2004) the emergence of spontaneous discriminatory behavior in childhood may resemble the developmental course of stereotype knowledge acquisition. In other words, even when children have acquired the mental flexibility to reject a social stereotype, this newly acquired flexibility may leave behavioral manifestations of automatically activated stereotypes unaffected (Greenwald et al., 2003). Children learn these role expectations that may lead to the gender gap not only from their parents but from various forms of media, such as television cartoons and educational textbooks (Brownlow – Durham, 1997). Textbook images may depict a "hidden curriculum" of what is considered a perfect society, and this may have an effect on children's academic and career interests (Potter – Rosser, 1992; Powell – Garcia, 1985; Shepardson – Pizzini, 1992). Ironically, although textbooks are considered vehicles for learning, they may actually hinder success in half of the student population.

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Additionally, research has shown a strong gender gap in the interest in school subjects. Researchers have found that between the ages of 9 and 13 a crucial change occurs in the attitudes of female students toward science. Girls at the age of 9 still desire active participation in scientific observations but by the age of 13 they report a significantly decreased desire for such experiences (Kahle – Lakes, 1983; Potter – Rosser, 1992). By the high school age, male students express greater interest in math and science fields than their female counterparts by enrolling in more math and science courses (Kahle – Lakes, 1983; Potter – Rosser, 1992; Smith, 1992). These findings support the idea that the gender gap in math and science does not fully materialize until upper-level grades, indicating that male and female students may be “taught” which academic pursuits are appropriate for them as they grow older (Bleeker – Jacobs, 2004).

If women and men demonstrate differences, those differences fit gender stereotype expectations. The stereotype threat may be one potential mechanism for reducing women’s performance and interest in math and science areas. Stereotype threat is a well documented phenomenon by which individuals, fearful of confirming a negative stereotype about their group, display decreased performance on a task relevant to negative stereotype (Steele – Aronson, 1995). But are the teachers aware of their gender stereotyped behavior? Do they accept gender nonconforming behavior? Research data from Greek primary teachers show that, even at the primary school level, teachers occasionally observe and identify children’s behavior that does not conform to stereotypical expectations. Reporting gender nonconforming behavior is more prevalent in non-heterosexual populations, and many lesbian, gay and bisexual people affirm that their perceptions of being different, as well as acting differently from their peers or family members, had already developed from an early point in their lives, and even in their teen or pre-teen years (Gerouki, 2010). That is why, we were interested in examining whether Slovak teachers treated boys and girls with the same respect and supported every child to express ideas and participate fully.

Methodology

The study is quantitative in its approach and was undertaken among elementary school teachers in Bratislava district. Of the 280 teachers, 17 were males and 263 were females. Questionnaire research was considered an appropriate form of data collection to explore teachers’ gender stereotyped behavior. The questionnaire was developed by the researcher and contained 25 items that covered the following categories: (a) teachers’ opinions about aggressive behavior, assertivity, dominance and creativity; (b) teachers’ behavior related to nonconformal gender approaches. Respondents were asked to rate each item on a Likert-type scale from 1 (strongly agree) to 5 (strongly disagree) along with four ordinal-polytomous questions which provided the teachers with an opportunity to express their preferences for toys and colors suitable for children according to gender. The 25 items of the questionnaire appeared in a random order, not according to the category. Respondents were assured in the introduction of the questionnaire that their responses would be kept confidential.

Results

The results of our study suggest that the idea of gender equality is still far from a solved issue in Slovakia. 14.5% of teachers admitted a different approach to children depending on gender and 27.5% of them claimed to keep dividing children into gender groups, which can be one of the worst ways how to implement some inappropriate ideas about genders.

In gender literature physical aggression and assertiveness is understood as a typical feature of boys. Aggression is directed against someone or something and assertiveness could be defined as being self-confident. Already at an early age boys show more physical aggression, such as hitting or kicking, than girls. This difference continues throughout childhood and into adulthood. Boys also show higher levels of assertiveness than girls, though the difference is not as great as for physical aggression.

Gender differences like these have been identified in several studies of girls and boys in numerous countries (e.g., Cook – Cook, 2008). In our research 72.5% of respondents expressed more aggressive behavior among boys comparing to girls. Interestingly, 77.5% of our respondents did not agree that assertiveness is typical attribute for the behavior of boys. According to our results even the assessment of verbal aggressivity was not typical of girls, which is a completely different view than we expected. 85% of our respondents expressed the opinion about verbal aggressivity as an untypical attribute for girls.

Some researches suggest richer vocabulary of girls at elementary schools. For example, girls tend to produce words at an earlier age, have larger vocabulary, and show a higher level of language complexity beginning in early childhood (Cook – Cook, 2008). However, our respondents did not confirm this idea. 72.5% of teachers did not agree that boys do not possess as rich vocabulary as girls do.

62.5% of our respondents thought that boys more often use vulgar words in comparison with girls. The belief that women's language is more polite and more refined is widespread and has been prevailing for many centuries (Coates, 1992). Many cultures all over the world not only condemn the use of linguistic taboos in general, but also condemn the use of vulgar language by women, and its use by men in front of women. In fact, some people, such as the Amerindians, Polynesians, and Japanese, swear very little, or not at all (Crystal, 1997).

47.5 % of the respondents thought that girls are more submissive than boys, 50% did not agree that boys are more individual than girls. However, girls are more likely to seek and to receive help than boys, and some studies indicate that girls are more easily influenced than boys (Cook – Cook, 2008).

Another point where boys are generally viewed as different from girls is creativity. Researches show that this is probably one of the gender stereotypes. Several studies examined gender differences in four cultures: the United States, Germany, Australia, and India. This study showed that in the United States, boys scored higher on originality than girls, while girls scored higher in figural elaboration. In all other samples, except those collected from India, gender differences were non-significant. In India, boys scored significantly higher than girls in figural originality. This study also involved a comparison of changes in performance between the third and the fourth grade, on figural, verbal, and total measures. The data showed that the United States sample showed more often a gain from the third grade to the fourth grade, while the reverse was the case for the sample from the other countries in the study, suggesting the importance of cultural factors (Sulaiman, 2009). Similarly 75% of our respondents did not agree with the idea about more creative abilities of boys.

An interesting result was discovered when teachers should have written which colours are appropriate for children's clothes according to the gender. The least suitable colour for the boys' clothes is pink colour (47.5%) according to teachers while most of the respondents agreed (73%) that all colours are suitable for girls. Probably, the reason for not accepting pink colour as suitable for boys' clothes is the homophobic stereotype about its preference among gays. Interestingly, there is not known a stereotype associated with the colour not suitable for girls. It suggests a more homophobic social attitude of the Slovak society toward men.

Discussion

Our research suggests that children in Slovak elementary schools are under strong social gender pressure. The most obvious it was with colours and toys appropriate for children. Apart from peer pressure there is also the social pressure visible, for example, in the catalogues of toys where specific toys are showed as appropriate for boys or girls. Even though the teachers showed a big tolerance in case of using untypical toys according to the gender (76.47% would not notice similar activities) our research shows strong influence of social pressure in identification with socially appropriate toys. In

our opinion teachers should try to express more tolerant ideas which could help children who are under strong critics of their classmates. Teachers should not show their preferences when children play with toys not typical for the gender. And children should have possibility to choose toys according to their interests without fear of social reaction of their classmates and teachers. Here we can see the task for teachers to accept differences among children.

Every person brought up in a community must implement some values and patterns of behavior. As the results of our research suggest Slovak teachers show gender stereotype behavior as well. We believe that education of Slovak teachers in this area is not sufficient and the current state should be improved. On the other hand, the majority of our respondents were interested in our research and its results. A similar research was conducted at high schools in Bratislava in 2003. The results of the research also confirmed several stereotypical attitudes in connection with gender. Teachers (men) insisted on keeping the male gender roles and women on keeping the female gender roles. Men (teachers) more than their colleagues (women) agreed with the statements about better logical thinking of boys. They also thought that boys are better leaders. Opening windows, manipulation with technical devices were mostly considered as boys' tasks. On the other hand, tidying up the classroom, watering flowers were considered to be girls' tasks. Teachers (women) agreed with statements about gender roles of girls. For instance, they considered swearing of girls less acceptable than swearing of boys. And they considered girls to be generally more disciplined than boys. If it was necessary to collect money or to fulfil some responsible tasks they preferred girls (Cviková – Juráňová, 2003).

We believe that the results of our research showing some aspects of gender stereotypical behavior among teachers reflect of the whole society. However, teachers as experts should realize first what is dangerous in gender stereotypes and bias.

Conclusions

The aim of the study was to investigate teachers' practice in teaching for gender equality. The findings of this study raise important questions regarding the state of gender equality in elementary schools in Bratislava district. The findings lead to the conclusion that gender equality still remains an opened area. Unfortunately, we were unable to compare our research with similar studies from elementary schools in Slovakia. What is more, the findings have revealed that some of the teachers lacked a clear understanding of what teaching for gender equality means and continued to reinforce gender stereotypes unintentionally.

We believe that it is a part of the school mission to provide an environment where all pupils feel respected. In this point of view, it should be possible also for the educational community to reach out to the families and bring new ideas and views to the area of gender equality or gender nonconformity. For this reason, teachers should be encouraged to reflect their own bias and ideology critically and, moreover, to question their classroom practice. The data from this work indicate that even during elementary school years teachers are aware of pupils' behavior that challenges gender assumptions. In the light of this, exposing elementary children to gender equality activities may help them form attitudes of respect towards others and gender acceptance.

The responsibility thus lies mostly with teachers who must, on the one hand, understand all aspects of gender stereotypes and, on the other hand, take this understanding into consideration when planning education process. From these reasons we recommend that teacher education should make gender equity the central objective in teacher training. Therefore, teachers should re-conceptualize the notion of teaching for gender equality. Teachers should be also informed about existing policies and have opportunities to develop or take part in school policies for gender pedagogy. During their professional lives, teachers meet a wide range of children with different socio-cultural and economic backgrounds. However, as professionals, they should be able to reconstruct their assumptions and stereotypes and come up with new ideas and views.

Literature

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ARTICLES

Educational Process and Personality of the Educator

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Abstract: The paper is focused on the personality of an educator and the demands placed on him/her.

Key words: education, learning process, teacher, teacher's personality.

The term "personality" and its definition are the subject of several scientific disciplines, especially the psychology. Psychologists define the concept of personality in a variety of terms. D. Kováč (1985) defines it as psychological reality consisting of biological and social components; some other authors define it as a system regulating relations between a man and the world. Personality is scrutinized also by other scientific disciplines, such as philosophy, sociology and pedagogy. In pedagogy, personality is generally understood as a point of departure, a condition and an objective of education with particular regard to the comprehensive development of an individual. More specific definitions are based on the knowledge of differential psychology and embrace personality as a set of psychological qualities and traits. Other definitions are based on the social nature of a man and define personality as a set of social roles and relations. The concept of personality is also in the centre of ethics, biology, legal sciences, etc.

The complexity of personality structure is manifested in its external and internal characteristics:

External characteristics show the phenomenal part of personality and are observable in individual acts, behavior, deeds and responses to external stimuli.

Internal characteristics, congenital as well as learned, under which an individual is acting in a particular situation in a certain way, are manifested in human actions, and verbal or written expressions. To sum up, the manifestations of personality reveal the characteristics, which should be, especially for educators, formed as early as during school years, job-training years as well as during the professional career. The focus shall be on creativity, professionalism, physical condition, mental preparation, autonomy and assertiveness. Establishment of these preconditions brings changes into the system of training of educators at all levels and types of educational institutions.

