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or fair chances to all in education

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Foreword of the Editor: Fundamentals of Education. Equal opportunities for all or fair chances to all in education

There are a lot of doubts and disagreement concerning the idea of equality of opportunity in education (Lazenby, 2016). Children with different social, educational and geographical backgrounds have different educational opportunities. However, almost everyone agrees on the fact that the more effective the educational programmes and institutions are, the more successful their students could be in terms of their opportunities during school years and later in their working lives. In other words, the long-term outcome of effective education could be happy future citizens as a result of social and emotional fulfilment. However, harmony and happiness are not terms that are normally considered within the aims and purposes of education, which is hard to understand as these are universal purposes of man. Who wouldn't like to be happy and who wouldn't wish their children to be so? The reason for this dilemma could be that happiness and harmony cannot be measured easily and in contemporary educational systems everything has to be assessed and evaluated. Testing is a broad area of educational practice and research. Despite the wishful thinking that we all share at some stage, it is not a happy ending we are yearning for but a harmonious lifetime, which can be guaranteed mostly by adaptive and differentiated education systems, even if it is difficult to test and evaluate them effectively.

Although most educational experts are aware of the importance of the learners' needs when teaching them, the issue of the degree of centralization and standardisation in public education arises from time to time. What and how should studies be organized into standardised programs? To what extent should the state intervene in schooling? How should it be funded? These are the fiercely debated questions that have often been the focus of the social discourse since the state was considered responsible for public education.

School closures from February 2020 to June 2022 speeded up innovations and research in education worldwide. The most often debated issue was the lack of physical presence in institutional schooling. How has that affected children and teachers and the whole of society? How could students be developed socially without everyday physical contacts? Home-schooling had to be examined under the new circumstances. Again, equal opportunities in education came into the focus of both educational practices and theories. Home-schooling had to be compared with institutional schooling (Lawrence, Vijayakumar, 2021). Innovations had to be introduced to substitute traditional schooling, frontal teaching was removed entirely from everyday practices and most traditional evaluation methods proved to be useless. Instead of three-dimensional, multi-sensory experiences, two-dimensional audio-visual ones were available for learners. Students' homes, as the private sphere of families, were intruded by institutional education taking place through a "peeping" screen. While the losses were investigated worldwide (Engzell, Frey, Verhagen, 2022) paradigm shifts were suggested by more studies (Bodonyi, Pazonyi, 2022, Lawrence, Vijayakumar, 2021). This rather unusual educational situation in lockdown happened in most countries to highlight the many problems of education. It turned out that the gap between students in prosperity and those in poverty had widened dramatically.

At this point it must be emphasized that what we are looking for are studies that focus on theoretical approaches, methods and techniques that may increase students' progress rather than articles investigating the consequences of school closures. Studies that would enhance the opportunities in students' lives and so diminish the widening gap in educational attainment.

We believe that when the institutions closed, the new shifts in paradigm had already started with the fast changes happening in the world. But what are these changes and how should education adjust to them? The most important one is probably the existence and functioning of artificial intelligence. A lot of new phenomena in learning and teaching are somehow the consequences of AI or a response to these consequences. These paradigm shifts have been visible since the recognition of the importance of the key competences, which were recommended by the European Parliament and the Council in 2006 (2006/962/EC). Since then, it is widely accepted that it is fundamental flexibility, adaptability, and mobility that should be acquired in the school.

Our essential question is what response education provides to all these changes while trying to ensure fair chances to all (or equal opportunities for all)? This question is philosophical, political, theoretical, and methodological at the same time.

Fundamentals of Education (Podstawy Edukacji) is an annual, reviewed, scientific journal organized around a current topic and is published by Jan Długosz University in Czestochowa since 2008. It provides a high standard platform to researchers and experts to share and discuss their ideas on the given theme of the year, which this time is, as written above, equal opportunities for all or (at least) fair chances to all students in education mostly from the academic, scholarly perspective. Any pedagogical, psychological, sociological and philosophical studies dealing with the above pedagogical issue in the broad sense are welcome. This 16th issue of the journal is to contain theoretical studies and research articles of about 20–30 thousand characters in English that are connected to the above detailed topic. Review articles on this subject of about 15–20 thousand characters are also accepted for the journal.

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STUDIES AND DISSERTATIONS

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Peer Learning
As One of the Pathways to Educational Equity

Abstract

This article discusses peer learning as a strategy that promotes equity in institutionalized education. Peer learning is a process where students learn from their peers during formal and informal interactions without significant intervention from the teacher. Three types of peer learning were discussed: peer tutoring, cooperative learning, and collaborative learning. The key elements of each type of peer learning were identified, and their role in equalizing educational opportunities was analyzed. In this context, peer learning promotes student participation and engagement, and it improves the academic performance of all students in a diverse classroom.

Keywords: peer learning; inclusive education; peer tutoring; cooperative learning; collaborative learning.

The concept and types of peer learning

Peer learning is a concept that is rarely encountered in Polish scientific literature. This approach has been defined in English-language studies as "the use of teaching and learning strategies in which students learn with and from each other without the immediate intervention of a teacher" (Boud, Cohen, Sampson, 1999), and it involves various types of educational practices in the social context. Students can enter into both formal and informal interactions, and

mutual help and support in the learning process come from participants who are not professional teachers (Topping, 2005). Formal peer learning strategies are intentionally introduced by teachers who divide students into groups and provide pedagogical instructions to promote group interaction and communication. Informal peer learning takes place when the learning process is initiated by students without the teacher's support and when groups and educational scenarios arise spontaneously. In peer learning, peers do not have to be the same age. Peers are students with the same social status, belong to the same peer group or classroom, and are not formal teachers or experts (Boud, 2013; Falchicov, 2001). Peers can have similar or different experiences but do not exercise formal authority over others by their position or responsibilities (Boud, 2013).

Peer learning is not a homogeneous concept. Based on the participants' characteristics and the goal and type of interactions, William Damon and Erin Phelps (1989) identified three main approaches to peer learning: peer tutoring, cooperative learning, and peer collaboration. Each approach has numerous variants. Peer tutoring usually involves one-on-one interactions between persons with different skill levels, where one participant acts as a tutor, and the other assumes the tutee role. In turn, cooperative learning and peer collaboration involve work in small groups of students who have similar competencies and shared goals. Although these terms are sometimes used interchangeably in educational and research practice, Damon and Phelps distinguished between these modalities based on the degree of peer equality, reciprocity, and the extent to which the interactions between group members have a formal structure (Damon, Phelps, 1989). In cooperative learning, students usually work individually on a complex task assigned to a pair or a group of students. These interactions have a high potential for mutuality, depending on the applied cooperation method (work division and reward structure), and the learning environment is generally highly structured by the teacher. In turn, peer collaboration/collaborative learning involves group problem-solving, which requires coordinated effort and allows students greater freedom in choosing learning techniques. This form of peer learning can foster interactions that are high in mutuality, but the achievement of this goal is influenced by social and psychological factors (Topping, Buchs, Duran, van Keer, 2017; Dillenbourg, 1999). According to Theodore Panitz, both strategies are shaped by various mechanisms, but cooperative learning focuses more on the teacher, whereas collaborative learning focuses more on the student (Panitz, 1999). These observations suggest that the difference between these mutual peer learning approaches is elusive.

The original classification of peer learning strategies was proposed by Anna Izabela Brzezińska, who distinguished between learning FROM peers, learning with the HELP of peers, and learning TOGETHER with peers. Learning from peers occurs when the student works on the assigned task but can observe colleagues

working on the same task. Learning with the help of peers corresponds to the peer tutoring concept described by Damon and Phelps, where a peer who is more skilled or experienced in a given topic acts as a tutor, a guide, and a helper. Tutors and tutees can swap roles depending on the type of skills required in the task and the areas in which they have expertise. Learning together with peers is similar to cooperative and collaborative learning in the classification proposed by Damon and Phelps. Students learn with peers by working on a task in small teams. Examples of this peer learning strategy include doing homework and preparing for academic olympiads, tests, or mock exams (Brzezińska, Jabłoński, Ziółkowska, 2014).

Researchers rely on various theories to identify the processes that occur during peer learning. However, the mechanisms underpinning peer learning are usually described using the classical theories of cognitive development proposed by Piaget and Vygotsky (and their respective followers). These theories represent a constructivist approach to teaching/learning, where the main emphasis is on learning through discovery, and knowledge acquisition is regarded as a social activity (De Lisi, Golbeck, 1999). Piaget and Vygotsky also recognized that peers mediate the learning process. Piaget emphasized the significance of cooperative social exchange between partners with similar competence levels. In contrast, Vygotsky accentuated the importance of interactions with more competent partners (as cited in Topping et al., 2017).

Different students – different teaching/learning strategies

Teachers face the challenge of working with students from different environments and cultural backgrounds and with different dispositional traits, capabilities, and learning styles. The awareness that diversity in the classroom is an indispensable and fundamental part of the teaching/learning process is the pillar of the Diversity Pedagogy Theory, which examines the relationship between culture, cognition, teaching, and learning. Teachers acquire cultural competence and become inclusive teachers by getting to know their students and assuming responsibility for fostering a supportive emotional, cultural, and learning environment in diverse classrooms (Sheets, 2009). The peer learning strategies discussed in this article can offer an alternative to conventional methods of organizing the teaching/learning process in the classroom, which are lecture-based, centred on the curriculum, involve frontal instruction, and where the teacher plays the dominant role. Traditional methods of instruction can be effective (Christodoulou, 2013; Abah, 2020; Schwerdt, Wuppermann, 2011; Leddo, Boddu, Krishnamurthy, Yuan, Chippala, 2017), but they generally attract criticism. Polish research on conventional methods of instruction in institutionalized education (Bałachowicz, 2009; Bochno, 2004; Dąbrowski, 2009; Klus-Stańska,

2000; Kalinowska, 2010; Sadoń-Osowiecka, 2009) revealed that these methods are ineffective or even harmful. According to Dorota Klus-Stańska, conventional teaching methods prevent students from manifesting their identity and achieving their full intellectual and social potential (Klus-Stańska, 2012). Given the current definition of inclusive education, schools should be reformed to respond positively to diverse student needs and recognize individual differences as factors that enhance the educational process rather than problems that need to be solved (Miles, Ainscow, 2011). According to Mel Ainscow, instead of pathologizing educational difficulties and treating them as problems that are inherently linked with the students, an inclusive educational system should offer more constructive approaches to dealing with diversity in the classroom and should promote strategies that encourage student presence, participation, and achievement, in particular among students who are at risk of marginalization, exclusion, and poor academic performance (Ainscow, 2005). Teachers who are familiar with peer learning strategies and are willing to apply them in practice can thus challenge traditional methods of instruction, at least in areas where these methods are particularly ineffective.

Peer tutoring, cooperative learning, and collaborative learning as inclusive practices

An educational system is inclusive when "students of all abilities learn together in the same classroom environment" (D'Addio, April, Endrizzi, Stipanovic, 2020, p. 12). According to Hafdís Guðjónsdóttir and Eddy Óskarsdóttir (2016, p. 4), inclusive education is a "process of increasing participation and decreasing exclusion". The discussed approaches to peer learning play a unique role in encouraging active student participation in educational processes and achieving educational goals, which, in addition to presence and acceptance, is the crucial prerequisite for inclusiveness in education (Council of Europe, 2021). This article analyzes how peer learning can improve the educational opportunities for all students in a formal setting.

As previously mentioned, peer tutoring occurs when a more competent peer tutor manages the interaction and teaches a less competent peer. This interaction resembles the traditional student/teacher relationship because knowledge or skills are not distributed equally between the participants. It appears that mutuality, one of the critical traits of peer learning, tends to be low in such interactions. However, a peer tutor assumes the teacher's role only temporarily, and he or she does not have the experience, authority, or knowledge of a professional teacher. Therefore, the tutor's status is closer to the tutee's status due to similarities in age, level of cognitive and emotional development, language,

and experience, which provide a point of reference in the learning process. According to Brzezińska, due to significant differences in competence levels, a professional teacher may be less able to help a student in a way that does not limit the student's independence. A student is thus more likely to turn for assistance to a peer whose intellectual advantage is only somewhat more significant and often applies to a given problem or a narrow set of skills (Brzezińska, 2005). Students whom peers teach as part of a program developed by a professional teacher may experience discomfort because they find it difficult to follow the instructions given by a peer (rather than a competent adult) (Fisher, Frey, 2019). Researchers have reported such concerns, but most studies have shown that tutor/tutee relationships usually generate positive results and that both parties remain equal partners in the social and emotional domain, although they temporarily assume the roles of a teacher and a student (Good, Brophy, 1997; Topping, Ehly, 2009). The explanations provided by peers in the classroom may be easier to understand than those given by professional teachers, and the learning process is more personalized and, consequently, more effective (Topping et al., 2017). Tutees receive support from peer tutors who focus on the tutees' needs and provide specific instructions needed at a given moment. Therefore, peer tutoring promotes the participation and engagement of students who find it difficult to follow a professional teacher's lecture-based style of instruction and do not understand the task or its context. As a result, peer tutoring increases opportunities for success in selected areas of the learning process. Peer tutoring delivers apparent benefits for tutees but also creates cognitive and social challenges for tutors, enabling them to understand better and optimize their learning (Topping et al., 2017). During interactions with less competent peers, tutors who are well prepared for their role restructure the existing knowledge through reorganization (Topping, Ehly, 2009; Galbraith, Winterbottom, 2011) and improve their metacognition (Galbraith, Winterbottom, 2011; Roscoe, Chi, 2004; Hill, Greive, 2011).

The fact that peer tutors and tutees can swap roles (although not in all programs) has significant implications for improving educational equity. Reciprocal tutoring is an attractive option for the participants due to its novelty, and the realization that every student can assume a tutor's role boosts self-esteem (Topping, 1996). Review articles have demonstrated that peer tutoring is also effective in improving academic performance and social skills, including in students with disabilities and at risk of disability, students with learning and behavioural problems, minority students who experience problems due to their ethnic or racial background, and students in complex social situations at different levels of education and various types of schools (Utley, Mortweet, Greenwood, 1997; Bowman-Perrott, Davis, Vannest, Williams, 2013; Leung, 2015; Moeyaert, Klingbeil, Rodabaugh, Turan, 2021). During regular interventions, non-disabled students who tutor disabled students can also develop empathic communication

skills, change their negative perceptions of disability and overcome prejudices, which can significantly improve their social relationships in the future (Johnson, 2016). In addition, high-needs and at-risk students rely on the tutor's support and can become tutors themselves (Osguthorpe, Scruggs, 1986; Spencer, Balboni, 2003; Shamir, Lazerovitz, 2007). Peer tutoring does not always produce the anticipated results. Its effectiveness can be undermined when the partners are not well matched in age, personality traits, level of competence, social bonds (Topping, 2009), or the type of performed tasks (Tudge, Rogoff, 1995).

Cooperative and collaborative learning are even more equitable because they are based on the fundamental assumption that the participants are equal (Topping et al., 2017). According to Robert E. Slavin, "all cooperative learning methods share the idea that students work together to learn and are responsible for one another's learning as well as their own" (2016, p. 396). All cooperative learning methods have three standard components: team rewards, individual accountability, and equal opportunities for success. By applying cooperative learning techniques, students working in groups win certificates and team rewards if they achieve above a designated criterion. Individual accountability implies that team success is determined by the contributions made by each team member. To achieve success, team members explain concepts to one another, help one another practice, and make sure that all team members have studied independently and are ready for the test that will be taken without teammate help. Equal opportunities for success imply that students contribute to their teams by improving their past performance. As a result, high, average, and low achievers are equally motivated to do their best, which ensures that the contributions made by all team members will be valued (Slavin, 2016).

Cooperative learning requires personal involvement, positive relationships between group members, and the ability to build individual competencies which determine a team's success. Cooperation is valuable in itself because it is not only a way to learn (learning through cooperation) but also a part of the content to be learned (learning to cooperate) (Jacobs, 2004). According to Linda Darling-Hammond (2017), cooperative learning in groups promotes empathy, honesty, and support for other group members, which builds social bonds and satisfactory relationships based on cooperation. A literature review indicates that cooperative learning is more effective than competitive and individualistic learning at all levels of education (Johnson, Maruyama, Johnson, Nelson, Skon, 1981; Johnson, Johnson, 1994; Johnson, Johnson, 2002). Cooperative learning enhances motivation, socialization, and personal development and builds positive peer relations (Roseth, Johnson, Johnson, 2008). This learning approach also benefits students with difficulties (McMaster, Fuchs, 2002).

Collaborative learning is a similar category of group interactions. According to Jeff Golub (1988), the main feature of collaborative learning is the task struc-

ture that enables students to talk because much of the learning occurs during student talk. Students are more likely to reflect on and explore new ideas when they are not directly supervised by a professional teacher (Boud et al., 1999). The teacher's role is to divide students into groups so that all students have equal opportunities to participate and achieve success. Group learning should be organized to ensure students with lower academic achievement can present their potential (McAuliffe, Dembo, 1994). Some structured collaborative learning programs create such opportunities, including Aronson's jigsaw technique (1978), which places considerable emphasis on cooperation and shared responsibility of all group members. To address and support diversity in the classroom, the teacher should adapt the educational program, type of classroom activities, the classroom setting, teaching materials, and the applied assessment techniques and procedures to the student's potential and perspectives resulting from racial, cultural, and ethnic diversity (Gay, Kirkland, 2003).

Both cooperative and collaborative learning contribute to a democratic school culture. Students who collaborate learn to recognize different points of view and are more likely to undertake negotiations and resolve conflict as they work within diverse contexts. Developing interpersonal relationships in cooperative classrooms increases student participation and engagement and decreases exclusion (Ferguson-Patric, 2012). Similarly to tutoring, cooperative learning and collaborative learning have limitations – cooperation involves more than students working together in groups. The teacher should skillfully divide students into groups and structure the interactions between group participants to stimulate real-world cooperation (Topping et al., 2017).

Conclusions

Peer learning is not an isolated practice but a set of strategies that promote learning through peer interaction. Although all types of peer learning have weaknesses and do not always bring the expected results, research indicates that peer learning promotes equity in education. Peer learning minimizes the superior role of the teacher in the teaching/learning processes, increases student activity and engagement, and encourages students to take responsibility for their learning. Cooperative learning programs should be tailored to the student's potential and enable students to achieve their own, often diverse goals. Cooperative learning is also instrumental in building friendships and strong personal ties, improving the general classroom atmosphere. Teachers searching for the most effective and attractive teaching/learning methods can rely on peer learning to foster students' development and their own professional development.

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Rówieśnicze uczenie się jako jedna z dróg do równości w edukacji

Streszczenie

Celem artykułu jest prezentacja *peer learning* jako strategii wspierającej równościowe podejście w edukacji instytucjonalnej. *Peer learning* obejmuje procesy uczenia się rówieśników wzajemnie od siebie, w toku interakcji formalnych i nieformalnych, bez znaczącej interwencji nauczyciela. Omówiono w artykule trzy odmiany *peer learningu*: *peer tutoring*, *cooperative learning* i *collaborative learning*, wskazując na ich zasadnicze elementy i znaczenie dla wyrównywania szans edukacyjnych uczniów. Do najważniejszych atutów *peer learning* w tym zakresie należy poszerzanie partycypacji i zwiększanie zaangażowania oraz podnoszenie osiągnięć wszystkich uczniów w zróżnicowanej klasie.

Słowa kluczowe: rówieśnicze uczenie się; edukacja włączająca; tutoring rówieśniczy; uczenie się oparte na współpracy; współpraca.

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Equal opportunities in shaping pupils' identity in a multicultural school environment. A pilotage concept of work for transcultural education in grades I–III

Abstract

Shaping children`s and youth`s identities from the perspective of dynamically changing societies after the outbreak of the COVID-19 pandemic and the Russian attack on Ukraine is one of the fundamental problems of educational and upbringing institutions. There is a lack of system solutions that take into account in the teaching and learning process both the pupil's home culture (often different from the environment of current residence) and the culture experienced in the perspective of life and education. Coexistence, building the cultural structure of individuals in multicultural societies, is possible by introducing, from the first stages of education, a transcultural approach to creating the school`s reality. It also balances the chances of each pupil to find its references: experiences and values that shape individual and collective identity while establishing protection against "getting lost".

This article aims to present a pilot concept of work, which points to theoretical and practical solutions in the field of education for trans-culturalism in grades I-III. The concept should then be verified in the school environment from both teachers' and students' perspectives. It will make it possible to determine whether the planned activities and how they are presented are appropriate for children at the first stage of education and whether, based on the prepared material, it is possible to balance the chances of shaping the identity of individuals in multicultural environments.

Keywords: early school education, individual identity, collective identity, transculturality.

Introduction

The political, economic and social world has undergone dynamic transformations in the last four years. As a result of the COVID-19 pandemic and the Russian attack on Ukraine, economic immigrants, sometimes returning with their entire families from European countries, and war refugees from Ukraine arrived in Poland. According to statistical data, by the end of 2020, the number of Poles staying abroad for more than three months was 176,000, lower than a year earlier and by over 300,000 than in 2017 (GUS, 2021). The most significant number of people who returned from Great Britain could fear the unfavourable effects of the British authorities' fight against the coronavirus, including the effects of restrictions on some sectors of the economy. The sense of an unstable social situation was also deepened by the United Kingdom's exit from the European Union (Kalwasiński, 2021).

However, the Russian attack on Ukraine has caused the largest migration crisis in the world in recent years. 15 million Ukrainians left the country – mainly women with children and seniors – 34% of the country's population. At the same time, until 2022, Poland experienced little inflow of migrants who applied for refugee status or subsidiary protection; it was treated as a transit country, with the predominance of short-term migration, usually lasting no longer than a few months, for work/economic reasons. February 24, 2022, is the date that changed the situation of the inflow of migrants to Poland. Currently, Ukrainian citizens are the largest group of foreigners legally residing in Poland (Wodzicki, Pichola, Patorska, 2022). Based on the Border Guard's data, since the beginning of Russia's aggression against Ukraine, over 10 million 604 thousand refugees from Ukraine have crossed the Polish-Ukrainian border (mainly women and children), with over 8.719 million people returning to Ukraine since the beginning of the war (KSG, 2023). According to the Centre for Analysis and Research of the Union of Polish Metropolises, it can be stated that together with the population of Ukrainian origin who arrived before February 24, 2022, there were approximately 3 million Ukrainian refugees in Poland in 2022, mainly in large cities (Centre for Analysis and Research of the UMP, 2022).

These events led to a change in Polish society's national and local structures, in which children with different experiences, values, origins and languages found themselves in school spaces, faced with the need for cooperation and coexistence but without transcultural codes.

The article presents theoretical and practical applications in the form of a pilotage concept of work for transcultural education in grades I–III. The concept – in subsequent research activities – tested in the school environment – is intended to:

— help to introduce an educational reality that will enable each individual (regardless of his or her native origin) to shape individual and collective identity in a multicultural social space;

— balancing the opportunities for building a cultural structure for students identifying with a different area of values and experiences than the one in which they pursue education, including reducing the sense of separateness/strangeness and developing cooperation and coexistence;

— enabling to pull together the group of multicultural pupils who identify their origin with the area in which they pursue education but who have weak identity structures; these structures, as a result of a dynamically changing society, may weaken and leave the individual without references – experiences and values that shape individual and collective identity;

— reducing the sense of "lostness" of every individual who, due to choosing inappropriate identity structures, succumbs to subcultural structures or heads towards social exclusion.

Trans-culturalism in education

Trans-culturalism in the social and humanistic scope means

> spatial being "beyond" the border(s) of given cultures and cultural mixing, which results in the emergence of new structures and cultural formations, built from heterogeneous networks, containing components common to other transcultural networks and differentiating elements (Nikitorowicz, Guziuk-Tkacz, 2021, p. 27).

It is also a scientific concept stating that modern cultures can undergo transitions/transversions, i.e. they are constructed in the shape of a puzzle (Nikitorowicz, Guziuk-Tkacz, 2021; Welsch, 1999). Cultural boundaries are constantly crossed in trans-culturalism, and new hybrid cultural qualities are created.

According to Wolfgang Welsch (1999), contemporary cultures, lifestyles, and life values interpenetrate to the point of their hybridisation. They are then not distinguished and become mixed, which creates their heterogeneity (Welsch, 1999). The interaction between two or more different cultural poles at the micro- and macro-social level becomes characteristic in this process. Cultural identity is shaped by taking into account the transnational territory to which belonging does not require the physical presence of an individual (Nikitorowicz, Guziuk-Tkacz, 2021).

In the problem of trans-culturalism, the human-culture relationship plays an essential role in the education process. An individual can take a passive or active attitude towards culture. In the first perspective, the relationship will be analysed based on the category of cultural patterns and considered as an external form that determines every person's duties and social obligations. However, if

an individual adopts an active attitude towards culture, the individual-culture relationship is placed in the perspective of a person's cultural identity. It takes on an internal character, where the leading role is played by the meanings given by a man to cultural artefacts. Individuals then liberate themselves through art, religion, language or science (Misiejuk, 2015). According to Ralph Linton (2000), culture lies at the cultural foundations of every person, and valuation, constituting the cultural order, is the basis of collective mentality material and behavioural elements of culture, marked with a given cultural value, becoming symbols of social groups in society. Communication occurs indirectly, and the group's symbolic system (cultural artefacts and their canonical interpretations) creates a reference for the moral assessment of human behaviour (Linton, 2000).

Transculturality in educational activities takes meaning only when personal relationships are created concerning cultural artefacts, which include:
— physical artefacts – everything that constitutes material culture;
— linguistic artefacts – the characteristic language used by members of a given group and myths and legends conveying the history of the community from its point of view (Misiejuk, 2015);
— behavioural artefacts – behaviour patterns, customs and rituals (Koźmiński, Piotrowski, 2000).

The young generation, entering the world of artefacts, should consciously read and process information encoded in specific things or behaviours and recreate their emotional value. An artefact determining the relationship of an item to the nature of that item directs the will to take over and continue the elements of culture present in a given area and not in a specific generation. Therefore, children and youth should learn about cultural artefacts' importance in a specific historical time. Thanks to this, it is embedded in the structure of culture and develops a sense of responsibility and the ability to shape tradition in the young generation (Misiejuk, 2015).

Modern cultures are no longer confined to national borders. They are spreading to larger and larger areas and the populations they inhabit. In this way, they create new "configurations of connections" (Welsch, 1998, p. 204) and "macro-complexes" (Nikitorowicz, Guziuk-Tkacz, 2021, p. 28). Cultures have, therefore, cast off their homogeneity/distinctiveness, and their structures are subject to mutual penetration and intermingling (Welsch, 1998).

An individual in the concept of trans-culturalism acquires a sense of contingency. In the micro-social sphere, it understands the dynamic nature of transformations of cultural networks, which influence the constant changes in the problems and situations it encounters. Its self-structure "I" remains in contact with others, creating an ever-evolving form of a hybrid. The formation of an identity is, therefore, an activity aimed at integrating many elements of different cultural origins, which become significant for the cultural formation of an individual (Welsch, 1998).

Anyone wanting to know their transcultural structure must accept/recognise the transcultural community. In return, this becomes a determinant of the construction of human identity, i.e. "feedback" (Nikitorowicz, Guziuk-Tkacz, 2021, p. 28). Therefore, the pupil in the educational process should be an entity: dynamic, subject to constant changes, and prepared for the transition between different structures/transversion (Nikitorowicz, Guziuk-Tkacz, 2021).

The student's cultural identity is then shaped concerning cultural artefacts that are recognised in connection with their presence in a given area and not in the tradition of a specific group. The individual adapts them to its activities, civilisational and own needs. It is also not bound by a constituted social symbol when communicating its cultural identity. Cultural identity becomes part of every person's biography, and its possession is characterised by high cultural awareness (Misiejuk, 2015)

In transcultural education, a pupil must move from the sense of inheriting culture to the awareness of the possibility of acquiring and constructing it by detecting meanings and searching for the meanings that cultural artefacts have for him. If an individual functioning in a multicultural society does not receive a chance to construct these competencies, forming his or her identity will be accidental. It may ultimately lead to constant identity crises (Misiejuk, 2015).

The concept of identity - taking into account the educational process

Identity, studied in many fields of science, is understood in the etymological context, meaning characteristic identity, which involves comparing or replacing one element with another. From a psychological perspective, it means the consciousness and self-awareness of an individual. However, in the metaphysical scope, this concept is associated with the immutability of being – its nature and essence. It can also be perceived as a set of features and properties enabling the identification of an entity or an object but taking into account the activities and relations between the subject and the object (Jeszka, 2022). We can also consider identity as primary and secondary (Dyczewski, 2015) and individual and collective (Kłoskowska, 1992).

Identity in the personal sphere is related to constructing the self's structure "I", i.e. the constitution of its ideas, judgments, beliefs and experiences (Zellma, 2002). An individual acquires a sense of uniqueness, specialness and distinctiveness by getting to know himself and determining the differences between himself and others (Piechaczek-Ogierman, 2019). Therefore, an individual's identity is the psychophysical unity of the so-called "proprium". A person is aware of being the same person despite the dynamically changing social, political and eco-

nomic reality and self-development. Does the individual know who it is, its roots, what groups it belongs to, and what it owes to them in shaping its personality? Identity in the self-structure is given and developed. Given by:

— nature – genetic, specific psychophysical features;
— culture – in the socialisation process, an individual receives from primary groups developed values, norms, behavioural patterns, the history of valued people and objects of everyday and ceremonial use, and a project of their future (Dyczewski, 2015).

