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Pismo Zespołu Badawczego Edukacyjnej Analizy Transakcyjnej
Katedra Badań nad Edukacją
Uniwersytetu Humanistyczno-Przyrodniczy im. Jana Długosza w Częstochowie

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SPIS TREŚCI
TABLE OF CONTENTS

ON THE BORDER

NA POGRANICZU DZIEDZIN

Od redakcji

Z największą przyjemnością oddajemy w Państwa ręce kolejny, jedenasty już numer rocznika „Edukacyjna Analiza Transakcyjna". Na wstępie warto podkreślić, że nasze Czasopismo zostało docenione przez recenzentów i po raz kolejny zakwalifikowane do ministerialnego programu Rozwój Czasopism Naukowych. Dzięki uzyskanemu wsparciu ten i kolejne numery będą publikowane praktycznie w całości w języku angielskim – utrzymujemy w ten sposób działania zwiększające umiędzynarodowienie Czasopisma. Mamy nadzieję, że pomoże to w promocji Czasopisma wśród Czytelników oraz Autorów spoza granic Polski. Stale także poszerzany jest skład Rady Naukowej i grono Recenzentów. W ostatnim czasie oba te grona zostały zasilone przez szanowanych naukowców zarówno z ośrodków naukowych w naszym kraju jak i zza granicy. Podobnie jak w poprzednich numerach, również i w tym artykuły pogrupowane zostały w kilka działów tematycznych.

W pierwszym z nich odwołano się do podstaw edukacyjnej analizy transakcyjnej, wskazując na możliwości wykorzystania koncepcji na gruncie szeroko rozumianej edukacji. Dział zawiera trzy opracowania. Pierwsze, dotyczące motywacji, autorstwa P. Ratajczak, wzbogacone o wybrane wyniki badań własnych. Kolejny artykuł, autorstwa M. Oracz, K. Tworzowskiej, P. Jędrczyk i A. Pierzchały, dotyczy ciekawego tematu marzeń i przedstawia próbę ich kwalifikacji z perspektywy analizy transakcyjnej. Dział zamyka opracowanie A. Iwanickiej dotyczący rosnącej roli influencerów w życiu nastolatków.

Kolejny dział – *Raporty z badań* – zawiera osiem artykułów prezentujących badania powiązane bezpośrednio z tematyką analizy transakcyjnej lub poruszający obszary tożsame tematycznie, chociaż czasami stosujące inną terminologię. Jest to największy dział Czasopisma, bardzo ważny z punktu widzenia pogłębiania wiedzy w interesującym nas obszarze.

Artykuł A. Pierzchały porusza tematyką sytuacji rodzinnej i przekazów skryptowych – ważny temat, wyjaśniający sposób, w jaki rodzice kształtują życie swoich dzieci. Opracowanie K. Rubachy wprowadza Czytelnika w problematykę rozwoju i samorealizacji nauczycieli, a tym samym dotka tematyki rozwoju stanu Ja-Dorosły. Artykuł A. Sarnat-Ciastko i K. Nowak przedstawia badania na temat prężności osobowej i wyjaśnia ten sposób opisu człowieka w perspektywie analizy transakcyjnej. W podobnej tematyce przeprowadzone są badania Z. Chodkowskiego, dotyczące poczucia skuteczności studentów, oraz K. Moczii i M. Niemiec, traktujące o radzeniu sobie w sytuacji pandemicznej. Kolejne opracowanie – E. Baron-Polańczyk – dotyczy hierarchii ważności i gier komputerowych, tematyka powiązana jest ze strukturalizacją czasu w analizie transakcyjnej. I. Przybylska prezentuje badania z zakresu edukacji emocjonalnej, które można powiązać ze stanem Ja-Dziecko. Dział kończy artykuł B. Wieczorek, opisujący badania pilotażowe dotyczące korzystania z platformy automatycznie oceniającej prace uczniów. Trzeci dział – *Na pograniczu dziedzin* – zawiera dwa artykuły, które chociaż nie odnoszą się bezpośrednio do analizy transakcyjnej, poruszają przydatną dla Czasopisma tematykę. D. Kukla i M. Mielczarek przygotowali opis badań odnoszących się do konstruowania kariery zawodowej, którą można powiązać z rozwojem stanu Ja-Dorosły, a U. Ordon przedstawiła wstępną dyskusję na temat asystentów w nauczaniu przedszkolnym. Oba opracowania mogą być ciekawe dla entuzjastów analizy transakcyjnej.

W numerze nie zabrakło również recenzji – te prezentowane są w języku polskim.

Numer zamyka laudacja z okazji przyznania Złotego Medalu Polskiego Towarzystwa Analizy Transakcyjnej dla Prof. dr. hab. Jarosława Jagieły – Redaktora Honorowego Czasopisma.

Zapraszamy zatem Państwa do lektury. Mamy nadzieję, że oddawane do Państwa rąk czasopismo dostarczy nowych informacji, a także stanie się źródłem inspiracji zarówno w pracy naukowej, jak i w działalności praktycznej. Tradycyjnie, kończąc, zapraszamy Państwa również do zgłaszania swoich tekstów do kolejnego numeru „Edukacyjnej Analizy Transakcyjnej”.

Redakcja

Editorial

With great pleasure, we present to you another, eleventh issue of the "Educational Transactional Analysis" yearbook. Firstly, it is worth emphasizing that our Journal has been appreciated by reviewers and once again qualified for the ministerial program for the Development of Scientific Journals. Thanks to the support received, this and the subsequent issues will be published practically entirely in English, thus maintaining actions aimed at internationalizing the Journal. We hope that this will help in promoting the Journal among readers and authors from outside Poland. Additionally, the composition of the Editorial Board and the Reviewers of our Journal is constantly expanding. Recently, both of these groups have been enriched by respected scientists from both academic centers in our country and abroad. As in previous issues, the articles in this issue have been grouped into several thematic sections.

The first section refers to the educational basis of transactional analysis, indicating the possibilities of using the concept in the context of broadly understood education. The section contains three papers. The first one concerns motivation by P. Ratajczak, enriched with selected results of their own research. The next article, authored by M. Oracz, K. Tworzowska, P. Jędrczyk, and A. Pierzchała, concerns an interesting topic of dreams and presents an attempt to qualify them from the perspective of transactional analysis. The section closes with a paper by A. Iwanicka concerning the growing role of influencers in the lives of teenagers.

The next section, research reports, contains eight articles presenting research directly related to the topic of transactional analysis or touching on thematically identical areas, although sometimes using different terminology. This is the largest section of the Journal, very important from the point of view of deepening knowledge in the area of interest to us.

A. Pierzchała's article discusses the topic of family situations and script messages – an important topic explaining the way parents shape their children's lives. K. Rubacha's work introduces the reader to the topic of teachers' development and self-realization, thereby touching on the issue of the development of the adult ego-state. An article by A. Sarnat-Ciastko and K. Nowak presents research on personal resilience and explains this way of describing a person from the perspective of transactional analysis. Similar research was conducted by Z. Chodkowski, concerning students' efficacy and by K. Moczia and M. Niemiec, concerning coping in a pandemic situation. The next paper, by E. Baron-Polańczyk, concerns the hierarchy of importance and computer games, a topic related to the structuring of time in transactional analysis. I. Przybylska presents research on emotional education, which can be related to the child ego-state. The section ends with an article by B. Wieczorek describing pilot research on the use of an automatic platform for assessing student work.

The third section – at the border of disciplines – contains two articles that, although not directly related to transactional analysis, address topics that are useful for the Journal. D. Kukla, M. Mielczarek prepared a description of research related to constructing a professional career, while U. Ordon presented a preliminary discussion on the topic of assistants in preschool education. Both works may be interesting for enthusiasts of transactional analysis. The issue also includes reviews, which are presented in Polish. The issue closes with a tribute on the occasion of awarding the Golden Medal of the Polish Transactional Analysis Society to Prof. Jarosław Jagieła – the honorary editor of the Journal.

We invite you to read the Journal. We hope that the publication, which is now in your hands, will provide you with new information and will also become a source of inspiration both in scientific work and in practical activities. As usual, we also invite you to submit your articles for the next issue of "Educational Transactional Analysis".

The Editorial Team

TRANSACTIONAL ANALYSIS IN EDUCATION

ANALIZA TRANSAKCYJNA W EDUKACJI

Uniwersytet Humanistyczno-Przyrodniczy im. Jana Długosza w Częstochowie
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Motivation and motivating in the educational process in the light of transactional analysis theory

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Abstract

In this article selected aspects of motivating others (or lack of it) as well as generating or reducing motivation in oneself by an individual in the educational process are presented in the light of transactional analysis theory constructs, namely the structural model of ego-states, a symbiosis of the first and the second order and the model of structural pathology based on the example of contamination. In reference to this last construct, selected results of own original research are reported. The research was conducted on a sample of 50 teachers working either in kindergarten or primary school. In a diagnostic survey a questionnaire was used as a data collection tool. The analysis of the results indicated that 78% of the total number of responses pointed to being expressed from a contaminated Parent ego-state, while only 22% were expressed from an uncontaminated Adult ego-state. No response coming from a contaminated Child ego-state was registered. Moreover, the kindergarten teachers showed significantly more of their uncontaminated Adult ego-state than the primary school teachers. However, no statistically significant relationship was observed between the age and the length of teaching experience versus the number of displayed contaminations or non-contaminations of the teachers.

Keywords: contaminations, ego-states, motivation, symbiosis, transactional analysis.

Introduction: motivation and motivating in the educational process in the light of the structural model, symbiosis and contamination

The aim of this article is to present selected aspects of motivating others (or lack of it) as well as generating or reducing motivation in oneself by an individual in the educational process in the light of transactional analysis theory. The notions of motivation and motivating in the educational process (and outside of it as well) are used synonymously sometimes. In this article, they are understood as separate constructs. Following the definition in the *Pedagogical Dictionary of 21 century*, motivation is "the totality of processes of stimulating, maintaining and regulating activities aimed at achieving some goal" (Pilch, 2004, p. 422). Furthermore, the *Dictionary of Psychology* defines motivation as "an intermediary process or internal state of the body that stimulates or drives action (Sillamy, 1994, p. 404). On the other hand, motivating means "to stimulate to action, induce a state of motivation" (Sillamy, 1994, p. 406). Thus, it may be assumed that motivation is an inner process of an individual, while motivating is an outside impact on a person being motivated. In the educational process, the teacher may choose specific stimuli that may, yet do not have to, activate learners' motivation to learn. It is worth underlining that motivating may be directed towards oneself as well. As a consequence, both the teacher and learners may generate their own motivation, in other words motivate themselves.

The following constructs are presented in turn. First of all, the structural model is introduced, where it can observed whether an individual activates individual ego-states to stimulate their own motivation or to motivate others. Secondly, the models of symbiosis of the first and the second orders and the model of structural pathology on the example of contamination are presented. They constitute the theoretical basis for explaining the limitations of motivation and motivating. In the further part of the article, selected results of own research on contamination are also discussed.

Godet (2002), who analyses constructs of transactional analysis, draws attention to two types of motivation – external and internal. The first one is "motivation that originates outside a motivated activity, for example, in external reinforcements" (Siuta, 2009, p. 152). Internal motivation, on the contrary, manifests its "source in a motivated activity, [is] unrelated to external reinforcements and – consequently – is autonomous" (Siuta, 2009, p. 152).

According to Godet (2002), internal motivation of an individual may be considered in the light of ego-states in the structural model, that is Parent, Adult and Child that are interacting in synergy, in cooperation. Therefore, stimulating one's motivation and motivating others could be effective if all ego-states could be activated and could stay in synergy throughout that process. Sometimes, however, for different reasons, an individual does not generate energy in one or even all of their ego-states, leaving them partially or completely inactive. In this case, motivation of that individual may be disadvantaged or insufficient to realise goals; on occasions it is completely absent. It may be also the case that an individual follows their goal, yet does not feel any satisfaction or joy. For example, in the educational process a learner may not invest energy in their Child ego-state; with that ego-state inactive, the learner may lose enthusiasm for learning, may not be curious or may not feel any pleasure in the learning process. He or she may still follow their learning goals, may even receive good grades, investing energy in other ego-states, for instance, in their Parent. In this case, the learner will get knowledge being motivated by a sense of parental duty or a belief that one must learn. Subsequently, this way of generating motivation to learn may prove to be insufficiently effective or beneficial. It may be important to add that although this article draws attention to the educational process of teaching and learning and, especially, to motivating one to teach or learn from the perspective of activation of all three ego-states being in synergy, motivation and motivating are general terms that apply to all human activities. One may generate motivation to lose weight or to change one's job, for instance.

Accordingly, to generate one's own motivation or to have at least partial influence on motivating others so they could mobilise their own motivation, an individual may need to analyse which ego-states are stimulated (active) and which are blocked (inactive). The analysis may be done focusing on one's answers to the proposed below exemplary questions which aim at energizing specific ego-states. Depending on one's needs or one's context, the questions may be reformulated. For example, a teacher may ask himself/herself: *Does this make me curious? Does this make my students curious?*

To check if motivation in the educational process is generated from the Parent ego-state, one may ask questions regarding pattens of behaviour assumed in childhood. It is vital that the individual becomes aware if what he/she is learning confirms or rejects these patterns, not only the parental ones but also the social or cultural ones. On that account, one may answer the following questions: *In the name of what values do I act? What kind of norms or principles do I follow? What principles support my learning process? Do I believe that the value of a man is also what he knows and is able to do as well as his ability to learn in a specific field? What are the values that encourage me to learn? What are the values that discourage me from learning? Do any of these values diverge?* If knowledge or the learning process are not one's values, probably motivation generated from the Parent ego-state of that person is blocked, inactive.

The next ego-state is Adult. To examine if that ego-state is active regarding generating one's motivation or if it is blocked (when motivation from that ego-state is inactive), the individual may answer the following questions: *Do I understand why I am learning this? Do I understand what I am learning? Do I have skills to learn?* It is crucial to ask (and answer) the question concerning meaning of the learning experience. For instance, when a learner learns some mathematical formula, he/she may ask: *What is the relevance of learning this formula for me*? *What will it be used for*? These questions may be also asked by the teacher. On account of that, the teacher should actually ask the questions of: *Why will* *this be useful to my students?* The answer may sometimes be: *It is not clear; I do not know, yet, this is included in the curriculum*. Hence, acting from their own Adult ego-state, learners may not understand the purpose of a learning specific area of knowledge or skills as the only reason for that is a formal requirement rather than one's personal goal. Respectively, their motivation from that ego-state will stay inactive. For that reason, it is vital that the teacher asks these questions: *Why do I educate my students in this field? What will it bring them? Is the way I educate them adjusted to their level of understanding? Are the methods, forms and teaching aids adapted to my students' ability level?* Naturally, the teacher may ask these questions directed to himself/herself just as well.

On the other hand, if one want to examine if their motivation comes from Child ego-state, they may answer the following questions: *Do I like what I do? Do I want to do this? Do I feel like doing it? Does it make me happy? Does it arouse my interest and commitment? Does it excite me and what excites me in what I do?*

When considering questions that are dedicated to the Child ego-state, it is worth considering three hungers in the light of Berne's (1966) theory, as they refer to three basic needs in transactional analysis: the need for stimulation, the need for recognition, and the need for structure. Berne (1966) claimed that these three hungers affect the way people function in life; both satisfying these hungers or frustration resulting from lack of that satisfaction affect the development of an individual. "Stimulus hunger may have the same relationship to the survival of the human body as food hunger" (Berne, 2007, p. 8).

Frączek and Smelkowska (2016) comment on Berne's stimulation hunger as being a need for sensory sensations, which includes an element of emotional stimulation and sensory stimulation. Moreover, research by Pierzchała (2013) points to the need of stimulation as the least satisfied one among learners. Therefore, in the educational process one may consider various aspects of stimulation including the sensory one. It may be practical to answer the following questions*: Do I like listening to a lecture? Or do I prefer watching the presentation first? Do I need someone to stimulate me by asking lots of questions? Am I most willing to learn being in a relationship with others, alone or maybe in another way? Which teaching aids help me the most in the teaching-learning process: visual, auditory, visual-auditory or automation and why?* According to Berne (1966), apart from sensory stimulation, an individual needs emotional stimulation as s/he is most likely to grow and develop when s/he is in contact with another person.

The second hunger is the need for recognition, or the need for strokes (Stewart & Joines, 2016). This refers to an individual standing out from the general social context. "A smile, a complement, or for that matter a frown or an insult – all show us that our existence has been recognized. Berne used the term recognition-hunger to describe our need for this kind of acknowledgement" (Stewart

& Joines, 2016, p. 97). From the perspective of this hunger, one may search answers to the following questions: *How do I build relationships*? In a school class, the teacher could find Steiner's (1971; 1974) economy of strokes useful, which considers signs of recognition or strokes in five categories: giving them to others, receiving them, asking for them, refusing them, and giving oneself strokes. What could be a potential relation between signs of recognition and motivating? As an example, the following situation could be mentioned. Sometimes a learner reports being successful at school in some subject and even feeling motivated to learn because s/he feels noticed and appreciated by the teacher. This means that the learner received a stroke, was able to notice it and to accept it, which allowed him/her to strengthen own motivation to learn. In case when the learner does not receive any sign of recognition, s/he may ask for it openly or give it to himself/herself when there is shortage of strokes coming from the teacher. To verify which of these five channels are open and which are blocked, one may again refer to a set of questions, for instance*: Do I receive strokes as a teacher/a learner? What types of strokes do I receive? What types of strokes do I give to others and what types of strokes do I give myself? Do I ask for any strokes? What types of strokes do I ask for? Do I refuse any strokes? What types of strokes do I refuse to accept? Are the strokes that I give/receive conditional or unconditional? Are the strokes that I give/receive positive or negative? Are the strokes that I give/receive authentic and adequate or artificial and inadequate? Do I know how to manage negative unconditional strokes in all five areas? What are my tendencies in the economy of strokes? Do I give meaning to particular strokes?*

The third hunger is the need for structure, which allows to feel safe and secure in the world and/or find solutions to problems. For example, a learner has a problem with effective study process or a teacher has a problem with effective teaching process when both do not feel safe in the educational context. Usually, people feel anxious when they do not know or do not see any structure in their social context. The reaction may constitute an individual difference, for instance, some learners become truly stressed when they do not know their timetable or their schedule, while others will not find it problematic. Nonetheless, it may be feasible to recognize that particular need in the educational process and ask the following questions: *What is conducive to my sense of security* (*or not*) *in the learning process? What do I need to feel good and safe? Do I use the principles and the rights derived from them regarding the structure in the educational process? Who are the adults who teach me or the children I educate? Will I always have my permanent place in the classroom? What can I do with others and what can I do individually in this context and why? Is there a contract that will guarantee this for me*? „In transactional analysis, it is emphasized that the most important function of the contract is to give structure […]" (Terlato, 2017, as cited in Przybylski, 2021, pp. 12–13; see also Sills, 2006, p. 9); therefore, a contract (bilateral, three-cornered, multilateral) may become the answer to the need of structure.

It should also be emphasised here that in the Child ego-state physical needs come before psychological needs. To meet them, one may ask*: Am I cold or warm here? Am I thirsty or hungry? Did I get enough sleep to learn/teach? Did I rest enough to get engaged in the school activities*? Learners sometimes come to school overstimulated by cartoons, movies or computer games. Autonomous adults coming to work may know how to manage their time and stimulation coming from various media, whereas school learners may come to class tired, which affects their effectiveness in the learning process.

Summarising the structural model of ego-states in reference to motivation and motivating, one may observe that "increased motivation for a given action is possible if this action corresponds to the values referred to in the Parent ego-state, with the decision made in the Adult ego-state, and with the sense of security in the context of learning felt in the Child ego-state" (Ramond, 1995, as cited in Chéreau, 2018, p. 37).

Apparently, this perspective is not exclusive when considering motivation or motivating. In transactional analysis there are several other models that may explain limitations that affect either the process of generating own motivation or motivating others. In the further part of this article two of them will be discussed in more detail: the concept of a second-order symbiosis and the model of structural pathology on the example of contamination.

"In Schiffian theory, a *symbiosis* is said to occur *when two or more individuals behave as though between then they form a single person*" (Schiff et al., 1975, as cited in Stewart & Joines, 2016, p. 267). In other words, in a classroom context it may mean that the teacher and the learner/s do not invest enough energy into all of their ego-states. For instance, the teacher may function in two ego-states: Parent and Adult, with the exclusion of Child, while the learner/s may function solely in their Child ego-state with the exclusion of the other two: Parent and Adult. Consequently, both the teacher and the learner/s together have access to only three ego-states, which is symptomatic of a symbiosis of the first order.

It is worth emphasising that in a school symbiotic relationship both the teacher and the learner/s may be aware of various matters, yet not all of them. Thus, both could invest some of their energy in the Adult ego-state and, at the same time, partially exclude that ego-state. This relation, which is displayed as a modification of how the first order symbiosis is illustrated, can be found in figure 1, following J.P. Godet and A. Noé (personal communication, 02 August, 2022).

On the other hand, „In some symbiotic relationships, there's a second symbiosis going on underneath the first. […] This kind of symbiosis is called a second-order symbiosis because it occurs within the second-order structure of the Child ego-state (Stewart & Joines, 2016, p. 277). That type of relationship is displayed in figure 2.

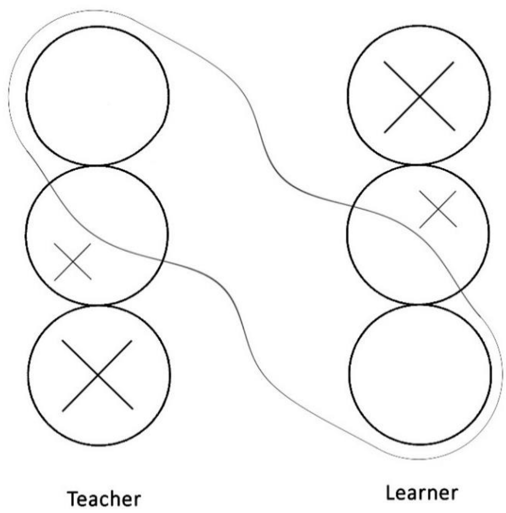

Figure 1
Symbiosis of the first order between a teacher and a learner

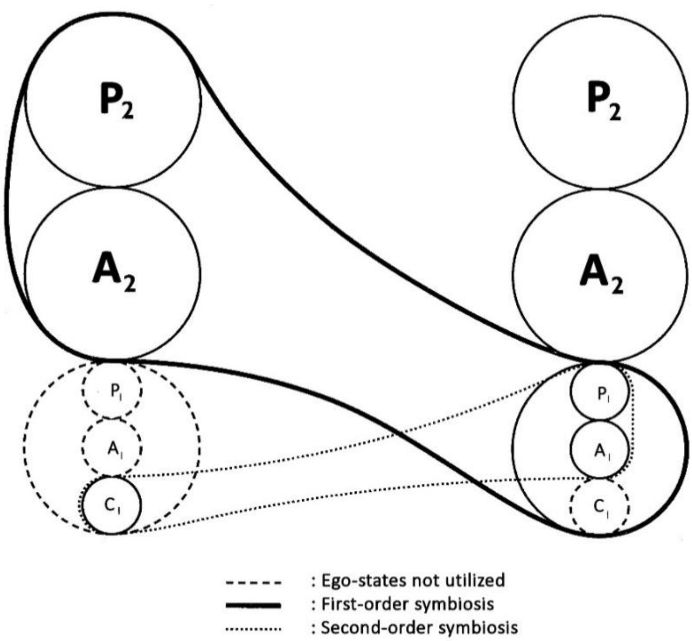

Figure 2
Symbiosis of the second order
Source: Stewart & Joines, 2016, p. 277.

Therefore, when discussing motivation and motivating, in the school symbiotic relation between the teacher and the learner/s, as mentioned above, one may consider that the teacher, according to the model of the first order symbiosis, will invest their energy solely in the Parent and the Adult ego-states. Such a teacher may care about their learners a lot, offering them additional inspirational materials or readings, or may even stop setting boundaries. The teacher may behave in this way not only in the classroom but also in own home, for instance, staying up late at night preparing these additional learning materials (a model of a geographical region, the best presentation of the cosmos, searching for the most interesting videos, designing activating puzzles). He may function interdependently in such a way that the learner/s can activate their Child ego-state and feel motivated to learn and engaged in classes. Simultaneously and subconsciously, the teacher may seek confirmation of own efficiency and effectiveness in motivating others in his/her own $Child_1$ ego-state. This confirmation would come from the learner/s, who would trigger back their curiosity, commitment and ultimately motivation to learn. This is the mechanism of the second-order symbiosis. The teacher may think that s/he has the power to motivate each student to learn. If this does not happen (and there is a probability that sometime this is the case), s/he may overinvest in this relationship. For instance, the teacher may start giving too many inadequate strokes with a hidden agenda to motivate the learner to learn, or may excessively explain, repeat, or prepare a lot of didactic resources so that the classes are enjoyed very much by the learner/s. Hence, to keep a positive image of self as an efficient and effective teacher, probably s/he needs to harbour a certain illusion, hold a certain belief that s/he will always interest learners and motivate them, and somehow will always be able to reach their inner world. Ipso facto, the teacher is discounting own and learners' abilities and at the same time stops recognising the boundaries of responsibility. Before s/he starts analysing the situation from the learners' perspective – why is the learner bored during the lesson, why does s/he sit unmotivated, what is the real reason for this inactivity – the teacher may notice that tendency in his/her own behaviour, doubting own professional skills and abilities. Instead of performing a thorough objective assessment of the reasons for which the learner stays bored or unmotivated, the teacher goes into self-blame and starts to look for ways to motivate the learner more. However, to solve that problem, it is enough to redirect the questions and ask the learners directly: *What do you need to become interested in the classes? How do you do that that you feel bored*? Moreover, the teacher may try to reinterpret the notion of boredom as a form of aggression directed towards oneself in which an individual does not discover the need to look straight into own inner world to discover something interesting there. Sometimes it is just easier to claim: *I am* *bored, the teacher did not motivate me*, instead of observing the source of own boredom and lack of interest.

As it was already mentioned in the article, when the structural ego-states are not in synergy and when some of them or all of them are not activated enough, generating motivation in oneself or motivating others may be hindered or limited. A similar mechanism is present when some of the ego-states are overlooked in relationships, as is the case in symbiosis. Sometimes it may also happen that the contents of two ego-states get mixed. This is then referred to as ego-state contaminations (Stewart & Joines, 2016, p. 70), which may limit generating motivation or motivating others because in this case the Adult ego-state does not function properly. The reality of this ego-state is distorted by the contents of other ego-states. The Adult may be contaminated by contents of the Parent or the Child ego-states or both. This is called Parent contamination, Child contamination or double contamination, respectively (Stewart & Joines, 2016, pp. 70–74).

An example of Parent contamination could be illustrated by limiting beliefs, called by Berne prejudice, like: *Lessons are always boring*; *Learners are always unmotivated*; *Learners are lazy*. An individual uses the contaminated Adult that acts in service of the Parent to collect information solely for the purpose of confirming that prejudice (Stewart & Joines, 2016, p. 71).

In Child contamination, on the other hand, "[we] cloud [our] grown-up thinking with beliefs from [our] childhood. These are fantasies, evoked by feelings, that are taken as facts" (Stewart & Joines, 2016, p. 72). "Berne sometimes used the word delusion to describe the kind of belief that typically arises from Child contamination" (Stewart & Joines, 2016, p. 72). An example of Child contamination could be found in such statements as: *Unmotivated learners always annoy me; Learners unprepared for classes irritate me.* An individual uses the contaminated Adult that acts in service of the Child to collect information that allows for rationalisation of the delusion (Stewart & Joines, 2016, p. 73).

Double contamination, on the other hand, "occurs when the person re-plays a Parental slogan, agrees to it with a Child belief, and mistakes both of these for reality" (Stewart & Joines, 2016, p. 73). For instance, *Learners never prepare for classes and they make me angry.* Stewart and Joines (2016) state that "some modern TA writers see all contamination as being double. To them, the content of the double contamination consists of all the outdated, distorted beliefs a person holds about himself, other people and the world. In TA language, these are the *script beliefs*" (p. 73).

The teacher that displays contaminations may not be aware of replaying own childhood experiences and mistakes them for the current reality, or irrationally justifies own beliefs or both. S/he may activate ego-states inadequate to the situation. For that reason, probably s/he will not be able to generate effective and adequate interventions, for example, in the sphere of motivation, and build healthy interpersonal relationships. To illustrate, a teacher could have learnt easily a foreign language, his/her social context could have been very supportive in this respect, s/he could have been brought up in a bilingual family, thus at present s/he is sure that learning a foreign language is easy for everyone. With this belief s/he does not see any discrepancy between reality that s/he knows and reality that is experienced by his/her learners. Hence, using the concept of contamination, one may understand why it is vital to assume the perspective of the other person, be it in the educational process or in other situations as well.

Teacher contaminations: author's original study and results

The author conducted preliminary research focused on teacher contaminations and their significance in the educational process. The aim of the study was to discover to what extent (if any) teachers use an uncontaminated Adult ego-state or a contaminated Adult (in Parent, Child or double contamination) regarding the educational process. One of the objectives was to investigate the content of the uncontaminated Adult ego-state in teachers and the content and type of contamination in teachers in the educational process. Moreover, comparison was made between kindergarten and primary school teachers to investigate a potential difference in the mean number of contaminations and the use of uncontaminated Adult. Additionally, a relationship between teacher contaminations and their age and years of teaching experience was studied.

Research was conducted in June 2022 with 50 participants – teachers of Greater Poland Voivodeship at the age of 23–46 (M = 27,08; SD = 5,25), with teaching experience in the range of 1–15 years (M = 3,04; SD = 2,89), working in kindergarten or primary school (grades 1–3). The number of kindergarten teachers (n = 31) was not statistically different from the number of primary school teachers (n = 19) (Chi^2 (1; N = 50) = 2,88; p = 0,090). Diagnostic survey was used as a research type with a questionnaire as a research tool.

Research was divided into two phases. In the first phase, teachers were asked to finish sentences in reference to the educational process, for instance: *Modern learners…; Relations with other teachers…; Cooperation with parents in kindergarten/schools…* Furthermore, the author selected the most frequently repeated statements and placed them in the next questionnaire of the survey. Teachers were again asked to answer whether they agreed with the statements contained in the questionnaire. Due to the limited scope of the article, only some of the results will be presented below.

The analysis of the research results showed that 78 percent of the statements with which the teachers agreed could be considered as a Parental contamination, while only 22 percent of the statements came from the level of an uncontaminated Adult ego-state. In other words, it seemed as if their Adult ego-state was largely flooded with content from another ego state. And yet, using one's uncontaminated Adult is necessary for autonomous functioning in both professional and private lives. There was not a single claim in the research that could be considered Child contamination. Possible Child contaminations could, for example, be: *Students are dangerous; The headmaster intimidates teachers; The hierarchy is dangerous.* Although experiences from, for instance, psychotherapeutic offices or private conversations of teachers show that they are familiar with statements coming from Child contamination, in the discussed study this was not revealed. The reason for this could be possible fear of the respondents of being assessed. On the other hand, perhaps the teachers preferred, for example, complaining about students, parents, the system, and therefore being able to play games – like "Judgement" or "The Oppressed", which could explain a large amount of Parent contaminations observed in the study. At this point, it is also worth noting that sometimes, when analyzing the research results on the basis of only one statement taken from the survey questionnaire, it was difficult to clearly determine whether a given contamination could be classified as Parental or double. This would require further research in the future and the use of an additional research method, for example, an interview with teachers, during which the researcher would have an opportunity to ask respondents additional questions like: *Can you expand on this statement? How do you understand it*?

As for statements from an uncontaminated Adult ego-state that may refer to motivational processes, the following could be pointed out: all the surveyed teachers agreed that student assessment should not be limited to giving grades only; teachers should prepare students also for life, not only for receiving grades. Moreover, 98 percent of the teachers recognized that the educational process is more than just teaching and learning; it is also about supporting and believing in the learner/s.

Below, selected content pointing to contaminations in teachers that may relate to the motivational processes is presented. As the teachers were not interviewed and their statements could not be clarified, it is inferred that the observed contamination was Parental. Ninety percent of the research participants assumed that a teacher's low motivation to work effectively is related to low income. Nevertheless, this matter is more complex. There exist a lot of variables that could affect the level of motivation of an employee. Moreover, 90 percent of the participants assumed that changes and innovations cannot be introduced without monetary investment. Nonetheless, although some changes in fact require investments of the financial nature, yet others do not. Sometimes lack of finances is not really an obstacle. Thus, it might be interesting to investigate if this contamination is not an excuse to stay unengaged and to avoid introducing changes. “Students’ parents are very demanding and treat the teacher as an intruder” – 90 percent of the teachers in this study agreed also with this statement. Certainly, there are demanding parents, but there are also involved, helpful, and understanding parents. In their responses the teachers seem to prefer seeing only one side of the coin, completely ignoring the other. “Students learn best from their mistakes” – 82 percent of the respondents agreed with this statement. Undoubtedly, sometimes people can use own experience of making mistakes to grow and develop. However, taking into account the specificity of the learning process, it should also be remembered that sometimes eliminating errors takes much more time than assimilating some material from scratch, for example, when a student learns wrong pronunciation of words in a foreign language. As many as 72 percent of the teachers agreed with the statement that “where there’s a will there’s a way”. It is as if the respondents assumed that man is omnipotent, that his only limitation is, for example, being lazy or unmotivated. Meanwhile, a person with, for instance, broken legs – even if s/he wanted to – will not run as fast as a healthy one. A person who has a strong runny nose will not get rid of it in a few minutes – despite sincere intentions. On the other hand, 56 percent of the respondents believed that anyone can be motivated to study. Thus, more than half of the teachers sustain an illusion that every student can be motivated to learn, that it is easy to get into the learner’s inner world, it just requires knowledge how to do it and what motivational strategies to use, which has already been highlighted in this article when discussing the notion of symbiosis.

In order to verify whether the teachers working in kindergarten and primary school differ in the average amount of manifested contaminations or the use of an uncontaminated Adult ego-state, analyzes were carried out using the nonparametric Mann-Whitney test. The analysis of the research results showed that the teachers working in kindergarten exhibited, on average, significantly more of their uncontaminated Adult ($M = 13.39$; $SD = 0.76$) than the teachers working in primary school ($M = 12.63$; $SD = 1.34$), $U = 194$; $p = 0.032$; $r_g = 0.37$. The strength of the effect was moderate. It can be noted that although, in general, teachers working in kindergarten and primary school in grades I-III are educated in a similar way at a university, they may even attend the same classes and/or belong to the same study groups – their professional work differs in many ways. Different professional goals are set for them, they deliver different educational content, they use different organizational forms of education, they apply different teaching methods and use different teaching aids. For example, teachers working in kindergarten spend more time on the carpet with children while teachers working in primary school keep their learners at desks more; in kindergarten, teachers do not deal with checking and measuring school achievements in the same way as primary school teachers do. Therefore, the obtained research results would need to be treated tentatively and would require their repetition and extension to confirm the observed tendency. Notwithstanding, no statistically significant relationships were observed between the age and work experience of the surveyed teachers, and the amount of contamination they exhibited or the amount of their use of an uncontaminated Adult ego-state. This result would suggest that the manifestation of contamination or their use of an uncontaminated Adult ego-state is rather a matter of a specific mental functioning of the individual or the way of that individual was educated, than a matter of their age or work experience. Therefore, it is possible to imagine a younger teacher with shorter work experience who may use own uncontaminated Adult ego-state more often than an older teacher with longer work experience.

If further research would confirm the above results, it is worth considering how to strengthen the Adult ego-state in teachers, but also in students learning to become teachers in the future. It might be helpful to consider potential decontamination of the Adult ego-state through, for instance, educating students of teaching faculties and in-service teachers how to activate their positive aspects of all ego-states or using therapeutic operations from the Adult ego-state and to this ego-state. Berne (1966) identified eight such therapeutic intervention techniques: questioning, specification, confrontation, explanation, illustration, confirmation, interpretation, and crystallization. Some of them, after prior contracting, could also be used in an educational or a counselling relationship. It could also be helpful to use various methods of education during teacher training and teacher studies, with an emphasis on valorization methods that can stimulate the change of erroneous beliefs. According to Okoń (2003), valorization methods are largely neglected in all school systems, although they have a rich tradition in the Polish education system.

Conclusion

The article presents a look at motivation and motivating from the perspective of the structural model of ego-states, symbiosis and contamination in the light of transactional analysis. Some of the results of the presented research can be considered as having a negative impact on motivation and motivating in the educational process. For example, more than half of the surveyed teachers stated that each student can be motivated to learn. This result proves not only the teachers' manifestation of contamination, but also, in connection with this, probably a tendency to create symbiotic relationships in the discussed area. Similar conclusions were obtained, among others, by Pierzchała (2013). The quantitative and qualitative research she conducted showed that „both students and teachers have a certain tendency to enter into dependency relationships" (Pierzchała, 2013, p. 325). Moreover, Pierzchała (2013) states that „the modern education system in a way invites to symbiosis" (p. 325). It should be emphasized that although the research results presented in the article refer mainly to contamination, there are many other models in the theory of transactional analysis, not indicated in the article, which could be helpful in understanding motivational processes and constitute a starting point for research in this area. These include, for example, exclusions, discounting, passive behaviors, life positions, transactions, or contracts. The processes of motivation and motivating could be viewed through the prism of almost any model proposed by transactional analysis. Adopting and using such a perspective could be beneficial for the practice of education and conducting systematic research in this area.

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Motywacja oraz motywowanie w procesie kształcenia w ujęciu teorii analizy transakcyjnej

Streszczenie

W artykule przedstawiono niektóre aspekty motywowania innych (lub jego braku) oraz wzbudzania i wygaszania motywacji u siebie przez jednostkę w procesie kształcenia w ujęciu teorii analizy transakcyjnej z perspektywy: modelu strukturalnego, koncepcji symbiozy pierwszego i drugiego stopnia oraz modelu patologii strukturalnej na przykładzie kontaminacji. W zakresie ostatniej koncepcji zaprezentowano wybrane wyniki badań własnych. Ich celem było między innymi rozpoznanie, w jakim stopniu nauczyciele posługują się nieskontaminowanym stanem Ja-Dorosły oraz kontaminacjami (Rodzicielskimi, Dziecięcymi, Podwójnymi) w odniesieniu do procesu kształcenia. Jednym z celów badań było także poznanie treści stanu Ja nieskontaminowanego Dorosłego u nauczycieli oraz treści i rodzaju kontaminacji nauczycielskich odnośnie do procesu kształcenia.

Słowa kluczowe: kontaminacje, stany Ja, motywacja, symbioza, analiza transakcyjna.

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Dreams of adult people – the first stage of characteristics with the use of Transactional Analysis

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Disillusionment is the void that is created between unfulfilled expectations and reality

Mark Twain

Abstract

The article is a report from the first stage of the research conducted by the authors and concerning human dreams. The aim of the study was to create a foundation for the characteristics of dreams from the point of view of perceiving the concept of passivity and activating ego states in the light of Transactional Analysis. The analyses were conducted in the qualitative paradigm, showing dream categories and presenting their dominance in particular research groups created in accordance to the participants' sex, age, and the way of conducting the research, which is to constitute the foundation for further characteristics realised in the light of Transactional Analysis.

Keywords: dreams, dream categories, happiness.

Introduction

The aim of the conducted research is characterizing human dreams. The authors decided to answer the question what kind of dream categories can be depicted and what it depends on what people dream about. This study is of a qualitative nature. The authors asked their respondents open questions, asking them to describe dominant dreams. At the same time, the research has an exploratory dimension – it is the first attempt to characterize the research in the light of Transactional Analysis assumptions. It constitutes the first stage of the analysis thanks to which the authors shall be able to use depicted dream categories in further research in order to analyse them quantitatively taking into account their relation with the concept of ego states in functional terms and functioning in passive strategies. Further on, the authors are planning to develop research tools relating to the aforesaid categories and relations. They also use tools developed within the framework of Transactional Analysis – The Questionnaire studying the profile of ego states, i.e. egogram – functional analysis by Z. Łęski (2018, pp. 185–186), which is an adaptation of a tool developed by A. Pierzchała and A. Sarnat-Ciastko (Pierzchała, Sarnat-Ciastko, 2011, pp. 280–281; Pierzchała, 2013, pp. 354–358). The self-evaluation questionnaire by Z. Łęski moves the analysis of functioning in ego states from the structural to functional approach, which seems justified also in the context of the planned research. The second tool developed within the framework of TA, which is planned to be used in the second stage of the research, is the Teaching Reality Questionnaire (Pierzchała, 2013, pp. 344–347). This tool shall be adapted for the needs of the planned research – the range of its analysis shall be extended and transferred from the solely educational ground to the general social ground. The research shall be carried out in a group of adult people.

Theoretical basis of the research

According to Alina Kałużna-Wielobób (2011, p. 161), "a dream is the concretization of our general desires." People's desires let them shape their dreams. Thanks to fulfilling these desires, one fulfils oneself. They may be compared to notions consisting of thoughts, images and experiences. In the opinion of Tadeusz Nowacki, an important trait of dreams is the fact that "they are a land of freedom, manifestation of shock triggered by a sudden interruption of doubtless blissfulness in which dreams are formed" (Nowacki, 2010, p. 34). Each person can feel free in the area of their dreams. Thanks to dreams we can feel blissfulness that everyone attributes a different meaning to. Following the words of T. Nowacki, Barbara Baraniak concludes that dreams "most often concern phenomena and various life situations, enriching the known state, i.e. the former one, and content that seems completely fantastical, as well as connected with reality, illustrates not only "the land of total, integral human freedom," but also often becomes an impulse for new solutions" (Nowacki, 2010, p. 49 after: Baraniak, 2018, p. 48). Dreams are a source of motivation to take next life steps. They are an inspiration for people that enables them to change something in their lives.

Alfred Adler thinks that dreams can help to feel life balance and stability and make it possible to overcome one's weaknesses (Adler, 1986, p. 224). Thanks to dreams, a person can feel a bigger and more important sense of their life. Research shows that depending on a developmental stage, dreams carry a certain value with them and diversify as far as their realism and energy resources are concerned (Kałużna-Wielobób, 2011, p. 170).

Preparing for conducting the research in question, the authors of the paper carried out the analysis of professional literature. Publications by A. Kałużna-Wielobób are particularly significant to the matter in question. In one of her articles entitled "The functions of dreams from the point of view of secondary school female students, female university students and middle-aged women" (2011, p. 162) she draws the readers' attention to a significant difference between a dream seen as a goal or as a fantasy. John C. Maxwell (2014, p. 72) notices the same thing and divides dreamers into two groups: "fantasists" and "builders of dreams." Fantasists are characterized by the fact that they count on luck that should help them achieve their goal. They also have exorbitant expectations and try to minimize the worth of their work as much as possible. Moreover, fantasists often use pretexts, look for excuses and isolate from people surrounding them. They also have one more feature: they prefer to wait and not to act as they are afraid of taking a risk. They prefer to shoulder responsibility to others. It is worth noticing that such an approach to realising one's dreams is close to the understanding of passivity in Transactional Analysis. It is understood as lack of acting or acting that is not directed towards any goal in a situation one has to take a decision facing a problem. Passivity is also defined as an attempt to shoulder responsibility for one's lack of ability to handle a problem to one's surroundings (Stewart, Joines, 2009, pp. 173–177). The so-called "builders of dreams" constitute a second category distinguished by J.C. Maxwell. They are disciplined and focused not much on the goal but on the way to achieving it. They think critically. They always go out of their way to achieve their goal. They generate a lot of energy, which favours group work. Builders of dreams take full responsibility for their actions and they are not afraid to take a risk (Maxwell, 2014, p. 72). Duccio Demetrio (2006, pp. 141–142) approached the matter of human dreams in a similar way as he thinks that dreams are nothing else but a certain projection of a human being, illustrating and showing their very own future. The author emphasizes that a vision is constantly waiting to be realized by a given dreamer. However, it goes without saying that a path one has to cover in order to realise certain dreams often has to be linked with overcoming numerous adversities of everyday life. Thus, D. Demetrio emphasises how important one's mobilisation on the way to achieve a given goal is. Kazimierz Obuchowski believes that while fulfilling our dreams "[…] we do not expect anything from anyone. We do it for ourselves, but not as an act of proving oneself or emphasising our value. That would be egoistic. We do so as we should behave like that. And it is the only reason. The only reason to live" (Obuchowski, 1993, p. 181). This sentence illustrates well how important dreams are or should be in every person's life.

Another research inspiration is a publication by Małgorzata Piasecka (2020, p. 180), who, in a metaphorical and meaningful way tried to "show a transition from perceiving dreams as utopia to understanding them as heterotopia." On the other hand, Agnieszka Majewska-Kafarowska (2012, pp. 43–51) in her work asks a question whether dreams are subject to categorization of time in the context of age, mainly focusing on characterizing dreams of older people. Olga Czerniawska presents a similar approach. Writing about dreams she addresses their specificity in older people. She quotes a key sentence in her discussion: "One is not old as long as dreams win over complaints and regrets" (2010, p. 107). The author claims that this sentence carries a message that simultaneously emphasizes that human dreams are "[…] a desire, thought, something pleasant, desirable, good, nice, fantastic." These words definitely make us believe that the concept of dreams is associated above all with something very positive, giving people a hefty doze of hope for "better future," something that everyone strives to achieve.

Taking into account the aforesaid inspirations and appreciating the value of dreams for every person, the authors of this publication made an attempt to develop a categorization of human dreams taking into account the respondents' age and sex. Additionally, during their research a new variable turned out to be significant, namely the way the research was conducted to obtain the respondents' declarations, which is also characterized below. The research constituted the first stage of exploration. In the future, the authors plan on dream analysis in connection with the concepts drawn from Transactional Analysis, including the concept of passivity and cathexis of ego states.

Methodology of own research

The leading topic of the research conducted by the authors is human dreams categorisation. 106 people took part in the research, including 86 women and

20 men of different age. The analyses conducted were to give answers to two research problems:

P1. What are the differences between women's and men's dreams?

P2. What are the differences in the respondents' dreams taking into account their age?

The research was conducted in the form of open questions offering the respondents an opportunity to form their answers about their dreams the way they liked. These responses were subsequently categorized and imported into the programme ATLAS.ti 8, which let the authors create the so-called "word clouds" illustrating the frequency with which particular key words occurred. Thanks to this approach, it was possible to determine differences among chosen variables.

Due to the current pandemic of Covid-19, the collection of data in a traditional way was seriously limited. Taking this into account, the authors also decided to use an online questionnaire system. The questionnaire system Lime Survey developed at Jan Dlugosz University in Częstochowa was implemented to that aim. It was supposed to broaden the range of research respondents and obtain as much verified and credible data as possible. However, while analysing all the results collected, the authors noticed certain intriguing differences in the respondents' answers linked with the way the data was collected. Due to that fact, the authors decided to study the results obtained both with the help of solely traditional questionnaires and those coming from online questionnaires more thoroughly. The authors decided to take into account the conclusions drawn and place them in their paper, emphasizing that it is only an additional variable.

Analysis of research results

Categories of human dreams

First of all, all the respondents' answers were analysed. Based on the analysed written material, common features of the responses were singled out and dream categories were defined.

Creating the questionnaire, the authors took into account 13 categories of human dreams, pointing to the following dream areas: material (a new car, house/ lottery win/ lots of money), travelling, career (studies/ job), professional development, relations with one's partner, health, children's future, passion, one's own future, happiness, peace (free time/ feeling of calmness, peace), animal/ pet, change of reality.

Once the data was collected and the respondents' answers were initially analysed, the number of dream categories was limited to six. The reduction was based on the analysis of particular respondents' answers, which as a result justified the necessity of merging some categories together (it was hard to indicate which category a given respondent's answer belonged to). Among the six categories were the following ones:

— Dreams of a material nature,
— Passion (including travelling),
— Personal development,
— Family,
— Health,
— Happiness.

The questions posed to the respondents made it possible to assess that the range of human dreams is smaller than expected. The research allows for assessing the respondents' actions, their way of thinking and what is important to them.

Figure 1
Dream categories (n = 106)[1]

Source: own research

In the word cloud characteristic to all the people subject to the research, "happiness" resurfaces as the main dream category. This category occurs in the

[1] Due to potential differences in meaning of particular terms in Polish and English and to the fact that the research was conducted in Polish, it was decided not to translate the word clouds into English.

biggest number of the respondents' utterances, which constitutes 32% of all the answers. Thus, it is worth marking the most characteristic responses in this area. Let us give an example of one respondent's answer: *To be happy and free. To have a beautiful house full of safety and love…* People dream of being able to say that they are happy. However, everyone understands the concept of "happiness" in a different way. For some, "happiness" is health or having a family, for others it might be connected with fulfilling their material needs such as having a house, a car or distant travels. For one of the respondents happiness is *Happy future, above all.* On the basis of the conducted research, it is not always possible to determine whether the respondents had in mind material or immaterial categories of happiness. Certainly, this area would be worth a more thorough analysis. To realise the aims of this study it was important to catch the very first thought accompanying a given respondent in connection with the concept of happiness.

Later on, the respondents pointed to the following categories of dreams: "family", "health", "life", "work", "travels", "children", "love" and "money". It could be assumed that everything contributes to the happiness of the charges. Dreams about "family" were pronounced by 28 male and female respondents, which constitutes 26% of the sample in question. One of the respondents talked about his dream in the following way: *So I can provide myself and my family with everything they need to be happy. Not only financially, but supporting them in their actions.* It is worth paying attention to the fact that in case of this respondent happiness has both a psychological (support for family members) and typically material (financial) dimension. Another respondent dreams about her family in this way: *Let my children and grandchildren to be healthy and happy.* In case of this respondent, it can be noticed that her dream about the family is combined with other dream categories, i.e. health and happiness. It demonstrates that these dream categories overlap and frequently have something in common.

Dreams about "health" were uttered by 20 people, who constitute 19% of the sample. The words of one respondent dreaming about health go as follows: *Let my whole family be healthy and happy,* which once again shows ambiguity in the dominating dream category, i.e. "happiness". In this case, happiness is directly associated by the respondent with the physical state of one's body. The charge in question dreamed not only about health for herself, but also for other family members. Only then should she be happy. The next respondent's answer is similar: "Health for myself and my family." The woman shall be happy provided that both she and her family are healthy.