To determine the role of an educator among educational factors is extremely difficult. Not everybody meets the required criteria. An educator shall be only a person with relevant knowledge, positive personal and moral characteristics, and dignified personal life and behaviour. Moreover, the person shall have a positive relation to children, youth and educational work. Therefore, the personality of an educator shall meet the following requirements:

In the field of general training, which is the result of an appropriate type and level of education and constantly replenished by self-education.

In the field of specialized training, which includes necessary knowledge on pedagogy, psychology, theory of education outside the classroom, appropriate physical training and disposition, cultural and

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philosophical orientation, etc. The training is internally divided into the theoretical and practical training.

In the field of specific preparation for educational activities we emphasize the ability to set up primary educational objectives, ability to implement them, continuously diagnose educational activities and correct further educational activities accordingly.

An educator shall be primarily an educational authority. An educator is considered to be such an authority that s/he effectively manages to influence individuals as well as a group of children or young people. The most important precondition of an authority is a constructive, organizational, communicative and diagnostic activity.

The personality of an educator is influenced by such factors as age, sex and temperament. It is wise to have various types of educators with different predispositions for different types of activities. Then they complement each other and they are able to sustain various types of educational activities, be patient, distribute reassurance and solve the problems thoughtfully, timely and fairly (Višňovský – Kačáni, 2001).

This profession is a great challenge and can be handled only by educators with a deliberately planned system of educational activities, applying diverse methods, forms and means; those who act as actual authorities by their personal example, gestures and words. An educator should act as a personality in every situation, be a good example and a coordinator of educational influences; he should be able to act assertively and argument pedagogically and should not be manipulated by anyone. An educator should be self-disciplined, enthusiastic, sincere and self-reflexive, if needed. He should not fall prey to scepticism and despair.

Carrying out the work of an educator takes, in addition to high professionalism and self-control, also the respect for moral principles. Ethical behavior presupposes the respect for the self, for the others, empathy and ability to take the others' interests and needs into consideration when making a decision. Professional ethical approach of an educator means to apply general moral principles and educators should master:

- verbal communication,
- principles of conflict-free communication,
- principles of good manners,
- ability to gain confidence of the educated,
- closely follow the standards,
- be confident about their work,
- be willing to study,
- have a sense of justice.

The concept of an authority is of multiple meanings. Its understanding and theoretical definition in different pedagogical systems vary. In the terminological dictionary *Andragogika* (Andragogy) (2000, p. 57) the authors provide the following definition of the concept: Authority (lat. auctor = guarantor, role model, example, teacher, master, founder, creator, auctoritas = warranty, seriousness, powerful /influential/ person, power, influence).

- One of the fundamental forms of power implementation based on the general acceptance of influential eligibility of a certain personality, group of people or an institution.
- (psychol.) Respected seriousness of the personality provided by their exceptional, mostly leading position in the hierarchy of a social status (formal), or by exceptional personal qualities or merits (informal) as recognition of their dominance and superiority.
- (ped. and andr.) Respecting the position of a teacher and a lecturer based on formal recognition of their professionalism, knowledge, and experience as well as the tact.

The authority is regarded according to the acknowledged role of an individual, an institution or an organization based on their experience, knowledge, professional and social activities and high performance and organizational skills. It may be manifested:

- a) As an influence of a group or an individual in various areas of social life which is granted on the basis of something extraordinary. The concept of authority in social psychology is identical with the concept of power.
- b) Recognition of the right of an individual to make decisions in situations which are important for certain groups or individuals. In this case, it is based on strong personal preference.

Personal authority in the educational process arises from the actual personality of a teacher, from recognized personal and mental qualities, which are, in some ways, of extraordinary quality. These qualities are education, modesty, willingness to help, ability to manage work on a quality level, to create good interpersonal relations, etc.

The factors defining the boundaries between authority, power and influence are usually the following criteria:

- a) From the position of an authority the orders are carried out willingly; from the position of power, the orders are executed even despite the resistance.
- b) Authority and influence share a common feature – volunteerism.
- c) Legitimacy – when recognised, authority and power become an obligation.

Authority is a significant social factor operating within the field of control and social integration (disintegration) and significantly influences the leadership of people. The most primitive form of authority is physical power and the highest form of authority is spontaneity, free and voluntary subordination. Various forms of coercion (physical, economical) and various forms of manipulation (reward system, salary, benefits, conditions of promotion) create common conditions for achievements of an individual (elements of power of creating authority). More detailed analysis distinguishes personal authority (natural, primary), functional authority (professional) and positional authority (formal, secondary). The most commonly recognizable authority is the formal one, which derives from the position of a lecturer (teacher) and his/her role in the organizational or social structure, and informal authority, which is determined by specific qualities, such as talent, education, qualification and tact of a particular personality.

According to A. Vališová (1998) the concept of authority can also mean a possibility to manage, manipulate opinion, command respect, affect character of people, authorities, states or it may mean also moral and spiritual superiority, but also claiming the trust and subjugating other people. She sees the term authority synonymous to the following terms: management, dominance and competence. In her opinion, if a person has the authority, it is possible to recognize their superiority and then subject to them. Superiority derives from the accumulated possession, official position, ancestry, ancient glory, or it is based on exceptional wisdom, talent, thoughtfulness, scholarship and the like. According to A. Vališová (1998), the concept of authority had been developing during the ages from the external and derived authority, related to the sacred authority, to the internal and rationalised authority. Today, the educational approaches rely on voluntarism and the growth of inner conviction. They count more on subordination of a pupil to an educator in a non-violent way. Authority shall no longer be enforced. However, there are voices warning against the possible extremism of such approaches – the anarchy.

Authority means seriousness and respect that some of the parents and educators and a few other people experienced – those, who strongly influence a child or an adult and to whom they voluntarily subordinate. It is based on the awareness of their knowledge, experience, moral strength, strength of a character, consistency of procedures and the way of treating other people.

Authority of each individual arises mainly from their own personalities, i.e. their moral and character qualities, experience and knowledge. Some people believe that authority is given to parents; that they have inherited it; they do not perceive it as a personal gift, a talent which cannot be learnt or taught. Modern psychology provides a relatively precise definition of an authoritarian personality and their qualities. Despite the fact that it is an individual and not a general quality, we can state that it is possible for each parent and educator to gain authority with children, if one puts the appropriate efforts in it and acts accordingly.

G. Petty (1996) believes that good relations between an educator and an educated are based on mutual respect. In his view, the educated respect and appreciate mainly personal qualities of their educators, such as skills, knowledge and professionalism. An educator with authority honours each individual in their charge and appreciates all efforts to positive change. According to G. Petty (1996), it is extremely important to realize that mutual respect is not rooted only in a kind of universal respect towards the collective as a whole but in an educator's respect of each individual. Similarly, we can fully agree with the other claim: before there is a relation established, there must pass a certain period of time, in which an educator usually passes through two stages. In the first stage, the educator achieves a certain power and position based on their institutionalized roles. In this stage, it is the formation of formal authority arising from the position of power, which is legitimate, determined by the formal status and powers vested into the function by an institution. The second stage means the formation of informal authority, which is the result of personality profile, maturity, skills, reasonable amount of confidence and behaviour which provides credits for the person.

Formal authority is inevitable for establishing a normal life within the society. People simply accept that. People usually do not closely examine, for instance, the personality of a guard who controls the traffic at the intersection neither must they personally know the author of a mushroom guide but still they believe their claims and follow their advice. The true authority is established by the issues of moral, ideology, criteria of a value system and relations as these give the sense to human activities and roles. Such is the authority of educators, parents, judges, politicians and others. Neither children nor adults accept the authority blindly. Even children before they acknowledge and accept the authority and subdue to somebody that commands them, try to know the person better and evaluate them. They believe they have the right to evaluate and judge the adults who manage their behavior and actions and of those they meet with, their parents including, and they show respect only to those people who deserve it.

A. Vališová (1998) argues that the authority of educator can be classified into several types or kinds. We distinguish true and apparent authority, where the true authority is obligingly accepted by the subordinates, and the group authority is characterized by permanence and cohesion even in the crisis situations. The apparent authority seemingly does not exist and the subordinates manifest unwillingness to cooperate despite the existence of symbols and recognition of the institution. Such a person has no support from them. A. Vališová (1998) also distinguishes personal authority, positional authority and functional authority. The personal authority represents a natural influence rooted in personal qualities; positional authority is defined by official and institutional status and functional authority is obtained by following expectations of the others – superiors and subordinates.

In addition to the mentioned authority types, A. Vališová (1998) recognizes formal and informal authority. She also mentions formation of statutory authority, charismatic authority, professional authority and moral authority. Statutory authority is identical with the formal and the positional ones, i.e. it is formed by power and position in an institutional hierarchy. Charismatic authority is formed by our image and radiated energy, our attitudes, self-confidence, communicative skills, kindness and tact. Its development is conditioned by true and sincere relation to people. Professional authority develops within the level of our professional knowledge and skills. Moral authority develops by honest relation to the self, the others and the world. It is embodied in the strength of character and humanity within the men. The appropriate combination of all authorities creates universal authority. The authority of an educator is defined as a set of qualities evoking the confidence in the educated. Externally, it is

manifested in education, insights, opinions, character, behavior, personal life, moral integrity and positive approach to people.

E. Višňovský (1998, p. 104) states the most universal preconditions for an authority as follows:

- *Constructive activities*, which involve tasks related to the content of education, mainly the level of acquired knowledge.
- *Organizational activities* as a system of skills providing inevitable activity, coordination and cooperation with the educated in organizing activities, including the ability to choose correct forms, methods and means in order to achieve the set objectives.
- *Communication with the educated* on verbal and non-verbal level.
- *Ability to diagnose* an individual and a group based on the detailed knowledge of diagnostic methods as well as the ability to use the diagnosis for further optimization of their career.

Educators cannot expect its charge to fall for them at first sight. According to G. Petty (1996), it does not matter whether educators like it or not, they must establish the relationship with their charge on the formal basis based on their legitimate social status. Based on their social status, educators are entitled the obedience of their charge in the matters of behavior. The use of formal authority depends on the conditions under which an educator works. In order to be a respected authority among their charge, educators must apply it with certainty; there is no second chance to make the second “first” impression. Taking the advantage of the power vested in them by their formal status, they should try to act confidently and calmly and give the impression that they are the masters of the situation, especially if it is not quite true. They should act emphatically and peacefully.

B. Kosová (2000, p. 95) also distinguishes between *formal* and *informal* authority. Formal authority is rooted in the position of social hierarchy, that is, in the educator’s role. Therefore this authority should be applied verbally and non-verbally with confidence, for instance, by a confident voice, actions, posture, issuing orders with certainty, not making pupils see that they managed to disturb an educator’s balance. Formal authority shall be applied immediately since the beginning of the work with pupils.

B. Kosová (2000) relying on G. Petty (1996, p. 78) further argues that the forces of teacher’s orders will not rise by the raise in the intensity of their voice or anger but by following these principles:

- close proximity (entering the personal space of a pupil),
- eye contact (look right in the eye),
- asking questions (a suitable question is better than lecturing).

Informal educational authority – according to B. Kosová (2000) – is rooted in the very personality of an educator. It is a free recognition of superiority of a person in a particular area and its positive evaluation by pupils. According to the experts, the most significant factor is showing the true interest in the work of pupils, their interests and individuality but without trying to become one of them. It can be achieved, for instance, by the following:

- Addressing pupils by their names, asking them politely, expressing thanks.
- Knowing each pupil in details, communicating with them individually, and being interested in their feelings, opinions and interests.
- Rewarding individual contributions of a pupil, their effort to learn, and by mocking no one.
- Setting up clear rules and following them strictly.
- Being a professional in one’s work, well-prepared, on time and by finishing the class on time.
- Being equipped with patience and humor and by staying cool.