According to Marek Szczepański (2003), shaping the "I" structure is the beginning of a process leading to the disclosure of the We structure – constituting a collective/social identity characterised by a system familiar to a given group: values, norms, customs, customs, language, and a specific territory. It is also based on the shared experience and internalisation of tradition, the present and defining the future (Szczepański, 2003). It is a set of self-definitions used to describe one's person, based on which the individual differentiates between Us and Other People in terms of Us-not-Us, i.e. Them (Reber, 2002). Collective identity is associated with the awareness of belonging similarity to a specific group and social category. The individual acquires specific schemes that form the basis of contact with Others (Lisowska, 2022). At the same time, a person interprets himself in relation to Others and places his distinctiveness in a specific biography and experiences (Jeszka, 2022).

It can, therefore, be said that members of the same cultural structure are united primarily by collective memory, world perception, time and space continuum, a reference to historical events important in the life of a given community. It should be assumed that the centre of the identity structure is unchanged - but its peripheries are subject to transformation. The more they enter into relationships with the changing reality, the more they strengthen their "proprium" and, with it, their adaptive abilities. Therefore, if it comes to stagnation, identity will also end. It is constant and, at the same time, changeable – partly given but at the same time constructed. Modification occurs through (un)intentional communication with the environment and the need to belong or dominate and stay in the community (Jeszka, 2022).

An individual has several social identities because he or she belongs to several communities, and, depending on the degree and type of connection with them, they acquire appropriate features and values in them, i.e. they undergo a socialisation process. Then, we can talk about the formation of primary and secondary identities. Primary ones refer to the entire personality of an individual: spheres and the whole of life, giving it meaning. These include family, ethnonational and religious identities. A man cannot wholly free himself from them when trying to change them. If he opposes them, he starts an open fight and abandons all values. Otherwise, he always maintains the element of his primary

identity. Secondary identity results from a person's belonging to a given community - it is generally a choice and does not require total commitment but is subject to the goal pursued (Dyczewski, 2015). Social changes, however, require the ability to leave one group and move to another while maintaining the fundamental values of primary identity, assuming that they will not block the creation of new network connections.

At the same time, in culturally diverse societies, on the one hand, an individual has a sense of "familiarity", "being itself", "being at home", and on the other, it experiences "strangeness" and "otherness" (Nikitorowicz, 2005, pp. 96–97). During this time, it also feels constantly confronted with Others – people, groups and their characteristics: traditions and cultures, behaviours and lifestyles.

Children's identity in a multicultural society can be created if they can understand and evaluate themselves, as well as various situations, values, conditions, related groups/communities, and people (Nikitorowicz, 2005). The school is therefore faced with a new task in which a significant role is played: civilisation progress and the development of modern technologies, promoting valuable lifestyles that preserve the identity and subjectivity of groups and individuals. The school should, therefore, respond to changes taking place in areas of life outside school and translate them into the internal school environment:
— daily contact between students and teachers;
— interactions between different cultural/family/inherited spaces;
— coexistence of diverse cultural societies and national groups (Lewowicki, 2007).
Developing students' identity in multicultural societies becomes indispensable to educational and upbringing activities. It is the process of:
— introducing cultural and religious pluralism;
— creating students' subjectivity and autonomy;
— implementing universal values into the world while developing attitudes of openness and tolerance.

Achieving identity determines an individual's autonomy and is closely related to accepting responsibility for one's choices and actions. In the existential sense, it determines the path of life and reflects perceived values (Schaffer, 2006). Without identity, a person becomes lost and should consciously perceive his place in the world, his immediate environment, and himself (Piechaczek-Ogierman, 2016).

For an individual to develop his or her identity in multicultural societies, one-dimensional perception of the individual should be rejected in the school space and a continuous process of human functioning in the so-called identity triad: inherited and acquired; roles and challenges, felt and realised. A multi-layered identity and, therefore, a solid existential foundation for a young person is possible when consciously maintaining one's identity in a new culture. Cultural differences that shape the pupil`s identity should be adequately managed (Nikitorowicz, 2008).

Pilotage work concept

The basis of the pilotage work concept is to indicate theoretical assumptions and methodological solutions enabling the implementation of the curriculum path in the field of education for trans-culturalism in grades I–III. It is an opportunity for equal access to educational and upbringing processes aimed at shaping pupils' identity in multicultural communities. The pilot work concept consists of activities in the space of school buildings, in the teaching-learning process, including the school classroom, in the social area.

1. The space of school buildings

School buildings and their space are an excellent place to enable pupils to have daily contact with aspects of various cultural manifestations. At the same time, it should be remembered that each member of the school community has his or her identity structure acquired from the home environment, which he or she confronts with other structures during his or her stay at the institution. The school needs to enable pupils on the periphery of their identity to open up to what is new/different but also valuable.

Pupils should create a space where both manifestations of their culture and elements of other cultures meet: move from what is native to multiculturalism and finally to dialogue for trans-culturalism. This process is possible by engaging children in joint art and multimedia projects on multicultural themes and sharing the products created through them on the walls of the corridors, in the library and throughout the school building complex. Students can create:
— Christmas cards in different languages;
— drawings showing holiday traditions and the history of cultural groups and the countries they come from;
— dictionaries with basic phrases in the language spoken by all members of the school community;
— symbols characteristic of their cultural, ethnical minority or nation;
— create audio recordings: music; oral expressions in multiple languages; historical stories.

In this concept, each created product needs to be available not in coercion but in curiosity, voluntarism resulting from the desire to focus on otherness. At the same time, the cooperation of multicultural pupils during projects is an opportunity to construct a correct dialogue and open them to others/different/new. It is a stimulus to act both in the creative/artistic and identity spheres – enabling a complete openness to what goes beyond the structures of native identity. On the other hand, it is an opportunity for the school to enable culturally different pupils to develop their identity – constructing it with the possibility

of drawing valuable experiences from other members of the school community. It is also an opportunity for children and youth representing local cultures to be curious about otherness. Therefore, it is an opportunity for everyone to find their place in the space of dynamically changing social, economic and political structures. It is a chance for an equal sense of security and self-identification.

2. The teaching-learning process

At the first educational stage, the core curriculum indicates areas of activity in patriotic, regional and intercultural education (Regulation of the Minister of National Education…, 2017). However, it does not take into account:
— shaping pupils' identity based on combining what is native with what is experienced and considered valuable;
— Adaptive perspective of people who, as it were, "forced" (due to war, pandemic or other random situations) to find themselves in a culturally different environment.
Therefore, it is impossible to ensure equal opportunities in access to educational and upbringing activities, leading to the formation of pupils' identity in multicultural societies based solely on the core curriculum.

A teacher/educator of grades I–III, having close contact with pupils, should use, in his work to shape their identity, the transcultural approach of coexistence, combining elements of cultural structures that become significant and valuable for people who are different from each other. Above all, he should point out a possibility and make people sensitive to the desire to listen, look, find something different, and create a space for opening up/showing native traditions. So that it can be used in the form of a cultural artefact (created in a given area) and not merely inherited within a generation. The presented theoretical perspective can be achieved through the following practical activities:
— introducing into social and Polish education references to:
    — essential words and concepts in a multicultural perspective;
    — symbols, heroes and events in the history of Europe and the world;
    — both national holidays and global holidays in the multicultural meaning;
The teacher should create abreast comparisons through worksheets, displayed images and spoken words (with exceptional help from students from a given cultural area). The special meaning will also have summative lessons, as they can include testing blocks for those willing to come from the indicated transcultural spaces.
    — fairy tales and legends related to the culture of pupils in particular classes but told/read by themselves. So that the history of their ethnic or national group becomes alive and not just recreated by the teacher. In this case, one can also group pupils into teams in which they will learn fairy tales and legends about a cultural area other than the one they be-

long to. The memorised material should then be presented to the rest of the class. It is an opportunity to strive for coexistence and create cultural structures for pupils in relation to the world's cultural diversity on a micro and macro social scale. It is also a chance for cultural adaptation and equal opportunities to shape one's personality, regardless of origin.

— introduction to music, art and social education:
  — organising once a year performance that takes into account cultural differences but also their coexistence within the local community;
  — organisation of art competitions focused on promoting a transcultural approach to connecting and coexistence of various ethnic, national and religious groups in a given area;
  — implementation at the end of the first stage of education, an intercultural event taking the form of artistic performances, assuming the participation of various minorities from the school's area of operation;
  — educational trips to spaces, institutions and places related to the functioning of national, ethnic and religious minorities in a given regional area, considering the specificity of their functioning for the local community.

It is not about passive participation in cultural transgression but about consciously learning about different structures, values and experiences and acquiring the ability to evaluate them in the future from the perspective of one's own life. Therefore, it is essential to introduce during this type of didactic activity tasking of (all) pupils - responsibility for individual areas of the project and homework, which are an extension of each educational form and enable the consolidation of knowledge and the involvement of students in the learning process.

3. Social area

Each educational institution cooperates with local non-governmental organisations, cultural institutions, higher education representatives, etc. It is essential to introduce active shaping of the social space, assuming a dynamically changing structure of the population of the regional environment. To this end, there should be developed a permanent presence of representatives of national, ethnic and religious minorities at school as well as regionalists - historical and cultural educators, who will run a block of additional classes in the form of school interest clubs in cooperation with teachers from a given educational institution. I suggest interest groups among the additional activities: regional culture, traditions of particular cultural areas of Europe, and the language of national and ethnic minorities. Classes should be adapted to the methodology of working with pupils at the first stage of education.

Such created school`s reality will enable every young person to adapt to culture and shape their own identity (regardless of origin) with the possibility of

drawing not only from the native culture but also sensitising them to the values of other cultural spaces. It is an excellent opportunity to learn what is new and show the differences.

Conclusions

The pilotage concept of the work formulates theoretical judgments. It provides practical solutions in the field of education for trans-culturalism, aimed at enabling pupils in grades I–III equal access to the processes shaping their individual and collective identity in a multicultural society. Education in the field of trans-culturalism is the creation of a new reality in the perspective of the dynamically changing society of Europe and the world as a result of the COVID-19 pandemic and Russia's attack on Ukraine - and therefore intensifying the processes of migration and emigration of people and cultural mixing. It is also an opportunity to reduce the alienation among children who find themselves in a cultural area other than their original one and to prepare these individuals for cooperation and coexistence. At the same time, it is also a balancing act for pupils with weak identity structures to find their place in multicultural communities. The imbalance of identity and the inability to shape it may lead to children being left without cultural references and experience patterns. The school's task is to prevent pupils from "getting lost" and may succumb to subcultural structures or lead to social exclusion.

The presented pilotage concept requires further research:
1. analysis of the potential of creative work and the possibility of transmitting elements of their own culture to individual pupils who identify themselves with national, ethnic and religious minorities, including the possibilities of their use;
2. checking the proposed practical solutions, i.e. implementing work with the concept in a specific group of recipients, taking into account the origin of pupils, including multinational classes;
3. assessing teachers' capabilities in the field of transcultural activities, including specific forms of teaching work;
   — observation of the reception of individual stages of the concept - all proposed practical solutions: reactions, impressions and emotions of pupils and teachers;
4. description of a sample fragment of the script while indicating its communicative and cognitive qualities that will allow the message and proposed forms of work to be considered beneficial in the process of shaping identity among children at the first stage of education;
5. identification of the potential base of institutions and non-governmental organisations dealing with the space of local culture and tradition and national,

ethnic and religious minorities that can cooperate with the school environment.

In this way, the activities carried out will allow for verification of whether the topic (its scope) and the method of presentation are appropriate for children in grades I-III and whether, based on the prepared material, it is possible to shape individual and collective identity, necessary for living and functioning in the modern multicultural world?

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Równe szanse w kształtowaniu tożsamości uczniów
w wielokulturowym środowisku szkolnym.
Pilotażowa koncepcja pracy na rzecz edukacji w zakresie
transkulturowości w klasach I–III

Streszczenie

Kształtowanie tożsamości dzieci i młodzieży, w perspektywie dynamicznie zmieniających się społeczeństw po wybuchu pandemii COVID-19 i ataku Rosji na Ukrainę, stanowi jeden z podstawowych problemów placówek edukacyjnych i wychowawczych. Brakuje bowiem rozwiązań systemowych, uwzględniających w procesie nauczania-uczenia się zarówno kulturę rodzimą ucznia (często różną od środowiska obecnego zamieszkania), jak i przeżywaną w perspektywie życia i edukacji. Współistnienie, budowanie struktury kulturowej jednostek w społeczeństwach wielokulturowych jest możliwe poprzez wprowadzanie, od pierwszych etapów edukacji, podejścia transkulturowego w kreowaniu rzeczywistości szkolnej. Istotne jest tu także równoważenie szans każdego ucznia na odnalezienie własnych odniesień: doświadczeń i wartości kształtujących tożsamość indywidualną i zbiorową, a przy tym ukonstytuowanie ochrony przed „zagubieniem".

Celem niniejszego artykułu jest przedstawienie pilotażowej koncepcji pracy, w której wskazuje się na rozwiązania teoretyczne i praktyczne z zakresu edukacji na rzecz transkulturowości w klasach I–III. Koncepcja ta powinna zostać następnie zweryfikowana w środowisku szkolnym zarówno w perspektywie nauczycieli, jak i uczniów. Pozwoli to na stwierdzenie, czy zaplanowane działania oraz sposób ich prezentacji są właściwe dla dzieci na pierwszym etapie edukacji oraz czy na podstawie przygotowanego materiału można równoważyć szanse w kształtowaniu tożsamości jednostek w środowiskach wielokulturowych.

Słowa kluczowe: edukacja wczesnoszkolna; tożsamość indywidualna; tożsamość zbiorowa; transkulturowość.

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The Role of a Sensory Diet in Improving the Quality of Psychosocial Functioning of Students in Inclusive Education

Abstract

Effective sensory processing is necessary for physiological regulation, the generation of appropriate behavioural responses and the development of academic skills. The physical environment in the classroom and at school can impact a child's ability to become engaged in education. By creating proper sensory diets and a sensory-friendly classroom, teachers can help children achieve an optimal level of arousal and become successful students.

That is why paying attention to the possibilities of creating a sensory-friendly environment is so essential as providing the appropriate amount of sensory stimuli tailored to students' needs and capabilities.

An in-depth literature review has been carried out to justify the role of a sensory diet and a sensory-friendly classroom.

Analysing the theoretical and scientific context justifies the development of sensory programs in inclusive education. It shows the possibilities for both using and adapting them to the needs of students.

Keywords: inclusive education, sensory diet, psychosocial functioning, special educational needs.

Introduction

Sensorimotor integration is a process in the central nervous system, consisting of organising sensory information to generate appropriate adaptive responses. It consists of receiving, segregating, recognising, comparing, interpret-

ing and merging information in the central nervous system to evoke a response to a given stimulus adequate to the situation. Without this feature of the central nervous system, humans would not be able to develop and, therefore, learn new, more complex skills. The correct development of sensorimotor integration depends on the efficient functioning of the central nervous system and the supply of an appropriate amount of stimuli from the body and the environment. Integrating information from the most basic and earliest developing sensory systems – vestibular (sense of balance), proprioceptive (deep feeling) and tactile – plays a vital role here. Thus, sensorimotor integration disorders may become a source of many problems for a child in terms of both motor development and cognitive and social development (Matyja, Osińska, Rejdak, Zawisza, 2006).

The reception and integration of information from the primary senses (touch, balance and proprioception with the senses of sight and hearing) constitute the basis for developing skills at higher sensorimotor functions. Gradually, the skills are becoming more and more complex and precise so that at the age of 6, the child could be ready to start school (Karga, 2006).

The development of sensorimotor integration processes takes place in four stages. The first stage is related to developing reflex activities and basic sense systems. Therefore, the tactile system is fundamental in the first months of a child's life. This stage secures the basic physiological and emotional needs as a source of satisfaction, e.g. when eating, cuddling, and forming an emotional bond with the mother. The gradually built tactile experiences shape the image of their own body and develop motor skills. It also has the function of informing about dangerous or unpleasant stimuli.

On the other hand, integrating vestibular-proprioceptive experiences allows for shaping the sense of gravitational security, postural reactions and eye movements, developing the essential ability to control the eyes at this stage. The first and second years of life are the second stages of sensory development, associated with developing gross motor skills, skills related to planning motor activities and bilateral coordination, and somatognosia. Speech is also developing as a result of ever more intense experiences. The third stage is related to the development of the ability to perform complex motor activities, eye-hand coordination, fine motor skills, and lateral domination of the body, and it occurs from 3 to 5 years of a child's life. The last – fourth stage covers developing all the skills that determine a proper school start – i.e. concentration, emotional stability, the ability to think and organise impressions for effective action (Wiśniewska, 2016).

Further development depends on the proper development and structure of the sensory organs, as well as the quantity and quality of the incoming stimuli from the environment in which the child explores, as well as the possibility of free exploration adequate to the child's abilities, skills and developmental age (Matyja, Domagalska, 2011, Wójcik, 2017).

Thanks to the maturation of sensory centres in the central nervous system, the perception functions are improved, informing the body about any environmental changes. This personal experience is enriched, which allows the child to react to more subtle and complex stimuli and to synthesise information about the surrounding reality (Wójcik, 2015).

Proper maturation of sensory integration determines the proper maturation of the child's body and psyche. Therefore, sensorimotor integration and the interaction of the vegetative and limbic systems are essential to development (Sadowska, 2001).

Different types of disorders, difficulties and disabilities and related reactions of children to environmental stimuli show that no single picture is typical for pupils with special educational needs. Every child will present a different sensory sensitivity and react differently to the same stimuli. What for one student will be neutral in reception, in the other, can cause severe discomfort and lead to inappropriate reactions and behaviours. This variety of cases can be a real challenge for the teacher, disorganising work and hindering education.

An essential skill of a teacher that can make his or her daily work with children much more accessible is the proper identification of the sensory needs of their pupils and providing them with the so-called appropriate sensory diet. It involves limiting or intensifying specific stimuli in contact with individual students. To do this, every educator must understand the specificity of each child's sensory functioning (Stańczyk, 2014).

Sensory diet and sensory-friendly school environment

Every person, regardless of age, is different in terms of individual needs. They depend not only on individual characteristics, such as temperament and personality but also on the influence of factors in the family and social environment. How these needs are met determines the behaviour and actions of each individual.

Each individual finds himself or herself differently in an environment full of stimuli. Each of us has a different limit for correctly receiving and interpreting stimuli, depending on our predispositions, the quality and intensity of stimuli from the environment and the ability to adapt and self-regulate.

Each person also requires a unique amount and type of sensory input to maintain an optimal level of arousal, regulate their mood and perform their daily activities (Wilbarger & Wilbarger, 1991).

Difficulties in this area may affect a student's ability to receive information, respond to requests, participate in social situations, write, play sports, and maintain normal arousal levels and work readiness. For students with special educational needs, the situation becomes even more complicated.

A child with special educational needs not only has limited opportunities to explore the world due to diseases, dysfunctions and disabilities but also very often cannot satisfy his or her sensory needs. Deprivation or excess stimuli may cause limitations in the perception of the surrounding reality. Sensory, intellectual, motor, specific disabilities, learning difficulties, and autism lead to various delays in the process of developing self-service activities, eye-hand coordination, spatial orientation, praxis, tactile, auditory, gustatory perception, etc., integration of reflexes, appropriate motor skills, which in turn may cause difficulties in dealing with emotions, interpersonal difficulties and, finally, difficulties at school (Kucharczyk, Olempska-Wysocka, 2017, p. 75–76).

That is why it is so important to know the sensory profile of each child – both those without disabilities and those with specific developmental and educational challenges. A sensory profile determines a specific child's area and degree of sensory sensitivity. The profile helps to understand a child's sensory processing patterns in everyday situations and how these difficulties affect functional performance (Dunn, Bennet 2002, Wiśniewska, 2016).

Qualifications and experience to carry out a specialised sensory integration diagnosis are required, but each teacher can try on their own, guided by intuition, to recognise the sensory needs of their students – some of them may have, for example, a particularly great need for movement, others will be hypersensitive to touch or hearing. It certainly requires sacrifice more time, but the investment seems very desirable. Thanks to such an analysis, the teacher can create a better environment for children and provide the right portion of experiences to those students who need sensory stimulation (Przyrowski, 2012).

Tools that show children's sensory difficulties and clearly will be helpful, including Sensorimotor Questionnaires by Przyrowki or Karga and Sensory Profiles by Dunn or Wiśniewska (Dunn 2002, Wiśniewska 2016, Przyrowski, 2021).

By understanding each context of situations with which a child interacts throughout the day and the associated specific child's behaviours that may impact learning, teachers can provide appropriate stimulation and environmental modifications that can be easily implemented in the classroom.

That is why, to increase students' success in the classroom, it is important to educate teachers in recognising sensory difficulties and disorders and implementing strategies based on sensory stimulation, which will allow for faster identification of the causes of a child's difficulties at school and development of a procedure that will meet the possible sensory needs of students.

Introducing a sensory diet is essential – an individualised sensory interaction program designed to help the child function better at home and school.

Wilbarger (1991) coined the term sensory diet to describe a strategy for developing individualised programs that provide planned and scheduled activities to address a person's sensory needs so that behaviour remains purposeful. It

refers to the need for an individual to have varied sensory experiences throughout the day, similar to a nutritional diet, to maintain an optimal level of arousal or alertness to meet environmental and task demands.

Parents, teachers and therapists need to know which natural daily routine activities provide the child's sensory stimuli that positively impact the state of arousal, emotions, the concentration of attention, coordination, perception and behaviour (Przyrowski, 2012, p. 186). A sensory diet is a therapeutic strategy aiming to introduce the nervous system to the appropriate stimulation level for a given person, enabling optimal functioning and social participation.

The Wilbargers (1991) recommended six components to be included in a sensory diet:

1. All activities in a sensory diet are prescribed after an in-depth assessment of the child's.
2. All activities should occur naturally within the child's ecology and are sustainable.
3. Sensory-based activities are prescribed that can be done quickly and are repeated periodically throughout the day.
4. Consistent routines are developed to increase predictability for the child, prepare for upcoming events, and help to seek out opportunities for sensory experiences that provide long-lasting effects. Teachers also need to be aware that interactions with people generate a lot of potentially disruptive sensory input for the child in the form of voice, odours, eye contact, and touch.
5. Environmental adaptation - safe play areas are created that provide spaces that the child can go to if overstimulated and reduce disruptive stimulation.
6. Participation in play and leisure activities that meet the child's sensory needs.

A vital element of the sensory diet approach is the introduction of weighing appropriate techniques for calming, organising or stimulating the central nervous system. It will allow for the implementation of specific therapeutic assumptions, teaching the child to use them at any time, depending on their individual needs, regardless of therapeutic meetings. Depending on the child's needs, priority is given to stimulating or calming activities.

Techniques leading to calming down and calming the body will include deep pressure massage, also used in the form of self-massage, joint compression, the use of equipment providing proprioceptive sensations (heavy rehabilitation pouffe, weighted vest or blanket, ankle and knee weights, etc.), tight-fitting clothes, body, rhythmic linear movement, "white noise" or quiet music with a stable rhythm, isolation from intense light.

Better organisation will, in turn, be influenced by proprioceptive games and exercises, vibration, providing oral stimulation (e.g. sucking hard candy, chew-

ing), and rhythm in activities. However, intense physical games (e.g. chasing and hide and seek), sitting or jumping on a ball, trampoline, etc. will increase arousal. Specific environmental conditions can also increase arousal: fast music, sudden sounds, bright light, fresh, cool air (Godwyn, Emmons, McKendry-Anderson 2006, Wójcik, 2014).

Providing the conditions necessary to meet sensory needs allows children to maintain focused attention longer and facilitates learning. In order to prevent sensory overload, it is essential to know about the reactivity of the child, adapt the number and type of activities to the needs of the person concerned, teach self-regulation strategies, create opportunities for real rest (also understood as free time, i.e. the time that the child/person can spend only on doing tasks that are pleasant for yourself, bring peace, relaxation and tranquillity, building a specific comfort zone) and sleep, which makes it possible to develop self-regulation habits (Wiśniewska, 2018).

Self-regulation is one of the factors linked to students' academic achievement. Acquiring competencies for academic and non-academic success is necessary, and disruptions in self-regulation skills may lead to maladaptive behaviours (Shields, Cicchetti, Ryan, 1994). Effective sensory processing is essential for developing self-regulation skills – physiological regulation and the generation of appropriate behavioural responses.

Sensorimotor experiences that the sensory diets provided may have met the participants' sensory needs, thereby improving their target behaviours related to sensory processing skills. These sensorimotor experiences may have helped participants produce appropriate adaptive responses and participate in daily occupations, as evidenced by positive changes in target behaviours related to psychosocial skills (maladaptive behaviours) and classroom engagement (off-task behaviours) (Pingale, Vidya, 2018).

The sensory environmental modification should be combined with sensory diets as a compensatory intervention in which a change is made in the intensity, complexity, or quality of one or more sensory elements in the ambient physical environment surrounding the child to support child functioning and participation (Bodison, Parham, 2018).

Reducing the excess sensory stimuli in the classroom is necessary - potential distractors that may disorganise children. Teachers must remember that the individual sensory perception of each student may condition distractors. Therefore, educators must bear in mind tactile distractors (the proximity of a friend, being bumped, pushed or touched by others may be unpleasant for a student. If we know this is a problem for children, let him sit in the first row or the corner of the room. During class activities and excursions, we should ensure that there is enough space. We should also take into account visual distractors in the form of excess visual stimuli - to eliminate them. We should ensure tidiness in the

room (cleaning the board, placing posters, display boards and other teaching aids at the side instead of right in front of the room). Examples include alterations in room lighting, elimination of extraneous visual stimuli, or changes to the sensory features of furniture or objects in a room, including colours, covered aids on shelves, and fixed classroom layout. In case of symptoms of excessive reactivity to auditory stimuli, we should make sure that the student sits away from the window, door, or noisy equipment, soundproofing a room. It is worth remembering that raising the voice while talking to a child with hypersensitive hearing will not make him or her listen more carefully but will only make him or her feel even more distracted. It is better to speak in a normal tone of voice and look the student in the eye. You can place your hand on the child's shoulders while talking to him or her to maintain contact with him or her (provided that the child is not overly reactive to tactile stimuli) (Przyrowski 2012, Bodison, Parham, 2018).

Modifying the environment should not focus only on eliminating distractors from the environment. However, it should also include all everyday school situations, e.g. implementation of tasks in individual school subjects (art and technology classes, physical education, desk work, break between classes, play, homework, meals, organisational tasks, dressing, taking care of hygiene) as well as activities performed at home (Nackley, 2009).

Although this topic is crucial from the point of view of learning and upbringing in inclusive education, the current evidence on the effect of sensory diets is limited. So far, little research has been carried out in the group of non-disabled students and their disabled peers, and if it has been carried out to a small extent, on a limited research group. Also, findings of the studies on the effects of sensory diets are mixed; their results often show contradictory results or include different points of view.

Pingale (2018) study investigated the effect of sensory diets on children's sensory processing skills, psychosocial skills, and engagement in classroom activities. This study used a single-subject ABCA design. Five children between the ages of five and eleven participated in the study. The study consisted of an initial baseline phase A_1, the control intervention phase B, sensory diets intervention phase C, and the second baseline phase A_2. Each phase lasted for seven days. The participants were videotaped during classroom group activities. Visual analysis of the data showed that sensory diets positively affected participants' sensory processing, psychosocial skills, and classroom engagement.

Pingale, Fletcher, and Candler (2019) also investigate the effect of sensory diets on children's psychosocial skills in the school environment. A single subject A-B-A design was used with three children attending 1st and 2nd-grade level special education classes in an urban public school. Three target behaviours individualised for each child were measured, each in a group and individual class-

room context. Visual analysis showed a decrease in problematic behaviours for the three participants with the introduction of the sensory diet. What is essential is that this decrease persisted after intervention withdrawal, which means that brief sessions of sensory diets during the school day effectively improve children's sensory processing, psychosocial, and classroom engagement behaviours and may have a continued beneficial effect.

The study by Sahoo and Senapati (2014) aimed to determine whether sensory diet and sensory integration therapy would exhibit more significant improvement in the functional behaviour of children with attention deficit hyperactive disorder (ADHD) than those who received the sensory integration therapy alone. Twenty-eight subjects aged 6–12 years were selected by screening with sensory profile and ADHD rating scale. The subjects were divided into two groups with equal no of subjects conveniently in a random order. The experimental subjects were provided a sensory diet through outdoor play and SI intervention, and the control group subjects were provided SI intervention only. The subjects in the experiment have shown improved functional behaviour in family, school, life skills, self-concept, social activities and decreased risky activities.