14 respondents pronounced dreams about life, which constitutes 13%. One of the respondents said: *To have a house at the lake and peace and quiet.* Life in peace would make that person's life desirable, happy existence they dream

about. Similarly to the analysis performed above, once again dream categories merge and demonstrate pursuit of happiness.

For 16 people (i.e. 15% of the studied group), happiness was connected with the category of "work". One of the respondents claimed that *My work is at the same time my greatest passion.* When one's work is one's passion, it is done much more easily and with greater pleasure. As a result, a person is working with better efficiency and enjoys what they do more. People work in different places and have different experiences. Dreaming about work, everyone has got different priorities. For some, it is important what they do and to get fulfilled in what they do, for others their relations with their workmates and boss are the key, whereas for other people a salary is the most important aspect. However, a big number of people dream about all these aspects together. Once their dreams are fulfilled, they are happy. Another example is a respondent's answer as she dreams about *Professional fulfilment and earning a lot of money at the same time.* That dream illustrates well a few aspects of human dreams concerning work.

Dreams about travels were pronounced by 19 respondents, constituting 18% of the studied group. Travels can be trips or longer journeys. One can use different means of transport: a car, plane, bike but one can always travel on foot. While traveling people want to discover new places, explore the world, change the landscape and their surroundings, get to know new people to share ideas or experiences. The aforesaid motifs and forms of travelling are present in the respondents' statements. Thus, one respondent dreams about *Travelling around the world.* This dream is not easy to fulfil, but it is not impossible either. To make that dream come true though, one needs appropriate preparation, a lot of time and the respondent's determination. It would be worth studying and checking how realistic the respondent is about fulfilling this dream. Another example of someone's comment pointing to travel, which is not that distant and easier to organize, is one respondent's dream *About a trip to Bavaria.* The respondent has got a chosen trip destination, she knows where she would like to go. Dreaming about travels one may desire many different things. Yet, one has to pay attention whether these dreams are realistic or are just a form of fantasy (Kałużna-Wielobób, 2010, p. 5).

Another dream contributing to one's happiness is the desire to have children, which was declared by 13 respondents constituting 12% of the group. Many dream about setting a family. There is a worldly trend that once a couple is married, they shall try to have a child. Yet, it is more and more popular to have children before getting married. One of the respondents dreams about *Staring a family* (*having children*). Analysing this dream it could be guessed that the respondent waits for it to be fulfilled. It can be assumed that she is not married currently. On the other hand, another respondent comments on her dream in such a way: *Enlarging my family, at that moment it is my biggest dream to have our dreamed about, much awaited baby that is in my womb.* The respondent is waiting for delivery, has a husband and cannot wait when her baby comes into this world.

The next category is dreaming about love, declared by 10 respondents constituting 9% of the sample group. Love is a feeling that everyone needs. Thanks to love one can love. One can offer this feeling to one's partner, but also to oneself, one's family, friends or animals. Love is not only loving another person. It is also the feeling of care, a strong bond, safety when the other person is around. One of the respondents described a dream in her comment which is *Meeting a person that will stay with me forever. Creating a happy relationship and family.* It is a dream about love. The respondent would like to form a relationship with a person who shall be present in her life both in good and bad moments. She dreams about a relationship turning into something more serious. Once the relationship is developed, the respondent would like to get married and have children. Another example of dreaming about love is a statement of a respondent who dreams about *Family safety.* This respondent dreams about good and safe family life. Her biggest dream is directed towards others, not herself. Once her dream is fulfilled, she shall be happy. Love in that context appears as the feeling of care towards another person.

The last dream category is money. 10 (9%) of the respondents indicated it. Money is not a goal in itself, but it constitutes a way to fulfilling one's dreams. On of the respondents wants to *Have enough* [money] *so as not to worry about my family's future.* The respondent would like to provide their family with the sense of material security. It can be concluded they would also like to ensure a good start for their children and their development. Another respondent also dreams about *Ensuring financial support for me and my family.* It can be noticed that while dreaming about money, people want their families to be happy and able to afford more. However, dreaming about money, one can also dream about something material and specific. One respondent is dreaming about *Nissan GTR in my garage.* The dream of that respondent is precisely defined. When he has got enough money, he will buy himself the car and will be a happy person.

It can be assumed that the dreams of the studied respondents derive from unfulfilled needs. While dreaming people desire something and want their dream to come true. Human dreams contain both material and immaterial needs. They can be directed towards oneself or other people. People want to fulfil their dreams, but they often want a better life not only for themselves. They would like other people around them to have better lives, to be healthy and happy. Most often such dreams are directed towards one's family and friends. It is worth noticing in this place that some dreams can have a form of unfulfilled fantasies, whereas other ones can get more realistic due to human action. In her book entitled *Dreams of Middle-Aged Women* (*Marzenia Kobiet w wieku średnim*), A. Kałużna-Wielobób characterizes day dreaming[2] in the way it is understood by Jerome Singer, and she refers to the words of the aforesaid author showing that "even dreams in the form of fantasy that let us run away from reality and are not linked to any plan of realizing them in real life regard and often demonstrate one's desires and motifs that are the foundation of future goals and aspirations" (2010, p. 13). The author claims that "A dream is a transitory form between a fantasy and a goal. A dream or its elements can, but do not have to, be taken as a goal which a given person plans to realise. Not all goals, even those concerning important matters for an individual are linked with dreams" (Kałużna-Wielobób, 2010, p. 15). Some of the respondents' responses suggest that a dream is a fantasy as it is irrational, not always possible to come true. On the other hand, dreams which are goals tell us that a dream can be fulfilled when an individual does everything and strives to make a given dream come true. Then a dream becomes a goal, an area of conscious activity. Yet, it is worth wondering whether every person would do everything to make their dream come true. Jakub B. Bączek (2021, on-line: https://www.facebook.com/permalink.php ?story_fbid=1843021185847242&id=492830027533038, access: 20.04.2021) writes that "People give up too frequently if the realization of a certain dream requires time." Paraphrasing this view, it can be noticed that people often tend to give up something that they would have to devote a lot of time to. They lose their motivation to fulfil and realise their dreams if it requires more effort. Taking into account what was said above, it is worth considering what people's dreams depend on. The authors of this paper decided to single out dream categories taking into account the studied charges' sex and age.

Dreams and the respondents' sex

The main category according to which the respondents were categorised is their sex. 106 respondents took part in the research and three of them did not provide information on their sex. The percentage of women participating in the study is 81%, whereas the men constitute 19% of the sample. As it can be seen, the number of men participating in the study is relatively small. However, taking into account the explorative nature of the research in question, the authors decided to present the results taking into account the category of sex. On the other

[2] Day dreaming – a range of phenomena that can be categorised as day dreaming is huge – beginning with brief, ephemeral associations triggered by external stimuli, via detailed, thorough memories of past events, fantasies processing data from the past into new-type associations, finishing with predicting future events by either weird or creative reorganisation of accumulated information, dreams and hopes (Singer, 1980, p. 18 after: A. Kałużna-Wielobób, 2010, pp. 12–13).

hand, the results shall be treated as approximate ones, and a more profound analysis should be conducted in the future.

First of all, the dreams of the women participating in the study shall be analysed.

Figure 2
Women's dreams (n = 86)

Source: own research.

As it turns out, as many as 27 (32%) women chose dreams linked with their and their relatives' happiness. The second category was "family" and it was chosen by a similar number of women – 26 (31%). These two categories were quite convergent as "a happy family" turned out to be the leading topic. For years, women have been perceived as empathetic and loving, hence happiness and family may seem the most important values they cherish. 16 (19%) women stated that their biggest dream and key to happiness was travelling – *My biggest dream is travelling. I would like to visit different corners of the world.* Nowadays, more and more women are courageous enough to break the pattern of the traditional female role and follow their dreams. Travels do not mean only the sun and rest, it is also an ideal time to get to know oneself and for self-development, which is illustrated by a quote from one woman's dream description: *Zanzibar; Zumba conference in the USA.* Developing one's personality and coming out of one's comfort zone is very important for the respondents. 13 (16%) of them claim that their biggest dream is closely connected with work. Nowadays, women who achieve professional success are a great inspiration and pride. 18 (22%) women link their biggest dream with health. Health is the key value one cannot buy, hence dreaming about it is quite frequent. “Life” as a widely-understood concept occurred in the dreams of 11 (13%) interviewed women, similarly to the word “child”. Frequently, women’s dreams are directed towards home, maternity and family. It can be assumed that it is the result of upbringing. A big part of the female respondents grew up in times when a woman’s task was to take care of the house and proudly support her husband. Fortunately, more and more often one can notice a trend of women breaking free from those obligations and going beyond socially imposed boundaries and expectations they were raised to meet. It can be stated that awareness and education have a significant impact on that. Dreams connected with education occurred in the responses of 6 (7%) interviewed women. Science broadens one’s horizons and lets us see what is often at hand. Differences between the dreams of the women brought up in more modern times and those a bit older ones are illustrated in the part of the article devoted to the category of age. The source of this difference can be certainly found in the matters regarding the stage of life the respondents are currently experiencing. Yet, it seems that changes in the upbringing may also be important here. Coming to an unambiguous conclusion would require a profound longitudinal study, which goes beyond the limits of this study. Thus, this assumption has to remain in the area of hypotheses.

The categories of dreams in the group of men participating in the survey are distributed in a slightly different way than in case of the women.

Figure 3
Men’s dreams (n = 20)

Source: own research.

Analysing the male respondents' answers, it can be easily noticed that the dreams of 4 (25%) of them concerned "money". Comparing this with a general view on men described as strong, resourceful breadwinners, one can notice a strong correlation with that. Yet, there arises a question whether dreams associated with money are really motivated by internal needs or an attempt to meet social expectations. Ensuring financial stability for oneself and one's relatives – a response of one male participant confirms the fact that maintaining one's family and providing it with well-being is an important life aspect for a man. However, there are dreams that project "money" in a broader and more detailed meaning, e.g. *3 million win in a lottery and Nissan GTR in my garage.* 5 (20%) of the men pointed to the aspect of "happiness" in their dreams. It can be noticed that men less frequently connect happiness with family than women do as it occurred only in the dreams of 2 (10%) male respondents. The differences in the women's and men's responses can derive from the way both sexes function (Moir, Jessel, 1993). Men' actions are directed towards a goal, whereas women are more emotional and usually have a higher level of empathy. There is still an unanswered question whether these differences derive to a greater extent from different brain structures or social influence, especially upbringing. Analysing the respondents' answers it can be noticed though that for a contemporary man spiritual and material values are important too. 3 (15%) respondents pointed to the aspect of "life" in their dreams – *To live long and happily.* One can risk a statement that "life" in a broader sense of the word has got an emotional colouring to it and is inclined towards empirical values. Dreams of a strictly spiritual nature were chosen by 2 (10%) men. "Love" and "passion" were chosen with the same frequency.

Comparing the women's and men's dreams, both many similarities and differences can be noticed. Regardless of their sex, people dream about happiness. In both groups one can find dreams relating to family, life and love. Dreams concerning health, children and education were picked by the women. On the other hand, men mentioned God, passion and money. The women's dreams are more directed outwards, e.g. focusing on family. The men more often long for something more personal, focusing on themselves.

Dreams and the respondents' age

The second category that differentiated the respondents is their age. 106 participants were divided into three age groups. The first one contains people up to the age of 30.

Figure 4
Dreams of the respondents under 30 (n = 47)

Source: own research.

48 (45%) charges can be found in this age group. The foundation for creating such an age group was a conviction that it is time when an individual looks for their place in the world. It is the end of education and the beginning of one's search for employment. At this stage of one's life, people take their first steps in the professional world. It is confirmed by the fact that 10 (20%) people mentioned dreams regarding work, and those focusing on education were picked by 5 (10%) of them. Very often these dreams were presented together – *To finish school and have a good job.* Young people do not feel self-assured on the job market, and the vision of the future often seems uncertain. This is usually time for looking for love and setting one's family. Dreams concerning love were mentioned by 6 (12%) study participants. The most frequent dream is simply to be happy. It was declared by 14 (29%) respondents. Very often dreams about happiness were presented in combination with family, and consequently a dream about family was chosen by 13 (27%) participants. It is illustrated by the following comment: *To set up a happy family.* 8 (16%) respondents pointed to travelling and money in their dreams. This result reminds us that youth has its own laws and apart from dreams oriented towards self-development and settling down, there are also dreams about funds that could be used to explore the world. One respondent's dreams was as follows: *To visit a few countries, to get to know their culture and everyday life of foreign communities,* and another one admitted that his biggest dream was *To have a house with a backyard.* In the word cloud created from the dreams of the respondents under 30, it is noticea-

ble that the words "have" and "be" occur very often. It can mean that it is the time for conquering the world. Young people want to be everywhere and possess a lot. In the word cloud one can also notice such concepts as "passion", "car" and also "future". All these statements are appropriate for this age group.

The second category covers the respondents aged 31 to 50. This group also comprises 48 (45%) respondents.

Figure 5
Dreams of the respondents aged 31–50 (n = 48)

Source: own research.

The dreams of people at that age (31–50) are most often directed towards being happy. 13 (27%) participants mentioned simple dreams like "To be happy." This age group mirrored the combination of dreams of the first age group. Very often a dream concerning happiness was accompanied by the one about family – *I dream about my children being healthy and happy.* The third, most frequent dream regarded one's and one's relatives' health. This category was picked by 11 (23%) respondents. People in this age group very often have stable family and professional lives, hence dreams about work were merely picked by 6 (12%) survey participants and usually focused on further professional development, e.g. *To run my own company.* A stable life situation often favours travels, which is confirmed by the fact that 7 (18%) participants mentioned them in their dreams. A widely-understood concept of "life" was chosen by 8 (16%) people aged 31-50. These dreams concerned a long, happy life or *Life without problems and worries.* A word that frequently occurs is the possessive adjective "my". It can indicate dreams regarding the space surrounding the respondents. The dream about something not necessarily connected with their own person. The analysis of particular utterances points to the fact that the adjective “my” is most often associated with the respondents’ families, e.g. *Health for my whole family is most important now.* It is also worth emphasizing that this age group is characterized by dreams of a spiritual, religious nature. The respondents mentioned their need of close contact with God and engagement in faith – *My dream is living in peace with myself and my conscience. For me it means fulfilling God’s will in my life* […]. The frequency of these utterances is not very high but noticeable. It is possible that the “mid-life” stage directs people towards reflections of an existential and mystical nature. People in this age group are at that stage of their life when one analyses their progress and doubts all decisions.

The last age category was created for people over 50. Unfortunately, this group constitutes nearly 10% of the respondents, thus this analysis should be treated as a preliminary one and should be subject to further research. Due to that fact, numerical and percentage values were not taken into account below.

Figure 6
Dreams of the respondents over 50 (n = 10)

Source: own research.

Invariably, the biggest number of dreams concerned happiness. The second place in this age category was occupied by health. It is a value that the respondents in this age group consider the most crucial one. Good health favours longevity and that was the focus of these dreams – *My dream is to enjoy health and live long.* Other choices concerned family and children, followed by grandchildren. It show that one’s family and broadly understood the closest ones are very important at this life stage. Dreams regarding children and grandchildren are justified by the fact that there is a time in the life of people over fifty when their children leave their family home and grandchildren are born. This age group stands out with its dream concerning safety. The respondents dream about their family's safety – *I would like my family to be healthy, happy, safe, loved, respected and always together.* The feeling of safety can be disturbed due to the fact that children leave their family home. The respondents somehow lose control over the functioning of their closest family members, and reality they have functioned in changes as well. Such changes in life are often accompanied by fear and anxiety concerning unknown future – one's own and one's family members' who start their independent life. An additional aspect strengthening the need for safety may be the fact that the questionnaire was conducted during the world pandemic. The state of threat lasting for a longer period of time might have considerably contributed to that strong need for safety. It should be noticed that there is lack of any dreams pertaining to one's professional career. It can be linked with the fact that after the age of 50 there one approaches the end of their professional activity and there is time for retirement. One has more time for oneself and more willingly chooses places they have not seen yet. Some respondents demonstrated their desire to travel and to go sightseeing. Looking at the word cloud created from the dreams of the respondents over 50, one can also notice a few concepts regarding the development of one's manual skills – "drawing" and "painting". The time when children leave their family home favours developing one's interests and improving the skills one had no time for earlier.

Concluding the analysis of dreams from the point of view of the respondents' age, it can be stated that the majority of the respondents simply dreams about happiness. The dreams occurring in all age groups concerned "health", "family" and "travels". The group of the youngest participants stood out with their dreams about love. Young people look for partners and want to start a family. On the other hand, the group of the oldest participants was characterized by their dreams about safety. With age comes the time when one begins to appreciate places where they feel safe and that is what they want for themselves and their family members.

The way of collecting data and its significance for the results obtained

The last category of research selected as an additional variable is the one indicating differences in the respondents' responses deriving from the way data was collected. Below one can see the differences between responses given in traditional questionnaires and those collected in the internet questionnaire system.

Figure 7
The respondents' dreams chosen in traditional questionnaires (n=45)

Source: own research.

45 people gave their responses with the help of traditional questionnaires, which constitutes 42% of all the data collected. Word clouds were created with ATLAS.ti 8 programme in order to add up and distinguish particular categories of human dreams. In traditional questionnaires two categories stand out very clearly. The first one is "family" that comprises one third of all the responses. Without any doubt, family is something that many people strive for in their lives, something we care for, worry and think about. One respondent's words illustrate it clearly: *Meeting a person that will stay with me forever. Creating a happy relationship and family.* The concept of "happiness" occupies the second place and occurred in the responses 14 times, which constitutes 31% of the questionnaires collected in this way. In many cases both categories intertwine, creating a unity. *My biggest dream is the future. I would like to fall happily in love, which shall lead to a satisfying relationship, marriage, a big wedding and a bunch of children. I desire a happy relationship, family, so that everyone is joyful and feels positive* – this respondent's comment undeniably proves this thesis. Traditional questionnaires were mainly chosen by the people over 30. It is the time in one's life when children become very important and personal dreams turn into a wish of happiness, health and success for one's offspring. One respondent's words illustrate it perfectly: *So that my children have a good life, are healthy and have fantastic families.* 22% of all the respondents whose participation in the research meant completing the traditional questionnaire have dreams of the same category. Looking at the aforesaid responses, it can be noticed that the word "health" occurs very often. It is the next category of human dreams, which oc-

curs as frequently as “children”. The respondents’ answers pointing to the next category of dreams, namely “travelling”, can be characterized by a certain overrepresentation due to the current epidemiological situation. People’s mobility range is currently very limited, they travel more rarely, they spend time at home more frequently. No fewer than 20% of the respondents select dreams concerning travelling. Let us take this example: *I go sightseeing a lot, but I have not been to Dubai yet – it is my dream*, *My biggest dream is travelling. I would like to visit different corners of the world.* The concept of “life” was chosen by a similar number of the respondents – about 20% of them. The respondents dream about *living to the full, life in peace with oneself and one’s conscience* and also about *life without problems and worries.* The dream categories from the area of professional fulfilment i.e. “work” and ”money” occur in the traditional questionnaires very rarely. Both of them constitute only 11% of all the results obtained with this method and similarly to the first two categories, they intertwine, creating one dream: *Finding a job that can offer me professional fulfillment and decent income.*

61 participants were questioned with the help of the electronic questionnaire system. Referring to the whole number of all the questionnaires collected, this result on the percentage scale equals over 57% of the whole. In order to analyse the respondents’ responses in detail, taking into account given dream categories, similarly like in the case of traditional questionnaires, word clouds were created and the following results were obtained.

Figure 8
The respondents’ dreams chosen in online questionnaires (n = 61)

Source: own research.

The dreams pertaining to the respondents' happiness outweigh all the other categories. The concept of happiness is ambiguous, which has been already mentioned in the context of the overall characteristics of dreams. Happiness often depends on circumstances, different for each individual. However, in the case of the participants that took part in the study, this dream is not usually linked with a particular situation. People just want to enjoy life: *Be happy,* which may mean that the respondents offered their comments without thinking too much about the topic. 18 respondents talked about happiness, which constitutes almost one third of all the responses given by this method. On the other hand, 21% of the participants specified that their dream is focused on their family, referring somehow to the first category, i.e. happiness: *To have a happy family.* People under 30 were in the majority of the respondents offering their comments in a digital way, which definitely could be significant for the results obtained. Undoubtedly, it is the stage of human life when one undertakes actions aiming at one's personal satisfaction and professional fulfilment. Thus, the category of "work" is the third most frequently occurring dream in the questionnaires. It was picked by almost 18% of the respondents. It was most frequently described in the following way: *To finish school and have a good job.* The dream occupying the fourth position was health. It related both to the respondents themselves and to their relatives: *Let me and my family be always healthy.* Health as the most desired dream was chosen by 16% of the participants. Precisely the same number of respondents answered that their biggest and the most desired dream is travelling. The respondents very often used the infinitives "be" and "have" in their comments. It proves that people want to be somebody, become somebody, they want to be happy, important to someone, and healthy. The same refers to the word "have". In their answers, the respondents pointed to the desire of possessing both material things: *To have a house with a backyard* and obtaining spiritual values: *To have a happy family.*

Summarising the above additional analysis of dreams from the point of view of the way the data was collected, certain significant differences can be undoubtedly distinguished. The most popular categories both in the traditional and online questionnaires are the same. These are "happiness" and "family". The number of responses focusing on less frequently represented categories such as "health", "travelling" and "money" does not significantly differ in both cases either. One difference is visible in the categories occupying the third place. In the traditional questionnaires, it is "children" that constitutes one of the most frequently chosen dreams, whereas in the questionnaires completed with the help of the other method this category is not very noticeable. In online questionnaires, the third place is occupied by dreams concerning professional career. The word "work" occurs here twice as often as in the responses of persons offering their comments in the traditional questionnaires. It might be of significance that using a computer while giving answers might have evoked in the respondents associations with work. At the moment, this conclusion must stay in the area of hypotheses. Yet, it seems that it is worth undertaking this kind of exploration which would reliably display potential differences occurring in the answers of the respondents participating in the research conducted in two ways (here: traditionally and online).

Conclusion

The conducted research made it possible to categorise human dreams. They were divided into 6 categories and characterized by the participants' sex, age and the way of data collection. The research made it possible to elaborate on dream categories occurring in particular research groups. The foreground was occupied by the dream about being happy. If one wants to know what happiness is about, one should try to experience it. Thanks to this experience, one can learn it. Each person defines happiness differently. In Estapé's opinion (2020, p. 99), in order to be happy, people must live their current lives, look into the past with humbleness and forgiveness, and see the source of hope in the future. It shall let them look happily at the world. Happiness is linked with certain permission and consent for changing the way in which one perceives the world. In the category of "happiness" one can equally place categories of different quality, which emerged during the data analysis in this research. It demonstrated that more detailed categories such as dreams of a material nature, passions, professional development, family and health are components of the biggest one, i.e. happiness. Thus, one can wonder whether declarations concerning happiness did not come from people less engaged in the research (with lower motivation to participate in it) or from people who perceive dreams rather as fantasy and do not concentrate on them in any special way.

The presented research constitutes an introduction for further studies based on the assumptions of Transactional Analysis. The authors of the text plan to compare the dream categories, ego states and passive strategies. It can be justified by an assumption that autonomy and a sense of empowerment might to some extent determine a type of preferred dreams and whether one focuses on their realisation or treats them merely as fantasy. Thus, it seems that functioning in the Adult ego state and cathexing the area of the Free Child ego state, especially in the area of Little Professor might cause bigger determination in realizing one's dreams. On the other hand, functioning in passive strategies might make dream fulfilment more difficult. For instance, the overadaptation strategy may be important for the type of declared dreams, and passivity itself may determine whether a given dream is treated by a given respondent like something real and a goal to achieve. At the moment, these assumptions have to remain hypothetical. Yet it seems legitimate to conduct research based on the paradigm of Transactional Analysis.

In conclusion, the abovementioned research let the authors answer the question what people dream about in a satisfying way. It can be explicitly stated that people want to be simply happy. However, this happiness often manifests itself in different ways.

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Marzenia osób dorosłych. Pierwszy etap charakterystyki z wykorzystaniem analizy transakcyjnej

Streszczenie

Tekst jest raportem z pierwszego etapu badań autorek dotyczących ludzkich marzeń. Celem eksploracji było stworzenie bazy dla charakterystyki marzeń z punktu widzenia koncepcji pasywności oraz uaktywniania stanów Ja w ujęciu analizy transakcyjnej. Przedstawione eksploracje mają charakter jakościowy i wskazują na kategorie marzeń, a także prezentują ich dominacje w poszczególnych grupach badawczych wyłonionych ze względu na płeć, wiek czy sposób realizacji badań.

Słowa kluczowe: marzenia, kategorie marzeń, szczęście.

UNIWERSYTET HUMANISTYCZNO-PRZYRODNICZY IM. JANA DŁUGOSZA W CZĘSTOCHOWIE

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Social media and influencers in the lives of teenagers

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Abstract

The article aims to look at the growing role of social media, with particular emphasis on the part of influencers in the lives of adolescents.

The article is a review based on the empirical research available on this topic. Contact with influencers meets not only the relational, informational, or entertainment needs of young people but also the need to compare ourselves with other people present in our lives. On the other hand, it can maintain the fear of FOMO, which in the long run results in a reduction in the adolescent's social well-being. The article invokes the theory of social comparisons and discusses the supporting role of parents in the context of Berne's structural analysis of social media use by adolescents. The transactional analysis also considered the specifics of influencers' contact with their recipients.

Keywords: social media, influencer, adolescent, social comparison theory, transactional analysis.

Introduction

The use of mobile devices by children and adolescents has increased rapidly in recent years (Rideout, Sphir, Pai, and Rudd, 2013; Anderson and Jiang, 2018). Research shows that young people spend more time online (using smartphones and tablets) – especially on social networks than watching TV (Ofcom, 2016; Smit et al., 2019). Unlike TV, the content available on social media (such as Instagram, Snapchat, or TikTok) is available anytime, anywhere. Social media algorithms automatically select recommendations that are similar to the content currently being viewed and display them to the user. It all adds up to a steady stream of incoming content that can create a compulsion to watch and cause a need to keep returning to social media – checking if I missed anything. The so-called FOMO (*fear of missing out* – the fear that in our absence on the Internet, others experience satisfactory experiences without us) is an increasingly common phenomenon today (Przybylski et al., 2013). Research shows that young adolescents (10–14 years old) are particularly susceptible to them – much more than older adolescents (over 14 years old) or adults (Van Deursen et al., 2015).

According to some authors, the long hours that young people spend online translate into problematic Internet use for them, sometimes even defined as addiction (Lopez-Fernandez, 2017; Lin et al., 2014). Although the concept of addiction to new technologies is not included in the DSM-5 as a disease entity, the APA recommends extreme caution while encouraging scientists to undertake research related to problematic Internet use (American Academy of Pediatrics, 2016).

Along with the growing role of new technologies in the lives of young people, social media (also known as Social Media Networking Sites – SNS) enable their users to use content provided by other content and actively contribute to it. By social media, I mean all kinds of web applications where you can share information and communicate with others. Social media has brought its young recipients a significant change in identity formation. They enable individual construction of a digital image and allow them to connect with friends and meet new ones – by searching for them based on profiles presented on social media. Membership in social media creates a sense of community and often puts users in the active role of recipients. Jenkins described it as his kind of participatory culture, in which "members believe their contributions matter and feel some degree of social connection with one another (at the least they care what other people think about what they have created)" (Jenkins et al., 2009, p. 6). It is safe to say that one of the requirements for participation in SMN is self-presentation. The most valued members present themselves, their lives, interests and views in front of others; they do it regularly, often, and in front of large audiences - influencers. By influencers, I mean people popular on social media who regularly publish content (e.g., image, video or text) for a broad audience. Such people are famous on the web and outside of it. They are recognized and appreciated by their "followers" (i.e., people who follow the influencer, regularly visit his website, and are active on his profile: comment on posts, like, and send private messages). Influencers "have a strong impact on their follower's decision-making" (Hudders, de Jans, de Veirman, 2021, p. 3).

Social media influencers and their impact on youth

Although social media undoubtedly affects the lives of young people, teenagers themselves are not able to answer how it happens. 45% believe that social media has neither a positive nor negative impact on their lives. 31% say the effect is positive, and 24% say it is negative. They consider the role of social media to be the most significant positive in maintaining contacts and interaction with others: communicating with peers and family and establishing new and maintaining old connections and acquaintances (Anderson, Jiang, 2018). But social media is also a place for them to entertain, express themselves and receive social support (Anderson & Jiang, 2018).

Fashion, beauty, and sports guides – these and many other topics discussed in social media make some of their authors. The so-called influencers become significant people in teenagers' lives (Martinez and Olsson, 2019; Smit et al., 2019). They can be described as people with a high impact and trust in the community they create on social media, for which their reach and influence are also significant (Carter, 2016; Agostino, Arnaboldi, and Calissano, 2019).

Every day, influencers systematically provide details of their lives, often intimate ones, thanks to building relationships with their followers. This relationship deepens as the frequency of published material increases. The video films, the so-called rolls or reports, recorded by influencers – audiovisuals seem to create strong connections between the sender and the recipient. Face-to-face contact – even via a digital device – breaks the distance and makes the impression of greater closeness and directness. Audiovisual is currently one of the features that social media creators strive for: traditional word posts or photos are being abandoned in favor of a direct account recorded by the creator. The TikTok application is the leader in this trend – entirely based on short videos and other social media trying to keep up with it by including the so-called video rolls (Instagram) or video reports (Facebook). Each TikTok user can create video recordings and add background music, filters, and effects. This option allows you to express yourself, be creative, share your creativity with others, make self-presentations, and communicate with your audience. Thanks to these possibilities, websites such as TikTok become a place where communities are created and operated, concentrated around certain people, thematic groups, trends, and topics. Thanks to social media and influencers, teenagers satisfy various needs: information and entertainment (Jerslev, 2016) and social/relational (Garcia-Rapp, 2017).

Virtual communities created on social networks allow for building relationships of varying degrees of durability and personal relationships. The interactions that occur there lead to the creation of social networks (Castells, 2008). Batorski (2008) wrote about social networks as follows: "a network is any set of objects connected with certain relationships. […] It is most often a collection of people connected by socially significant relationships" (p. 168). And one of the relationships established in social media is the influencer- followers relationship.

As a rule, young people choose people of similar age as their idols, thanks to which the content provided by influencers matches the teenagers' frame of reference (similar values, experiences, preferences) (Maropo et al., 2020; Anderson and Jiang, 2018).

The specificity of contacting influencers with recipients and recipients with influencers seems to fit perfectly with the theory of transactional analysis, especially one of its most recognizable parts, which is structural analysis. Eric Berne assumed that the human personality is divided into three states of the *self* – each carries specific behavior patterns. The first state – Me-Parent – is the normative state. The second state – Adult Me, is the state responsible for rational and consistent contact with reality. The third state – I-Child, is an emotional state equivalent to children's emotions and experiences (Berne, 2004). In various social situations, our messages and behaviors come from the three ego states indicated by Berne.

Although social media gathers a variety of creators, you can observe that not all of them show the same activity and need to "exist" in the network. People who care about publicity, keeping a large group of recipients around them, establishing lucrative advertising contracts, and recognition are the most active.

Profiles popular among young people (music stars, sports stars, YouTubers, Instagrammers, tiktokers) show that even being of a similar age to their recipients, influencers assume the role of *Parent-Me, entering into parent-child* parallel transactions with recipients. Fans contact them in private messages, seek advice, and confide in problems. And the *Parent-Critical* influencers advise, explain, and provide guidance, even if their life experience is not much more extensive than the person asking them the question (Anderson & Jiang, 2018). On influencers' accounts, you can also find moralizing content, which displays mentoring behavior towards recipients.

As a rule, influencers consistently create their image and try to show the "authentic" version of themselves. Authenticity is important because it allows recipients to identify themselves with the content that influencers present on their profiles. Influencers understand that only in this way will they create a strong community with their fans. Despite this, the content they convey to the recipients most often places the influencer in the position of a person who knows more, better, differently (Anderson and Jiang, 2018). And just like the *Caring Parent*, the influencer also cares about the recipients, gives advice, and helps achieve goals – like a parent who cares about his child's development.

In adolescents' use of the content provided by influencers, there is still too little research showing the importance of supporting communication with the immediate environment (including parents). Undoubtedly, influencers have a significant influence on the formation of young people's opinions on a given topic. Social media influencers „have built a sizeable social network of people following them" (de Veirman et al., 2017, p. 798) and „shape their audience's attitudes through blogs, tweets, and the use of other social media" (Freberg et al., 2011, p. 90). Qualitative research confirms that they influence the behavior of young people: what they wear, eat, and the gadgets they use (Anderson and Jiang, 2018).

Influencers seem to act as opinion leaders and are seen as experts on a specific topic. Their opinions are significant to many people (Lin, Bruning, and Swarna, 2018).

Influencers often have profiles on social media specialized in a specific category, focusing on a niche topic or type, e.g., fashion, food, health, fitness, entertainment, etc. Sponsored entries appear on their profiles – the most popular ones make their living by advertising products, unique advertising entries (so-called advertorials) reaching a given recipient group. Campbell and Farrell (2020) stand out even bake categories of influencers, dividing them into a celebrity, mega, macro, micro, and nanoinfluencers. The indicator of belonging to a given type is the number of followers (megainfluencers have the most followers, nanoinfluencers have the least), which is an indicator of the impact range.

Influencers provide their recipients with a satisfying experience by sharing their personal life, intimate affairs, and thoughts (Berryman and Kavka, 2018), showing their hobbies, family, friends, preferences, and daily activities – they update information (often many times) every day. Many are active not only on one platform but on many, publishing their content simultaneously (e.g., they post their content from TikTok on Instagram). All this makes young people feel attached to their idols and identifies with them and the community they create around them. Unable to check messages from their favorite social media accounts, they feel anxious. They try to avoid such situations by being constantly online to minimize them.

Social media and the role of supporting communication between parents and adolescents

Promoters of media education point out that parents or guardians of children and adolescents have an essential role in preventing the excessive use of social media. Indeed, in many homes, the time young teens spend on social media is regulated by their parents (Hefner et al., 2019; Khurana et al., 2015). The younger the child, the more significant the role of parents in managing their contact with technologies (Livingstone & Helsper, 2008; Bae, 2015). But supportive communication with parents in the context of general media use is also crucial during adolescence (Elsaesser et al., 2017; Appel et al., 2014; Bloemen and Coninck, 2020).

Research has shown that restrictive parental mediation regarding children's use of new technologies can protect them from excessive internet use and digital experiences (Kalmus, Blinka, & Ólafsson, 2015). In such families, according to research, a reduction in the number of time children spend with the media can also be observed (Chang et al., 2015; Chng et al., 2015). Conversely, the excessive use of smartphones by adult guardians of a child is correlated with the same excessive use of smartphones by their children (Terras and Ramsay, 2015). Factors protecting against excessive use of smartphones include good relations with peers (Bae, 2015) and support networks (Ihm, 2018).

Managing a teenager's contact with social media, without a doubt, requires much attention from parents. The parent's entry into the *Critical Parent State* often creates a tendency to control behaviors and phenomena, especially those little known to him. Safe is what has always been known, what is predictable, and what has already been proven. So, using various methods, the *Critical Parent* will try to extinguish new and alien behaviors to him – and available to the young man on social media. For such a *Critical Parent*, the use of social media is something that should be kept under control. Often *a Critical Parent* perceives social media from his – full of stereotypes – perspective.

This perspective is not an isolated approach: empirical research on media use by the youngest is, in many cases, presented from the perspective of a researcher who is, after all, an adult - children and adolescents are rarely given the floor in research. Thus, the perception of the use of social media by children and adolescents is full of generalizations, which the *Critical Parent* is willing to refer to by introducing restrictions. However, while the *Critical Parent* can control the child and their use of social media, this control should be reduced at some stage of the child's development in favor of the *Adult Ego State*. This balance between social norms and emotions requires trusting the child/adolescent and believing that the child can also enter the *Adult Ego state,* thanks to the digital competence sufficient to deal with potentially dangerous online situations. The parent must accept that the child's autonomy increases as the child grows and matures. Media influencers will gain importance, and the parent's position as an authority will weaken. Over time, digital competencies developed by a child will predispose them to choose valuable content in social media and be guided by values commonly considered positive.

Researchers distinguished specific styles of parental mediation related to media use by children and adolescents (Livingstone and Helsper, 2008). And so: 1) Active parental mediation is linked to parent-child discussions about media use. 2) Restrictive parental mediation refers to the set of rules by the parents that a child must respect (e.g., restrictions on media use). 3) Sharing is the shared use of media by children and parents similarly (Livingstone & Helsper, 2008). According to Hefner and the team (2019), restrictive mediation is the least effective. It may result in problematic media use by the child later, without solid restrictions. Scientists agree that media education and supporting communication between parents and children play an essential role, beneficial for the development of children and adolescents (Walter, 2018; Bloemen and de Coning, 2020). Such supportive parent-child communication also reduces the experience of FOMO among adolescents (Alt and Boniel-Nissim, 2018). Existing studies also confirm the hypothesis of the positive role of caching social support (Appel et al., 2014). According to it, appropriate consent from parents (e.g., in the form of a conversation) is a specific buffer between a stressful event and its negative effect (Cohen and Wills, 1985). For a teenager, such a stressful event may be the lack of a message on the profile of the watched person, a favorite person (no status update by the influencer), or the inability to see the new content posted by the influencer. When the need for immediate gratification (in the form of a new post, video, or photo) is unmet, the teen may perceive the situation as a stressful event. Parental involvement in the *Adult Self* role can help alleviate this experience. Treating the child as a conversation partner will allow the child to redefine the problem and understand how to deal with the need for immediate gratification. It will open the way to dialogue and signal that the parent can also be a communication partner on topics related to social networking sites.

It is worth noting that although there are studies on the supportive role of parents in the use of digital media (Appel et al., 2014; Boniel-Nissim et al., 2015), however, in the area of influencers' influence on adolescents, the role of parents has not yet been established, well researched. We can only guess that adolescents who evaluate communication with their parents as supportive will cope better with the negative impact of influencer content on their lives and the FOMO phenomenon.

Influencers and the social well-being of adolescents

The most popular social networking platform in the world today is TikTok. In September 2021, this platform exceeded the number of one billion active users. And this number is growing successively. TikTok left Instagram, Facebook, and YouTube behind. Its users are increasingly younger recipients – including children who, according to the platform's policy, cannot open an account before 13. So we will not find any official data on how many users exactly this social medium has. Based on reports from private companies, we can only guess that this number is constantly growing (Open Mobi Report, 2021). According to data from the European Consumers Organization (BEUC), in France, 45% of children under the age of 13 declare that they use TikTok. In Great Britain, every second child aged 8–11 admits that they upload a film at least once a week. In the Czech Republic, the service is popular with 11- and 12-year-olds. In Norway, it is used by 1 in 3 children aged 10–11 (BEUC, 2021). It is a widespread practice to set up accounts under the required age – young users do it to make them feel belonging to a peer group. To create new friendships and maintain the existing ones, they increasingly have to follow popular brands and celebrities who are liked by the social group they belong to. To maintain their social status in a group, e.g., in a school class, they not only have to have an account on a given, popular social networking site but also like the same profiles as the rest of the group. It gives them access to the group you talk about during breaks after school (Iwanicka, 2020).

What makes TikTok so attractive? Its greatest strength is its algorithm, which quickly learns user preferences and suggests materials to watch, often regardless of who they are following and watching. So, even if someone is a beginner tiktoker and the content he publishes will "fall into the algorithm," – he can reach a million views, regardless of the number of followers of his profile or the reach of other content. Different expectations and dreams than the parents' generation According to the research by The Harris Poll commissioned by Lego, children (10–15 years old) today want to be more "Instagrammers" or "YouTubers" (about 30–40%) than representatives of such professions like a firefighter, teacher, secretary or astronaut (Harris Poll Report, 2019). The trend is clear: being a network star is a good way of life. And more and more teenagers earn money. Teenagers have contact with influencers early on and watch them at work much more often than a policeman, firefighter, or nurse. This profession is a desirable career path for them, much more natural – in their opinion than others.

Influencers are trendy in Poland among young people. Some of them, such as Lenka Pachuc from the channel "Hejka, tu Lenka", "Vito i Bella" on YouTube, or "Pupcik-dupcik" have millions of young followers on TikTok or Instagram. However, they cannot compare with the world's teenage influencers, who earn tens of millions a year on their online activities (record-holders) and have 30–40 million followers. The influencers „built a large social network of people who follow them" (de Veirman et al., 2017, p. 798). The attitudes of their recipients are shaped by constantly updated entries, photos, and videos. They express their views and thoughts daily, share opinions and ideas, and publish reviews, motivational content, and tutorials on various topics - from beauty to lifestyle, education, and socio-cultural and political events. They share this with an anonymous (primarily) audience, who can evaluate each post by writing a comment. They establish direct (at least apparently) contact with their audience, invite them into their world, and shorten the distance, often revealing private information about themselves. A distinction for the young recipient is the "like" of the idol obtained under the comment that the adolescent wrote, and the idol's observation of the account becomes a pass to gaining a better position in the peer group. Such distance breaking by influencers makes them seem trustworthy, close, "normal", and "familiar" (Djafarova and Rushworth, 2017). Addressing their audience directly, they are perceived by teenagers as similar to themselves in their films (Maropo et al., 2020). Such behavior increases their attractiveness and increases adolescents' involvement in content reception (Auter, 1992).

Teenagers are often a source of information on topics important to their generation (Martinez and Olsson, 2019; Marôpo et al., 2020; de Veirman et al., 2017). Although they do not personally engage in interpersonal relationships with each follower, the specificity of social media gives the impression of experiencing close parasocial relationships (Przybylski et al., 2013; Boerman, 2020).

However, research results confirm that intensive use of social media is negatively related to social well-being. Checking the applications of websites such as Instagram or TikTok too often translates directly into the amount of time young people spend with their peers or offline friends (Wegmann et al., 2017). You can also come across the thesis that teenagers are starting to prefer online communication – especially by following influencers on social media – choosing offline communication. This thesis does not seem to be supported by the research on younger children, who declare that offline meeting with friends is still more valuable for them than online activities (Iwanicka, 2020). However, the thesis that neglecting offline interpersonal relations may harm the social well-being of young people should be considered. But observing influencers can have two consequences: on the one hand, it stimulates the need for social contact by teenagers, the desire to find people with similar interests or values, and on the other hand – a reduced sense of belonging to a social group. Staying on social networks for a long time may also lead to disturbed self-esteem in a young person, lower self-esteem, and disturbed perception of one's body – by constantly comparing oneself not only with influencers but also with peers on the Internet.

The theory of social comparisons and influencers in social media

It is human nature to compare ourselves with others, regardless of age. All human behavior is formed from an early age through observing others and constant, though largely unconscious, comparison with others. As early as 1954, Leon Festinger explained that people strongly need to judge themselves. According to his theory of social comparisons, individuals define their social and personal values based on how they measure up to others (Dymkowski, 2007). According to this theory, comparing and opposing peers is part of shaping their identity. This process helps teens discover their views, preferences, attitudes, and behavioral motives.

There are social comparisons upwards and social comparisons downwards. The first type consists in relating oneself to people standing higher in the hierarchy, with higher social and material status, and with higher-rated abilities or qualities. It also refers to their popularity, to the features that we consider attractive and desirable in a given person. We often feel inferior to make such a comparison.

The second type is comparing ourselves with people who do worse than us, who have achieved less than us, are not widespread, fail, and make mistakes that have never happened to us (Paul et al., 2000). We focus on feeling better with our situation, resources, or skills.

Making both types of comparisons increases our well-being and self-esteem and improves self-esteem. We can combine two kinds of comparisons, referring to known and liked people while distancing ourselves from certain behaviors we disapprove of. Comparing ourselves with a known person improves our well-being (Makowski, 2009). We also distinguish a transverse comparison, which refers to comparing ourselves with someone we consider equal in various areas. Most often, we compare ourselves with our peers.

Social media can positively influence a young person's identity and develop them, and influencers can be role models. Upward comparisons, in this case, can inspire and create positive changes in our perception of ourselves: we focus on achieving similar effects to the person we observe (the impact of assimilation). However, they can also negatively magnify adolescent social comparisons' effects. Constantly watching the ideal image of your peers and celebrities on social media, and comparing yourself to them, can make a teenager feel of little worth, an insufficient person. Such comparisons are detrimental to your self-esteem, self-image, and well-being. Especially adolescents suffering from low self-esteem or depressive states will experience the negative effect of social comparisons more often than others (Lubomirski, Ross, 1997).

As many as 15% of the teenagers surveyed say that social media gives a distorted picture of other people's lives. In their opinion, this image negatively affects their well-being. 12% criticize them for the pressure generated by showing the ideal life of other teenagers or influencers (Anderson & Jiang, 2018).

Additionally, constantly evaluating yourself, and comparing yourself with others, can create a specific, critical, competitive perspective. Frequent comparisons with others can make the young person experience jealousy, guilt, or regret more often (White et al., 2006).

For example, research shows that the content presented by influencers profoundly impacts teenagers' body image. As many as 80% of teenagers compared with celebrities known from the media, more than half of the respondents say that photos presented by influencers make them feel dissatisfied with their bodies (Common Sence Media Report, 2015). Teenagers tend to focus on traits such as attractiveness and popularity when they engage in social comparisons. They also compare their abilities and skills. Sometimes such comparisons can motivate teenagers to develop, to improve competencies in a given area. But they can also discourage you and make you anxious. It all depends on the teenager's self-esteem and the type of social comparisons made: up or down.

Spending a significant amount of time on social media, observing influencers and peers, they involuntarily make constant comparisons. As with other social comparisons, teens report lower self-esteem and self-esteem when engaging in comparisons on Instagram, Facebook, and other social media. This commitment includes, for example, viewing profiles where peers post information about their healthy habits, fun social events, or achievements. Teens felt better when they made downward comparisons – by looking at profiles of peers with fewer friends and fewer achievements (Vogel et al., 2014).

On the other hand, according to the authors of another study, "The results indicate that different types of online social comparisons have clear implications for the identity development of young people" (Yang et al., 2018). In other words, some social media comparisons are more favorable than others.

Researchers also separated "social ability comparison" from "social comparison of opinion." They then found that ability comparisons caused negative rumination and stress. However, comparisons of opinions were associated with an increase in well-being (Kocabiyik, 2021). Well-being is forming because teens feel empowered when expressing their views on social media. And this process, in turn, supports identity formation.

We should also remember the influence, as mentioned above, of parents on reducing unfavorable comparisons on social media. Parents' support and unconditional love ease the stress of adolescent social comparisons.

Conclusions

The presented narrative is an extension of the thesis that social media, especially influencers, play an essential role in the life of modern youth. Membership in social media creates a sense of community among young people and often places them in the active position of creators. The creators are the most valued members of the virtual community, and they gather the most prominent communities around them. Platforms such as Instagram, Facebook, and TikTok allow you to communicate with your family or peers and enter into relationships with influencers. We notice that influencers increasingly influence young people's behavior and attitudes: how they dress, what they buy, and what their values are. For many young people, it is them who become authorities, essential people in life. Despite the declining role of parents in a young person's life, their careful presence is still significant. Home media education and child-support communication with parents can reduce their FOMO experience and be a shock absorber of stressful situations that a child encounters on social media. It can also minimize the effects of excessive social media use and negative self-perception and identity formation (social comparisons downwards). The most desirable influence of influencers on young people is that they will develop in various areas of life, increase self-esteem, raise self-esteem, and have a positive self-image (social comparisons up).

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Media społecznościowe i influencerzy w życiu nastolatków

Streszczenie

Celem artykułu jest analiza rosnącej roli mediów społecznościowych ze szczególnym uwzględnieniem wpływu influencerów na życie nastolatków. Artykuł stanowi przegląd oparty na dostępnych badaniach empirycznych w tej dziedzinie. Kontakt z influencerami zaspokaja nie tylko potrzeby relacyjne, informacyjne czy rozrywkowe młodych ludzi, ale także potrzebę porównywania się z innymi osobami obecnymi w ich życiu. Z drugiej strony, może on również podtrzymywać FOMO, co w dłuższej perspektywie prowadzi do obniżenia dobrostanu społecznego nastolatka. Artykuł odwołuje się do teorii porównań społecznych i omawia rolę rodziców w kontekście analizy strukturalnej Berne'a dotyczącej korzystania przez nastolatków z mediów społecznościowych. Analiza transakcyjna uwzględnia również szczegóły dotyczące kontaktu influencerów z ich odbiorcami.

Słowa kluczowe: media społecznościowe, influencer, adolescent, teoria porównań społecznych, analiza transakcyjna.

RESEARCH REPORTS

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Family situation during childhood and adolescence and script activities in the light of transactional analysis. Research report

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Abstract

The article is a research report based on the transactional analysis concept. The author looks for the answer to the question about the significance of the family situation during childhood and adolescence for script entries of a man at the threshold of adulthood. The study was conducted on a sample of 190 people aged 19–25 and using questionnaire techniques. Research tools (adaptation of Z. Łęski's questionnaire, 2018) were based on the concept of miniscript by T. Kahler and H. Capers (1974). The main conclusion of the study indicates the dominant importance of the nature of the relationship between parents for the development of the child's script entries. However, the relationship between script entries and whether the family functioned as full or incomplete was not disclosed.

Keywords: transactional analysis, script, family situation, childhood, adolescence, relationships.

The data of the Main Statistical Office (GUS – Polish acronym) show that due to divorce cases conducted in 2020, in Poland, 44 008 children are being brought up in incomplete families, whereas further 720 minors are living in the families that have undergone the formal process of separation (GUS Demographic Yearbook, 2021). Certainly, there is no information on the number of children actually brought up in incomplete families, whose parents have not decided to formally dissolve their marriage or have never legalized their relationship and currently are not living together. Although the number of divorce cases in Poland has been steady for the last fifteen years, it is hard to regard it as insignificant. One marriage out of three gets dissolved. At the same time, the number of solemnised marriages is the lowest in history – about 190 thousand of couples decide to get married every year (Demographic Yearbook, 2021). In this article, the author decided to determine the importance a fact of growing up in an incomplete family may have for certain behaviours falling within the scope of script activities complying with the assumptions of transactional analysis (TA) as far as an individual at the threshold of adulthood is concerned.