Creating personal authority is not about establishing a too intimate relationship with pupils. Pupils do not need another confidant, they are satisfied with those they have among their peers; they need somebody to be truly interested in them; somebody who is able to provide them with a supportive hand if they need it.

C. Czapów (1981) believes that in many cases the successful fulfilment of educational objectives lies in the fact that educators act not only in the role of formal group leaders but mainly in the role of natural leaders of their charge. In case of formal leadership, the educator's role is rooted in the fact that his/her position in the group is officially approved. On the contrary, if a group is willing to follow the instructions of a certain person for his/her personal qualities regardless of the official position, then it is the natural leadership. To become such a natural leader, it is necessary for the group to get to know the educator's personal value system and so they would recognize his/her leadership. The opportunity to become a formal and in parallel a natural leader does not completely depend only on the personal qualities of an educator but also on his/her social status in a particular group, institution or a society. The higher is the position, the higher the probability to win the educationally important leadership. An educator can lose the authority if there is a discrepancy between what he/she says and what he/she does or if he/she is unfair, vengeful and suffers from other negative traits.

According to B. Kosová (2000), the concept of educational style means the way an educator manages the educational process, the requirements the pupils shall fulfill and the space he provides for pupils' individual work and their personal development. B. Kosová (2000) believes that it is good for an educator to be a flexible type able to change his/her style with regard to the situation but mainly with regard to children's engagement and their personal orientation and receptiveness. Implementation of a particular style depends on educator's personality, personalities in the group, their maturity, particular situation, activity types and tasks. Sometimes, it happens that an educator, due to his/her predispositions, is not able to implement democratic or liberal style; therefore, if one wants to become an educator, he/she needs to know oneself very well.

S. Rys (1975, p. 38-39) lists three types of educational styles:

- *Authoritative style* in case of which a very limited amount of freedom for pupils in their individual work and activities is typical; they must follow teacher's instructions with no objections. The class is clearly centred on the teacher, he/she alone is the centre of everything; pupils ask him/her all their questions and only he/she is the one to provide the correct answer and explanation. Teacher applying the authoritative style often suffers from fear and inner uncertainty of pupil's "disobedience". He/she faces it by establishing "iron order", he/she punishes every active attempt of pupils to step outside the established set of instructions and processes; by doing so he/she usually not only prevents any individual work of pupils but also hinders the development of their thinking. Such teaching style causes mental instability of pupils and their learning disabilities.
- *Democratic style* of teaching creates optimal conditions for learning. This teaching style enables pupils to work individually in accordance with their own consideration or the class subjects to the authoritative instruction on what to do and what to continue with. Pupils incline to significant substantial attitude much more which leads to joint problem solving. A criterion for teacher's democratic behavior is his/her readiness and ability to inspire the pupils in active work and cooperation, and, at the same time, the teacher is considered to be a part of working collective. The teacher and pupils are interconnected through the educational objectives. The objective is not defined by instruction nor does it interfere with closely specified curriculum. Pupils' motivation is truly centred on educational issues; pupils participate in "democratic" educational process because of their own inducements; they do so not only in selection of study materials but also in the selection of methods and procedures by which they intend to reach the goals. Though the teacher does not select the procedures and methods, he/she does not leave it within the pupil's competence (e.g.: he/she

does not allow them to choose procedures “blindly” on the principle of trial and error). These methods are selected in the process of common discussions and dialogues within the classroom, in which the exact order of procedures and their applications is stated and appropriate methods are selected regarding all introduced proposals and views. This teaching style prevents the occurrence of possible frustrations and learning disabilities, which can occur due to the teacher’s teaching style.

- *Liberal style* is a style in which the teacher does not interfere with the pupil’s activities and is rather docile. This style belongs to “negative education”, i.e. the trust to the immanent wisdom and impossibility to influence developmental process of children. It also happens to be the expression of teacher’s resignation to given working condition or the expression of his/her laziness and irresponsibility. An attempt to record such an approach is almost impossible, because, in direct observation, the teacher camouflages it by pretended business as the reaction to the classroom situation due to the presence of the observer in the classroom (e.g.: the discipline in the classroom). In case of this style the teacher is more like a passive observer than an active leader. Pupils receive only little help in their study but they have a vast opportunity to mutual distraction. This management of classroom causes chaos, distraction and disintegration. The result is general unwillingness of pupils to study, their mental indifference followed by related learning disabilities.

The analysis and observation of the educational process management show that the level of this management is mainly conditioned by the personality of teacher being the subject and condition thereof. Let us use the words of a Russian pedagogue K. D. Ušinskij (in Kominarec, 2006): *“in education, everything must be based on teacher’s personality because the educational power originates only in living source of human personality. No schedule, no curriculum, no artificially enforced system, even if they are overly ingenious, can replace the personality in education. The teacher’s influence is the educational power, which cannot be replaced neither by textbooks nor moral mentoring or the system of punishment and reward”*.

A. Vališová (1998) argues that many of the findings related to the educator’s behavior support the idea to find a link between the educational style and personality of an educator. Relationship of an educator and a pupil is actually a function of his/her personality; it is preconditioned mainly by educator’s self-conception, his/her relationship to himself/herself. A. Vališová (1998) further claims that the option to understand authoritarian educational style as a reflection of an authoritarian personality is not only a mere speculation based on the external similarity of both concepts. It has been proved that educators achieving high score in authoritarianism are different from other educators. Verifiably, they prefer discipline to the objectives of education. Their idea of the role of an educator is overruled by the need for discipline and their understanding of a pupil is different. According to A. Vališová (1998), it is important that liberal style is not a mathematical opposition to authoritarian educational style. Whereas authoritarianism is characterized by excessive emphasis of the authority, liberal educational style does not necessarily neglect it either.

At school, during the educational process, there is a mutual interaction between the teacher and the pupils. Ch. Kyriacou (1996) argues that the class climate, which a teacher creates, may significantly influence pupils’ motivation and their attitude to learning. That is why the teacher’s abilities are so important when creating the classroom climate. Regarding the well-being of the pupils, an optimal class climate should be purposive, task-oriented, relaxed, sincere, supportive and sustaining the sense for order. This type of climate supports creating and sustaining positive attitudes of pupils to learning and to their intrinsic motivation. Based on the aforementioned, it can be concluded that the climate in a collective depends on the authority of an educator, on the level of his/her relationship to his/her charge, which is based on the mutual respect and contacts.

Ch. Kyriacou (1996) argues that probably the most important element contributing to the improvement of the quality of education at schools is the promotion of self-esteem and self-confidence of pupils and

confidence in their individual learning abilities. Many authors have documented in their works how teachers can damage the self esteem of students by stressing the relative lack of success in comparison to the most outstanding pupils. Such students, then, experience a sense of failure in everything they do, even if their performance is the best one they are capable of. As a result, they are caught in the vicious circle of a series of poor results on one hand and low expectations from teacher about their future work on the other hand.

It is important what value and importance an educator attributes to the views and opinions of the educated. The evaluation should be largely positive, sympathetic, encouraging, and it should not be significantly negative, indelicate, belittling or mocking. The educator significantly influences the behaviour of his/her charge also by his/her approaches to the solutions of their problems, to their errors and to the extent he/she is interested in their problems or progress.

Discipline (lat. *disciplina* = learning, teaching, education, training, behaviour) means, inter alia, the maintenance of order of the things in work, in an activity, in behavior. The term discipline determines the true and genuine commitment of an individual to the society and to oneself. Discipline belongs to moral qualities, which has evolved within the mankind. It is characterized by features such as binding, volunteerism, awareness and initiative that apply to all human activities. Discipline is based on the intrinsic incentives, external stimuli, laws and standards. Discipline is a specific type of social relation and its mental source is provided by a moral quality of an individual. It takes self-control and self-discipline. These two are in a dialectic relation to freedom and necessity, they include basic psychological, sociological and moral principles that an individual has acquired. In the process of education of an adult individual, some basic principles of discipline method are used – the method of persuasion, exercise and practical drill, the method of coercion (e.g.: in penitentiary education) and the method of personal example.

Different civilizations and cultures usually use very different set of standards and norms in all areas of life but, once the standards are set, they must be strictly followed. The basic means of the existence is the obedience. An obedient man unconditionally respects, follows and fulfills the standards and respects the authority of a superior. If one violates the standards, one finds oneself in the conflict; the more one violates these standards, the deeper is the conflict.

The first traces of discipline can be observed in the primitive society. The main objective of the education was to teach the sense of duty, imitation of adults and mutual respect. Disobedience and recklessness were punished by exclusion. The slave society required slavish obedience. Observance of discipline was enforced by harsh corporal punishment. The issue of discipline was in the centre of scholars like Cicero, Seneca and Marcus Aurelius. Cicero regarded the subjection to be a natural human condition. He stressed the obedience, duty, restraint and moderation. Seneca encouraged people in slavish obedience – obedience to Fate was a man's virtue. To protest was vain and sinful. Marcus Aurelius demanded unconditional subjection to applicable laws.

In the feudal society disobedience towards the Church represented the disobedience towards God. Obedience was the fundamental virtue. The Church demanded unconditional fulfilment of norms, self-denial and humility, obedience to authority. In Middle Ages the Church had abused enormous powers. Christian education enforced harsh discipline, preached humility and obedience, intimidated and physically punished the violation of norms. Ján Hus was, quite on the contrary, an advocate of moral responsibility and reason and its primacy over an order of any authority. His content rating of standards led to the conclusion that man not only has to but one must be disobedient.

J. A. Komenský enriched the concept of discipline with humanistic ideas. "Discipline shall endeavour to create and nourish such a cultivated emotion in those that we nurture for God and the Church just like God asks of his sons entrusted to the school of Christ, to rejoice trembling and to rejoice in Lord, providing in fear and trembling the act of their salvation, that is, the ability to love and revere their teachers, and that they not only like being led to where they need to be led but also that they

themselves would eagerly desire so. And such a treatment of emotions cannot be achieved by any other means than by those already insinuated: good examples, kind words, sincere and frank affection and only exceptionally by harder lightning and thundering but even then with severity finally transitioned in as much love as possible“ (Komenský, 1954).

According to Niccolo Machiavelli, obedience could be implemented by the “Prince”, who has the right and obligation to act always with regard to his individual benefit and in this regard, he has the right to cancel, reject or follow any kinds of standards. W. Ratke established the idea of a ruler, who, once installed into his office, respects the rights of all. In education, he disagrees with enforcing the discipline, which does not satisfy the needs of a child but feeds the complacency of educators. The Enlightenment promotes the human reason and foregrounds an education full of thoughtfulness and attention. At the same time, it is against corporal punishment. J. Locke called for the development of physical and mental discipline that would be focused on self-control and restraint. He perceived the education as a way of improving the human society. Real education, not humiliation, would develop a strong character in a child.

J. J. Rousseau promoted the rights of children; he proposed free and natural education accomplished by empirical experience. He requested an education in accordance with nature. He refused strict discipline and corporal punishment. J. H. Pestaloczi took care of abandoned and street children and educated them. He called for individual approach to everybody. German authors of modern pedagogy set more strict objectives, principles and punishment. I. Kant perceived the discipline to be a moral trait. According to J. F. Herbart, children had to be unconditionally obedient and an educator had to make use of corporal punishment. That was only the external discipline that had never been interiorized. F. W. A. Diesterweg supported independence in thinking and acting; he was against tough education. He requested quality education for educators; he highly appreciated their work. A. S. Makarenko (1974) viewed the discipline as a result of educational process which was manifested in all areas of life. Those who had no discipline were viewed as rebelling against the society. *“Indiscipline, undisciplined man in our society is a man against this society. Our discipline, unlike the old one, must be accompanied by awareness, i.e. understanding of what discipline is and why it is necessary”* (Makarenko, 1974, p. 27).