The purpose of Dodson-Norris study (2007) was to determine the effects of using sensory diet activities on the adverse behaviours of two students with severe cerebral palsy. Two students were selected for this study, one boy, age 16 and one girl, age 15, because they were not showing improvement in their adverse behaviours, which may be due to frequent staff changes in their previous classroom. The sensory diet activities included on the form were deep pressure brushing and joint compressions, hugs and squeezes, lotion with deep pressure massage, walking, bean bag mashing, swinging, rolling on the ball, using a vibrating bug, playing in tactile bins of rice/beans/popcorn, playing in wet tactile materials (e.g., Jell-0 pudding, water), leg rolling, wrapping in a blanket, squeezing materials, bouncing on air mattress, wearing weighted vest, spinning, pushing in scooter chair, painting skin with various textured brushes, listening to calming music, and blowing bubbles. Students showed significant improvement in interaction with the staff and in many adverse behaviours. The results and interpretations of this qualitative study suggest that administrators, special educators, therapists and parents need particular strategies designed by the occupational therapist to support student success in the classroom.

Mora and Chapparo (2011) study examined the impact of using a sensory intervention within a home context to improve behavioural responses and functional outcomes for children with intellectual disability, behaviour problems and sensory defensiveness. Seventeen children aged 4½ to 11 years with a mean age of 6½ years participated in the study. Three of the children had a mild intellectual disability, ten of the children had a moderate intellectual disability, and four had a severe intellectual disability. Twelve out of the seventeen children also

had a diagnosis of autism. The sensory diet intervention was designed for 6 to 12 weeks. Interventions were activity-based and were scheduled into the children's daily routines to provide additional sensory input, e.g., arm wrestling at morning tea time; prepare a child for the coming event or interaction, e.g., wearing a weighted backpack to enter school; provide a space that the child could go to when overwhelmed, e.g., rolling wheel and also to participate in play activities, e.g., climbing frame at the playground. Results of this experimental study show that family life became manageable and community activities could occur without parents being concerned about their children's behaviour. These outcomes were all very positive and impacted the overall family functioning.

Another study used a single-subject ABCA experimental design with five children attending prekindergarten through fourth-grade special education in an urban public school. Positive and individualised changes in sensory processing, psychosocial, and classroom engagement behaviours were noted for the five children when sensory diets were administered in brief sessions throughout a school day. Changes did not occur in response to control intervention sessions, indicating that the sensory aspects of the intervention may have had an influence (Pinger, Fletcher, Candler, Pickens, Dunlap, 2021).

According to Thomson (2011, p. 203), sensory-based interventions have proven to positively impact the sensory processing abilities of individuals with varying forms of SPD research. Evidence has shown that access and participation in sensory environments as a supplement to daily routines can enhance the sensory awareness of individuals with neurological disabilities. The study also shows that maladaptive behaviours decreased, participation increased, and environmental barriers were broken down after allowing the individual to regulate his/her sensory systems.

Barrett, Zhang, Moffat, and Kobbacy (2013) aimed to explore environmental impacts on learning beyond solely visual stimuli. The observed results of the study demonstrated the negative impacts of electrical lighting. At the same time, cooler temperatures improve performance on learning assessments, allowing students to adapt to temperature-improved performance quickly; an appealing visual environment decreases behaviour outbursts, and student artwork on display improves the student's sense of ownership over the learning process. They also found that window size does not impact overall participation. However, the increased natural light in the environment and allowing students to use ergonomic and comfortable furniture significantly increased the student's ability to learn and focus on tasks in the classroom. According to researchers, there was an impact of classroom design on learning. It demonstrated the correlation between the display of student artwork/pictures and students' overall sense of autonomy and importance in their learning pursuits, allowing students to be more engaged in their learning and all other education-related tasks.

In-depth research studies, such as that completed by Mills et al. (2016), have also concluded a relationship between disruptive behaviours and unmet sensory needs.

Based on solid theoretical foundations, several authors (Bishop, 2010; McAllister, 2010; Lawlor, 2019; Stearns, 2022) have also developed proposals for sensory therapeutic interactions in school conditions and adjustments to the students, educational environment.

The proposals for sensory diets and adaptations of the environment to the child's sensory capabilities presented in these studies concerned primarily such aspects as:

1. A sensory diet tool bag with required tools might be helpful to implement the scheduled strategies to be sent from school to home daily. The contents that should be included in the bag are tools required to implement the sensory strategies planned in the sensory diet, e.g. a weighted vest (5% of the child's body weight), a personal CD player or an mp3 player with adaptive headphones. a soft bristle medical hand brush to perform the brushing protocol therapy) (Bishop, 2010).

2. Sensory diet can include activities that include vestibular and proprioceptive input – jumps prior to joining the rest of the class for extensive group learning, having a student always be the designated "helper" to push desks around when rearranging classroom, having a student assist with reaching high to point to words/pictures on the board when the teacher is learning (Stearns, 2022).

3. Various tactile and visual fidgets can help children self-regulate, increasing their ability to focus on education-related tasks. However, because of the distracting nature of fidget toys in general, it is essential to establish clear expectations for appropriate use in the classroom setting and use such tools only for regulatory purposes.

4. Give alternative seating strategies to regulate proprioceptive and vestibular input and regulate arousal (therapy ball, wobble seats, seat cushions, standing desks, lap desks and lower tables to use while seated on the floor can be a handy tool in helping students maintain focus on learning).

5. To support more independence in self-regulation regarding sensory needs, the Zones of Regulation Program might be helpful – it teaches self-regulation skills through cognitive behavioural therapy techniques to categorise different feelings and states of arousal into four coloured zones. The Zones of Regulation from highest level of arousal to lowest are as follows: Red, Yellow, Green, and Blue, with Green being the optimal level of arousal. This tool can be helpful to be used in conjunction with other sensory regulation techniques to help students identify their states of arousal and develop independence in self-regulation through using sensory tools to get back to the "green zone" (Stearn 2022, p. 53).

6. Remember about stretch breaks throughout the day to ensure that kids are not sitting for extensive periods.
7. The distractions of views-out are best dealt with by having blinds or curtains in the classroom.
8. Extra personal space is essential.
9. Using alternative lighting options such as lamps, open windows, or light covers helps improve the quality of the light, directly correlates to decreased stress for students and increases the ability to retain information presented by teachers.
10. Children's behaviour might differ in different room volumes – the children tend to be calmer in smaller rooms.
11. Using screens or shelving and storage units. Having a number of these on lockable castors is an excellent benefit in quickly changing the classroom layout to suit different needs and also bring change into the classroom (McAllister, 2010)
12. When decorating the walls of the sensory-friendly classroom, a teacher should be mindful of the number and placement of stimuli presented to students – too many anchor charts, colours, textures, decorations, etc. placed together in a small area create visual noise. It is better to slowly add visual accents on the walls over time to avoid overloading visual input too quickly.
13. The classroom should be easy to navigate, with open pathways between desks, tables, counters, chairs, etc. With more room to move and clear pathways to follow, children will evade collisions and unwanted sensory input from peers, such as touches, noises, and smells.
14. Consistency and structure are essential during the school days with exceptional learners. Establishing consistent routines and schedules will support students, who benefit from knowing what to expect each day (Lawlor, 2019).
15. A calm-down corner can be used for a variety of reasons. It can be a place to go for children demonstrating any complex or disruptive behaviours as a place to go and regulate themselves using sensory and social-emotional-based strategies. Sensory/fidget tools including but not limited (Stearn, 2022, p. 26–49).

All this may become the basis for creating new universal proposals for school sensory programs adapted to students.

Conclusion

Commonly used sensory input strategies can be used by both parents and professionals. The sensory diet can only be a powerful behavioural tool if adequately designed and implemented. Parents and professionals can make life

easier for themselves and their children by planning and implementing a balanced sensory diet that strengthens neurological development and improves self-help skills (Wilbarger & Wilbarger, 1991; Kranowitz, 2005).

The intensity and regularity of a sensory diet can be an inclusive and productive intervention in inclusive education, which helps organise surroundings and will improve the teacher's work and allow students to participate more fully in class life, education and social interactions. Diagnosis of sensory preferences should be part of the standard diagnostic procedure carried out by the teacher.

Yes, it requires acquiring additional knowledge using additional tools and work, but one must be aware that the benefits for both the student and the teacher will be disproportionately higher.

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Rola diety sensorycznej w podnoszeniu jakości funkcjonowania psychospołecznego uczniów edukacji włączającej

Streszczenie

Efektywne przetwarzanie sensoryczne jest niezbędne do regulacji fizjologicznej, generowania odpowiednich reakcji behawioralnych i rozwoju umiejętności akademickich. Środowisko fizyczne w klasie i szkole może mieć wpływ na zdolność dziecka do zaangażowania się w edukację. Tworząc odpowiednią dietę sensoryczną i przyjazną sensorycznie klasę, nauczyciele mogą pomóc dzieciom osiągnąć optymalny poziom pobudzenia, a co za tym idzie – odnieść sukces w nauce.

Dlatego tak ważne jest zwrócenie uwagi na możliwości tworzenia środowiska przyjaznego sensorycznie i zapewnienie odpowiedniej ilości bodźców zmysłowych, dostosowanych do indywidualnych potrzeb i możliwości uczniów.

Aby uzasadnić rolę diety sensorycznej i przyjaznej zmysłom sali lekcyjnej, przeprowadzono dogłębny przegląd literatury. Analiza kontekstu teoretyczno-naukowego pozwoli uzasadnić tworzenie programów sensorycznych w edukacji włączającej, ukazać możliwości i sposoby zarówno ich stosowania, jak i właściwego dostosowywania do potrzeb uczniów.

Słowa kluczowe: edukacja włączająca; dieta sensoryczna; funkcjonowanie psychospołeczne; specjalne potrzeby edukacyjne.

RESEARCH REPORTS

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Parental Influence Modelling the Formation of Adolescents' Coping Strategies in Situations of Social Conflict

Abstract

The study aimed to search for a family aetiology of strategies for adolescents in situations of social conflict inherent in the pattern of parental response to situations of social conflict. The research used the Questionnaire on Coping Strategies of Parents in Situations of Social Conflict (in Polish – KSRwSK) by D. Borecka-Biernat, and the Questionnaire for the Study of Coping Strategies of Adolescents in Situations of Social Conflict (in Polish – KSMK) by D. Borecka-Biernat. Empirical research was conducted in junior high schools. They included 893 adolescents (468 girls and 425 boys) aged 13–15. The research analysis showed that the mother and Father, perceived as using destructive and constructive strategies in social conflict, contribute to modelling a process involving destructive and constructive behaviour used in cases of social conflict.

Keywords: adolescents, modelling behaviour, coping strategy, social conflict situation.

Introduction

Difficult situations are not unique to human life. On the contrary, they accompany us from early childhood. Difficult situations contain factors that cause disruptions to individuals' goal-oriented activities, have properties that threaten to satisfy the needs, aspirations and essential values, and cause unpleasant

emotional experiences (Tyszkowa, 1986). Difficult situations are not a homoge-neous class but an internally heterogeneous group. Situations of social conflict are a significant group where the aspirations of an individual conflict or are in-compatible with those of other people, and the realisation of their aspirations is threatened. (Balawajder, 2010).

Interpersonal conflicts affect people of all ages and backgrounds. It is impos-sible to protect oneself against them because people have different value sys-tems and interests. In everyday interactions, there are often clashes between the views, judgements, and aspirations of people coming into contact with each other within the framework of certain social situations. Therefore, the view should be taken of the natural occurrence of conflict phenomena in the milieu (Deutsch, Coleman ed., 2005).

Adolescents in a situation of social conflict

Conflicts affect both adult and teenage communities. Adults tend to under-estimate how many difficult situations adolescents face. Adolescence is a crucial stage in everyone's life and is considered a transitional moment between child-hood and adulthood. Physical and psychological changes accompany the trans-formation of a child into an adult. (Brzezińska et al., 2016; Czerwińska-Jasiewicz, 2015; Obuchowska, 2000). Adolescent children develop attitudes of rebellion, defiance, striving for independence, self-reliance and adulthood. Adolescence is often called the age of storms, anxieties and restlessness.

In the lives of adolescents, difficult situations of social interaction containing an element of insecurity to one's safety, the pursuit of aspirations or goal attain-ment (satisfaction of needs) are frequent. Adolescents experience various daily problems regarding school, peers and the family home. Research results ob-tained by Beata Ciupińska (2011), Tomasz Garstka (2011), Ewa Gurba (2020), Terry Honess et al. (1997), Brenda Lohman and Patricia Jarvis (2000), Krzysztof Polak (2010), Joanna Różańska-Kowal (2004), Bogdan Stańkowski (2009) show that adolescents most frequently perceived conflict with a teacher, quarrels with schoolmates and arguments with parents and other family members as the most important source of personal threat, emotional distress. The conflicts oc-curring on these three social levels are everyday, unavoidable and even natural situations for a young person.

They must cope with the institution's many challenges in the school environment.

Conversely, they learn to find themselves in a mosaic of different personali-ties in the peer environment. Whereas in the family environment, they learn to be socially connected. Playing the social roles of a pupil, colleague, and child involves meeting expectations. These expectations are excessive and difficult to

fulfil or contradict each other. The adolescents find themselves in difficult situations, an ideal breeding ground for conflict. Harsh discipline on the part of the school and parents, too little independence on the part of young people, and a lack of understanding of their interests lead to arguments, quarrels and rebellions. It should also be taken into account that young people in their adolescence struggle to become adults, gain more freedom and independence concerning their decisions about different areas of behaviour, and develop new forms of self-expression, which increases the likelihood of conflicts in relationships with teachers, peers and parents.

Coping strategies of adolescents in situations of social conflict

Adolescence is when teenagers experience different, often conflicting, aspirations and have to cope with inconsistent social expectations directed at them. A problematic situation stimulates adolescents to become active, aimed at regaining the balance between demands and opportunities and improving their emotional state. The activities they undertake in complex circumstances are considered in the specific situational context as a coping strategy in the current difficult situation (Heszen-Niejodek, 2000). It is, therefore, worth noting how adolescents deal with conflict situations at school, especially with teachers and schoolmates and argue with one or both their parents and other family members. Numerous studies and even colloquial observations indicate that adolescents have a considerable repertoire of coping strategies in complex social situations, including situations of social conflict. These include destructive and constructive methods (Borecka-Biernat, 2006; Donaldson, Prinstein, Danovsky, Spirito, 2000; Frączak-Konecka, 2005/26; Kłusek-Wojciszke, 2009; Miłkowska, 2010; Pisula, Sikora, 2008; Williams, McGillicuddy-De Lisi, 2000). Destructive coping strategies in social conflict situations in the form of defensive behaviour are not aimed at resolving and overcoming the conflict; they only allow a person to reduce unpleasant emotional tension, which is done: through *aggression* taking the form of an initiated verbal or physical attack directed against specific people, causing damage to the physical, mental and social well-being of others; through *avoiding* confrontation with the conflict situation by taking up additional activities that engage attention and divert it from the conflict situation (watching TV, listening to music, playing on the computer, surfing the Internet, overeating, sleeping), as well as seeking contact with other people; by *giving in*, which means giving up defending one's interests or goals in a conflict situation in favour of the interests of the partner and adapting to the partner's views, ways of acting and maintaining a positive relationship with him or her.

Constructive coping strategies in social conflict situations include all behaviours aimed at actively interacting with conflict situations, aiming at resolving and overcoming conflict situations, which are considered adaptive, which includes attempts to make changes within one's operation by trying to communicate with a partner to find a standard solution to contentious issues. A situation of social conflict is treated as a problem to be solved, requiring the individual to intensify his or her efforts, change the details of his or her tactics, use his or her physical and intellectual abilities, arrive at a new idea to ensure that the goal of dealing with the conflict is achieved.

For adolescents, conflict situations with teachers and schoolmates are a source of solid emotional arousal with negative overtones. Among coping strategies mentioned by young people in the context of conflict with teachers and schoolmates, one can distinguish aggressive behaviour towards others (poking, pushing, kicking, nicknames, ridicule, mocking), attempts to divert attention from a difficult situation and do something else (listening to music, playing on the computer, surfing the Internet), escaping from a difficult situation by physical distance and isolating oneself from it, or on the tendency to make concessions (Frydenberg, Lewis, 1999; Gawryś, 2002; Ostrowska, 2008; Poraj, 2002; Tezer, Demir, 2001). Within the types of reactions to complex relationships with others in a school situation, adolescents also respond to the need to solve the problem themselves. The intellectual capacity of adolescents enables them to correctly assess the situation and perceive the possibility of solving it. Hence, adolescents are inclined to compromise or agree in conflict situations (De Wied, Branje, Meeus, 2007; Kobus, Reyes, 2000; Owens, Daly, Slee., 2005; Pisula, Sikora, 2008).

Conflicts in child-parent relationships are a common phenomenon during adolescence (Gurba, 2013). Studies by Dariusz Krok (2007), Bogusława Lachowska (2010), and Teresa Rostowska (2001) found that adolescent children want to free themselves from parental guardianship and, with all their actions, demand to be granted more rights than before. Young people show aggression due to a threat to their sense of autonomy, which refers to orders, prohibitions and pressure. The aggressive behaviour of adolescent children towards their parents manifests itself in words, ironic statements, ignoring orders and prohibitions or remaining silent, direct aggression attacks towards objects (hitting the table with the hand, destroying equipment, throwing things at hand, slamming doors) or individuals. On the other hand, the studies conducted by Barbara Borowiecka (2005) and Agnieszka Filip (2010) indicate that under conditions of child-parent striving conflict, the aggressive reactions of adolescent children towards their parents were less violent, and they showed a greater tendency to make concessions. The data obtained by Irena Obuchowska (1990) and Judith Smetana (1991) show that adolescents' behaviour in conflict with mothers and fathers is withdrawn and passive.

The cited review of research on ways of coping with a situation of social conflict shows that some young people, when confronted with a dispute at school, in relations with peers or at home, adopt destructive strategies in the form of reacting aggressively to the conflict, avoiding active action in the face of the dispute by engaging in other stress-free forms of activity or giving in to the conflict. However, some young people cope well with social strife, treating it as a challenge to themselves, prompting them to mobilise their resources to overcome obstacles that prevent them from meeting their needs.

Coping strategies of parents in situations of a social conflict

In forming a specific habit of behaviour in the face of difficulties, it is important not only what creates the conditions for gaining experiences in action and their proper organisation but also the patterns of responding to problems. The family is the environment that creates natural conditions for learning ways of reacting in response to difficult situations. Home prepares children to cope with difficulties and to make decisions under challenging circumstances. Children acquire many social behaviours and ways of solving problems modelled by their parents. The daily interpersonal transactions of adult family members constitute the child's first model of social interaction. The parent's behaviour towards each other in various situations, especially during conflicts, is subject to their child's close observation and subsequent modelling. By observing their parents, the child learns how to resolve conflicts. Therefore, parents, the first model of social behaviour, form the basis for creating basic models of children's behaviour in the social environment (Bandura, 2007; Rostowska, 1997). It is worth adding that the pattern of conduct given to the children by their parents - because of the priority and the time of influence – penetrates most strongly into the child's consciousness and behaviour.

The influence of parents acting, most often unconsciously, as role models is not always positive for the child. It is often undesirable, interferes with the child's development and leads to the acquisition of problematic behaviour such as aggression, submissiveness or running away, and withdrawal from social situations. Numerous modelling experiments have been conducted concerning aggression problems (Wojciszke, 2007). The modelling process is relevant concerning children's aggression. The cause of aggression inherent in the family environment is the presence of an aggressive person in the family. Research has shown that most aggressive children come from families where one or both parents are aggressive (Bryłka, 2000; Lewandowska, 2000; Rostowska, 1996). The main patterns of a child's response to difficulties are found in the parents' behaviour in situations with an element of threat to the realisation of aspirations

or goal attainment. Aggressive behaviour in children's conflicts is derived from family conflicts, which provide a negative role model for children in this respect. In quarrelsome families, frequent brawls, verbal abuse, throwing insults at each other, scenes of scuffles, destroying or throwing objects and slamming doors are adopted by the child as their own; they use them not only in their contact with parents, siblings but also transfers them to the school premises. They behave arrogantly towards teachers, are aggressive in peer contacts and learn to solve conflicts with force, especially when they observe a favourable outcome of aggressive behaviour (Aronson, Wilson, Akert, 2012; Schaffer, 2006; Zimbardo, Gerrig, 2012). Undoubtedly, children who watch scenes of aggression between their parents adopt an aggressive conflict resolution model from them.

Forms of reaction to difficult situations focused on giving up the pursuit of one's goals under the influence of difficulties in action and withdrawal from the problematic situation are also the result of the social learning process and parental role modelling. Abandonment of the realisation of one's desires, lack of firmness in defending one's affairs or retreat from contacts with other people and failure to undertake forms of activity that would require such connections constitute an inert form of shyness (Tyszkowa, 1986). Modelling plays a significant role in the genesis of shyness in children. Family role models are the most influential - shy children have shy parents (Bandelow, 2011). A child, by observing parents with difficulties in social interactions, especially when they are the object of identification, begins to model themselves after them. The results of research (Harwas-Napierała, 1995; Zimbardo, 2011) allow us to conclude that the tendency to withdraw and avoid social interactions and the failure to participate in these interactions in adolescent children adequately is a learned form of behaviour acquired in the course of observation and during frequent contacts with people from the closest environment manifesting such behaviour, i.e. as a result of the influence of models, most often their parents.

Patterns of appropriate ways of responding to difficulties, i.e. perseverance in overcoming them and enduring emotional strain, are essential for developing constructive forms of responding to the individual. In goal-thwarting situations, children behave as they have previously learned to act from their parents in similar situations. If children have once perceived constructive reactions, their actions in problem situations will generally be similar. When confronted with difficulties, they prefer rational strategies to re-analyse the case and make renewed efforts to solve the task themselves. The social activity of parents and their lack of inhibitions in situations of social interaction is conducive to the formation of appropriate habits in children to respond to challenging situations (Barani, Szmigielska, 2012; Borecka-Biernat, 2006; Liberska, 2002; Rostowska, 1997).

In summary, the family is where social learning of responding to challenging situations occurs through modelling. Here the behaviour presented by a signifi-

cant person, mainly the parent, is assimilated by the observing child. There is reason to believe that the destructive strategy (aggression, avoidance, submission) and the constructive strategy (task-based) of a child coping in a social conflict situation is a learned form of behaviour as a result of observation and frequent contact with persons displaying such behaviour, i.e. as a result of the influence of models, most often parents.

Research question and hypothesis

The study sought to answer the following research question:

1. Whether and what is the contingency between the destructive strategy (aggression, avoidance, submission) and constructive strategy (task-based) used by adolescents in a social conflict situation and the presented model of destructive strategy (aggression, avoidance, submission) and constructive strategy (task-based) coping by their parents (one or both) in this situation?

The research question formulated in this way allows the following hypothesis to be put forward, which has been verified by analysis of the results of the empirical research:

H.1. The presentation of a model of destructive (aggressive, evasive, submissive) coping strategies by parents (one or both) promotes the learning of destructive (aggressive, evasive, submissive) coping strategies in adolescent children. In contrast, the contact of teenage children with the presented model of constructive (task-based) coping strategies by parents (one or both) in a social conflict situation may result in the learning of constructive (task-based) coping strategies in adolescent children.

Research methods

The following methods were used in the study:

*The Questionnaire for the Study of Coping Strategies of Youth in Situations of Social Conflict (*Polish - *KSMK)* by Danuta Borecka- Biernat (2012) is designed to study coping strategies in situations of social conflict undertaken by adolescents. It consists of a description of 33 social conflict situations. Four behaviours expressing coping with social conflict situations are given for each case - the first refers to aggressive coping ('A'), the second to evasive coping ('U'), the third to submissive coping ('U1') and the fourth to task-based (constructive) coping in social conflict situations ('Z'). After recalling a situation similar to the one described, in which they once found themselves or imagining it, the respondent is asked to select the behaviour closest to them in a given situation out of four

given ones. The results are obtained for each scale separately by summing up the marked behaviours in 33 cases belonging to the given scale. The scales consist of 33 items so respondents can score between 0 and 33 on each item. The Questionnaire has good reliability. Cronbach's internal consistency coefficients α are satisfactorily high for the aggressive coping scale "A" (0,73), submissive coping "Ul" (0,73) and task-based social conflict coping "Z" (0,73). The reliability of the avoidant coping scale "U" (0,694) is below the value of 0,70 but can nevertheless be considered satisfactory for research purposes. The Questionnaire has an acceptable level of diagnostic accuracy, and social acceptance does not burden the way of answering the Questionnaire.

The Questionnaire for the Study of Parents' Coping Strategies in Situations of Social Conflict SRwSK developed by D. Borecka-Biernat (2013) consists of two versions: "My mother" and "My father". It is designed to study parents' coping strategies in situations of social conflict, whereby these behaviours are explored in the perception of their adolescent children. The tool has descriptions of 16 social conflict situations in the 'My mother'version and the same number of descriptions in the 'My father' version. Four behaviours expressing the parents' coping in social conflict situations as perceived by their child are given for each situation – the first refers to aggressive coping (A), the second to avoidant coping (U), the third to submissive coping (U1) and the fourth to task-based coping in social conflict situations (Z). The four possible answers were assigned a numerical value from 0 to 1. The sum of the scores was a numerical indicator of the intensity of each strategy. The higher the numerical value of the index, the more the child perceives their parents as using a particular strategy. The Questionnaire has satisfactory internal consistency reliability coefficients (Cronbach's α). The internal consistency coefficients are high in the mothers' (M) and fathers' (Oj) versions for both the scale of parents' aggressive coping in situations of social conflict as perceived by the child "A" (M:0,71; Oj:0,71) and the scale of parents' task-based coping in situations of social conflict as perceived by the child "Z" (M:0,71; Oj:0,70). The reliability of the scale of avoidant parent coping in situations of social conflict as perceived by the child "U" (M:0,66; Oj:0,66) and the scale of submissive parent coping in situations of social conflict as perceived by the child "Ul" (M:0,65; Oj:0,65) are just below the value of 0.70, but can nevertheless be considered satisfactory for research purposes. The Questionnaire has an acceptable level of diagnostic accuracy.

Persons surveyed

Four hundred sixty-eight (468) girls and four hundred twenty-five (425) boys aged 13-15 were surveyed. A total of 893 people took part in the study. The

respondents were first, second and third-year students in junior high school. A random selection of schools was used; however, not all the schools drawn agreed to conduct the study, so in a few cases, non-selected schools with which such cooperation was possible were approached. The surveys of pupils were primarily conducted during form periods. All respondents were assured of voluntary participation and anonymity, and the research was conducted according to the principles of psychological research.

The primary criterion for the selection of the students studied was age. The influence of age on coping strategies in social conflict was analysed in the group of 13–15 years of age (early adolescence sub-period). Adolescence is a period of instability in adolescent behaviour, a period of conflict with the environment and oneself, and often accompanied by a sense of misunderstanding. It is also referred to as the period of rebellion and pressure. Many biological, psychological, mental, motivational and social attitude changes take place at that time. They often make adolescents encounter problems with adapting their behaviour to new situations, tasks and social roles (Brzezińska, Apelit, Ziółkowska, 2016; Czerwińska-Jasiewicz, 2015; Obuchowska, 2000). Due to the development of critical appraisal of the surrounding reality and increased formation of self-image, the supremacy of the emotional sphere over other spheres of mental life, as well as new forms of social contact and immediacy in behaviour, adolescents aged 13–15 seem to be a good research subject for learning about destructive (aggression, avoidance, submission) and constructive (task-based) coping strategies in situations of solid emotional tension such as social conflict.

Analysis of research results

The analysis aims to determine whether the destructive (aggressive, evasive, submissive) and constructive (task-based) coping strategies of the mother and Father in situations of social conflict as perceived by adolescents determine the destructive (aggressive, evasive, submissive) and constructive (task-based) coping strategies of adolescents in cases of social conflict. A two-factor analysis of variance (ANOVA) was conducted with the median divided into high (me>) and low (m≤) values.

Table 1 shows the two-factor variance analysis regarding the assessment of the relationship between adolescents' strategy of aggressive coping in a social conflict situation with the strategy of aggressive coping with the mother and the strategy of aggressive coping with the father in a social conflict situation.

The results obtained for adolescents' aggressive coping strategies based on the two-factor analysis of variance do not indicate an interaction for the variables: mother's aggressive coping and Father's aggressive form of coping used in

social conflict vs adolescent's aggressive coping strategy in social conflict, with the mean score for adolescent's aggressive coping strategy in social conflict having the highest value when there is a high level of mother's aggressive coping strategy and a high level of Father's aggressive coping strategy in social conflict, which means that a high value of mothers' aggressive coping strategies and a high value of fathers' aggressive coping strategies in social conflict results in an increase in adolescents' aggressive coping strategies in cases of social conflict. The analysis of the research results also revealed that the mother's aggressive coping strategy and the father's aggressive coping strategy in a social conflict situation impact adolescents' aggressive coping strategies in a social conflict situation, although they are independent factors. It follows that the strategy of aggressive coping of the mother (Father) in a social conflict situation affects the strategy of aggressive coping of adolescents revealed in a social conflict situation and is also an independent factor concerning the aggressive coping strategy of the father (mother) in a social conflict situation. Thus, adolescents with high aggression strategies used in social conflict situations, regardless of whether their fathers (mothers) cope aggressively in social conflict situations, have mothers (fathers) who use the strategy of aggressive coping themselves in a social conflict situation.

Table 1
Two-factor analysis of the interaction between the Mother's aggressive coping strategy (A M) and the father's aggressive coping strategy (A Oj) in a social conflict situation and the adolescents' aggressive coping strategy in a social conflict situation (A Og.)