Transactional Analysis and the concept of the script

Transactional analysis is a humanistic concept, yet its sources date back to the assumptions of psychoanalysis (Jagieła, 2016, pp. 232–238). Its founder, Eric Berne, pointed to the far-reaching importance of early experiences for the functioning of an individual in adulthood. A relationship with significant people – mainly one's parents – is important here for developing one's personality in the areas of the Parent ego state and the Child ego state. These are two ego states storing the patterns of feelings, thinking and acting in particular situations convergent with the ones experienced in the past. The Parent ego state reflects direct influence of significant people – ways of thinking, values and views inherited from them. On the other hand, the Child ego state contains patterns of emotional reactions developed in one's childhood, including primarily those based on signs of recognition (feedback information) from significant people. Both of the aforementioned ego states shape one's mindset, what they pay attention to, what is important to them (the so-called frames of reference) and their life position, i.e. a generalized image of oneself and other people. Further on, they contribute to one's script entries.

For transactional analysis, a script is a certain life scenario, more or less consciously acted out by an individual. E. Berne (2005, p. 476) defined a script as "a programme moving forward, created in early childhood under one's parents' influence, which determines an individual's behaviour in important aspects of their life." In his opinion, a script is one of many possible ways of human behaviour and a form of submissiveness towards one of the forces influencing an individual, which is often negative parental programming. Other possible forces are: constructive parental programming resulting in anti-script behaviour in one's adult life; external forces described by Berne as "destiny" directing a man to a forced path; and independent aspirations offering an opportunity of acting in an independent way (Berne, 2005, p. 76). However, the most frequent way of functioning is acting in accordance with a plan determined in early childhood (after: Pankowska, 2010, p. 73). It means that TA includes a conviction that human life is determined by certain events and feelings resulting from them, as well as unconscious decisions taken in early childhood.

As it has been already mentioned, script development takes place thanks to parental influence. A child gets to know their vision of the world, other people and themselves, and at a certain moment, unconsciously accepts some messages as true ones and starts functioning in accordance with them. It is a moment of the so-called script decision (James, Jongeward, 2003, p. 61). Parental programming takes place here via three types of messages: orders, programmes and bans (whose opposite is consent) (Cierpiałkowska, Nowicka-Gawęcka, 1992, pp. 110–114). Orders come from the parents' Parent ego state and are usually conscious and verbal, they push a child towards a certain action. In contrast, bans coming from the parents' Child ego state are emotional and non-verbal in nature, and are conveyed by the tone and timbre of one's voice. The aforementioned consent constitutes their counterbalance. The third type of messages, i.e. programmes, sent from the level of the parents' Adult ego state, inform what and how something should be done to be done "correctly" and how to cope in life taking into account orders and bans.

It is worth mentioning that transactional analysis divides scripts in a particular way, showing among all that a script does not always have a solely destructive dimension. There are winning, non-winning and losing scripts. The first ones let an individual realise their goals efficiently. The non-winning ones characterize the functioning of people who neither get very successful in life nor fail spectacularly. The losing scripts somehow sentence an individual to failure and lost life. Yet, one has to remember that no matter which script we take, functioning within its framework is always conditioned by a certain pattern of entries, which excludes autonomous activity and imposes certain limitations. E. Berne (2005, p. 243) claimed that "a script – no matter whether it is a losing or a winning one – is a way of structuring time between the first greeting at one's mother's breast and the last farewell over her grave. This time of life is filled and emptied by acting and non-acting, never-acting, always-acting, not-acting-before, not-acting-after, acting-and-acting, acting-till-there-is-nothing-else-to-do." Following this way of thinking, he distinguished a few types of scripts, referring them to Greek mythology (ibidem, pp. 243–245):

— "Never" – /the myth of Tantalus/: people possessing this type of script cannot do what they would like to do the most as they received a parental ban in their early childhood, which makes it impossible to act and, at the same time, they are exposed to temptations all the time.
— "Always" – / the myth of Arachne/: people possessing this type of script have been "sentenced" by their parents to the continuous performance of activi-

ties that fascinated them in their childhood, following the rule "if you like doing it so much, spend the rest of your life in this way."

— "Until" or "Before" – /the myth of Jason/: people possessing such scripts cannot reach a given goal if they do not meet a certain requirement.
— "After" – /the myth of Damocles/: an individual can enjoy their life only for some time, afterwards various problems occur.
— "Again and again" – /the myth of Sisyphus/: this type of script makes one unable to complete an undertaken task. Usually, just before reaching a planned goal something happens and it cannot be obtained.
— "Open"/ "Open ending" – /the myth of Philemon and his wife Baucis, who were changed into laurel trees in recognition of their good deeds/: this type of script concerns people who have completed their script instructions and do not know what to do in their life, spending it idly.

It is characteristic that an individual does not have to act in accordance with only one abovementioned script, however, usually one of them is of a dominant nature.

Not-OK miniscript drivers and their alternative

This paper constitutes a report from the research determining a potential correspondence between one's family situation during childhood and script entries. Recognising script entries and mechanisms of acting in a given script requires a thorough, often long-lasting analysis of one's thoughts, feelings and ways of acting. It is favoured by undergoing a therapeutic process which facilitates such an insight. However, within the assumptions regarding a given script, there is a concept that can be submitted to scientific analyses with the use of questionnaire techniques. This concept is a miniscript, more precisely not-OK miniscript and OK miniscript that follow the assumptions of T. Kahler and H. Capers (1974). Not-OK miniscript shows destructive ways of functioning, corresponding to losing scripts. It demonstrates thoughts and feelings preceding certain behaviours that constitute a prelude to entering the script. The authors of the concept made a list of five such sequences, calling them drivers (after: Stewart, Joines, 2009, p. 155). These drivers were assigned to particular script types.

An alternative for functioning in not-OK miniscript is adopting a conscious attitude showing acceptance for oneself and others. It means choosing a developmental path oriented towards conscious, intentional change of oneself. This conscious attitude can be expressed through the so-called allowers forming part of OK miniscript. They correspond to particular drivers from not-OK miniscript.

Table 1
Drivers and script processes corresponding to them

DRIVER	SCRIPT PROCESS
Be perfect	Until – "I can't enjoy myself until I reach perfection."
Please me (Please others)	Next – "It is nice when others are happy thanks to me, but later on I shall suffer from not fulfilling my own needs."
Be strong	Never – "Never show your weakness"
Try hard	Always – "You have to constantly try hard and work hard."
Please me (Please others)+ Try hard	Again and again Type I – "I've tried so hard and almost done it"
Please me (Please others)+ Be perfect	Again and again Type II – "I have to do more."
Please me (Please others)+ Be perfect (in a more intensive way)	Open ending – "I've completed my task and I don't know what I shall do next."
Hurry up	It does not correspond to one particular script process, but if it occurs with any other driver (a set of drivers), it intensifies the whole process.

Source*:* based on: Stewart, Joines, 2009, pp. 159–162; Pankowska, 2010, p. 91.

Table 2
Drivers and allowers corresponding to them

DRIVER	ALLOWER
Be perfect	You are good enough the way you are
Please others	Please yourself
Be strong	Be open and show what you want
Try hard	Do it
Hurry up	You have time, don't rush

Source*:* Stewart, Joines, 2009, p. 163.

In this paper, the concept of miniscript was adopted as a foundation for scientific research.

Methodological assumptions of the research

Forming research assumptions, the main research problem took a form of the following question: *Is there, and if yes, of what kind, any correspondence between the respondent's family situation during their childhood and adolescence and realization of script behaviours in the light of transactional analysis?* Thus, the authors attempted to answer the question whether a certain family situation shall influence one's functioning at the threshold of adulthood in accordance with entries limiting their autonomy (understood as not-OK miniscript drivers) or whether it should favour one's self-acceptance (according to OK miniscript). For the purposes of this paper, the term "family situation" is understood in terms of defining a given respondent's family as complete, incomplete, reconstructed and (in case of incomplete and reconstructed families) stating at which stage of the respondent's life their family situation changed. Additionally, the respondents' subjective opinion on the nature of the relationship between their parents was taken into account.

The research used questionnaire research tools. The first of them was an adaptation of the questionnaire studying dominant script orders by Z. Łęski (2018). This questionnaire, initially consisting of 25 statements, was shortened to 4 items for each driver (20 items in total), and completed with allowers corresponding with the given orders. *Cronbach's alpha coefficient* was defined for this new tool and in this case it equalled 0.69. The respondents were asked to show which of the two statements (in the driver/ allower dyad) characterizes them better. The rest of the questions in the questionnaire related to the respondents' family situation. The research was conducted in electronic form, inviting people at the threshold of adulthood (aged 19–25), students of Polish universities to participate. Those were the students from the following institutions: Jan Dlugosz University in Częstochowa, the University of Silesia in Katowice, Rzeszów University, Nicolaus Copernicus University in Toruń, the Cardinal Wyszyński University in Warsaw, the Academy of Special Education in Warsaw, and Opole University of Technology. In total, 271 people participated in the research, however, the responses of 190 people were qualified for the final analysis (the rejected questionnaires were partially filled in and/ or the respondents' age did not match the research criteria). 151 women (79.5%) and 39 men (20.5%) took part in the research. The table below presents the characteristics of the research sample group taking into account the family situation.

Table 3

Characteristics of the research sample – the respondents' family situation N (%)

<table>
<tr><th colspan="4">The respondents' family situation</th></tr>
<tr><td colspan="2">Coming from complete families</td><td colspan="2">144 (75.8)</td></tr>
<tr><td rowspan="2">Coming from incomplete families</td><td rowspan="2">46 (24.2)</td><td>Incomplete families</td><td>33 (17.4)</td></tr>
<tr><td>One parent passed away</td><td>13 (6.8)</td></tr>
<tr><td colspan="3">TOTAL</td><td>190 (100)</td></tr>
</table>

Source: own research.

As it can be noticed, the sizes of particular respondent groups are significantly different – people growing up in incomplete families constitute only one quarter of the research sample. The aforementioned disproportions and using Likert scale, which should be treated as a measurement scale, in the questionnaire were the foundations of the decision to use non-parametric tests in the analyses, mainly the Spearman's rang correlation coefficient and a non-parametric counterpart of ANOVA test, i.e. the Kruskal-Wallis test.

Analysis of research results

The first research problem was in form of the following question:

Is there, and if yes, of what kind, any correspondence between the respondent's family situation during their childhood and their current script entries?

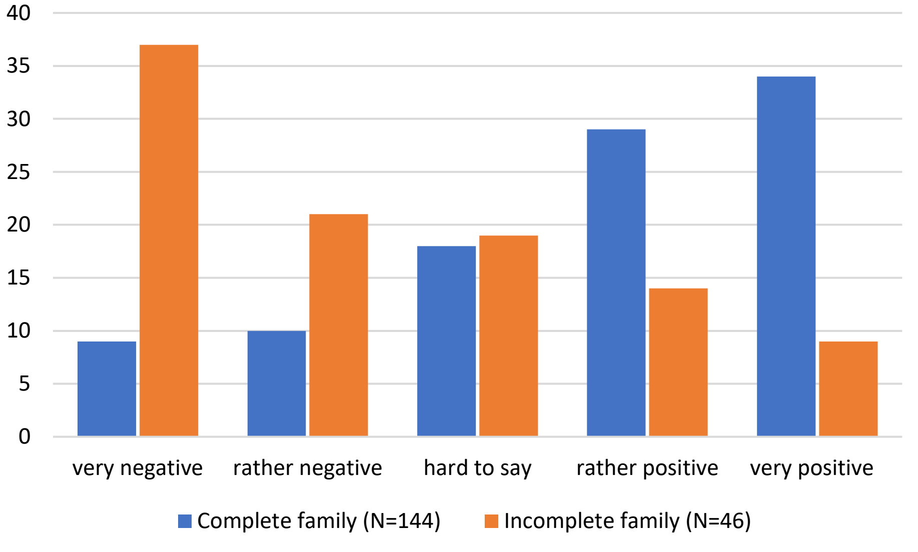
It should be reminded that the family situation was understood as growing up in a complete or incomplete family. At the same time, the reason for a given family being incomplete was given and understood as: 1) parents breaking up (not necessarily formalized but exercised by living separately), and 2) death of one parent. The Kruskal-Wallis test was used in the analyses with its significance level $p < 0.05$. The significance level was not obtained in any of the subsequently conducted tests, which does not allow for drawing conclusions about the relationship between the variables.

Due to a low representation of people coming from incomplete families, supplementary calculations were made and it was decided not to distinguish reasons for a given family functioning in this way. Thus, it was assumed that the fact of a single parent taking care of a given respondent shall be crucial. It should be emphasized that out of all the respondents coming from incomplete families only one person stated that despite their parents' break-up, they evenly participated in their upbringing. The Spearman's rang correlation coefficient was also used in the analyses, adopting the significance level $p < 0.05$. And that one did not show any crucial relationships either.

It means that on the basis of the conclusions drawn, it shall be stated that there is no correspondence between the respondents' family situation in the past and their current script entries in accordance with the way the variables are defined in the research. These conclusions are seemingly in conflict with the theoretical assumptions of transactional analysis, where significant attention is paid to early-childhood experiences in script development. However, this research took into account one more variable which might be important for script development during childhood. The authors looked for correspondence between script entries and the respondents' subjective opinion on the nature of the relationship between their parents. Therefore, the following research problem was formed:

Is there, and if yes, of what kind, any correspondence between the respondent's subjective opinion on the nature of the relationship between their parents and their current script entries?

A working hypothesis was adopted, saying that the quality of the parents' relationship may be of more importance than the fact whether these child minders lived together or separately. The parental relationship was assessed on a 5-point scale, where 1 meant very negative assessment, and 5 very positive one. Graph 1 displays the summary of the respondents' answers.



Graph 1
The respondents' subjective opinion on the nature of the relationship between their parents (data in %, N = 190)

Source: own research.

The respondents growing up in incomplete families assess their parents' relationship way more negatively than the respondents coming from complete families. Yet, in the second group there were also individuals who assessed this relationship negatively or very negatively – 19.47% in total. On the other hand, in the group of people growing up in incomplete families, there were some who assessed their parents' relationship as positive or very positive. There were altogether 21.74% of such respondents.

Describing the correspondence between the assessment of one's parents' relationship and script entries was performed with the help of the Spearman's rang correlation coefficient, adopting the significance level $p < 0.05$. The results are shown in Table 4.

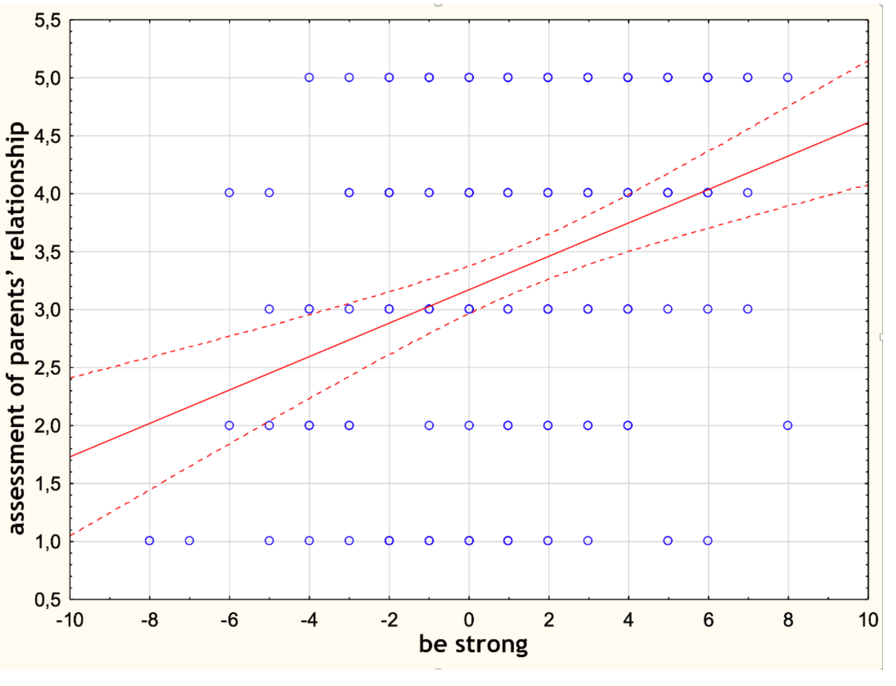
Table 4

The correspondence between the assessment of the respondents' parents' relationship and the respondents' current script entries (*N = 190; p < 0.05*)

	Assessment of one's parents' relationship
Be perfect	0.08
Be strong	0.34
Try hard	0.06
Please	0.08
Hurry up	0.31

Source: own research.

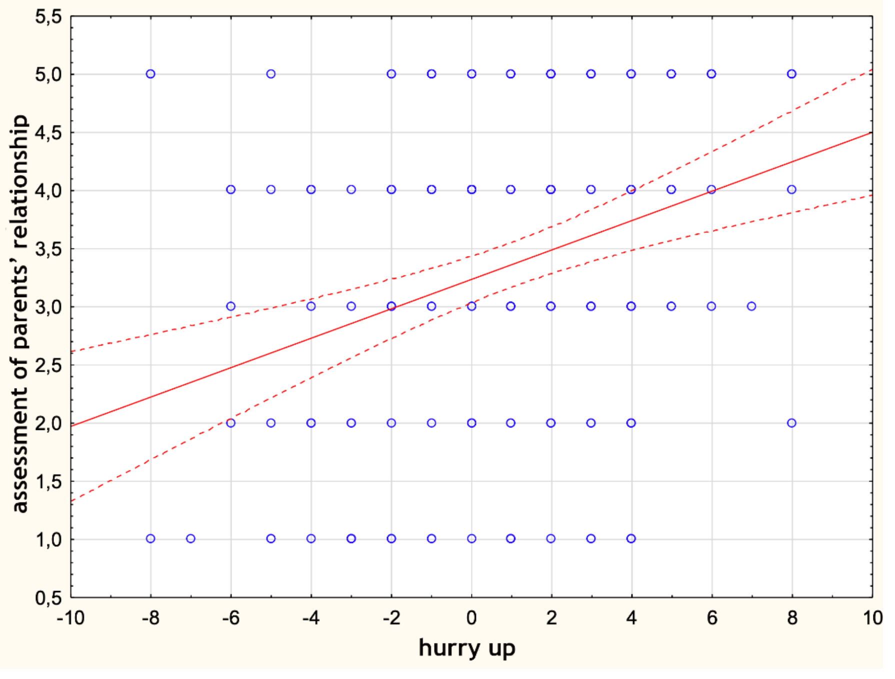
In case of the assessment of parents' relationship in comparison with script entries, there were some correspondences, not very strong but still significant. It means that there is a correspondence between the assessment of parents' relationship and the drivers "Be strong" and "Hurry up". The direction of this correspondence can be determined in this case on the basis of scatter plots presented below.



Graph 2

The correspondence between the assessment of parents' relationship with the driver "Be strong" (N = 190)

Source: own research.



Graph 3
The correspondence between the assessment of parents' relationship (ocena relacji rodziców) with the driver "Hurry up" (N = 190)

Source: own research.

On the basis of analysing the images above, it can be stated that the worse the assessment of the respondents' parents' relationship is, the stronger their script entries concerning the drivers "Be strong" and "Hurry up" are. In accordance with the assumptions of transactional analysis (Stewart, Joines, 2009, pp. 157–158) it can mean that people who grew up in the families where (in their opinion) the relationship between parents was not good, more often possess strong script entries forcing them to hide their emotions (the driver "Be strong"). It is characteristic that often the aforesaid act of hiding emotions does not concern only one's environment. Such people have a tendency to discount (i.e. to disregard and not to recognise) their own emotions. At the same time, they have an issue with asking for and benefiting from others' help. They strive to be independent at all costs, which might result in difficulties in interpersonal relations as they seem distanced and cold. Due to lack of contact with their own emotions, they happens to react disproportionately to a situation. It happens among all as not recognizing the first symptoms of anger, they bottle the whole pressure up till they explode. It should be also reminded that the driver "Be strong" often occurs accompanied by the script entry "Never" which forbids one to show any weakness.

On the other hand, possessing a strong driver "Hurry up" might result in intensifying script processes in general – as it has already been mentioned, this driver strengthens script entries. In accordance with the assumptions of transactional analysis (Stewart, Joines, 2009, pp. 158–162), a person possessing an order to hurry up constantly finds it difficult to relax and rest. They are task-oriented, act all the time, simultaneously experiencing the feeling of threat due to passing ("ending up") time. It does not concern only simple everyday activities or professional tasks. People with such script entries have a feeling of time "running away", which may show in very different aspects of their lives. Some of them will climb the professional ladder at all costs, including their health, concluding that there is time for that right now, and soon this opportunity may be gone. Others, for instance, will have a strong urge to set up a family ("because it's time", "because others have already done it"). In this case, an unconscious value shall be the fact of solemnizing one's relationship and not the way in which this relationship functions and how spouses feel in it. Frequently this feeling of forced rush is transferred to next generations, which makes it impossible for children to develop at their own pace (e.g. "this child should already walk", "this child should already know how to read", etc.).

Conclusions and summary

The research results presented above point to a certain significance of early childhood experiences and adolescence for forming script entries in accordance with the assumptions of transactional analysis. Taking into account the variables included in the analyses, it seems that the most important thing is not whether a given respondent's family functioned as a complete or incomplete one, but the nature of their parents' relationship seems to be crucial. People who assess that relationship as harmonious are characterized by weaker script entries. In accordance with the assumptions of transactional analysis, such people are able to recognize their own feelings and needs to a greater extent, they can act in harmony with themselves, define boundaries and build positive and engaging relations with others.

Therefore, it seems that it would be worth organizing social prophylactic activities directed towards family so that they focus not on keeping the family together, but on making parents aware of the value of their positive relationship not only for them but for their children. It happens that once their child is born, young people direct their whole energy towards it, forgetting about their own relationship. Caring about it is the key to healthy functioning of the whole family and the foundation for harmonious and optimal development of the next generation. At the same time, it is worth emphasizing that the research undermines a common view on a complete family as the best upbringing environment for every child regardless of its situation, and an incomplete family being always dysfunctional. In both cases, a central point is the quality of the relationship between parents. Its positive dimension shall be a protective factor in every case, regardless of the fact whether a given family is complete or not. Thus, if due to difficulties in their own relationship, parents decide to go separate ways but they keep respecting each other and cooperating amicably in the context of raising their children, they shall offer them a solid foundation for healthy functioning regarding script limitations in the light of transactional analysis.

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Sytuacja rodzinna w okresie dzieciństwa i dorastania a działania skryptowe w ujęciu analizy transakcyjnej. Raport z badań

Streszczenie

Artykuł stanowi raport z badań prowadzonych w oparciu na koncepcji analizy transakcyjnej. Autorka szuka odpowiedzi na pytanie, jakie znaczenie ma sytuacja rodzinna w okresie dzieciństwa i dorastania dla zapisów skryptowych człowieka u progu dorosłości. Badania przeprowadzono na próbie 190 osób w wieku 19–25 lat, z wykorzystaniem technik kwestionariuszowych. Narzędzia badawcze (adaptację kwestionariusza Z. Łęskiego, 2018) oparto na koncepcji miniskryptu T. Kahlera i H. Capersa (1974). Główny wniosek z badań wskazuje na dominujące znaczenie charakteru relacji pomiędzy rodzicami dla rozwoju zapisów skryptowych dziecka. Nie ujawniono natomiast związku pomiędzy zapisami skryptowymi a tym, czy rodzina funkcjonowała jako pełna czy niepełna.

Słowa kluczowe: analiza transakcyjna, skrypt, sytuacja rodzinna, dzieciństwo, dorastanie, relacje.

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Educational strategies of teachers with differentiated self-realization styles

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Abstract

This article presents the results of a study based on the relationship between teachers' self-realization styles and the educational strategies they employ to stimulate the psychological development of female and male students. Five self-realization styles were measured: self-acceptance, others acceptance, solving social conflicts, solving internal conflicts, non-self-realization and a random variable in the form of the following educational strategies: reinforcement, development, adaptation, and ideology. The results from the random sample demonstrated a general difference between the group of teachers who did not realise their potential (non-self-realization) and the other teachers who presented different self-realization styles. The former group identifies with heterogeneous strategies, whereas the latter identifies with autonomous strategies. This regularity was not the case for reinforcement strategies, whereby all groups employed an individual (autonomous) rather than a collective (heteronomous) reinforcement strategy.

Keywords: development of teachers and students, self-realization styles, educational strategies.

Research problem

Studies on education are usually focused on various theoretical categories that are derived from definitions of upbringing, education, teaching or socialisation. The theoretical category that will be applied to problematise the research field in this paper is the category of human development. Therefore, this category applies to the development of students, teachers, educators, parents, and all participants in educational processes. What seems intriguing yet difficult to comprehend in problematising and operationalising educational practices in research is the relationship between teacher development and student development. This relationship is interesting as the existing knowledge in this area is incomplete, fragmented and poorly validated in an empirical sense. Development is crucial to education; however, this relationship is difficult to capture empirically because we are unable to demonstrate, directly by way of experiential analysis, whether the developmental change of the student somehow results from or is conditioned by the capabilities and developmental dynamics of the teacher. Moreover, colloquial conjectures on this issue are not scientific, and their accuracy is unverifiable. Consequently, they cannot be utilised to explain and understand these empirical phenomena. Therefore, we require theories of development and the tools to measure them, as well as use them in such a way that they become sensitive to the developmental changes of teachers and students. Simultaneously, which theories are used for such an analysis is not a crucial aspect. The theories may include neopsychoanalytic, behavioural, social-cognitive, cognitive, humanistic, or phenomenological. Each of these groups has a conceptual system that can explain several phenomena at the interface between development practice and education practice. Instead, the significant issue is to find an empirical space wherein these theories would provide meaning to the development of students and teachers simultaneously. As previous research practice has demonstrated, this will not be achieved by examining samples from both populations separately. This is because they are two non-concurrent systems from an empirical perspective, and the mystery is rather hidden in what the two populations may have in common. However, we can try to predict the developmental effects that may occur on the part of students when teachers apply certain educational action strategies. This is the potential that human development theories explain. On the one hand, they define a developmental standard that educational processes can aim to achieve. On the other hand, they provide data for defining a system of educational interventions in such a way as to make their achievement plausible. Thirdly, and most importantly, they can show how teachers with a certain developmental status (self-developmental state) select measures to stimulate students' development. It does not appear that the current state of sophistication of the social sciences will allow further clarification of this issue.

In an attempt to problematise the empirical field, one can begin with the potential developmental effects that may occur on the side of the students. These effects will result from how teacher impacts are defined. This area will be problematised using the categories of parenting strategies described on the heteronomous-autonomous dimension (Chomczyńska-Rubacha, Rubacha, 2007,

p. 39). An educational strategy is a way of stimulating student activity to ensure that a given developmental standard can be achieved. For instance, teaching a child to defer gratification is a manifestation of a strategy to stimulate the child's moral development towards achieving a standard of moral autonomy. The strategy is developed in line with the concept of education and the action implementing this concept. The authors reduced the educational strategies to the form of teaching strategies and thus related to school everyday life. While observing the links between the education process, they identified four areas in which educational strategies reveal themselves: reinforcement, development, adaptation and ideology. Therefore, four educational strategies emerged for each of the educational strategies: reinforcement, development, adaptation and ideology. The strategies were defined according to the heteronomous-autonomous dimension based on the development standards typical of these extremes. Their layout is illustrated in Table 1.

Table 1
Educational strategies

Teachers' educational strategies organised at school	
HETERONOMOUS	AUTONOMOUS
Reinforcement Strategy	
Collective	Individual
Development Strategy	
Conformism	Self-targeting
Adaptation Strategy	
External Controllability	Internal Controllability
Ideology Strategy	
Conservative	Liberal

Source: Chomczynska-Rubacha, Rubacha 2007, p. 39.

Reinforcement strategies are teacher concepts and actions that stimulate and suppress different student behaviours described by two polarised standards: collective and individual. The former emphasises the importance of the group in the education process, whereas the latter depicts the significance of the individual. In the first case, the group is the reference point for the individual and the stimulated actions of the individual are intended to serve the development of the group. However, in the second case, the individual is the reference point for the group and the group provides a space for individuals to develop (Chomczyńska-Rubacha, Rubacha, 2007, p. 40). The development strategy involves a teacher's ideas and actions that stimulate the achievement of behavioural standards that are higher in quantity and quality than the previous standards concerning the standard of conformity. When students, regardless of their preferences, are confronted with a ready-made system of expectations, the fulfilment of conformity is necessary and requires them to reformulate their individuality towards conformity with the cultural pattern. The second case is a strategy focused on a self-targeted standard, based on an emancipatory developmental pattern of effectively maintaining the interaction between external norms and one's preferences. The adaptation strategy can be realised through the activation of two criteria: the external norms established by teachers, and the personal decision of the alumni based on participation in the construction of the norms guiding the life of the school. The last strategy of ideology includes concepts and actions that combine teachers' value systems and worldviews with general political and ethical orientations. In a manner, it can be similar to liberal ideology, being free, equal, and open to difference and multiplicity, or a conservative ideology, which can be broken down into secular, religious and educational fundamentalism (Chomczyńska-Rubacha, Rubacha, 2007, p. 47). Thus, the heteronomous standard is linked to the collective, conformist, externalist and conservative strategies, whereas the autonomous is linked to the individual, self-targeted, internal controllability and liberal. Several studies have that the autonomous standard is the highest developmental standard that can be achieved in the areas of cognitive (Piaget, 1981; Brunner, 1978; Vygotsky, 1971), moral (Piaget, 2006; Kohlberg, 1984; Bandura, 1999; Gilligan, 2006), social (Bandura, 1986; Schaffer, 2006) development. These strategies and the standards assigned to them are discussed in detail in the studies by the authors of the theory under discussion (Chomczyńska-Rubacha, Rubacha, 2007).

Following the mainstream approach applied in this paper, it is now possible to assess the states of teacher development on which the successful stimulation of the most complex and highest standards of students' psychological development may depend. The answers can be as many as the theories of development and based on these theories, different conceptual systems can be activated that can generate explanations from the corresponding social science paradigms. In the present research, the research field was problematised using the theory of self-realization, derived from the work of A. Maslow (1986, 1990) and A. Angyal (1972) and extended by K. Rubacha (1991, 2022). Thus, self-realization is most generally understood as activities aimed at bringing out one's developmental potential in the course of an individual's interaction with the environment (Rubacha, 2022, p. 5). The self-realization syndrome, as described by A. Maslow, consists of the following characteristics: spontaneity, simplicity, naturalness, self-esteem, acceptance of others and nature, creativity, focusing on a problem, need for privacy, autonomy (i.e., independence from culture and environment), philosophical but a non-malicious sense of humour, the constant freshness of judgement, sense of community with people, mystical experiences (peak experiences), depth of interpersonal relationships, democratic character structure, more efficient perception of reality and more satisfactory relations with it compared to others, differentiation of means and ends, the distinction between good and evil, distance from reality, and resistance to enculturation (Maslow, 1990, pp. 212–251). According to Maslow (1990), this syndrome appears in respondents at different levels: low, average, or high, which makes it possible to operationalise it in the form of indicators hidden in questionnaire items (Witkowski, 1978; Rubacha, 1991). Self-realization understood in this way can occur based on the individual's diverse resources simultaneously emphasising specific areas of life and development standards. One version of this theory distinguishes four styles of self-realization, related to the following development standards: ipsocentric, allocentric, justice and care (Rubacha, 2022, p. 18). The first two are standards for emotional-social development (Skarżyńska, 1991), while the remaining two are standards for cognitive-moral development (Kohlberg, 1984; Gilligan, 2006). The styles of self-realization were constructed by crossing the two dimensions of ipsocentric–allocentric and justice–care. The first style is the result of an overlap between the ipsocentric standard and the standard of care. It is a style focused on s e l f - a c c e p t a n c e. A personal perspective of self-realization is dominant, and potentialities and capacities are realised outside the social sphere of life. These capacities are governed by a standard of care and self-acceptance as well as involvement in the personal affairs of those closest to them. Central to this is a concern with the conditions for the realisation of one's potentialities (Rubacha, 2022, p. 17). The second style is formed when the allocentric standard is superimposed on the standard of care. It is a style focused on o t h e r s a c c e p t a n c e. It is dominated by the public, non-personal space of self-realization, where people who require help and care are found. Central to this is a readiness for pro-social activities, a responsibility for other people, and an understanding of their situation (Rubacha, 2022, p. 17). Another style emerges when we superimpose the allocentric standard on the equity standard and is focused on r e s o l v i n g s o c i a l c o n f l i c t s. It is dominated by the macro-social, cultural, and political space of self-realization, and hence, it can be considered a more formal space. It is often a struggle against the social system wherein basic values must be defended (Rubacha, 2022, p. 17). Issues of individuals do not disappear from the field of view; rather, at the centre are actions for inter alia, the protection of civil rights, minority rights, and excluded groups. The last style originates when an ipsocentric standard is superimposed on the justice standard and is focused on s o l v i n g i n t e r n a l c o n f l i c t s. The personal space of self-realization dominates in this scenario, and activities consist of resolving value crises, focusing on the compatibility of one's behaviour with professed values, and resolving moral dilemmas in terms of personal life and the lives of loved ones (Rubacha, 2022, p. 17). These four styles can be cultivated through the presence of the self-realization syndrome as described by Maslow (1990, pp. 212–251).

The problematisation presented makes it possible to place the differences and similarities that occur in terms of the educational strategies used by teachers with various styles of self-realization at the centre of the research. As the study will record data on teachers who score low on the self-realization measure in addition to the four self-realization styles, it will be possible to observe how these teachers use educational strategies in comparison to teachers who score high. Consequently, this will indirectly examine the potential developmental effects on the part of the students who work with these teachers on a daily basis.

Method

The research design is nomothetic, prepared to estimate general patterns. Thus, it is based on random sampling from the population of teachers in the Kujawsko-Pomorskie and Dolnośląskie voivodeships (06–10.2022). Hence, the conditions for randomisation of the first type were obtained, and allocation to comparison groups was based on the magnitude of the indices of the individual self-realization styles. A total of five groups of respondents (N = 160) were collated, equally (n = 32 each) representing a style focused on self-acceptance, others acceptance, solving social conflicts, solving internal conflicts, and the non-self-realization group. In the space of this five-value fixed variable, the results of the measurements of the four education strategies, and therefore the four random variables, were gathered. Finally, in a quasi-experimental design, four comparisons of mean educational strategy (reinforcement, development, adaptation, and ideology) were made between the five established groups of self-realization styles of the analysed teachers.

Data was collected using the test method, employing two paper-and-pencil assessment tools. To measure the random variable, the Educational Strategies Test (TSW) developed by M. Chomczyńska-Rubacha, K. Rubacha (2007, pp. 73–80) was used, whereas the Questionnaire of Self-realization Styles (KSS-22) developed by K. Rubacha (2022, pp. 19–26) was employed to measure the set variable. The Educational Strategies Test consists of tasks that require deciding on a strategy that can be applied to a specific educational problem. These items achieved discriminatory power indices (rbi) ranging from 0.52 to 0.69. Their reliability as measured by Cronbach's Alpha index was in the range of 0.89–0.92. As a measure of the theoretical relevance of the tool, Loevinger's HIT homogeneity formula estimating the concordance of each item with the overall test score was also used, through which values in the range of 0.88–0.99 were obtained. The test was also normalised for each strategy using the interim measure of mean and standard deviation. The second KSS-22 tool was ipsative in its nature, consisting of 22 items within which there were three items each to rank, containing indexes of self-realization within the dimensions of ipsocentric–allocentric, justice–care and non-self-realization. The discriminatory power of the items (phi) ranged from 0.4 to 0.57, whereas Cronbach's alpha ranged from 0.75 to 0.89. The theoretical relevance of the tool was also estimated. The hypothesis of three factors corresponding to the theoretical underpinnings of the KSS-22 was not confirmed in the factor analysis. Following several trials, analyses were temporarily abandoned, which would have been performed on the same group of subjects. However, theoretical, diagnostic, and prognostic relevance was tested using external criteria. The results confirmed the relevance of the KSS-22, and the tool has also been standardised on a sten score (Rubacha, 2022, pp. 19–26; pp. 35–40).

Null hypotheses were tested using univariate ANOVA analysis for two sets of variables and the Kruskal-Wallis Test for two further sets of variables since the assumption of homogeneity of variance for the two educational strategies was not met for the necessary conditions. In these cases, the Kruskal-Wallis non-parametric analysis of variance was applied. An alpha of less than 0.05 was used as the significance level, which optimally captures the relationship between the probability of error of the first and second types.

Analysis of own research results

The development strategy falls between conformism and self-targeting. Theoretical data informs us that approaching a standard of self-targeting makes it possible to stimulate alumni to achieve states of autonomy, which will be much more difficult, if not impossible, in case their conformity is stimulated. The first observation depicted a high difference in the mean of this strategy between those with low levels of self-realization and the others.

It is evident that creating conditions for the development of conformism, opportunism and dependency is a strategy of teachers who fail to realise their potential in life. Table 2 also demonstrates that teachers with self-acceptance and solving internal conflicts styles are the most advanced in stimulating self-targeting. A common dimension of these respondents is ipsocentrism.

Perhaps having positive experiences in focusing on personal development tasks, instinctively as it were or intentionally (we don't know), teach the students to recognise their own needs and to set themselves tasks beyond their current developmental ceiling. In the same direction, although somewhat less strongly, are teachers with the others acceptance and solving social conflicts styles. Maslow (1990) stressed the importance of positive self-centeredness as a condition for acting for the benefit of others. In doing so, he cited the examples of his subjects, who were outstanding people that made important breakthroughs in the world, acting for the benefit of humanity, albeit in a state of self-centeredness.

Table 2

Estimators for the system of variables development strategy – self-realization styles

development strategy	N	Mean	Std. Devia-	Std. Error	Minimum	Maximum
non self realization	32	1,5000	,87988	,15554	1,00	4,00
self-acceptance style	32	3,0938	,92838	,16412	1,00	4,00
others acceptance style	32	2,4375	1,01401	,17925	1,00	4,00
solving social conflicts style	32	2,1563	,88388	,15625	1,00	4,00
solving internal conflicts style	32	3,2188	,87009	,15381	1,00	4,00
Total	160	2,4813	1,10443	,08731	1,00	4,00

Source: own research.

Table 3

Homogeneity of variance test for development strategies

	Levene Statistic	df1	df2	Sig.
development strategy Based on Mean	,678	4	155	,608

Source: own research.

Table 4

Self-realization styles vs. development strategy; ANOVA results

development strategy	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	63,662	4	15,916	18,935	<,001
Within Groups	130,281	155	,841		
Total	193,944	159			

Source: own research.

Table 4 confirms that this relationship is not a coincidence, but rather a result of the test procedure used, as it is statistically insignificant. The data collected had a distribution close to normal, and the variances were homogeneous (Table 3), legitimising the accuracy of the ANOVA test applied.

School life takes place in a group, leading to various consequences with respect to the development of the individual. Teachers can subordinate individual students' needs and activities to the group, emphasising the value of community. They may also treat the group as a place to realise the individual potential of male and female students, underestimating its importance in human development. Moreover, they can also focus on valuing the individual preferences of alumni and help them find social space for their realisation. The Educational Strategies Questionnaire includes indicators that emphasise individuality as a developmental standard of reinforcement.

Table 5
Estimators for the system of variables reinforcement strategy – self-realization styles

reinforcement strategy

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error	Minimum	Maximum
non selfseralization	32	2,5625	,80071	,14155	1,00	4,00
self-acceptance style	32	1,6250	,65991	,11666	1,00	3,00
othevers acceptance style	32	2,3125	1,02980	,18204	1,00	4,00
solving social conflicts style	32	2,8750	1,07012	,18917	1,00	4,00
solving internal conflicts style	32	2,9688	,78224	,13828	1,00	4,00
Total	160	2,4688	,99636	,07877	1,00	4,00

Source: own research.

Table 5 illustrates averages indicative of respondents' focus on individual reinforcement strategies, regardless of the revealed fact and self-realization style. The average of the group with a low level of self-realization did not differ from the other research groups in this regard. Only those with a style focused on self-acceptance were inclined to prefer a collective reinforcement strategy. This condition was confirmed by the statistically insignificant result of the variance analysis, and the result can be considered accurate since the data met all the conditions for using this statistical test, as shown in Table 6.

Table 6
Homogeneity test for reinforcement strategies

	Levene Statistic	df1	df2	Sig.
reinforcement strategy Based on Median	1,131	4	155	,344

Source: own research.

This is quite an interesting result since while stimulating individuality falls within the development standards described in theories of self-realization, the lack of self-realization experiences should be linked more to a lack of self-perception than vice versa. Yet those who do not reveal a tendency towards self-realization prioritise the individual system of educational reinforcement over the collective system, similar to the other respondents. Perhaps the socialisation factor, i.e., the prevailing culture of individuality, is involved in this scenario. It may be assumed that a broader process than education is socialisation, which in this case is not modified by conscious educational reinforcement. To summarise, they do not alter the socialisation trend. This, in turn, is strongly marked in Poland by the experience of post-communist society.

Table 7
Self-realization styles vs. reinforcement strategy. ANOVA results

reinforcement strategy

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	37,125	4	9,281	11,917	<,001
Within Groups	120,719	155	,779		
Total	157,844	159			

Source: own research.

Several decades of deprecation of individuality can now still maintain a fascination with individuality as a criterion for thinking about society (Bauman, 2012). Nevertheless, this socialisation effect is in line with the standard of development towards individual autonomy. This interpretation also makes it possible to note that the power of developmental stagnation did not prove to be greater than the power of socialisation processes.

The adaptation strategy emphasises two dimensions of school life with respect to creating conditions for external and internal controllability. Simultaneously, the institutional structure of school organisation strongly privileges the passive, dependent adaptation of male and female students. They indeed enter as beings "in statu noscendi" into ready-made structures. This socialising dimension of school can be categorised by teachers and students who, consciously and deliberately, break down the latter's model of adjustment to everyday school life, and the school is full of ready-made adaptation recipes.

Figure 1 depicts that the internal controllability strategy is most strongly used by teachers with styles focused on solving social and internal conflicts. These two groups of people identify with an ethic of justice, and therefore, principled action. They do not use the practice of rewarding students for giving in to pressure, but rather stimulate them to follow their own rules. Using this strategy can be difficult in practice, as controlling people's adaptation to the organisation is a tool for exercising power if not directly by the school management, then often by the Superintendents of schools and the minister, as seen in Poland today.

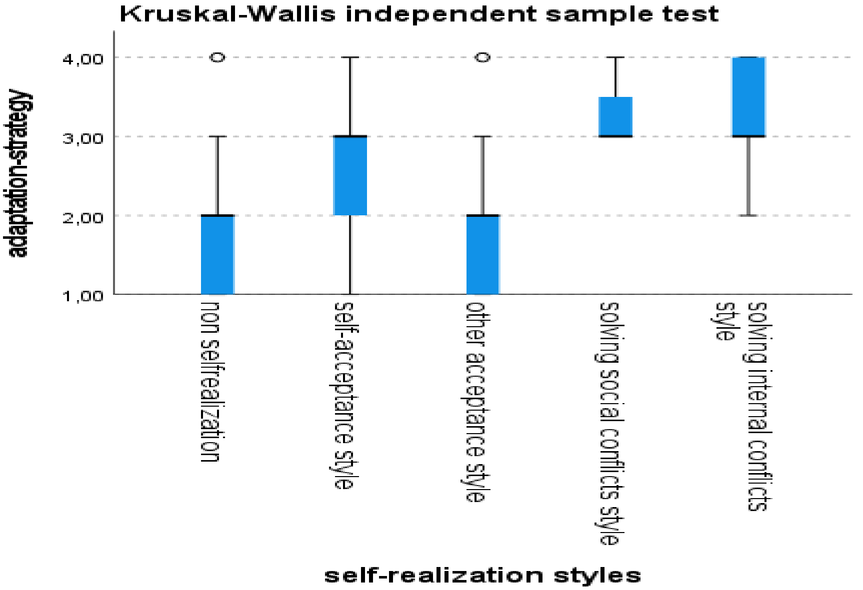

Figure 1
Adaptation and self-realization styles

Source: own research.

Table 8
The null hypothesis of the Kruskal-Wallis test for the relationship adaptation strategy – self-realization styles

	Null Hypothesis	Test	Sig.	Decision
1	The distribution of adaptation strategy is the same across categories of selfrealization.	Independent-Samples Kruskal-Wallis Test	>.05	Reject the null hypothesis.

Source: own research.

Internal controllability in this situation can be combined with the risk of being penalised, which applies to both teachers and students. External controllability, on the other hand, is sometimes rewarded when the system fears civil society. The ethics of justice, however, provides a barrier against such tendencies. Care, on the other hand, apart from its positive dimension from a developmental point of view, can be confused with tribalism, which is fostered by external controllability. The trends captured are confirmed in Table 8, reporting the statistical significance of this relationship. Self-realising individuals perform better with an internal controllability strategy as a mechanism for active adaptation to school structures than individuals without such developmental dynamics.

However, as the name might suggest, the ideology strategy does not only remain in the realm of concept, but it also moves into the realm of action. Therefore, the teachers can actively stimulate either conservative student behaviour or liberal behaviour. Figure 2 shows that teachers with low levels of self-realization have a greater tendency than teachers with a self-realization style focused on solving social and internal conflicts as well as self-acceptance to use a conservative strategy. In contrast, it is difficult to interpret the outcome of those with a style focused on others acceptance. One might have expected a strong, constant focus on liberal ideology, which is open to different versions of the world and life. Nevertheless, teachers' self-realization is generally conducive to openness, tolerance of cognitive incompatibility, freedom and equality of treatment of students. In any case, these qualities are being stimulated as part of the liberal strategy. This strategy, similar to the previous one, is strongly entangled with the political context of education, especially when the educational authorities are conservative. The situation is difficult in terms of stimulating the development of autonomy when conservative ideology is introduced into the school in a version of religious fundamentalism.

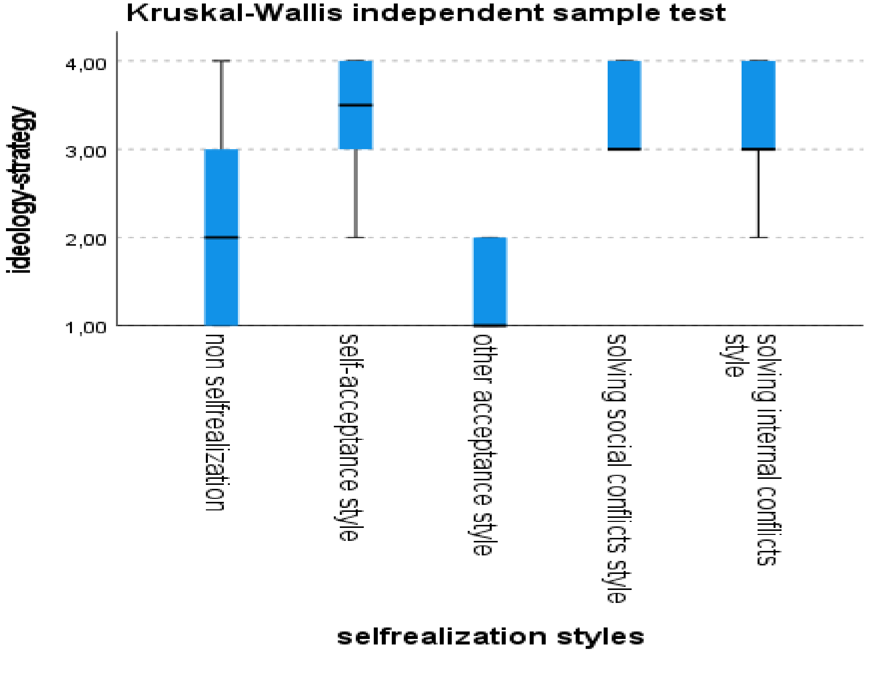

Figure 1
Adaptation and self-realization styles

Source: own research.

In this case, self-realizing teachers who are conflict-solution-oriented and accepting of diversity are invaluable assets. The result of the Kruskal-Wallis test in Table 9 confirms the relationships described.

Table 9
Null hypothesis of the Kruskal-Wallis test for the relationship adaptation strategy – self-realization styles

	Null Hypothesis	Test	Sig.	Decision
1	The distribution of ideology strategy is the same across categories of selfrealization.	Independent- Samples Kruskal-Wallis Test	>,05	Reject the null hypothesis.

Source: own research.

Summary

Concluding the entire analysis and moving from detailed insights into the data towards a more general theoretical reflection, it is worth emphasising that the developmental condition of teachers can be considered as a system of factors that alter the development of students. This relationship was not shown directly from the data obtained from the survey of teachers and students; however, it was reflected in the impact of teachers' self-realization styles on the educational strategies they use with students. In case such strategies are efficient and our knowledge of education does not deny the causal role of education with respect to the development of children and young people, research of such accord is worth continuing.

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Strategie wychowawcze nauczycieli o zróżnicowanych stylach samorealizacji

Streszczenie

W artykule zaprezentowano wyniki badań nad relacjami pomiędzy stylami samorealizacji nauczycieli a stosowanymi przez nich strategiami wychowawczymi. Zmierzono pięć stylów samorealizacji: akceptacji siebie, akceptacji innych, rozwiązywania konfliktów społecznych, rozwiązywania konfliktów wewnętrznych, braku samorealizacji oraz zmienną losową strategie wychowawcze: wzmocnień, rozwoju, przystosowania, ideologii. Wyniki badań z próbki losowej pokazały, że istnieje generalna różnica pomiędzy grupą nauczycieli nierealizujących swoich potencjalności (brak samorealizacji) a pozostałymi nauczycielami prezentującymi różne style samorealizacji. Ci pierwsi identyfikują się ze strategiami heterogenicznymi, podczas gdy ci drudzy – z autonomicznymi. Prawidłowość ta nie miała miejsca w przypadku strategii wzmocnień, kiedy wszystkie grupy stosowały strategię wzmocnień indywidualnych (autonomiczną), nie zaś kolektywnych (heteronomiczną).