The effort of the representatives of the reformed pedagogy was to overcome the pressure that was put on children and to implement humanistic principles. They promoted child’s nature and their freedom. To name just a few of them: E. Key, M. Montessori, J. Dewey and E. Key argued that a child should neither be limited nor restrained in the development by any standards, orders or prohibitions. M. Montessori promotes self-discipline based on active discipline. A disciplined individual is not the one who has been artificially restrained and silenced; that is a rag. J. Dewey (in Kominarec, 2006) associated the discipline with interest and persistence. Interest and discipline are mutually related. He promoted humane approach to children.

“Where an activity takes time, where many means and obstacles lie between its initiation and completion, deliberation and persistence are required. It is obvious that a very large part of everyday meaning of will is precisely the deliberate or conscious disposition to persist and endure in the planned course of action in spite of difficulties and contrary solicitations. A man of strong will, in the popular sense of the words, is a man who is neither a fickle nor half-hearted in achieving chosen ends. His/her ability is executive, i.e. persistently and energetically strives to execute or carry out his/her aims. A weak will is unstable like water. A person who is trained to consider his/her actions, to undertake them deliberately, is disciplined. Add to this ability a power to endure in an intelligently chosen course in face of distraction, confusion, and difficulty, and you have the essence of discipline. Discipline means power at command; mastery of the resources available for carrying through the actions undertaken” (Dewey, 1990 in Kominarec, 2006).

The 50s and the 60s were the period of alternative education. A child was the central pillar of educational activity and the internal discipline related to it. The main strategy of humanistic approach

revolved around human rights and children's rights. Pupils were taught to respect the rights of others, to tolerate various perspectives, make decisions, and apply leadership. Every historical society has established specific principles and standards of human behaviour in the framework of social relations, which are binding for the society, groups, and individuals in all areas of social life. Discipline is a social phenomenon; it is a sum of social relations expressed in a system of standards, principles and regulations restricting human behaviour and acting in various areas of social life.

R. Olivar (1992) argues that there is no positive agreement among authors regarding the appropriate level of instructing the pupil. It is a well known fact, that there are various attempts on the ideal guidance of pupils; they range from radical authoritarian countercultural experiences to iron-tough discipline at any cost being applied even nowadays in some educational institutions in the West. Results of the studies vary especially regarding the level of instructing, its way of execution, and conditions under which it is provided. Nevertheless, literature clearly states that the frequent use of harsh techniques of instructing, especially of physically aggressive ones, does not help to develop pro-social tendencies but develops aggression in children. This phenomenon is usually explained by the fact that a drastically punished child only rarely sees the consequences of his/her acts; he/she sees only the dramatic punishment manifesting the parental power which may lead to following similar model of his/her behavior in future.

A harsh punishment may prevent repetition of misconduct in a few coming days but it will not prevent it in future. Aggressive guidance activates psychological reaction that produces the opposite tendency. A. Reble (2001) argues that when individuals feel restriction of their freedom or activity, they try to renew it or eliminate the restricting factor. This is often done by an action against the initial impact. The tendency to resist when once raised and maintained can become a permanent attitude which will become universal with other situations and stimuli. It may be the cause of permanent personality disorders. On the other hand, the medium level of empowering combined with a positive reception and acceptance of a child seems to be more favourable for positive guidance of children, especially when they are directed to see the consequences of their deeds. This so-called inductive discipline appears to contribute to the adoption of internalized self-control (Olivar, 1992).

Thus, inductive discipline means directing the attention of a child to the consequences of his/her deeds. This decentralization (distracting the self-centred attention) includes cognitive, but also emotional elements, because it encourages the empathy, which is the fundamental precondition of pro-social behavior. Based on the previous arguments, we can conclude that educator as the authority is a managing element of educational process; he/she creates and directs the required pedagogical situations as initiative conditions of this process. An educator shall awake the awareness of consequences of the deeds in the educated; he/she shall guide them to empathy in order to understand the pain of those they affected by their misdeeds. C. Saladin-Grizivatz (2002) argues that from the pedagogical point of view, any kind of punishment must make sense to the punished. Self-serving sentences showing the omnipotence of an educator are meaningless and they may have a negative impact. The punishment shall never be accompanied by humiliating words. If the punishment is too strict or tough, or postponed, or it seems unfair, it arises anger and sense of unfairness in the punished. Punishments – as well as restrictions – must make sense and they must be adequate.

R. Olivar (1992) views the reward and the punishment as a kind of pro-social stimuli. Perpetual positive stimulation resulted in long-term and generally intensified manifestations of pro-social behavior. The stimulus can be positive and shall follow after some help or service provided; it also can be negative in order to reduce undesirable behavior or eliminate undesirable reactions. Some studies demonstrated positive effect of verbal appraisal, such as "this is really good"; "I'm delighted" which stimulated the willingness to help or to donate. In addition, such appraisal can have a permanent effect. Naturally, there are some concerns regarding the function of positive stimulation mainly in relation to motivation. E. Deci (1975) proved that strong motivation to an activity may cause its devaluation, especially if the behavior does not concentrate on intrinsic value of the activity but on the extrinsic reward. According to the author, this danger does not exist within the social stimulation.

R. Olivar (1992) advised the educators to analyze their stimulation methods in various educational situations and to develop their own inventory. He thinks that it is useful for an educator to observe typical situations in which pro-social actions arise spontaneously. These situations should be recorded and appropriately empowered if they arise again. It is likely that such variety of opinions of reward and punishment are to some extent applicable also in prisons or institutions of correction. In this case, the system of reward and punishment is not based on creativity and ingenuity of an educator but it is well-established by law.

The term regime refers to a particular order. It occurs in all areas of social life. M. Kališ (1986) argues that in pedagogy, regime refers to order and schedule of educational activities that take place in certain time and in certain place. A. S. Makarenko (1974) sees the regime as a certain way of organizing the life of the educated performing the function of social control and regulation of behavior. The basic features of a correct regime (its principles), according to A. S. Makarenko, are the following:

- *Purposefulness.* All forms of regimes must have some sense and some logic, and they must be objectively justified and clear for all parties involved.
- *Accuracy.* Rules and daily regime shall not tolerate exceptions regarding time, space and method of their fulfilment.
- *General obligation.* The regime is obligatory for everybody. Exception must correlate with purposefulness. A. S. Makarenko calls the attention to dangerous “elite” that pretends to carry out exceptional tasks in order to avoid the rules of the system.
- *Determinacy.* Regime can only be followed if it is determined by specific regulations and assigned responsibilities.

J. Vaněk (1972) understands the term regime as the manner of organizing the life cycle and its management at this or that time and place. According to this author, creating and sustaining a regime is based on the following principles:

- *Social principles of regime* – they are the fundamental principles regulating the social relations within educational groups:
 1. Equality principle expresses general binding of the system for everybody.
 2. Regulations observance principle requires all violations of the norm to be punished.
 3. Standards justification principle requires all members of a group to be convinced of substantiality of the system principles, and recognize them in order to review them.
- *Hygienic principles of regime* – it is the basic knowledge of hygiene, which is important in overall organization of life of the educated – alternating work and rest, adequate time for personal hygiene, etc.
- *Pedagogical principles of regime* – it is the fundamental requirement on pedagogical staff when drawing the regime for an educational institution. These principles are:
 1. Sustainable positive character of the regime.
 2. Well-balanced cognitive, emotional and physical elements.
 3. Drawing the system with regard to age and individual needs of the educated.

J. Vaněk (1986) argues that the definition of regime in pedagogy and in penitentiary pedagogy sees the regime as a specific sum of normative requirements regarding social behavior and social relations. These requirements reflect normative value system of the society and general interest of the society in education. Thus, the regime determines the specific activities, behavior and acting and their acceptability in particular time and under particular social conditions. The behavioral requirements are embodied in social norms of the regime. The regime systematically and deliberately influences the personality of the educated with regard to the social norms and regulations. Regime in pedagogy has a regulatory function. Regulatory function is manifested as follows:

- The educated are told how to behave to each other, to educational staff, and to other people they meet.
- Specific activities are scheduled. Formally, this function is manifested in the daily timetable, which specifies how and when a particular activity is carried out.
- Rights and obligations of the educated are determined and methods of application and performance are stated.
- There are enumerated sanctions for violation of the set standards.

Regime is a method of ethical education; its immediate educational objective is to teach discipline as a moral trait of personality. Disciplinary rewards and punishments are the direct form of discipline implementation. On the contrary, regime is an indirect form. The essence of the regime lies in the systematic and intentional use of social and regulatory impact of the collective to an individual. This form supports the active participation of prisoners in organizing their life; it is deliberately implemented in community systems of collective education regarding the elimination of negative impact of criminal subculture standards and, in parallel, implementing positive influence of social relations in groups. The strategy, known as "parallel action pedagogy" was developed by A. S. Makarenko (1974). An educator can combine direct and indirect form of discipline implementation in order to influence the prisoners. Each form is specific; the specifications are manifested mainly in the approach to the prisoners with regard to educational objectives as well as to intrinsic and extrinsic conditions of education.

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Neuroscience as a Basis for Innovations in Education

*Jana Trníková – Erich Petlák**

Abstract: We live in a time in which a “revolution” in education is occurring. Through brain research and technology, we have unlocked many of the reasons why some children experience so much difficulty in learning. We know more about effective teaching practices than at any other time in history. Through technological advances, we have a whole world as our resource base. In addition, teachers are finally being empowered to make choices that affect their classrooms.

Keywords: brain, brain-based teaching, neuroscience, neurodidactics, innovations, brain-based learning principles.

1 Introduction

Hundreds, maybe thousands of books about the human brain have been published during the past 12 to 15 years, probably more than in many decades before. Without question, teachers want to learn as much as possible about how the brain functions in the limited time available to them for personal study. After all, teachers are responsible for what happens to somewhere around 20 young brains every day at school. A major role of teachers is to know enough about brain research and to help pupils develop into the best that they can possibly become.

Learning first comes in through our senses. As we explore and experience our material world, initial sensory patterns are laid down on elaborative nerve networks. These initial sensory patterns become our reference points and give us the context for all learning, thought, and creativity. From this sensory base we add emotions and movements in our life-long learning.

Each pupil brings a unique personal neural history to school every day that gives teachers quite a challenge as they try to customize learning for each pupil. This uniqueness makes a strong case for legitimacy of different learning styles, a variety of learning strategies, multiple intelligences, and the role of appropriate choice. So while the history of a pupil (and his or her brain) does influence learning, it does not determine the learning. Even in the moment, it is how a pupil feels about the learning that plays as big a part as anything. When pupils feel safe, exploratory, challenged, supported, and confident, miracles often happen. These miracles are the result of the triumph of environment over genetic makeup in the pupil's brains. Scientists now know that our genes are susceptible to environmental input.

Innovations coming into the attention of teachers also in Slovakia are known as neurodidactics, neuropedagogy or brain-based learning. These three terms are linked by the common base – neuroscience, as a science about internal structure and functions of the brain which connects results of the research based on medical (neurological field) and other disciplines, creating multidisciplinary approach to the educational process and its other elements.