Aggressive coping strategy in situations of parental social conflict (A)		Father (Oj)		STATISTICS Aggressive coping strategies in situations of social conflict (A)	
		me≤	me>	Mother (M)	Father (Oj)
Mother (M)	me≤	2,99 n=343	4,52 n=233	F=98,18 p=0,0000001	F=31,70 p=0,0000001
	me>	5,85 n=105	7,80 n=190	Interaction between A M and A Oj and A Og F=0,46; p=0,50	
Groups in general		4,80 n=871			

Source: Author's research.

Another analysis of the research results concerned assessing the relationship between adolescents' strategy of avoidance of coping in a social conflict situation and the observed strategy of avoidance coping by the mother and Father in a social conflict situation. The results are presented in Table 2.

Table 2
Two-factor analysis of interactions between Mother's strategy of avoidance of coping with social conflict (U M) and Father's strategy of avoidance of coping with social conflict (U Oj) and adolescents' strategy of avoidance of coping with social conflict (U Og.)

Avoidance of coping strategy in a situation of parental social conflict (U)		Father (Oj)		STATISTICS	
				A strategy of avoidance of coping in a situation of social conflict (U)	
		me≤	me>	Mother (M)	Father (Oj)
Mother (M)	me≤	3,32 n=234	3,02 n=375	F=71,73 p<0,0000001	F=0,16 p<0,69
	me>	5,06 n=88	5,56 n=196	Interaction between U M and U Oj and U Og F=2,48; p<0.12	
Groups in general		3,86 n=893			

Source: Author's research.

The results obtained for the adolescents' avoidance of coping strategy based on the two-factor analysis of variance do not indicate the existence of interactions for the variables: the mother's avoidant form of coping and the father's avoidant form of coping used in situations of social conflict versus the adolescents' avoidant coping strategy in situations of social conflict. However, a correlation can be observed between the mother's avoidant coping strategy in a social conflict situation and the adolescent's avoidant coping strategy in a social conflict situation. The result is clear – the higher the level of the mother's avoidant coping strategy in a social conflict situation, the higher the level of the adolescent's avoidant coping strategy in a social conflict situation. It follows that the mother's avoidant coping strategy in situations of social conflict determines the level of the adolescent's avoidant coping strategy in situations of social conflict. The value of the fathers' avoidant coping strategies alone does not directly affect the level of adolescents' avoidant coping strategies in social conflict, with mean scores for adolescents' avoidant coping strategies used in social conflict having the highest value when both independent variables are high.

The following two-factor analysis of variance assessed the dependence of the coefficients of the adolescents' submissive coping strategy in situations of social conflict on the submissive coping strategies of mothers and fathers in social conflict (cf. Table 3).

The two-factor analysis of variance for the adolescents' submissive coping strategy in conflict against the variables of the mother's submissive coping strategy in social conflict and the father's submissive coping strategy in social conflict did not result in a statistically significant interaction. At the same time, there is a clear relationship between the adolescents' submissive coping strategy with

a social conflict and the mother's submissive coping strategy and the father's submissive coping strategy in social conflict separately marked, with the average score for the adolescents' submissive coping strategy with a social conflict having the highest value when there is a high level of the mother's and father's submissive coping strategy in social conflict. It means that the mother's (father's) submissive coping strategy in a social conflict situation influences the adolescent's submissive coping strategy revealed in a social conflict situation and is at the same time an independent factor concerning the father's (mother's) submissive coping strategy in a social conflict situation. Thus, the mother's and father's submissive coping strategies influence the adolescents' submissive coping strategies, although they are independent factors. On this basis, it can be concluded that adolescents with high levels of submissive coping strategies have fathers (mothers) who use a submissive coping strategy in situations of social conflict, regardless of whether or not the mothers (fathers) manage submissively in situations of social conflict.

Table 3
A two-factor interaction analysis of the Mother's (U1 M) submissive coping strategy in social conflict and Father's (U1 Oj) submissive coping strategy in social conflict and adolescents' submissive coping strategy in social conflict (U1 Og.)

Submissive coping strategy in situations of parental social conflict (UI)		Father (Oj)		STATISTICS Submissive coping strategy in situations of social conflict (UI)	
		me≤	me>	Mother (M)	Father (Oj)
Mother (M)	me≤	6,20 n=317	6,88 n=266	F=23,35 p<0,000002	F=3,82 p<0,05
	me>	7,77 n=154	8,31 n=156	Interaction between U1 M and U1 Oj and UI Og F=0,05; p<0,82	
Groups in general		7,04 n=893			

Source: Author's research.

Table 4 presents a two-factor analysis of variance in assessing the relationship of adolescents' task-based coping strategies to their mother's and father's task-based coping strategies in situations of social conflict.

A two-factor analysis of variance for adolescents' task-based coping strategy in social conflict against the variables of the mother's task-based coping strategy in social conflict and the father's task-based coping strategy in the conflict situation did not result in a statistically significant interaction. However, a relationship can be observed between adolescents' task-based coping strategy and mother's task-based coping strategy in social conflict and father's task-based

coping strategy in social conflict separately, with the mean score for adoles-
cents' task-based coping strategy having the highest value when there is a high
level of mother's task-based coping strategy in social conflict and a high level of
father's task-based coping strategy in social conflict. The mother's (father's)
task-based coping strategy influences the adolescent's task-based coping strat-
egy revealed in a social conflict situation. At the same time, it is an independent
factor concerning the father's (or mother's) coping strategy. Thus, both the
mother's task-based coping strategy in a social conflict situation and the father's
task-based coping strategy in a social conflict situation influence the adoles-
cents' task-based coping strategy, although they are independent factors. Such
results indicate that adolescents who are observed to have high levels of task-
based coping strategies used in situations of social conflict have fathers (moth-
ers) who use task-based coping strategies in situations of social conflict, regard-
less of whether mothers (fathers) are task-based coping in situations of social
conflict or not.

Table 4
*A two-factor interaction analysis of Mother's (Z M) task-based coping strategy in social conflict
and Father's (Z Oj) task-based coping strategy in social conflict and adolescents' (Z Og.) task-based
coping strategy in social conflict*

Task-based coping strategy in situations of parental social conflict (Z)		Father (Oj)		STATISTICS Task-based coping strategy in social conflict situations (Z)	
		me≤	me>	Mother (M)	Father (Oj)
Mother (M)	me≤	14,58 n=333	18,91 n=194	F=88,45 p<0,000000	F=11,93 p<0,0006
	me>	16,36 n=132	20,07 n=234	Interaction between Z M and Z Oj and Z Og F=0,53; p<0,47	
Groups in general		17,22 n=893			

Source: Author's research.

In conclusion, the presented research results indicate that the modelling
process may play an essential role in the genesis of destructive (aggressive,
avoidant, submissive) and constructive (task-based) coping strategies in situa-
tions of social conflict, which is learned by the growing child, among others, by
observing and frequent contact with parents who manifest such coping strate-
gies in situations of social conflict, thus through social learning. Considering the
research results obtained, they can be regarded as confirming hypothesis H.1.

Summary of research findings

Parents' behaviour towards each other and others in various situations, especially during conflicts, is subject to close observation and subsequent imitation by their adolescent child. In the course of the data analysis, it was found that the mother and the father are perceived as using an aggression-based strategy in situations that make it difficult to pursue a goal; they contribute to the modelling in adolescents of a strategy involving aggressive behaviour used in situations of social conflict (Rostowska, 2001). Parents provide their adolescent children with aggressive patterns of responding to conflict. They learn these patterns by observing their parents' behaviour when their aspirations are threatened. The above trend seems consistent with Albert Bandura's (1973) statement that "aggressive children come from aggressive families". A. Bandura, already quoted, argues that the vulnerability of models depends on the observed consequences of their behaviour. Suppose the model's aggressive behaviour is rewarded. In that case, there is an increase in aggression in the observer's behaviour, which suggests that adolescents adopt aggressive forms of behaviour from the family environment and see them as effective ways of solving problems, achieving goals or dealing with situations of social conflict (Aronson et al., 2012; Wojciszke, 2007).

Research has also shown that the mother provides the growing child with evasive patterns of response to social conflict. The child learns these patterns by observing the mother's behaviour when her aspirations are threatened. It is noteworthy that the avoidant coping strategy of adolescents in a situation of divergence of aspirations is not significant for the intensification of the fathers' avoidant coping strategy in a situation of social conflict. Due to social learning and mother modelling, adolescents' reactions to conflict situations focused on withdrawing from the conflict and resigning to realise one's aspirations under the influence of difficulties in action. It would indicate that the young person's withdrawal from social conflict situations is a learned form of behaviour, resulting from observation and from frequent contact with a mother displaying such behaviour, i.e. due to the influence of the mother functioning as a role model (Bandelow, 2011; Borecka-Biernat, 2006; Harwas-Napierała, 1995; Zimbardo, 2011).

It is also worth noting the fact revealed in the research that the strategy of submissive behaviour observed in the mother and father, used in a situation of social conflict, is of great importance for forming the strategy of submission in a situation of divergence of aspirations in adolescents. The similarity of the coping strategy with a social conflict situation in parents and adolescents indicates the acquisition of a submissive strategy in coping with a young person through social learning, observation, and imitation of the mother and father. It means that adolescents learn the coping strategy of submissiveness by observing the behaviour of submissive parents in situations of social conflict. These results are

consistent with those obtained by Hanna Liberska (2002). During her research, the author observed that adolescents who strongly identify with their parents, who function as role models, often depreciate the validity of their goals in the face of difficulties and give up their intentions.

The research also shows that the task-based coping strategy of the mother and father when dealing with a social conflict situation is vital for forming the adolescent's task strategy. The similarity of coping strategies in situations of social conflict in parents and adolescent children indicates that adolescents' coping strategies are acquired through social learning by observing and modelling their mother and father. In situations that thwart the pursuit of a goal, young people behave as they have learned to behave from their parents in similar situations. If young people have previously perceived task-related reactions in their parents, their reactions to problems will most often be similar (Borecka-Biernat, 2006; Liberska, 2002; Rostowska, 1997).

In general, it can be said that the process of social learning through modelling is an essential source of learning forms of human reaction to situations of social conflict. The main patterns of reaction to conflict the adolescent child finds in the parents' behaviour in situations containing an element of threat to the realisation of aspirations or the achievement of goals. Thus, the transmission of destructive (aggressive, avoidant, submissive) and constructive (task-related) forms of reacting to situations of social conflict takes place when the adolescent child adopts these forms of behaviour from the family environment and treats them as effective ways of dealing with the conflict situation. It may be thought that a destructive strategy (aggression, avoidance, submission) oriented towards regulating unpleasant emotions, and self-soothing, rather than solving the problem, can be counteracted by teaching the growing child the skills of constructive (task-oriented) coping in situations of social conflict. It is crucial to model active behaviour that strives to achieve a viable solution to the conflict. Teaching young people how to deal with conflict situations task-oriented is essential to build a generation of cooperative rather than conflict-oriented people in the school, peer and family environment.

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Modelujący wpływ rodziców na kształtowanie się strategii radzenia sobie młodzieży w sytuacji konfliktu społecznego

Streszczenie

Celem badań było poszukiwanie rodzinnej etiologii strategii radzenia sobie młodzieży w sytuacji konfliktu społecznego tkwiącej we wzorze reagowania rodziców na sytuacje konfliktu społecznego. W badaniach posłużono się Kwestionariuszem strategii radzenia sobie rodziców w sytuacji konfliktu społecznego (KSRwSK) D. Boreckiej-Biernat i Kwestionariuszem do badania strategii radzenia sobie młodzieży w sytuacji konfliktu społecznego w sytuacji konfliktu społecznego (KSMK) D. Boreckiej-Biernat. Badania empiryczne przeprowadzono w szkołach gimnazjalnych. Objęły one 893 adolescentów (468 dziewcząt i 425 chłopców) w wieku 13–15 lat. Analiza materiału badawczego wykazała, że matka i ojciec postrzegani są jako stosujący w sytuacji konfliktu społecznego strategie destruktywną i konstruktywną, przyczyniając się do modelowania u młodzieży strategii polegającej na destruktywnym i konstruktywnym zachowaniu wykorzystywanym w sytuacji konfliktu społecznego.

Słowa kluczowe: młodzież; modelowanie zachowania; strategia radzenia sobie; sytuacja konfliktu społecznego.

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A highly sensitive child – a challenge for parents and teachers – a case study

Abstract

This article aims to present the characteristics of a child with high sensitivity features (HSC) and his/her behaviour and functioning in various areas of everyday life. Moreover, the article analyses an individual case of a seven-year-old highly sensitive child and a teacher-educator with thirty years of experience in observing children in kindergarten and during early education. The research was in-depth with the results of surveys conducted among parents and teachers, which will be used to answer the question: How does a highly sensitive child cope and function in the home and kindergarten environment, and what are the ways to support his or her development in these contexts?

The analysis of the collected material was used to propose methods of working with a highly sensitive child and the importance of cooperation between educators and caregivers to support such a child.

Keywords: The highly sensitive child, support, kindergarten.

Introduction

The Constitution of the Republic of Poland, the UN Convention on the Rights of the Child, the Convention on the Rights of Persons with Disabilities and the

Education Law guarantee all children equal access to education and develop-
ment, taking into account individual needs, talents and opportunities.

In the literature and research on children's development, special attention
is paid to the role of the conditions in which their development takes place, and
to the importance of adequate stimulation, which comes from the immediate
environment, especially the family home, and later – kindergarten then school.
Research results indicate that the younger a child is, an appropriate environ-
mental influence plays a more significant role in his or her development; there-
fore, the quality of the environment is the key.

After looking at the care and teaching practices, it can be noticed that – if
a child has a certificate of a need for special education – care and educational
institutions respect and implement the provisions contained in the Regulation
of the Ministry of National Education (Journal of Laws; 2023, item 1798) on the
principles of organising and providing psychological and pedagogical assistance
in public kindergartens, schools and facilities.

The situation is much more complicated in the case of children who do not
have any diagnosed disorders or developmental deficits but still require an indi-
vidualised approach and the creation of a safe space for them following their
developmental needs. This applies, for example, to children who are very tal-
ented, 'excessively' sensitive or have temperamental or personality traits that
do not allow them to function well within the established kindergarten or school
framework.

Some parents and educators mistakenly treat childhood as only a transi-
tional stage that aims to prepare the child for adulthood. The human species has
the longest childhood, which will determine its future life. Childhood is not only
a transitional period to adulthood; it is the most important and beautiful time
when a child should experience a good, meaningful life.

Weakened families and the lack of interpersonal bonds are especially no-
ticeable in children and adolescents. Researchers claim that loneliness is con-
trary to human nature and that this contradiction lies at the genetic level. There-
fore, loneliness may be as dangerous to health as smoking or alcohol abuse. The
human mind has evolved to efficiently process social information to increase the
chance of survival through cooperation with other members of the species
(Cacioppo, Patrick, 2008).

It is not only about spending time together but, above all, about the quality
of the time we spend with children as parents, grandparents and teachers. To-
day, even family celebrations do not serve this purpose. Celebrating being to-
gether, talking, sharing experiences, and learning from older family members is
unfashionable. Most of them are meetings that do not fulfil their original role,
i.e. they do not satisfy the need for social contacts and support provided by the
presence of another person. Superficial behaviour, lacking a deeper conversa-

tion with attentive listening, empathy and reflection, causes us to experience another person through 'cellophane'. These are often events that look good on Facebook or Instagram, but in reality, an absent adult cannot raise a mentally healthy child.

This situation is complicated for the so-called highly sensitive children, who are often perceived as shy or introverted. High sensitivity is a feature, not a developmental disorder and does not require treatment or therapy, just space and support to experience emotions in one's way. As E. Aron (2017) writes: "Although it is known that high sensitivity is not a developmental disorder, it is not diagnosed, and therefore not treated, this group of people has common areas that require from adults: *more*, *more often*, *more, less or more gently*". Unfortunately, in everyday life, highly sensitive people are more often shamed than supported. They often hear: "this is not a reason to cry", "Don't bleat", "Nothing happened – why all this lamentation?", "Boys don't cry". Unfortunately, such lack of knowledge and stereotypes cause suffering for Highly Sensitive Persons (HSPs) living in various environments.

The article aims to describe a Highly Sensitive Child (HSC), considering his/her functioning in various aspects of everyday life, as well as to indicate methods of support in the home and kindergarten environment.

Based on the analysis of an individual case of a highly sensitive child, 30 years of observations of children made at work in kindergarten and early school education, and surveys among parents and teachers, an attempt was made to answer the question: How does a highly sensitive child function in the home and kindergarten environment?

General characteristics of a highly sensitive child

What is considered a high sensitivity? Each of us has met a person who is moved by every cloud, sheds tears over the fate of a trampled worm, and every argument with this person ends up with him/her crying. Of course, this is a very colloquial approach to high sensitivity because it is a very individual feature.

High sensitivity is the tendency to see more, notice details, feel the surroundings with a higher intensity, and the heightened ability to reflect more before acting as compared to people who do not have this feature.

High sensitivity is not the same as introversion; sensitive people are not naturally shy or neurotic, i.e., full of anxiety and depression (Aron, 2017, p. 40).

Elaine N. Aron (2021, p. 27) writes that sensitivity is innate. It is observed in children from birth and in animals where the genetic basis has been deciphered. This feature can be selectively enhanced in breeding.

Attention disorders are one of the many difficulties that highly sensitive children struggle with. Objects surrounding them are treated as distractors that disturb the concentration process and cause the child to become distracted, resulting in overstimulation.

It can be said that the HSP's body is designed to detect and understand everything that reaches it more accurately. Therefore, highly sensitive people

> are characterised by faster reflexes (these are reactions usually coming from the spinal cord) and greater susceptibility to pain and the effects of drugs and stimulants, have a more reactive immune system and are more likely to suffer from allergies (Aron, 2017, p. 41).

We distinguish four aspects of high sensitivity as traits which must be present in a highly sensitive child. The first aspect refers to **deep processing** –visible to those around us as a symptom of the child being overstimulated.

Deep processing also manifests itself in the form of the child asking deep questions, using words that are complex for his age, wisely using a sense of humour, difficulty making decisions due to considering many options, and slowly getting used to new people and situations (Aron, 2017, p. 13). Brain research has shown that highly sensitive adults make greater use of parts of the brain that are involved in more profound or more complex processing (Jagiellowicz et al., 2011).

The second aspect is **the ease of overstimulation** – highly sensitive people, who are more aware of everything happening outside and inside, process things more thoroughly; therefore, they get mentally and physically tired more often than other people. HSCs notice everything new and think about it more intensely and, as a result, become overstimulated. These children perceive noise as physical harm. They complain about being cold, hot, having their clothes scratched, etc (Aron, 2017, p. 14). Generally, these children do not like parties or team games and have difficulty presenting their skills when being watched or judged.

The third aspect characterising HSPs is **emotional reactivity and empathy**. Simply put, it is the tendency to overreact to stimuli combined with the depth of processing. Emotions tell us what we should pay attention to and remember.

The HSC is more interested in everything, observes everything even more and learns more effectively (Aron, 2017, p. 17). Empathy allows such children to feel what other people feel, which is why they perfectly perceive, for example, a nervous atmosphere in the environment.

Highly sensitive people are more empathetic, creative, and cautious, and their intuition is highly developed and usually correct. People with highly developed sensitivity are often shy or perceived as unsociable. This may be because they are easily overstimulated. Bright light and many colours and sounds that reach a highly sensitive person from the environment often lead to irritability, headache, or withdrawal from activities.

One of the leading causes of this great sensitivity is hyperesthesia (Petitcollin, 2020, p. 35). People with hyperaesthesia have a significantly developed sensory system, which makes their senses more sensitive. For such children, the stay in kindergarten or school is frustrating. They are extremely sensitive to sounds from the surroundings; seeing all the details exhausts them. Others have more developed memory or perception, leading to remembering details and unimportant nuances, which overloads highly sensitive people.

It is hard to imagine living with hyperaesthesia when you do not experience it. Elaine Aron also writes that in addition to hyperaesthesia, highly sensitive people suffer from a deficiency of hidden inhibition, which means that "[…] if you do not consciously try to neutralise all the stimuli that surround you, you will have to endure them" (Petitcollin, 2021, 31).

The last aspect is sensitivity to subtle stimuli and attentiveness to nuances/subtleties. This trait manifests in attention to detail, subtle sounds, touch, smell, and other delicate stimuli. In Highly Sensitive Children (HSCs), this trait is visible in paying attention to changes in people or places' appearance, reacting to subtle smells, picking up delicate sounds, such as birdsong and feeling pleasant textures of a material, e.g., soft, plush. Noticing the appearance of food, the details of its arrangement and the aesthetics of its presentation. HSCs pay attention to the tone of voice, glances, snubs, fleeting glances, and small encouraging gestures. The HSP's nervous system must be designed to respond to subtle experiences, but as a result, it takes longer to return to a state of balance after reacting to intense stimuli. Children's high sensitivity implies numerous difficulties in everyday life. The minimalist characteristics of HSC were presented to illustrate what children and parents of highly sensitive children face.

Individual case study of a highly sensitive child (HSC)

Diagnostic tools used:
— observing and talking to the child during their stay in kindergarten for 3 years,
— in-depth interviews with the mother,
— interviews with kindergarten teachers,
— analysis of the child's work products.

The pregnancy was normal. The baby girl (her name abbreviation: K.) was born naturally at 40 weeks of pregnancy, APGAR score 10/10, and was breastfed for over two years. The Sensory Integration (SI) diagnosis showed no sensory integration disorders, only information about high sensitivity.

K. is 7 years old and has started studying in the first grade, preceded by an adaptation process. Adapting to the new school was easy, and the child felt safe

in the new environment. The fundamental problem in K.'s behaviour is the loss of security in new situations and the fear of separation from her parents. This child functions best when there are no strangers in her environment. She does not like sudden and significant changes, but recently, she has been coping with them better and better.

The interview with her mother shows that K.'s parents thought from the beginning that their daughter had symptoms of High Need Babies, which they had not observed in other children they knew. Caring for K. required the parents to reorganise their lives and adapt to the girl's needs. The parents are very aware of the girl's needs and have extensive knowledge about their daughter's highly sensitive personality (HSP). They also observe numerous symptoms of high sensitivity in their 4-year-old son. The girl's mother is also a highly sensitive person, and in the test, she obtained 24 answers out of 27 confirming the characteristics of HSP.

Special needs became apparent in the first days of K.'s life, as she slept briefly and alertly. At 6 months, K. fell asleep and slept only in her mother's arms in a specific position, and it was impossible to separate the girl from her mother. Later, her parents' hands turned into a swing, in which K. slept until she was four years old. She is 7 years old and sleeps alone but wakes up every night and checks by asking or touching if her parents are nearby. Her parents did not use the stroller on walks. She was carried in their arms and in a scarf and hybrid carrier because she responded to attempts at separation and putting her in the gondola by crying incessantly. To this day, after an eventful day, K. has difficulty falling asleep and waking up at night.

The socialisation process of this girl was complicated. She did not like short trips because she did not want to sit in a car seat. The hour-long journey to visit her grandparents was challenging as she tensed and cried during the car ride. K. was afraid of people and children. Her parents walked around the playground for many weeks before she wanted to go there. She was afraid of slipping on the slide, and if a child was behind her, she was afraid of close contact.

K. attended a club preparing children for kindergarten for several months but never left her mother's side and crossed the so-called 'carpet zone' where only children were allowed. Her mother had to stay on the edge of the carpet all the time so that she could be in physical contact with it. She usually stiffened under the influence of glances from people she did not know.

Even though K. attended classes in the children's club to prepare for kindergarten, the adaptation in the first kindergarten was unsuccessful. The girl entered kindergarten at the age of three in October. After several meetings at the kindergarten playground and attending the facility for 1-2 hours weekly, K. could not stay there alone. Additionally, the lack of understanding of the girl's difficulties (HSC syndrome) by the teachers, as well as their lack of support for the parents, resulted in her giving up attending kindergarten. After four months, K. be-

gan acclimatising to a new kindergarten with fewer children, which also had some problems. For 3 weeks, K.'s father sat in the kindergarten corridor working on the computer. After sitting in the corridor, there was another stage of sitting in the yard, a little farther. When the girl lost her sense of security, she went to her father for conversation and hugs. During the 3 years of attending kindergarten, K. was often ill, and each return to the facility required readjustment to the conditions.

The interview with her mother and the teachers' observations show that K. is quickly overstimulated, even if situations involve positive things. She does not like to be surprised by anything and needs to be prepared for surprises. She does not like noisy places. At home, she can use noise-cancelling headphones, e.g. when vacuuming. She is very sensitive to pain. She prefers quiet play. K. reacts poorly to the threat of punishment or persuasion and learns better with gentle instructions and explanations. She notices the suffering of others but is not particularly empathetic. She is very sensitive to her needs.

At home and in kindergarten, she asked many difficult questions that led to reflection. K. had a rich passive and active vocabulary and used complicated words. In kindergarten, she was very good at identifying and talking about her emotional states, e.g. "I know it's not a reason to cry, but I miss my mom", "I miss my mom and dad very much", "My mom misses me too?", "Can I hug?" "I need to hug".

If other children had difficult situations in kindergarten, e.g. the teacher did not allow the child to do something, gave strict attention, or spoke unpleasantly, the other child's experiences stayed with her for a long time. Experiences from kindergarten became a topic of conversation at home in the form of ideas and triggered fear of going to kindergarten. K. had a strong need for approval that the things she was doing were perfect and noticed by others; teachers' praise was vital to her, but it was formulated in an original way and with justification. There were also moments when she wanted to be only with adults in kindergarten: "Can I sit here with you?".

K.'s mother stated that raising a highly sensitive child is a great challenge and requires them to entirely focus on the children and their needs, adapting their lives "to suit them". The initial lack of understanding - in the immediate environment and in the kindergarten - of the needs of the HSC made it much more difficult for the parents to raise their daughter. They heard the comments, "You taught how to carry, so carry it", "let her cry; she will get tired and fall asleep on her own; the baby rules you", "leave her crying, and she will stop", "don't give in to her", etc.

When diagnosing K.'s high sensitivity, it can be concluded that it is characterised by each of the four aspects of a highly sensitive personality, i.e.:

— **Depth of processing;**
  — A tendency to consider various actions in detail, develop various scenarios, and wonder: "What if we do this and we cannot do otherwise? Why?"
  — longer time (compared to peers) to process new information, but also more extended time to get used to new clothes, toys, and changes in the environment: "Who was rearranging my things?"
  — slow (compared to peers) getting used to new people and situations (due to the need to look at them and think about them);
  — practical learning from her own experiences; wants to experience situations on her own, does not trust the assurances of others;
  — concluding experience to increase operational efficiency and her sense of security;
  — apparent slowing down of activity and inhibition, usually taking the form of observing a situation, e.g. playing before engaging in it (watches others for a long time before joining in the fun, does not like imposed roles in play);
  — asking thought-provoking and reflective questions (e.g. regarding death, what happens to a person after death, why he dies, she is not satisfied with superficial answers and explanations);
  — using words that are complicated for her age;
  — difficulty making decisions due to considering too many options;
  — remembering a large number of details of observed events, situations and phenomena, especially regarding other people's emotions, facial expressions, and tone of voice;
  — paying attention to non-obvious elements of the situation that most people do not pay attention to (teacher's smell, nail colour);
  — analysing and searching for relationships and similarities between the current situation and previous ones, building associations, comparisons, and metaphors.
— **emotional reactivity combined with empathy;**
  K. carefully observes and analyses is interested in the surrounding reality, and overreacts with emotions. Her arousal threshold is lower than that of less sensitive peers, her emotions are more intense, and their expression is stronger, which is why, as an infant and at preschool age she often burst into tears, got excited quickly and slept for a short time. She still experiences intensely both problematic and pleasant emotions while perfectly sensing and responding to an adult's mood/changes in mood. When the teacher was angry or dissatisfied, she felt the atmosphere in the kindergarten group was tense. She showed tension while performing tasks when someone was watching her work. She strives for perfectionism and reacts strongly to even the slightest mistake.

— **awareness of subtleties** – i.e. paying attention to details

> K. reacts strongly to smells, sounds and touch. She notices changes in the appearance of rooms and subtle changes in clothes, make-up, smell and hair colour, e.g. of teachers. She liked kindergarten productions and could learn even extended roles quickly. However, the tense atmosphere of rehearsals and preparations while setting up on stage made her reluctant to watch the performance. She reacts to changes in the tone of voice, fleeting glances, and small gestures, detects gestures between, e.g. teachers and reads their intentions.

— **Overimulation** is another characteristic feature of HSCs, a natural consequence of the previous three.

> K. is aware of what is happening to her and around her. She processes other people's situations and behaviours more deeply and thoroughly, leading to faster mental and physical fatigue than her peers. K. notices everything new and thinks about it more often and more intensely than other children. Therefore, it becomes overloaded and tired faster, which, according to Aron (2002), is a consequence of more profound and thorough processing.

The parents of the described girl have profound awareness and knowledge of high sensitivity and all the consequences associated with it. These are people who, on their initiative, educate themselves in this area and are willing to sacrifice a lot to create an appropriate space for their children to develop. They use an educational system based on attachment parenting, i.e. responding to the child's needs and self-reg (Self Reg is a self-regulation method that helps the parent understand the child well enough to appropriately respond to its needs), from which they derive real help.