Słowa kluczowe: rozwój nauczycieli i uczniów, style samorealizacji, strategie wychowawcze.

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Resilience levels of learners participating in the SPARK Resilience (ISKRA Odporności) pilot prevention programme

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Abstract

This article draws attention and describes the importance of resilience as a protective factor in both mental and social maturing processes. The topic was inspired by the SPARK Resilience (ISKRA Odporności) pilot prevention programme, whose aim is to support emotional immunity defined as the ability to control reactions to events and to cope with stress. This article presents the programme's assumptions and the conclusions from the first part of the research that serve to evaluate it. A group of 433 students from 13 schools in Poland from the 5th to 8th grades of primary school and the 1st grade of secondary school were surveyed in the selected procedure. The surveys conducted via the Internet used, among others, the SPP-18 scale developed by N. Ogińska-Bulik and Z. Juczyński. The research demonstrated the respondents' level of resilience, which turned out to be significantly lower in the surveyed girls than in the boys.

Keywords: resilience, learners, early adolescence, prevention.

Since the beginning of the 21st century, there have been several noticeable dynamic changes influencing they way individuals function. Some of them concern civilisation progress linked with the development of information technologies and growing digitalization of societies, whereas others regard adverse results of globalization, climatic threats or population's growing poverty. Additionally, since 2019, the outbreak of the SARS-COV-2 pandemic has been a huge challenge causing a triple crisis: medical, economic and psychological (Przyborowska, Błajet, 2021, p. 94). In 2022, a war crisis concerning the invasion of Ukraine was added to the list and deepened the previous ones. Due to that fact, the last years have evolved into a worldwide crisis time. Everyday life of many people has become destabilized, there was an increase in fear, depressive and self-destructive behaviours. This crisis has also widely impacted teenagers at the threshold of adolescence, coping at the same time with a standard crisis of puberty. The period of adolescence, lasting from the age of 10/12 to the age of 20 constitutes a very important stage in an individual's life, involves radical changes in their development during which a child turns into an adult (Obuchowska, 2005, p. 163). It is the time of establishing one's identity, when former values and expressed views do not hold any more. It is at that time that risk factors and mechanisms responsible for the development of behavioural disorders, mental illnesses, anti-social behaviour or adaptation issues in adulthood might occur (Ostaszewski, 2014). Nowadays, young people have to face not only the challenge of adolescence but also tremendous stress and negative effects deriving from a multidimensional crisis of a global nature.

In that case, one's resources and individual characteristics that let adolescents develop properly despite experiencing critical life events become important. They include, among all, the feeling of self-esteem, efficacy, self-trust, stress management, sense of humour, meaningfulness, hope, coherence or emotional intelligence, and a favourable configuration of personality features linked with a low level of neurotism, high level of extraversion and diligence (Charney, 2004; Hambrick, McCord, 2010; Juczyński, Ogińska-Bulik, 2011; Poprawa, 1996). Recently, the importance of resilience is emphasized more and more often (Szwajca, 2014).

The concept of resilience is of an interdisciplinary nature, occurring in the area of Physics where it means high elasticity or bounciness of materials resistant to deformation, and in the area of medicine, social studies and humanities, where it refers to an individual and their ego resiliency, mental toughness, personal resilience, resilience in general, mental strength, resistance to getting hurt, resourcefulness, or positive adaptation (Gąsior et al., 2016; Junik, 2011; Smulczyk, 2016). This issue is also at the centre of attention of a dynamically developing trend of positive psychology concentrating on searching factors and mechanisms supporting one's health and development and allowing one to regain their balance following some negative life experiences (Nadolska, Sęk, 2007).

The concept of resilience was described for the first time in the 50s of the 20th century by J.H. Block and J. Block in reference to such ego qualities as ego-resiliency and ego-control in a two-dimensional model of personality types. The authors referred ego-resiliency to an individual's dynamic qualities enabling them to flexibly modify the level of ego-control so that they could adapt to the requirements of a changed situation and afterwards regain their balance lost due to a disturbed activity (after: Ogińska-Bulik, Juczyński, 2010). Thus, e*go-resiliency* regards resilience, flexible reaction to a situation of uncertainty, conflict, stress. On the other hand, *ego-control* enables an individual to block emotional and motivational impulses occurring in that situation. The theory by Block and Block was developed and modified by a Polish scientist, Z. Uchnast (1997; 1998) using the term "ego-resilience".

The interest in the concept of resilience enhanced the evolution of the way in which this term was comprehended, beginning with personality features/ characteristics (*resiliency*) and ending with a process and its outcomes (*resilience*).

As a feature, resiliency refers to personality features or is treated as an individual's permanent resource. This feature lets one combat occurring difficulties with the use of their knowledge and adaptation to cognitive schemas. For this feature to resurface, it is not necessary to confront a traumatic event, it can be observed in dealing with everyday situations (Ogińska-Bulik, Juczyński, 2008). In the other case (personality characteristics), resiliency means the occurrence of features facilitating the process of adaptation such as endurance and flexibility of adapting to life requirements, ability of mobilization to take remedial actions in difficult situations, and tolerance of negative emotions and failures. Resilient individuals are characterized among all by emotional stability, higher self-esteem and belief in their efficacy, high tolerance of complexity and uncertainty, perception of encountered difficulties as an opportunity to obtain new experiences (Nadolska, Sęk, 2016). Resiliency understood in this way is positively linked with other resources and health potential such as the feeling of coherence, self-efficacy, life optimism or toughness (Ogińska-Bulik, Juczyński, 2008; 2010; 2011). Understanding of the term "resiliency" in the light of personality features being a resource is also presented by Fredrickson (2001), who states that it is of a permanent nature and usually occurs as a result of experiencing serious difficulties.

However, there are views pointing to the fact that understanding this phenomenon in categories of features/ characteristics means making an individual responsible for not being able to overcome adversities as they have not been flexible, brave and resistant enough (Luthar et al., 2000).

On the other hand, comprehending resilience as a process refers to adaptation, in other words, flexibility or bounciness in adapting. It is a characteristic and competence which can be developed and shaped (Juczyński, Ogińska-Bulik, 2011). Ostaszewski (2014) defines it as a multi-factor process activated in the situation of experiencing adversities, when in response to their occurrence a process of positive adaptation takes place, where protective factors weaken the influence of risk factors. Positive adaptation is demonstrated, among all, in growing social competencies and lack of emotional and behavioural disorders. Thus, the process of resilience in one's life is inadvertently linked with the occurrence of: first of all, adversities, which constitute a threat for one's mental and physical balance and correspond to a higher risk level, and secondly, one's good functioning being a result of overcoming these adversities. Resilience as a process is positive adaptation due to the occurrence of a widely-understood difficult situation (Brendt, 2015; Ogińska-Bulik, Juczyński, 2010).

Summarising the abovementioned views, it should be noticed that the concept of resilience involves:

— A set of personality characteristics denoting ego-resilience,
— A set of abilities (competencies) serving to deal with difficulties and problems,
— An ability to deal with high-intensity stress consisting in approaching difficulties flexibly,
— An ability to form and maintain satisfying social bonds, which are a source of positive emotions (Turkiewicz-Maligranda, 2014, p. 174).

The presence of this function in children and teenagers was described in the research from the 60s and 70s of the 20th century, when its authors presented cases of good, positive, adaptive functioning of minors despite a negative prognosis of their functioning in various difficult, at times extreme, conditions and environment (Luthar, 2006).

Grzankowska and Ślesińska-Sowińska (2016) stress that resiliency in teenagers comprises various individual, family and social protective factors. As far as individual factors were concerned, highly resilient young people were accompanied by empathy, autonomy, optimism, conservatism, extroversion and assertiveness. As for family factors, an upbringing style practised by one's parents turned out to be crucial, similarly to both parents' active engagement in the upbringing process and clear, transparent relations between the parents and their child. When it came to social factors, school turned out to be one of the most important factors, i.e. peers, teachers and learning achievements. In the school environment, resiliency correlates with the feeling of justice, support and belonging to a group, motivation, lack of discrimination, help, care and inspiration for development in an accepted social role. What is more, some researchers pay attention to the influence of culture in which a given adolescent lives and link deep faith and practising religion by adolescents with their high resiliency (Grzankowska and Ślesińska-Sowińska, p. 171; Ostaszewski, 2008, pp. 37–40).

Contemporary research on resilience is conducted in teenage groups all over the world (cf. Garret, 2014), including Poland, and its results show how important this resource is in coping and acting effectively in difficult, crisis or traumatic situations. Some research conducted recently focuses on the youth's mental resilience in the time of the pandemic (Gawik, Ostafińska-Molik, 2021; Masten, Motti, 2020; Yusuf, 2022). Another area of empirical analysis of resilience is functioning of pupils in school environment (Miljević-Riđički, 2020). The Swedish research concerning that area demonstrated that a higher level of resilience in children and teenagers is linked with adaptation to a learning situation at school and the occurrence of a smaller number of students' problematic behaviour cases. The analysis taking the respondents' sex into consideration showed that a lower level of resiliency in girls was linked with more frequent occurrence of aggressive behaviour, and in boys with concentration issues, lower sociability and a bigger tendency to break the law (Chuang et al., 2006). In Poland, there is more and more focus on the construct of educational resilience, i.e. a student's ability to efficiently cope with school failures and challenges, which are typical for everyday school life, such as, for example, poor grades, too many school duties, exam stress, learning difficulties. As far as academic education is concerned, the term academic resilience is its counterpart, and lately academic buoyancy which concerns "everyday issues" more, emphasises a more proactive than reactive approach to failure, and focuses on psychological development and improvement of mental well-being (Smulczyk, 2016, pp. 169–174).

Further on, Turkiewicz-Maligranda (2014) points to the fact that resilience is an important resource of a medical nature and may be particularly important not only in dealing with adversities but also in dealing with an illness. It is crucial to develop that characteristic not only in healthy teenagers but also in young patients, regardless of the illnesses they suffer from. Japanese researchers (Ishibashi, Ueda, 2003; Ishibashi et al., 2010), provided the data showing that an experience of a tumour by teenagers contributed to strengthening their mental resilience in the future. The research of Polish authors on the functioning of teenagers treated for tumour shows that resiliency is a certain type of meta-resource influencing the way one perceives and uses other resources, a constructive approach to challenges, threats and stress, readiness to accept a difficult situation and unpleasant feelings connected with it, and what is more, it concerns close and trusting relationships with other people who are supportive in coping with problems (Grzankowska, Ślesińska-Sowińska, 2016).

It has also been shown that resilience plays an important role for teenagers coping with effects of natural disasters such as fire or flood (Drolet et al., 2020; McDonald-Harker et al., 2021a; 2021b). On the other hand, the research conducted by Ogińska-Bulik and Michalska (2019) reveals that in a situation of post-traumatic stress, teenagers' resiliency and some of its dimensions may protect them against the development of PTSD. It concerns teenagers demonstrating social inhibition, but not necessarily characterized by negative emotionality. Moreover, reports on teenagers who have experienced terror and war trauma or being a refugee show an even negative relation between resiliency and post-traumatic growth (Apio, 2022; Dangmann et al., 2022; Jafari et al., 2022; Levine et al., 2009; Masten, 2021, Oberg et al., 2021; Wilson et al., 2021). However, the weight of a stressor is emphasised here and a definitely bigger need of relational and environmental support is emphasised too.

Turkiewicz-Maligranda (2014) draws the readers' attention to the need of developing one's resiliency by actions concentrated on three aspects of an individual's mental functioning: cognitive (working on perceiving reality as a challenge), emotional (developing an ability to cope with any type of emotions) and behavioural (being encouraged to experiment with new behaviours). These actions are also important in shaping resilience in teenagers not only overwhelmed by difficult situations but also those participating in preventive programmes and programmes promoting physical and mental health (cf. Chojecka, 2021; Gabrelli et al., 2022; Kitano, Lewis, 2005; Masten, 2014; Prince-Embury, Saklofske, 2014; Senior et al., 2022).

One of preventive programmes taking into account the construct of resilience is SPARK Resilience ("ISKRA Odporności"). The programme was created by I. Boniwell and L. Ryan (Pluess et al., 2017), used for the first time in 2009, in London and realised by Partnership for Children in several countries.[1] Currently, SPARK Resilience is being adapted in Poland by the Centre of Positive Education[2] (Centrum Pozytywnej Edukacji) and from September 2022 to February 2023 is being verified in the pilot procedure. The programme itself is based on exercising mental resilience in children and teenagers aged 11–15 with the use of three techniques:[3]

— Mindfulness exercises (including breathing exercise and visualisation);
— Exercising the so-called resilience muscles – by creating participants' own Resilience Portfolios (emphasizing their strengths);

1 International Foundation Partnership for Children (with its headquarters in London) is an organisation providing support contributing to children's and teenagers' mental health by the realization of scientifically verified preventive programmes, i.e. SPARK Resilience https://www.partnershipforchildren.org.uk/what-we-do/programmes-for-schools/spark-resilience.html.

2 Centrum Pozytywnej Edukacji (https://www.pozytywnaedukacja.pl/) is a non-public teacher training centre specializing in creating, adapting and realizing preventive programmes, including those placed on a list of recommended programmes, including Zippie's Friends (Przyjaciele Zippiego) (https://programyrekomendowane.pl/strony/artykuly/przyjaciele-zippiego,3) and Emotional First Aid Kit (Apteczka Pierwszej Pomocy Emocjonalnej) (https://programyrekomendowane.pl/strony/artykuly/apteczka-pierwszej-pomocy-emocjonalnej,45).

3 Information taken from materials for producers published for pilot purposes of ISKRA Odporności by Centrum Pozytywnej Edukacji.

— SPARK process, based on cognitive-behavioural therapy techniques and learning five steps verifying thinking patterns and consisting of: Situation – Perception – Autopilot – Reaction and Knowledge, whose interpretation is facilitated by using created figures of parrots representing optimistic and pessimistic perception of a given situation.

The programme is realized in the form of 11 meetings (workshops) taking place at school, run by professional trainers. It should be emphasised that programme adaptation in Poland is linked with the necessity of conducting a study verifying its efficiency, including the legitimacy of using lesson plans, materials for trainers and participants that were translated into Polish but originally developed and used in a different cultural context. Therefore, this perspective allowed for conducting explorative work whose aim was, to determine the level of resilience among students in grades 5–8 of primary and secondary schools participating in the pilot program “SPARK of Resilience,” as well as to establish the nature of the relationship between its intensity and socio-demographic variables such as gender and age.

The following research questions were posed in the adopted procedure:

1. What is the level of personal resilience in general dimension and its four contributing factors among students participating in the pilot program “SPARK of Resilience”?
2. Are there any differences in the intensity of resilience levels among respondents due to their gender and age?

Research methodology

The research that allowed to assess the legitimacy of realizing the SPARK Resilience programme in Poland included the pre-test (before the commencement of the SPARK Resilience pilot programme) and post-test (after using the programme) procedures. The results shown below refer to the research stage I (pre-test), where the research sample included 433 learners from 13 schools (Table 1).

Table 1

Schools and learners participating in the research differentiated by sex

No	School name	Girls	Boys
1.	Szkoła Podstawowa nr 3 (Primary School no 3) in Grudziądz	16	20
2.	Szkoła Podstawowa nr 10 (Primary School no 10) in Kalisz	22	29
3.	Zespół Szkolno-Przedszkolny nr 2 (Primary School-Kindergarten Complex no 2) in Grodzisk Mazowiecki	19	24
4.	Szkoła Podstawowa nr 20 (Primary School no 20) w Lublinie	13	18

Table 1 (cont.)

No	School name	Girls	Boys
5.	Katolicka Szkoła Podstawowa im. Św. Rodziny z Nazaretu (Holy Family from Nazareth Catholic Primary School) in Kraków	13	10
6.	Szkoła Podstawowa nr 5 (Primary School no 5) in Gniezno	18	28
7.	Zespół Szkolno-Przedszkolny (Primary School-Kindergarten Complex) in Brody	10	21
8.	Szkoła Podstawowa nr 4 (Primary School no 4) in Tarnobrzeg	27	17
9.	Szkoła Podstawowa nr 3 (Primary School no 3) in Leżajsk	15	15
10.	Szkoła Podstawowa (Primary School) in Kodręba	15	17
11.	Autorska Szkoła KLANZA – Liceum Ogólnokształcące (KLANZA Original School – Secondary School) in Białystok	13	11
12.	Zespół Szkolno-Przedszkolny nr 15 (Primary School-Kindergarten Complex no 15) in Poznań	10	4
13.	Szkoła Podstawowa nr 400 (Primary School no 400) in Warsaw	15	13
	Total	206	227

Source: own research.

It is worth noticing that while adopting the research procedures, it was decided to use a control group (which is not taken into consideration at the stage of the research described in this article). Each school participating in the pilot programme was to select one class where the programme was realised and the other one (same-grade class) constituting the control group. Thus, the final group of the SPARK Resilience programme consisted of 228 learners, and 205 learners in the control group. The learners were 5th – 8th graders of primary school and 1st graders of secondary school (LO), 6th graders dominating in number (Table 2).

Table 2

Researched learners differentiated by their grade

Grade	Number of learners	Percentage
grade I LO	24	5.5%
grade 5	31	7.2%
grade 6	179	41.3%
grade 7	80	18.5%
grade 8	119	27.5%
Total	433	100.0%

Source: own research.

The abovementioned group of learners was researched with the help of on-line questionnaires,[4] containing a request to the respondents to provide answer to the

[4] Each class received a dedicated form, which made its identification possible.

questions about one's sex, how they feel at school (the author's questionnaire "How are you?"), and the SPP-19 Resiliency Measurement Scale developed by Ogińska-Bulik and Juczyński (2011). The first tool contained 9 questions with possible answers based on the Likert scale, which indicated, m.in, the student's well-being at school and his social well-being. In turn, The SPP-18 Scale measured a general level of resiliency, treated as a personality characteristic, and 4 factors constituting it, namely:

1. optimistic approach and energy (e.g. *I can draw conclusions for the future from my failures and failures; When I'm in a difficult situation, I usually find a solution*),
2. persistence and determination in acting (e.g. *As a rule, I go straight to the goal*; *I am making a determined effort to achieve my goal*),
3. sense of humour and openness to new experiences (e.g. *Even in a difficult situation, I find something to laugh about; I am open to new experiences*),
4. personal competencies and tolerance to negative affect (e.g. *In stressful situations, I focus and think clearly; I consider myself a strong person)*.

It should be emphasised that the Scale is open to the public a self-description tool and allows for studying children and teenagers aged 12–19. A respondent shows their attitude to 18 statements, using the answers ranging from definitely not (0 points) to definitely yes (4 points). The higher the result, the higher the resiliency level. The results obtained can be calculated into sten scores. The tool obtained satisfying psychometric properties; the alpha coefficient (Cronbach's alpha) for the whole scale equalled 0.82.

Results analysis

Determining the level of resiliency (mental resilience) of the researched learners was performed by calculating average levels of particular factors included in the SPP-18 Scale, taking into account independent variables, i.e. attended grade (Table 3) and sex (Table 4) of the learners.

Table 3
Average assessment of learners in particular grades referring to particular resiliency factors in the SPP-18 questionnaire

Resiliency factors (mental resilience) in the SPP-18 Scale	Grade	N	-x̄
Optimistic approach and energy	grade I LO	24	3.47
	grade 5	31	**4.01**
	grade 6	179	3.73
	grade 7	80	3.47
	grade 8	119	3.59

Table 3 (cont.)

Resiliency factors (mental resilience) in the SPP-18 Scale	Grade	N	$\bar{x}$
Sense of humour and openness to new experiences	grade I LO	24	3.49
	grade 5	31	**4.07**
	grade 6	179	3.88
	grade 7	80	3.68
	grade 8	119	3.77
Personal competencies and tolerance to negative affect	grade I LO	24	3.36
	grade 5	31	**3.94**
	grade 6	179	3.50
	grade 7	80	3.26
	grade 8	119	3.39
Persistence and determination in acting	grade I LO	24	3.57
	grade 5	31	**4.06**
	grade 6	179	3.82
	grade 7	80	3.59
	grade 8	119	3.67

Source: own research.

Referring to average grades obtained by the respondents from particular grades for the abovementioned factors, it should be noticed that for each of them the highest score was obtained by primary school 5th-graders. Checking whether these differences are statistically significant, the Kruskal–Wallis H test for K independent trials showed that fifth graders really assess their personal competencies and tolerance to negative affect higher ($H = 279.34$, $p = 0.018$). However, it should be noticed that only two 5th grade classes from one primary school (a group of 31 pupils) and two 1st grade classes from one secondary school (a group of 31 students) took part in the pilot programme. Yet, their exclusion showed that at the pre-test stage, once the Kruskal–Wallis H test was performed, it was impossible to show statistically significant differences in the level at which particular resiliency categories were present in grades 5–8. Nevertheless, it is worth noticing that the youngest respondents on average assess factors demonstrating their level of resiliency (mental resilience) the highest.

Corresponding analyses were performed taking into consideration the learners' sex. Table 4 shows that in this case higher average grades for the resiliency factors covered by the SPP-18 Scale were obtained by boys, which was confirmed by the H test.

Table 4
Average assessment of particular resiliency factors in SPP-18 questionnaire, taking into account the learners' sex

Learners' sex		**Resiliency factors (mental resilience) in the SPP-18 Scale**			
		Optimistic approach and energy	**Sense of humour and openness to new experiences**	**Personal competencies and tolerance to negative affect**	**Persistence and determination in acting**
Girls	**x̄**	3,45	3.62	3.19	3.54
	N	206	206	206	206
	σ	0.90	0.90	1.04	0.93
Boys	**M**	3,83	3,98	3.68	3.92
	N	227	227	227	227
	σ	0.76	0.77	0.88	0.73
Total	**M**	3.65	3.81	3.45	3.74
	N	433	433	433	433
	σ	0.85	0.85	0.99	0.85

Source: own research.

The test H shows that boys demonstrated a significantly more optimistic attitude and energy ($H = 241.90$, $p = 0.000$), sense of humour and openness to new experiences ($H = 241.33$, $p = 0.001$), personal competencies and tolerance to a negative affect ($H = 246.16$, $p = 0.000$), and persistence and determination in acting ($H = 241.67$, $p = 0.000$).

Conclusions

Contemporary views in health psychology emphasise the legitimacy of looking for protective factors thanks to which an individual, despite numerous burdens or stressors of different intensity, can deal with occurring life difficulties in a constructive way and maintain mental well-being (Szwajca, 2014). The importance of resilience becomes more and more often the focal point as in the opinion of many authors it plays a crucial role in the process of adaptation to difficulties and due to quite strong links to other health potentials can play a role of a meta-resource regulating the functioning of other resources that are important in the process of coping with life events (Boehmer et al., 2007; Nadolska and Sęk, Ogińska-Bulik and Juczyński 2008; 2010). Analysing professional literature, Ogińska and Michalska (2019, p. 244) point to, among all, such resiliency characteristics as ability to separate oneself from negative experiences and flexibility in adapting to constantly changing life requirements, more efficient coping with stress. At the same time, they notice that persons characterized by a high level of resiliency are optimistic, have a more optimistic attitude to life, resilience, higher self-esteem and efficacy, and a problem-solving ability. Having presented the results of their research concerning a mediatory role of resiliency for teenagers exposed to traumatic events, they call for broadening knowledge in that field. In this perspective, the SPARK Resilience programme, whose pilot version is being currently realised in Polish schools, seems to be an adequate solution. For its teenage beneficiaries, it may constitute a source of knowledge about resiliency – mental resilience as well as skills training strengthening this personality feature.

The research presented in this article concerned the analysis of observations made during stage I of the research (pre-test) assessing the legitimacy of using the aforesaid prevention programme. The implemented research procedure made it possible to assess, with the help of the SPP-18 Resiliency Scale developed by Ogińska-Bulik and Juczyński, the level of resilience in the researched learners, considering four factors, i.e. optimistic attitude and energy, persistence and determination in acting, personal competencies and tolerance to a negative affect, and sense of humour and openness to new experiences. The conducted analyses helped to establish that 5th graders showed the highest level of resiliency (see Table 3), especially when it came to assessing their personal competencies and tolerance to a negative affect, which was confirmed by the Kruskal-Wallis H test for K independent trials. It was very important that the learners' sex was taken into consideration during the analysis of the SPP-18 Scale. It turned out that girls have a significantly poorer image of their resilience than boys (tab. 4). Therefore, this data justify the direction of realizing this preventive activity, which should consider noticeably better self-esteem in 5th graders and significantly lower resiliency level in girls.

Doubtlessly, the analyses presented here have their limitations that are strictly related to the stage of the research in question. The exploration currently realized makes it possible to assess the level of resiliency in the studied groups, of course without the outcomes of this realization and complete evaluation of the SPARK Resilience programme taking into account the analyses results of the control group. Nevertheless, the scale of the research offered a valuable inside, making it possible to determine the learners' specific needs, especially as far as girls are concerned, which should be taken into account at the stage of verifying and adapting the programme to Polish circumstances.

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Poziom resilience uczniów biorących udział w pilotażu programu profilaktycznego "ISKRA Odporności".

Poziom *resilience* uczniów biorących udział w pilotażu programu profilaktycznego „ISKRA Odporności"

Streszczenie

Resilience (prężność osobowa/odporność) jest jednym z zasobów osobistych warunkujących prawidłowe funkcjonowanie jednostki. Pełni on ważną rolę w procesie właściwej adaptacji społecznej dorastających. Celem przeprowadzonych badań było określenie poziomu prężności osobowej uczniów szkół podstawowych i ponadpodstawowych, biorących udział w pilotażu programu profilaktycznego „ISKRA Odporności". Grupę badawczą stanowiło łącznie 433 uczniów z 13 szkół w Polsce z klas V–VIII szkoły podstawowej oraz klas I liceum ogólnokształcącego. W badaniach realizowanych drogą internetową wykorzystano m.in. Skalę Pomiaru Prężności SPP – 18 N. Ogińskiej-Bulik i Z. Juczyńskiego. Uwzględniono zmienne socjodemograficzne, takie jak wiek i płeć. Wyniki badań wykazały, iż ogólny poziom prężności osobowej respondentów jest istotnie wyższy wśród najmłodszych uczniów, tj. z klas V szkoły podstawowej, oraz u badanych chłopców niż dziewcząt.

Słowa kluczowe: *resilience*, uczniowie, wczesna adolescencja, profilaktyka.

Uniwersytet Humanistyczno-Przyrodniczy im. Jana Długosza w Częstochowie

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The feeling of efficiency in the opinion of the surveyed students of Rzeszów universities

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Abstract

The sense of effectiveness plays an important role in the subjective perception of well-being by an individual. It closely relates the level of effectiveness to the expected performance of each activity. Higher expectations should release energy and affect effective results of education or professional work. The aim of this article is to analyze the sense of effectiveness in life of students who started their studies in science and humanities. For this purpose, I have carried research out based on an own project taken among 383 students of the Rzeszów University of Technology and The University of Rzeszow. The research used a diagnostic survey method, and a standardized tool to measure the level of effectiveness in life using the Generalized Self-Efficency Scale (GSES) developed by Ralf Schwarzer and Matthias Jerusalem and prepared in Polish adaptation by Zygrfyd Juczyński.

The research showed that the students' sense of effectiveness in life was moderate. The following independent variables were taken into account: university, gender, age, place of residence and the wealth of the respondents. In two studies, there was a difference in the level of statistical significance depending on the type of university and the gender of the respondents. On the other hand, taking into account the average, students from the Rzeszów University of Technology showed a slightly higher level of sense of effectiveness in contrast to students from the University of Rzeszów. The conclusions from the research constitute a challenge for the education system, teachers at all levels of education, so that any changes, systematically introduced to the education programs, could reflect the needs of students to a greater extent.

Keywords: effectiveness, expectation, efficiency, education, students.

In childhood and adolescence, every person undergoes a long period of formal education in terms of multilateral development and preparation for professional work. The education system in Poland offers three levels of education: elementary, secondary, and higher. Each stage characterizes by the selection of the education path and relates to the individual's character, as well as the daily impact on her/him of both the family and school environment. The most important character traits include interests, diligence, dutifulness, responsibility, talents, unrestrained willingness to develop, and systematic work in this area. Various factors affect a person's personal and pro-professional life, as well as the level of their education and the acquisition of qualifications closely related to it.

I should note that education, as well as certain innate or gained features and systematically strengthened by work, facilitates and also brings the individual closer to achieving success. Efficiency in action and decision-making plays an important role in all human activity. The expectation and readiness precede this to perform the task, including operability and efficiency. It is noticeable especially in solving problems and overcoming various obstacles. We can, therefore, perceive the effectiveness of an individual through the prism of various activities, including the ability to achieve plans.

The aim of the article is to approximate the effectiveness based on the theory available in the literature on the subject. The empirical part focuses on the level of the sense of effectiveness in personal life among the surveyed students of Rzeszów universities.

Human activity in terms of effective action

There are many ways to feel effective in your efforts to achieve results. Researchers recognize various factors that can influence every human activity. They often refer to erudition in management and management of organizations, and there they distinguish similar concepts, such as efficiency, efficiency or effectiveness (Bukłaha, 2012, p. 24). The first of the above concepts of "efficiency" results from a proper way of getting involved and managing, and also influences the specific effect of the work performed, thanks to which a specific goal achieves (Skowron-Mielnik, 2016, p. 152).

Renata Winkler (2010, p. 104), defines efficiency in two contexts: genre and qualitative. Efficiency in the genre sense refers to the reality and strives to any process, i.e. starting learning and getting the desired results as obtaining a certificate or a diploma.

Thus, it is a certain behavior of an individual defined as deliberate and conscious, and which leads to the achievement of a specific result, this results from an earlier action. Efficiency in the qualitative sense means that the result of actions is to be real, perceptible and positive, i.e., ultimately effective.

According to Anna Mazurkiewicz (2011, p. 47–50), "efficiency of action" characterizes by the complexity of the human character, which means his ability to perform the activities entrusted to him, they concern every action, regardless of the causes or going to the intended goal. The efficiency of human activity also means various possibilities of emerging opportunities, which he can use to a greater or lesser extent, and which are significant within the area of his effectiveness.

Łucja Łuboń (2020), defines effectiveness in the Encyclopedia of Management as the ability to set the right goals, i.e., "doing the right things". Effective action can lead to the effect intended as an end, while the measure of effectiveness is proximity to the goal.

The Canadian psychologist Albert Bandura (1977) introduced the concept of perceived self-efficacy. The author defines it as an image of the competences of an individual, equipping it with the means to carry out the intended activities. This component mainly concerns the belief of the individual that he can take a specific action and that he perseveres in achieving the intended goal. Bandura distinguished three aspects of self-efficacy, i.e., greatness, generality and strength. "Size" refers to the difficulty of the task and our sense of coping with the problem associated with it. "Generality" associates with a multitude of situations, among which specific situations may require specific inspection competencies. On the other hand, "strength" expresses the degree of confidence and trust in the scope of their competences (Wojcieszek, Nawalana, Majda 2019, p. 142).

On the other hand, Peter Drucker (1994) distinguishes between two concepts: efficiency and effectiveness. Fitness is about doing things the right way, which is an input and output concept. Effectiveness is primarily doing the right things, and therefore the ability to choose the right goals (Stoner et al. 2001, p. 24). The example of an individual who assumes a certain period of study to get a professional qualification can explain the understanding of the concept. However, after the allotted time, it does not achieve the assumed goal and therefore it is ineffective in its operation.

E.A. Locke and G.P. Latham (1990) explain that people set higher goals in their actions and become more involved when they have a stronger belief in their own effectiveness. This is not an obstacle for them, even in the event of a loss or failure of any kind.

James E. Maddux (2009, pp. 874–875) states that beliefs about self-efficacy are beliefs about people about their ability to achieve desired results from their own actions. These beliefs are one of the most important determinants of the behavior people choose to engage in and how much they will persist in their efforts when faced with obstacles and challenges. These beliefs concern your ability to practice your skills under certain conditions – especially in changing and difficult situations, and also affect what else you can do. The author adds that self-efficacy is not a self-esteem, it is not a motive, motivation, need for control, or a personality trait.

In health psychology, the sense of self-efficacy plays a key role in transforming the intention into action, i.e., the implementation of plans, achieving the intended goals in struggling with serious diseases that threaten human life (Juczyński, 1998, p. 97).

In the lives of students, the perceived effectiveness relates to specific areas of activity in education, family life, or possibly looking for paid work. Effectiveness may also express the belief that you act in problematic or possibly new situations. In the further part of the research, effectiveness will explore farther (Juczyński, 2001, p. 93).

Method

The subject of the empirical article is the sense of effectiveness in the lives of students of Rzeszów universities, including those studying humanities at The University of Rzeszów (UR) and science at the Rzeszów University of Technology (PR). The aim of the study is to enrich knowledge about the effectiveness and its importance in the lives of young people who have started studies at state universities in Rzeszów.

Regarding exploration, the following problems are planned: Are there any differences (and if so, what differences) in the perception of effectiveness in life among the surveyed students of The University of Rzeszow and Rzeszów University of Technology, and at what level is the sense of effectiveness among the respondents? While formulating the research questions, it took the following independent variables into account, such as university, sex, age, place of residence and the wealth of the respondents.

In all cases assumed a null hypothesis (H_0), stating the lack of statistical significance in the studied groups according to independent variables characterized by a normal distribution. Overall, I assumed it to be moderate, an average level of perceived effectiveness in life among students, ranging from 5 to 6 Sten in standardized units.

The research carried out in the fourth quarter of 2018 in groups of students starting their studies at two universities: in humanities and in science, and covered 400 students, including 200 students of humanities at The University of Rzeszow and 200 people in science at the Rzeszów University of Technology. After thorough verification, 17 rejected because of incomplete responses. 383 questionnaires were qualified for the next stage, including 190 respondents pursuing the selected humanities faculty and 193 studying science subjects (Chodkowski, 2019, p. 177).

The Generalized Self-Efficacy Scale (GSES) developed in German by two authors Ralf Schwarzer and Matthias Jerusalem in 1992 (1993) was used for the research. The scale refers to the concept of expectations and self-efficacy, formulated by Albert Bandura (1977) at the end of the seventies of the last century. The research tool consists of ten questions that are part of one factor that measures an individual's strength of belief in the effectiveness of coping with difficult situations and obstacles. It is applicable to the activities of the individual in its various areas of activity. The sum of all points (maximum 40) gives you an overall indicator of your self-efficacy. A higher score means a greater sense of self-efficacy. In the interpretation, the obtained result is compared with the mean results of the normalization sample. The raw score is converted into standardized units on the Sten scale and the intensity of self-efficacy is checked. The authors of the questionnaire divided the results into three ranges: low, medium and high. Results within 1–4 of the Sten are included in the first range as low, they indicate a tendency to be ineffective in their action, from 5-6 Sten are in the average range and are considered average, in which the individual may fluctuate between the first and third compartment. The results within the range of 7–10 Sten indicate an active attitude of the individual in terms of effectiveness (Poprawa, Juczyński, 2001, pp. 93–98). Statistical calculations were performed using ANOVA. The test probability was considered significant at the level of $p < 0.05$, and highly significant – at the level of $p < 0.01$ and $p < 0.001$ (Kosiba, Gacek, Bogacz-Walancik, Wojtowicz, 2017, p. 82). The SPPS Statistics program was used to perform the calculations.

Results

The research carried out at two universities: The University of Rzeszow and the Rzeszów University of Technology. The faculties in which a comparable number of both women and men study.

Table 1
Sex of respondents according to the division into universities

University	Sex of respondents					
	Women	**%**	**Men**	**%**	**Total**	**%**
University of Rzeszów (UR)	120	63,2	70	36,8	190	100
Rzeszów University of Technology (PR)	119	61,7	74	38,3	193	100

Source: own research.

The data in Table 1 present the sex of the respondents broken down by university. Women are an advantage at both universities, the average of which is 62.45% of all respondents.

Table 2
Respondents' place of residence by university

University	The place of residence					
	Village	**%**	**City**	**%**	**Total**	**%**
University of Rzeszów (UR)	97	51,1	93	48,9	190	100
Rzeszów University of Technology (PR)	122	63,2	71	36,8	193	100

Source: own research.

The next table no. 2 presents the results of the respondents' residence according to the University. Students from The University of Rzeszow slightly predominantly live in the countryside – 51.1%, while among the respondents from the Rzeszów University of Technology, the sum of students from rural areas is slightly higher and amounts to 63.2%.

The data in Table 3 concern the calculation of the statistical sense of effectiveness in the life of students according to the university. In this study, the groups belong to different colleges and the comparison is between science and humanities. Science is the domain of polytechnic universities, while the humanities relate to a greater extent to universities. The former requires a good knowledge of mathematics, numeracy skills and the use of appropriate formulas or functions. Therefore, studying science is generally considered more difficult compared to the humanities.

The results in Table 3 confirm this differentiation and, according to calculations, it is at a high level of statistical significance, where $p < 0.003$. The raw result converted into Sten units in both groups is 5. However, taking into account the average of the obtained calculations, students from Rzeszów University of Technology have an advantage and it is higher by 1.6162 units. It follows those respondents from exact sciences, with mathematical skills and problem-solving skills, have a slightly higher sense of effective action compared to their peers from the University of Rzeszów. Cronbach's alpha above 0.800 indicates the reliability of the questionnaires used. On the other hand, eta square (0.23) and omega square (0.64) indicate a high strength of the effect.

The effectiveness of action depends on many factors, which include, among others: the way an individual brought up, his education, psycho-physical properties of the organism, interests, activities, internal and external motivations, talents, proper development and systematic expansion of knowledge. Most of the students use the above factors to a varying degree. Usually, one of their main goals is the pursuit of graduation, i.e., getting the qualifications, opening the possibility of starting a professional career.

Table 3

The sense of effectiveness in the lives of students by university

Statistics										Sten
Universities	α	N	%	Sum	M	SE	Me	SD	SD^2	
UR	,856	190	49,61	4881,00	25,6895	,39393	26,0000	5,43002	29,485	5
PR	,845	193	50,39	5270,00	27,3057	,36345	27,0000	5,04922	25,495	5
Total	,851	383	100	10151,00	26,5039	,27066	27,0000	5,29688	28,057	5

	ANOVA					Measure of relationship		
	SS	df	MS	F	p	η	$η^2$	$ω^2$
Between groups*	250,101	1	250,101	9,103	,003	,153	0,23	0,64
Inside the group	10467,643	381	27,474					
Total	10717,744	382						

* – combined, N – number of samples M – mean, SE – Standard mean error, Me – Median, SD – Standard deviation, SD2 – Variance, SS – sum of squares, df – degrees of freedom, MS – mean square, F – distribution, F-Snedecor statistics, p – significance level, η – Eta, η2 – Eta square, ω2 – omega square

Source: own research.

Table 4

Effectiveness on the lives of students by sex

Statistics										Sten
Sex	α	N=383	100%	Sum	M	SE	Me	SD	SD^2	
Women	,865	239	62,4	6220,00	26,0251	,34722	26,0000	5,36791	28,814	5
Men	,828	144	37,6	3931,00	27,2986	,42470	27,5000	5,09639	25,973	5
Total	,846	383	100	10151,00	26,5039	,27066	27,0000	5,29688	28,057	5

	ANOVA					Measure of relationship		
	SS	df	MS	F	p	η	$η^2$	$ω^2$
Between groups*	145,735	1	145,735	5,252	,022	,117	0,14	0,37
Inside the group	10572,009	381	27,748					
Total	10717,744	382						

* – combined, N – number of samples M – mean, SE – Standard mean error, Me – Median, SD – Standard deviation, SD2 – Variance, SS – sum of squares, df – degrees of freedom, MS – mean square, F – distribution, F-Snedecor statistics, p – significance level, η – Eta, η2 – Eta square, ω2 – omega square

Source: own research.

Based on Table 4, the sense of effectiveness of action among the respondents according to gender is at the level of statistical significance $p < 0.022$. The raw score converted into Sten units in both groups is 5. This means that the sense of effectiveness for both women and men is in the medium, i.e., moderate range. In this arrangement, there are two options. An individual may oscillate between the first range, which is dominated by pessimism, and the third, which is reserved for optimism (good cheer). On average, males gain a slight advantage over females by over 1.2735 units. Greater effectiveness in men depends on many factors, which include tradition, a stronger influence on achieving independence, the possibility of receiving more gratification for work, the desire to dominate the family, etc. Hence, men have higher expectations in terms of multilateral development, professional career, and may also be more effective than women in their activities. In the case of choosing studies in the field of science, there are also greater opportunities to find a job and receive higher earnings compared to students in the humanities, who are threatened by the „specter" of unemployment. Cronbach's alpha above 0.80 informs about the reliability of the questionnaires used, and more specifically about the internal consistency of the tool. Eta square – η^2 equals 0.14, it means an effect of medium strength, while more precise omega-square calculations, $\omega^2 = 0.37$, are characterized by high strength of the effect.

Man's adolescence plays an important role in his daily explorations in search of a suitable place both in the life and work environment. The latter is becoming more and more a point of reference to the place of residence. Based on statistics from recent years, young people have been systematically leaving their places of residence because of the lack of employment prospects. Some people also go abroad in search of work. The educated effectiveness of an individual in achieving goals facilitates faster adaptation to new living conditions.

Based on Table 5, the effectiveness of the surveyed students by age is not statistically significant because $p > 0.05$. The raw result converted into Sten units is predominantly moderate and on the Sten scale it is between 5 and 6. Cronbach's alpha is above 0.70 and means the reliability of the questionnaires used in the study, while the Eta square is 0.29, and the omega- square – 0.77. Both results indicate the high strength of the effect.

In another study, the independent variable was the respondents' place of residence and their perception of effectiveness in everyday student and personal life. The environment of growing up to adulthood plays an important role in education and develops a certain operational efficiency and coping skills in the future.

Based on the data in Table 6, it is noticeable that the different places of residence of the respondents do not affect the differentiation in the level of statistical significance, where $p > 0.05$.

Table 5
Life effectiveness of students by age

Statistics										Sten
Age	**α**	**N=383**	**100%**	**Sum**	**M**	**SE**	**Me**	**SD**	**SD²**	
17	,526	3	0,8	71,00	23,6667	1,45297	24,0000	2,51661	6,333	4
18	,867	21	5,5	560,00	29,6667	1,16565	27,0000	5,34166	28,533	5
19	,844	231	60,3	6038,00	26,1385	,33788	26,0000	5,13537	26,372	5
20	,864	94	24,5	2588,00	27,5319	,54446	27,5000	5,27869	27,865	5
21	,926	17	4,4	431,00	25,3529	1,61778	27,0000	6,67028	44,493	5
22	,602	5	1,3	138,00	27,6000	1,63095	28,0000	3,64692	13,300	5
23	,467	6	1,6	171,00	28,5000	1,40831	29,5000	3,44964	11,900	6
24	,887	3	0,8	65,00	21,6667	4,63081	21,0000	8,02081	64,333	3
26 and more	,947	3	0,8	89,00	29,6667	6,00925	33,0000	10,40833	108,333	6
Total	,770	383	100	10151,00	26,5039	,27066	27,0000	5,29688	28,057	5

	ANOVA					Measure of relationship		
	SS	**df**	**MS**	**F**	**p**	**η**	**η²**	**ω²**
Between groups*	307,524	8	38,440	1,381	,203	,169	0,29	0,77
Inside the group	10410,220	374	27,835					
Total	10717,744	382						

* – combined, N – number of samples M – mean, SE – Standard mean error, Me – Median, SD – Standard deviation, SD2 – Variance, SS – sum of squares, df – degrees of freedom, MS – mean square, F – distribution, F-Snedecor statistics, p – significance level, η – Eta, η2 – Eta square, ω2 – omega square

Source: own research.

Table 6
Effectiveness in the life of students and place of residence

Statistics										Sten
Place of resi-dence	**α**	**N=383**	**100%**	**Sum**	**M**	**SE**	**Me**	**SD**	**SD²**	
Village	,864	219	57,5	5776,00	26,3744	,36093	27,0000	5,34124	28,529	6
Small town up to 20 000	,811	67	17,5	1777,00	26,5224	,60540	26,0000	4,95543	24,556	6

Table 6 (cont.)

Statistics										
Place of residence	α	N=383	100%	Sum	M	SE	Me	SD	SD^2	Sten
Medium city 20 000-100 000	,851	53	13,8	1412,00	26,6415	,73286	26,0000	5,33528	28,465	6
Big city over 100 000	,875	44	11,5	1186,00	26,9545	,85525	27,5000	5,67309	32,184	6
Total	,850	383	100	10151,00	26,5039	,27066	27,000	5,29688	28,057	6

			ANOVA			Measure of relationship		
	SS	df	MS	F	p	η	$η^2$	$ω^2$
Between groups*	13,633	3	4,544	,161	,923	,036	,001	0,028
Inside the group	10704,111	379	28,243					
Total	10717,744	382						

* – combined, N – number of samples M – mean, SE – Standard mean error, Me – Median, SD – Standard deviation, SD2 – Variance, SS – sum of squares, df – degrees of freedom, MS – mean square, F – distribution, F-Snedecor statistics, p – significance level, η – Eta, η2 – Eta square, ω2 – omega square

Source: own research.

It can also conclude that the different places of residence of the respondents do not make up differences in achieving the goals, and also show the average range of perception of effectiveness, which after conversion to the Sten scale is 6. Cronbach's alpha is in the range above 0.800 and means that the test is reliable, i.e., there is an internal consistency of the questionnaire. On the other hand, Eta square ($η^2$) is a weak effect as it is equal to 0.01, as opposed to omega-square – $ω^2$, which is 0.028, and gives the average (moderately average) effect of the reliability of the questionnaire.

The economic wealth of the respondents influences the greater potential for expanding knowledge. Considering information and communication technologies and the use of technological resources as hardware and software, students who have the devices and the programs, or who have unlimited access to them, do better.

Table 7
Effectiveness in the life of students and their wealth

	Statistics									**Sten**
Affluence	**α**	**N=383**	**100%**	**Sum**	**M**	**SE**	**Me**	**SD**	**SD²**	
Wealthy	,886	44	11,5%	1227,00	27,8864	,90583	28,0000	6,00858	36,103	5
Average	,844	321	83,8%	8482,00	26,4237	,28652	27,0000	5,13334	26,351	5
Below the average	,876	18	4,7%	442,00	24,5556	1,37490	23,5000	5,83319	34,026	4
Total	,869	383	100	10151,00	26,5039	,27066	27,0000	5,29688	28,057	5

	ANOVA					**Measure of relationship**		
	SS	**df**	**MS**	**F**	**p**	**η**	**η²**	**ω²**
Between groups *	154,488	2	77,244	2,779	,063	,120	,014	0,39
Inside the group	10563,256	380	27,798					
Total	10717,744	382						

* – combined, N – number of samples M – mean, SE – Standard mean error, Me – Median, SD – Standard deviation, SD2 – Variance, SS – sum of squares, df – degrees of freedom, MS – mean square, F – distribution, F-Snedecor statistics, p – significance level, η – Eta, η2 – Eta square, ω2 – omega square

Source: own research.

Table 7 shows the efficacy results according to the wealth of the subjects. Based on the calculation, the index “p” is slightly greater than 0.05. However, with the respondents, this results in a lack of statistical significance between the wealth ranges. After conversion to the Sten scale, for the respondents from the following ranges: affluent (11.5%) and average (83.8%) it is 5. This means that they perceive their effectiveness in life at an average level. Only the representatives from the “affluent” segment obtained the highest percentage, amounting to 27.89 units, which is higher by 1.46 than the respondents in the “average well-off” range. On the other hand, respondents from the economic range below the average (4.7%) received the number 4 on the Sten scale, which means a low level of effectiveness, i.e., it indicates a tendency to be ineffective in action. These people constitute the smallest percentage of the respondents. Cronbach’s alpha is greater than 0,800 and indicates that the test is reliable. Eta square (0.14) is the mean effect as opposed to omega-square (0.39) which gives the effect of high reliability of the questionnaire.

Conclusions

The article explains the concept of effectiveness based on the literature on the subject and presents the sense of effectiveness among students of Rzeszów universities according to the research and calculations.

The sense of effectiveness undoubtedly translates into the mental and physical well-being of people of all ages. Effectiveness at a high level contributes to faster achievement of the intended goals, which result from the personal and professional plans of the individual. Effectiveness also means expectation and, greater efficiency, and above all, activity in action. Each positive effect shapes the individual's satisfaction, and this significantly influences the motivation to continue working. However, feeling the effectiveness at a low level negatively affects the overall functioning of the individual. Often times, it can cause destructive actions in all areas that a person undertakes. A pessimistic attitude to life and professional work strengthens uncertainty, minimizes motivation and does not bring satisfaction with the results achieved, because there may not be such results at all, and if they do occur, they may be too insignificant.

In research on effectiveness, the authors consider various attitudes of a person, which include their resources, as well as those related to character traits or various factors systematically shaping attitudes, perception of the environment, personal development or the desire to achieve planned goals. Researchers compare at least two attitudes and analyze the interdependencies between them. According to Zygfryd Juczyński (2001, p. 94–97), the sense of self-efficacy makes it possible to predict intentions and actions in various areas of human activity. It is a determinant of intentions and actions also in the areas of health behaviors. The author shows that based on the results of the research in the English version, a positive correlation was obtained with self-esteem RSES – 0.52, sense of internal control MHLCS – 0.40, and with LOT-R optimism – 0.49. The sense of effectiveness in the Polish version positively correlates with high self-esteem, self-acceptance and an optimistic attitude.

This study limited to comparing the sense of effectiveness in action in terms of independent variables and determining its level on a three-point scale as low, medium (moderate) and high. The research carried out among students of the humanities of The University of Rzeszow and students of science of the Rzeszów University of Technology. The research adopted the definition of self-efficacy, which plays a key role in the transformation of intention into action, and mainly concerns the belief of an individual that he will endure to the end when taking a specific action (Juczyński, 1998). Independent variables used in the research concerned university, gender, age, place of residence and wealth. The calculations showed that there is a difference in the level of statistical significance depending on the type of university (Table 3) and gender of the respondents (Table 4), where $p < 0.05$.