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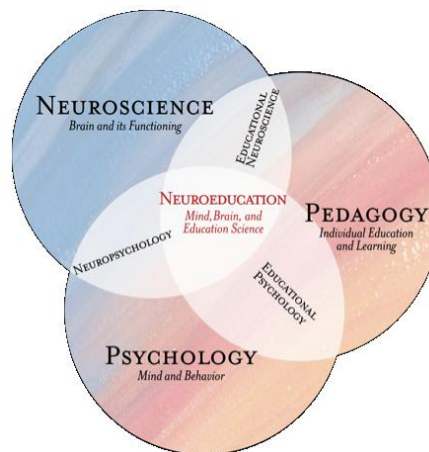
2 Theoretical analysis of the terms neurodidactics, neuropedagogy, and other related terms

In the 1980s, brain-based education finally emerged as a whole new field based on what we were learning about the brain and how it might affect education. At least a part of the driving force behind related new fields of neurobiology (neurology and biology) and cognitive neuroscience (cognitive science and neuroscience) was technology, drugs and biomarkers. New technology provided us with imaging tools to look inside the brain, such as the magnetic resonance imaging (MRI), functional MRI (fMRI), and positron-emission tomography (PET). For the first time in history, we could analyze the brain while its owner was still alive (Jensen, 2008a, p. 3).

In 1983 a new paradigm established connections between brain functions and traditional educational practice. In a groundbreaking book "Human Brain and Human Learning" L. Hart (1983) argued that cognitive processes were significantly impaired by classroom threat. Because if we ignore how our pupils' brains work, we will risk pupils' success. Many have tied brain function to either new models of thinking, as H. Gardner (1983) did in *Frames of Mind: The Theory of Multiple Intelligences*, or classroom pedagogy, as R. Caine and G. Caine (1991) did in *Making Connections: Teaching and the Human Brain*.

The development mentioned above as related to the USA had a great influence on the progress in Europe. Mind, Brain, and Education (MBE) science began as a cross-disciplinary venture between cognitive neuroscience and developmental psychology, but then it reached further beyond these parameters to integrate education via educational psychology and educational neuroscience (Figure 1) (Tokuhamma-Espinosa, 2010).

Figure 1 MBE Science as a Multidisciplinary Field (Tokuhamma-Espinosa, 2010)



In 1988 G. Preiss, professor of didactics at the University of Fribourg, a specialist in early childhood mathematics education for youngest between two and a half and seven years, has pioneered programs that combined neurological research with math education and are based on a holistic approach to education. He propounded the introduction of an autonomous subject based on brain research and pedagogy that he called neurodidactics. According to this new discipline, school pedagogy and general didactics must attach more importance to the fact that learning lies in brain processes and that cognitive results keep up with the development of a child's brain. By taking this into account, one may say that neurodidactics studies the conditions under which human learning can be optimized to its highest level.

Neurodidactics is an interface between neuroscience, didactics, pedagogy and psychology. It tries to work out principles and proposals for effective learning based on the findings of brain-research. A new branch of education theory appeared that attempts to relate teaching strategies and learning modalities to the hard facts of brain research. This new learning theory called “neurodidactics” or “neuropedagogy” referring to brain-based learning came under debate in Europe recently (Caspary, 2006; Herrmann, 2006; Preiss, 1998; Spitzer, 2006).

Brain-based education is related with the terms mentioned above. Brain-based education is, according to E. Jensen (2008a, p. 4), best understood in three words: *engagement*, *strategies*, and *principles*. Brain-based education is the engagement of strategies based on principles derived from understanding of the brain. It is not based on strategies given to us from neuroscientists. That is not appropriate. The author further states that brain-based learning in accordance with the way the brain is naturally designed to learn. It is a multidisciplinary approach that is built on this fundamental question: What is good for the brain? It crosses and draws from multiple disciplines, such as chemistry, neurology, psychology, sociology, genetics, biology, and computational neurobiology.

It is also a way of thinking about learning. It is a way of thinking about teacher’s work. It is not a discipline on its own, nor is it a prescribed format or dogma. In fact, a “formula” for it would be in direct opposition to the principles of brain-based learning.

Although a brain-based approach does not provide a recipe for us to follow, it does encourage us to consider the nature of the brain in our decision making. By using what we know about the brain, we can make better decisions and reach more learners, more often, and with fewer misses. Quite simply, it is learning with the brain in mind.

Brain-based education considers how the brain learns best. The brain does not learn on demand by a school’s rigid, inflexible schedule. It has its own rhythms. If we want to maximize learning, we first need to discover how nature’s engine runs. This singular realization alone has fueled a massive and urgent movement worldwide to redesign learning. What we thought was critical in the past, may not, in fact, be very important at all.

We can state that the terms neurodidactics, neuropedagogy, brain-based or brain compatible learning and teaching are similar in their definitions, because they emphasize brain and the necessity to have knowledge about it, which plays an important role in education across the world. This approach deals with “brain-based” principles and strategies and the impact of neuroscientific knowledge on pedagogy and didactics. These terms have defenders as well as opponents. We can follow the various attitudes on the internet often criticized because of differences in the used terms.

3 Overview of brains anatomical structure and learning process

Nature’s biological imperative is simple: no intelligence or ability will unfold until, or unless, it is given the appropriate model of environment. From a biological perspective, it is important to realize that the human brain, like the immune system, is designated solely for survival. Pupils will do what they need to do to survive in the “schoolyard jungle”. The “negative” behaviors they learn (put-downs, deceit, attacking, avoidance, and peer pressure) are to be expected as long as pupils perceive that their survival is at stake.

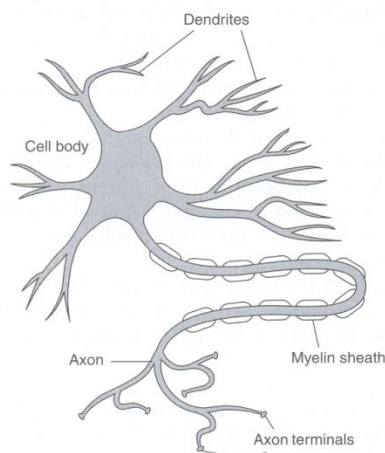
As M. L. Slavkin (2004, p. 38) says, brain is “not only the control center of the entire human body, organizing our behaviors and biological functions, but it is also the seat of our humanity. It defines who we are, how we act, and the nature of our species.”

To understand pupil's behavior and activity at school, we must understand how the brain works. And to understand how the brain works, we must first have at least some basic understanding of the cells that carry messages back and forth in the brain and throughout the rest of the body.

The brain is the most complex organ we possess. Cell counts vary widely among humans, but generally speaking, a person's brain contains between 50 billion and 100 billion (100.000.000.000) neurons. For the sake of comparison, consider that a monkey has about 10 percent of that, a mouse has about 5 million brain cells, and a fruit fly has about 100 000. Individual cells do not make us smart; it is their connections that do. When linked together, the number of connections our brain cells can make is estimated to be from 100 trillion to as much as 10 followed by millions of zeroes (more than the estimated number of atoms in the known universe).

A *neuron* is a basic structural and processing unit of the nervous system. It has three primary functional areas: the cell body (soma), the outbound projection (axon), and the inbound "feeder systems" (dendrites). Its structure and properties allow it to conduct signals by taking advantage of the electrical charge across its cell membrane. Neurons cannot be seen with the naked eye and come in many sizes and structures.

Figure 2 *Axon and dendrite model* (Jensen, 2008a, p. 14)



A normally functioning neuron continuously fires, integrates, and generates information across microscopic gaps called *synapses* (a term derived from the Latin word that means "to grasp"), thereby linking one cell to another. No neuron is an end point in itself. Rather, each acts as a conduit for information. Always busy, neurons generate a hotbed of activity. In fact, a single neuron may connect with 1 000 to 10 000 other cells. As a rule, the more connections your cells make the better.

Dendrites are branchlike extensions protruding from a cell body. They are receivers of the input that gets passed along from neurons to cells (Figure 2). The sum of all the synaptic reactions arriving from the dendrites to the cell body at any given moment determines whether that cell will, in fact, fire. In other words, learning involves groups or networks of neurons. There is threshold to reach, too; the cell needs enough activation to fire, or it will remain dormant and no memory will be activated.

Although the cell body has the capacity to move, most adult neurons stay put and simply extend their single *axon* outward. Some axonal migration is genetically programmed, and some is a result of environmental stimulation. Axons normally talk only to dendrites and dendrites normally talk only to

axons. When an axon meets up with a dendrite from a neighboring cell, the “eureka” moment of the learning process occurs.

To connect with thousands of other cells, the axon repeatedly subdivides itself and branches out. Neurons serve to pass along information that flows in one direction only. The dendrites receive input from other axons and transmit the information to their cell body. Then the information moves out to the axon that communicates it to another cell through dendritic branches. An electrical impulse travels down the axon where it triggers the release of neurotransmitters into the synaptic gap. In the span of a microsecond, the chemicals travel across the gap (about 50 microns) and are absorbed into receptor sites on the surface of the receiving dendrite.

Neurotransmitters influence the synaptic reactions and result in learning impairment, enhancement, or no effect. For example, a low level of the stress hormone cortisol during a learning session has no known effect. Moderate levels, however, enhance synaptic efficiency, and high levels impair learning. On the other hand, the neurotransmitter noradrenaline seems to have the opposite effect. Low levels have no effect, but high levels enhance learning and memory. Progesterone, testosterone, and dozens of other hormones also impact learning. For example, testosterone seems to support spatial learning, but only in moderate levels. A teacher can influence some neurotransmitters (e.g., adrenaline is increased by the type of risk, urgency, and excitement that can happen in a classroom competition), but others are not easily modified (e.g., glutamate seems impervious to our behaviors).

4 How do we and our brain learn?

Learning is a form of neural plasticity that changes behavior by remodeling neural connections. Specialized neural mechanisms have evolved to make the most of this capability. Researches have long believed that to understand learning as a physiological process they would have to figure out what happens at the level of the neuron and, particularly, at the synapse. Since its discovery three decades ago, long term potentiation has been the best candidate for explaining the neural changes that occur during learning (Garrett, 2009, p. 371).

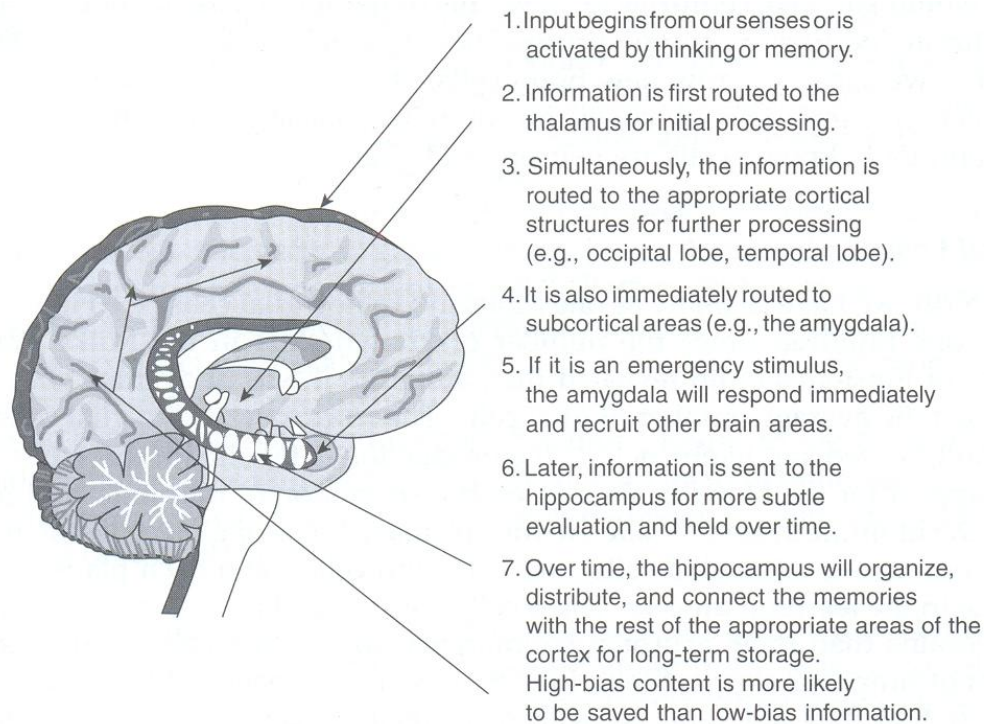
The brain stores a tremendous amount of information, but information that is merely stored is useless. It must be available, not just when it is being recalled into awareness, but when the brain needs it for carrying out a task. Working memory provides a temporary “register” for information when it is being used (Garrett, 2009, p. 370).