It is extremely important nowadays when parents often look for "subcontractors" to raise their children, handing them over to nannies and teachers. A conscious parent who provides an atmosphere of love and acceptance and builds a relationship with his child – this is the best thing he can do for his offspring.

High sensitivity of the child from the perspective of teachers

High sensitivity is an entirely new issue for many teachers and parents. The symptoms of HSCs are downplayed and attributed to their shyness, inappropriate upbringing, or other factors. Meanwhile, kindergarten and school are a real training ground for these children, a survival camp where they must fight daily. Traumatic experiences related to their stay in kindergarten or school do not allow them to unleash their potential and develop and learn properly.

Majewska (2022) writes that the so-called "demanding since birth" is more complex with high-sensitivity children. They need more involvement from their parents. From the beginning, these children demand, for example, rocking, carrying, and being constantly close to their parents. Even though society's awareness of high sensitivity is increasing, and people often talk about the so-called "high needs baby", i.e. children who from birth demand more attention from their parents, their closeness or interaction (Majewska, 2022, p. 23), the level of knowledge of teachers and parents is insufficient. According to a survey conducted by 45 teachers (Wodejko, Leszcz-Krysiak, 2023), most of them associate the term "high sensitivity" with being overstimulated (66.7%), shyness (44.5%), prone to crying (35.5%), being an introvert (33.3%).

There were also such associations of a highly sensitive child as "anxious", "extrovert", "being the centre of attention", "quiet", and "special". E. Aron has often written that most people mistakenly identify sensitive people as introverts, which is a very illusory and misleading statement.

In line with the HSP's theory, respondents answered that high sensitivity is a genetic feature (47%) and a temperamental feature (68%) of the respondents. Satisfactory is the fact that most respondents know that high sensitivity is not a disorder. The 80 % of surveyed teachers stated that they lack knowledge on how to work with HSC and support parents when they ask about their child's behaviour that concerns them. The respondents pointed out that knowledge about HSP is not widespread, it is difficult to access, and there is no training in educational centres. In the surveys, teachers wrote, for example: "I believe that there is no extensive literature on this topic. I get many tips for my work by collaborating with other specialists, e.g. SI therapists, physiotherapists", "There is still little talk about it". "I think that even the term 'high sensitivity' is denied that it is an invention". Such answers prevailed in the surveys.

Most teachers in the research responded that a highly sensitive child needs support in everyday life, understanding and empathy, as well as attentiveness and kindness. The knowledge and awareness of people working with children must be high to say that teachers are competent and qualified. In the literature on the subject, authors have repeatedly emphasised that when these children are provided with an appropriate space to give them wings, they will open up and flourish.

Supporting highly sensitive children

When a sensitive child is placed in a large group of children with a teacher who is entirely unable to help him or create a suitable space, it is safe to say that this will have negative consequences for his development in the future. Lack of

space for experiencing emotions, lack of willingness to help in everyday activities, e.g. establishing relationships with peers, lack of empathy, and punishment are just some of the mistakes often made by teachers. Agata Majewska and Elaine Aron, among others, write that the lack of an appropriate environment and space may even result in anxiety and depression in sensitive people in the future. It also translates into lower self-esteem and self-esteem of highly sensitive people.

Separation from parents, trips or trying to spend the night without them is a great challenge for sensitive children. It is a significant change that they are not ready for a long time. They like routine, and changes should be agreed upon together.

Children who are excessively shy and self-conscious, who experience a lack of response to basic needs from adults, later grow into people full of complexes and lacking self-confidence. HSCs, but also other children, spend at least half of the day in institutions, and the teacher takes an active part in the process of their upbringing, so it is vital for educators to create an atmosphere of acceptance and space for optimal development.

Elaine N. Aron (2017, p. 153) lists four keys to raising a joyful HSC:

1. **Caring for self-esteem** – the children must feel loved, but at the same time, they must be corrected and disciplined in the right way. Children with high sensitivity treat comments addressed to them as information about their own value. As a result of the excessive criticism they often encounter, they may conclude that they are usually wrong. They also need a social sense of value, i.e. the awareness that they can build positive relationships with peers and loved ones. What is essential is the physical sense of value relating to one's appearance and skills. They need to believe in their motor skills, that they will master new skills and be able to participate in fun and games. The last aspect creates an intellectual sense of self-worth – they must be sure that, in some areas, they are as good as other people of the same age.

2. **Reduction of shame** – Highly sensitive children experience shame much more strongly and are prone to experiencing it. Therefore, one should avoid shaming one's children and comparing them to others. Parents must remember not to convey hostile messages through jokes. It is crucial to ensure that the HSC does not feel that it is the cause of any family problem. Because they are focused on themselves, HSCs may believe that they cause conflicts in the family or other difficult situations.

3. **Wise discipline** – working on disciplining and observing the norms and rules of HSCs is particularly difficult and requires a lot of adult tolerance and wisdom. Standards and methods of discipline, especially for the HSC, should be consistent between family members, the kindergarten, and the school, which requires close cooperation and understanding.

4. **Skilful conversation about sensitivity.** HSCs quickly notice that they differ from their peers, and age-appropriate conversations and explanations are essential. A clear indication of what aspects the child can change and a realisation of what cannot be changed must be accepted. The parent must discuss the child's sensitivity with caregivers and teachers (Aron, 2017, pp. 153–191).

Discussion

Researchers on high human sensitivity emphasise that HSP should not be confused with neuroticism. In their scientific investigations on HSP, Acevedo *et al.* (2014) adopted the following eligibility criteria for the research group: age 22–40 years, no use of antidepressants, no anxiety, social or personality disorders, no generally good health, no contraindications to magnetic resonance imaging, stable relationship and private life status. Such strict criteria resulted in approximately 34% of the original number of people being excluded for not meeting the criteria. The research method assessed the degree of people's reaction to seeing photos of close people and strangers expressing three primary emotional states: positive, negative and neutral. After a year, the study was repeated. Across all conditions, HSP scores were associated with increased brain activation of regions involved in attention and action planning (in the cingulate and premotor areas). For happy and sad photo conditions, sensory processing sensitivity was associated with activation of brain regions involved in awareness, integration of sensory information, empathy, and action planning.

Many researchers, including a team led by Bas in their study (Bas et al., 2021), point to the interpenetration of research concepts regarding Sensory Processing Sensitivity (SPS), Highly Sensitive Person (HSP) and Highly Sensitive Child (HSC) conducted by various scientists. They also emphasise the existence of limitations both to the HSP scale, promoted by Aron (2017, 2021), and to all theoretical considerations. The scale's content validity always limits the interpretation of the results of a research questionnaire. The results of the HSP questionnaire differ from current theories in that the HSP scale overemphasises overstimulation, while the depth of processing is only indirectly captured in the aesthetic sensitivity component (Greven et al., 2019). Finally, although SPS theory has been updated based on empirical evidence, certain hypothesised main features have not yet been theoretically fully developed. For example, empathy consists of several characteristics, such as affective and cognitive empathy (Keysers, 2011), which involve distinct neural pathways (Yu, Chou, 2018); however, the role of empathy in SPS remains unclear, as well as which aspects are essential in SPS. Therefore, further research is needed to inform the scientific debate on which key features are essential for HSP, HSC and SPS.

To summarise, it should be stated that when considering the role and challenges faced by parents and teachers of children initially classified as HSC, the most crucial problem will be distinguishing between a personality endowed with high sensitivity and a personality showing neurotic features requiring specialised medical assistance.

Conclusions

The results of exploring the issue of children's high sensitivity based on literature analysis, individual case studies, observations and surveys of teachers' and parents' opinions lead to a broader interest in the functioning of HSCs in the family and kindergarten environment. The primary condition for increasing the level and effectiveness of support provided to HSCs is to improve teachers' competencies in identifying features of high sensitivity and ways of working with HSCs. Preparation is essential to teachers' qualifications, including practical skills consistent with current psychological knowledge.

It is necessary to select people for the teaching profession, which has not existed for a long time, to include people with predispositions to work with children, empathetic, sensitive people who desire self-development and self-improvement. Unfortunately, currently observing the decline in the prestige of the teaching profession, this is becoming a "cool dream".

The teacher should be able to create an atmosphere conducive to the well-being, participation and activity of children and students. He should be a guide to the world of emotions and an advisor. The task of educators is to help the child discover the needs of his body and psyche and then provide support on how to achieve them. It is facilitated by cooperation with parents who know the needs of their HSCs best.

Kindergartens and schools must have appropriate, safe physical space, e.g. warm and gentle colours, appropriate lighting, without unnecessary decorations, and a place to calm down. Moreover, it is necessary to organise a socio-emotional environment with numerous components to ensure the satisfaction of the child's needs and optimal development. It includes as many activities as possible in small groups, avoiding work determined by time pressure, showing understanding and support for the child's emotions, not interpreting the child's crying as a sign of weaknesses, avoiding labels (difficult child, tearful child), rewarding the child for making efforts, teaching how to recognise and name emotions and how to communicate in a group.

It is necessary to move away from education that treats the child as an object to be processed and adapted to generally accepted patterns, where there is no room for individuality and only the curriculum counts.

In our society, too much emphasis is placed on intellectual development. The result is a lack of security, fear and running away from one's emotions. Lack of acceptance of one's different emotions translates later into not knowing how to deal with different situations in life. Therefore, emotional education is essential for children and young people and parents and teachers since most of them grew up when showing emotions and spontaneity was undesirable.

A vital element is the quality of education for pre- and postgraduate pedagogy students, enabling them to acquire the latest extensive knowledge of psychology and pedagogy. An essential component of educators' qualifications is methodological preparation in using work methods and organisational forms in working with children with special needs and current educational challenges.

For this purpose, it is worth using non-authoritarian trends in education aimed at integrating the cognitive and emotional spheres of learning, combining the teaching content with the student's personality, and noticing the interaction of the human body and psyche with the social and natural environment.

If 20% of people are HSPs (Aron, 2017, p. 39), therefore the care and upbringing system cannot ignore the problem of this group of children. It is necessary to identify an HSC in the home, kindergarten, and school environment and to create an appropriate space for their development and life. As Śliwerski (2016, p. 29) writes: "First, they have to acquire a CHILD, psychosocially 'attach' him to themselves, to undertake the common effort of existence and development with him. They must learn from each other, get to know each other to respond to each other's expectations and needs".

According to Elaine N. Aron (2017, p. 25): "The world needs well-mannered, sensitive people. I desperately need them". However, for HSPs to use careful thinking, deep feeling, and noticing subtleties, thanks to which they perceive the world from a broader perspective, they need courage. This courage is needed to speak up and resist when non-sensitive people do not see, do not think, or feel deeply enough (Aron, 2017, p. 25). Implementing these postulates may create a safe environment for children where high sensitivity will be a gift, not a curse (Sand, 2020).

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Dziecko wysoko wrażliwe wyzwaniem dla rodziców i nauczycieli – studium przypadku

Streszczenie

Celem niniejszego artykułu jest przedstawienie charakterystyki dziecka o cechach wysokiej wrażliwości (DWW) oraz jego zachowania i funkcjonowania w różnych obszarach życia codziennego. Ponadto w artykule została zaprezentowana analiza indywidualnego przypadku siedmioletniego dziecka wysoko wrażliwego oraz nauczyciela-wychowawcy z trzydziestoletnim doświadczeniem w obserwacjach dzieci w przedszkolu i w trakcie wczesnej edukacji. Badania zostały pogłębione o wynik badań ankietowych przeprowadzonych wśród rodziców i nauczycieli, które posłużyły do odpowiedzi na pytanie: Jak dziecko o wysokiej wrażliwości radzi sobie i funkcjonuje w środowisku domowym oraz przedszkolnym i jakie istnieją sposoby wspierania jego rozwoju w tych kontekstach?

Analizę zebranego materiału wykorzystano do zaproponowania metod pracy z dzieckiem wysoce wrażliwym z uwzględnieniem rangi współpracy pedagogów i opiekunów służących wsparciu takiego dziecka.

Słowa kluczowe: dziecko wysoko wrażliwe; wsparcie; przedszkole.

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The professionalisation of teachers' professional activities towards equalising educational opportunities for students

Abstract

The subject of the undertaken analyses was the strategies used by teachers as part of bringing them closer to pedagogical expertise. The research aims to show the ways of defining professionalisation by the respondents. As a result, we were looking for the answers to how teachers perceive professionalism and what actions they take to achieve pedagogical expertise. The empirical material comprises 19 interviews with teachers implementing the International Baccalaureate Programme. The theoretical framework for us was symbolic interactionism. We used the procedures of grounded theory methodology. As a result, we reconstructed the strategies they use to approach pedagogical expertise. We managed to characterise the three main dimensions of striving for professionalism by international schoolteachers, i.e., achieving professionalism through relationships, staying up to date, and achieving formal gratifications.
Keywords: professionalisation, international baccalaureate program, teacher, self-improvement.

Introduction

Due to the dynamic changes in the Polish education systems and the constantly increasing expectations towards teachers, reflection on the issue of pro-

fessionalisation is the subject of numerous analyses by representatives of social sciences both in Poland and around the world. Previous research on this topic has focused primarily on attempts to categorise teachers' professionalism as a professional value, ideology, and discourse (e.g., Evetts, 2011; Gewirtz, Mahony, Hextall, Cribb, 2009; Hargreaves, 2000; Śliwerski, 2009; Michalak, 2010; Gołębniak and Zamorska, 2014; Szempruch, 2019; Madalińska-Michalak, 2021; Whitty, 2000).

The transformation of Polish education in recent decades and various unexpected events, such as the COVID-19 pandemic or the war in Ukraine, have given rise to new challenges, not only in education. These complex and unexpected situations have shown that professionalisation needs particular reflection from a broader socio-cultural perspective. Furthermore, it is essential to review the current role of the teachers and the process of their improvement and qualifications and to consider the category of autonomy and reflection in this profession. Numerous studies address professionalisation; however, we have observed that there are not enough projects implemented at international schools, which, due to their curricular objectives, require a different approach to the teaching and learning process.

Referring to the title category, in this paper's theoretical part, we draw attention to characteristics of the teaching work in the context of professionalisation, which is understood as a complex process of enhancing knowledge and skills rooted in high ethical requirements. We also define professionalism, which we equate with the quality and standards of the teachers' duties.

Educational mastery[1]

An analysis of the reference literature indicates that, due to ambiguity, it is difficult to provide an exhaustive definition of "professionalism". It is due to the dynamics and constantly changing social, political, and cultural conditions. It should be noted that professionalism and professionalisation in Poland gained importance after the systemic transformation in 1989, when, under the wave of changes, people noticed the increasing independence and responsibility for actions. Danuta Urbaniak-Zając (2018, pp. 27–34) analysed selected theories of professionalism and divided them into "normative" positions defining qualities that should be fulfilled by jobs aspiring to be perceived as professions, and "non-normative" ones that describe conditions for professional activity.

The first approach described defines a specific range of features that should be met by a given professional group aspiring to become professionals. Researchers presenting the first position propose sets of attributes (features) that

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[1]   In vivo code, an excerpt from collected empirical material.

enable distinguishing professions from non-professions (Merten, 2000; Pfaden-hauer, 2003; Parsons, 2009). Talcott Parsons (2009) and his professional role model played a pioneering role in this regard. According to this approach, a professional is characterised by the need to achieve specific competencies, universalism in the undertaken actions as opposed to particularism, expertise in a strictly defined field, lack of emotional involvement in relationships with the recipient in order to maintain neutrality and objectivity, as well as focusing on the collective and the protection of established norms and social order. It is fascinating because it turns out that the actions taken by the expert (professional) are structural and institutional, not motivational. However, the limitations and shortcomings of these normatively based positions have long been pointed out. They result, for example, from the fact that they were created in conditions similar to the present day. Their static and ahistorical nature detachment from ongoing social changes is emphasised, and attention is drawn to their primary assumption that the profession is identical to the final stage of development, achieving the highest level of professional maturity. Their practical significance also turns out to be questionable and ineffective, consisting of taking actions by representatives of a given professional group to increase their social status and prestige. A profession perceived as a set of features describes a profession that has "reached" maturity, a detailed catalogue of attributes that its representatives should have. When adopting this approach, it is possible to assign a set of indicators to a specific profession and verify the extent to which they are met (Urbaniak-Zając, 2016, 2018).

Professionalism is approached entirely differently by the non-normative theories of Ulrich Oevermann and Fritz Schütze, which focus mainly on the conditions of professional action.

> The former defines the minimum condition that must be met for an action to be considered professional, which is the protection of the autonomy of life practice. Therefore, a professional can only be a substitute interpreter of the conditions in which the crisis occurred and the conditions of possible change, not a decision-maker determining what should be done (Urbaniak-Zając, 2018, p. 35).

Therefore, a feature of professional activity is the abandonment of power resulting, to some extent, from the role performed and the specificity of the knowledge used (Overmann, 1996). F. Schütze's (1996) approach, grounded in the interactional perspective, assumes openness in relationships. Their interpretation accompanies the process of exchanging meanings. The author focuses on the complexity of operating conditions and the inconsistency of expectations and established rules, leading to professional dilemmas that are solved situationally. As a result, no proven and effective action patterns could be copied and implied as the so-called good practices. F. Schütze (1996) distinguishes two essential conditions for professional action, i.e., granting a specific professional

group legitimacy, giving the right to take action to solve some social issues and the reference of representatives of the profession to a specific area of the symbolic world of meaning, which determines the internal specificity of professional actions. Interactionists reflect on dilemmas, complex and, at the same time, controversial professional situations that do not have ready-made solutions that guarantee professional success. They show that they accompany educators in their everyday practice and also have structural determinants, i.e., they cannot be removed as a result of the decisions of specific people. They must be "dealt with" by undertaking "here and now" strategies. These constantly recurring problems are not an expression of employees' incompetence or helplessness but of inconsistency with the rules they must consider when planning their professional activities (Urbaniak-Zając, 2016, 2018). We deliberately and consciously presented the analysis carried out by Urbaniak-Zając (2018), which reliably showed the ambiguity of the concepts of "profession" and "professionalism".

A similar interpretation is provided in documents of the *Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development* (OECD, 2019), where professionalism is identified with expertness, competence, and excellence in performing a specific activity and oriented towards the quality of the teaching work. According to Boyt, Lusch and Naylor (2001), professionalism is a multidimensional structure consisting of attitudes and behaviour towards one's work and relating to achieving high standards.

Concerning the teaching profession, professionalism is usually operationalised as the knowledge necessary for teaching, autonomy is understood as the ability to decide independently on teaching tasks, and the ability to cooperate to facilitate the exchange of information and support, enabling high-quality education. This term is most often described, analysed, interpreted, and designed using three variables: professional knowledge, professional activity, and ethical-moral qualifications (Szempruch, 2019, p. 29). This process is identified with high cognitive and ethical standards resulting from extended education and professional development. Joanna Madalińska-Michalak (2021, pp. 257–258) indicates that it is an element which confirms the quality of work and is directly related to teachers' commitment to their duties, but also to their compliance with the standards of work and the requirements of professional ethics. Therefore, professionalism in the teaching profession refers to being a professional and *behaving professionally*. Thus, in preparing for the profession, providing sound knowledge and skills to support personal development and emotional and social competencies is also essential. Furthermore, it should be stressed that "teachers' professionalisation is not a state but a process that advances through the profession and is, on the one hand, a matter for the individual teacher and occurs in the school community system, which also impacts, on the other" (Śliwerski, 2009, pp. 36–37).

Publication of the *Recommendation concerning the Status of Higher-Education Teaching Personnel* (UNESCO, 1997) was critical for defining the guidelines for professionalising the teaching profession. This document outlines international standards and recommendations on teacher professionalism, including preparation for the profession, vocational development, recruitment and employment process, promotion, work conditions and quality, disciplinary procedures, professional autonomy, work supervision and assessment, rights and responsibilities, teacher involvement in education-related decision-making, and social privileges. In addition to the guidelines prescribed in this recommendation, it is worth stressing aspects related to professional autonomy. Joanna Michalak confirms this and writes that when teacher professionalism is considered,

> teachers' autonomy, reflected through their ability to have a real influence on the direction of activities and processes occurring in their working environment, is increasingly identified as a distinguishing feature. Teachers can show their professionalism by establishing and developing good relationships with students, parents, fellow colleagues, local community, and with all those outside the professional framework of this profession (Michalak, 2010, p. 115).

Teachers' autonomy, therefore, manifests itself through their critical attitude towards knowledge and the possibility of co-selecting teaching content. It also involves the informed and independent choice of teaching strategies and the engaged, creative, and reflective delivery of the teaching and learning process. Continuous self-reflection promotes self-efficacy and allows teachers to maximise their personal capacity.

According to Forsyth and Danisiewicz (1985), it is one of the main elements characterising the professionalism of teachers, who should have autonomy in making decisions and be free from any external pressures. Moreover, constant reflection on one's actions helps to improve their effectiveness and allows for the optimal use of the teacher's personal potential.

Laurence Stenhouse observes that "a broad definition of teacher professionalism involves an ability of autonomous self-development through a regular analysis of one's work, the work of other teachers, and testing new solutions in the classroom" (1977; after Tędziagolska and Kasprzak, 2014, p. 334). This approach describes a teacher as open to changes, constantly revises his or her knowledge, improves skills, collaborates with others, is active and seeks new solutions.

In this paper, we focus on a group of teachers working in schools preparing students for the International Baccalaureate exam [from now on IB DP]. These schools require a different organisation and approach to the teaching and learning process. It directly results from the IB DP curriculum and the international student profile. From the teacher's perspective, the IB DP curriculum consists of three elements: teaching content (the analytical part), the way it is delivered (the practical part) and assessment methods (the concluding part). The system

assumes a balance between content, teaching methodology and assessment process. Consequently, successful implementation and delivery of the curriculum at international schools largely depend on teachers' knowledge, skills, and self-awareness.

Theoretical and methodological aspects of research

A qualitative research strategy focused on the interpretive paradigm set the trail for our analyses. At the heart of the interpretive approach are mutual interactions (social interactions), essential for interpreting, experiencing, and shaping one's professional identity. In the presented paradigm, social reality is not hermetic and absolute but is created by social actors and reflectively recreated (Wilson, 1971; Hałas, 2006; Wyka, 1993). Our theoretical framework was symbolic interactionism. Here, a person appears as an active entity capable of creating meanings and processing information sent to him, learning, and analysing accumulated experiences, and as a result, he can react and take specific actions (Blumer, 2009; Hałas, 2006).

The presented analyses are part of broader research projects focused on reconstructing the functions of education programs in Poland.[2] We used grounded theory methodology to analyse how international schoolteachers define professionalism (Strauss and Corbin, 1997; Glaser and Strauss, 2009). The above choice was dictated by the desire to capture the respondents' perspective. Applying the assumptions of the grounded theory methodology enabled the discovery of specific patterns and mechanisms that give meaning to an individual's actions, as well as the social relations in which he or she is involved (Konecki, 2000).

> Theory building is a process, so it is not a verification of previously built hypotheses based on later collected data. Collecting data, building hypotheses, and verifying them are not separated in time, as in traditional research, but are procedures intertwined many times during the long process of generating theory (Konecki, 2000, p. 27).

Coding is a crucial element of the theory generation process; we decided to use focused category coding that considers causal and intervening conditions, interactions, strategies, tactics, context, and the consequences of actions. As a result, we talked to 14 women and 5 men employed in private and public institutions implementing the International Baccalaureate program. The respondents teach various school subjects, with varied work experience in the IB DP program (the shortest professional experience was 6 months, the most extended 10 years).

Meetings with the respondents took place primarily in the school building, in a small room designated by the interviewees, where the narrators felt safe and comfortable. The initial question we asked teachers was: How did you start working at an international school? It is worth emphasising that all narrators have experience teaching in schools implementing the Polish core curriculum, which is why they willingly referred to their experience and compared two different systems during the interviews.

The subject of our analyses was the strategies teachers use to bring them closer to pedagogical expertise. As a result, we were looking for answers to the questions: what actions do teachers take to achieve pedagogical expertise?

Results

In our research, teachers paid a lot of attention to professionalisation and activities that bring them closer to achieving pedagogical expertise. It is worth emphasising that at the conceptualisation stage of this research project, we did not intend to focus on the issue of professionalisation. The respondents raised this subject during the interviews, and using extensive descriptions, they revealed the importance they gave to professionalism in teaching. They also presented ways of achieving it or getting closer to it. On the one hand, the pursuit of professionalism is required by law (through formal ministerial requirements), which prescribes the framework for the organisation of international schools and criteria for teacher promotion. On the other hand, this formal requirement may become a self-imposed goal expressed through development, exploration, autonomy, and self-improvement.

The collected empirical material has shown diversity in how our narrators define professionalism. They expressed professionalism through their own creative vision board, which they visualised during the interviews. Respondents departed from "textbook" definitions and "statutory" items required for promotion and defined professionalisation using their own personalised meaning. With this in mind, we reconstructed how the IB programme school teachers define professionalism and their methods to achieve pedagogical mastery. Consequently, we identified three main dimensions of the drive towards professionalisation. Interestingly, when the respondents were eliciting themes dedicated to professionalism, they began telling their stories from graduation, completing their studies, and obtaining a master's degree, which they perceived as a symbol confirming their qualifications. Using vivid descriptions, they compared this moment to the beginning of their journey to professionalism.

"Well, yes, that's when I completed my studies, and you can say that was when I started to develop in this area" (N1).

They probably chose this approach as they needed to place certain events on a timeline to reconstruct their career path chronologically. Furthermore, we observed that even when teachers gained their first pedagogical work experience before graduation, they did not discuss it in the professionalisation context. They put themselves as a student/trainee/intern "learning" a profession and testing themselves in the professional environment. After completing their studies and securing employment, they felt responsible for their professional development.

"I felt that it became serious then and that I was responsible for these kids, and it was up to me what they would know" (N2).

The more professional experience they gained, and the longer their service was, the respondents redefined the concept of professionalism. It was mainly due to the fact that they were becoming more rooted in the community of international school teachers, learnt specifics of pedagogical work, and faced professional difficulties and challenges. The time provided a frame for the respondents' narratives and was an extremely interesting category. In addition to the chronology of the events, which respondents emphasised during the interviews, time marked the stages of their professional maturity and the process of becoming a teacher. The longer service reflected on one's professional role and the need to update and redefine the concept of professionalism.

"I've become humble over time; when I graduated from the university, I thought I knew everything" (N3).

Most respondents had the experience of teaching at schools implementing Polish core curriculum. Those who decided to work at international schools were motivated by the need for change, the search for professional challenges, and the sense of bitterness resulting from the Polish systemic solutions in education. Regardless of the conditions for curriculum change, they were fully aware and confident in their decision.

"I received such an offer and thought, why not? It was a good moment. I was tired and overburdened by the Polish school, so I decided to try something new" (N4).

> In my case, it was like another stage of my development […] when I received an offer to work with IB programme. I perceived it as entering a higher level, like trying to do something new; the contact with a foreign language, using and remembering it, and the experience itself were other valuable elements for me. Well, it was a completely new challenge (N5).

Analysing the collected empirical material, we have identified three specific strategies teachers reach for as part of the process of becoming a professional have developed.

Striving for professionalism through relationships

This strategy is pursued by teachers who perceive the interpersonal dimension as the vital career development driver. Using Goffman's (1961) metaphor of the theatre of life, it can be argued that the focal point that brings respondents closer to pedagogical expertise is what happens offstage, behind the scenes. Teachers' actions are oriented towards their interaction partners, i.e., students, parents, and other teachers. They aim to create and sustain a supportive school environment. Professionalism appears as a range of activities oriented towards other people. The narrator's statement below perfectly illustrates the essence of the described strategy.

> I think that building a partnership largely depends on the maturity of our students, although appropriate relationship must be maintained in my opinion, we should rather act as mentors or guides for our students, not persons who are trying to impose something on them; you can initiate a healthy and partner-based relationship, where at the same time you will have expectations for students, provided that they are mature enough to build such relationship with us (N6).

The respondent admits that the choice of this strategy is highly demanding. It is a balancing act between the role of a guardian mentor and the role of a controller knowledge enforcer. Notably, the teacher emphasises that the condition for establishing partnership relations is the student's maturity. Therefore, the involvement is preceded by the selection of students and the selection of those with good prospects, worth investing the teacher's energy and time. From the statements of respondents using this strategy, it can be concluded that an expression (indicator) of professionalism accurately assesses the potential of the student with whom you plan to establish a relationship.

The effectiveness of activities undertaken by a teacher is not assessed through the prism of personal successes (e.g., acquiring additional qualifications) or students' successes (e.g., number of promoted scholarship holders, Olympians, high average student results). Instead, it is determined by the quality of relationships with other actors in this social world.

It is worth stressing that teachers who perceive skills in starting, sustaining, and teaching healthy (N6) interpersonal relationships as synonymous with professionalism are at risk of incurring an emotional cost of their engagement. By creating a safe space for learning and growing students, the respondents become beneficiaries and guards of stories entrusted by their students, who look to the teachers for trust, support, and solutions.

A similar situation occurs in the event of an incorrect assessment of the student's potential and involvement in a relationship with a person who is immature and not ready for trust and mentoring relationships (N6). The consequence of becoming involved in such relationships is exposing oneself to excessive

shortening of distance, exploitation, straining kindness and trust, and crossing boundaries. We are talking about such behaviours as, for example, offering to call each other by name, meeting in free time outside of school or making less educational demands. The teacher discusses the hardship and the emotions associated with establishing and maintaining student relationships, emphasising that it is highly responsible and requires courage.