In these cases, the null hypothesis H0 rejected, and the alternative hypothesis H1 accepted. The test results in Table 3 differentiate the studied groups in a high level of statistical significance, and the measure of relationship shows a strong effect. Students from the Rzeszów University of Technology (50.39%) show a slightly higher level of sense of efficiency in life, because the average for them is 27.5, and students from The University of Rzeszow got (49.61%), average of 26. Research results by sex (Table 4) showed that there was a variation in the level of statistical significance where the relationship measure showed a high effect. When comparing the arithmetic mean, men got slightly higher (27.3) compared to women (26). In the remaining calculations according to the following independent variables: age, place of residence, wealth, no differences were found in the level of statistical significance, where $p > 0.05$. Therefore, in these cases, the null hypothesis H0 was left. In all studies, after converting the results to the Sten scale, in the vast majority of respondents, the level of the sense of effectiveness in the lives of students was moderate.

Although the presented results are very similar to the temporary Polish standards, it does not mean that the sense of effectiveness among academic youth is sufficient. Probably, young people have problems with setting their living standards, and especially with choosing a field of education, which most times differs from their interests and talents, and is often the result of pressure from parents or family, as well as because of popularity. A negative aspect of youth development is the fact that they lead a passive lifestyle, so they rarely set life goals for themselves, are not interested in the labor market, do not work actively in organizations or various academic structures, and the worst of this is that they only treat studies for the receipt of a diploma. This is reflected, inter alia, in my research results in the field of motivation to undertake studies, in which the career counselor had no influence on the choice of the field of study - the obtained responses exceeded 84% (Chodkowski, 2021a, p. 136). Other studies on the sense of satisfaction with the life of students have shown that more than half of the respondents' experience life satisfaction at an average level of 50.39%, and slightly less, as much as 49.61%, indicate its low level (Chodkowski, 2021a, p. 172).

Małgorzata Pietras-Mrozicka (2016, p. 35), emphasizes that proper reinforcement of optimistic attitudes may open a wide field of activity for the creators of aid activities and people working with people with low quality of life because of various factors shaping the forms of functioning of the individual. In education, social and health policy addressed to these groups, it is worth considering their systematic development aimed at increasing the effectiveness of its implementation.

Everyone has giftedness by nature, so it is advisable to create opportunities for development in an area where specific predispositions are noticeable. In the process of education, teachers and parents are to perceive talents and influence their development, in line with the interests, talents and innate abilities of the individual. This type of attitude on the part of teachers and parents will result in better results and increase the effectiveness of achieving the goals in the field of education path in terms of preparing the individual for the profession (Chodkowski, 2021b, p. 76).

The average level of the sense of effectiveness in life among the respondents is therefore a challenge for the education system, teachers at all levels of education. Any changes, systematically introduced to the curricula, are to reflect the needs of students, be in line with the changing labor market, and should also improve the responsible choice of the education path and, the commencement of appropriate professional work.

James E. Maddux aptly notes (2009, p. 876) that self-efficacy is not a trait and should not to measure. Instead, performance measures should be specific to the field of interest (e.g., social skills, exercise, diet, arithmetic skills). Within a domain, self-efficacy beliefs can be measured to varying degrees of behavioral and situational specificity, depending on what you are trying to predict. Therefore, the measurement of self-efficacy should be designed in such a way as to capture the multifaceted nature of the behavior and the context in which it occurs. Determining behaviors and contexts improves the predictive power of self-efficacy measures, but such specificity can reach the point of diminishing returns if taken too far. Therefore, the researcher needs to „know the territory" and have a thorough understanding of the behavioral domain in question, including the types of abilities required and the range of situations in which they can be used.

In order to broaden the knowledge about the effectiveness of actions, it is advisable to conduct further research in order to better diagnose and verify students' attitudes towards personal life and pro-vocational education. As Juczyński writes (after Zakrzewski, 1987), faith in one's own abilities is conducive to achieving success and releases additional energy, but also everyone also needs the right abilities and skills. The research should first of all consider the actual abilities of the individual, because unrealistic optimism may lead to various disappointments, as well as reduce the effectiveness of actions (Juczyński, 2001, p. 98).

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Poczucie skuteczności w opinii badanych studentów rzeszowskich uczelni

Streszczenie

Poczucie skuteczności odgrywa ważną rolę w subiektywnym odczuwaniu dobrostanu przez jednostkę. Poziom skuteczności jest ściśle związany z oczekiwaniami w trakcie wykonywania każdej czynności. Większe oczekiwania powinny wyzwalać energię i wpływać na skuteczniejsze efekty kształcenia bądź wykonywanej pracy zawodowej. Celem niniejszego artykułu jest analiza poczucia skuteczności w życiu studentów, którzy rozpoczęli studia na kierunkach ścisłych i humanistycznych. Badania wykonano na podstawie własnego projektu zrealizowanego wśród 383 studentów Politechniki Rzeszowskiej i Uniwersytetu Rzeszowskiego. Do badań wykorzystano metodę sondażu diagnostycznego i standaryzowanego narzędzia badającego poziom skuteczności w życiu z wykorzystaniem Skali Uogólnionej Własnej Skuteczności (Generalized Self-Effficency Scale – GSES) opracowanej przez Ralfa Schwarzera i Matthiasa Jeruzalema i przygotowanej w polskiej adaptacji przez Zygrfyda Juczyńskiego.

Badania pokazały, że poczucie skuteczności w życiu studentów kształtowało się na poziomie umiarkowanym. Wzięto pod uwagę następujące zmienne niezależne: uczelnia, płeć, wiek, miejsce zamieszkania i zamożność respondentów. W dwóch badaniach istniało zróżnicowanie w poziomie istotności statystycznej w zależności od rodzaju uczelni i płci badanych. Natomiast biorąc pod uwagę średnią, studenci z Politechniki Rzeszowski przejawili nieco wyższy poziom poczucia skuteczności w przeciwieństwie do studentów z Uniwersytetu Rzeszowskiego.

Wnioski z badań stanowią wyzwanie dla sytemu edukacji, nauczycieli, wychowawców na wszystkich poziomach kształcenia, aby wszelkie zmiany, systematycznie wprowadzane do programów kształcenia, mogły odzwierciedlać potrzeby studentów w większym zakresie.

Słowa kluczowe: skuteczność, oczekiwanie, efektywność, edukacja, studenci.

Uniwersytet Humanistyczno-Przyrodniczy im. Jana Długosza w Częstochowie
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Alone with the Pandemic. Maintaining the status quo among the MOPS wards who run private households

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Abstract

Caused by the SARS-CoV-2 virus, the COVID-19 pandemic can already be considered one of the more difficult situations that societies had to face over the last two years. This article presents a quantitative analysis of the assessment and experience of the pandemic period from the perspective of those adult wards of the Municipal Social Welfare Centres (MOPS, the abbreviation derived from the institution's Polish name) in Katowice and Częstochowa who run independent households. The text closes with a discussion in which the authors attempt to summarise and interpret research results with regard to the assumptions of Transactional Analysis (TA). What inspired the authors to undertake their own research presented here were the research results obtained as part of a project carried out by a team of scholars established to study the determinants of life and work during the COVID-19 pandemic; the research team was formed at the Institute of Pedagogy, Faculty of Social Sciences, University of Silesia in Katowice, and the authors of the present study were its members. In late 2020 and early 2021, the team conducted research on "Challenges, contexts and determinants in the life and work of MOPS wards and staff during the COVID-19 pandemic". The findings obtained by the team in the course of their research were presented in two reports titled: *Social Welfare During the COVID-19 Pandemic. A Report on Research Conducted in the City of Katowice* and *Social Welfare During the COVID-19 Pandemic. A Report on Research Conducted in the city of Częstochowa*. The present study provides an in-depth quantitative insight and further details regarding the aforementioned research results developed within the framework of these reports.

Keywords: status quo, lone living, running a private household, MOPS beneficiaries, COVID-19 pandemic.

> In March 2020, a coronavirus pandemic engulfed the world, causing unprecedented consequences. Four billion people locked in their homes, sealed borders, deserted cities. The world stood still in fear of the worst, voluntarily incurring unimaginable costs that it had not previously been prepared to bear under any circumstances. The worst had not come, or perhaps it had no right to come (Michniewicz, 2020, p. 7).

Introduction – private household management, lone living/ self-sufficiency – clarification and systemization of concepts

A private household is formed by a group of people living together and supporting one another. Two-person households as well as more numerous ones can be formed within or outside one’ s family. The person who provides all the means of subsistence for their household or their most substantial part is called the head of private household. Single people form one-person households (https://stat.gov.pl/metainformacje/slownik-pojec/pojecia-stosowane-w-statystyce-publicznej/103,pojecie.html, 2022).

The status of a person living alone is referred to with a number of equivalents, which, however, are not literally synonymous with one another. In social sciences the terms used to denote a single person’s lifestyle are: one-person household, singlehood, old bachelor/old maid, unmarried person, single person (Żurek, 2003, pp. 123–136).

Lone living can be caused by three main reasons, i.e.:

1. A lifestyle to which a person has been, as it were, condemned, due to the occurrence of certain specific circumstances, such as the death of family members, divorce, emigration, illness or unemployment.
2. The consequence of earlier choices, when – instead of starting a family or getting married – a person chose other forms of activity, e.g. found the path to self-fulfilment in their professional or political career. Failure to make the decision to marry at the “right moment” results in a lack of suitable candidates for a spouse.
3. A lifestyle in which self-reliance has become a conscious choice. The accompanying motives are quite diverse and include the desire to become independent. This motive is most common among young people, who additionally associate it with the desire to break out of parental guardianship. An-

other is the conviction that only by running a one-person household can a higher standard of living be achieved, both in material and social terms. Finally, lone living may be chosen because of previous traumatic family experiences, resulting in a rejection of the institution of marriage and family (Żurek, 2003).

When it comes to the first group of causes underlying lone living, it refers mainly to those among beneficiaries of welfare support who are indigent, often chronically ill or disabled, abandoned by relatives as a result of being widowed, orphaned, separated from their life partner (emigration, stay in a penitentiary institution or in an institution for the chronically ill). They are also people who, due to their old age, are to a certain extent disabled and therefore have a reduced degree of independence in carrying out activities essential to everyday life (Paplicki, Susło, Drobnik, Sobieszczańska, 2019, p. 146).

The second group may include people who are called "single parents". Synonyms for lone parenthood and single parents are used interchangeably in the literature on the subject. These are usually terms such as: "parent without a partner", "single parent" ("single mother" or "single father"), "lone parent" or "monoparent" (Włodarczyk, 2021, pp. 3–17).

It can only be assumed that among the women benefiting from MOPS support there are few housewives who belong to an elite group (i.e. wealthy, well-educated, working women); much more often they belong to the qualitatively worst group (indigent, unqualified women with no financial means to support themselves) (Żurek, 2003).

Referring to the third group of reasons for lone living among MOPS beneficiaries, it can be surmised that previous life experiences have most likely had a negative impact on the image of sharing a life with another person.

In the context of maintaining the status quo among MOPS wards, addressed by the researchers in the present paper, it is important to discuss which factors may influence the wards to such an extent that they adopt an attitude of reluctance to change. Tyszka (2010, pp. 268–269) focuses in particular on the fear of the unknown, which may preclude one from a rational assessment of how likely it is that positive consequences of actions taken will occur. The aforementioned author also singles out reasons for overcoming reluctance to change, such as – among others – the search for diversity or the pursuit of perfection. Research by Samuelson and Zeckhauser proves that aversion to change can also be stronger than personal preference (Samuelson, Zeckhauser, 1988, pp. 7–59). In their study, Madrian and Shea (2001, pp. 1149–1187) pointed out existing differences in individuals' attitudes towards change (propensity towards change). The authors observed a prevailing attitude of reluctance to change the status quo amongst the respondents, whether it was a result of their activity or lack thereof. Furthermore, their research revealed both positive and negative effects of the status quo effect on decision-making.

Method, research area, test group

As already indicated at the beginning of this article, the research presented herein constitutes an in-depth part of a larger empirical project carried out by researchers from the Institute of Pedagogy at the University of Silesia in Katowice.[1] The research used a diagnostic survey method and a statistical analysis method. For this purpose, a research tool was developed in the form of a survey questionnaire. An intentional (purposeful) selection of the test group was applied, in which running a private household was taken as the basic criterion. The research was conducted among the beneficiaries of Municipal Social Centres (MOPS) in the cities of Katowice and Częstochowa at the turn of 2020.

Description of the data and demographic characteristics of the test group:

A total of 135 respondents took part in the survey. In the end, the results were analysed for 58 respondents who answered the minimum of 50% of questions in the questionnaires provided and declared that they were running private households. The remaining questionnaires (n = 33) were treated as lacking too many responses or not meeting the mentioned inclusion criterion, i.e. running a private household.

Of the 58 people surveyed, all provided their age, gender, education background, information on the number of children, place of residence and information on professional activity. The age structure of the analysed group is shown in Table 1.

Table 1
The age structure of the test group

Age group	Number f respondents	% of the group
18–24	9	16%
25–30	6	10%
31–40	15	26%
41–50	15	26%
51–60	9	16%
61–70	4	7%

Source: own research.

The analysed group consisted mainly of women (n = 38; 66%) and to a lesser extent of men (n = 20; 34%), mainly in the age range between 31–60 years.

[1] See Majewska-Kafarowska, Widawska, Nieduziak, Michalski, Moczia, Niemiec, Dobosz, Gierczyk, Kitińska-Król, Szafrańska (2021a) as well as Majewska-Kafarowska, Widawska, Nieduziak, Michalski, Moczia, Niemiec, Dobosz, Gierczyk, Kitińska-Król, Szafrańska (2021b).

The structure of the group in terms of professional activity is shown in Figure 1.

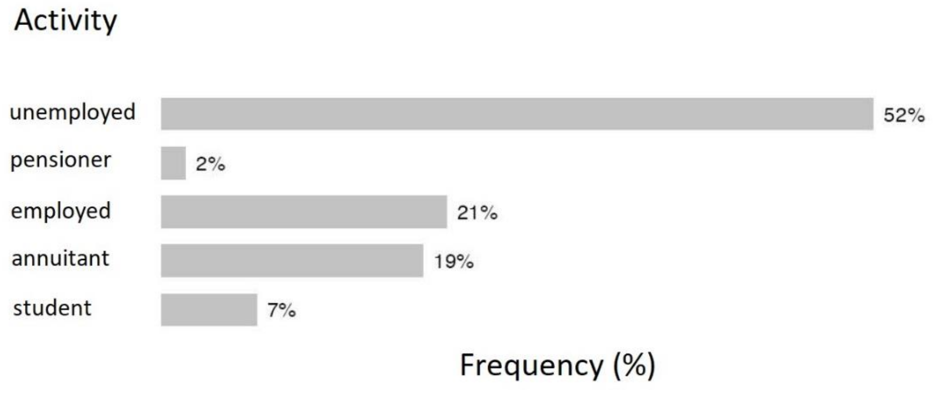

Figure 1
The structure of the group in terms of professional activity

Source: own research.

The majority of respondents declared being unemployed (*n* = 30; 52%). Less frequently, respondents described themselves as employed (*n* = 12; 21%) or receiving an annuity (*n* = 11; 19%). Pensioners (*n* = 1; 2%) and students (*n* = 4; 7%) constituted a minority in the test group.

The structure of educational attainment in the study group is shown in Figure 2.

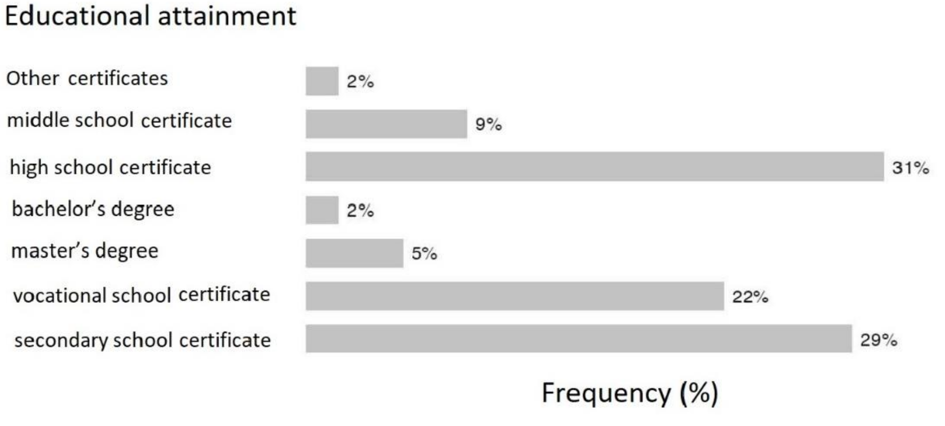

Figure 2
The structure of test group in terms of educational attainment

Source: own research.

Most of the respondents declared they had primary school certificates (*n* = 18; 31%), secondary education certificates (*n* = 17; 29%) or vocational education certificates (*n* = 13; 22%). A minority among the respondents graduated from a middle school (*n* = 5; 9%), a university with a bachelor's degree (*n* = 1; 2%) a master's degree (*n* = 3; 5%) or a different educational background than the options listed (*n* = 1; 2%).

More than half of the respondents declared having children (*n* = 32; 55%), while the rest declared they were childless (*n* = 26; 45%). Similarly, half of the respondents declared Częstochowa as the place of their residence (*n* = 32; 55%), while the rest declared that they lived in Katowice (*n* = 26; 45%).

The main research objective was to determine whether and in what manner the timing of the COVID-19 pandemic influenced changes in daily functioning, activities and decisions among those MOPS beneficiaries who were single and running a private household at the time. The research problem outlined above was further delineated through the following questions:

1. What changes did respondents experience during the COVID-19 pandemic?
2. Did the respondents experience a change during the pandemic in terms of their contacts with different people, such as neighbours, friends, immediate and distant family, co-workers, people who also receive support from MOPS?
3. During the first and second lockdowns caused by the pandemic, did the respondents change the amount of time spent on different types of daily activities?
4. Which leisure activities among the respondents carried out before the pandemic disappeared, were reduced, and which were taken up or continued during the pandemic?
5. How do respondents assess the impact of the pandemic on different areas of their functioning?
6. Which of the services offered by MOPS during the pandemic were most important to the respondents?
7. Did the respondents' needs change during the COVID-19 pandemic in terms of the support they expected from MOPS?

Maintaining the status quo among the surveyed MOPS beneficiaries during the COVID-19 pandemic – an analysis of the collected research material

In relation to the changes that the respondents experienced during the pandemic, the means and standard deviations of the responses ticked by respondents for each category were calculated. The results of the analysis are presented in Table 2.

Table 2
Changes experienced by the respondents during the pandemic – means and standard deviations

Category	*M*	*SD*
Increased burden of household duties	2.79	1.53
Unfavourable change in daily routine	3.26	1.45
Feeling of helplessness	2.95	1.5
Increased number of conflict situations with household members	2.62	1.41
Need for additional support for the child/children in their learning process	2.67	1.67
Being overburdened with caring for family members	2.4	1.61
Feeling of uncertainty about the future	3.76	1.45
Feeling tired of the media hype about COVID-19	4.17	1.26
Feeling lonely	3.09	1.58
Limiting contact with friends	3.67	1.54
Feeling more tired	3.41	1.56
Fear of losing/not finding a job	2.16	1.56
Fear of losing financial stability	3.4	1.73
Deterioration of physical health	2.83	1.42
Deterioration of mental health	3.24	1.44
Fear of contracting the virus	3.55	1.57
Withdrawal from social life	3.29	1.54

Annotation: M – means; SD – standard deviations

Source: own research.

To the greatest extent, the respondents reported an increase in terms of exhaustion with the media hype about COVID-19. They rated the other elements as average in intensity. They were least bothered by the fear of losing their job/not finding a job.

The respondents were asked about the frequency of contact with other people, namely neighbours, friends, distant family, household members and co-workers or potential employers.

With regard to changes in the frequency of contact with different people, the respondents' answers are shown in Figure 3.

From the analysis of the data, it can be concluded that the frequency of contacts did not change in the case of contacts with neighbours (32 people) and household members (35 people), i.e. people associated with the place of residence. The time for professional contacts (work and job seeking) did not change either. Contacts with distant family (26 people), with other MOPS support recipients (26 people) and with friends (18 people) were reduced, which can be assumed to be in line with the recommendation to maintain a distance of social isolation and/or home quarantine.

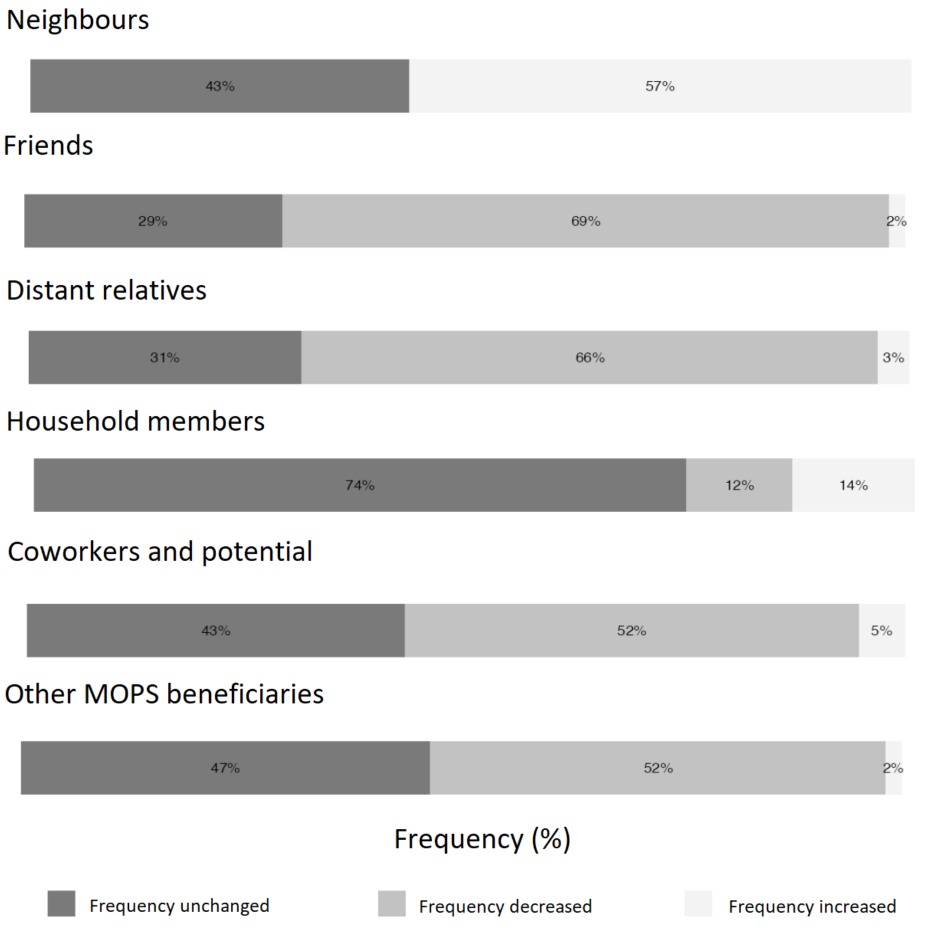

Figure 3
Changes in frequency of contact with different people – percentage results for a group of 58 respondents

Source: own research.

MOPS beneficiaries who run a private household were asked the question: how did the amount of time spent on the listed daily activities change during the pandemic? Frequency of occurrence was calculated for the individual answers given by the respondents. The results are presented in Figure 4.

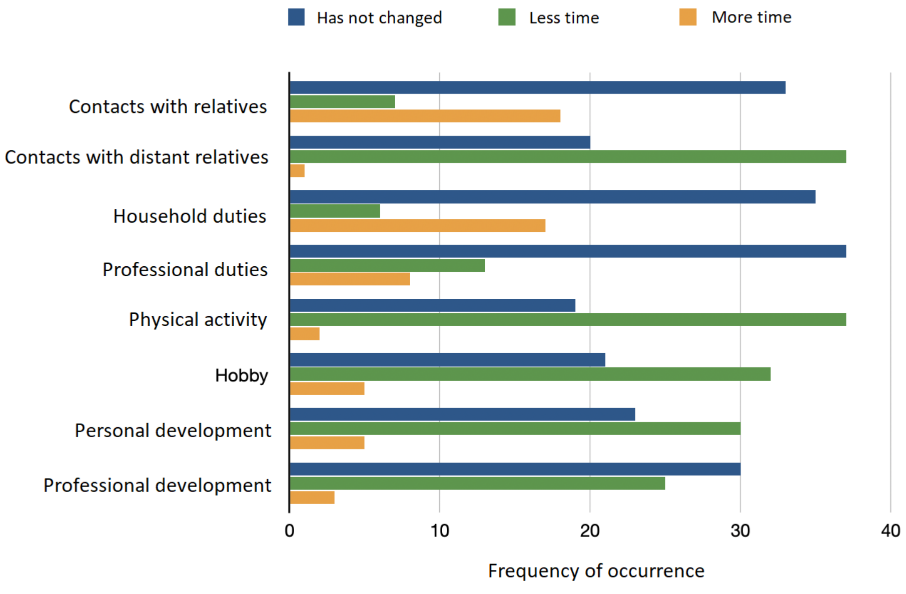

Figure 4
Changes in the amount of time spent on daily activities – frequency of occurrence for a group of 58 respondents

Source: own research.

The analysis indicated that 57% of the respondents (*n* = 33) said that the amount of time spent on contacts with household members had not changed, 12% said it had decreased (*n* = 7) and 31% said it had increased. With regard to contact with distant family, 34% of the respondents (*n* = 20) answered that the amount of time spent on this contact had not changed, 64% said it had decreased (*n* = 37) and only 2% said it had increased (*n* = 1).

Regarding household duties, 60% of the respondents (*n* = 35) said that the amount of time spent on these activities had not changed, 10% said it had decreased (*n* = 6) and 29% said it had increased (*n* = 17). With regard to work duties, 64% of the respondents (*n* = 37) said that the amount of time spent on these duties had not changed, 22% said it had decreased (*n* = 13) and 14% said it had increased (*n* = 8).

Concerning physical activity, 33% of the respondents (*n* = 19) stated that the amount of time spent on this type of activity did not change, 64% that it had decreased (*n* = 37) and only 3% that it had increased (*n* = 2). Regarding the pursuit of hobbies, 36% of the respondents (*n* = 21) said that the amount of time spent on hobbies had not changed, 55% said it had decreased (*n* = 32) and only 9% said it had increased (*n* = 5).

When it comes to personal development, 40% of the respondents (n = 23) said that the amount of time spent on personal development had not changed, 52% said it had decreased (n = 30) and only 9% said it had increased (n = 5). In contrast, with regard to professional development, 52% of the respondents (n = 30) said that the amount of time spent on professional development had not changed, 43% said it had decreased (n = 25) and only 5% said it had increased (n = 3).

In order to find out which leisure activities that had been carried out before the pandemic disappeared, were curtailed and which were commenced or continued during the pandemic, frequencies and percentages were calculated for the answers given by the respondents. The results are presented in Table 3.

Table 3
Implemented, limited, initiated and discontinued forms of spending time – frequency of responses

Category	Continuation	Curtailment	Commencement	Discontinuation
Sports activities outside of home (*n* = 42)	12 (29%)	13 (31%)	1 (2%)	16 (38%)
Physical exercise at home (*n* = 32)	10 (31%)	4 (13%)	10 (31%)	8 (25%)
Participation in cultural events (*n* = 42)	4 (10%)	10 (24%)	1 (2%)	27 (64%)
Social activity (*n* = 34)	7 (21%)	12 (35%)	0	15 (44%)
Reading (*n* = 40)	23 (57%)	5 (13%)	6 (15%)	6 (15%)
Working on an allotment (*n* = 18)	8 (44%)	2 (11%)	3 (17%)	5 28%)
Growing pot plants at home (*n* = 36)	27 (75%)	1 (3%)	5 (14%)	3 (8%)
Cooking and baking (*n* = 54)	46 (85%)	2 (4%)	6 (11%)	0
Manual work (*n* = 39)	28 (72%)	3 (8%)	6 (15%)	2 (5%)
Crafts (*n* = 25)	17 (68%)	1 (4%)	4 (16%)	3 (12%)
Watching TV (*n* = 52)	40 (77%)	9 (17%)	3 (6%)	0
Internet surfing (*n* = 48)	41 (85%)	3 (6%)	4 (8%)	0

Source: own research.

Sports activities outside of home, participation in cultural events and social activity were among the most frequently discontinued leisure activities. The respondents most often continued or commenced physical exercise at home, and leisure activities such as reading, working on the allotment, growing potted plants at home, cooking and baking, manual work and crafts, watching TV and surfing the Internet were also the most frequently continued leisure activities.

As regards the functioning of the respondents during the pandemic, their responses are shown in Figure 5.

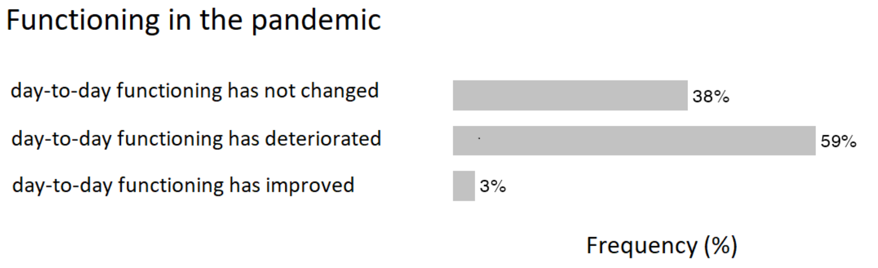

Figure 5
Functioning of respondents during the pandemic – percentage results for a group of 100 respondents (the number of respondents who did not provide a response: 2)

Source: own research.

The respondents indicated that their daily functioning had not changed (n = 22; 38%) or had worsened (n = 34; 59%). Only 3% (n = 2) of respondents indicated that their daily functioning had improved.

The MOPS wards also responded to the question of how the pandemic had affected different areas of their functioning. The frequencies of the answers given by the subjects were checked. The results of the analysis are shown in

Table 4
Impact of the pandemic on different areas of functioning – an analysis of frequency of responses (*results for a group of 58 people*)

Category	Major deterioration	Slight deterioration	No change	Slight improvement	Major improvement
Household income level	8 (14%)	15 (26%)	30 (52%)	5 (9%)	0
Subjective assessment of economic security	12 (21%)	17 (29%)	24 (41%)	5 (9%)	0
Physical health	11 (19%)	22 (38%)	25 (43%)	0	0
Capacity for purchasing food	4 (7%)	24 (41%)	30 (52%)	0	0
Mental well-being	18 (31%)	24 (41%)	15 (26%)	1 (2%)	0

Table 4 (cont.)

Category	Major deterioration	Slight deterioration	No change	Slight improvement	Major improvement
Willingness to act independently	7 (12%)	12 (21%)	36 (62%)	2 (3%)	1 (2%)
Contact with immediate family	12 (21%)	14 (24%)	28 (48%)	3 (5%)	1 (2%)
Contact with distant relatives	25 (43%)	11 (19%)	20 (34%)	2 (3%)	0
Contact with MOPS personnel/staff	8 (14%)	16 (28%)	26 (45%)	4 (7%)	4 (7%)
Access to professional medical services	33 (57%)	11 (19%)	13 (22%)	1 (2%)	0
Access to benefits (permanent, periodic, targeted)	4 (7%)	1 (2%)	48 (83%)	5 (9%)	0
Access to professional welfare services	6 (10%)	8 (14%)	39 (67%)	4 (7%)	1 (2%)
Conditions of employment (if applicable)	14 (24%)	6 (10%)	38 (66%)	0	0
Access to information about the MOPS work	7 (12%)	8 (14%)	38 (66%)	4 (7%)	1 (2%)
Ways of spending time	22 (38%)	10 (17%)	22 (38%)	3 (5%)	1 (2%)
Taking care of other family members	7 (12%)	4 (7%)	44 (76%)	2 (3%)	1 (2%)

Source: own research.

As shown in Table 4, the MOPS wards surveyed most often declared no impact of the pandemic on various areas of their functioning and activity. They declared major deterioration mainly in the case of contact with distant relatives (43% of the respondents) and minor deterioration in their ability to purchase food and in their mental well-being (24 responses out of 58 respondents).

In order to see how the implementation of the services offered to people receiving the MOPS support was assessed during the pandemic, means and standard deviations were calculated for the responses given by the respondents. The results are presented in Table 5.

Among the ones selected, services such as contact with a social worker and a monetary allowance to purchase a meal or food were rated highest.

The means, medians and standard deviations of the results were then calculated to see to what extent respondents needed the MOPS support in meeting their selected needs before and during the pandemic. In turn, using the Wilcoxon test, respondents' needs before and during the pandemic were compared to see if they had changed. The result of the analysis is presented in Table 6.

Table 5
Evaluation of the implementation of the services offered to people receiving MOPS support during the pandemic – means and standard deviations

Category	*M*	*SD*
E-services (*n* = 33)	3.67	1.36
Emergency shopping service (*n* = 21)	3.05	1.40
Legal aid by phone or on-line (*n* = 33)	3.64	1.45
Psychological support by phone or on-line (*n* = 30)	3.43	1.48
Solidarity allowance (*n* = 20)	3.20	1.61
Monetary benefit for the purchase of a meal or food (*n* = 39)	3.79	1.47
Contact with a social worker (*n* = 55)	4.13	1.04
Educational support (*n* = 33)	3.55	1.37

Annotation: M – means; SD – standard deviations.

Source: own research.

Table 6
Needs for the MOPS support in meeting selected demands before and during the pandemic – means and standard deviations

Category	Period	*M*	*Me*	*SD*	*W*	*p*	*rbs*
Purchase and delivery of basic foodstuffs (*n* = 19)	Before	2.16	1.00	1.57	7.00	0.262	−0,50
	During	2.47	2.00	1.54			
Purchase and delivery of hygiene products (*n* = 18)	Before	2.06	1.00	1.55	4.00	0.850	−0.20
	During	2.17	1.00	1.54			
Purchase and delivery of medicines (*n* = 17)	Before	2.06	1.00	1.60	3.50	0.710	−0.30
	During	2.29	1.00	1.72			
Purchase and delivery of clothing (*n* = 15)	Before	2.20	1.00	1.66	2.50	0.999	−0.17
	During	2.33	1.00	1.80			
Provision of materials necessary for remote education (*n* = 12)	Before	2.00	1.00	1.60	2.50	0.999	−0.17
	During	2.17	1.00	1.80			
Provision of personal protective equipment (*n* = 16)	Before	1.88	1.00	1.63	5.00	0.289	−0.52
	During	2.50	1.50	1.75			

Table 6 (cont.)

Category	Period	M	Me	SD	W	p	rbs
Obtaining reliable information about the pandemic in Poland (*n* = 21)	Before	2.95	3.00	1.83	2.50	0.999	−0.17
	During	3.10	4.00	1.79			
Receiving emotional support (*n* = 25)	Before	3.08	3.00	1.78	6.50	0.892	−0.13
	During	3.12	3.00	1.74			
Financial security (*n* = 33)	Before	3.18	3.00	1.70	9.00	0.443	−0.36
	During	3.33	4.00	1.59			
Protection from loss of job (*n* = 15)	Before	2.33	1.00	1.76	9.50	0.916	−0.10
	During	2.40	2.00	11.50			
Arranging a medical, nursing visit (*n* = 22)	Before	2.86	2.00	1.86	12.00	0.279	0.60
	During	2.50	1.00	1.82			

Annotation: M – means; Me – medians; SD – standard deviations; W – Wilcoxon test statistic; p – test probability level; rbs – rank-order correlation (effect size). Information on how many respondents answered the question (n) is given in brackets next to the name of the category.

Source: own research.

The analysis indicated that there was no statistically significant change in any of the demands listed.

Discussion of the research findings in the context of the Transactional Analysis assumptions

According to the creator of Transactional Analysis, Eric Berne, lonely people can structure time in two ways: either through activity or through fantasy (Berne, 2006, p. 12). Structuring time refers to the way people fill their time by building relationships with other people. Depending on the increasing intensity of contact, forms such as withdrawal, ritual, entertainment and procedures are distinguished (Jagieła, 2006).[2]

Withdrawal involves a lack of response to transactional stimuli and a physical or psychological distancing from the environment. It is usually a reaction to excess or destructive stimuli that the individual is unable to process.

Ritual is one form of structuring time in the form of superficial and conventional behaviour which has been previously recognised as appropriate.

Entertainment involves spending time in a way that affirms one's role, position in life or enables one to receive positive support.

[2] Cf. E. Berne, who distinguishes: 1) Rituals, 2) Pastimes, 3) Games, 4) Intimacy, 5) Activities.

Procedures are task-oriented, so they should not be equated with, for example, casual conversation, as is the case with entertainment.

While referring to conclusions drawn in the research carried out in the 1930s and 1950s, Berne states that every long-term isolation (e.g. in a single-person cell) may lead to a deficit of stimuli for the human brain: "[…] stimulus-hunger has the same relationship to survival of the human organism as food-hunger. Indeed, not only biologically but also psychologically and socially, stimulus-hunger in many ways parallels the hunger for food" (Berne, 2006, p. 8; Berne, 1973, p. 4)[3]; thus, the effects of sensory deprivation can also be felt by adults.

Relating the aforesaid to the term "strokes", one can point out that malnutrition can also be understood as the lack or insufficiency of reinforcements received, not only as hugs, friendly patting on the shoulder, but also the presence of another person (Jagieła, 2012, p. 27). The meaning of the term "stroking" can be extended to include any attempt to draw attention to the presence of another person. A comparison of the stroke economy with the use of a food diet is made by Giles Barrow in his article on pastoral care and educational transactional analysis. He points to the constant "malnutrition", so to speak, of some people who are hungry for reinforcement in the form of the aforementioned signs of recognition. He also writes that, for example, it is not uncommon for students at school to receive negative conditional strokes that are synonymous with "bad food" (e.g. low-value, toxic, fatty or low-calorie food). They are inclined to regard them as normal because they do not, in their view, deserve anything else. Simply put: they would rather eat anything than not eat at all and remain hungry. This is a common reason why pupils behave inappropriately, only for the teacher to notice their presence (Jagieła, 2012, p. 27).

According to Eric Berne: "An exchange of strokes constitutes a transaction, which is the unit of social intercourse" (Berne, 2006, p. 9; Berne, 1973, p. 5). It can be assumed that the time of isolation caused by COVID19 contributed to the malnutrition of part of the population.

The COVID-19 pandemic, which has been "accompanying" societies for two years now, certainly constituted a new, difficult situation at the time of its outbreak, forcing changes to the existing lifestyles, restricting people's functioning in many areas. We have all been "affected" by it. Numerous empirical studies concerning the course of COVID-19 pandemic which have already been published, point to a variety of its negative consequences, including remote learning

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[3] Cf. Spitzer, 2016, where the scholar claims that Facebook is to the need for social contact what popcorn is to the need for food: a huge mass actually offers little and only pretends to satisfy the need, offering mostly air and empty calories. Consuming this mass gives rise to an even greater need, which remains unfulfilled. And, by analogy, just as eating only popcorn can make one physically ill (due to deficiencies), with intensive use of Facebook, the soul becomes sick. Anxiety, stress, envy, jealousy emerge and an addiction develops.

or isolation for children and young people. How did single adult beneficiaries of welfare support experience the early and later stages of the pandemic? What was their perspective of this difficult situation? Did the pandemic cause significant changes in their daily functioning, behaviour, decisions made? Did new activities, needs, expectations emerge? Did the "lone pandemic" situation provide an impetus for change? Or was the pre-pandemic state maintained among the research subjects? These questions, among others, were addressed by the present study. From the analysis carried out, it can be concluded that the people surveyed – most of whom turned out to be women aged 30–60, mainly with primary and secondary educational background, unemployed, with children and benefiting from the support offered by MOPS – maintained the pre-pandemic status quo also during the COVID-19 pandemic.

Apart from being tired of the media hype about COVID-19, the respondents did not declare any significant changes in their activities and actions. Although almost 60% of the respondents' answers referred to a daily deterioration in functioning, which mainly concerned mental well-being or the ability to buy food, the respondents mostly continued their activities such as – among others, reading, cooking, watching TV, surfing the Internet, exercising, etc. as forms of spending their pastime. Neither did they generally change the amount of time spent on daily activities, such as household duties, hobbies, physical activity and personal development. According to the respondents, contacts with the immediate family and/or household members improved; hence, it should be understood that it mainly concerned children. The analysis of the data also shows that the frequency of contacts with others has not changed either in the case of contacts with neighbours or household members, i.e. people associated with the place of residence. Time spent on professional contacts (both at work and while searching for work) also appeared to be the same as before the pandemic. What was limited were contacts with distant family, with other MOPS support beneficiaries, friends, sports activities outside of home, participation in cultural events and social activities, which can be assumed to be in line with the recommendation to maintain social distance. There was also no change in the respondents' needs for expected/increased support by the MOPS staff compared to before the pandemic. They found monetary benefits to buy meals or food as well as contact with a welfare worker to be the most significant in meeting their needs during the lockdowns. They were also least bothered by the fear of losing their jobs/failing to find work, which may be explained by the fact that most of them had also been unemployed before the pandemic. The conducted analysis therefore encourages attempts to formulate conclusions, albeit cautious ones (due to the small size of the test group), regarding the possible reasons for maintaining the status quo among the surveyed MOPS wards during the COVID-19 pandemic. These conclusions can be considered in the context of the positive and negative determinants. The negative ones would have to be traced back to the socio-economic status of the respondents, the necessity or dependence on the support and assistance offered by welfare services, which the emergence of the COVID-19 pandemic did not change. On the other hand, the maintenance of the status quo, in the harsh pandemic reality that forced isolation, may have allowed singles who run a private household and got "accustomed" to loneliness in pre-pandemic times, to better adapt to the conditions that the pandemic forced. This is therefore an area for further research exploration.

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Sam na sam pandemią. Utrzymanie *status quo* wśród podopiecznych MOPS prowadzących samodzielne gospodarstwo domowe

Streszczenie

Pandemię COVID-19 wywołaną wirusem SARS-CoV-2 można już dziś uznać za jedną z trudniejszych sytuacji, z jakimi przyszło się zmagać społeczeństwom na przestrzeni ostatnich dwóch lat. W prezentowanym artykule przedstawiono ilościową analizę oceny i doświadczeń okresu pandemii z perspektywy osób dorosłych, prowadzących samodzielne gospodarstwo domowe, podopiecznych Miejskich Ośrodków Pomocy Społecznej w Katowicach oraz w Częstochowie. W badaniach własnych wykorzystano metodę sondażu diagnostycznego z zastosowaniem kwestionariusza ankiety. Główne cele analizy skoncentrowano wokół kwestii związanej z utrzymaniem *status quo* wśród „samotnych" beneficjentów w okresie trwania pandemii COVID-19, przede wszystkim czasu dwóch pierwszych lockdownów. Tekst zamyka dyskusja, w której autorki dokonują próby podsumowania i interpretacji wyników badań w kontekście założeń analizy transakcyjnej. Inspirację do podjęcia prezentowanych tu badań własnych stanowiły wyniki, jakie uzyskano w ramach projektu badawczego, realizowanego przez powołany w Instytucie Pedagogiki na Wydziale Nauk Społecznych Uniwersytetu Śląskiego w Katowicach zespół badawczy ds. badań i uwarunkowań życia i pracy w czasie pandemii COVID-19, którego autorki niniejszego opracowania były członkiniami. Zespół na przełomie 2020 oraz 2021 roku prowadził badania dotyczące „Wyzwań, kontekstów i uwarunkowań życia podopiecznych oraz pracy pracowników MOPS w czasie pandemii COVID-19". Uzyskane przez zespół w wyniku przeprowadzonych badań wnioski zostały przedstawione w dwóch raportach: *Pomoc społeczna w trakcie pandemii COVID-19. Raport z badań przeprowadzonych na terenie miasta Katowice* oraz *Pomoc społeczna w trakcie pandemii COVID-19. Raport z badań przeprowadzonych na terenie miasta Częstochowa*. Niniejsze badania stanowią ilościowe pogłębienie i uszczegółowienie rezultatów badawczych opracowanych w ramach wspomnianych raportów.

Słowa kluczowe: *status quo***,** samotność życiowa, samodzielne prowadzenie gospodarstwa domowego, beneficjenci MOPS, pandemia COVID-19.

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Computer games in the hierarchy of importance of children' and adolescents' activities in the ICT world – research report: learners' and teachers' opinions

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Abstract

The article presents a fragment of diagnostic-correlative research of a mixed character, identifying learners' information literacy in the use of ICT methods and tools. The author aims to answer the question defining the frequency of using ICT by children and adolescents (hierarchy of importance of activities) in the area of computer games. For this purpose, the method of a diagnostic survey (questionnaire and interview) and statistical methods (chi-square test of independence and Pearson's correlation coefficient) were used. Together, 2510 learners and 1110 teachers (in Poland) were involved. It was established that: 1) according to the aggregate hierarchy of importance of activities undertaken in cyberspace, the learners attached little weight (fourth place) when the teachers the greatest (first place) to computer games; 2) there is a relationship (correlation: average, positive – $r \cong 0{,}49$) between the learners' and teachers' opinions as to the frequency of using ICT instruments by children and adolescents in order to play; 3) the calculations showed significant statistical differences between the frequency of using ICT by children and adolescents in the area of computer games and their gender and the stage of education; 4) there is a noticeable similarity between the opinions of the learners and the teachers and an insignificant "separation" of the world of children and youth ("Us") from the world of teachers ("Them").

Keywords: diagnostic and correlative research, opinion correlation, information competencies, using ICT, computer games.

Introduction

All the actions undertaken nowadays in any form possible support the use of Information and Communication Technologies treated as key technologies of contemporary civilization, which was clearly shown by the time of the pandemic COVID-19 (Doucet et al., 2020; Bailenson, 2020; Murphy, 2020; D'Souza, 2020). The reality of the digital era poses more and more challenging requirements oriented towards developing certain areas of information competencies (Van Deursn, Van Dijk, 2014, pp. 43–62), defining new directions of development, school and extracurricular tasks undertaken. That is why the main aim of the research was to determine learners' information competencies in the area of using ICT in the context of new technological trends and civilisation changes accompanying them. There was an attempt to identify the range of knowledge, comprehension, actions and attitudes of children and adolescents shown in the approach to new ICT trends. Apart from the views expressed by the learners, also those of the teachers deserve our attention, especially when it comes to the areas where ICT are used by the young generation. The issue of using computer games by children and adolescents, i.e. interactive programmes activating one's brain and emotions, was interesting from the perspective of deliberations on the hierarchy of importance of undertaken activities. Contemporary technology culture provides us with a broad spectrum of patterns demonstrating the use of one's time in the word of games and plays, which in many ways, both positively and negatively (Siemieniecki, 2021, pp. 170–177) may influence human development, generating a certain level of activity and a type of undertaken actions. Modern technologies, by their quantitatively and qualitatively rich offer, constitute an attractive and absorbing way of spending free time, in accordance with one's choices and interests. The constant growth of the ICT offer caters for diverse needs, satisfying even the most fussy group of consumers (*Gaming Market Size…*, 2021). The following questions arise: How important are computer games for children and adolescents? Which place do they occupy in the hierarchy of actions undertaken by them as far as the use of ICT is concerned?

The comparison of the data received from the learners with the remarks made by the teachers (expressed by the degree of dependence, opinion correlation) made it possible to focus on the differences and similarities in the area of needs and expectations of education charges. These findings are crucial for the understanding of the teaching-learning process, especially in the aspect of the eternal conflict ("incompatibility") of generations (Baron-Polańczyk, 2018).

Research assumptions

The research is theoretically outlined by: 1) the concepts of critical pedagogy assuming “constant objection to the obvious”, visions and aims open to social dialogue; 2) the postmodernist approach, taking into account multi-meaning emancipation – “multi-meaning modernity” and “fluent modernity”; 3) focus on self-education, self-realisation, self-determination and open education (Bauman, 2015); 4) a proposal to shape and develop information competencies, placing the foundations of teaching and learning in the constructivist theory (with special attention given to a socio-cultural perspective), showing one of the ways in which we can think about knowledge formation – learning about ICT methods and tools with the help of ICT (Henson, 2015); 5) positive visions of the future, where media and technologies may be efficiently used to support learning and healthy development (Berdik, 2020); 6) educative usefulness of games (Okoń, 2006, pp. 116; Bereźnicki, 2007, pp. 265, 280; Kruszewski, 2012, pp. 221–239; Juszczyk, 2021, pp. 329). Making an attempt to explore the practical side, the author tried to show educational reality confronted with contemporary dominating scientific theories drawing an image of a ‘new learner”, who exists and realizes themselves in the Internet cyberspace, in the world of “new media” (Levinson, 2013), making it possible to convey information in a multi-sensual way and to learn with the use of multiple senses – an online learner having countless possibilities of using new areas of e-education. It is assumed that one’s development is directed by a global and cultural imperative to participate in the process of constructing and negotiating symbols, values, meanings, in which technology, machines and tools become a learner’s main partners (Gabriel, Röhrs, 2017). It was assumed that we can talk about success in teaching when a learner feels accepted and is aware that their problems are noticed and understood. It is then that their “mind opens” and there is an opportunity to use its full potential they came to school with (Rasfeld, Breidenbach, 2014, pp. 109–115).

At the conceptual level of the project, it was assumed that an activity undertaken shall have a form of a quantitative-qualitative diagnostic-correlative study (Ferguson, Takane, 2016, pp. 33, 233–254), mainly rooted in media pedagogy. Two techniques were used, i.e. a questionnaire (Babbie, 2016, pp. 247, 255–264) and an open interview (Frankfort-Nachmias, Nachmias, 2015, pp. 240–265). The study also implemented activities and techniques introducing the elements of analysis and both qualitative and quantitative explanation. Triangulation made it possible to learn more about and explore more thoroughly the problem in question (engaging the areas of education, technology and information technology) from two different points of view (Furmanek, 2016, pp. 21, 28). Statistical methods, namely the chi-square test of independence and Pearson's correlation coefficient (King, Minium, 2020, pp. 165–181, 458–478) made it possible to determine the correlation of the learners' and teachers' views, and factors differentiating the class of the phenomena under research.