At the most general level, the brain processes for learning are deceptively simple (Figure 3). Input to the brain arrives from the five senses or is generated internally through imagination or reflection. This input is initially processed in the thalamus, the “server” or central switching area of the brain. Simultaneously, it is routed to other specific areas for further processing because time is of the essence. Visual information is routed to the occipital lobe, language to the temporal lobe, and so on.

The brain forms a rough sensory impression of the incoming data. If any of the data are threatening or suspicious, the amygdala (the ‘uncertainty’ activator) is activated. It will jump – start the rest of the sympathetic nervous system – the part of the nervous system that helps us deal with emergencies – and enable a quick response (Jensen, E., 2008b, p. 16).

Typically, however, the frontal lobes hold much of the new data in short-term memory for 5 to 20 seconds. Most of the new information is filtered, dismissed, and never gets stored. It may be irrelevant, trivial, or not compelling enough. If it is worth a second consideration, new explicit learning is routed to and held in the hippocampus, two crescent-shaped structures in the midbrain area. There the information is processed further to determine its value.

Figure 3 *How the brain learns new content* (Jensen, 2008a, p. 11)



If the new learning is deemed important, it is organized and indexed by the hippocampus and later stored in the cortex. In fact, it will be stored in the same lobe that originally processed it – visual information in the occipital lobe, language in the temporal lobe, and so on. The original processing takes place at the lightning speed, but the subsequent stages and storage process can take hours, days, and even weeks (Jensen, 2008a, p. 10).

It is important to know that humans learn in many ways, including through sensitization, habituation, conditioned responses, semantic learning, imitation, and by doing. Many of these processes are not well understood. And although they may share parts of a pathway, we are each unique, and the different input is processed differently.

5 Fundamental principles of brain-based learning

The most important change for education is to understand how human beings learn and place that understanding at the very center of teaching. H. Schachl (2006, p. 7-9) summarized what we presently know about learning and compared to other branches of science, brain research and number of its findings may be well integrated into teaching and learning even now. He has compiled twelve credos to efficient and effective teaching and learning.

Credo 1: Overview before details

Before dealing with details, it is essential to provide an overview. It helps the brain to locate existing memory files and to create new ones. It will then be ready to take in all the details. It is essential to create and provide advance organizers.

Credo 2: Clear teaching and learning aims

A clear answer to the learners' "Why?" makes it easier for them to see the relevance of a task. It has long been known that awareness of why one is doing something increases one's readiness to learn and makes for more perceptive learners.

Credo 3: Arouse interest

Keen interest is the best possible point of departure for taking in new things and committing them to memory. Interest generates a positive attitude, an essential precondition of efficient learning. Links to prior knowledge and to the learner's own experience(s) as well as new information presented in a captivating manner will increase the learner's interest.

Credo 4: Revision and repetition

"Repetitio est mater studiorum" (No studies without revision) are the words of the ancient Romans. The truth of this ancient adage is borne out by modern neuroscience: Repeated activation of neural circuits makes them more stable. Homework certainly makes sense, especially if it encourages revision of topics the learner has grasped already. Revision can come in various guises, and again the Romans had a word for it: "Variatio delectate" (Variety is the spice of life). Mechanical rote learning (without any cognitive engagement) is pointless.

Credo 5: Multi-sensory approach

Information should not only enter the brain via the learner's eyes and ears, but also via tactile stimuli. This produces multiple links, and hence a more permanent memory in the brain's circuitry. "Grasping" the meaning for something also implies doing it yourself and then explaining it to others, another efficacious way to learn.

Credo 6: Affective factors

Stress and anxiety block the paths of information into a person's memory. A long-term storage and swift retrieval of information require positive emotions. Their role in learning and in thought processes has been demonstrated both from an anatomical and a physiological point of view.

Credo 7: Feedback

Learning is pointless if there is no way to check whether the right things have been learnt. Brain research tells us that early feedback is of paramount importance. During the stage at which information is being stored in the neural circuits, "repairs" are easier to effect than after the process has been concluded. Invariably, unlearning is more arduous than learning new things. Such feedback can be provided by the learner's self-monitoring or assessment by others. When giving feedback, remember to praise, reinforce and confirm.

Credo 8: Take breaks

The chemical activities in the brain need time to process incoming information. This consolidation process should not be disrupted by the arrival of additional, possibly not wholly dissimilar information. Suggested activities during breaks can be a period of sleep, playing a game, listening to music, sports activities, etc. Preferably, such activities should involve physical exercise, and there should be no link between them and the work done beforehand. In order not to impair the process of consolidation it is essential to prevent any interference caused by kindred subject matter being presented nearly simultaneously. This will lead to confusion and the information cannot "sink in".

Credo 9: Sequencing in teaching and learning

A golden thread – a logical sequence of steps in learning – enables the brain to establish effective links between new and previous, related information, thus making it "meaningful" (cf. credo 10). Advance information also facilitates comprehension and makes learning less stressful. Items that resemble one another too closely should not be learned in a quick succession – interference and overlap might impair the learning process.

Credo 10: The importance of associative networks

Numerous experiments in cognitive psychology have demonstrated that human memory functions as a network (associations, etc.). Like most things in nature, the “biological apparatus” called brain is extremely complex in its circuitry. Come to that, the whole world is a highly complex system of interconnected networks: Associative networks can be established by means of context-based learning, multi-sensory learning (credo 5), cross-curricular, and project-oriented learning.

Credo 11: Specific aptitudes

This point is more than a mere appendix. It is an important principle in neurodidactics. The task is to find out about a person’s specific strengths and interests, to be able to promote and advance them better. Such an optimized use of educational resources on a national scale will also help to enhance a country’s appeal as an industrial base. This eleventh principle also implies that learning disabilities can be dealt with more effectively by means of customized remedial teaching.

Credo 12: Learning by imitation

In the middle of the nineties the Italian researcher G. Rizzolatti (Iacobini, 2009, p. 66; Degen, 2007, p. 11-33) and his colleagues got a surprising, exciting result: If a monkey grasps a thing, the nerve cells of a specific region of the brain fire are in action. The same firing is, if someone plans this movement. The cells fire before doing it. But the surprising and most exciting finding is, thirdly, that in a small subset of this brain region the cells fire also when someone observes another person grasping. It is like a mirror in our brain, and therefore these specific cells are called “mirror neurons”. Imitation is necessary and important. As a consequence, it is important to remember that it is necessary to demonstrate exactly and often. Teacher should set a good example and take care of good feelings of pupils.

Designing a quality learning experience for pupils is the very first step of effective teaching. These four principles (Armstrong, 2008, p. 30) of lesson design are important to consider prior to delivering instruction:

1. Identify the essential knowledge to be learned and method(s) of assessment and feedback.
2. Activate prior knowledge to build connections to new content.
3. Select a variety of strategies to engage all learners.
4. Teach bell-to-bell and provide closure.

The teacher’s profession is not about filling up pupils with facts, but rather opening up pupils to lifelong learning. Start with the premise that your pupils can and will learn and learn. The structure of the lesson plan has more to do with its success than does its delivery.

6 Conclusion

Innovation appearing also in educational practice in Slovakia is represented by several terms such as neurodidactics, neuropedagogy, brain-compatible learning, and brain-based learning. It is a field that respects multidisciplinary approach. Neuroscience is a basis for this innovative point of view that is focusing not just on brain processes happening during learning, but also on lesson planning respecting and developing pupils’ individuality. Brain-based learning is trying to implement the principles on the neuroscientific base and support creativity, use variable teaching methods, long-term memory strengthening, create enriched environment as well as relaxation and coping strategies. Learning involves changes in strength synapses, the connections between neurons in the gray matter. Based on the findings of brain research, the brain-based teaching provides principles and proposals for effective teaching and learning. The main goal of these principles is to intervene in pedagogical practice. Not all of them are brand new, but they confirm the theories and principles of progressive pedagogy and prove that they are effective. Therefore, an integration of brain-based learning in the teacher training would be desirable.

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Conversation between Child and Adult as Educational Experience

*Eugenia Rostańska**

Abstract: Conversation is a specific component of communication activity. Its peculiar dimension is visible in educational situations. Its main component is the relation between a child and an adult.

Key words: conversation, child, communication.

In pedagogical studies, conversation is rarely treated autonomously. Most frequently, it is subordinate to more general communication components such as: dialog, interaction and discourse (Rostańska, 2010). It is sometimes analyzed and employed as an efficient component of pedagogical activities – upbringing, education or as a form of verbal activity of pupils, constituting the basis for the development of language efficiency and possibility to present natural or unprompted utterances. In scientific research it is also treated as a technique, a manner of data collection, parallel to an interview as a variant of a non-structured dialog method, as natural information exchange and, in a particular way as a mode of research related to the phenomenological and hermeneutic bases.

Conversation, however, as a form or a component of human activity, is not a part of the whole. It is subject to its own organization, imposed by its inherent structural and pragmatic properties. The distinction of its nature is manifested by the following features:

1. Specific organization category – uniqueness, hic at nuc status, undetermined commencement and end, change of roles, language colloquialism, syncretism of forms.
2. Specific communication experience – dyadic nature, presentations and changes in relations, categorization of verbal activity in language behaviors, strategies of kindness, assumed communication styles and preferences.
3. Specific functioning of conversation in educational situations – the child's partner is an adult (teacher, parent, acquaintance or relative), in educational activities such as: explanation, direction, creation of pre-problematic and problematic situations, evaluation, transfer and receipt of information.

Thus, the pedagogue's scientific interest in the issue of child's conversation with an adult means the determination of a separate subject of understanding in terms of philosophy, sociology, psycholinguistics, language prognosis or communication theory, concurrently taking into account the employed theoretical assumptions, scientific procedures and research results. This entails also sharing of a determined exploration field, essential from the pedagogical perspective of application and functioning of conversation within the communication universe. This field is limited by the child's communication experience as a variety of sensations and attempts, the previous experiences, fixed schemes internalized by the child and determining the child's cognitive and communicative activity in conversation with an adult.

In the early school period conversation is the primary form of educational communication, a manner of teacher's communication with a child and of a child with a teacher. It is a means to achieve the upbringing objectives. Conversation is an explanation and transfer of meanings, an attempt to solve problems. In the early school education all children's actions are accompanied mainly by conversation with teachers or adults. Children's behaviors and relations, manners of initiation and ending a conversation, language behaviors as well as communication experience from relations with an adult,

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demonstration of oneself and one's world are the essence of conversation. It is a sum of several factors, conditions and, sometimes, a chance. It is also the earlier form of communication experiences of a child.