> I know I am responsible for these students, and my weaknesses may affect their future. Thus, I do not dwell on whether I can handle the stress. Well, I know that I cannot fail. At least, this is my approach to teaching. I cannot afford to be weak and… Of course, this is what we assume, and on the other hand, we are only human, and one can become sick or experience another problem, but in general, I think that there is simply no other way, and I cannot afford to be weak. At least this is how it should be (N7).

Involving and investing one's knowledge and competencies in building relationships promotes the transparency of school environment and effectiveness of activities in prevention, education, and teaching. Interestingly, striving for professionalism through relationships also strives for openness to diversity. It involves dealing with prejudices and weaknesses and learning and raising awareness of young people's needs. The actions taken by the teachers aim to equip students with the skills to live independently and responsibly as adults.

> IB school teaches true respect for differences and true tolerance, you can see and hear this when you talk with young people, and in presentations, they deliver, also when we watch controversial movies or read articles, consequently you can see that they have more true respect for other people and become more open; Because they have an example, that is what I pay much attention to […]. These relationships and understanding are my priority […] (N8).

The international curriculum's premise fosters relationship building. The tangible evidence of partnership and interpersonal skills education is represented by termly group projects, which students manage themselves. At the same time, the teacher takes on the role of a tutor and coordinator of the activities undertaken, teaching CAS subjects (creativity, activity and service)[3] and school spaces designated exclusively for students called *IBroom, IBzone* (these are usually rooms equipped with soft pouffes, sofas, a kettle and a microwave, and students can use them at any time).

Interestingly, teachers pursuing the strategy focused on pursuing professionalism through relationships are oriented towards collaboration with other teachers and community-oriented activities to increase the chances of achieving teaching expertise.

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[3] CAS (creativity, active, service) is a subject under which students deliver community projects outside school, and it incorporates creativity, activity and voluntary work.

Striving for professionalism through *being up-to-date*[4]

This strategy is used by teachers who identify professionalism with keeping up to date not only with the subject knowledge they teach but also with scientific developments, contemporary socio-economic changes, and views and values of today's young people. Under this strategy, we can distinguish three tactics used by the respondents. The first tactic is oriented towards formal self-development pathways in the scientific discipline taught and teaching methods. It involves training, courses, and postgraduate studies. Teacher participation in webinars, listening to podcasts, watching instructional videos on the YouTube platform, and participating in discussions via online forums are examples of the second tactic oriented towards informal self-development pathways. They undertake actions to update their knowledge, enrich lessons with the latest research findings and make the teaching methods more attractive (experiments, visual materials) to meet young audiences' needs and expectations. We called the third and most unusual tactic the image tactic. Teachers who reach for this tactic spend much time creating their teacher image, attributing to it a unique importance in the quality and effectiveness of teaching.

It is worth mentioning that the IB programme, in a way, forces teachers to *be up to date* as it leaves them much freedom in choosing the content and methods of its presentation. On the one hand, this freedom is a great advantage; on the other, it demands that teachers continuously explore and improve their teaching.

One of the narrators reports on the extent of her involvement in designing the lessons. She emphasises that the International Baccalaureate program gives teachers trust and creates conditions for autonomy and creativity. Notably, the respondent believes that thanks to this, she does not fall into a routine and rigid framework of repetition of the lessons. They are more willing to reach for the achievements of other fields and look for unusual, modern innovations and teaching methods.

> This programme naturally assumes trust in the teacher, and we create it ourselves. There are certain thematic boundaries […] precisely by selecting these thematic blocks. There are, of course, certain blocks that I have to cover. However, I have many choices in the specific topics I address in my lessons, and I can teach the language through the culture and reality of the country […] I teach the language not focusing on the language itself but on such topics and real situations; we always refer to the culture. Thus, it provides a completely different perspective on language teaching and creativity. There is an opportunity to be very creative, which is missing in the Polish system, in my opinion. […] I explore and decide myself […] (N9).

Moreover, the program is regularly evaluated every six years, and consequently, the content and learning outcomes, the so-called curriculum, are

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[4]   *In vivo* code

changing. Teachers must adapt to the recommendations and find ways to fulfil the latest requirements.

> We do not get into a rut because there is always something new. Maybe the programme itself does not change that much, but for instance other […] other skills are emphasised. The programme does not change drastically, but nuances are introduced, innovations and different skills are emphasised, for instance, very interesting (N10).

Working on one's image, which should convince students and encourage them to participate in the classes, is an original example of *being up to date*. The respondents who used this tactic greatly valued their appearance, the vocabulary they used at work and their behaviour.

By using youth slang and following trends and technological innovations, teachers appear more accessible and open. It turns out that the contemporary dynamics of change and the amount of stimuli reaching people mean that knowledge and skills alone are insufficient to arouse students' interest. Teachers feel it is necessary to change the repertoire of methods that arouse interest, so they use image tactics that visually attract attention and blur the teacher stereotype. In this case, they used the image to draw attention to themselves, raise interest in the subject they teach, and establish relationships with students.

"The image is a flagship of the teacher who represents the subject he or she teaches […] it is obvious that the young will reach a better understanding with another young, with someone who is up to date, speaks the same language and is open" (N11)*.

Striving for professionalism by *being up to date* requires teachers to be reflexive and take comprehensive actions to update their knowledge, skills, competencies, and image. The time teachers invest in their self-improvement, which significantly goes beyond the working time framework and disrupts the work-life balance, is a consequence of this strategy.

> For me, it was a huge challenge, but also such a great incentive that I had to improve my knowledge in other subjects too; we need to ask students to identify sources of this knowledge. Thus, we need to refresh our knowledge of politics, religion and, in fact, ethics. Well, I feel quite special in this context […]. However, in general, we realise that every single subject should integrate knowledge from other subjects, and this is also very unique […] it is hard to balance this with other responsibilities (N1).

Professionalism is the skill of *being up to date,* expressed through auto presentation acquisition and improvement of knowledge in the respective discipline. It enables teachers to "juggle" information to achieve their objectives and anticipate what might happen during the class and which questions students might ask.

> The professionals know the answer to the question, but if they do not, they know where to find it; they say, come on, let's look for the answer together, I don't know, let's check

together. It's a kind of flexibility towards the students, being able to anticipate what will happen, isn't it? (N12).

The respondents pursuing this strategy do not care about the formal display of their successes or the number of certificates and diplomas they have obtained. Focused on the here and now, they treat acquiring knowledge and skills more as a means to an end rather than achieving it.

Striving for professionalism by achieving formal gratification

The last strategy includes three main components, i.e., success measured in terms of student achievement, documented proof of knowledge and competencies, and length of service. Professionalism is expressed through promotion, offered when a teacher fulfils specific criteria.

In contrast to the above strategies, teachers who strive for professionalism by achieving formal gratification are oriented towards gaining promotion, awards, and letters of commendation, which are granted provided they have received certificates and documents confirming their participation in training courses and conferences. Teachers choose a formal educational pathway (training, postgraduate studies), which shows their pursuit of professionalism and ennoblement. Our respondents have designed their career paths with attention to detail and had complete control over this process. They measure professionalism through their achievements. Consequently, teachers who follow this strategy expect students to be passive and treat them as recipients of the knowledge taught or as "indicators" of the teaching outcomes. They are focused on themselves and their professional development. In contrast to the team-based activities of respondents pursuing the strategy based on striving for professionalism through relationships, there is an apparent tendency to act individually in this case.

Conclusions

The systematically growing popularity of international schools in Poland proves the changes initiated in the 1990s by the political transformation. At that time, attention was drawn to the need to equalise educational opportunities for students. This process was to take place mainly through improving the quality of education. One of the implemented changes was the possibility of establishing new types of schools, including international ones. Today, they play a significant role in educational inclusion, which in UNESCO's documents is based on such values as implementing equal rights, access to goods, including symbolic goods, inclusion and broadly understood participation (UNESCO, 2020).

In the IB classes, which prepare students for the international final exams, education has a practical dimension from the beginning and gives a chance to assimilate the curriculum content. The key role is played by teachers who are experts in the field of knowledge, but above all, they are people who are required to be reflective and have interpersonal skills. These resources allow us to diagnose students' predispositions and then support them in choosing the most appropriate educational path. Implementing program assumptions and equalising educational opportunities for students takes place, among others, through the strategies teachers use in their pursuit of professionalism.

The analyses presented are part of a broader research project. We realise that we have not exhausted the subject; however, we hope to contribute to the discussion on teacher professionalism, its importance, its definition, and the strategies for achieving teacher mastery. We have analysed the collected empirical material and studied how the respondents define professionalism, and, as a result, we were able to characterise three main dimensions of the striving for professionalism by international school teachers. Each dimension unveiled the specific reasons for actions taken by the narrators to bring them closer to achieving professionalism, defined as a process with no definite end. Respondents found their ways of interpreting its course.

Interestingly, we observed that the narrators, in their definitions of professionalism, did not refer to the concepts captured in the literature; on the contrary, they were keen to create their definitions and visualise them through *vision boards.* Moreover, the analyses enabled us to capture the specific determinants of the strategies implemented, which varied in many respects. An example is the focus on achieving pedagogical mastery through team, or individual work centred on individual success. Due to the diversity of these strategies, none of them is predominant. The strategies described may overlap and be implemented simultaneously or alternately. All strategies implemented by teachers contribute to equalising educational opportunities for Polish students on a global scale. The IB DP program leads to the education of conscious and engaged citizens sensitive to injustice and inequality.

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Profesjonalizacja działań zawodowych pedagogów w kierunku wyrównywania szans edukacyjnych uczniów

Streszczenie

Przedmiotem podjętych analiz uczyniłyśmy strategie stosowane przez nauczycieli w ramach przybliżania ich do pedagogicznego eksperstwa. W rezultacie poszukiwałyśmy odpowiedzi na pytania – jak nauczyciele postrzegają profesjonalizm, a także – jakie działania podejmują w celu osiągania pedagogicznego eksperstwa. Na materiał empiryczny składa się 19 wywiadów swobodnych z nauczycielami realizującymi program matury międzynarodowej. Ramę teoretyczną stanowił dla nas symboliczny interakcjonizm. Posłużyłyśmy się procedurami metodologii teorii ugruntowanej. W rezultacie zrekonstruowałyśmy strategie, po które sięgają w celu przybliżenia się do pedagogicznego eksperstwa. Udało nam się dokonać charakterystyki trzech głównych wymiarów dążenia do profesjonalizmu przez nauczycieli szkół międzynarodowych, tj. osiąganie profesjonalizmu poprzez relacje; bycie na bieżąco; osiąganie formalnych gratyfikacji.

Słowa kluczowe: profesjonalizacja; program matury międzynarodowej; nauczyciel; samodoskonalenie.

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Undergraduate preparation of future teachers in the context of reading literacy in the Czech Republic

Abstract

The present paper focuses on the undergraduate preparation of future teachers in the context of reading literacy. The paper consists of a theoretical part and an empirical part. The theoretical part describes and defines the basic concepts closely related to the topic, including undergraduate preparation of future teachers, reading literacy, etc. The empirical part describes an analysis of the current study programs at the Faculty of Education, Palacký University Olomouc, Czech Republic. The objective of the present paper was to analyse the study programs and perform a comparison with expiring study programs aimed at reading literacy. The authors performed a qualitative research study to answer whether undergraduate preparation of future teachers at Palacký University Olomouc in the context of reading literacy is sufficient and if study plans of educational programs reflect the requirements of pedagogical practice. The research was performed using document analysis.

Secondary document analysis refers to data already collected (Donnellan, Lucas, 2013). According to Hendl (2005), the purpose of qualitative analysis is non-numerical data organisation in order to reveal topics, regularity, relationships, and quality. In this context, the term non-numeric applies not only to the data but also to data handling. According to the preliminary research, a relatively large proportion of future teachers lack practical teacher training aimed at subject-specific didactics, which is also based on reading literacy. Due to the ongoing pandemic in COVID-19, it was necessary to respond to the methods and forms of work to develop reading literacy through

distance learning. The authors of the present paper believed it was essential to analyse the study programs in the context of reading literacy and answer the question of whether undergraduate preparation of future teachers is sufficient and if study plans of educational programs reflect the requirements of pedagogical practice in terms of reading literacy, using the content mentioned above analysis of documents. It followed from the results of the research investigation that the study plans of the educational programmes reflect the requirements of educational practice. Even though we have described the facts in the contribution, we believe that the reading literacy development issue is paid sufficient attention to based on the analysis of study plans in teaching for the 1st stage of primary school. Although the term "reading literacy" is mentioned in the curricular documents FEP PE only marginally, in the study plans for future primary school teachers, the term "reading literacy" appears in several disciplines. It is undoubtedly debatable to what extent the above disciplines will respond to reading literacy development in students. Judging by the content of the plans, their purpose is to provide future teachers with the competencies that support the development of reading literacy in primary school children following pre-literacy in pre-primary education. The disciplines are purely of a didactic focus because they appear in the third grade of study and higher grades after the students have completed relevant theoretical preparation.

Keywords: undergraduate preparation, future teacher, reading literacy, analysis, subject-specific didactics, the Czech Republic.

1. Introduction

The teacher has always been one of the key actors in the area of training and education. In order to make any positive changes in the system of education, we must start with the teacher because any reforms aimed at improving the school depend on the teachers' willingness to change the concept of teaching, their attitudes to the learners and working methods, and last but not least their personality, abilities, and level of education (Šimoník, 1995). The term future teacher shall mean a teacher training student in the last year of study. The term future teacher is closely related to the term beginning teacher. Šimoník (1995, p. 9) claims,

> A beginning teacher is a teacher in the first year of teaching. The first year in school is a year of confrontation between the ideas and ideals of the young teacher and the often harsh reality, a year of confrontation between the teacher's preparation and the real performance of the profession, confrontation between theory and practice.

Every teacher must cope with the internal transformation of the school and society. The teacher passes on the changes to other people. Chudý (2014) believes that in this context, the teacher should have the following roles: class manager, a diagnostician of the student's learning styles, consultant, educator, and facilitator of learning. The teacher should also be the innovator and modifier of the processes and be creative. For a beginning teacher to fulfil these roles, undergraduate preparation should focus on specific capacities and competencies. These competencies and capacities are based on several traits. According to Chudý, these traits include the following: personal dispositions of the teacher, the teacher's actions and behaviour, the educational style of the teacher, the

concept of the teaching process, results of the teaching process, teacher-student interaction, or the teacher's interpersonal style. The teacher's personality is essential, and according to Dytrtová (2009) in Krpálek, Kadaňová (2014) depends on the most important components such as mental resilience, i.e. the ability to cope with stress, or the ability to insight into the core of problematic situations. Other important aspects are adaptability, adjustability, flexibility in thinking and the ability to improvise. The last two components include the ability to learn new knowledge as a prerequisite for fast and effective learning, for handling changes, for prudential regulation of one's internal and external activity, and for social empathy and communication, i.e. the ability to attract and maintain attention. According to the above, the personality can be understood as an organic system of individual abilities, skills, knowledge, competencies, experiences, personality traits, and behaviours of an individual. The personality of the teacher transforms and shapes in the long term. This process can be defined as developing professional identity because identity is not a finished product. This professional identity changes over time and under the influence of social and anthropological contexts associated with humans and their development. New experiences and learning new situations change the structure of the teacher's identity (Chudý, 2014). This section of the text will describe the stages of the teacher's professional journey. Even though many authors define these stages differently, the present paper will focus on the stages defined by Špendla (1974) in Chudý (2014). According to Špendla, the stages of the teacher's professional journey are as follows: orientation stage (pre-professional stage); preparatory phase (specialised teacher training); adaptation stage (the first employment and the first career steps); integration stage (shaping of the teacher's personality); and stabilisation stage (balance between the teacher's professional activities and performance). The key competencies have become the core concept of school-based education. These competencies include knowledge, skills, and abilities that are not activity-specific but provide the opportunity to be active in many functions and positions and to cope with the changes in one's occupational life (Veteška et al., 2017)."A competent individual has the abilities, knowledge, skills, habits, experiences, and motivation to do what is expected and required in the respective professional area in a qualified and high-quality manner" (Krpálek, Kadaňová, 2014, p. 19). According to Tremblay et al. (2002) and Veteška et al. (2017), the competencies include the following: contextualisation (embedded in a particular environment or related to a particular situation); multidimensionality (consists of a variety of resources, assumes effective management of these resources which are linked to the basic dimensions of human behaviour, i.e. competences contain behaviours and are reflected in behaviours, see Figure 1); and the potential for action and development (competences are acquired and developed in the process of education and learning).

Behaviour	
Skills	Knowledge, experience
Abilities – mental, cognitive	Motives – values, attitudes, interests, needs
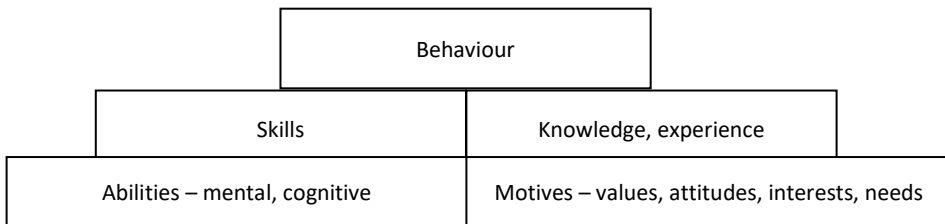
Figure 1
Hierarchical model of the competence structure

Source: Veteška et al. (2017), p. 19.

For the present paper, the most important are professional competencies. Every university should help future teachers develop their professional competencies to enable the planning, delivery, and evaluation of the teaching process. Professional preparation of future teachers includes a set of knowledge, skills, and attitudes acquired in the following courses: general education, general and school didactics, communication skills, and educational diagnostics (Nábělková, 2020). Scholarly literature describes several approaches to classifying the teacher's professional competencies. Kyriacou proposed a traditional classification system that reflects the educational process stages.

Similarly to Kyriacou (2012), Králová et al. (2018) believe that these skills are related to planning and preparation, i.e. didactic skills associated with the selection of the content and objectives of the lessons and other educational units, selection of adequate methods, means, and tools. Lesson planning should be based on effective communication and adequate learner involvement. The purpose of communication is to present the learning content comprehensibly, while learner involvement is achieved through activating methods. Kyriacou (2012) emphasises the skills associated with lesson management. The essential components of class management include time management, class atmosphere monitoring, and flexible lesson organisation based on observations and the development of *a positive class climate*. Using their social skills, teachers can diagnose and influence class relationships. In this respect, the teacher should act as an essential socialising agent who determines the form of the social climate implicitly, i.e. through his/her personality, but also explicitly by defining rules and principles of observing them. It is because classroom discipline is necessary for the teacher to maintain attention and resolve undesirable behaviours. Because classroom climate should be maintained positively, teacher-student interaction is essential. The teacher shows respect and trust for the student. Other significant skills are related to diagnosis and self-diagnosis (Kyriacou, 2012). Gillernová (2012) proposed a comprehensive model relating to the teacher's professional skills.
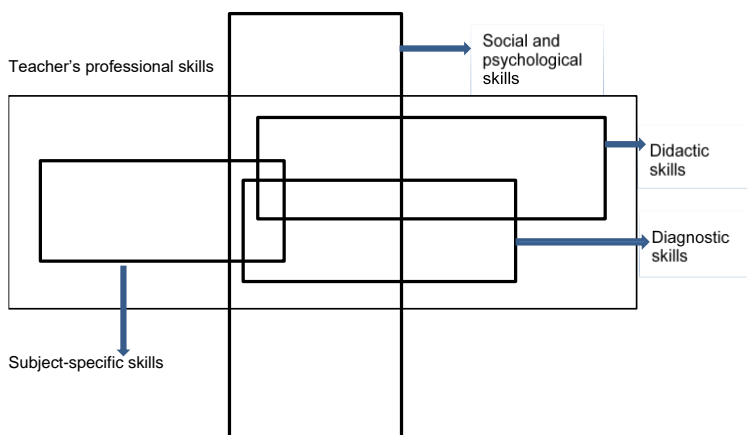
Figure 2
Teacher's professional skills according to Gillernová, 2003, p. 85.

This scheme suggests that the teacher's subject-specific skills are linked to the learning content. In this area, university teachers usually do not show any deficiencies. The teacher's didactic skills determine how to mediate specific knowledge to students adequately. The teacher's diagnostic skills are essential in assessing students' written or oral tests and evaluating the effectiveness of the education process. From the perspective of educational psychology, social skills support the involvement of the remaining types of skills, especially diagnostic skills. One of the teaching profession's key issues is preparing future teachers. University study should reflect the new perspective on the institution's role, the teacher, and the teaching process. Šimoník (1995, p. 3) states, "The teacher should primarily be an expert in the process of training and education and should be able to support the student's development professionally and sensitively." In most universities, the preparation of future teachers is primarily theoretical. Future teachers lack practical skills.

For this reason, there is a considerable contradiction between university training and reality in schools. After university graduates start teaching, they encounter both objective and subjective problems. They mainly address these problems with uncertainty, doubts, and frequent errors. Šimoník (1995, p. 8) believes that "No university can prepare a perfect and 'ready-made' professional." Teachers become real professionals only after several years of experience. Especially in the first years, teachers try to overcome some difficulties related to the new profession, their previous theoretical preparation in university, and last but not least, their educational experience. Chudý (2014) believes that the preparation system of future teachers requires methods and strategies that will benefit the teacher and will be indispensable in the educational process and consistent with the society's objectives.

Modern schools outperform traditional directive education and focus on the central needs of the current society. The problems of a beginning teacher are summarised by Šimoník (1995, p. 33) as follows: "A young person with a 'fresh' university diploma in the pocket is not a 'ready-made' teacher. Although the beginning teacher performs all of the usual activities that pertain to the teaching profession, we can hardly expect everything to be done perfectly." Klement (1969, p. 176) refers to beginning teachers' problems: "A low level of linguistic expression, deformed handwriting, methodological incompetence, unawareness of school administration, uncertainty in resolving educational issues, in marking, and in communication with parents." These authors have a similar perspective on the problems of beginning teachers. It is generally known that despite years of experience, teachers make mistakes, and they make mistakes just as beginning teachers. The teacher is one of the main actors in the education process and is responsible for the entire process's preparation, management, organisation, and results. It is essential for future teachers to understand the importance of interpersonal relationships and communication and to realise that a degree of tension in the educational interaction is part of the educational process (Šmelová, Fasnerová, 2011).

Regarding the paper's topic, the abovementioned competencies should correspond with the applicable curricular document (FEP EE). Due to the current way of education (distance), it is necessary to constantly develop and strengthen reading literacy at the 1st level of primary school. Educators have been forced to change the methods and forms of work that develop reading. The following text describes the preparation of future teachers and an analysis of the disciplines that correspond with reading literacy competencies. Specifically, the authors focus on future teachers from the Faculty of Education, Palacký University Olomouc. The text describes the courses in which future teachers are trained in reading literacy and acquire the professional competencies mentioned above.

2. Methodology

The authors performed a qualitative research study to answer the question: Is the undergraduate preparation of future teachers at the Palacký University in Olomouc sufficient in the context of reading literacy? The research was performed using document analysis. Secondary document analysis refers to data already collected (Donnellan, Lucas, 2013). For our research, these were the accreditation documents for the fields in which future teachers study. The text below describes in which courses future teachers are trained in reading literacy and in which courses they acquire the required professional competencies. According to Hendl (2005), the purpose of qualitative analysis is non-numerical

data organisation to reveal topics, regularity, relationships, and quality. In this context, the term non-numeric applies not only to the data but also to data handling. The results of the content analysis of the documents are specified in the text below.

3. Results

This study is a pilot study within the IGA project, and therefore, we present only partial results.

Course: Literature and youth

Objectives:
Upon completion of the course, the students will be able to:
— Define the content and functions of literature for children and youth;
— Explain the specifics of literature for children and youth;
— Clarify the role of literature for children and youth in terms of the development of **reading literacy**;
— Define the characterise literary genres for children and youth;
— Evaluate the works of the most important Czech and foreign authors of literature for children and youth;
— Analyse and interpret artistic texts in the context of the authors' works and period of origin;
— Formulate and present one's interpretation of a selected book for children and youth;
— Assess the quality of literary work for children and youth.

Course: Didactics of Literature Education

Objectives:
Upon completion of the course, the students will be able to:
— Assess and evaluate the communication concept of literary education;
— Demonstrate the link between literary education and cross-curricular subjects of FEP EE;
— Assess the possibilities for the development of **reading strategies** in primary school children;
— Analyse and apply the principles of receptive aesthetics in the teaching process;
Clarify the stages of the development of **reading**;
— Use activating methods and methods that develop **reading literacy** in the teaching process;
— Demonstrate the ability to select an appropriate text for didactic interpretation;
— Propose a procedure for a didactic interpretation of an artistic text;
— Justify the benefit of artistic literature for children's personality development;
— Design and implement a complete lesson plan.

Subject: Didactics of elementary reading and writing

Objectives:
Upon completion of the course, the students will be able to:
— Define the terms perception, school maturity, school readiness, teaching

Subject: Fundamentals of reading literacy for primary school children

Objectives:
Upon completion of the course, the students will be able to:

method, analytical-synthetic method, methodological procedures, handwriting models in contemporary school, **reading literacy**;
— Clarify the relationships between auditory and visual perception, school readiness and school maturity depending on **elementary reading and writing**. Clarify the relationships between the current handwriting models used in elementary school;
— Explain the significance of perception, school readiness, and school maturity for both the pupil and the teacher;
— List and characterise the different types of perception, school readiness, and school maturity;
— Assess school maturity and school readiness of children in the elementary grade following their graphomotor skills and **pre-reading skills**;
— Assess the quality and difficulty of textbooks aimed at **reading** and writing (live alphabets, alphabet books, reading books, writing books);
— Apply the analytical-synthetic teaching method (genetic and global) in teaching elementary reading and writing;
— Analyse and evaluate textbooks and learning texts according to specific criteria.

— Define the concept of **reading literacy** and describe the development models and levels of literacy;
— Characterise the international reading literacy assessment programmes PIRLS and PISA;
— Characterise the process of text comprehension;
— Understand the development of text comprehension, adapt and be able to apply the method of developing **reading literacy**;
— Learn about the methods and strategies that develop critical thinking and activities to link the different educational areas according to FEP for primary schools.

Course: Didactics of Czech Language 2

Objectives:
Upon completion of the course, the students will be able to:
— Understand the structure of FEP EE, be able to describe the content and structure of communication and stylistic education for primary school;
— Practically demonstrate the knowledge of the methods, forms, and exercises used in communication and stylistic education and apply them to a specific learning content;
— Use supportive didactic tools in teaching the Czech language and its innovations;
— Know of and be able to apply selected methods to develop **reading literacy** among primary school pupils;

Course: Teaching practice with reflection

Objectives:
Upon completion of the course, the students will be able to:
— Define the specifics of the first grade of elementary school;
— Demonstrate the relationships between auditory and visual perception, school readiness and school maturity depending on elementary reading and writing;
— Clarify the relationships between the current handwriting models used in elementary school;
— Test children's graphomotor and pre-reading skills under the leadership of a teacher trainer;
— Analyse the quality and difficulty of textbooks aimed at reading and writing

— Know of and be able to apply selected activating methods in the educational field of Czech Language and Literature;
— Demonstrate the ability to integrate the different components of the educational field and other educational areas;
— Clarify the process of assessment of written and spoken communications and apply the knowledge in practice;
— Plan and implement language teaching from thematic plans to specific lessons;
— Integrate selected learning contents of specific subjects and their components;
— Integrate the educational area Language and Language Communication with other areas and cross-curricular subjects by means of worksheets or projects.

(live alphabets, alphabet books, reading books, writing books);
— Test and apply the analytical-synthetic teaching method (genetic and global) in teaching elementary reading and writing;
— Perform an analysis of elementary grade children with respect to postponement of school attendance;
— Describe the relationship between postponement of school attendance and subsequent performance in the elementary grade.

4. Conclusions

The above suggests that the educational programmes' study plans reflect the educational practice requirements. Even though we have described the fact, we believe, based on the analysis of study plans in teaching for the 1st stage of primary school, that the issue of reading literacy development is paid attention to. Although the term "reading literacy" is mentioned in the curricular documents FEP PE only marginally, in the study plans for future primary school teachers, the term "reading literacy" appears in several disciplines. It is undoubtedly debatable to what extent the above disciplines will respond to reading literacy development in students. Judging by the content of the plans, their purpose is to provide future teachers with the competencies that support the development of reading literacy in primary school children following pre-literacy in pre-primary education. The disciplines are purely of a didactic focus because they appear in the third grade of study and higher grades after the students have completed relevant theoretical preparation. The disciplines include teaching methods, organisational forms, assessment criteria, and particularly didactic aspects that help develop reading literacy, such as modern critical thinking methods or specific didactic instruments. Looking at the courses and their objectives, undergraduate preparation of future teachers at the Faculty of Education, Palacký University Olomouc, in reading literacy is sufficient. Judging by the elaborated objectives of the courses, they develop the competencies of future teachers, especially professional competencies aimed at reading literacy.