The main research, covering teachers realizing curricula from different school subjects[1] and learners at particular stages of their education,[2] was conducted in selected educational institutions of Lubuskie province and neighbouring provinces. 40 learners who were interviewed were attending schools in Zielona Góra and places nearby (10 learners from each type of school were chosen). The sample group consisted of 2510 learners and 1110 teachers.

One of the detailed questions concerned the areas of using ICT, which made it possible to learn: for what purposes and tasks children and adolescents mainly use modern technology, their tool preferences, the hierarchy of importance pertaining to digital instruments used by the learners and areas in which they undertook any activities. Diagnosing the frequency of everyday use of ICT instruments, five main areas were taken into account: 1) computer games; 2) network communication; 3) searching information in accordance to one's interests; 4) preparing for lessons at school (doing homework); 5) way of spending free time. The results presented in the article concerning the first stage of the activity are to give an answer to the question: What is the frequency with which (in the learners' and teachers' opinion) children and adolescents use ICT tools in the area of computer games? Regarding the relation problem, it was found out that there is a relation between the learners' opinion and the teachers' remarks. It was also possible to determine factors differentiating their views on that subject.

Research results – interpretation and discussion

The question about the main purposes of using ICT by children and adolescents was answered by 2490 (99.2%) learners and 1110 (100.0%) teachers. For this group, the frequency of using particular ICT tools was calculated and illustrated, depending on the hierarchy of importance of undertaken activities. Within this framework it was revealed which importance the students attach to using computer technologies as tools for games and plays. Table 1 presents the data covering the learners' and the teachers' opinions.

[1] The teachers declared that altogether they teach 23 different school subjects – apart from basic, general-education ones, there are also those concerning the educational and professional areas.

[2] Educational stages in Poland at the time of the research: 1) Integrated teaching (age: 7–10); 2) primary school (age: 11–13); 3) junior high-school (age: 14–16); 4) secondary school (age: 17–20).

Table 1

The frequency of using computer games by children and adolescents (*in the learners' and the teachers' opinion*). *The distribution of quantities according to numerical and percentage values*

Using ICT for computer games		**The level of significance (hierarchy of importance)**						**Total**
		0 (lack)	1 (the most important)	2	3	4	5 (the least important)	
Learners' opinions								
nominal quantities	N	141	637	320	302	640	450	2490
	%	5.7%	25.6%	12.9%	12.1%	25.7%	18.1%	100.0%
weighted quantities (*)	N	0	637	256	181	256	90	1420
	%	0.0%	44.9%	18.0%	12.8%	18.0%	6.3%	100.0%
Teachers' opinions								
nominal quantities	N	49	754	202	50	40	15	1110
	%	4.4%	67.9%	18.2%	4.5%	3.6%	1.4%	100.0%
weighted quantities	N	0	754	162	30	16	3	965
	%	0.0%	78.2%	16.8%	3.1%	1.7%	0.3%	100.0%

(*) In the calculations and interpretations performed, due to the fact that the scale is linear and 5-point (0 – 5), the quantities obtained at a particular level of importance were attributed appropriate weight: level 0 = weight 0 etc.; 5 = 0.2; 4 = 0.4; 3 = 0.6; 2 = 0.8; 1 = 1.0.

Source: own research.

Learners' opinion

The children and adolescents say that, in general, they do not use ITC tools frequently in order to play and play games. They attach l i t t l e i m p o r t a n c e to computer games, and for some of them they are not important at all. In the research sample, 141 (5.7%) learners did not check this category at all, which proves that they do not use computer games on a daily basis and the digital world of games is of little or no importance to them. Every fourth person (25.6%) put computer games in the first place and considered them the most important ICT tool. And the very same group of students, i.e. a quarter of the sample (25.7%) pointed to the fourth place, including computer games in activities of little importance. We obtain similar quantities at intermediate levels of importance, i.e. the second – 12.9% and the third one – 12.1%. Therefore, 622 (25.0%) learners put games altogether on the second and third place. Interestingly, almost one fifth (18.1%) of the charges placed computer games in the hierarchy of importance, giving it the very last, fifth place. That means that every fifth student appreciates the value of games, uses their computer for entertainment purposes, but they treat this area of using ICT as the least important one in their life and the least frequently practiced one.

Quantitatively dominating extreme levels of importance (the first one and the fourth and fifth ones) are characteristic in this irregular distribution obtained. It makes it possible to notice a certain general tendency: learners either use ICT tools most frequently for computer games (games are the most important thing for them), or they use digital tools to play but it is an activity of little or no importance to them (games are a bit or the least important thing for them). It is worth mentioning here that whilst in the analyses of the learners' reflections on the reasons for using ICT, learners pointed to computer games among other reasons and motives, but this category, in accordance to the frequency of occurrence occupied the fourth place (Baron-Polańczyk, 2020, p. 102), which indirectly allows for regarding this area of activities (category "I play/ I like playing") as not that important according to their declarations.

In order to take a broader look at the areas of using ICT by children and adolescents, there was a focus on factors differentiating the researched phenomenon. There were the following variables taken into account: sex, type of educational institution (educational stage) and place (environment) of children's and adolescents' education. Thanks to the statistical analysis, it was possible to answer the question whether the aforementioned variables substantially differentiate the phenomenon class under research. The results are presented in Table 2.

Table 2
Using ICT tools by children and adolescents in the area of computer games in the function of differentiating factors (*in the learners' opinion*)

TEST.CHI results. The area of using ICT tools: computer games by children and adolescents		
Differentiating factors (the learners' sociometric data)		
Sex	Type of educational institution (educational stage)	Education place (environment)
$\chi^2 = 426.27 > \chi^2_{(\alpha=0.01;\ df=5)} = 15.09$ $p = 6.45703E-90$ **H_0 rejected**	$\chi^2 = 190{,}77 > \chi^2_{(\alpha=0.01;\ df=15)} = 30.58$ $p = 1.58645E-32$ **H_0 rejected**	$\chi^2 = 23.76 < \chi^2_{(\alpha=0{,}01;\ df=20)} = 37.57$ $p = 0.252901693$ no basis for rejecting H_0

Source: own research.

The calculations showed significant statistical differences in two cases – between the frequency of using computer games by children and adolescents and their sex and educational stage. The detailed distribution of quantities[3] shows that:

3 Due to a limited capacity of this text, it is not presented in this article.

1) Computer games (shooting, action, sports, RPG, i.e. Role Playing Games and others), in the opinion of the researched learners, are a definitely male activity. In this area of activities undertaken in the digital world, boys are clearly in the lead. The obtained distribution of activity frequency (area: games – according to one's sex) demonstrates a noticeable and symmetrical tendency: the lower the importance level, the more girls, of course, at the "cost" of a proportionally decreasing number of boys. For example, at the first level of importance of activities (having the biggest and very big weight), a group of 253 (20.1%) girls coincide with 704 (57.2%) boys. Thus, in comparison with girls, boys undoubtedly attach more importance to computer games and much more often use ICT instruments to play.
2) The distribution of activity frequency (area: games – according to one's educational level) makes it possible to notice that younger children show more interest in computer games. A steady decreasing tendency is noticed here: the higher one's educational stage, the smaller weight attributed to computer games and plays. As one's educational level increases (and, what follows, learners get older), there is a drop in frequency and less importance attributed to one's activity undertaken in the digital world of games. It is well illustrated by the distribution of quantities of the first (highest) level of importance, where the following results were recorded: integrated teaching – 156 (42.1%) learners; primary school – 206 (28.4%) learners; junior high-school – 176 (23.6%) learners; secondary school – 99 (15.3%) learners.

Teachers' opinion

In the teachers' opinion, computer games are t h e m o s t i m p o r t a n t activity undertaken by contemporary children and adolescents in the digital environment. The majority of the teachers, i.e. 754 (67.9%) of them, believe that learners give the biggest weight to using ICT for computer games and playing. Only 49 (4.4%) teachers did not check that category at all (zero level), acknowledging that a small group of children and adolescents does not use computer games on a daily basis, and cyberspace entertainment does not have any importance for it. The distribution of frequency creating the hierarchy of importance of activities undertaken by the learners in the area of using computer games has a regular downward trend, which is clearly shown both by nominal and weighted quantities (rank calculations). Thus, further on: almost every fifth teacher (18.2%) thinks that games are very important for children and adolescents (the second level of importance); only 50 (4.5%) teachers believe that playing computer games is important (the third level); and only 40 (3.6%) of the respondents reckon that learners perceive games as of little importance (the fourth level); finally 15 (1.4%) of them say that computer games are of the least importance for children and adolescents (the last, fifth level of importance).

Therefore, the teachers are convinced that children and adolescent existing in the digital world use ICT tools most frequently for entertaining purposes, to enjoy themselves and to play. That is the opinion of the majority of the teachers (86.1%) who attributed the most important and a very important rank (the first and the second level of importance) to that activity performed by learners. Generally speaking, we can conclude that the teachers surveyed almost unanimously believe that for their charges computer games occupy the first place in the hierarchy of importance of undertaken everyday activities.

While analysing the teachers' opinions, attention was drawn to the factors differentiating the researched phenomenon. Among the variables there were sex, type of educational institution, place of work and level of professional development. The adopted differentiating variables were subject to the statistical analysis whose results are presented in Table 3. The calculations did not show any significant statistical differences.

Table 3
Using ICT tools in he area of computer games by children and adolescents in the function of differentiating factors (*in the teachers' opinion*)

TEST.CHI results. The area of using ICT tools by children and adolescents: computer games			
Differentiating factors (the teachers' sociometric data)			
Sex	Type of educational institution (educational stage)	Place of work (environment)	Level of professional development
$\chi^2 = 2.85 < \chi^2_{(\alpha=0,01;\ df=5)} = 15.09$ p = 0.723083853 No grounds to reject H_0	$\chi^2 = 29.91 < \chi^2_{(\alpha=0.01;\ df=15)} = 30.58$ p = 0.012240943 No grounds to reject H_0	$\chi^2 = 28.45 < \chi^2_{(\alpha=0.01;\ df=20)} = 37.57$ p = 0.099159868 No grounds to reject H_0	$\chi^2 = 20.04 < \chi^2_{(\alpha=0.01;\ df=15)} = 30.58$ p = 0.170260539 No grounds to reject H_0

Source: own research.

Correlation between the learners' opinions and the teachers' remarks

In order to better illustrate the learners' hierarchy of importance of undertaken activities, the results obtained from the five analysed areas were put together. The data regarding the areas of using ICT tools in practice by children and adolescents were presented globally. In this global presentation of the hierarchy of importance, the area of functioning in the world of computer games was chosen by the learners only at the fourth place (with weighted value of 1420 and zero weighting of 141). On the other hand, the teachers put that area of the learners' digital activity at the first place (with weighted value of 965 and zero weighting of 49), perceiving ICT primarily as instruments catering for learners' need of entertainment, offering an opportunity to spend time in a nice way (happily and satisfyingly), including "wasting" it.

The analysis of the collected empirical material and its results show that there might be a certain correlation between the variables researched, i.e. between the learners' opinions and the teachers' views as far as activities aimed at using one's time in the environment of computer games are concerned. In order to determine that correlation, constituting a methodological assumption of a general nature in the context of formulated relational research problems, statistical methods were used as well. In the calculations of the strength of that relation between two co-existing variables in question, the coefficient of determination (r^2) and Pearson's correlation coefficient (r) were used (Ferguson, Takane, 2016, pp. 142–143). According to the results obtained (calculated values of both coefficients), the strength of that relation between the learners' opinions and the teachers' views concerning the use of ICT by children and adolescents in the area of computer games is expressed by:

1) the coefficient of determination $r^2 = 0.236388594$;
2) Pearson's correlation coefficient $r = 0.486198101$.

Calculated Pearson's correlation coefficient takes a positive value, which shows a growing regression line, thus the correlation is positive and expresses one-directional changes in both variables under analysis (Pilch, Bauman, 2010, pp. 133). It means that the bigger the values of the learners' self-evaluation (higher levels of importance given by children and adolescents), the higher values of the teachers' assessment (higher levels in the hierarchy of importance picked by the teachers). It should be underlined that the data obtained to calculate the correlation in the research undertaken (of a review character) let us only detect the co-occurrence of the variables' values. These values can co-occur even though one is not the cause of the other (King, Minium, 2020, pp. 186–188).

Interpreting (determining the degree of correlation) the obtained value of Pearson's correlation coefficient (approximately $r = 0.49$), it can be stated that the correlation between the learners' opinions and the teachers' views is "moderate" (Guilford, 1964, pp. 157), "average" (Góralski, 1987, pp. 38). Thus, we can call the researched correlation average, positive, calculated for the accepted levels of importance (the hierarchy of importance) of activities undertaken by children and adolescents aiming at the use of ICT in the area of "computer games" (illustrated by similar opinions of the learners and the teachers). In this figure (Fig. 1), the distribution of data shows a clear correlation for the levels of activities' importance from 0 (not important) to 2 (very important), and slightly different results for the levels from 3 (important) to 5 (the least important), with a noticeable "peak" at level 4 (of little importance) according to the learners' opinions. This course confirms a generally average (moderate) positive correlation for this category of activities.

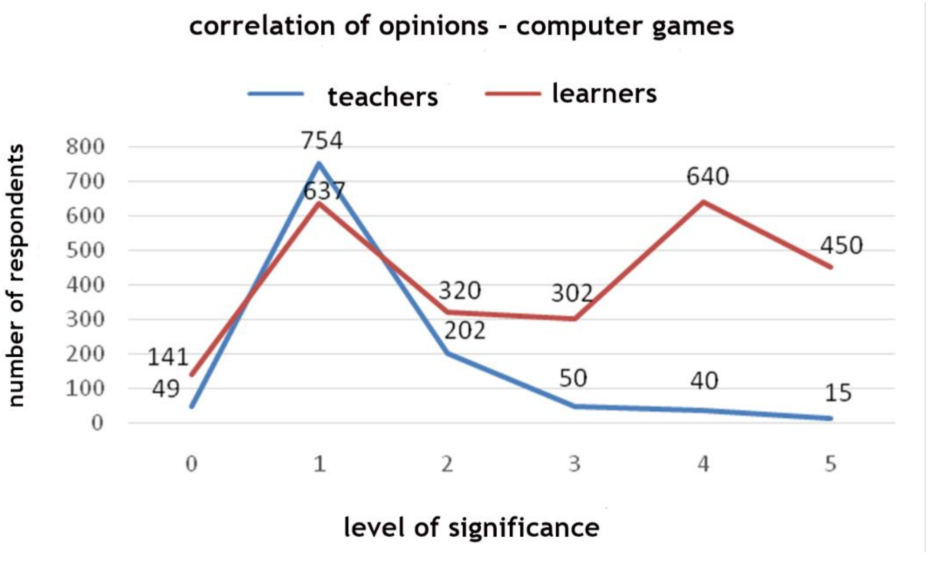

Fig. 1
The correlation between the learners' opinions and the teachers' views as for the frequency of using computer games by children and adolescents (the level of importance p = 0.1)

Source: own research.

In the light of the opinion stated a question arises: if the teachers are deeply convinced that computer games are so important for learners, do they, and to what extent, use game mechanisms in their didactic and educational work? Practical implementation of such methods is important as educational computer games – designed and constructed in accordance with engineering-technical and pedagogic guidelines (especially taking into account the methodology of a given subject) (Baron-Polańczyk, 2016, pp. 27–28) can fulfil fundamental developmental goals (knowledge development), pointing, among all, to active and critical learning, experimenting, solving problems and dealing with practical tasks. It turned out that it is worth combining the development of information competencies with a natural need "to play with what one finds in their closest environment, with learning by playing or pursuing attractive goals (among all "good fun") (Kamińska-Czubała, 2013, pp. 239). Openness of new generations to technological innovations and entertainment has put an equation mark between modern education (both curricular and extracurricular) and edutainment or gamification – concepts more and more frequently used in business, marketing, sale, human resources management and education in order to strengthen human motivation to initiate various activities and to change behaviours (Hamari, Koivisto, 2015, pp. 419–431; Robson et al., 2016, pp. 29–36; Smiderle et al., 2020; Nieto-Escamez, Roldan-Tapia, 2021). Game mechanisms applied in various areas of human life strengthen engagement among the participants of a given task and competitive or cooperation tendencies in a group. They are a potential way to build relations in a community and may promote individual or group activity, i.e. one based on cooperation. Using games in educational practice ensures a new way of conveying and assessing information, which may increase interactivity and enhance self-control of the learning process. In comparison to traditional teaching methods, they also let learners study and practise in a risk-free environment (Moro et al., 2020, s. 505; Vigoroso et al., 2021, art. no 1868).

There are publications that help to select appropriate games that can be regarded as digital learning tools supporting the realization of desired didactic and educational goals, including their assessment criteria. For example, there is a taxonomy of educational games based on eight broad categories and 26 unique elements. The authors linked each game element to positive and negative educational results (Helms et al., 2015, pp. 59). The aforesaid methods and tools make the didactic usefulness of designed computer games grow and they can be more and more successfully used at each educational stage to broaden learners' knowledge, shape and develop their skills and desired behaviours.

Summary

The analysis of professional literature and collected empirical material (ref. 2490 learners and 1110 teachers) and the research methods and techniques implemented lead to the following conclusions:

1. On the basis of the frequency distribution for the use of ICT by children and adolescents, in five areas of undertaken activities, it was possible to create their aggregate hierarchy of importance (according to the order indicated by the learners' and the teachers' choices), where the category of "computer games":
   - was attributed little weight by the learners (the fourth place with the weighed value of 1420). The learners state that they usually do not use ICT instruments frequently to enjoy themselves and play. They say that computer games are of little importance to them. Yet, interestingly enough, there is a group of staunch hobbyists (25.6%), who emphasise that it is the most important thing to them and on a daily basis they choose these activity forms most often (giving them the first level of importance).
   - was attributed the biggest weight by the teachers (the first place with the highest weighted value, 965).

- The frequency distribution obtained shows clear domination of the ‘computer games” category. In the teachers’ opinion, this area of activity is perceived by children and adolescents as the most important and practically the most frequently realized one. The majority of the teachers (67.9%) believe so, which is well illustrated by the established values, i.e. clearly distinguished the biggest number of answers obtained (the highest score) pointing to the first level of importance. The smallest number of the respondents (only 49 teachers) did not answer this question (weight zero).

2. The correlation between the learners’ opinion and the teachers’ remarks as for the frequency of using computer games by children and adolescents is average ($r \cong 0.49$); the correlation is positive and expresses one-directional changes in both variables taken into account.
3. The calculations showed significant statistical differences only in two cases – between the frequency of using computer games by children and adolescents and: the learners’ sex and educational stage. It was established that:
   - The boys (in comparison to the girls), in the hierarchy of importance of activities undertaken in the world of the media, attach the biggest importance to games and appreciate their digital offer more. Without any doubt (in accordance with the differentiating result of a high level), computer games and plays are a male domain.
   - The distribution of quantities in the function pertaining to the type of educational institution (learners’ educational stage) makes it possible to distinguish a decreasing tendency (together with the educational level growing, the frequency of activities declines) – the higher the educational stage, the lower weights are attributed by the learners to the use of ICT for games and plays.

The research establishing the correlation draws our attention to a significant similarity between the learners’ opinions and the teachers’ views as for the frequency of using computer games by the young generation. It showed similar opinions on this topic (which is illustrated by the positive correlation of an average/ intermediate degree) and revealed a slight “separation” of the children and adolescents’ world (“Us”) from the teachers’ world (“Them”), which is significant in the context of identifying charges’ needs and understanding the reasons why they undertake activities aiming at the use of new media in their everyday life (Baron-Polańczyk, 2019). Taking into account the empirical findings as for the similarities in the learners’ and teachers’ opinions and educational guidelines of the constructivism idea together with conclusions for practice deriving from it, there is hope that the teachers researched are “constructivist” enough for the ICT era. The similarities of opinions expressed by the subjects of school education became especially important in the period of the coronavirus epidemic

(Donoso et al., 2020; Ptaszek et al., 2020), when the realisation of the educational process depends on the efficiency with which online tools were implemented – reflecting information competencies, among all, in a rational use of didactic games that have had their well-defined place in the taxonomy of ICT use in education for many years (Taylor, 1980; Prensky, 2013). Game mechanisms (not necessarily using computer applications or board games as props!) of a significant educational potential (Frania, 2017, pp. 55, 68–70; 2021, pp. 452–459) are successfully used on a large scale in the process of education, constituting an efficient method s u p p o r t i n g the development of competencies, teamwork skills and cooperation, resourcefulness, creativity, ability to work under time pressure of both children and adults (Christ, Szmigiel, 2016, pp. 81–87; Wang et al., 2022, art. no 100463).

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Gry komputerowe w hierarchii ważności działań dzieci i młodzieży – raport z badań opinii uczniów i nauczycieli

Streszczenie

Artykuł przedstawia fragment badań diagnostyczno-korelacyjnych o charakterze ilościowo-jakościowym, ustalających kompetencje informacyjne uczniów w zakresie wykorzystywania metod i narzędzi ICT. Poszukuje odpowiedzi na pytanie określające częstość korzystania przez dzieci i młodzież z ICT (hierarchię ważności działań) w obszarze gier komputerowych. Zastosowano metodę sondażu diagnostycznego (ankietę i wywiad) oraz metody statystyczne (test niezależności chi-kwadrat i współczynnik korelacji Pearsona). Zbadano 2510 uczniów i 1110 nauczycieli. Ustalono, że: 1) wg zagregowanej hierarchii ważności działań podejmowanych w cyberprzestrzeni, grom komputerowym uczniowie nadali małą wagę (miejsce czwarte), a nauczyciele największą wagę (miejsce pierwsze); 2) istnieje związek (korelacja: przeciętna, dodatnia, pozytywna – $r \cong 0,49$) pomiędzy opinią uczniów a spostrzeżeniami nauczycieli co do częstości korzystania przez dzieci i młodzież z instrumentów ICT w celu grania; 3) obliczenia wykazały istotne różnice statystyczne pomiędzy częstością korzystania przez dzieci i młodzież z gier komputerowych a płcią i etapem kształcenia uczniów; 4) zauważalne jest podobieństwo między opinią uczniów a nauczycieli, nieznaczne „odseparowanie” świata dzieci i młodzieży („My”) od świata nauczycieli („Oni”).

Słowa kluczowe: badania diagnostyczno-korelacyjne, korelacja opinii, kompetencje informacyjne, wykorzystywanie ICT, gry komputerowe.

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Ideologies and practice of emotional education at school – interactional perspective

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Abstract

The aim of this article is to present and analyze research results on emotional education conducted in Polish schools. In the first part, which serves as a theoretical introduction to the topic, I presented my own concept of the ideology of emotional upbringing/education. I characterized the transmission ideology, romantic, otherwise non-directive, and humanistic-progressive in terms of the status of emotions in education and the educational methods used. The main part of the text contains an analysis of qualitative interviews with teachers about their experiences in pedagogical work on the development of students' emotional competencies. The article concludes with indications of good practices, which are also justified by the assumptions of transactional analysis.

Keywords: emotions, emotional education, emotional competence, education in schools.

Introduction

According to psychologists, emotional development should be considered as a series of increasing changes, accumulating experiences, and skills designed to lead to self-control and emotional reflexivity (Zeidner, 2008, p. 84–85). As a result, we have a better understanding of social relationships (J. Dunn), our moral orientation develops (C. Gilligan) and we have a richer repertoire of emotional expression and arousing emotions (cf. Lutz, 2012). M. Zeidner describes emotional development as an investment, when, based on individual predispositions through experience and independent work on ourselves, we gain more and more independence in managing emotions (2008). For further consideration, I adopt the perspective of cultural constructivism, according to which *the goal of emotional development is to achieve efficacy in emotionally evocative social transactions, i.e. the development of emotional competence*. According to S.L. Gordon, emotional development is the ability to accurately read emotional messages in role-defined contexts (1990). C. Saarni (1999) describes it as a set of abilities, knowledge, and skills that enable self-regulation and interpersonal exchange, including the recognition of one's own and others' emotions based on culturally defined indicators (e.g. body language, facial expression, language), the ability to name emotions or to explain their complexity, causes and effects. Emotional competence, which enables understanding, participation, and self-creation within a culture, develops around various forms of social activities. This understanding is useful in the analysis of pedagogical phenomena, as it implies learning through participation in culture, including the processes of education and upbringing organized in educational institutions. The emotional system, which is present indirectly in the symbolic layer of culture, is revealed in emotional exchanges. Hence interpersonal relationships and communication are essential for the socialization of emotions (cf. Przybylska, 2018). Assimilation of scripts occurs directly – based on one's own experiences, as well as observing the behavior of others in emotionally arousing situations – and indirectly through cultural messages (written texts, music, images, dance) and the stories of others (Abelson, Shrank, 2013; Hochschild, 2009).

Socialization transfer provides continuity of rules and meanings, allows understanding of behavior in a given emotionally charged situation, and comes from a specific cultural context, most importantly from the microculture of the family, which is the environment closest to the child, where he or she learns the expectations and beliefs contained in the scripts (Lutz, 2012; Zeidner, 2008). Social transfer occurs only in a situation of affiliation, so "emotions can be viewed both as a transmitter and as the transmission of socialization. The uniqueness of emotions and their crucial importance for understanding developmental processes derive precisely from this dual and broad role" (Saarni, 2005, p. 397). If we want to nurture and educate in the emotional sphere, the prerequisite is the permanence of the educational relationship, continuity of interactions, and a favorable emotional climate in the classroom, in which social training takes place naturally through participation. It is not enough to merely list these goals in the school's educational programs.

Although emotional discourse has been prominent in pedagogy for the past fifteen years or so, the pedagogical practice has dealt with issues of emotion marginally and interveningly. The only areas where the value of experience is fully appreciated are all forms of art therapy and education through art (Krasoń, 2013), as well as therapeutic and educational programmes centred around socio-emotional competence. The interpretation of the category of emotional education is complicated by the sociocultural context and the diversity of educational discourses, immersed in different theoretical and axiological perspectives (Śliwerski, 2015). Referring rather loosely to the concept of L. Kohlberg and R. Mayer, I will address the conventionally abstracted three ideologies of emotional education: cultural transmission, romanticism, and humanistic-functionalism (2000). References made to selected concepts considered categorical will necessarily be selective, arbitrarily serving to justify the thesis that several categorical conditions must be met to educate emotionally, as will be discussed below. Following the accepted structure of pedagogical concepts (Rubacha, 2003), when using the category 'emotional education', I will consider educational activities and teaching that do not take place separately in practice.

Emotional education in the ideology of cultural transmission

To cultivate, to change, to shape - concepts of categorical importance for the tradition of cultural transmission (cf. Śliwerski, 2015) – also refer to the emotional sphere. According to this view, the ideal of upbringing is the same as the complete control of emotions and their subordination to the intellectual and social sphere, since the goal of upbringing is viewed as the maintenance of the continuity of culture. The cultural transmission implements adaptive rationality (Habermas, 2002), in which the goals of emotional education take minimizing and corrective forms (cf. Gurycka, 2008). Minimizing goals aims to reduce or weaken impulsiveness in order to decrease its impact on social action and behaviour. In the field of emotional rules and meanings, which is of interest to me in this article, the entry into the culture of emotions takes place naturally through experiencing, learning concepts, and "practicing" rules, to develop an attitude that accepts social reality (de Tchorzewski, 2016). The realization of the adultist vision of personality: fully controlling emotions, subject to rigid rules of experiencing and expressing them, puts the onus on the teacher/parent to control the child's emotions, i.e. to evoke and suppress certain emotions in the pupils. Shame, anger, fear, but also pride, satisfaction, or curiosity express readiness for a certain action (including inaction) and are a tool for controlling the behavior of pupils, stimulating appropriate behavior, and suppressing undesirable ones. Consistently, emotional education takes place in the paradigm of tamed emotions, historically established in European culture (Rosenwein, 2006). Education becomes a condition for civilizing emotions, socializing them, and subordinating them to the rationale of reason.

Each social space (situation, relationship, interpersonal arrangement) has its own framing rules that help to interpret the situation and match behavior to it (Gordon, 1990, 148; Hochschild, 2009, p. 123). Our emotional knowledge is tacit knowledge – children learn the meaning of emotions and emotional behavior through participation and experience. In an environment subordinated to authoritarian ideology, this participation is based on coercion, conferred authority, and status inequality (Kohlberg, Mayer, 2002). From the perspective of analysis of the educational situation, the adult (parent, teacher) knows what the child feels and should feel and how and when to show emotions. If we apply TA concepts here – the ego of the educator is dominated by the Controlling Parent: strict and emotionally cool, possibly distanced from the emotions of the student. Firm control, distance in relationships, and even emotional coldness characteristic of cold emotional attitude errors (Gurycka, 2008) are reinforced by punishment for expressing or not expressing certain emotions (e.g., expressing anger when dealing with an adult, laughing during a lesson in class, crying in public) in the relationship with parents, in the school classroom, and contact with the teacher. Thus, so obvious to the ideology of cultural transmission are: inducing fear of a difficult task, or failure, appealing to a sense of shame in front of peers, parents, and teachers, and encouraging competition or punishment for expressing emotions. Misrepresenting the child (cf. Gurycka, 2008) in the application of adaptive parenting means attributing to the child characteristics such as weakness, imperfection, and emotionality, which in this case have only negative connotations.

The belief that lack is a fundamental attribute of the child identity, who is not yet an adult (Szmidt, 2013; Śliwerski, 2015), in practice manifests itself in all forms of authoritarianism and a directive style of work (Gordon, 2014). Emotions are, in the realm of this lack, a significant component of childishness, they are such a remnant of nature that social control and pedagogical influence are supposed to replace with adaptation understood to a limited extent as suppression of emotional expressivity and guided by rational and moral rules. In educational activities, the prevailing attitude is: I (the educator) am OK, You (the student), due to the "lack" of emotional self-control – are not OK yet, You might be OK when you submit to the rigors and expectations. These assumptions contradict the principles of good school functioning when the presence of emotions such as curiosity, displeasure, calmness, or joy determines how a person behaves and learns (Żylińska, 2013). The aim of emotional education is to achieve a level of self-control that enables disciplined and subordinate functioning in spheres involving personal experience and emotional expression to collective rules (cf. Abu Lughod, 2012; Gordon, 1990).Thus, this leaves no room for self-control, self-training of emotions, and self-responsibility, which are components of emotional competence.

Emotional education in romantic ideology – non-directive education

Referring to the second, theoretical model of upbringing, attention should be paid to the *inter-esse* sphere of the subjects of upbringing entangled in mutual relations (Stewart, Joines, 2016). The source of the notions categorising upbringing as an intersubjective, wholly personal, and individual process is, among others, the romantic narrative present in the currents of New Education, humanistic pedagogy, and progressivism, as well as many other more and less influential currents that will be omitted in this study (Przybylska, 2018). What they have in common is a naturalistic view of the human being and a child-focused animation of the educational process, creating a unique 'place' for understanding and supporting the development of human emotionality.

The focus on the nature of the child changes not only the ontological status of emotions (they are recognised as natural and therefore good) but also their pragmatic status in pedagogy. They have ceased to be the periphery of pedagogical interactions, becoming an important area of the child's and the educator's behaviour, their relations, and educational activities. Therefore, from the outset, it is possible to pose the thesis that we owe the first significant turn towards emotions in upbringing to the romantic current. It can be read from the flagship slogans of the various pedagogical theories and practices included in this orientation, whose rudiment is the conviction of man's good nature of the child's innate abilities, and the value of natural experiences.

The appreciation of childhood as a stage of life and the focus on the nature and needs of the child means that, by definition, feelings have the same status in an educational situation as actions and information. Every emotion, if it is real, not only can but should emerge, and the educator should respect the freedom to feel and encourage expression. From the perspective of pedagogical practice, it was the individualistic (humanistic), such as those of S. Baley, S. Szuman, E. Fromm, or A. Maslow, and progressive concepts by H. Rowid, J. Korczak, J. Dewey, M. Montessori, or A.S. Neill, that promoted the idea of fostering rather than suppressing expression – an essential feature of the so-called paedocentric animation of upbringing (cf. Śliwerski, 2015). Taking the non-directive (romantic) framework for interpreting emotional education, we assume that children are self-responsible and sufficiently mature so that they have complete freedom of action and the right to express individuality. There must be no prohibition, and the educator must follow the pupils and create the psychological conditions for their self-expression (Neill, 1994, p. 34). Punishing emotions, forcing the pupils to limit their natural expressivity and to act against the natural needs determined by curiosity, the search for joy and fulfilment does not make personal feelings disappear; moreover, as Z. Freud asserted, they reveal themselves in neuroses. Therefore, a prerequisite for the success of child-centred education is the rejection of disciplining pupils, including the restriction of the free expression of feelings, needs, and biological impulses. The pronounced "warming" of the educational relationship and the appreciation of the child is particularly revealed in a model of full equality and reciprocity in relations with adults and the saturation of contact with respect for the person and his or her experiences. J.W. David called such an attitude the "love of human souls", M. Łopatkova advocated an absolute attitude of love and emotional bonding, T. Adorno called for interpersonal authority in upbringing as an absolute condition for achieving subjectivity and autonomy (cf. Śliwierski, 2015).

Adopting child-centred perspective in emotional upbringing, creative and optimising goals will prevail over corrective and minimising ones (Gurycka, 2008). Since emotions are good and necessary, the aim of upbringing is not to suppress, train and channel them in forms acceptable to the educator, but to express and find ways of expressing them socially (e.g. natural expressivity, through art, social activity, etc.), and ultimately to achieve inner truthfulness and congruence with oneself.

An upbringing that draws on a paedocentric focus on the needs and emotions of the child is perpetuated in cultures where individualistic patterns prevail and where liberal rules maximise individual freedom. In the process of upbringing and socialisation, ego-centred emotions such as anger, rage, or competition are stimulated, while socially engaged emotions and attitudes such as empathy, sensitivity, trust, caring, patience or devotion are secondary (Markus, Kitayama, 1990). Following children's emotions and trusting their self-responsibility, if not adapted to their age and abilities, can disrupt their subject orientation, limit their sense of agency and taking responsibility for their own behaviour.

Assuming the role of the Caring Parent who does not set intelligible and transparent rules for emotional behaviour, adult's affectation and excessive warm focus on the child maintains emotional immaturity and infantile behaviour even at a later age (Stewart, Joines, 2016, p. 36). We are increasingly using the term emotional illiteracy to describe the worrying scale of this phenomenon, the leading main cause of which lies in inappropriate parental attitudes. These include the warm mistakes: emotional extroversion (telling the child what he or she feels, what he or she should feel, or solving interpersonal conflicts for them), emotional overprotection (the parent's constant physical and psychological closeness, the parent/guardian experiencing the child's emotions, distracting from negative emotions), expressing affectation towards the child (constant kissing, stroking, praising, even for doing obvious things), excessive focus on everything that concerns the child and, above all, abandoning rules and pushing b e h a v i o u r a l   b o u n d a r i e s inadequate to the child's age and abilities (cf. Gurycka, 2008).

Acceptance of emotions is a meta-argument, but it is not the ultimate goal of emotional upbringing and education. It is the starting point for work with the educator's own emotions, the child's emotions, and the group as a whole - work that should lead to developing emotional competence and participation in an explicit emotional culture. Emotional rules, which not only constrain but also delimit the area of freedom, are a source of meanings through which situations, actions, and behaviours can be explained, and the only way to socialise them is to experience them under the "guidance" of an emotionally capable educator. In this aspect, it is necessary to carefully set behavioural boundaries and to build a relatively non-directive educational relationship in which the child experiences the feeling rules and gradually internalises them reflexively (Hochschild, 2009, p. 7). Emotions, feelings, and needs arising from the Child's status are at least partly reflexively regulated by the conscious Adult. This finding leads us to consider emotional education as a humanistic-functional (progressive) process.

Emotional education in humanist-progressive ideology

In humanist-oriented pedagogies (C. Rogers, E. Fromm, A. Brühlmeier), emotions, feelings, and experiences are not a collateral, secondary aspect of the educational relationship but evidence of its existence and proof of the closeness that is an absolute condition for education through humanist experience.

Adopting the perspective of radical humanism, we practise an optimistic pedagogy accepting the child, oriented towards full maturity through self-education (cf. Śliwerski, 2005). We develop a biophilic orientation and its distinctive characteristics, which are manifested in bodily, intellectual, and emotional-volitional processes. Desirable human qualities are warmth, joy, and optimism (Fromm, 1994, p. 21). One can venture to say that the biophile is not free 'from' emotions, but is instead free 'to' emotions – he or she experiences and reflexively 'uses' them. He or she is attentive to the feelings, acts, and expresses feelings in relationships in such a way as not to limit the expressiveness and well-being of others, does not blame himself or herself for feeling or not feeling something, and 'practices love' (Fromm, 1994). Conceptualised in this way, biophilic orientation in emotional aspects is close to emotional intelligence in the so-called mixed personality models (Goleman, 1997).

An upbringing that values and stimulates emotional engagement using drama, art, movement, play, or dance, affirms the value of the experience itself and its developmental potential. The development of the child takes place in a situation of a warm emotional relationship, a sense of freedom, and the absence of threats. The Transactional Analysis approach, entering into close relationships, accepts the student's emotions according to the conviction that they enhance the development of critical thinking and are "humanistic experiences". Such forms of emotionally and intellectually engaged creativity oppose the objectification of education and the educational relationship. Finally, it facilitates positive interpersonal and intrapersonal attitudes (Fromm, 1994, p. 15).

Transactional Analysis shares the humanistic belief in the positive potential of human beings and the possibilities of their self-development. People are Ok, People can think, and People can change; these basic assumptions of Transactional Analysis (Newell, Jeffery, 2002, p. 5–7), are tantamount to adopting a humanistic-functional vision of emotional education that values and develops the diverse capacities of human beings. The outcome of emotional development should be autonomy in managing one's emotional behaviour and self-training (Zeidner, 2008).

An emotional education with a therapeutic approach to emotions is possible in individual upbringing, e.g., at home, possibly in individual work with students experiencing emotional difficulties (therapy). The progressive-critical orientation of education, which also values the role of emotions, seems to indicate the direction of fundamental change in school education. It is a more practical strategy, defining specific areas of knowledge, skills, and attitudes regarding emotional competence. These are verbalization and reflective regulation of emotions according to feeling rules (framing, experience, expression rules), self-awareness, and recognition of others' emotions. It is much easier to consider emotions in education from the perspective of ensuring students' well-being, and developing the often euphemistically described emotional intelligence: wisdom, empathy, or self-control. It is more difficult to develop knowledge and critical competence because, as P. McLaren writes, one must then draw experiences from the surrounding culture and problematise these experiences (2015, 272). Exercising, instilling rules, controlling behaviour, explaining, and even setting an example – this is not the emotional education that should be sought. What should be called for is teaching a 'language of possibility' that develops the potential for transformative learning, sustaining attentiveness and mindfulness in taking action and justifying it (cf. Giroux, Witkowski, 2010; McLaren, 2015).

Emotional education at school is an area rarely reflected upon in the course of teachers' work. The educator's theoretical reflection on what he or she does, how he or she does it, and why he or she does it, results in giving an educational character to those activities that have not had such a character so far. It is not enough to say that emotions are important and to declare one's involvement in the educational relationship. Only in personal contact with the educator, in a space of intersubjective dialogue, self-discovery, self-reflection and conscious and responsible participation in a joint educational project are possible. T. Gordon, in line with his belief that a child behaves as he or she feels, encouraged concern for the communication in pedagogical relations, also by talking about feelings and their consequences (2014). Feelings and how students and teachers deal with them are not a secondary element to the aims of educating, but a *sine qua non* condition for the existence of a parenting relationship. The communicative actions in a positively oriented interaction make it possible to look at the pupil, to recognise from what he or she says and what he or she does not want to say, his or her emotions, and to create a situation-transaction that promotes understanding and agreement (cf. Jagieła, Sarnat-Ciastko, 2015). This model of relationship is similar to the scheme: I am Ok – You are Ok, if even the student's actions do not fall within the limits of accepted norms, the student as a person is absolutely accepted. Possible subjects for corrective interventions can be ways of expressing emotions or ways of controlling emotions in interpersonal conflicts - the emotional pupil is always the subject who learns to name, express, and control emotions in educational interactions. Ultimately, the goal is to achieve or approach to the Adult status of ego.

Concepts of emotional education – summary

The basis of every concept of emotional education and practice in this area is the concept of a human being and his or her emotions. The concept currently implemented in the Polish school is implicitly contained in cultural texts, including those proposed at school, as well as symbols, emotional climate, and unwritten rules governing the everyday life of the school, while explicitly contained in the educational programmes of the institutions, their educational offerings, as well as in the assumptions and training programme of future teachers (Przybylska, 2018). Discussions on the essence of emotional education can be reduced to a dichotomous attitude towards the pupil and the changes that the educational action is supposed to bring about. On the one hand, it can be a focus on tasks and norms, as in the case of forms of cultural transmission that consequently lead to authoritarianism. In such education approach, the values and meanings of institutional emotional culture prevail. At the opposite end of the continuum are child-centred activities that develop emotional competence through their efforts. Another difference concerns the mode of action of the educator: in the first case, grooming, coercion, and control predominate, while in the second case, accompanying the child. The humanist-progressive ideology seems to transcend the limitation of both. It does not give up its educative influence and seeks to maintain the subjectivity of the student (Przybylska, 2014).

In the historically established adaptationist discourse, emotional competence is important for preserving of the social *status quo*; it is reduced by control and restrictions on freedom of expression to maintain group cohesion, often against the needs of the individual and social change. In the emancipatory discourse, education for emotional culture is meant to stimulate reflective and creative work on emotions. By freeing the person from the reproductive compulsion to reproduce patterns of emotional culture (feeling rules), education leads to transgression, while attentiveness and reflexivity allow for active and creative participation in emotional culture.

I assume that emotions outside the realm of pedagogical interactions (relational qualities) are first and foremost an essential element, ontologically inscribed in human development. Without reference to the sphere of emotional experiences and sensations and the pedagogical concern for their development, it is impossible to speak of education in general. It loses its meaning and contradicts the ideals in every discourse: romantic – care for the child, cultural transmission – introduction to the achievements of emotional culture, and constructivist – formation of emotional competencies enabling active social participation. Conceived subjectively, competence, realising the Habermasian postulate of talking and doing, manifests itself in the ability to express one's own emotional and intellectual states, to understand information (emotional, intellectual) coming from other people and to act under the knowledge of emotions and the particular context of action (Czerepaniak-Walczak, 2010, p. 34–138). Reconstructing education and emotional competence in a critical-emancipatory perspective significantly expands the fields of interpretation of knowledge, skills, and readiness to act in emotional culture. The highest standard of competence thus means not so much entering roles controlled by cultural scripts, but gradually transcending them.

Although we find in theory an anchorage for differentiated practices of emotional education, in school practice emotions are more often treated as a background, a side effect of the training processes – they are more often suppressed as distractors, indicative of students' social immaturity. In contrast, teachers' knowledge and skills in this area remain a matter of individual predisposition rather than professionalisation. In planning this research, I intend to look at strategies of interaction that target emotions and to identify whether any of the ideologies mentioned dominate the teacher's description of the school experience.

Own research – objectives, and methods

The research results presented in the text come from a project investigating the emotional culture of schools in south-western Poland. The research aimed to find out what strategies for working with emotions are used by teachers in the schools surveyed and what systemic measures the schools implement. As a result of random and purposive selection, 33 teachers (including 3 men) participated in the interviews and agreed to be interviewed and recorded using a dictaphone. The teachers interviewed were aged between 30 and 55 years, all declared a university degree, 10 of them having completed a postgraduate degree related to their professional work. The length of service in the study group ranged from 5 to 26 years. Qualitative research was conducted in 10 municipal schools in the Silesian Voivodeship, 2 in the Lesser Poland Voivodeship, and 1 in the Sub-Carpathian Voivodeship. A problem-focused qualitative interview method was used, in which part of the questions concerned the practices of the surveyed teachers to support the development of students' emotional competence.

Own research results. The practice of working with emotions at school

In official rhetoric, emotional education is one of the priorities enshrined in schools' prevention and education programmes, but in practice, activities are often reduced to the delivery of *ad hoc* workshops, especially in situations of accumulating educational problems in the school and critical events (incidents of bullying, online violence, aggression in classrooms, use of legal highs and drugs and even suicide attempts). However, such programmes, which are essential for intervention, are of little value for the development of emotional competence if they are not embedded in a positive emotional climate in the classroom and school. Since, according to discursive and cultural understandings of emotion, students develop their emotional skills and knowledge in everyday interactions in different school spaces, teachers were asked how students' social-emotional development is supported in their school and whether they have developed good practices. The first observation, which gives context to the statements below, is also fundamental to the description of the emotional culture of the surveyed institutions. Firstly, the teachers did not use a scientific understanding of emotional competence and development and used colloquial, simplistic meanings, such as equating competence with being polite and kind to others, a disciplined and diligent student, or ultimately with an exemplary behavioural grade. Their statements on the methods of emotional education were overwhelmingly laconic and directed their attention to other actors in the school and, more broadly, in the educational system. In their statements, they drew attention to the promotion of pro-social behaviour, educational talks, and lessons conducted by the school psychologist and pedagogue, the introduction of detailed rules in the discipline procedures, the signing of contracts with pupils, i.e. de facto those activities that serve to control and assess pupils' behaviour.

The majority of interviewees (20 persons) withdrew from answering this question, and what is more, these teachers admitted that they had not heard of emotional competence and emotional intelligence before (5 persons), or they only used a colloquial and very simplified understanding, e.g., they defined emotional intelligence as self-control or personal culture (8 persons).

Except for four female teachers, all respondents declared that ‘this thing’, which in the research was called emotional education or otherwise support for the development of emotional competence, was important. The female teachers (French and geography in high school, physics, and Polish in primary school), who explicitly opposed any attempt – as they called it – to impose new tasks on teachers, regarded supporting pupils’ emotional development and representing a high standard of emotional culture in their behaviour as a new invention of theorists and an additional, unnecessary duty. However - as a primary school mathematics teacher noted:

> Emotions are present at school. In lessons, they [students – note I.P.] show emotions less, at breaks they poke each other and express anger. That’s what the duty rosters are for, so they don’t kill each other. There are also a lot of good emotions, they write something to each other, and give presents.

This presence of emotions, their immanent connection to personal and social relations, implies an educative action. It is recognised by the teacher quoted above:

> You have to react to emotions, I get in between them, and sometimes when there is a lesson, to save it at least partially, I separate the students and we only talk at break time. Sometimes it’s good because their emotions will subside. It’s not just their business, we have to act!

Significantly for the identification of emotional labour rules, teachers admitted that they most often did not reflect on whether they were interacting with pupils’ emotional development, and it was only the interview that provoked them to reflect and reinterpret their daily school activities in this perspective:

> I will say this for myself. I pay attention to this. Emotional education at school is important. Very important. I would like to develop as a person, not just as a teacher. I am searching, learning, and finding out on my own. There is no organised support system, and even training for teachers about talking to students, and parents, dealing with difficult situations is rare (chemistry teacher, primary school).

> I hope I am teaching them emotional culture, but now I have to think about it... I am teaching them as they are jumping down each other’s throats trying to express these negative feelings. I have to explain to them that emotions must not be translated into actions and there must be no hand-to-hand. When they complain, I make them realise that they have to deal with people in different situations, they will have to accept and live among people and with different people (maths teacher, primary school).

The above statements were not representative of the surveyed group. The majority of teachers did not recognise in their daily work the activities and situations in which they naturally work with pupils' emotions, which are important for the individual and social development of pupils and the justification of the meaning of their work at school, as one Polish language teacher in a general secondary school put it:

> Through the implementation of educational hours, didactic programmes, class meetings, excursions, and voluntary activities, the school also enters into the emotional sphere of the pupils, because in addition to the didactic process, it allows them to deal with problems that are not directly related to learning, but are an important part of the pupils' lives. It teaches empathy, and compassion and develops a desire to help others. It is important with what baggage we go into the world and how prepared we are to deal with other people.

The practices listed above can be referred to the different levels of the school's educational culture. Among them, there are listed activities that directly result from the functions of the school and the teacher (contact with the educator, educational lessons, cooperation with the educator, workshops, etc.) and those non-formalised activities that are not controlled and their educational value is not assessed. Since the emotional system, present indirectly in the symbolic layer of culture, is revealed in emotional exchanges, relationships and interpersonal communication are essential for the socialisation of the rules of emotional culture. Only 5 of the surveyed teachers pointed to everyday interactions, attitudes, and behaviour of all participants in school life as a source of educational patterns and content.

The practices mentioned by the teachers include systemic solutions and those resulting from everyday school practices. Their value is that they draw on the organisational, social, and cultural potential of the school:

1) systemic solutions stemming from the school's statutes or developed at the school and introduced by a decision of the board of education:
   a) classroom mediators (1 school) who help to resolve conflicts in groups and also in the teacher-class relationship; teacher tutors (1 school) – volunteer teachers who meet with students, talk and work out together with the student how to solve problems. In addition to school difficulties, students most often seek support in interpersonal conflicts and group relations. A teacher tutor who participated in the research admitted that during these meetings, she very often helps students to develop strategies to deal with their emotions;
   b) an active pedagogue and school psychologist (5 schools), who in addition to intervention and prevention activities, implement projects, organise workshops, consultations for parents, and integration programmes for classes;

c) educational team (2 schools) – teachers, in cooperation with a psychologist and a pedagogue, as well as with the psychological-educational counselling centre, carry out extensive activities for the development of students' social-emotional competencies: workshops, meetings with parents, lectures, and workshops for teachers. In the other schools, the teachers surveyed admitted that emotional education issues are not addressed in these teams unless they are linked to learning or behavioural problems;
d) classes with the class teacher, the so-called 'educational lessons', which, on the recommendation of the head teacher (2 schools), must be devoted to working with the group and not to administrative activities. The value of educational lessons and contact with a teacher who is involved with the students was recognised by some respondents. One teacher appreciated the importance of contact with the form tutor as follows:

> With the current core curriculum, the school could teach these skills, but it teaches them on a much smaller scale. There is a big role for the educator, who can influence students through educational lessons, extracurricular activities, conversations with students, or – as I do – additional excursions. I meet students, we talk, we listen to music, we watch films, and I take them on trips to important historical places (history teacher, primary school).