People learn communication and conversation by themselves. Before a child acquires the ability to read and write as a mode of receiving and messaging the meanings, s/he performs these activities by verbal forms of communication, the basic one being conversation with adults. This process entails the intuition typical for any adult person or child – the ability to recognize conversation and participation in it. The ability to choose conversation as a proper form for the given communication situation or in response to the needs of the communication or participants is also typically intuitive for people.

According to the assumption of the theory of communication, this interaction space must also include the indicators controlling the process of participation in conversation. They also include the use of signals which make the participants perceive the mutual communication as conversation. This is a limitation of the mutual perception of the conversation participants.

The analysis of a child's conversation with an adult is, on the one hand, the study of an independent and structured entity, on the other – elusive, indeterminate, with the nature of a phenomenon the feature of which is uniqueness and the agency is impossible to assess. Commonness of conversation and communicative ethnography (Ostrowska, 2000, p. 22) connected with this issue hinder its qualifications based on strict division into categories. Conversation is a multi-plot thread, continuous supplementation, shaping of communicating persons. The question of the nature of the child's conversation with an adult with certain pedagogical implications must refer to the space of the conversation itself as a form of communication. In this space, in the pedagogical aspect, it is not really the structure that plays the significant role, but the child's experience of the mere communication and relation between a child and an adult. This pertains to the components of the space which are the carriers of educational communication and which have been expressed in the language.

The analysis of communication experience is expected to determine and describe these experiences and communication attempts which result from the child's interaction with an adult in conversation. They constitute an interpretation of the experience, design its use and create the communication habitus.

Therefore, communication experience in the child's conversation with an adult may be determined by the description of sensations and communication attempts in the following analysis categories:

1. Child's interaction with the adult.
2. Child's relation with the adult.
3. Asymmetry of the child's relation with the adult.
4. Strategy of kindness.
5. Effectiveness of the message.

The following categories may be distinguished for the purpose of an analysis of the educational references of the conversation of a child and an adult:

- affective sphere,
- receipt and transfer of meaning,
- explanations,
- direction.

Communication experience in the child's conversation with an adult is very special in educational situations. It arises from the function fulfilled by communication in the education process – learning. Thus, school communication has been the subject of multiple studies and analyses, constituting a pedagogical research field as empirical examples and indication for educational practice. The

significance must be attributed to the language features applied by the teachers in didactic communication as well as to the communication patterns of a teacher and a pupil in the auditorium arrangement.

The issue associated with the role of communication in the learning-teaching process has been solved. "School education comes down to the communication of its participants" (Denek, 1998, p. 125). Whereas school "as a place of organized education and upbringing processes, creating characteristic norms of language means selection binding the teacher and pupil in their relations, allows within its framework for qualitatively varied communication behaviors ..." (Wawrzyniak-Beszterda, 2002, p. 37). The education process is sometimes described as a process of symbolic communication expressed in language (Gnitecki, 2001). According to G. Koć-Seniuch (2000), the difference between the pedagogical communication and "other interpersonal communication processes" is expressed in the purposive and intentional influence of teachers on the children and youth in the unconditional acceptance of the child.

"The dialog roles assumed by pupils and teachers in their relations constitute an important socializing factor", as emphasised by R. Wawrzyniak-Beszterda (2002, p. 39) referring to the claims of B. Bernstein, and further on, they result from the fact that the specified nature of social relations influences what, when and how is said. School is treated as a place where we speak and concurrently it is indicated that this speaking is of specific nature. This specificity results from the determined structure of didactic communication, characterized by coerciveness of action, specific course of communication wherein a teacher "makes the language a sublime tool for controlling the children, emphasizing the dominance and authoritarianism" (Gawel-Luty, 2001, p. 231). These indications constitute a result of researches regarding school communication, devoted to the relations between a teacher and a pupil as well as the consequences for communication resulting from the said relation.

The audience is determined by the role of a teacher as a person controlling the communication process. R. Meighan (1993, p. 175) claims that "the prevalent part of speaking in a classroom is constituted by the teacher's utterances ... whereas the main discourse axis is constantly controlled by the teacher or the control over it is rapidly restored by him". This means the so-called limited communication wherein the language interactions may be determined in four movement categories:

1. Constructing movements: aiming at creation and direction of the conversation context and activity during a lesson.
2. Reaction provoking movements – aiming at provoking a reply.
3. Reply movements – directly connected with the constructing movements.
4. Reaction movements – utterances aiming at supplementation, development and evaluation of the previous movement" (Meighan, 1993, p. 175).

These movements correspond to the structure of information in teacher's communication with a pupil comprised by:

1. Maintaining or directing the conversation.
2. Control and supervision over what is said.
3. Confirmation of understanding.
4. Conclusions.
5. Defining.
6. Reacting, precisising.
7. Correcting.
8. Determination of features (Janowski, 1989, p. 167-168).

A teacher controls the order of child's utterances and is not controlled by anybody. Thus the difference between – as claimed by A. Janowski (1989) – the "common conversation" and the conversation of a teacher and a child. This results both from the difference of the child – adult and child – teacher

relation as well as from the role of the school itself: "school, as a place of organized education and upbringing processes, creating characteristic norms of language means selection binding the teacher and pupil in their relations, allows within its framework for qualitatively varied communication behaviors" (Wawrzyniak-Beszterda, 2002, p. 37). The typical norms of language means selection are constituted, inter alia, by public evaluation.

A teacher not only formulates certain expectations regarding the types of behavior s/he approves, but also during the given lesson, the teacher's questions, tone of voice, gestures, posture, reactions to pupil's replies as well as his/her overall behavior manifest the manners of language use the teacher expects from the pupils. Teacher and pupil create a social context, that is a system of communication and this is what will shape the scope of language strategies applied by the pupils (Rostańska, 1995). Teacher and pupil constitute a variety of the child-adult dyad.

When school communication assumes the form of educational dialogue, it makes the teacher and the pupil two co-acting and cooperating persons, "each of them is open towards the other and ready to speak and listen" (Śnieżyński, 1998, p. 197). However, the difference between everyday communication and communication at a lesson results in the participants of school communication, the pupil and teacher, being unable to select the communication forms freely. The prevalent manner of language use creates – as specified by D. Klaus-Stańska (2000, p. 139; p. 200), a peculiar language climate in everyday classroom contacts. It is characterized by:

1. No trust in the role of spontaneous utterances.
2. Limited legality of colloquial language.
3. Transfer of the written language rules.
4. Asymmetry of linguistic principles.
5. Changes in the communication direction.
6. Depreciation of the pupils' language.

And above all – the conviction that the methods develop the ability to speak not by the speaking situation experience but through listening (Klus-Stańska, 2000, p. 252).

Educational references in the child's conversation with an adult are represented by a specific affective sphere, explanation, transfer and receipt of meaning and directing. The context of school communication situation results in a child behaving according to the experience it gained within everyday communication. Therefore, the child's choice of communication behaviors at school is a result of what s/he has experienced in everyday conversations with adults. Thus, it is also dependant on the degree of commitment of the child in the communication situation, characterised by the adult – child dyad as well as on the possibilities provided by the situation.

The child's conversation with an adult possesses a specific structural nature. Its beginning and end depend primarily on the behavior of an adult who reacts to the child's attempt to initiate conversation solely in a situation of an expressed language signal. In such a situation the adult's reaction becomes spontaneous. The adults clearly want to talk about the things a child is telling to them. When they initiate the conversation they somehow emphasize its subject, imposing an official nature onto the entire conversation. A distinct feature is the child's ease of switching between the role of the speaker to the role of the listener and the other way round. Adults do not find this that natural. They prefer to be the speakers, rather than the listeners.

Questions are the privilege of an adult. The adult announces the content of conversation with a question, the child – with a description. Sensations and experiences are shared by the child and the adult however the conversation regarding them is not free from perturbation. A more favorable topic is an object or a phenomenon the observation of which is shared by the child and adult. Adult's closing of the conversation is an unambiguous signal and constitutes a domain of the adults.

Conversation of a child and an adult possesses its specific place in the field of pedagogical regularities. It is used in the upbringing and educational processes, applied primarily in the early school education and everyday contacts. Knowledge of its structure and rules is an indispensable condition for its application by teachers as a means of communication with a child. Phenomenology and hermeneutics-oriented qualitative research allows to penetrate and to describe this extraordinary phenomenon of child's communication with an adult the best.

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REVIEWS

Slovak-English Phonic Interference (Zdena Král'ová)

Žilina: University of Žilina, 2011. 101 p. ISBN 978-80-554-0456-1.

Rastislav Metruk*

There is a major focus on communicative competence in the process of foreign language (L2) learning and thus L2 pronunciation is of considerable significance. Slovak learners often learn English by means of the Slovak language. There is a growing need of comprehension to what extent the Slovak phonic system interferes with English pronunciation and the publication "Slovak-English Phonic Interference" casts more light onto this matter. The 101-page book is divided into four chapters – the first two propose the theoretical background and the latter two describe the thoroughly processed experiment.

The first part is devoted to language interference – its definition, theories and typology. At the end of this chapter, it is highlighted that today accuracy and correctness are not stressed as much as they used to be, but adequacy in a particular communicative situation should be paid more and more attention. Chapter number two covers the factors of interference. These are divided into structural and non-structural ones and the structural factors are further subdivided into the phonic and non-phonic factors. It is also mentioned that every individual has greater or lower ability to acquire L2 pronunciation. This ability is influenced by biological and psychological features as well as by the environment individuals operate in. The most significant part of this chapter is a differential description of English and Slovak sound systems and the processing of anticipated segmental and suprasegmental mistakes in English pronunciation.

The experimental part starts with the methodology of research. The interference was examined by recording the spontaneous utterances of 60 Slovak first-year university students of the English language (respondents). The average length of the recordings was 2.5 minutes and the topic was autobiographical. 15 native speakers of English (evaluators) evaluated the respondents' pronunciation. They listened to the recordings only once and were asked to record what they considered incorrect and strange as well as the words and phrases which were unintelligible to them. Exactly 27 mistakes were detected by the evaluators, which are meticulously described. 85% of these mistakes were caused by interference. The detected mistakes were also analysed experimentally in a phonetic laboratory. 64 cases which caused problems for the evaluators in terms of understanding the words or phrases were recognized. The causes of these cases are divided into phonic and non-phonic.

The correlation coefficients between the overall grades of respondents' pronunciation and the grades from evaluation of particular mistakes (based on remarks of the native speakers) indicate that phoneme substitution within the segments (especially the substitution of phonemes) is perceptually more distinctive, but, from the point of intelligibility, it is of lesser significance than suprasegmental mistakes. Although the prosodic features affected intelligibility more, their connection to overall pronunciation evaluation was not considerable. The publication "Slovak-English Phonic Interference" is highly valuable and its conclusions have wide applicability to English phonetics teaching.

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INFORMATION

The jubilee of an eminent personage of Slovak pedagogy Professor Petlák 70-year old

*Tomáš Lengyelfalusy**



Prof. PhDr. Erich Petlák, CSc., a distinguished representative of Slovak pedagogy and the Rector of the Dubnica Technological Institute in Dubnica nad Váhom, celebrated an important jubilee – 70 years of age. He was born on 28th of February 1942 in Ratnovce, a picturesque village near Piešťany.

He graduated from the Pedagogical Institute in Trnava in Primary Teacher's Training. After his university studies, he worked at elementary schools in Horná Súča, Lúka nad Váhom and Ducové. He had worked at elementary schools for 9 years; afterwards, he completed the university education at the Faculty of Philosophy, Comenius University in Bratislava in Pedagogy and began his career at the Faculty of Education of the Constantine the Philosopher University in Nitra, where he worked continuously for 40 years (in the positions of the dean and vice-dean for several years).