The paper describes the differences between a beginning teacher and a future teacher including their roles and characteristics. The teacher's personality

is also presented. Focus is also on the teacher's professional journey and the competencies that every teacher should have. Last but not least, the paper emphasises the professional competencies crucial for developing reading literacy. The last part of the paper focuses on preparing future primary school teachers and briefly analyses the courses that develop future teachers' professional competencies in the context of reading literacy. In the current extraordinary situation, of course, the undergraduate training of future teachers has also changed, as this is also conditioned by distance learning. It is necessary to adhere to the content of the study plan. However, the content of teaching in the undergraduate preparation of students is changing so that students are equipped with competencies for distance education. Although it is assumed that graduates of the study programme Teacher training for primary schools will have the competencies mentioned above, their professional and teaching experience will be acquired later. We will monitor this fact longitudinally and deal with this issue through didactic tests with primary school pupils to obtain feedback and be able to relevantly answer whether the established study plans are adequate for the development of reading literacy. Although an experienced teacher supervises ongoing and continuous teaching practice during university study, only independent decision-making and student feedback help a beginning teacher use the competencies in practice. At the same time, an integral part of educational mastery is maintaining a positive class climate, which supports active work and motivates better performance and interest in learning.

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Przygotowanie licencjackie przyszłych nauczycieli
w Republice Czeskiej w kontekście umiejętności czytania

Streszczenie

W artykule skupiono się na licencjackim przygotowaniu przyszłych nauczycieli w kontekście umiejętności czytania. Składa się on z części teoretycznej i części empirycznej. Część teoretyczna opisuje i definiuje podstawowe pojęcia ściśle związane z tematem, w tym przygotowanie licencjackie przyszłych nauczycieli, umiejętność czytania itp. Część empiryczna omawia analizę aktual-

nych programów studiów na Wydziale Pedagogicznym Uniwersytetu Palackiego w Ołomuńcu (Republika Czeska). Celem artykułu była analiza programów studiów i porównanie z wygasającymi, ukierunkowanymi na umiejętność czytania. Autorzy przeprowadzili jakościowe badanie badawcze, aby odpowiedzieć na pytanie, czy przygotowanie licencjackie przyszłych nauczycieli Uniwersytetu Palackiego w Ołomuńcu w kontekście umiejętności czytania jest wystarczające i czy plany studiów w programach edukacyjnych odzwierciedlają wymagania praktyki pedagogicznej. Do badań wykorzystano analizę dokumentów.

Analiza dokumentów wtórnych odnosi się do danych już zebranych (Donnellan, Lucas, 2013). Według Hendla (2005) celem analizy jakościowej jest nienumeryczna organizacja danych w celu ujawnienia tematów, prawidłowości, zależności i jakości. W tym kontekście termin nienumeryczny ma zastosowanie nie tylko do danych, ale także do ich przetwarzania. Ze wstępnych badań wynika, że stosunkowo dużej części przyszłych nauczycieli brakuje praktycznego szkolenia nauczycielskiego ukierunkowanego na dydaktykę przedmiotową, opierającą się również na umiejętności czytania. W związku z trwającą pandemią wirusa COVID-19 konieczne było dostosowanie metod i form pracy do rozwijania umiejętności czytania poprzez kształcenie na odległość. Autorzy artykułu uznali za istotne dokonanie analizy programów studiów w kontekście umiejętności czytania i udzielenie odpowiedzi na pytanie, czy przygotowanie licencjackie przyszłych nauczycieli jest wystarczające oraz czy plany studiów programów kształcenia odzwierciedlają wymagania praktyki pedagogicznej w zakresie umiejętność czytania, korzystania z treści wymienionych powyżej, analizy dokumentów. Z wyników badań wynika, że plany studiów programów edukacyjnych odzwierciedlają wymagania praktyki edukacyjnej. Choć fakty opisano w artykule, autorzy uważają, że problematyce rozwoju umiejętności czytania poświęca się wystarczająco dużo uwagi, opierając się na analizie planów nauczania w nauczaniu dla I etapu szkoły podstawowej. Choć termin „umiejętność czytania" pojawia się w dokumentach programowych FEP PE jedynie marginalnie, w planach kształcenia przyszłych nauczycieli szkół podstawowych termin „umiejętność czytania" pojawia się w kilku dyscyplinach. Bez wątpienia dyskusyjne jest, w jakim stopniu powyższe dyscypliny wpłyną na rozwój umiejętności czytania wśród uczniów. Sądząc po treści planów, ich celem jest wyposażenie przyszłych nauczycieli w kompetencje wspierające rozwój umiejętności czytania u dzieci ze szkół podstawowych, po ukończeniu umiejętności czytania i pisania w edukacji przedszkolnej. Dyscypliny te mają charakter czysto dydaktyczny, ponieważ pojawiają się w trzeciej klasie studiów i klasach wyższych, po ukończeniu przez studentów odpowiedniego przygotowania teoretycznego.

Słowa kluczowe: przygotowanie licencjackie; przyszły nauczyciel; umiejętność czytania; analiza; dydaktyka przedmiotowa; Republika Czeska.

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Possible ways of translanguaging at the school's micro-level. The aftermath of a translanguaging project of introducing non-standardised ways of speaking to school for Roma bilingual children

Abstract

The present study encounters the long-term process of a linguistic ethnographic research. The research took place in a primary school in Hungary, with students being Hungarian-Romani speaking bilingual Roma children and Hungarian as the language of instruction. The research, initiated in 2016, developed an educational approach in the school based on a translanguaging stance through multiple sub-projects and a three-year Erasmus+ Strategic Partnership Program. The applied translanguaging approach involved the Roma children's home ways of speaking into the children's learning. Translanguaging was first introduced at the macro level of the school with the cooperation of the school's management, participant researchers, teachers, parents, teacher trainees and university students. The Erasmus program terminated in 2021. This study details the process of how, following the completion of this macro-level project, translanguaging can be sustained at the micro level within the school. It also discusses the difficulties and challenges faced by teachers when implementing translanguaging at the micro level, after macro-level planning and strategy have concluded.

Keywords: translanguaging, macro and micro level, Roma children, bilingual education

Introduction

In 2019, researchers, primary teachers and university students gathered to collaborate in an Erasmus+ Strategic Partnership Programme to make school environments more suitable and beneficial for Romani-speaking bilingual children. Among the participant institutions, one of the primary schools is Magiszter School, located in northeast Hungary. In this school, all the pupils are considered to be Roma bilingual children; however, the school is monolingual, and the language of instruction is different from the Roma children's home language, which challenges both the learning and the teaching processes in the school.

By taking part in this Erasmus+ international cooperation, the Headteacher of the Magiszter school and the co-author of the present article have taken up translanguaging as a theoretical framework in the school's language policy at the macro level. The macro level is an institution's management level and involves a school's organised language management (García, Hesson, 2015, p. 222). Scholars, students, parents, and teachers worked together throughout the project to find ways of introducing translanguaging into the teaching process at the school. The cooperation involved four universities and two primary schools, and it aimed to help teachers find ways of involving children's home languages in the teaching and learning processes.

In 2022, the project terminated, which raises a question: what happens in the school and the students' lives after such a significant project ends? How can it continue to build on that work without the institutional background the Erasmus+ cooperation provided? What can one teacher do to continue serving the idea of translanguaging in the classroom? This article will introduce our experiences on how a translanguaging stance can be maintained in a class at the micro-level after finishing a remarkable project that had a significant impact on the school's approach to bilingualism without the macro-level promotion of translanguaging and the collaboration of academic and non-academic members.

1. Translanguaging for Equal Opportunities

Our Erasmus+ Strategic Partnership Program called *Translanguaging for Equal Opportunities: Speaking Romani at School* was a collaboration of four universities (Károli Gáspár University of the Reformed Church of Hungary, University College London, University of Jyväskylä, Finland, and the Constantine the Philosopher University in Nitra, Slovakia) and two primary schools (Magiszter Primary School in a small town in northeast Hungary and the Jedlik Ányos Primary School in a small village called Zemné in Slovakia). Both primary schools are engaged in teaching Roma children. However, their situations are different. The lan-

guage of instruction is Hungarian in the primary school in Slovakia, but they also have to involve Slovakian as a second language in the curriculum. Most of the Jedlik Ányos Primary School pupils are Roma, mostly living in Romani-Hungarian bilingual families. However, most Roma families' home language is Romani rather than Hungarian. Some of the family members also speak Slovakian. At the same time, the Magiszter Primary School in Hungary is situated next to a segregated area where Vlach Roma people live. Therefore, the pupil composition at the Magiszter Primary School is more homogeneous regarding ethnicity and language, as all the pupils and their families consider themselves as Vlach Roma. What is common in both primary schools is the circumstance that bilingual Roma pupils study in monolingual school systems. The Roma bilingual children's speaking methods differ from that of the school's language of instruction. Generally, this difference is valued negatively at school, and the Roma pupils' home language practices confront the standard language ideology dominant in the school.

The Erasmus+ project was a collaborative project in which primary school teachers, pupils and parents worked together with researchers and university students to develop a translanguaging approach to enhance bilingual Roma pupils' learning and to build ways of communication through translanguaging linguistic practices in order to help to connect pupils with teachers at school. The project was initiated by researchers and implemented at the macro level of the primary schools: participation was optional for teachers.

In the present article, we focus on the Magiszter Primary School in Hungary to give an account of the aftermath of the project: in what ways can the translanguaging approach be maintained once the macro-level initiative is completed? We aim to emphasise the teacher's agency in creating translanguaging space for pupils, allowing them to build on their linguistic practices even if these are different from the language of instruction at the school.

Focusing on the Magister School, the authors of this article first present the situation of Roma students in Hungary, followed by a summary of the theoretical foundations of translanguaging. Highlighting the macro-level projects introduced for years that have shaped the work of the Magister School, we also discuss how the school managed to maintain a translanguaging approach at the micro level following the conclusion of international collaborations. We briefly address the challenges in planning and executing translanguaging activities at the micro level. To illustrate the process of translanguaging work in the classroom, we provide a specific classroom example.

1.1. Romani speakers in Hungary

In Hungary, most Roman-Hungarian-speaking people identify themselves as Vlach Roma and speak local varieties of Romani. However, this definition as-

sumes the 'named language' and the 'standard language' ideologies (Li, 2023, p. 1). Romani is often considered a language like other European (state or official) languages. The self-identification of Roma people is often based on the same ideologies. Based on the 'standard language' ideology, the idea is that for a Roma social organisation, a named language is needed, so Romani ways of speaking must be standardised (Heltai, 2020c, p. 466). However, standardisation cannot be achieved without a nation-state or power centre (Busch, 2012, p. 71). Since it is not an official language anywhere, its standard version cannot become widespread due to the lack of institutional support. It poses challenges in education because students do not adapt to a central standard, even if there is a codification basis in some specific countries. There have been attempts at standardising Romani in recent decades in Hungary in which a variety of the Romani called *Lovari* has been put as the standard Romani. However, many speakers of Romani do not understand this variety (Heltai, 2020c, p. 467). Lovari remains a term that is not commonly used. Its existence may be known, but nobody aligns their practices with it. Vlach Roma communities prefer to use the local ways of speaking. In Hungary, Romani does not appear as the language of instruction at schools; it is only taught additionally as a foreign or heritage language (Lakatos, 2012).

The standard of a language is linked to access to education and public community systems, creating a unity of language, ethnicity, and space (Gal, 2008), and these provide the basis of the one language nation-one state. In Hungary, the standard definition of Roma defines political, social, and economic actions. For example, Roma people are defined as a unified ethnic group in the Law on the Rights of Nationalities, regardless of the self-identification of Roma people and the different languages they speak (for example, Romani, Boyash, Kárpáti cigány). Due to the diversity of definitions, it can be contradictory to determine who is considered Roma. In Hungary, the term "Gypsy" or "Roma" as a social category is mainly linked to low social and economic status (Bartha, Hámori, 2011), unemployment, unfavourable living conditions, poor health conditions, and lack of education (Nagy, 2007). It signifies a marginalised social position (Nagy, 2020, p. 169) and often designates stigmatised, excluded, and segregated groups (Kemény, Janky, Lengyel, 2004; Heltai, 2020a).

Our Erasmus+ project was based on prior linguistic ethnographic research that provided data about the local ideologies, attitudes and social discourses. Interviews with teachers from the Magiszter Primary School indicate the values attached to the Roma bilingual pupils' speaking methods and the locally relevant power relations. The teachers generally regard the Romani speaking methods as a "mixed language", and by comparing them to the standard Hungarian used at school, they are not considered good enough. From the Roma pupils' perspective, the values attached to their ways of speaking are similar to those of the

teachers. Since Hungarian is considered the language needed for academic achievement, parents encourage their children not to use Romani in school, with which they express a desire to assimilate and not to belong to a stigmatised ethnic group. However, Roma pupils and their parents do not only compare their home linguistic practices to the standard Hungarian but to the standard Romani as well. For them, the "real language" is the standard form of Romani, the Lovari, and their local variety of Romani is not considered valuable in comparison.

The monolingual and standard linguistic ideologies and categorisations greatly influence how teachers, pupils, and their parents at the Magiszter School think about languages. According to these ways of thinking, the standard variety is considered authentic, pure language. For example, the standard Hungarian as the language of instruction in the school is prestigious because this is considered to be the key to academic success. In contrast, the children's home language practices are not regarded as "real" or "pure". The socialisation of the children in the bilingual Roma families is characterised by a different perception of languages and ways of speaking as these families have a different understanding of language boundaries than that of the monolingual perception which is typical of the school (Tarsoly, Heltai, 2023a, p. 1). For example, there are linguistic resources in the local ways of speaking that, based on groups, are described as Hungarian loanwords; however, these linguistic resources are perceived as Romani words for the Romani speakers (Heltai, 2020a, p. 94). Therefore, instead of another standardising attempt, the members of the Erasmus+ project made the children's home linguistic practices part of the schoolwork, using the theory of translanguaging as the basis for the project, because translanguaging pedagogy challenges monolingual ideologies in education (Creese and Blackledge, 2010; García, 2014).

1.2. About Translanguaging

An Irish scholar, Con Williams (1994), used the term *trawsieithu* to describe a teaching practice for Welsh-English bilingual classes. This practice involved both English and Welsh in the language learning process for the students to improve their skills in both languages and develop academic knowledge. The term then became widely spread in critical sociolinguistic studies (García, Li, 2018, p. 1), and it is used in three interpretations: first to describe bilinguals' ways of speaking, second as a theoretical perspective, third as a name of a pedagogical approach to learning and teaching in multilingual classrooms.

Bilingual speaking is not segmented into languages but is based on a unitary linguistic repertoire (Li, 2011; Otheguy et al., 2019; Heltai, 2021). Focusing on language as action, translanguaging as ways of speaking refers to speakers' linguistic practices that go beyond the named languages: "Translanguaging refers

to the use of language as a dynamic repertoire and not as a system with socially and politically defined boundaries" (García, Li, 2018, p. 1). Speakers' repertoire is a broader view of language as a semiotic system includes linguistic and multi-modal signs that together make up the speaker's communicative repertoire (García, Li, 2018, p. 1). Semiotic resources include features such as the tone of our voice, gestures, mimics, body language, appearance, etc. (Blommaert, Rampton, 2011, p. 6). Translanguaging as the action of linguistic practices shifts focus from the languages to the speaker's agency to select and deploy the semiotic features to communicate with others (García, Li, 2018, p. 2).

As Li (2018) explains how translanguaging can be considered a theoretical perspective on language, he argues that translanguaging speaking is dynamic and involves creative linguistic practices. Approaches to multilingualism based on the ideology of "named languages" are inadequate for describing this dynamic and complex linguistic reality because they focus on named languages. With a translanguaging theoretical approach, Li (2018) questions linguistic notions and dichotomies based on the ideology of "named languages", such as majority versus minority or target versus mother tongue languages. By this, translanguaging has the means to transform power relations. It also offers an alternative view of language learning, emphasising the role of social interactions as a way to gain experiences of languaging activities (Li, 2018, p. 17).

As a pedagogical approach to learning and teaching in multilingual classrooms (García, Kleyn, 2016), translanguaging builds on the assumption of the unitary repertoire of speakers (Vogel, García, 2017) and designs the learning process based on the whole linguistic repertoire (García, Kleyn, 2016). It means that bilingual children's home linguistic practices also become part of the learning and teaching process. Thus, implementing translanguaging as a pedagogical approach to teaching allows pupils to access academic content with the semiotic resources they bring from home and learn new ones through the translanguaging classroom experience (García, Li, 2015). By making minority languages appear in the school, translanguaging leads to social justice and academic achievement (García, Kleyn, 2016; García, Otheguy, 2021).

1.3. The Translanguaging for Equal Opportunities Erasmus+ project

The beginning of our project dates back to 2016 when a multi-sited linguistic ethnography research began in the Magiszter Primary School and the Vlach Roma community from where the pupils go to school. Linguistic ethnography has been an increasingly significant approach in applied linguistics and sociolinguistics in the last 20 years that blends linguistic and ethnographic elements (Tusting, 2020). It considers "foreign" and "familiar" categories in local realities by questioning existing but oversimplified ethnocentric definitions, aiming to

understand categories operated by speakers rather than imposing categories (Rampton, Maybin, Roberts, 2015). In this introductory course of the research, a research group of university students aimed to discover the linguistic background of the Vlach Roma bilingual children and the local categories describing their ways of speaking.

The research group found that the children's ways of speaking in the local mindset about ethnicity and language are not determined according to named languages. The description of the bilingual home environment shows significant diversity, and Romani and non-Romani individuals have differing opinions about it. Linguistic socialisation is usually associated with Romani, but it is added that it also takes place in Hungarian. The reason behind the varied views on bilingual linguistic practices is that while the non-Roma teachers perceive the Romani and Hungarian bilingual ways of speaking as the coexistence of languages, the Roma bilingual speakers do not always describe their ways of speaking along named languages but as complex and constantly changing practices (Heltai, 2020a, p. 96).

Building on the linguistic ethnographic research findings, the research group had begun a project of translanguaging language pedagogy. This project aimed to find a place for children's home ways of speaking in the school, thereby improving the children's school well-being and contributing to better academic achievement and improved meaning-making. The experimentation and implementation of translanguaging in the school were supported by the Magiszter Primary School's head teacher and some teaching staff members. In the field of pedagogy in Hungary, translanguaging was almost revolutionary, as theory and practice combined, complementing each other. The head teacher believed Roma families should consider their bilingualism as a strength. However, why did they think this was necessary? From a practical standpoint, it was of utmost importance for the teachers that Roma students be as successful as possible in their academic performance. That is why teachers allowed the use of the home language among students in the school. It was a new approach because most of the teaching staff previously believed pupils should speak Hungarian in the institution.

Not every teacher believed that allowing the children to use their home language could make children more successful in their studies. A small group of teachers tried this new pedagogical approach simply for the sake of innovation, which served as a tool in the hands of the child and could potentially become a method for the teacher as well. The teachers and the research team organised monthly workshops to share the initial experiences among the Magiszter teachers and encourage each other to try out new translanguaging practices in teaching. Until November 2019, 20 workshops were held to explore possible ways to introduce a translanguaging pedagogical stance in the school (Heltai et al., 2023, p. 66). Perhaps this is why the teachers accepted this request, which was sur-

prising to them as well, to allow the children to use the Romani language. Several teachers initially feared that the students would mock them and lose control over the class because they did not know this language. However, their fears were groundless.

On the one hand, the students were pleased with how much easier it was for them to understand new concepts and express themselves in their home language for specific lessons. On the other hand, the teachers who embraced translanguaging consciously prepared the students for the ethical use of the Romani language in the school with the help of the research group. They created a Charta of Translanguaging (Heltai, 2022), describing the rules for school language practices. Today, the students and their parents who attend the school embrace and use their home-speaking methods.

The translanguaging approach to learning allowed additional participatory activities to the collaboration. Members of the research group, Magiszter teachers and children, and their parents worked together during the summer holidays in various activities involving translanguaging. In 2018, local children and university students wrote a theatre play based on a Roma tale in which local ways of Romani speaking were also included in the script. The play was performed twice, once in the local community centre and once in the capital city, Budapest. In 2019, research participants with local children and adults created a series of translanguaging videos[1] which deal with local Roma culture and customs. The summer of 2020 was about a storybook project: Four volumes of translanguaging storybooks (Tiszavasvári Transzlingváló Műhely [Translanguaging Working Group of Tiszavasvári] ed. 2020) were produced and contain Roma tales written by local Roma adults, and the editors are university students from the translanguaging research group. The authors of the storybooks wrote the tales using the letters of the Hungarian alphabet but followed the Romani pronunciation. It resulted in a diversity of individual solutions. Children drew the illustrations in the books from the Magiszter School. All four volumes are available online on the research group's web page (http://translangedu.hu/elso-kotet/).

Translanguaging was introduced to the school at the macro level with participatory characteristics and continued the same way in the Erasmus+ project entitled *Translanguaging for Equal Opportunities: Speaking Romani at School*.

The Erasmus+ project was accomplished with two intellectual outputs: a video repository[2] of translanguaging classroom moments and an accompanying volume (Heltai, Tarsoly, 2023a) based on the videos. The research team created 35 videos and compiled them as a video repository. Each video is approximately 5 to 10 minutes long and structured the same way: in the introduction,

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[1]   The videos are available here: http://translangedu.hu/en/transzfilm-projekt/
[2]   http://www.kre.hu/romanitranslanguaging/index.php/video-repository/

the teacher provides context for the following translanguaging classroom moment. Then, teachers, researchers, students, teacher trainees and parents reflect on the translanguaging moment from various perspectives. In the videos, among others, we introduced translanguaging teaching practices such as relying on the pupils' unitary repertoire during lessons and in their assessments, using children's home ways of speaking as a scaffold to help them learn the language of instruction, connecting with parents through translanguaging drama plays; building trust by making Romani visible in the classroom; building confidence in the child by encouraging the self-identification of being a bilingual Roma pupil; changing classroom dynamics between teachers and pupils; innovating creative ways in writing; transforming the linguistic landscape of the school.

The volume is multi-authored: it provided a platform for the researchers, students from the Erasmus+ team, teachers, and parents from the two participating primary schools to share their perspectives and experiences on translanguaging. The volume is divided into four parts. Part I introduces the theoretical considerations of Romani and translanguaging, such as the relationship between non-standardised ways of speaking and language-policy regimes (Laihonen, Heltai, 2023), how the perception of Romani is and what are its consequences (Heltai, Tarsoly, 2023b), and how translanguaging is an alternative perspective (Heltai et al., 2023a). In Part II, the methodological approaches applied in the project are described: translanguaging and participatory ethnography are introduced while describing the data collection process (Heltai et al., 2023b) and analysis (Tarsoly et al., 2023a). This part of the volume accounts for how the authors' multiple perspectives and voices were retained through abduction, analysis, and translation. Part III provides the various perspectives on translanguaging educational practices at the Magiszter School with particular regard to the linguistic repertoire of the children (Heltai et al., 2023c), the evolvement of teacher and student roles (Majzik-Lichtenberger et al., 2023a), how mediation is present in translanguaging (Tarsoly et al., 2023b), how a translanguaging shift is taking place in institutional settings (Heltai et al., 2023d), how a translanguaging space is created within the school through schoolscape design and reflective practices (Szabó et al., 2023), and how translanguaging appears in writing activities when a non-standardised language is involved (Heltai et al., 2023e). Adaptive schooling is also discussed in this section (Majzik-Lichtenberger et al., 2023b), and why translanguaging classroom activities involve various voices in stylisation and crossing (Jani-Demetriou et al., 2023). The conclusion (Part IV) summarises the course of the Erasmus+ project, bringing participatory ethnography and translanguaging education together (Heltai, Tarsoly, 2023c).

2. The afterlife of the project

After the completion of the project, the macro-level support was discontinued. One explanation is that several teachers, including the school's head teacher, retired, and new staff members who had not been part of this innovation arrived. However, a program that lasted for several years must have a lasting impact. For example, as a result, students and parents often use the Romani language with each other within the school. The teachers working in the school have become accustomed to the fact that the institution has effectively become bilingual because the shift in mindset was executed in a way that did not lead to significant conflicts with the introduction of Romani-related language practices. With the discontinuity of the macro-level support, the responsibility for the continuation of translanguaging falls on the teachers. The present article examines a micro-level case of a teacher who persevered with translanguaging.

The strategic use of translanguaging in classroom lessons has diminished in the school. However, in addition to her retirement, the former head teacher took on the task of teaching a first-grade class. She contemplated whether she should continue the project on her own. She believed that if it helps her pupils, she should pursue translanguaging. Taking on this new role as a class teacher gave opportunity to explore further possibilities of translanguaging practice and observe whether it is possible to implement pedagogical innovation at a micro level within a school.

She experienced the process of the introduction of translanguaging from the school management's perspective: how to deal with opportunities and challenges at the school's macro level. After the programme finished, she determined to continue the work in the classroom. She collaborated with the other author of this paper, a member of the Translanguaging Research group and the Erasmus+ programme. They meet regularly through online meetings and discuss possible ways of collaboration. At the beginning of the academic year of 2022–2023, Erika aimed to start the work systematically. In order to support translanguaging and give a framework to our collaboration, they turned to the theory of collaborative Action Research (AR) based on Burns (1999).

It is not always easy to reconcile theory with the practice in teaching. However, action research deals with real classroom situations. In AR, teachers take on the role of the researcher: they gather systematic knowledge about their teaching practice (Bodó et al., 2022, p. 9). They elaborate new teaching strategies for the student's learning needs and classroom management and intend to share their findings with other teachers. With AR, teachers become reflective practitioners, and by going public, they grow the influence of their findings (Norton, 2009).

The class composition is such that more than half of the students are not eager to speak the Romani language. They come from more affluent families

who aim to integrate into the Hungarian-speaking community. However, the others are much more open to accepting and embracing speaking Romani among themselves at home. At the age of 7, when pupils begin their studies at the Primary level, children and their families do not clearly understand bilingualism and language use at school. The pupils and their parents in Erika's class were unsure whether translanguaging benefited them, so prolonged and planned methods had to be employed to introduce translanguaging into the classroom activities.

Assessing how parents would react if the Romani language appeared in everyday school practices was necessary. As a first step, alongside the Hungarian language flashcards, Erika displayed Romani language flashcards in the classroom when teaching letters. This is how she welcomed the pupils on the first day of school. When parents entered the classroom, they were surprised but interested. They immediately became engaged with the display as they read the Romani language flashcards. The parents found it amusing because it was the first time for many of them to see their local ways of speaking written in the school. Also, one parent had not even seen the words they use daily written down.

Figure 1
The translanguaging display in Erika's classroom

In case support is not provided at the macro level, the implementation of translanguaging can still occur at the micro level. In this case, teachers must develop strategies to introduce translanguaging to the parents and find solutions to emerging problems. Erika's strategy was to involve parents as much as possible and engage with them in conversations to find out parents' beliefs and attitudes towards languages and translanguaging. Based on such conversations, Erika saw that the parents themselves could not always entirely place in their value system that they were using a usually not accepted language alongside Hungarian in the classroom, one that society did not recognise as an authentic language. Parents expressed their everyday experiences that members of the majority society still looked down on them. If they used a foreign language in front of non-Roma, they would become even more excluded. Such beliefs of the parents had been expressed during the linguistic ethnographic field works, as well as in the Erasmus+ project (Heltai et al., 2023, p. 108). Initially, when experiencing translanguaging at school for the first time, the parents believed that their children can only escape this stigmatised situation if they conform to the expectations of the majority society as much as possible. That is why parents preferred not to use Romani anywhere except at home. However, this stance has changed throughout the Erasmus+ project. When the former head teacher began teaching a grade one class, the newcomer pupils' parents were in a similar situation regarding meeting translanguaging for the first time. An ambivalent feeling existed among the parents because, despite all their concerns, they felt that using their language signifies belonging and attachment in their closed community. If they reject the language, it pushes them away from the closed community that represents safety to them. During the initial phase of the introduction of translanguaging, more and more parents slowly formulated the idea that rejecting their home ways of speaking does not necessarily mean that non-Roma people will accept and embrace them. From this point on, more parents articulated in conversations with Erika that the appearance of the Romani language through translanguaging activities could be a crutch for better academic performance. It also became apparent that the local ways of Romani speaking were a part of their sense of community and belonging.

Implementing translanguaging at the micro level does not mean that macro-level processes existing in the community will not affect the process. The parents' articulations of the values concerning languages and translanguaging remain problematic even after a whole school year. In their everyday lives, parents refrain from using the language when shopping or working because they believe it draws attention to them. Many times, they prefer to blend in with the majority. In this initial phase of the implementation of translanguaging, most parents expressed that it was not a problem if the children spoke Romani during one or two lessons in class. However, they expected the students to speak Hungarian

and eventually English. They saw the key to success and achievement in the confident use of these two languages and not Romani. This experience shows that parents' concerns can reoccur for various reasons. For example, in grade one at the Magiszter, parents were newcomers to the school and their children; these recurring fears have to be dealt with repeatedly at the micro level.

For educators, a restraining factor in the practical application of translanguaging is that most society stigmatises non-standard ways of Romani speaking. Therefore, it is also emphasised in this article that it is essential to convince Roma parents of the advantages of translanguaging and the local society as well. A very effective communication strategy must be developed for Roma and non-Roma people. Even if they cannot fully support a translanguaging approach, they should at least not put obstacles in the way of introducing the use of children's home languages in the classroom.