A high school class teacher thinks and feels the same way:

> I feel unsatisfied, the contact with my class has decreased a lot and I feel bad about it because I only have three hours with them. To be a good class teacher, you need to be with your class for at least five hours a week. I tell the headmistress, "I'd rather have more hours..." How many of my biology lessons have already been spent talking! You can mobilise them more, know what's going on and react (Biology teacher, high school).

Emotional competencies can be developed in various ways during educational lessons. Firstly, the teacher can make use of methodical materials for use in classes to develop the social, emotional, and at the same time communicative competencies of the students. In addition to this, discussing with the class what is going on in the social space of the school and its surroundings, talking about interpersonal relationships, naming emotions, showing the connection between feelings, thinking, and behaviour, or showing and practising different ways of dealing with emotions are forms of emotional coaching whose value is underestimated in schools. They do not require any organisational or financial effort but 'only' an emotionally competent teacher who is aware of his or her role in the development of emotional competence in school.

2) Day-to-day practices in school during which teachers work with pupils' emotions and pupils learn about emotional rules and develop skills:
   a) obligatory daily close contact with the class teacher (4 teachers), who takes responsibility for the class and looks after the students' welfare, needs and interests:

Contrary to what is said, the school can do a lot. Many emotions are experienced here. The teacher has to pay attention to them, to help students work through them. I talk, reassure, and explain e.g. before an exam, or a test that they can be nervous and tell them how they can cope (Polish teacher, primary school).

b) relationships with emotionally competent teachers who recognise and reflectively manage their emotions and those of their students (3 teachers). Teachers acknowledged that actions are mostly interventionist and there is a lack of a developed, systemic approach to emotions in school:

Of course, I feel I have to educate at break time, in the classroom, or on a trip. When going outside the school walls, I also respond. Emotional education? Unfortunately, I feel that this duty falls on the school in these drastic cases (geography teacher, primary school).

In interpersonal relationships, different emotions come to the fore and this is also where we work so that they know how to express them. The current system prevents the systemic training of emotional intelligence. This is done on occasion, in individual lessons (history teacher, primary school).

c) multifaceted upbringing and didactic interactions (3 teachers) – teachers usually combine emotional education with the formation of social competencies and pro-social attitudes. A Polish language teacher at a lower secondary school gave an example of a film project in which pupils discuss films they have watched together, and describe the experiences of film characters and their feelings. They learn to name emotions and understand their relevance for social relations and decision-making. It is not only within humanities education that meaningful work with emotions can be undertaken. A chemistry teacher (primary school) sees considerable potential for emotional education:

Emotional education can go on in the classroom. I think I allow myself sometimes that it's not just chemistry. I bring up practical threads e.g. when we discuss the formula for carbon monoxide, we talk through how it is in practice. I deliberately create fear so that they remember. If there is a parenting issue, I don't sweep it under the carpet, we talk, I don't shout, and I don't comment. If it's a sensitive issue, I meet with the students after the lesson.

d) cooperation within the pedagogical team, sharing own ideas, and so-called "collegial visits" (3 schools). Based on her many years of experience as a Polish language teacher and teacher of creative activity classes (primary school), she is convinced that only a culture of cooperation and mutual respect is a guarantee for a good educational environment:

A common strategy is important. Collegial visits, once frequent, gave signals from the observer that something was wrong. What the teacher did with these observations was another matter, but he was informed. Sometimes teachers ask me how I do it that I have such a good relationship with the students, and deal with them. I say: 'Come and see, I'd love to come to your lessons too'. Young teachers don't want to hear about it at all. It's like undermining their authority... However, it's about something completely different, about sharing good practice.

Regardless of the values and goals of education contained in official documents, declared in speeches, and proclaimed on school posters and newspapers, it is in everyday interactions that students can develop emotionally. Bearing in mind that emotional education takes place in everyday life and its rituals and interactions, it is even more worrying that teachers do not reflect on their actions. They fail to recognise the everyday practices that foster emotional education, among other things, they are not aware of being emotional role models. They do not connect with their professional role how to express and name emotions, self-presentation, or self-control in difficult situations. They do not know that talking about emotions, linking them to other experiences, and situations, and explaining the consequences of emotional behaviour is education in its own right. Teachers were mostly reluctant to talk about tasks in this sphere and reduced them to interventions, conflict resolution, reassuring, and sometimes comforting students. They also did not address social-emotional development during the educational lessons. This clearly negative image of emotional education at school was overdone by 17 of the 33 teachers surveyed. Based on the analysis of the teachers' narratives as a whole, excerpts of which are presented here, it can be concluded that a transmissive model of emotional education prevails in schools. This is evidenced by the frequently used words and phrases describing the school's handling of emotions, such as conflict, difficulty, control, "you can't give in...", "you mustn't shout...", "why to waste time analysing who is to blame...", "this is not the place to cry...", "there is no time to learn because of their whims...". The majority of the teachers surveyed (20 people) do not know how, do not want to, or do not think about how progression in emotional behaviour can be stimulated: how to encourage naming emotions, linking them to a behaviour, a specific feeling e.g. physical or situation, and how to help deal with aversive and difficult feelings.

The collected descriptions of school practices do not give a shadow of an illusion – in the majority of the surveyed schools, pupils do not learn to understand and apply the rules of emotional culture, and they do not practise emotional skills – at least not in officially organised classes. The way of talking about emotions, linking them to difficult situations, lack of time and priority teaching tasks, the need to implement the core curriculum, or, finally, the lack of professional competence to act in this area clearly indicates that the school separates education and teaching. This is a dangerous procedure that reduces the effectiveness of teaching. The importance of the emotional-volitional sphere in creating the context for learning is pointed out, among others, by D. Pankowska: "In transactional analysis, effective teaching must be linked to what is happening in the student (in the sphere of his/her feelings, motivation, attitudes), in the peer group in the classroom and mutual relations with the teacher. Creating optimal conditions for teaching is not only about the proper organisation of the educational process, but also about creating an emotional climate that would foster the development of the pupils' subjectivity" (2012, p. 25).

In their statements and comments on school reality, several of the teachers interviewed (3 female teachers and 2 male teachers) emphasised their educational attitudes, which differed from the prevailing rhetoric and school practice. I have quoted their statements most often, as they indicated a high level of awareness of the role of emotions in education and everyday school life. These were the teachers who expressed concern for pupils' well-being, noted the link between well-being and positive emotions (e.g. the role of mirror neurons) and learning, did not prohibit pupils from expressing negative emotions (anger, embarrassment, shame, fear, etc.), but encouraged them to name, work through and constructively express them. Literally, they did emotional coaching.

Taking into account the investive way in which emotional competence is formed (Zeidner, 2008), its cultural nature (Saarni, 1999), and the interpersonal modelling of emotional behaviour, several guidelines can be addressed to educators, parents, and teachers, also derived from transactional analysis (Jagieła, 2011; Pankowska, 2012). The development of emotional competence is fostered by:

1) avoiding communication blockages such as punishing, judging and moralising, typical of the I'm Ok – You're Not Ok attitude, which blocks the development of emotional awareness and leads to the suppression of emotions;
2) control of the parenting behaviour in terms of the negative states of the Critical Parent and the Caring Parent – de facto this is the avoidance of parenting errors leading to the objectification of the child/student and the identification of the child/student with an obstacle as in parenting errors such as rigorism, inhibition of activity, giving in or treating the child as weak as in substitution;
3) the use of the language of acceptance characteristic of the I am OK – You are OK life position, through which the child/student learns to name his or her own and other people's emotions, and attempts reflective self-control. The positive life position of the teacher facilitates the expression of needs and emotions characteristic of the child's state and helps in the transition to the adult state - the essence of emotional competence;
4) building close, trusting and empathetic relationships with students based on the belief that People are OK;

5) ensuring the condition of the pupil's subjectivity, understood as the goal of upbringing (subject orientation) and as a model of the educational relationship in which the child can make choices and take responsibility for his or her actions;
6) the positive emotional climate of daily interactions – use of personal classroom management style and non-directive ways of solving difficulties;
7) caring for relationships in the classroom, i.e. talking meaningfully about emotions, respecting emotional individuality, and taking into account children's and young people's needs and feelings when organising work in the classroom;
8) working with parents to improve their pedagogical culture, i.e.
   a) developing knowledge of how to deal with the child to meet his or her needs and support development in all spheres,
   b) deepening interpersonal competencies (such as taking the child's perspective, being aware of what the child is and what the child's needs are at the moment, being able to communicate to set reasonable limits for the child and resolve conflicts) and intrapersonal competencies (self-awareness including reaching the highest levels of awareness of one's own emotions, positive self-image, emotional self-control).

Valid for the realisation of the above-mentioned conditions are practical educational guidelines derived from transactional analysis (Bereźnicka, 2016; Jagieła and Sarnat-Ciastko, 2015; Pankowska, 2005), non-directive parenting by T. Gordon (2014), methods of communicating with the child by A. Mazlich and E. Faber (2013) or classroom discipline strategies based on an AT in the study by C. Edwards (2006, p. 158–187).

Summary

Undoubtedly, it is the parents who determine the development of emotional competence, and the school, child, and family support services can only attempt to support the development of their pupils through training, workshops, corrective and therapeutic measures, and educating parents. Ultimately, whenever there is a discussion about what the school could do for the pupil, the key question is how to prepare teachers for educational work, in this case with the pupil's emotions. If one accepts one of the basic assumptions of contemporary pedeutology concerning personality work in the teaching profession (cf. Kwiatkowska, 2003), the question of how to strengthen the teacher's predispositions is more legitimate. Working with one's personality imposes a 'compulsion' of a high intellectual and emotional standard on the teacher. Invoking the words of Antonio Gramsci, the teacher, like every human being "[...] is engaged in some form of intellectual activity – he or she is a philosopher, an artist, a gourmand, he is a participant in a particular conception of the world, he has a moral consciousness, and so he perpetuates an image of the world or changes it, provides new models of thinking" (Jenks, 1999, p. 113). Teachers practice a specialised cognitive style and emotional ideology rooted in the everyday life and school organizational culture. They are the intellectual elite who create and represent the emotional culture of the school. What teachers say and how they say it, what emotions and how they express them, and finally how they relate to the students pupils are indicative of what ego status dominates their personality: do they work with emotions like an Adult, do they succumb to their own emotions like a Child, or do they focus excessively on inhibiting emotions like a Parent? The question of competence in working with a child's emotions is, therefore a question of what kind of person the teacher is and whether he or she is emotionally competent.

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Ideologie i praktyka edukacji emocjonalnej w szkole – perspektywa interakcyjna

Streszczenie

Celem artykułu jest prezentacja i analiza wyników badań na temat edukacji emocjonalnej prowadzonej w polskiej szkole. W części pierwszej, stanowiącej teoretyczne wprowadzenie do problematyki, przedstawiłam autorską koncepcję ideologii wychowania/edukacji emocjonalnej. Scharakteryzowałam ideologię transmisji, romantyczną, inaczej niedyrektywną, oraz humanistyczno-progresywną w aspekcie statusu emocji w wychowaniu oraz stosowanych metod wychowawczych. Zasadnicza część tekstu zawiera analizę wywiadów jakościowych z nauczycielami na temat ich doświadczeń w zakresie pracy pedagogicznej nad rozwojem kompetencji emocjonalnej uczniów. Artykuł kończą wskazania – dobre praktyki, które znajdują swoje uzasadnienie także w założeniach analizy transakcyjnej.

Słowa kluczowe: emocje, edukacja emocjonalna, kompetencja emocjonalna, wychowanie w szkole.

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Automated assessment system as a supportive tool for teaching programming in Academic Secondary School of SUT

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Abstract

Automated assessment systems are used in education as tools to support teaching programming and algorithms as well as preparing students for challenging informatics competitions. They reduce the teacher's workload connected with manual verification of correctness and efficiency of computer programs. Furthermore, they enable learning of computer programming to be taken outside the traditional classroom as varied in difficulty tasks can be accessed and solved at any time and in any place. Academic Secondary School of Silesian University of Technology has deployed an automated assessment system in order to support computer programming education. The aim of this work is to find out how students' skills and interests in programming affect their feelings while using Szkopuł platform. For this purpose, a survey was conducted among students, and the results were analyzed in terms of the theory of transactional analysis.

Keywords: automated assessment systems, computer programming education.

Introduction

Academic Secondary School of the Silesian University of Technology in Gliwice is a newly-established secondary school in which the Silesian University of Technology provides substantive supervision and academic lecturers teach leading subjects such as mathematics, chemistry, biology, computer science and computer programming in C++ language. The education is based on proprietary syllabuses that broaden the core curriculum of science subjects. The Academic Secondary School's priority is to develop digital competences of each student by using a technology-rich learning environment and digital tools. Teaching methods enhanced by the use of technology are particularly useful during computer programming lessons as the students have unlimited access to computers. Therefore, programming education is supported by a number of educational platforms and portals like Khan Academy, Scholaris, Google Classroom, as well as the Szkopuł[1] automated assessment system (Wieczorek, 2020).

Transactional analysis (TA) in education focuses mainly on supporting the process of effective teaching or learning, self-development and increasing self-awareness of learners and educators (Pankowska, 2012, p. 15). According to Pankowska: "In the process of education, the aim is to develop the state of the Adult, because only in this state a person is able to become fully aware, to use his or her intellectual potential and to act responsibly" (2012, p. 24). Teachers should therefore encourage students to be independent and challenge them to support problem-solving skills. Teaching of programming seems to fit perfectly into the process of the Adult ego state development. Moreover, solving tasks on the automated assessment system appears to be a good approach to motivate students to develop programming skills and find solutions.

Some social research indicates that the language we use influences how we think, behave and perceive the world (Słaboń, 2001). This phenomenon is presented in the Sapir-Whorf hypothesis. Some of the assumptions of linguistic relativity have been confirmed by linguistic and non-linguistic tests conducted by researchers. Learning a programming language is similar in some ways to learning a foreign language. Novice programmers learn the syntax and semantics of a language to write simple instructions and then programs that solve more complex tasks. Students review code written by more experienced programmers, and try to understand how each line and the entire program works, just like learners who read texts in a foreign language trying to understand the meaning of individual sentences as well as the sense of the whole text. Finally, in learning a programming and a foreign language, practice is the most important thing. The inspiration for conducting the research was the theory of linguistic determinism, however, the topic proved to be too ambitious. Analyzing the answers to the survey questions, the author will try to find out whether how students participating in research react to automated grading systems depends on their experience in programming.

[1] https://szkopul.edu.pl

Issues and challenges in teaching computer programming

Teaching of computer programming creates significant challenges for educators (McAllister, Alexander, 2009). Difficulties in imparting knowledge in this field are related to the nature of the skills students need to develop. The core of programming consists in solving problems and creating programs as solutions. Students need to analyze the task, produce an algorithmic solution, and translate that algorithm into a program code. There is also another type of programming knowledge called program comprehension (Mannila, 2007). Learners are asked to demonstrate an understanding of how a specific program works. It is considered important to teach both skills: program generation and program comprehension.

Becoming well versed in programming is time-intensive and requires a lot of practical exercises. Students cannot be passive recipients of knowledge conveyed by the teacher, because during each class they have to put what they learned into practice. Moreover, it is crucial for the teacher to find propriate methods to support students in developing computational thinking skills[2] essential for implementing computer programs. Encouraging students to gain more practical experience during after school activities is also important.

Another teaching difficulty is that learners present varying levels of abilities and interest in programming. It was observed[3] that passionate learners need challenging problems to solve in order to feel motivated. They predominantly enjoy participating in programming competitions, so they spend much time working on difficult individual projects. Students with a slower pace of learning or less able ones favor to study with a progressive worksheet to build up their self-confidence.

An additional issue for teachers is analysis and evaluation of source codes developed by students. As learners are expected to write a large number of programs, it is difficult to assess and comment on all of them. Solutions of simple tasks are usually short and therefore easy to test. However, if the evaluation of more complicated programs is done manually, it is extremely time-consuming, tedious and error-prone.

Automated assessment platform

Szkopuł is the e-learning platform for carrying out algorithmic contests with automatic assessment of user-submitted programs. It gives access to a vast number of problems to solve and an archive of tasks from various programming

[2] Problem solving and algorithmic thinking skills (decomposition, pattern recognition, pattern abstraction) are crucial competences related to computational thinking.

[3] The teacher observation during four years of teaching in the school.

competitions, including: Olympiad in Informatics, Junior Olympiad in Informatics and several international Olympiads (Central European OI, Baltic OI and International OI). Submitted programs are compiled and run on host machine against a set of tests prepared by the authors of the task. Each test consists of an input file, an output file, a timeout, and a memory limit. The content of the input file is passed to the standard input of the program. If the program ends correctly, execution does not timeout and memory limit is satisfied, its output is compared to the contents of the test output file and if they are the same, points are scored. Partial scoring, depending on the number of test cases passed, is supported and user's solution is graded on a scale from 0 to 100 points. Each contest has its rank list showing the number of points scored by competitors. It is planned to fortified Szkopuł platform with programming and algorithms courses to enable users to improve their skills in these areas[4].

Academic Secondary School started using Szkopuł platform after joining the Algorithmics and Programming Championship project (MAP – Mistrzostwa w Algorytmice i Programowaniu). The project is run by the Foundation for Information Technology Development in cooperation with two Polish universities: University of Warsaw and University of Wrocław. The aim of the project is to support the development of secondary school learners who are passionate about programming and algorithms in order to make them capable of competing in programming contests on national and international level. Teachers participating in the project run extra-curricular classes to activate particularly talented students. They can be assisted by mentors[5] or take part in algorithmic workshops to increase competences in this field. Original curricula as well as methodical support are proposed to teachers together with Szkopuł platform where a large collection of algorithmic problems is shared.

During classes, all the students learn instructions and data types in C++ programming language and develop their knowledge with presented algorithms or design paradigms. Knowing the theory, they start writing source codes to solve selected problems on Szkopuł platform (usually after one year of study). The only feedback each student receives after submitting the solution is the information about the execution time, correct or wrong answer on each test, timeout or memory limit overflow and the number of points the program scored (Figure 1). In case there was a wrong answer on one of the inputs, the correct answer is given.

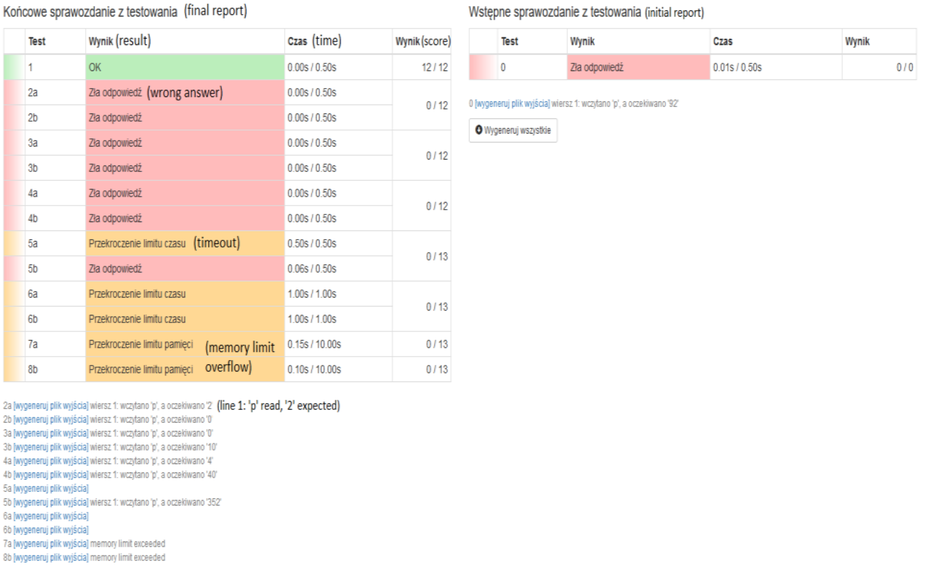
Students of Academic Secondary School, who are particularly interested in algorithmics and programming, attend the MAP circle as an after school activity. A special contest is created on Szkopuł platform where the tasks require students to apply specific, optimal algorithms.

[4] The courses from main2.edu.pl service are planned to be transferred to Szkopuł platform.

[5] Computer science students who were finalists of the Olympiad in Informatics.

The survey and its results

In order to identify factors that learners like and dislike about Szkopuł and discuss the strengths and weaknesses of the platform, a survey was conducted among 60 students of Academic Secondary School who have completed at least their first year of programming. Among the participants, 14 attended MAP circle classes. For the purpose of further discussion, the group of students attending MAP circle will be referred to as the MAP group, and the other students as the School group. The survey included questions about programming skills and experience (questions 1 and 2), students' feelings while working with Szkopuł (questions 3, 4 and 5), and suggestions for improving the platform to suit students' needs (question 6).


Końcowe sprawozdanie z testowania (final report)

Test	Wynik (result)	Czas (time)	Wynik (score)
1	OK	0.00s / 0.50s	12 / 12
2a	Zła odpowiedź (wrong answer)	0.00s / 0.50s	0 / 12
2b	Zła odpowiedź	0.00s / 0.50s	
3a	Zła odpowiedź	0.00s / 0.50s	0 / 12
3b	Zła odpowiedź	0.00s / 0.50s	
4a	Zła odpowiedź	0.00s / 0.50s	0 / 12
4b	Zła odpowiedź	0.00s / 0.50s	
5a	Przekroczenie limitu czasu (timeout)	0.50s / 0.50s	0 / 13
5b	Zła odpowiedź	0.06s / 0.50s	
6a	Przekroczenie limitu czasu	1.00s / 1.00s	0 / 13
6b	Przekroczenie limitu czasu	1.00s / 1.00s	
7a	Przekroczenie limitu pamięci (memory limit	0.15s / 10.00s	0 / 13
8b	Przekroczenie limitu pamięci overflow)	0.10s / 10.00s	0 / 13

2a [wygeneruj plik wyjścia] wiersz 1: wczytano 'p', a oczekiwano '2' (line 1: 'p' read, '2' expected)
2b [wygeneruj plik wyjścia] wiersz 1: wczytano 'p', a oczekiwano '0'
3a [wygeneruj plik wyjścia] wiersz 1: wczytano 'p', a oczekiwano '0'
3b [wygeneruj plik wyjścia] wiersz 1: wczytano 'p', a oczekiwano '10'
4a [wygeneruj plik wyjścia] wiersz 1: wczytano 'p', a oczekiwano '4'
4b [wygeneruj plik wyjścia] wiersz 1: wczytano 'p', a oczekiwano '40'
5a [wygeneruj plik wyjścia]
5b [wygeneruj plik wyjścia] wiersz 1: wczytano 'p', a oczekiwano '352'
6a [wygeneruj plik wyjścia]
6b [wygeneruj plik wyjścia]
7a [wygeneruj plik wyjścia] memory limit exceeded
8b [wygeneruj plik wyjścia] memory limit exceeded

Wstępne sprawozdanie z testowania (initial report)

Test	Wynik	Czas	Wynik
0	Zła odpowiedź	0.01s / 0.50s	0 / 0

0 [wygeneruj plik wyjścia] wiersz 1: wczytano 'p', a oczekiwano '92'

Wygeneruj wszystkie

Figure 1
Example feedback of the assessed solution

Source: report of the author's submission.

Question 1 and 2: How long have you been programming? How do you rate your programming skills?

In the School group, 26 students out of 46 consider themselves novice programmers. As many as 35% of them have been learning programming for three or four years, which suggests that this period of time was not enough for them to acquire the appropriate skills. Among students who declared themselves to be intermediate programmers (17 out of 46), 88% needed three years or less to feel comfortable while working on programming tasks. Only 3 students consider themselves experts.

The ratio between expert and intermediate programmers in the MAP group is completely different. Nearly 86% of the students code at the most advanced level, and it took them an average of 3 years to achieve that level.

Question 3: Your feelings while working on the platform.

Answering this question, students had to choose one from six options:

1. I don't like working on the platform. The tasks are too difficult and I can't solve them.
2. I'm not fond of working on the platform. The tasks are difficult and I have to spend a lot of time solving them. Sometimes the results are not satisfactory.
3. Solving tasks on the platform is a good idea, but sometimes the tasks are too difficult.
4. I like to work with Szkopuł platform – I can immediately check if my solution is good enough.
5. I like working on Szkopuł platform – I can check the accuracy of my solution and compare the results I achieved with my classmates.
6. Working on the platform is a great idea. It motivates me to search for optimal solutions.

The answers for the School and the MAP group are shown in Table 1 and Table 2, respectively.

Table 1
Responses of the School group to question number 3

	Option 1	**Option 2**	**Option 3**	**Option 4**	**Option 5**	**Option 6**
Novice (26 answers)	2	6	11	4	2	1
Intermediate (17 answers)	0	5	3	4	2	3
Expert (3 answers)	0	1	0	2	0	0

Source: own research.

Table 2
Responses of the MAP group to question number 3

	Option 1	Option 2	Option 3	Option 4	Option 5	Option 6
Intermediate (2 answers)	0	0	0	2	0	0
Expert (12 answers)	0	0	2	3	2	5

Source: own research.

As we can see, for most novice programmers in the School group the tasks on the platform are too difficult (options 1, 2 and 3). Only 7 out of 26 students enjoy solving tasks (options 3, 4 and 5) mainly because they can quickly check their solutions. Among experienced and intermediate participants, about 50% think that working on the platform is a good idea. However, only 3 out of 20 are motivated to search for better algorithms (option 6).

In the MAP group, nearly 86% of participants like working on the Szkopuł platform, and 5 out of 14 feel motivated to perform well and spend more and more time seeking optimal solutions.

Question 4: What are you dissatisfied with while working on the Szkopuł platform?

Answering this multiple choice question, students could choose from one to seven options:

1. There is no such thing.
2. Programming task that is difficult to understand.
3. Input/output that must have a specific format.
4. Lack of comprehensive information about the error in my code.
5. No information on the algorithm that should be used to solve the task at 100 points.
6. Lack of hints to help improve my solution.
7. Lack of access to the test cases which assess my solution.

The answers for the School and the MAP group are shown in Figures 2 and 3, respectively.

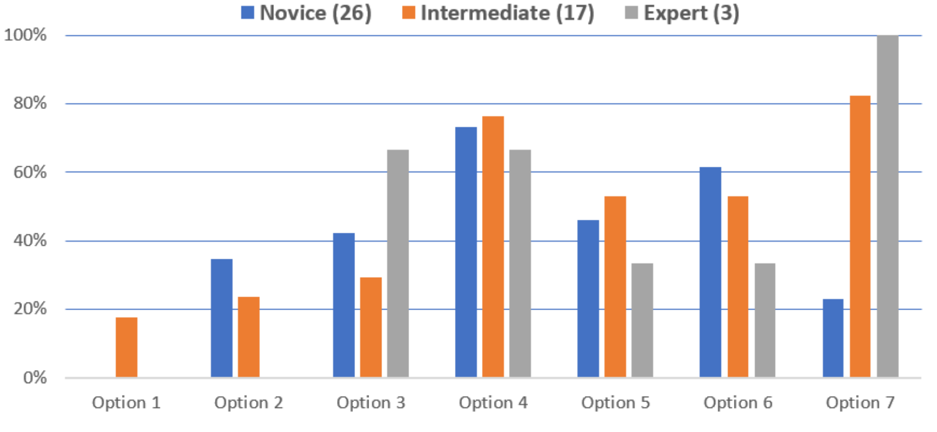


Figure 2
Responses of the School group to question number 4

Source: own research.

As shown on graphs, the School group students marked significantly more options than programmers from the MAP group. In the first group, each participant selected an average of 3 options, compared to 1.6 in the second group.

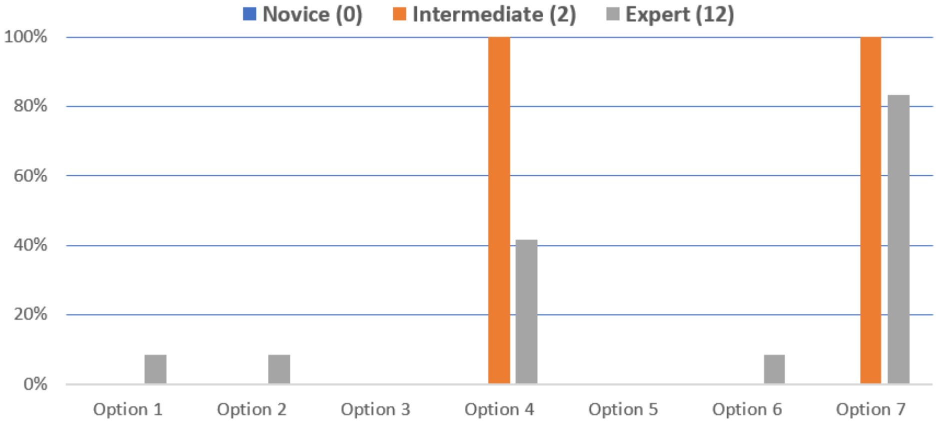


Figure 3
Responses of the MAP group to question number 4

Source: own research.

Most novice programmers consider the lack of error information in their codes and the lack of hints to improve the solutions to be a major drawbacks of Szkopuł platform. It seems that these students need positive support from the teacher. They need strokes[6] to direct them towards good solutions, or to confirm that they are on the way to finding them. Dorota Pankowska noted that: "The strokes properly given to students […] not only strengthen their self-esteem, but also influence the process and effects of education" (Pankowska, 2010, p. 178). For novice programmers, such positive encouragement seems essential to build their confidence in learning programming.

Among the more experienced programmers, the majority dislike the lack of access to test cases. This option was chosen by more than 80% of intermediate participants and 100% of experts in the School group and 100% of intermediate participants and more than 80% of experts in the MAP group. These participants in most cases do not need additional teacher support. They try to find optimal solutions on their own, and access to test cases would help them correct errors in their codes.

Question 5: What do you like about working on the Szkopuł platform?

Participants could choose from one to seven options:

1. There is no such thing.
2. Interesting programming tasks.
3. Difficulty of tasks – working on the solution is time-consuming, but it develops my skills in programming and algorithmics.
4. Specific format of input data and results.

---

[6] Strokes as an element of interpersonal communication are in the field of TA interest.

5. Rapid assessment of my solution.
6. The ranking, which allows me to see how I'm doing compared to other students.
7. Tasks – solving them gives me satisfaction.

The graphs in Figure 4 and Figure 5 show the responses of the School group and the MAP group, respectively.

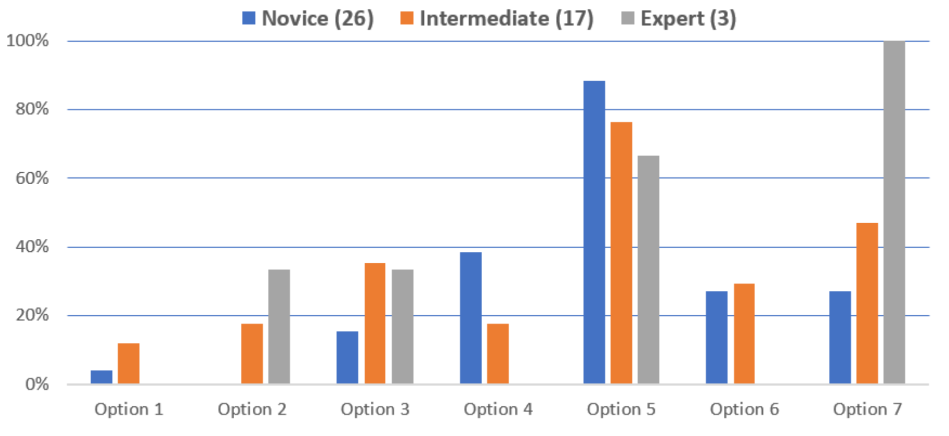


Figure 4
Responses of the School group to question number 5

Source: own research.

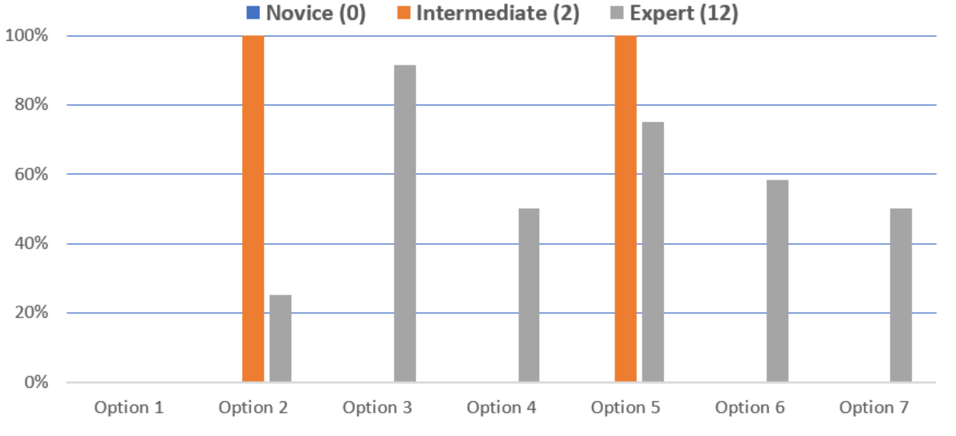


Figure 5
Responses of the MAP group to question number 5

Source: own research.

In response to this question, the Map group students have selected more options on average than participants from the School group (3.3 and 2.2 options, respectively). 38 out of 46 students in the School group enjoy the speed of automated assessment on the platform. For more experienced programmers, the satisfaction from solving tasks on Szkopuł is important (all experts and nearly half of the intermediate participants).

In the Map group, the rapid evaluation of the solution was also a frequently chosen option (nearly 79% of students). Almost 92% of the experts in this group, however, believe that the difficulty of the tasks and the experience they gain while solving them is a great advantage of the platform. Most of them like the ranking (58%), the specific format of I/O data (50%) and they feel satisfaction from solving tasks (50%).

Question 6: How do you think the Szkopuł platform could be improved?

The answers to this open-text question were significantly different in both groups. In the School group, 37 out of 46 participants suggested improvements to the platform. 73% of them indicated that the platform should give students some guidance how to correct errors and some hints that would guide users towards better solutions. According to some participants, programming tasks should be more easily understood and the test cases should be accessible. There were also three answers in which students identified a need for access to reference solutions.

In the Map group, 72% of students suggested improvements to Szkopuł. The most common proposal was to make test cases available on the platform, which would help correct errors in the program or improve the solution. Two participants suggested that the programming tasks should include more examples of input data and the results that should be returned. The need to know the reference solution was brought to the attention of one individual.

Conclusion

Students who attend the MAP circle classes have more coding practice, as they write computer programs during programming lessons, during circle activities and at home. They evaluate their skills highly considering themselves as experts, though some have been programming in C++ for a year or two (3 students). In the School group, students needed four or more years of programming to identify themselves as advanced programmers.

Similar differences can be observed in the students' feelings while working on Szkopuł. The majority of the School group participants do not like to work on the platform because they consider the tasks too difficult. They need some guidance how to correct implemented algorithms and. In the MAP group, nearly 86%

of participants enjoy working on the Szkopuł platform, and 5 out of 14 feel motivated to perform well and spend more and more time seeking optimal solutions. Moreover, almost 92% of the experts in this group, believe that the difficulty of the tasks and the experience they gain while solving them is a great advantage of the platform.

We can say that Adult ego state of programmers in the MAP group is better developed. These students perceive the tasks on the platform as the challenges they want to face. Students with less practice in programming and algorithmics need teacher guidance and positive strokes. It can be concluded that learners at this stage of programming skills should work on Szkopuł platform under the supervision of an educator who will support them. Analysis of student responses shows that they need feedback and comments from teachers. Transactional analysis theory emphasizes the need for recognition signs. Despite its usefulness, the automated assessment system at this stage of development cannot yet replace the teacher-student relationship.

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System automatycznej oceny jako narzędzie wspierające nauczanie programowania w Akademickim Liceum Ogólnokształcącym SUT

Streszczenie

Systemy oceny automatycznej są używane w edukacji jako narzędzia wspierające nauczanie programowania i algorytmów oraz przygotowanie uczniów do trudnych konkursów informatycznych. Redukują one obciążenie nauczyciela związane z ręczną weryfikacją poprawności i wydajności programów komputerowych. Ponadto umożliwiają naukę programowania poza tradycyjną klasą, ponieważ zróżnicowane zadania o różnym stopniu trudności mogą być rozwiązane w dowolnym czasie i miejscu. Akademickie Liceum Uniwersytetu Śląskiego wdrożyło system oceny automatycznej w celu wsparcia edukacji programowania. Celem tej pracy jest ustalenie, jak umiejętności i zainteresowania uczniów programowaniem wpływają na ich odczucia podczas korzystania z platformy Szkopuł. W tym celu przeprowadzono ankietę wśród uczniów, a wyniki zostały przeanalizowane pod kątem teorii analizy transakcyjnej.

Słowa kluczowe: systemy oceny automatycznej, edukacja programowania, analiza transakcyjna.

On the border

Na pograniczu dziedzin

Uniwersytet Humanistyczno-Przyrodniczy im. Jana Długosza w Częstochowie
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Constructing own professional career by students of pedagogy

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Abstract

The article presented here consists of a typical triad for research report works. The first part presents a theoretical approach to career construction. In this respect, it was based on M.L. Savickas' constructionist theory. The second part of the article describes the methodology of the own research undertaken, the subject of which was the construction of careers by students of pedagogy. The aim of the research was to get to know the views of pedagogy students on the issue of constructing their own professional career. The research procedure was supposed to answer the question of completion: what are the views on the construction of one's own professional career presented by students of pedagogy? The answer to the adopted research problem was searched by the form of qualitative content analysis, for which a proprietary research tool was constructed. The research was embedded in the paradigm of pragmatism, which puts emphasis primarily on the practical effectiveness of problem solving. For this reason, it was decided that the most rational methodological solution for the given research problem would be the adoption of a qualitative strategy. The last part of the article contains the results of the author's own research, which, among other things, shows that some students of pedagogy combined their professional career with the work of a teacher/pedagogue.

Keywords: career, career construction, work, M.L. Savickas' career construction theory, pedagogy students.

Introduction

Work is one of the most important areas of human life, absorbing a significant proportion of physical, intellectual and emotional activity. It is an activity that not only provides satisfaction from the duties performed or is associated with compulsion, but also allows basic needs to be met. Referring to Z. Wiatrowski, it should be noted that the role of work in human life is significant. It is an indispensable condition of existence, a determinant of man's place in society, a factor shaping personality (Wiatrowski, 2000). Moreover, work translates into the physical development of man, triggers his initiative and creative thinking activity, provides aesthetic experiences, brings joy and satisfaction.

The choice of a future profession or further educational paths is one of the most important decisions faced by most people. In order for future professional work to be not only a source of income, but also a source of professional and personal satisfaction, it should to a large extent correspond to individual interests, including personality predispositions of an individual (Kukla, Mielczarek, 2021, p. 179). For this reason, certain aptitudes and preferences are not without significance in career planning. These are a kind of determinants, which have a bearing not only on the commitment to learning a profession, but also on subsequent job performance. It is important, therefore, to diagnose one's own professional predispositions before embarking on training in a particular direction. This is because, to a large extent, this will correspond to career building.

In the presented text, attention was paid to the approach to career construction by students of pedagogy. For this purpose, in planning the research, the theory of career construction by M.L. Savickas was used, which was created on the basis of three currents of psychology: individual differences (individual determinants of career construction), developmental concepts (analysing stages of career development) and constructivist approach (changing narratives created by an individual). These currents help to give answers to the questions that an individual should ask themselves when creating their own career: what career should I build?; why should I do it?; how should I do it?

M.L. Savickas is currently one of the most well-known and respected researchers globally addressing the issue of career construction. His approach to careers was presented at the beginning of the 21st century (Savickas, 2004, pp. 42–70; 2012, pp. 13–19). As many experts on career counselling have stressed, it is one that deserves special attention (Cybal-Michalska, 2015, p. 59). Indeed, it can be categorised as the first theory of career development, which is otherwise based on the work of D. Super, however, it was the views of M.L. Savickas that refined and broadened the scope of the issue at hand.

Career construction

Career is associated with professional achievements, increasingly higher positions and incomes, development of specific competences, undertaking increasingly responsible professional tasks, a distinguished lifestyle, prestige (Kukla, Mielczarek, 2019, p. 263) and can be understood as “the state, result and manifestation of success obtained in the course of a specific professional activity, that is, in the period of a person’s professional activity” (Wiatrowski, 2009, p. 66). In the present study, the term ‘professional career’ is adopted after M.L. Savickas. According to him, career is “a subjective construction within which individuals give personal meanings to past events, current experiences and future aspirations by weaving them into a ‘life theme’ (life theme) that models the occupational sphere of a person’s life. What regulates, directs and sustains an individual’s occupational and social behaviour is not discovered and predicted beforehand, but emerges in the process of making meanings” (Minta, 2012, p. 20).

According to the author of the concept, when thinking about one’s own career, it is necessary to take into account three elements: optimism, hope and time. When considering one’s own career path, an adolescent takes into account past experiences, current knowledge and level of social competence. At a later stage, he/she begins to set goals for himself/herself, which are usually linked to experiences and situations in which he/she has participated or witnessed (Minta, 2012, pp. 20–32). It is these that allow the individual to weave achievable career plans.

M.L. Savickas pointed out that time perspective is one of the basic components of career construction, which manifests itself in “the ability to adaptively adjust one’s career project to changing situations over time” (Minta, 2012, p. 16). The indicated skill has been defined as the readiness to cope with predictable tasks or social roles performed over the life course for which preparation is possible. It is also a readiness for unpredictable situations triggered by a changing reality. According to Italian researchers, a time perspective is extremely valuable, especially when constructing a career. Through it, young people will be able to prepare for events that will occur in their career (e.g. choosing the next school). It is through time perspective that it is possible to take into account unexpected situations that may occur on the way to building one’s career.

According to career construction theory, all professional behaviour of an individual, as well as its development, should be considered processually, taking into account its organisation holistically, permanently and contextually. This means that career development should not be analysed and constructed in isolation from other spheres of human life (Maree, 2010, pp. 363–364). The career according to this assumption is seen as a focal point and therefore it is important that it is integrated into the individual’s lifestyle.

Method

The subject of own research was the construction of careers by students of pedagogy. Their aim was to find out the views of students of pedagogy on the issue of their own career construction. The research problem, which was contained in the form of a supplementary question, corresponded with the chosen aim: what approach on the issue of constructing one's own professional career do students of pedagogy present? The research was situated in the paradigm of pragmatism. Its main determinant is that it distinguishes the research problem the most from among the research process, on which the selection of appropriate methods depends, which is why it is characterized by freedom in methodological choices. Pragmatism also emphasizes the practical effectiveness of problem solving (Creswell, 2013, p. 37). Therefore, it was decided that the most rational methodological solution for the research problem would be the adoption of a qualitative strategy. By adopting methodological assumptions, preliminary hypotheses were abandoned, as the chosen qualitative research strategy allowed for this. The answer to the adopted research problem was sought using the method of qualitative content analysis, which can also be used in pedagogy (Goriszowski, 2006, pp. 18–24; Guzik-Tkacz, 2011, pp. 236–237). It mainly aims to provide knowledge and understanding of the phenomenon under study through a systematic process of classifying, coding and identifying particular themes (Hsieh, Shannon, 2005, p. 1231). In the present study, textual data derived from open-ended questions were analysed. For this purpose, a proprietary research tool was constructed for the chosen method, consisting of 8 open-ended questions preceded by a metric (gender, age, background). The task of the people participating in the study was to provide written answers to an anonymous, specially prepared research questionnaire, which contained questions in written form. The research tool was distributed to each of the participants to complete on their own. The core content of all questions revolved around the issue of constructing a professional career. Ethical issues preceded the start of the research. All students were assured that participation in the research is anonymous, voluntary, will not translate into the final grade, and the obtained results will be used only for scientific purposes.

The research was carried out in 2022 at Jan Dlugosz University in Czestochowa, because one of the co-authors of the article is an employee of the local university. Qualitative research is also characterized by not too many research samples, hence it was not decided to include a larger number of people from outside the indicated university. At that time, the pandemic issues caused by the COVID-19 virus and the increased number of infections were also approached quite restrictively. The environment in which the research was conducted, i.e. a city with about 200,000 inhabitants, could in some respect translate into the results obtained. Despite the fact that not all participants of the research were its inhabitants, they came from the vicinity of Częstochowa.

A total of 63 women were enrolled in the project. Of these, 28 came from the city and 35 from the countryside. The average age of respondents was just over 26 years. All those who took part in the questionnaire were participants in their 3rd year of part-time studies of pedagogy. The indicated field of study tends to be feminised to a large extent, hence the research group was represented only by the female gender. The selection of the group was purposive, as the persons surveyed had to meet the criterion of a part-time pedagogy student. This is because it was assumed that part-time students are more likely to be active employees and therefore have some experience in constructing their own careers.

Own research

The first question included in the survey tool was: what does the term 'career' mean to you – what does it involve? Some people thought that a career is mainly all that one has achieved in one's life, pursuing one's plans, dreams. It is also the development of one's competences and directional education. For others, a career is the realisation of goals, professional plans, fulfilment in one's profession. It is also about continuous development, broadening of competences and knowledge. It can be a kind of long-term process, linked to fulfilment in one's chosen profession, financial satisfaction and overall life satisfaction, as well as the effort one has to put into professional development. Few stated that a career is the path we follow while pursuing our profession. It is not necessarily related to our education. One respondent indicated that: "a professional career is about occupying higher and higher positions at work, developing the individual", and another that it often involves "giving up creating one's own family". One person presented the view that "a successful career is one from which we have satisfaction, so it should be in our dream profession. If we are fulfilled in our work, it is not tiring". In a few cases, careers were equated with dreams: "a career is pursuing one's dreams related to a way of working" and with self-education: "a career is gaining new experiences through one's own further education".

In the next question, survey participants were asked: who can be useful to you in constructing your career? In this question, it was pointed out that such a person could be a future supervisor, i.e. a person who directs you to relevant training courses, assists you financially in financing them. According to the participants of the survey, people such as an academic teacher, a career counsellor, enrichment staff, people from the immediate environment, including other students in the chosen field of study, but also family and their support, can also help in constructing a career. One person responded that “an employment agency and, in extreme cases, an employment office can be helpful”.

Each person taking part in the survey was also asked what might be useful to you in constructing your career? The analysis of the texts shows that knowledge, practice and acquired skills, mainly the ability to use them, will be useful. In addition, education, a well-written CV, a motivation letter, courses, training, further education, an inward-looking approach to learning and self-development, as well as equipment to develop one’s skills are essential in constructing a career. Attention was also paid to specifying precise goals: “I think constructing the goals I will want to achieve in order to be fulfilled” and all kinds of activities, undertaken as part of self-improvement: “education, courses, training, trips abroad, postgraduate studies, learning foreign languages, meeting valued practitioners”. Three people pointed to acquaintances: “through them we can achieve a lot”, and two on health, money and finding strengths in ourselves.

When planning your professional future, it is worth asking yourself: what do you want to achieve in your career? The statements of those interviewed mainly oscillated around the work of a teacher and the associated professional promotion: “in my professional career I want to achieve the status of a qualified teacher. I am a person who started from the very beginning, i.e. as a kindergarten room lady, then I moved on to teacher’s assistant, support teacher and now I am a teacher in class I-III. I think this has shown what kind of character I have and that I can strive for something – from zero to millionaire”. Quite often there were also references to doing one’s job reliably, having a good relationship with pupils/youth or their parents: “in my career I would like to achieve all the goals I set out earlier, i.e. to become such an early childhood education teacher that every pupil remembers me with joy”; “I would like to be appreciated by the parents of my pupils. So that they trust and respect me completely. I would like to feel that I am fulfilling myself 100% and that my pupils enjoy working with me and have affection for me”. Professional fulfilment and, in some cases, adequate earnings also proved important: “I want to achieve professional fulfilment, earn well and at the same time do what I like”. A number of people wanted to strive to ensure that their work was always interesting and constantly arousing, so that they had the opportunity to grow in it.

Equally important was the question: what do you want to avoid in your career? A number of people mentioned avoiding the feeling of stagnation and going to work as a punishment, as this could have a negative impact on the quality of life as a whole. Others would like to avoid competition in their work, i.e. the so-called ‘rat race’, as well as bad attitudes among colleagues and conflicts with superiors. The remainder of the respondents paid attention to avoiding ill-considered actions, professional burnout, lack of willingness to expand their knowledge, and avoiding unpleasant situations with children and their parents.

The sixth question answered by those taking part in the research took the form of: can, and if so, what obstacles might you face in building your career? Among the potential problems mentioned were financial problems: "today for me the most important things are the children, the family, the house, and of course this involves costs. You also have to pay for extra study to have a better job". Obstacles within the individual themselves were also pointed out: "obstacles can arise within myself as a result of stress - some kind of internal blockage, not allowing me to show my skills 100%"; "lack of motivation, unsuitable environment, forcing my own self to work"; "lack of knowledge of a foreign language, because nowadays a foreign language is a needed skill, but I have a problem to learn it". For a small number of people, family can be an obstacle to building a career, as "loved ones are more important than progress at work". There can also be random obstacles, including illness, competition at work and professional burnout, related to a lack of appreciation for someone's work and dedication. One person taking part in the survey referred to bullying: "bullying at work is the most common and also one of the worse professional obstacles". From the statements of other respondents, inappropriate people, an unpleasant event in the family, constant changes in regulations and laws, serious illness, becoming pregnant and thus not being able to return to one's job can be obstacles to building a career. When looking for employment, we may also encounter a lack of places in our dream profession. Sometimes obstacles can take on a feminist basis: "in the uniformed services women are perceived as weaker, which in turn makes it much more difficult to stand out against men". There was also a statement that building a career in the teaching profession was unlikely to present major obstacles due to staff shortages: "it's hard for me to say whether I might face any obstacles. It seems to me that, on the contrary, it will be rather easier for me to achieve a career as a teacher due to the shortage of teaching staff".

Further, the essay asked the question: do you, and if so, what actions do you take outside of formal education to achieve your career goals? Participants in the study indicated that outside of formal education, it is often worthwhile to take additional courses, read a lot of literature on topics of interest and, above all, articles, laws and amendments related to one's career. One statement indicated that it was valuable to "talk to employees who have more seniority and experience than ourselves".