Within his pedagogical, scientific, research and publication activities he focused his attention on the theory of education. Professor E. Petlák is the author and co-author of 5 scientific monographs published abroad, 6 scientific and specialized books published in Slovakia, 4 textbooks and 4 university textbooks. He published more than 170 articles in pedagogical magazines and conference proceedings published in Slovakia and abroad and he was an active participant at 60 scientific conferences.

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During his pedagogical work, he supervised 220 final theses (bachelor and master) and educated 7 doctoral students in the field of Pedagogy. He was a long-time member and a chairperson of final exams committees and habilitation and inaugural committees. He organized and co-organized 20 scientific conferences and he is a member of 4 editorial boards of scientific magazines (*Naša škola*, *The New Educational Review*, *Acta Technologica Dubnicae*, *Wychowanie na co dzien*). He is a member of several scientific boards at the universities in Slovakia and abroad. He supervised and was a member of many scientific teams in KEGA and VEGA projects and he is also a member of the KEGA and VEGA committees.

Some of his recent and most important book publications are: *General Didactics* (in several editions), *Self-Reflection and Competences in Teacher's Work* (with Mariana Hupková, 2004), *School and Classroom Climate* (2006), *Pedagogical and Didactic Work of a Teacher* (2007), *Interaction within Education* (with Livia Fenyvesiová, 2009), *Education – Brain – Pupil* (with Dušan Valábik and Jana Zajacová, 2009).

Professor Petlák has always been a very exact, precise and responsible man, teacher, scientist, colleague and friend. Being devoted to his work and having achieved excellent results, he was awarded an Exemplary Teacher Title, the Gold Medal of the Constantine the Philosopher University in Nitra, the Gold Medal of the Faculty of Education of the Constantine the Philosopher University in Nitra and, in 2012 he received the highest professional decoration – the Great Medal of Saint Gorazd.

At the moment, besides his pedagogical and publication activities, Professor Petlák holds the position of the Rector at the Dubnica Technological Institute in Dubnica nad Váhom. It is, undoubtedly, impossible to sum up each and every contribution to the development of the Slovak pedagogy Professor Petlák has made, but, definitely, we can state that he belongs to the main representatives and prominent personalities in the history of our school education.

Dear Professor Petlák, we wish you good health, a lot of happiness and joy in both private and professional life, many excellent ideas, strength and creative spirit in their realization.



**International Scientific Conference &
International Workshop**
Present Day Trends of Innovations 2012
28th-29th May 2012
Łomża, Poland



Ladislav Várkoly*

The third International Scientific Conference “Present Day Trends of Innovations 2012” took place in Łomża (Poland) on May 28th-29th 2012. The objectives were reflected not only in the topics of the conference, but also in the content of papers and contributions and the entire meeting organization. For the first time the Conference & Workshop took place in a foreign country and the organization duties were divided between Dubnica Technological Institute and Państwowa Wyższa Szkoła Informatyki i Przedsiębiorczości w Łomży (State University of Information Science and Technology and Commerce in Łomża).

The main partners of DTI 2012 were: e-learnmedia s.r.o., Dupres Consulting s.r.o. and Dupres s.r.o. in cooperation with

- Politechnika Radomska im K. Pułaskiego, Wydział Informatyki i Matematyki and Filologiczno-Pedagogiczny;
- Instytut Technologii Eksploatacji – PIB w Radomiu;
- Politechnika Częstochowska, Wydział Zarządzania;
- Uniwersytet Rzeszowski;
- National Academy of Sciences of Ukraine, Karpenko Physico-Mechanical Institute in Lviv;
- Vysoká škola manažmentu v Trenčíne;
- Vysoká škola ekonómie a manažmentu verejnej správy v Bratislave;
- Vysoká škola v Sládkovičove;
- J. Selye Univerzity in Komárno.

The scientific co-guarantor, dr. Ryszard Szczebiot, the Vice-dean of the PWSiP w Łomży, together with prof. Ladislav Várkoly, the head of the Institute of Vocational Subjects and Information Technology and the scientific guarantor of the DTI 2010-2011-2012, initiated this event.

The International Scientific Conference DTI 2012 was the third formal meeting and the occasion for academic debate in the field of IT technologies and their use in education environment. The audience consisted of teachers, scientists, young researchers, postgraduate students and engineers from industry – from Slovakia and neighboring countries. The Conference focused on the actual use of modern technologies and devices, forthcoming trends as well as the newest innovations in the field of mobile and media communication.

Within the scope of the Conference DTI 2012 there were the following themes:

- modern e-learning technologies and information systems;
- education management, knowledge management, self-learning organization;
- electronic educational materials and modern interactive teaching aids;
- modern teaching aids and interactive sensoric modules;
- virtual laboratories and remote experiments;
- operational reliability and safety of technologies and applications;
- internet schools and online courses;
- automotive information technologies.

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Many speakers opened new topics concerning the above-mentioned problems and presented possible ways of their solution. The specialized presentations were very interesting for many guests that participated in the conference. A lot of them were accompanied by interactive demonstrations as well. Garmin company promotional presentation is such an example that was dealing with problems closely related to modern navigation systems and modern mobile e-learning applications. There was a possibility to test several features of navigation systems for everyone who was interested in these systems, including setting and changing appropriate parameters based on their own requirements. On the other hand, the lecture presented by the commercial director of the company Smarttech dealt with 3D scanners, which are applied in many cases while providing educational and training activities. There was a possibility for the participants to obtain their own images using specialized program and to save these image files to USB devices. So they obtained a nice memory related to the conference. The lecture presented by the representatives of the company B&M InterNets from Brno which dealt with modern e-learning concepts was considered very interesting as well.

Conference accompanying activities, final banquet and international workshop provided more opportunities for networking and various informal discussions. Most discussions were focused on the possibilities of vocational co-operation among appropriate institutions, especially in creating university textbooks, scientific monographs and scientific papers published in top-level research journals, in sharing information and facilitating collaboration regarding progressive and innovative forms of education and also dissemination of future collaborative international research in this field. The discussions and negotiations related to the preparations of the fourth DTI Conference in 2013 started as well. The conference is becoming more and more significant and has growing reputation within scientific and research community and people providing educational and training services.

Conference papers and contributions will be published in the reviewed scientific monograph entitled "Present Day Trends of Innovations" (Eds. Várkoly, Szczebiot, Korneta), published by DTI in Dubnica nad Váhom and PWSiP w Łomży, printed in Poland. Multimedia promotional videos of vocational, vocational-media and media partners will be stored on DVD.

Notice:

- 1) Continual collaboration in international scientific-research grants headed by prof. Várkoly and other new activities were successfully negotiated by the participants of the Conference DTI 2012.
- 2) Vocational and media partners of the International Scientific Conference "Present Day Trends of Innovations 2012" were: Garmin, Strojárstvo – European Engineering Magazine, Media/ST Publishing House, Infoware, B&M InterNets, PC Revue, konferencie.sk, edumenu.cz, education.sk, TV Považie, Televízia Trenčín, MY noviny Stredného Považia. We would like to thank to the Polish companies: Smarttech Sp. Z.o.o., SuperŁomża.pl a Narexinfo.pl.

European Educational Standards in the Quality Management Systems of Higher Educational Institutions and Life-Long Learning Institutions

**6th-8th September 2012
Trenčianske Teplice, Slovakia**

Viola Tamášová*

On 6-8 September 2012, the Dubnica Technological Institute organized the *11th International Scientific Symposium called "European Educational Standards in the Quality Management Systems of Higher Educational Institutions and Life-Long Learning Institutions"* in Trenčianske Teplice. The symposium was a follow-up of a project and of a series of successful scientific symposia on the history of adult education in Central Europe "Geschichte der Erwachsenenbildung im Zentraleuropa" started in the initiative of the professor Jurij Jug of the University of Maribor. Its first year was held in 1995 in Brdo, Slovenia.

The main objective of the 9th Symposium was providing an opportunity for presenting the results of research and theoretical knowledge, for discussing and sharing experience in the quality management systems of higher educational institutions and life-long learning institutions as well as in the quality management of teaching in both types of institutions in the European Union. Last but not least, the symposium served as a framework for establishing and deepening the relations with national and foreign universities, science and research workplaces and practitioners coming from the Czech Republic, Hungary, Poland, Austria, Slovenia, Croatia and Turkey.

DUBNICKÝ TECHNOLOGICKÝ INŠTITÚT
V DUBNICI NAD VÁHOM

**XI. MEDZINÁRODNÉ
VEDECKÉ
SYMPOZIUM**

Európske štandardy vzdelávania
v systéme manažérstva kvality
vysokých škôl
a inštitúcií celoživotného vzdelávania

**Geschichte der Erwachsenenbildung
in Zentraleuropa**
6. – 8. september 2012, Trenčianske Teplice

www.dti.sk/sympozium2012

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914 51 Trenčianske Teplice

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manažérstvo kvality inštitúcií celoživotného vzdelávania
manažovanie kvality využitia na VŠ

Hlavné cieľové skupiny: odborníci z vysokých škôl, inštitúcií celoživotného
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DUBNICKÉ NOVINY

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The symposium attracted the following target groups:

- scientists, teachers, researchers and academic dignitaries from higher educational institutions,
- experts from life-long learning institutions,
- scientists and researchers in adult education,
- practitioners and employees of the ministries,
- university students and doctoral students.

The International Scientific Symposium was conducted in a ceremonial and highly creative spirit. The quality of presentations of the latest research results and of the theoretical knowledge made by the foremost specialists from Slovakia and from the above-listed EU countries was remarkable and has inspired an abundant sharing of views on the topical issues in the quality of education within the framework of the symposium.

As for the quality of education, the following conclusions resonated in the symposium as the most relevant issues:

- the discussions in one of the sections indicated that the quality of higher educational institutions with a view to the management of their process of education remains a topical issue,
- attention needs to be paid to evaluation processes with a view to school management,
- consistent efforts are to be made to employ activity-fostering ways and methods of teaching in the process of education,
- the approach to education and upbringing is to be gradually remodelled, so that hands-on skills and competences are stressed alongside with knowledge, depending on the branch of studies,
- with regard to the development of the quality of education, it is important to appreciate and develop the pedagogy of higher educational institutions,
- a project is to be initiated for the introduction and enforcement of internal evaluation and assessment of schools and school establishments in Slovakia (including regional schools),
- a project is to be initiated for the introduction and enforcement of quality management in schools and school establishments in Slovakia (including regional schools).

The section on adult education and life-long learning was of the opinion that it is of utmost importance to address the issues of quality by means of:

- applying a systematic approach,
- performing an efficient analysis of educational needs,
- a constructive development of a flexible curriculum,
- implementation of European and global trends while taking into account national specificities.

The 11th International Scientific Symposium provided a framework for the ceremony of signing the agreement on bilateral cooperation between the Dubnica Technological Institute in Dubnica nad Váhom and the Eötvös József College in Baja, Hungary by their respective Rectors. The proceedings of the symposium contain a collection of abstracts provided with ISBN. The media partners of the Symposium – TV Považie, TV Trenčín, TTTV – TV Trenčianske Teplice, education.sk, konferencie.sk, PortalVS, edumenu.cz, newspapers Dubnické noviny and Považie and FOCUS.sk informed about the significance of the symposium in a series of programs and articles appreciating the event. By organizing an international symposium of this format, the Dubnica Technological Institute in Dubnica nad Váhom in the role of its host as a higher educational institution and Slovakia as a country hosting the symposium for the first time, have made themselves more visible.

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