In the last question, each person taking part in the survey was asked to indicate what you think career building should be about? The most common opinion was that building a career should be about pursuing one's own goal, getting an education. Its development can also depend on who has priorities, as some dream of high positions, while others prefer to be a rank-and-file employee. One should strive to one day be professionally fulfilled and satisfied with the job one has chosen. One respondent emphasised that building a career is worthwhile if it is based primarily on our personality. Therefore, it is essential to pay attention to our interests and our strengths and weaknesses. A SWOT analysis is helpful for this purpose. According to another participant, it is important that career building is combined with the prudent and conscious acquisition of skills and knowledge in order to maintain a balance between career and leisure. Building one's own career should be based on gaining experience from different jobs, as well as further education through, for example, distance learning, courses, training and self-education. Building one's own career means acquiring theoretical and practical knowledge, continuously improving one's competences, qualifications. It is also about learning from conversations with colleagues and people who work in a similar field. Also noteworthy is the sentence, recorded by one of the respondents, that "building a professional career should start with selecting in terms of character and abilities the work one wants to do in order to obtain the best results".

Conclusions

The research procedure carried out provided insight into pedagogy students' attitudes towards constructing their own careers. The main conclusions drawn on the basis of the own research were:

1. The term 'career' by pedagogy students was combined with:
   - life achievements;
   - the development of their own competences;
   - education;
   - realisation of goals, career plans, professional fulfilment;
   - a lengthy process;
   - financial satisfaction;
   - satisfaction with life;
   - effort;
   - occupying increasingly senior positions;
   - resignation to create their own family;
   - dreams;
   - self-education.

2. Pedagogy students felt that they would find the following people helpful in constructing their careers:
   - supervisor;
   - academic teacher;
   - career counsellor;
   - knowledge enrichment staff;
   - people in the immediate vicinity;
   - other students in the chosen field of study;
   - family;
   - employees of an employment agency or job centre.
3. Pedagogy students found the following to be useful in constructing their own careers:
   - knowledge;
   - practice;
   - the skills acquired and the ability to apply them;
   - education;
   - a well-written CV and covering letter;
   - courses, training;
   - supplementing education;
   - an inward-looking approach to learning and self-development;
   - appropriate equipment to develop their skills;
   - clarification of specific objectives;
   - self-education;
   - familiarity;
   - health;
   - money;
   - knowing your own strengths.
4. In their careers, pedagogy students primarily wanted to:
   - take up a job as a teacher/pedagogue;
   - perform their work reliably;
   - have a good relationship with their students/alumni/their parents;
   - fulfil themselves professionally;
   - earn accordingly;
   - be satisfied with your work;
   - have the opportunity for professional development.
5. In their careers, pedagogy students preferred to avoid:
   - a sense of stagnation;
   - the feeling of going to work out of compulsion;
   - competition;
   - the bad attitude of colleagues;
   - conflicts with superiors;

- — ill-considered actions;
- — professional burnout;
- — lack of willingness to expand their knowledge;
- — to avoid unpleasant situations with children and their parents.

6. Among the obstacles to building a career, pedagogy students mentioned:
   - — financial problems;
   - — obstacles within the unit itself;
   - — lack of motivation;
   - — unsuitable environment;
   - — forcing yourself to work;
   - — lack of knowledge of a foreign language;
   - — family;
   - — random obstacles, e.g. illness;
   - — competition at work;
   - — professional burnout;
   - — bullying;
   - — unpleasant incidents in the family;
   - — constant regulatory changes;
   - — getting pregnant;
   - — lack of places in the profession of your dreams;
   - — feminist background.
7. Activities worth taking as part of building one's career according to pedagogy students are:
   - — taking part in additional courses, training;
   - — reading literature in the field of professional work;
   - — discussions with experienced staff.
8. Building one's own career in the opinion of pedagogy students should involve:
   - — pursuing their own goal;
   - — gaining an education;
   - — individual priorities;
   - — professional fulfilment;
   - — matching personality traits to work;
   - — own interests;
   - — analysis of strengths and weaknesses;
   - — the acquisition of knowledge, skills and competence;
   - — gathering experiences from different workplaces and from other employees;
   - — self-study.

The research showed that some of the pedagogy students linked their careers with teaching/pedagogy. This fact can be optimistic, as it shows that the field of study chosen by the research participants was linked to their future career. Such a correlation can largely contribute to the construction of a dream career.

Completion

Careers need to be consciously planned by setting a goal or goals, to which we aspire. However, before we do this, we need to get to know a number of factors which determine the right planning for the future. Getting to know them will, on the one hand, make it easier for us to find our way in the labour market and, on the other, will enable us to choose a career path that is in line with our own abilities, predispositions and convictions.

As noted by A. Bańka, making life decisions, including professional ones, which are chaotic, is almost always burdened with the risk of failure (Bańka, 2014, p. 306). The consequences of ill-advised choices, of poorly informed career decisions, for example, are:

— not taking up a job in a learned profession (waste of time, why learn it if it doesn't suit us);
— low quality of work performed (due to lack of aptitude or interest in this direction);
— lack of job satisfaction;
— psychological tension (when we find that we do not enjoy our work, that it is beyond our capabilities or, on the contrary, that it bores us).

Thoughtful career planning, on the other hand, consists of stages such as:

— getting to know oneself (internal factors);
— learning about professions, the labour market (external factors);
— confrontation of these two factors;
— proper career planning, i.e. defining a career path, including finding training paths leading to a chosen profession (group of professions).

There are many factors relevant to career planning. Once they are known, they need to be confronted with each other and then planned in a fully conscious manner. This is important so that, once the indicated steps have been completed, the efforts are crowned with the achievement of the goal of getting a good, satisfying job. It is important to remember, however, that once a decision is made, it is not for life and it is up to us to decide how we want to manage our own development.

The labour market is often affected by socio-economic changes, which in turn generate new challenges for representatives of many professions. It should be borne in mind that factors such as the level of economic development, the material and living situation of society, technological progress, the unemployment rate or, last but not least, the demographic situation, are to a large extent responsible for the way people think about work. The above-mentioned dependencies create the conditions in which people come to realise their professional aspirations, which translate into types of career building. Some of the more dynamic occupational transformations are observed in the biographies of those employees whose work is highly dependent on systemic changes. Such professions include, above all, the teaching profession (Piróg, 2018, p. 495). The amendment of laws, the appearance of regulations, all sorts of new rules and principles, on the one hand, regulates the career path of educators, and on the other hand, encourages the adoption of more and more different ways of building one's career, sometimes only to maintain employment. Thus, when constructing one's career in the teaching profession, one must take into account not only internal factors, but also those not necessarily dependent on oneself.

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Podejście studentów pedagogiki do konstruowania własnej kariery zawodowej

Streszczenie

Prezentowany artykuł składa się z typowej triady dla prac zawierających raport z badań. W części pierwszej przedstawiono teoretyczne podejście do konstruowania kariery zawodowej. W tym względzie bazowano na teorii konstrukcji M.L. Savickasa. Druga część artykułu opisuje metodologię podjętych badań własnych, których przedmiotem było konstruowanie kariery zawodowej przez studentów pedagogiki. Celem badań uczyniono poznanie poglądów studentów pedagogiki wokół kwestii konstruowania ich własnej kariery zawodowej. Postępowanie badawcze miało dać odpowiedź na pytanie dopełnienia: jakie poglądy na temat konstruowania własnej kariery zawodowej prezentują studenci pedagogiki? Odpowiedzi na przyjęty problem badawczy poszukiwano za pomocą jakościowej analizy treści, do której skonstruowano autorskie narzędzie badawcze. Badania zostały osadzone w paradygmacie pragmatyzmu, który kładzie nacisk przede wszystkim na praktyczną skuteczność rozwiązywania problemów. Z tego względu uznano, że najbardziej racjonalnym rozwiązaniem metodologicznym dla postawionego problemu badawczego będzie przyjęcie strategii jakościowej. Ostatnia część artykułu zawiera wyniki badań własnych, z których m.in. wynika, że niektórzy studenci pedagogiki łączyli swoją karierę zawodową z pracą nauczyciela/pedagoga.

Słowa kluczowe: kariera zawodowa, konstruowanie kariery zawodowej, praca, teoria konstrukcji kariery M.L. Savickasa, studenci pedagogiki.

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Preschool teacher assistants and the quality of preschool education – prolegomena for research in Poland

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Abstract

A lion's share of research into preschool education is constituted by studies relevant to the qualifications and competences of teachers. The research in question is connected with improving the quality of the work performed by the institutions of preschool education. In this context, the problem of preschool teacher assistants, constituting an observable and important element of the life of nursery school, is disregarded. In the literature of the subject, these people are referred to as invisible employees. Ascertaining that there has been no research into this subject-matter in Poland, the authoress concentrated her attention upon presenting the results of research into this subject-matter conducted in foreign countries. What the research in question renders clear is that it is essential to look more closely at the subject-matter being described and to implement an appropriate research.

Keywords: the qualifications of the teachers of preschool education, the quality of education, looking after a child, preschool teacher assistants.

Introduction

Let us commence with explaining relevant terminology. In this article, the term 'preschool teacher assistants' is applied to refer to individuals employed in nursery school in order to maintain peace and quiet in a preschool classroom, to assist children in everyday activities, for instance, washing up, consuming meals or using a toilet, and also providing them with care and safety in nursery school. This term is in common application in the institutions of preschool education in Poland, even though it is not found in *The Polish Standard Classification of Occupations and Specialisations for the Purpose of Serving the Needs of the Labour Market of 7th August, 2014* (*Journal of Laws* of 2018, item 227, and also of 2021, item 2285). In the above-mentioned document, under the number 53120, there is an entry referring to the profession of ’a nursery school teacher assistant’, the description of which is identical to the scope of responsibilities of a preschool teacher assistant. For that very reason, I treat these two names as referring to the same notion. As well as them, I use the abbreviation ‘ECEC’, standing for the following name: Early Childhood Education and Care, which is applied in Western literature.

A succinct profile of the capacity of ‘a preschool teacher assistant’ contained in the monograph of Anna Klim-Klimaszewska (2005) gives rise to the conclusion that the tasks encompassed within the scope of assisting a teacher of preschool education are not restricted to care and assistance activities. The authoress writes that ‘both a teacher and assistant’ […] ‘are responsible, to an identical degree, for managing the process of teaching and learning, but also that the leading role is that of a teacher, and the role of the other person consists in serving in an auxiliary capacity (Klim-Klimaszewska, 2005, p. 127). Further on, she states precisely that part of the tasks with which a preschool teacher assistant is charged involves physical work, for instance, cleaning up a room, preparing a room for classes, having an afternoon nap *etc.*, but adds that a teacher assistant is also responsible for ‘educational tasks. […] standing by the teacher’s side, a teacher assistant participates in conducting classes, and also in all the important stages of a day’ (Klim-Klimaszewska, 2005, p. 128). A teacher assistant talks to children, instructs them in the field of correct pronunciation and appropriate behaviours towards other individuals in a group the classes of which are conducted by the teacher in question. A teacher assistant spends time when a teacher is absent (and the working day of a teacher counts 5 hours daily) with the children entrusted to the assistant care abroad. Together with the teacher, a teacher assistant looks after the equipment of a room and the interior design of it. A teacher assistant prepares decorations, space for special interest groups’ activities *etc.* A teacher assistant assists a teacher in preparing teaching aids, conducting games *etc*. ‘A teacher and a preschool teacher assistant ought to make a very precise arrangement relevant to their activities so as to make sure that their teaching work be integrated and consistent. The reason for that fact is that the entire work done with a group of preschool attendees is determined by both of these individuals, and they are responsible for that to an identical degree. It is upon their abilities and friendly collaboration that the ambience in a group, the well-being of children and also learning outcomes of them are dependent' (Klim-Klimaszewska, 2005, p. 128).

The description presented hereinabove gives rise to the conclusion that individuals employed in the capacity of a preschool teacher assistant ought to possess pedagogical qualifications and competences. Nevertheless, the legal regulations fail to determine the requirements applicable in the case of a candidate applying for a position of a preschool teacher assistant (care personnel member in créche, 2021). Virtually everyone can become a member of this profession in Poland. In the context of the above-mentioned responsibilities of this group of employees, it is, therefore, justifiable to ask a question whether preschool teacher assistants ought not to be expected to have acquired appropriate professional competences? From the point of view of contemporary discourse on the qualifications and the competences of contemporary teachers, this question appears to be important. The review of the most recent research within the scope of preschool pedagogics in Poland indicates that this problem is virtually never taken under consideration. An auxiliary personnel of nursery school is not observed, either, by those who attempt to reflect upon pedeutology. In the Western literature of the subject, a term 'invisible workers' was even coined, nevertheless, unlike in Poland, the state of research in the West shows that the problem of a preschool teacher assistant is observed and researched more frequently, for instance, in the context of the so-called 'competent system' (vide: Ordon, 2011, pp. 79–96). It is the objective of this article to render a reader more acquainted with the state, and the directions, of an international research into the problem of a preschool teacher assistant with the intention to initiate this kind of research in Poland. The empirical material in this article was collected through a literature study, observations, and interviews with preschool teacher assistants in Poland.

Preschool teacher assistants in an international research into the qualifications of preschool personnel

The profession of preschool education teacher is one of the regulated professions in Poland and the European Union. As Gruza and Hordyjewicz (2014) write, in our country, "Regulated professions are professions whose access is restricted by legal regulations. They specify the necessity of having the appropriate education, meeting qualification requirements or other additional requirements in order to be allowed to practice such a profession" (Gruza, Hordyjewicz, 2014, 54). According to *Directive of the European Parliament and of the Council of 7 September 2005 on the recognition of professional qualifications* the regulated profession is “a professional activity or group of professional activities, access to which, the pursuit of which, or one of the modes of pursuit of which is subject, directly or indirectly, by virtue of legislative, regulatory or administrative provisions to the possession of specific professional qualifications: in particular, the use of a professional title limited by legislative, regulatory or administrative provisions to holders of a given professional qualification shall constitute a mode of pursuit” (Directive, 2005, 6).

The professional qualifications of a preschool education teacher in Poland are defined by the Rozporządzenie Ministra Edukacji Narodowej z 1 sierpnia 2017 r. w sprawie szczegółowych kwalifikacji wymaganych od nauczycieli (2017). A person practicing this profession must have:

— second-cycle studies or a single master’s degree, in a field (specialty) consistent with the classes taught, and has a pedagogical preparation

or

— second-cycle studies or single master’s studies, in a field of study whose learning outcomes referred to in the Law of December 22, 2015 on the Integrated Qualification System, in terms of knowledge and skills, include the content of the classes taught, as indicated in the core curriculum for this educational stage, and has a pedagogical preparation,

or

— a second degree or a single master’s degree, in a field (specialty) other than those listed, and postgraduate studies in the field of the classes taught, and has a pedagogical preparation.

— a teacher training institution in a specialty corresponding to the classes taught,

or

— a teacher training institution in a specialty other than those listed, and a qualification course in the scope of the classes taught

or

— first-cycle studies, second-cycle studies or a single master’s degree, in the field of pedagogy in a specialization that prepares you to work with children of preschool or early school age

or

— teacher training institution in the specialty preparing to work with children at preschool or early school age (Rozporządzenie, 2017).

As mentioned in the introduction, preschool teacher assistants is not a legally regulated profession either in Poland or in the European Union.

The contemporary researchers of the educational systems ascertain the existence of numerous differences in the aspect of the level of the professional preparation of teachers employed in preschool and early-school education. An extreme case is that of the United States, in which each and every one of 50 states has different standards within the scope of child care and nursing. These standards may be confined to a basic preparation to nursing a child, but also encompass holding a certificate of completing the first-degree studies, or even holding a certificate of the second-degree studies in the same major as well (Whitebook M. *et al*, 2009).

A comparative research into solutions applied in different countries is rendered more difficult by differences in organising care and teaching in the case of children at the preschool age. In the literature of the subject, it is possible to come across differentiating between split systems (in which care is provided in a separate créche) and unitary systems (in which care in the case of a child at the age of no more than 3 years is provided in the same institution at which the child's nursery school is situated). In Europe, it is customary to differentiate between requirements within the scope of qualifications, and, generally lower, requirements which are applicable in the case of teachers working with younger children (at the age of no more than 3 years) whereas the higher requirements are applicable in the case of teachers working with older children. It is usually sufficient to hold a certificate of completing a course in the field of infant and young children care, and it is not always required to possess pedagogical competences. Nevertheless, actions the objective of which is achieving an improvement in the general level of education amongst the personnel of the institutions of preschool education are undertaken all the time. For instance, in England, the government has introduced a position of a specialist within the scope of early childhood (Early Years Professional), encompassing into this group teachers and other specialists, providing them with the possibilities of pursuing professional careers and improving their qualifications. The intended result of that was to raise the status of individuals working with young children. In practice, nevertheless, emphasis has been placed upon the in-service education of those teachers who were already employed whereas the junior personnel benefitted from the new possibilities to a smaller degree.

An attempt to compare requirements relevant to preschool personnel was made by Anne Lillvist, Anette Sandberg, Sonja Seridan and Pia Williams (2014) in their research. They applied the International Standard Classification of Education (ISCED), developed in the year 1997 in order to homogenise educational standards. The Classification encompasses 7 levels of education: ISCED 1 – primary education, ISCED 2 – middle school education, ISCED 3 – secondary education, ISCED 4 – post-secondary education, ISCED 5 – a short-cycle higher education (in Poland, the latter one is represented by the courses conducted by the Ministry of Labour and Social Policy). It is only ISCED 6 that is compatible with studies completed by receiving the degree of a bachelor, whereas ISCED 7 is compatible with the studies for the degree of a master. Applying the Classification renders it possible to set against in a comparative manner solutions applied in different countries. In Table 1, information about the qualifications of the employees responsible for caring after the youngest children and preschool education in the selected countries of Europe can be found.

Table 1
Requirements within the scope of the education of personnel working with children at the age from 0 to 6 in the selected countries of Europe

No.	State	The lowest required level of education	Institution responsible for children at the age from 1 to 5 or 6 years	Guidelines or programs of looking after children
1.	Sweden	ISCED5A	Unitary system	Program for children at the age of 1 to 6 years
2.	Finland	ISCED5A	Unitary system	Program for children at the age of 0 to 6 years
3.	Norway	ISCED5A	Unitary system	Program for children at the age of 0 to 6 years
4.	Denmark	ISCED5A	Unitary system / split system	Program for children at the age of 0.5 to 6 years
5.	England	ISCED3	Split system	Program for children at the age of above between 2 to 3 years
6.	The Netherlands	ISCED3	Split system	No recommendations applicable on a nationwide scale
7.	Italy	ISCED3	Split system	Program for children at the age above between 2 and 3 years. No recommendations applicable on a nationwide scale as relevant to working with the youngest children
8.	France	ISCED5b (for managers)	Split system	Program for children at the age above between 2 and 3 years. No recommendations applicable on a nationwide scale as relevant to working with the youngest children
9.	Poland	ISCED4	Split system	Program for children at the age above between 2 and 3 years. No recommendations applicable on a nationwide scale as relevant to working with the youngest children

Source: Lillvist *et al*, 2014, p. 5.

In the case of numerous countries, it is observed that there exists a correlation between the kind of the system of the ECEC and the degree of the professionalisation of employees. Mathias Urban, Michel Vandenbroeck, Arianna Lazzari, Katrien Van Laere and Jan Peeters have ascertained that a lower level of professionalism is observable, in particular, in the case of care for the youngest in states in which there are separate nursery schools and créches. Exceptions are constituted by France and the Netherlands, in which it has been proved possible to ensure the high qualifications of care personnel in private institutions, taking advantage of financial subsidies from the state or local communities. The professionalisation of daytime care personnel members remains, nevertheless, a problem in the states preferring a unitary system as well. The conditions of life and work, and the education, of them (and of their families alike), are inferior to those who work in a unitary system (Urban *et al.*, 2011, p. 22).

The results of their research indicate that the competences of personnel are one of the most important markers of the quality of the ECEC. It is recommended that 60% of personnel be professionally prepared at the level no lower than ISCED5 – equivalent to the certificate of completing the first degree studies (Urban, 2011, p. 27). For that very reason, the authors placed a lot of emphasis upon the postulate of inclusive education for child care personnel members (the auxiliary staff or assistants). Regardless of the fact that they provide a substantial support for the highly-qualified teachers of preschool education, they remain not encompassed in the course of diagnosing the needs and directions of the development of preschool education and caring about the youngest: 'Their role in contributing to high-quality ECEC services deserves more attention, as quite frequently assistants are a first and important point of contact for children and families' (Urban *et el*, 2011, p. 30).

The scope of the expected competences of care personnel members is very low, and, in the majority of countries, there are no requirements relevant to their professional preparation. It is only in France and Slovenia that the requirements were determined in detail, and practical training is provided (Urban *et al.*, 2011, p. 30). They have a restricted access to professional development programs, restricted possibilities to participate in the meetings of the ECEC team, plan collaboration and prepare documents relevant to pedagogical work.

The authors of the research draw our attention as well to the fact that disregarding the significance of preschool care may result in dangerous consequences for pedagogics as a science: 'Assistants are frequently responsible for tasks that are considered to be practical caring tasks, as opposed to education – an understanding which, in turn, narrows down the notion of education to formalised learning and may jeopardise a holistic approach to pedagogy' (Urban *et el*, 2011, p. 30).

In the case of numerous countries, this is a major challenge to appreciate preschool teacher assistants without depriving this occupation of the status and the importance of qualifications. There are attempts to solve this problem by means of the shared professional development and team-building meetings of personnel, investing in the paths of development and acquiring qualifications, which preschool teacher assistants cannot acquire on their own. The research has revealed that some of preschool teachers started their careers as assistants not yet possessing pedagogical qualifications, but that, in the course of their career, they acquired an appropriate education and achieved a high level of professionalism. That was possible owing to the support of the management of the institution of preschool education, which accurately identified the competences of individuals employed in nursery school as assistants.

An accurate diagnosis of the above-mentioned crucial competences for work with children is more probable in the countries in which a holistic approach to the professionalism of the personnel of nursery school is adopted. One of the leaders in this field is New Zealand, in which three indicators are taken under consideration in the aspect of the professionalism of the personnel employed in preschool education: the style of pedagogical work, expertise and experience, and also ability to collaborate (Dalli, 2010). Emphasis is placed upon the fact that it is as early as at the stage of studies that the future teachers of preschool education are required to develop specific competences within the scope of knowledge, abilities and attitudes. It is no different in Sweden, where the work and knowledge of an entire preschool personnel is considered in a holistic manner (Kusima, Sandberg 2010). In accordance with the opinion of Moore (2007), the professionalism of the employees of preschool education is developed in two ways. First and foremost, in the course of tertiary education, in connection with the conceptions of education, and also in the course of work under the influence exerted by the expectations of an inspector visiting a given nursery school and the vision of education adhered to by the inspector in question; second of all, this, to a large degree theoretical, model of professionalism is redefined in the light of personal experiences, professional development and social expectations relevant to a teacher of preschool education, which change all the time. The competences of a teacher are, therefore, the resultant of the educational politics of the state, general objectives and presumptions relevant to preschool education and social expectations relevant to a preschool teacher.

Seeing the matter in this light, Urban *et al.* (2011) recommend developing the possibilities of professional development involving preschool teacher assistants not only in tasks in terms of care, but also in such terms as are related to education:

— encompassing the development of the democratic structures of decision-making,
— collective reflection of teachers and teacher assistants, acting to attain a common objective and following the same program,
— providing opportunities for the participation of assistants in improving qualifications, and developmental programs,

— developing a close collaboration between assistants, qualified teachers, instructors and the inspectors of the ECEC,
— concentration upon practical education and providing opportunities for the development and professionalisation, in particular, for assistants from minorities, marginalised and deprived of support (Urban *et al*, 2011, pp. 30–31).

Upon the basis of research dedicated to the qualifications of a preschool teacher assistant the objective of which was to improve the quality of the ECEC in the European Union, in 2016, a special report bearing the following title: Professionalisation of Childcare Assistants in Early Childhood Education and Care (ECEC): Pathways towards Qualification (Professionalisation, 2016) was published. The report encompassed data from 15 countries, one of which was Poland, relevant to a preschool teacher assistant and the opportunities of professional development in the case of them. The researchers, organisations and politicians are in agreement that the quality of preschool education and care are dependent upon the qualified personnel and the further development of the ECEC. Below, the most important conclusions are presented:

1. Division into the teachers of preschool education and their assistants consolidates division into responsibilities connected with education, and also the separate ones, connected with care in preschool education. This situation is not compatible with the holistic vision of education and care, which are understood as combined in terms of cognition, emotions and socialisation. Within this scope, the recommendation for the ECEC consists in the integration of care and education at the supra-institutional, regional or national level;
2. The status of a preschool teacher assistants remains to be the one of invisible employees. The data on them in the European Union, such as relevant to their education and social background, competences and sex, are not sufficient. It is recommended that educational authorities render this group of employees observable by means of collecting data about them. The employees in question ought to be referred to in the legislation relevant to the personnel of the ECEC;
3. Preschool teacher assistants enjoy fewer opportunities of improving their qualifications. There is a demand for providing them with the opportunities of the kind in question. They are not expected to possess specific predispositions upon permitting them to join the profession in question, nevertheless, should it occur that they may face the threat of losing a job because of the lack of appropriate qualifications, they ought to be provided with the possibility of acquiring them for the purpose of not losing their job. That does not mean that each and every one of them is to improve their qualification, nevertheless, the system of the ECEC ought to encourage them to improve their qualifications and facilitate it. It is recommended that legisla-

tors investigate and identify the previous experience and competences of auxiliary personnel (assistants) already employed. It is indispensable to provide them with pedagogical counselling, and also to support those members of this profession that come from ethnic minorities and groups having a low social-economic status;

4. Employing a preschool teacher assistant is a significant means of attracting males to teaching profession. Legislators ought to provide conditions conducive to employing males in this job; alike that, employment offices ought to encourage young males to work in nursery school and assist them with advice in the process of obtaining the qualifications of a teacher;
5. A lot of researchers have placed emphasis upon that fact that a substantial per cent of a preschool teacher assistant, in particular, in large cities, come from ethnic minorities or lower social strata. This situation is conducive to divisions in the environment of the employees of the ECEC. The member states ought to ensure that divisions due to qualification, language, sex and social-cultural background are best avoided;
6. The individual competences of the employees of the ECEC ought to be treated as a part of the system, in which the specialist preparation of teachers, and also the adapted paths of acquiring qualifications by assistants, constitute an organisational entity, ensuring the professional development for all the members of the ECEC. Amongst the recommendations connected with this remark there are the following solutions: ensuring in a job contract that there are remunerated ‘child-free hours’ for teachers and assistants, in the course of which they can share their reflections relevant to the job which they perform, common meetings of the personnel of the ECEC in order to organise classes, encompassing planning, observing and drawing up documents, setting up the system of counselling and pedagogical coaching to support the team of the ECEC in their practice of reflecting upon their work, system of the monitoring of CPD (Continuous Professional Development), guaranteeing assistants the possibility of taking advantage of the opportunities provided by the CPD;
7. Competences and professional experience of assistants are not frequently referred to, and evaluated, in the categories of professional preparation. A model of professional competences and professional preparation applicable to assistants, which are to a broad extent within the scope of the educational needs of a child in their holistic vision;
8. Taking under consideration the diversification of society, preliminary preparation to work, and also further professional development of all the members of the ECEC ought to encompass broadly-understood social-pedagogical competences;

9. It was ascertained that there is a need to conduct research into the role of preschool teacher assistant in the development of the sector of the ECEC, into the perception of their own role by the assistant in nursery schools, and also into the question, whether it will contribute to integrating care and education in the preschool environment (Profesjonalizacja 2016, pp. 6–8).

Final remarks

The presented state of international research gives rise to the conclusion that preschool education is a system of institutions, employees and social environment striving to achieve improvement in the quality of services provided for children within the scope of care and teaching. The need to investigate the role and qualifications of a preschool teacher assistant in Poland more profoundly is connected with that. Hitherto, this need has remained ignored, preschool teacher assistants are still invisible, and the knowledge about this job is restricted to the image of an avuncular 'auntie', always able to comfort a crying child, who finds it difficult to part with their parent in the morning. Sometimes, this image is shattered by reports of scandalising behaviours, such as, for instance, about the mistreatment (physical and emotional) of children (who, for instance, were tied to their beds when they did not want to sleep, forced to eat by pressing the nose shut tight so that they would have to open their mouth – the latter case concerns two care personnel members from Wrocław créche-nursery school Zaczarowana Kraina Puchatka (gazetawroclawska, 2019). The research concerned with the perception of their own work by preschool teacher assistants, their qualifications, competences and possibilities of acquiring as well as perfecting them, relations with teachers and the head, with parents, and, last, but not least, with children, as well as the level of satisfaction with the performed profession, may provide information significant for improving the quality of the work of the institutions of preschool education. A lot of research potential is associated with questions relevant to the expectations of a head, the teachers of nursery school and parents relevant to a preschool teacher assistant.

At the beginning of 2022, pilot studies were conducted amongst the 45 heads of nursery schools in Subcarpathian voivodeship with the application of a survey questionnaire; the study gave rise to the conclusion that the heads in question find it required to integrate the personnel of the institutions of preschool education. Opinions relevant to involving teacher assistants in decision-making processes were not identical; the majority, nevertheless, supported increasing their involvement in children's activities based on games, and also in the physical ones. In this context, the interrogated heads observe as well the need to provide preschool teacher assistants with the opportunities to acquire pedagogical qualifications (the results of the study are possessed by the authoress). As it has already been mentioned, the objective of the survey was to test the rationale behind undertaking similar research in Poland. The results should be found promising and the studies will be continued, whilst their scope is extended.

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Pomoc przedszkolna a jakość edukacji przedszkolnej – prolegomena do badań w Polsce

Streszczenie

Dużą część badań nad edukacją przedszkolną stanowią badania nad kwalifikacjami i kompetencjami nauczycieli. Są one związane z podnoszeniem jakości pracy placówek przedszkolnych. W tym kontekście bagatelizowane jest zagadnienie pomocy nauczyciela przedszkolnego, stanowiącego widoczny i ważny element życia przedszkola. W literaturze przedmiotu określa się ich mianem niewidzialnych pracowników. Konstatując brak badań na ten temat w Polsce, autorka skoncentrowała się na ukazaniu wyników badań na ten temat za granicą. Wyłania się z nich potrzeba bliższego przyjrzenia się opisywanemu zagadnieniu i wdrożenia odpowiednich badań.

Słowa kluczowe: kwalifikacje nauczyciela edukacji przedszkolnej, jakość edukacji, opieka nad dzieckiem, pomoc przedszkolna.

Reviews

Recenzje

UNIWERSYTET HUMANISTYCZNO-PRZYRODNICZY IM. JANA DŁUGOSZA W CZĘSTOCHOWIE

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[rec.] Hélène Dejean, Cathaerine Frugier (2022). *Jak mieć lepsze życie i relacje? 50 prostych ćwiczeń z psychologii w nurcie Analizy Transakcyjnej*. Poznań: Wydawnictwo Grupa Spotkanie, ss. 135

Jak cytować [how to cite]: Jagieła, J. (2002). [rec.] Hélène Dejean, Cathaerine Frugier, (2022). *Jak mieć lepsze życie i relacje? 50 prostych ćwiczeń z psychologii w nurcie Analizy Transakcyjnej*. Poznań: Wydawnictwo Grupa Spotkanie, ss. 135. *Edukacyjna Analiza Transakcyjna*, *11*, 237–239.

Ostanie lata nie przynoszą niestety w Polsce wielu książek poświęconych analizie transakcyjnej. Natomiast w innych krajach świata każdego roku pojawiają się nowe i niezwykle interesujące publikacje. Wiele z nich warto więc tłumaczyć na język polski, żeby wspomnieć klasyczne już pozycje E. Berne'a, ale też takich autorów, jak C. Steiner, T Newton, T. White, T Kahler i wielu innych. Stąd z dużą uwagą należy pochylić się nad polecanym tu zbiorem ćwiczeń z zakresu AT.

We wstępie do polskiego wydania Katarzyna Balcerkiewicz – redaktorka merytoryczna książki – pisze o zapotrzebowaniu na tego rodzaju publikacje wśród uczestników różnego rodzaju szkoleń. To prawda. Sam zauważam ten problem na zajęciach ze studentami, co skłania mnie do wymyślania kolejnych ćwiczeń i sprawdzania ich użyteczności. Być może kiedyś podzielę się swoimi rozwiązaniami.

Książka polecana jest szczególnie rodzicom oraz wszystkim tym, dla których relacje z innymi są ważne, a także menedżerom, pracownikom HR, trenerom rozwoju osobistego – jak pisze Redaktorka.

Na początku znajdujemy krótki test adresowany do czytelnika. Twierdząca odpowiedź na znaczną część z dziesięciu pytań – np. „Prześladuje Cię przekonanie, że jesteś więźniem swojej roli”, czy „Jesteś nadopiekuńczy wobec swoich dzieci” itd. – zasugeruje, czy warto książkę przeczytać. Nie jest to jednak pozycja, którą można przejrzeć i wstawić na półkę. Aby czytelnik mógł odnieść z niej korzyści, powinien szczerze zaangażować się w rozwiązywanie kolejnych zadań.

Prezentowany zbiór ćwiczeń pozwala zrozumieć nasze złożone schematy zachowań, zrozumieć siebie oraz relacje z innymi ludźmi w wielu sytuacjach codziennego życia, a także przezwyciężyć swoje ograniczenia. W dobie, gdy przeżywane zagrożenia, jakie niesie współczesność, pozostawiają trwałe ślady w naszych wzajemnych odniesieniach, taka wędrówka w głąb siebie i stosunków międzyludzkich wydaje się szczególnie warta polecenia.

Ćwiczenia uporządkowane są w kolejnych rozdziałach z obszarów AT. Odnajdziemy tu zarówno problematykę gier psychologicznych, które to zagadnienie otwiera ten zbiór, jak również nieodłącznie związane z nimi role Trójkąta Dramatycznego. Dalej można zapoznać się z ćwiczeniami dotyczącymi funkcjonalnych stanów Ja i pozycji życiowych. Szkoda, że temu zagadnieniu nie poświęcono więcej miejsca. Wszak to właśnie owe pozycje (nazywane też egzystencjalnymi) określają nasz stosunek do siebie, innych i świata. Zabrakło mi też trochę, choć problem jest obecny w innych kontekstach, kwestii ram odniesienia, a przecież to modyfikuje lub zniekształca znacznie nasze relacje. Dużo miejsca poświęcono zastępczym emocjom i autentycznie przeżywanym uczuciom. Pojawia się też kwestia rozpoznawania własnych potrzeb w relacjach z innymi ludźmi oraz otrzymywania i obdarzania innych znakami rozpoznania. Ćwiczenia wkraczają też w niełatwy do opracowania obszar skryptu i sugestię modyfikacji w tej dziedzinie wraz z udzielaniem sobie pozwoleń na tego rodzaju zmiany. Rozdział poświęcony grom – *„The best of” gier psychologicznych* – zawiera np. przykłady typowych gier, do których trzeba dopasować opcje umożliwiające ich przerwanie.

Krótkie wprowadzenia i komentarze nie przytłaczają czytelnika nadmiarem wiedzy teoretycznej, która leży u podstaw każdego z ćwiczeń. To jeszcze jeden z niewątpliwych walorów tej książki. Może po nią sięgnąć niemal każdy, kto dotąd nie zetknął się z analizą transakcyjną. Co jednak ma zrobić, gdy nabierze chęci do głębszego jej poznania? Gdy kolejne wykonane ćwiczenie rozbudzi w nim ochotę dalszego dociekania danego zagadnienia? I tu sugerowałbym – może w następnych wydaniach, co do których istnienia nie mam wątpliwości – umieszczenie dodatkowej literatury uzupełniającej. W książce znajduje się wprawdzie bibliografia, ale poza dwiema książkami E. Berne'a w języku polskim, pozostałe pozycje ukazały się w języku francuskim, a wszak nie każdy posiadł zdolność zgłębiania literatury w języku Balzaca czy Prousta.

Przywilejem recenzenta jest z reguły doszukiwanie się – w sposób mniej lub bardziej uzasadniony – różnego rodzaju potknięć lub wyrażenie odmiennego własnego stanowiska. I w tym wypadku niżej podpisany nie odmówi sobie tego rodzaju przyjemności, wszak wytykanie innym różnego rodzaju omyłek to przyjemność, od której uwolnić mogą się tylko nieliczni. Na dwie rzeczy pragnę zwrócić uwagę. Tytuł nie jest zbyt zachęcający. Sugeruje bowiem typowe sformułowania jakże wielu dość trywialnych poradników w stylu: „Jak żyć długo, szczęśliwie i bez problemów" lub „Jak być zdrowym, radosnym i bogatym" itd. Na szczęście podtytuł trafnie wyjaśnia zawartość i jest oryginalnym tytułem publikacji. Nie mam pomysłu, jak mógłby wyglądać inny tytuł, niemniej jednak Autorki w zakończeniu porównują zawarte w książce treści do długiego spaceru ze ścieżkami służącymi zaopiekowaniu się sobą oraz unikaniu pułapek na tej drodze. Może w tym mógłby tkwić pomysł na nieco inny, zachęcający tytuł tego zbioru ćwiczeń? Nie jestem również zwolennikiem używania dużych liter w odniesieniu do samej koncepcji analizy transakcyjnej. Wszak nie postępujemy tak, pisząc o psychoanalizie, behawioryzmie czy logoterapii. Uzasadnionym wyjątkiem jest tu może terapia Gestalt. Natomiast w przypadku koncepcji Trójkąta Dramatycznego S. Karpmana byłbym zwolennikiem konsekwentnego używania wielkich liter jako nazwy własnej. Są to jednak uwagi bardziej redakcyjne niż merytoryczne, z którymi niekoniecznie trzeba się zgadzać.

Szata graficzna książki budzi uznanie. Każde z 50 ćwiczeń rozmieszczone i zaprezentowane jest w przejrzysty sposób oraz opatrzone ilustracjami. Niektóre z ćwiczeń są naprawdę świetnie wymyślone i nie ograniczają się tylko do wypełnienia jakiejś kolejnej listy. Mnie szczególnie przypadło do gustu ćwiczenie nr 28, polegające na zrobieniu sobie wieczornego bilansu dawanych i otrzymywanych znaków rozpoznania. Warto takie ćwiczenie wykonać i później przepracować lub zinterpretować np. z trenerem AT albo z kimś z najbliższego nam otoczenia. Podobnie ciekawe jest ćwiczenie identyfikujące uczucia zastępcze, tutaj nazywane emocjami „przykrywkami", czy cały rozdział prezentujący problematykę gier interpersonalnych. Ten rozdział uważam za najbardziej udany w całym zbiorze.

Książkę rekomendują znane postaci z kręgu polskich transakcjonalistów, m.in. Sabina Sadecka – terapeutka i nauczycielka terapii traumy, Agnieszka Woś-Szymanowska – znana propagatorka i trenerka koncepcji PCM® (*Process Communication Model*) oraz dr Marcin Capiga – trener biznesu i wykładowca akademicki. Zespół Badawczy Edukacyjnej Analizy Transakcyjnej UJD, poszukując sposobów skutecznej popularyzacji AT, przyłącza się do tych rekomendacji, uznając publikację za cenną pomoc edukacyjną.

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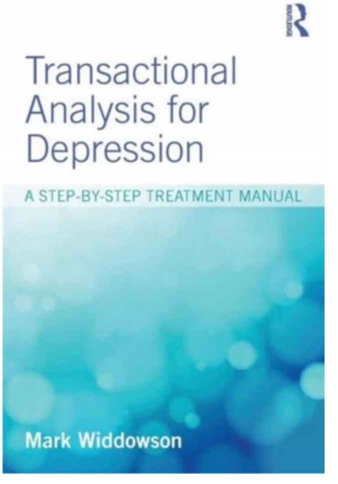
Jak cytować [how to cite]: Wieczorek, Z. (2022). [rec.] Mark Widdowson (2015). *Transactional Analysis for Depression: A step-by-step treatment manual.* London – New York: Routledge Taylor & Francis Group, ss. 216. *Edukacyjna Analiza Transakcyjna*, *11*, 241–243.



Wiele wartościowych publikacji z obszaru analizy transakcyjnej długo czeka na polski przekład, niektóre ciągle są poza zasięgiem polskiego czytelnika. Przykładem takiej publikacji jest recenzowana książka Marka Widdowsona, *Transactional Analysis for Depression: A step-by-step treatment manual* [*Analiza Transakcyjna w leczeniu depresji: podręcznik terapii – krok po kroku*]. Książka jest warta polecania z kilku powodów. Pierwszy z nich to tematyka, czyli psychoterapia depresji, która – jak wiemy – określana jest najczęstszym schorzeniem psychicznym XXI wieku. Szacuje się, że w Polsce niedługo liczba osób chorych na depresję może przekroczyć 1,5 miliona. Problem i skala zjawiska są więc ogromne. Drugi powód to praktyczny charakter podręcznika – tego typu opracowań z obszaru analizy transakcyjnej (AT) zdecydowanie brakuje na naszym rynku wydawniczym.

Książka składa się z trzech części. Pierwsza zawiera wstęp do teorii AT oraz zapewnia czytelnikowi pełne zrozumienie depresji. Rozdział 1 obejmuje historię i teorię AT oraz niektóre kluczowe aspekty terapii AT możliwe do zastosowania w praktyce. Przeznaczony jest dla czytelnika, który posiada podstawowe zrozumienie teorii AT, ale dla osób nowych w tym temacie przygotowany jest specjalny dodatek, poświęcony przeglądowemu podejściu do koncepcji AT. W rozdziale 2, który zajmuje się cechami diagnostycznymi depresji i analizuje niektóre dane dotyczące częstości występowania, przebiegu i wzorców zmiany, znajdziemy wiele przydatnych informacji dotyczących tego schorzenia. Warto zwrócić uwagę, iż ze względu na datę pierwszej publikacji Widdowson posługuje się terminologią DSM-IV. Rozdział 3 przedstawia przegląd badań dotyczących procesów związanych z pochodzeniem i utrzymywaniem się depresji. Znajdziemy tam opis podejścia, w którym łączy się szukanie źródeł depresji w przeszłości, jak i skupienie na bieżących zachowaniach – jest to z pewnością mocna strona książki Widdowsona. Rozdział 4 przedstawia bardziej szczegółową analizę depresji z perspektywy teorii AT i pozwala zrozumieć, w jaki sposób, korzystając z jej specyficznej terminologii, możemy rozumieć depresję. Rozdział 5 składa się z krótkiego wprowadzenia do podstawowych technik w terapii, a w rozdziale 6 przedstawionych jest wiele mechanizmów zmiany i procesów terapeutycznych, które leżą u podstaw prezentowanego sposobu spostrzegania depresji.

Druga część książki składa się z dwóch rozdziałów. Rozdział 7 przedstawia wprowadzenie do budowy ogólnej struktury sesji terapeutycznej i wskazuje na pewne wytyczne dotyczące wprowadzania klienta i pomysł na prowadzenie pierwszych sesji terapeutycznych. Rozdział 8 zawiera wskazówki dotyczące rozwiązywania problemów i zarządzania trudnościami w terapii, zarządzania relacją terapeutyczną oraz radzenia sobie z kwestiami zakończenia terapii.

Część trzecia stanowi wprowadzenie do neurobiologii depresji oraz medycznych metod leczenia depresji (rozdziały 9 i 10) – pozwala to czytelnikowi znaleźć szerszy kontekst dla opisu podejścia psychoterapeutycznego charakterystycznego dla AT.

Wspomniane już dodatki to seria materiałów psychoedukacyjnych, które można wykorzystać dla siebie lub w pracy z klientami. Pierwszy dodatek nosi nazwę *Jak w pełni wykorzystać terapię* – Widdowson dzieli się doświadczeniem, że klienci doceniają informacje o zadaniach terapeutycznych, które pomagają im radzić sobie z trudnościami. To jest mocna strona AT, gdzie w procesie psychoterapii uczy się klienta specyficznego dla koncepcji języka, który później pomaga na etapie komunikacji i metakomunikacji pomiędzy osobami posługującymi się teorią AT. Warto tu zwrócić uwagę, iż Widdowson wprowadza pewne modyfikacje do pojęć i sformułowań AT, które będą naturalne dla czytelników śledzących nowości w interesującej nas tematyce, a mogą stanowić zaskoczenie dla czytelników znających koncepcję wyłącznie z książek Erica Berne'a. Drugi dodatek to krótka instrukcja samopomocowa, która zachęca czytelników do podejmowania aktywnych kroków w celu dokonania pozytywnych zmian w swoim życiu, wspierających ich powrót do zdrowia i polepszenie samopoczucia. Trzeci dodatek opisany jest we wprowadzeniu do recenzji.

Ogromną zaletą książki Widdowsona jest wspomniane już wprowadzenie do terminologii AT w połącznieu z opisem depresji. Poszczególne działy teorii i charakterystyczne pojęcia wyjaśniane są w powiązaniu z innymi koncepcjami terapeutycznymi i czytelnik dostaje syntetyczne wskazówki dotyczące między innymi zapisów skryptowych łączących się z depresją, nakazów i pozycji życiowych, przebiegu transakcji czy uczestniczenia w Trójkącie Dramatycznym. Widdowson nazywa swój opis wielowarstwowym i udowadnia prawdziwość tego podejścia celnymi przykładami i odnoszeniem się do perspektywy innych teorii oraz do prowadzonych przez siebie i innych badań w tematyce depresji. Osoby znające AT z innych opracowań będą mogły zobaczyć poszczególne obszary AT w zupełnie nowym świetle i poznać nowe, bardziej kliniczne podejście do teorii. Taki interdyscyplinarny sposób opisu daje czytelnikowi poczucie kompletności i sprawia, że pozycja jest uznana przeze mnie za szczególnie wartą polecenia.

Edukacyjna Analiza Transakcyjna 2022, nr 11

Laudacja z okazji przyznania Złotego Medalu Polskiego Towarzystwa Analizy Transakcyjnej Profesorowi dr. hab. Jarosławowi Jagiele

Profesor Jarosław Jagieła to wielki entuzjasta i twórca różnych modeli i strategii zastosowania analizy transakcyjnej w edukacji, wychowania i psychoterapii, niestrudzony orędownik idei wartości pozycji „Ja jestem OK, ty jesteś OK" w relacjach nauczyciela i ucznia, którą uznaje za istotny zasób społeczny w procesie rozwoju dzieci i młodzieży. Dzięki Jego zaangażowaniu powstał w Polsce pierwszy Zespół Badawczy Edukacyjnej Analizy Transakcyjnej funkcjonujący na Uniwersytecie Humanistyczno-Przyrodniczym im. Jana Długosza w Częstochowie. Pod Jego kierownictwem zespół współpracowników tworzył i realizował różne projekty badawcze w obszarze ucznia się i nauczania, zarówno w Polsce, jak i za granicą. Jest promotorem kilku bardzo pozytywnie ocenianych doktoratów z zastosowania AT w edukacji i wychowaniu.

Profesor Jarosław Jagieła wprowadził analizę transakcyjną do myślenia pedagogów dzięki opracowaniu programów nauczania i opublikowaniu wielu ważnych pozycji, które propagowały idee AT w kontekście rozwoju poznawczego, emocjonalnego i społecznego jednostki. Przez wiele lat na Uniwersytecie prowadził wykłady i seminaria AT dla studentów różnych dyscyplin, a w innych placówkach szkolił dyrektorów, nauczycieli i innych specjalistów działających w obszarze edukacji. Był zaangażowany w tworzenie podstaw merytorycznych do zastosowania strategii i technik pomocy psychologicznej i terapeutycznej w socjoterapii.

W latach 2012–2017 był redaktorem naczelnym czasopisma „Edukacyjna Analiza Transakcyjna", obecnie pozostaje Redaktorem Honorowym. Jest współautorem „Biblioteki Edukacyjnej Analizy Transakcyjnej", którą zasilił opracowanym przez siebie *Słownikiem analizy transakcyjnej*, zawierającym nie tylko definicje ważnych pojęć, ale także bogatą bibliografię. O ogromnym zaangażowaniu Profesora Jarosława Jagieły świadczy fakt, że jest autorem lub współautorem i redaktorem wielu bardzo cenionych pozycji naukowych i popularnonaukowych, które rozpowszechniały analizę transakcyjną w Polsce.

Nie sposób opisać wszystkich zasług Profesora Jarosława Jagieły, ponieważ na wielu polach działalności publikacyjnej, organizacyjnej i popularyzacyjnych w świecie pedagogiki analizy transakcyjnej nie ma sobie równych.

Przyznany Złoty Medal Polskiego Towarzystwa Analizy Transakcyjnej jest wyrazem uznania i szacunku za dokonania naukowe Profesora Jarosława Jagieły na polu tworzenia podstaw zastosowania analizy transakcyjnej w edukacji, terapii i socjoterapii, które zostały przedstawione w wielu ważnych publikacjach. Jest wyrazem wdzięczności za lata bezinteresownego zaangażowania w nauczanie i tworzenie warunków dla zdobywania wiedzy i umiejętności przez wielu studentów, doktorantów i wszystkich tych ludzi, dla których edukacja młodego pokolenia jest kluczową sprawą.

Kapituła Medali
Polskiego Towarzystwa
Analizy Transakcyjnej

Przewodnicząca Kapituły Medali
Polskiego Towarzystwa
Analizy Transakcyjnej
prof. dr hab. Lidia Cierpiałkowska

Medal złoty przyznawany jest za całokształt działalności w obszarze AT, która w szczególny sposób służy rozpowszechnianiu i umacnianiu AT w Polsce, poprzez:

1) szczególne zasługi w zakresie nauczania;
2) budowanie pozycji analizy transakcyjnej jako metody znanej i cenionej;
3) dbałość o wyznaczanie standardów etycznych w teorii i praktyce;
4) budowanie współpracy pomiędzy różnymi środowiskami AT (międzykulturowe, między organizacjami, instytucjami);
5) inspirowanie działań naukowych, dydaktycznych, sprzyjających wymianie doświadczeń, wydawniczych itp.

Medal złoty może być przyznany jednej osobie tylko raz.