Implementing translanguaging at the micro level needs carefully planned strategies based on the needs of the pupils. The former head teacher of Magiszter as a class teacher had the following issue to deal with: according to García and Li (2014), translanguaging is the standard way bilinguals speak; however, with the above-described attitudes of parents towards speaking in Romani, at Magiszter Primary School, this bilingual way of speaking was restricted strictly to the home of the children. As a first step, Erika had to find a way to encourage her pupils to feel comfortable speaking Romani in the school. Erika believed that the use of Romani itself should be a motivating factor for the children. Therefore, she integrated a translanguaging component into everyday activities. It was the quiet break after lunch when they read and watched a story. Afterwards, the children had the opportunity to retell the story. The process, which has become customary by now, had a slow start: initially, almost everyone would retell the story in Hungarian. Then, those who could also retell it in Romani received an extra reward sticker, which the children highly appreciated. As a result, more and more of them wanted to retell the post-lunch stories in both Hungarian and Romani. They almost imperceptibly started using the language in more situations and during lessons.

Translanguaging in the classroom has other challenges as well. In order to work out strategies for translanguaging activities and communication in the classroom, teachers will face the most asked questions, such as how to build on linguistic resources that the teacher does not have access to? A common fear mentioned often at the teachers' workshops is that students could use translanguaging to communicate with each other so that the teacher would not understand them. Although Erika does not speak Romani, she relied on other semiotic resources; a word or intonation signals if the children used their language skills to resolve disputes secretly among themselves. Additionally, by this point of translanguaging stories, Erika's class also became accustomed to immediately retelling the Romani sentences in Hungarian as well.

3. A translanguaging lesson with first graders

As part of their collaboration, the authors of the present article planned a shared translanguaging session. After the Erasmus+ project ended, Bernadett took on teaching a first-grade class in an international school in Cyprus. She was introduced to Erika's pupils not as a researcher but as a first-grade teacher.

As the first activity, Erika shared Beauty and the Beast as the after-lunch story with the children. She asked them to retell the story in Romani or translanguaging ways ("in your own words", as she put it in her instruction). The children giving prompt answers were praised, and Romani's answers received extra compliments. Pupils translated their Romani answers into Hungarian.

For the second activity, Bernadett introduced an African traditional tale taught in first grade at that time of the academic year at the international school. The tale's title is "Handa's Surprise", a book by Eileen Browne (1994). The beau- tifully illustrated book brings alive an African village life and introduces children to the animals and fruits typical in that area. Bernadett chose the book because it is worded, and the story's main plot is told only by the semiotic resources of the pictures, not explained or mentioned in the written text of the book. First, she read the story to the children in Hungarian. Then, she showed the animated version of the book on YouTube,[3] in which the story is read out loud in English without subtitles. The story could be divided into small sections for translation along with the simple sentences and the layout of the scenes. Bernadett asked the children to translate the sentences into Romani or Hungarian. In line with her expectations, the children enjoyed the story and liked the surprise at the end of the story. It was peculiar how the details in connection with the semiotic resources linked to African heritage drew the pupils' attention: that people carry things on their heads, the water only available at the fountain in the middle of the village, and the African heritage, together with the village life interlinked with poverty; for example the flies the illustrator drew on each picture and the animation highlighted them by giving them motion or the way the characters were dressed.

The lesson relied on translanguaging in multiple ways. First, the pupils needed to activate all their linguistic resources through translation. The second task involved interpreting semiotic resources, allowing the children to rely on their previous experiences and be creative while meaning-making the unknown and, for example, giving names to unknown fruits and animals (the bird was called pigeon, and the guava became pear). Third, translanguaging appeared during this class session as a form of mediation (García and Li, 2014; Tarsoly et al., 2023) between two different cultures as translanguaging enacted semiotic

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[3]   https://youtu.be/XyIV_xYi0as?si=dij2gx_k7TwEpugi

resources for meaning-making that was constrained by the different history of Handa's story and the pupils were engaged with meanings across the different social worlds of Handa and that of theirs as they searched for common or distinct features. Finally, through this translanguaging session, the students experienced that bilingualism is valuable. Besides Hungarian and Romani, English was highlighted by the pupils as a precious asset and along with this, the significance of language learning (and learning generally) became also esteemed.
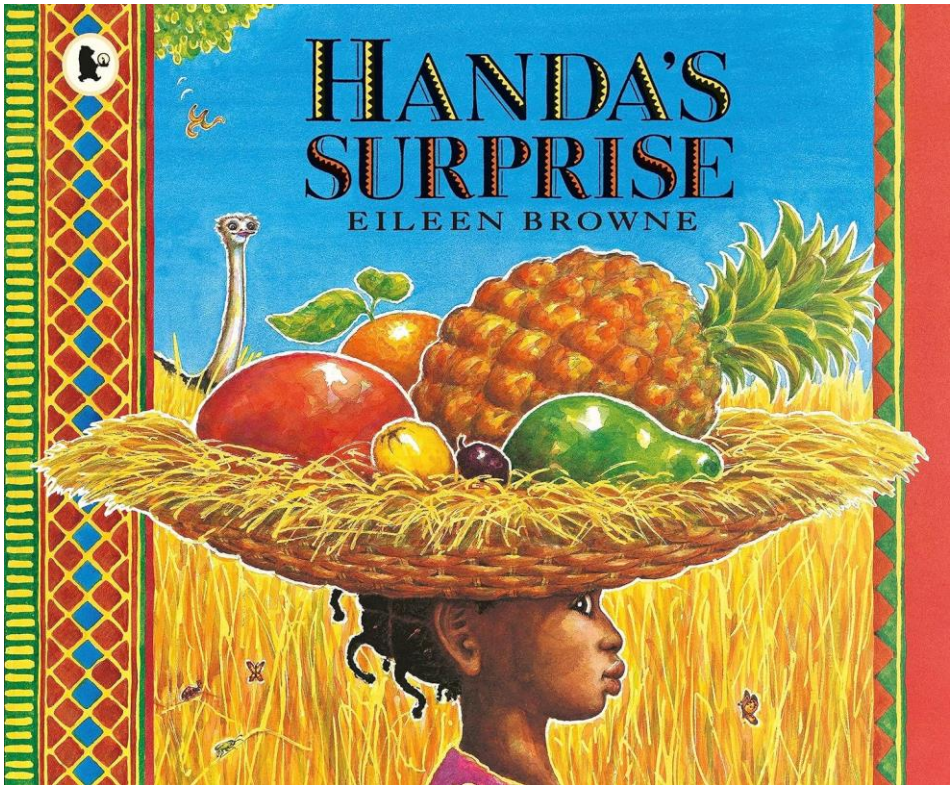
Figure 2
Handa's Surprise

Conclusion

In the present article, the authors aimed to share their experiences on implementing translanguaging at the micro level of a school. Translanguaging was not unknown in the Magiszter school among the teachers because, formerly, the school had been involved in several translanguaging activities and an Erasmus+ Strategic Partnership Programme. However, all these prior activities were intro-

duced to the school not only at the micro but also at the macro level. First, we introduced how translanguaging was present at the school in various projects before our collaboration. Sharing the former head teacher's experiences as a class teacher, we demonstrated how to maintain translanguaging at the micro level of a classroom. These experiences show that it is possible to promote translanguaging independently without macro-level support. We brought attention to how important it is to work continuously with the parents at the micro level as parental concerns reoccur because the work initiated by the larger project can be continued on a smaller scale while maintaining engagement with parents. Our translanguaging session was an example that translanguaging is not only related to language-based educational activities but also mindset-shaping as it involves languages in learning and is also about semiotic resources, cultures, customs, and creativity. At the time of writing this article, Erika's pupils are in second grade, and this raises the next step that needs carefully planned strategies: how to introduce translanguaging into writing. Heltai (2020c; Heltai et al., 2023e) has examined in Magiszter's context how speakers of Romani as non-standard speaking can develop literacy practices. The next step could be to examine how a teacher can involve non-standard and heterogeneous writing in translanguaging activities for pupils who happen to learn reading and writing.

The way translanguaging was brought into the Magiszter has been a unique experience that revealed an important lesson: the previous practice cannot be erased through translanguaging. A transformational process has started in the Magiszter that involves both micro and macro-level structures, and this cannot be taken away from the children and their parents anymore. The results of this translanguaging pedagogical approach are difficult to quantify with numbers objectively. However, the fact that the Roma students of Magiszter Primary School use their home ways of speaking in class and can learn and express themselves relying on their whole linguistic repertoire, including Romani, makes their learning more effective, especially when recounting texts and translanguaging has visible and precise outcomes.

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Możliwe sposoby transjęzyczności w szkole na poziomie mikro. Konsekwencje transjęzycznego projektu polegającego na wprowadzeniu do szkoły niestandaryzowanych sposobów mówienia dla dwujęzycznych dzieci romskich

Streszczenie

Niniejsze studium dotyczy długoterminowego procesu etnograficznych badań językowych. Ba-
dania miały miejsce w szkole podstawowej na Węgrzech, gdzie uczniami były dwujęzyczne dzieci
romskie mówiące po węgiersku i rumuńsku, a językiem wykładowym był węgierski. W ramach ba-
dań, zainicjowanych w 2016 r., opracowano w szkole podejście edukacyjne oparte na transjęzycz-
ności poprzez liczne podprojekty i trzyletni program partnerstwa strategicznego Erasmus+. Zasto-
sowane podejście transjęzyczności obejmowało domowe sposoby mówienia dzieci romskich
w nauce dzieci. Transjęzyczność została po raz pierwszy wprowadzona na poziomie makro szkoły
we współpracy z dyrekcją szkoły, badaczami, nauczycielami, rodzicami, stażystami i studentami.
Program Erasmus zakończył się w 2021 roku. Niniejsze badanie szczegółowo opisuje, w jaki spo-
sób, po zakończeniu tego projektu na poziomie makro, można utrzymać transjęzyczność na pozio-
mie mikro w szkole. Omówiono również trudności i wyzwania, z jakimi borykają się nauczyciele
podczas wdrażania transjęzyczności na poziomie mikro, po zakończeniu planowania i strategii na
poziomie makro.

Słowa kluczowe: transjęzyczność; poziom makro i mikro, dzieci romskie; edukacja dwujęzyczna.

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Immersing oneself in the world of Rock to act. Implications for educational practice

Abstract

The article is part of research on the educational contexts of popular culture. It is a voice in the discussion focusing on possible ways of using Rock songs in formal education, including academic education in pedagogy and interpretive participation in culture. The research results (part of them) presented in this article show that reflective immersion in the Rock world and education through Rock songs inspire various activities aimed at self-development. It promotes the development of competencies needed in a changing world, including formulating and expressing one's thoughts, beliefs, critical thinking or constructive dialogue, expressing and understanding different points of view, as well as appreciating the importance of creatively expressing thoughts, experiences and feelings using various means of expression, including music, performing arts, literature and visual arts.
Keywords: education, education through Rock songs, Rock, competences.

Introduction

The world is "at a point in history unlike any other" (Maslow, 1975, p. 59) wrote Abraham Maslow almost fifty years ago, paying particular attention to the dynamics of changes, forcing a different approach to human development. He emphasised that the world needs people who can cope with the changes taking place in this world, new ideas, challenges and requirements. It needs a man who

understands that this world cannot be "frozen". Facts and technology get outdated so quickly. Each era, decade, and five-year period sparkles with its characteristic changes, which imply new social practices, challenges, and approaches to the world and individual human beings. Transformations make us realise that it is not enough to accumulate so many different types of knowledge in our early life to use them continuously. There is a need to constantly supplement and enrich knowledge, develop skills and competencies, and use appropriate methods to solve basic life and professional issues. There is a need for relationships, a need to act with a sense of Freedom. By fulfilling the needs mentioned above, a person naturally stimulates internal motivation. He chooses a path that allows him to experience a sense of agency, being (co)creators, of (co)being with others, and self-realisation. It is, therefore, a matter of developing skills that arise from the needs of a changing contemporary world, constituting the basis of all qualifications "necessary for personal fulfilment and development, active citizenship, social integration and employment"[1].

Therefore, It is worth asking some critical questions: How do we respond to these changes? What direction should a person follow to find his or her way in such a constitutive world? What skills and competencies can be helpful and crucial in this critical journey? Further: How should education be organised to meet the new challenges and demands? How should it be implemented so as not to lose sight of awakening and nurturing the need to be together, dialogue, care for others, and be in this world with a sense of Freedom of choice? How should it nurture and develop the need to influence the course of different events (including professional events), the effects of actions taken, and the need to co-create the world in which it participates?

Many researchers pose these and similar questions. Many scientists undertake research focusing on, among other things, the human being and his or her coping skills in a world of constant change, relationships with others, and ways of educating them. The scientific community reacts on an ongoing basis to new challenges and difficult situations (as was very evident during the COVID-19 pandemic). They undertake research and collaboration on many levels, directing their activities towards the search for the truth about human beings and how they find themselves in situations to understand their activity/passivity. They seek an in-depth social understanding that provides a basis for understanding the crisis, anticipating the consequences, and building a 'path forward'. Crises make it even more evident how vital scientific research, debates, reflections, extended perspectives are, how important the passion of the researcher is,

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[1] Recommendation of the European Parliament and of the Council of 18 December 2006 on key competences for lifelong learning; 2006/962/EC; https://eur-lex.europa.eu/legal-content/PL/TXT/PDF/?uri=CELEX:32006H0962&from=LT [Retrieved September 9, 2023].

a passion that "forms the basis for motivation, inspiration and commitment to doing science" (Melosik, 2019, p. 12). The changes and the consequences resulting from them (affecting various cultural fields) make us reflect on previous scientific achievements and their validity and represent that moment, which initiates a re-examination of previous knowledge and the progress of research, both locally and globally. There are moments when a person looks at his or her life, reflects on its shape and quality, and asks essential biographical questions. Changes become an impulse to discover man anew, search for social solidarity, which is essential in every era, and search for new ways of participating in this cultural space "on the way".

The research results presented in this article (or rather a fragment[2]) may help build this "path forward". They show that reflective immersion in the Rock world, education through Rock songs, inspires various types of activities aimed at self-development, supports the development of competencies needed in a changing world, e.g.[3], formulating and expressing one's thoughts, beliefs, reflections, substantive arguments, critical thinking, constructive dialogue (competence 1 – *Porozumiewanie się w języku ojczystym*/Communicating in the mother tongue), which is linked to "an awareness of the impact of language on other people and the need to understand and use language in a positive and socially responsible way", "a desire to draw on life and learning experiences, and a curiosity to seek out opportunities to learn and use this process in various life situations" (competence 5 – *Umiejętność uczenia się* /Ability to learn), "understanding, constructive participation in social and professional life", "the ability to […] demonstrate tolerance, express and understand different points of view, negotiate combined with the ability to create a climate of trust, as well as the ability to empathise" (competence 6 – *Kompetencje społeczne i obywatelskie*/Social and civic competences), creativity (competence 7 – *Inicjatywność i przedsiębiorczość* /Initiative and entrepreneurship), or "appreciating the importance of creatively expressing ideas, experiences and feelings through a range of media, including music, performing arts, literature and visual arts" (competence 8 – *Świadomość i ekspresja kulturalna*/Cultural awareness and expression), competencies necessary for the needs of self-fulfilment and personal development, reflective, interpretive participation in culture, involvement, (co-) being, (co-)action.

I combine immersion in the Rock world with the perspective of human (self-) development, giving meaning to this type of activity. Therefore, I attribute sig-

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2   The full report can be found in the book by M. Adamska-Staroń (2018). *Edukacyjne konteksty Rockowych narracji. Perspektywa teoretyczno-badawcza.* [Educational contexts of Rock narratives. Theoretical and research perspective]. Warszawa: Difin.

3   Recommended by the European Parliament and of the Council of 18 December 2006 on key competencies for lifelong learning; 2006/962/EC; https://eur-lex.europa.eu/legal-content/PL/TXT/PDF/?uri=CELEX:32006H0962&from=LT [Retrieved September 9, 2023].

nificant importance to pedagogy. This article is a voice in the discussion focusing on possible ways of using Rock songs in formal education, inspiring to undertake all kinds of human development activities.

The world of Rock as a space for pedagogical research

The issues mentioned above have been determining the direction of my research for many years, but also of other researchers, including: Zbyszko Melosik (1996, 2010, 2013), Witold Jakubowski (2006, 2021), Anna Idzikowska-Czubaj (2006, 2011), Wojciech Burszta (2003), Marcin Rychlewski (2011). It arouses curiosity about the possibilities of human development, ways of existence, methods of learning and understanding, and methods of education. It triggers reflection on the world in general, the ways of human beings, and the world of education. It is mainly focused on the relationship: education – culture, culture – education, educational contexts of selected phenomena of popular culture – searching for new possibilities of using various texts of popular culture, including Rock and film narratives in education. As a researcher, I try to understand the world of education on a micro-scale, focusing my research interests on specific phenomena, delving into the world of a child, pupil, student, teacher, and educator, understanding the world of those being educated and educators, discovering the senses and meanings they give to educational everyday life. Understanding how they deal with the objective conditions in which they participate. The content learnt, the senses and meanings discovered become a source of understanding of education, a source of (self-) understanding of the human being – a singular being, a conscious being, his experience and action, his being, help build an educational word.

The nature of the research fits into the qualitative research space, the interpretative paradigm. Within this space, answers are sought to questions such as: "What is the meaning of what is happening?", "What is the significance of what is happening?" Therefore, I choose a research path typical of researchers trying to understand the human world, the world of culture, and the world of education. Therefore, discovering the senses and meanings hidden in cultural texts – in products, behaviours, events, situations, and people – determines most of my research explorations[4]. I am particularly interested in revealing the meanings and values that build educational space. Therefore, the subject of my recent research was the educational meanings given by students of the Jan Dlugosz University in Czestochowa (JDU) and artists to Rock songs, and the aim was to learn,

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[4] T. Goban-Klas notes that culture can be found in people (i.e. in their psyche), in objects (texts, works) or human behaviour (socially defined cultural traditions).

understand and describe the educational meanings given by pedagogy students and artists to Rock narratives. Therefore, I tried to answer the question: What educational meanings can be given to Rock lyrics? (main research problem). The issue I would like to draw attention to in this article (resulting from the primary research problem) concerns the educational meanings given by students and artists to Rock songs included by me in one of the four areas of education: educating through Rock narratives to act (Adamska-Staroń, 2018, 2020)[5].

The following methods enabled me to achieve my goal and search for answers to research questions: hermeneutics and an in-depth interview focused on the problem. Both methods are part of a common methodological space. Both methods allowed me to get to know and understand the issue I was interested in from different perspectives, penetrate subsequent layers of the studied phenomenon, capture the diversity of reflections, thoughts, experiences, and interpretations, and illustrate its multidimensionality. The analyses and interpretations were carried out circularly (Krüger, 2012; Milerski, 2011; Rubacha, 2008; Sawicki, 1996). The adopted strategy of hermeneutic interpretation had its source in the hermeneutics of M. Heidegger (1994), G.-H. Gadamer (1979, 1985, 1993), and P. Ricoeur (1989). It was based on a scientifically presented scheme: author – text – interpreter – interpretations, exposing the text and the commentator (Szahaj, 1994). The analysis and interpretation of the material obtained through the interview were carried out by the stages of qualitative data analysis adopted in qualitative research, which have their source, among others: in the concepts of S. Kval (2004), C. Geertz (2003), A. Straus, J. Corbin, S. Hall, A. Coffey, P. Atkinson (see Gromkowska-Melosik, 2015).

The study involved Rock artists and JDU students of pedagogy: Sam Davidson, Wojciech Waglewski, Jarosław Woszczyna, Kuba Cabaj, Mikołaj Mądrzyk, Rafał Nowakowski.

The research material consisted of essays by students in which they described the educational aspects of Rock narratives (each student chose his favourite Rock song, which was a space for him to search/discover and name educational meanings) and the content of interviews with artists, focusing on educational, artistic aspects, including Rock narratives. I describe Rock songs and students' works as (self-)narratives[6]. Stories that are a source of knowledge

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[5]   The remaining areas are: *educate through Rock narratives to know, understand, and interpret; educate through Rock narratives to live together; educate through Rock narratives to be.*

[6]   As I understand it, the narrative brings the person of the narrator to the fore, who tells "something" from his perspective. The narrator is an interested observer and an engaged commentator, and the narrative results from these observations and interpretations. It is the result of various thoughts, reflections, conclusions, and a record of emotions and feelings; therefore, "in addition to the description of what happened, it contains emotions, thoughts and interpretations" – M. Nowak-Dziemianowicz, 2013, p. 50. The narrative has its logic of flow, which is

about the world, about other people, but also about the author of the narrative, about his relationships with the world, as well as about the socio-cultural context. A source of questions about how people feel, how they understand and how they describe their subjectivity, how they describe and understand other people, the world and all the events/phenomena/entities that build it, and various types of relationships that give them their meaning and significance. Become a source of reflection material for understanding subjective worlds.

Research practice carried out in the spirit of the idea of the interpretative paradigm allows, among others, the realisation that the educational world is often a compilation of coexisting worlds, raises awareness of the cultural importance of education, and shows how educational activities create the worlds of education and its surroundings.

A journey into the world of Rock. The perspective of UJD students and Rock creators

Travel in the literal sense means moving from one place to another, from one world to another, between particular points. Such a journey involves getting to know new places and people, discovering the new, and looking at the already known from a new perspective, "anew". In a metaphorical sense, it can mean, among others, navigating the meanders of one's own or another person's imagination, penetrating oneself or the other person's world. Discovering the world of music is such a metaphorical journey. Mystery. Sensitivity. Magic. It is a journey that, as the respondents note, promotes getting to know oneself and other people, a transformation that allows one to see new aspects of one's own life, discover new ways of (co)being in the world, other ways of thinking, feeling, other sensitivities, finding the meaning of one's existence, or "cope" with everyday life.

"dissimilar" to the cause-and-effect structure. It consists in the fact that the effects determine the meaning of earlier events, and not the other way around, and in the fact that the process of understanding covers the entire sequence at each moment; until it is completed, it may be subject to thorough reinterpretation: – Schütze, 1997, pp. 11–12. This importance of narrative in pedagogy" becomes a kind of justification for understanding research, research whose goal is not to search for cause-and-effect relationships between facts called variables, but to learn, describe and understand the subjective worlds of human life. This understanding becomes possible thanks to the fact that narrative gives us access to how people construct their life worlds and perceive what is happening to them and what surrounds them. The narrative also allows us to understand all manifestations of human actions - from individual and social conditions to individual and collective consequences" – Nowak-Dziemianowicz, 2013, p. 50. Narration is a form of action for the narrator – the narrator talks about something, "testifies about something, demands something" – Nowak-Dziemianowicz, 2013, p. 50, the narrative always has its own cultural context.

The penetration of this world, the world of Art, can therefore be compared to a (un)everyday event involving the mutual "giving" of its participants, to a journey into the depths of the "human imagination" (Davidson, 2018, p. 217) a journey that favours human development and allows "to enjoy freedom while maintaining respect for oneself, others, and the surrounding world" (Woszczyna, 2018, p. 217) a journey that "introduces us to unique states that everyday life brings us to much less often - we sit down, we forget where we work, who we are […]" (Mądrzyk-Mikser, 2018, p. 217), a journey during which a person "receives a lot as Art itself covers many things" (Davidson, 2018, p. 217).

For the surveyed students and Rock creators, the Rock world appears to be a significant cultural, magical space: "[…] at a concert attended by 1,000 people, suddenly everyone flies into the air at one moment, not knowing why? "Something appears that cannot be defined in any way" (Waglewski, 2018, p. 221) "a specific kind of magic" is created (Waglewski, 2018, p. 221). A man needs this magic. Such a musical aura, created by them invites you to the sphere "in-between". This is the meaning of Art (Waglewski, 2018, p. 271). Entering this sphere of a human being may result in appearing outside one's own space and, thus, towards another person, towards a different nature. Experiencing this space in this approach is discovering the area of culture and other people and, perhaps above all, discovering and understanding oneself. Thanks to Rock lyrics, as they emphasised, they can look at their existence, reflect on their lives, discover and understand some part of themselves, and ask many important questions. Students also treated the questions resulting from the journey into the world of Rock as their educational meaning, resulting from a reflective attitude, a reflective approach to the encountered cultural entity/text. Such a journey benefits its participants. As the respondents note, it may awaken their will to undertake some activity, e.g. aimed at their development, to work on themselves, and to develop their passions. It can also trigger various changes, e.g. in the way of thinking about a given topic, consequently changing the attitude towards an issue, a person, a group of people, or another culture towards oneself, and then making a behaviour change. In the opinion of the respondents, this type of journey protects a person from selfishness or losing the meaning of life. The respondents emphasise that music is the only world without borders; it makes us "truly beyond everything" (Waglewski, 2018, p. 222). The statements of students and artists show that this musical world can be – and quoting the words of Professor Zbyszko Melosik – "a powerful factor of education and socialisation" (1995, p. 236), and its penetration can be considered "one of the most important ways used by people in order to give meaning to themselves, their lives and the world" (Melosik, 1995, 236).

Rock music "[…] is an art close to man and at the same time close to man" (Cabaj, 2018, p. 223). According to the respondents, it is a space that influences

various spheres of human activity, including cognitive, emotional, volitional, motivational, integrative or intrapersonal.

Exploring the world of Rock to act. The perspective of the students

What makes a person take up different forms of activity? The impulses, the inspirations to act, are incredibly numerous. Activities in any field can be triggered "top-down"; these are so-called imposed activities, but also "bottom-up", i.e. realised through individual invention. In the educational process, the latter type of activity is precious. A journey into the world of Rock can trigger a "bottom-up" initiative, which the future educators pointed out. The surveyed students noticed that Rock lyrics are not only a source of various emotions and experiences but can also be an inspiration to undertake various types of activities, e.g., getting to know and improve oneself, realising one's passions, dreams, acting for the benefit of other people, being creative in different cultural spaces, independent, critical thinking. As an example, let us take the following (selected) statements:

1. "For me, the educational aspect is revealed here in encouraging activities that are aimed not only at exploring the world in one's individual way, but also, or perhaps above all, in encouraging independent thinking, […], intellectual autonomy, and co-creating world and one's personality" (Paweł, Jacek, Mateusz, Sebastian).

2. Everyone can perceive and interpret it (music) differently. If we stop and listen to it, often sing, put ourselves in a good mood, relax, think, move, and interpret it, we can already talk about the educational power of music. Interpretation is, after all, a mental activity that allows one to consider an issue, encourages reflection and triggers creative thinking. I guess every Rock song lyric can and often does become the subject of discussion on various topics, e.g. social, global, local, personal, emotional, etc. […]. In my opinion, undertaking such a discussion also proves the educational potential of Rock songs" (Joanna).

3. "For every listener, a song's lyrics […] may be a hint telling them to take equal care of every sphere of life. Balance gives a sense of security, helps one find one's way in reality, function in harmony with yourself, with your loved ones and with joy" (Joanna).

4. "The following lines may be a clue: 'Listen, sometimes it is worth playing hard with the open card, Sometimes it is worth…', i.e. do not be afraid to live your way, do not be afraid to direct your life the way you feel, the way you want. Not to give in to various influences that do not support our autonomous development or allow us to be independent thinkers and decision-

makers […]. The words draw our attention not to fear the unknown when making important life decisions that the risk pays off" (Sylwia)[7].

The observations, thoughts and reflections of pedagogy students contribute to the belief that immersing in the world of Rock encourages one to undertake various activities and that Rock lyrics can awaken specific forces in a person. Forces that can help him face various adversities, giving one the courage to (co-) act creatively in various spheres, triggering the desire to explore the world in one's own way, and encouraging intellectual independence.

In the respondents' statements, Rock music appears as a gateway open to searching for the truth about oneself and the world. It is this human activity that, as priest J. Tischner believes, appears "only when one asks about the truth". It is that extraordinary spiritual force that wants to know and understand what life is really like. Thinking is connected with hunger, with hope, with love. Hunger seeks food to destroy it, hope promises to achieve happiness, and love wants to unite with the beloved, but only thinking asks what food is, what happiness is, and who the beloved is. Therefore, thinking elevates a person above the world in which he or she is a prisoner of desires and feelings" (Tischner, 1990; cited in Bonowicz, 2012, p. 166). Where there is no thinking about truth, thinking "transforms into calculation, combination, a game to win" (Tischner, 1990; cited in: Bonowicz, 2012, p. 167). Rock lyrics interpreted by pedagogy students ask: Who is man? What is Freedom, commitment, and who is the Other One? What is my attitude towards the Other One? What are my relations with other people? Where is the world going? Where is the man going? How can one find oneself in this world? How do we find ourselves? What actions should we take towards this world? In the respondents' view, Rock narratives can encourage thinking and action in the Tischnerian sense, that activity 'which has its special power'.

Exploring the Rock space to act. The perspective of Rock creators

Artists provide educational meanings, among others, works that, in their opinion, arouse and inspire various activities, e.g. creative ones. No one needs to be convinced how important creativity is in human life. "The spirit of creation is in each of us" (Sam Davidson, 2018, s. 298); one can find creative moments in every activity, even when looking, thinking or listening". Creativity manifests itself in the everyday matters of human life. Man perceives and engages in the world through the prism of his uniqueness, constantly supplementing data from the outside with something new, from himself" (Pacek, 1987, p. 613). Therefore, in the belief of my interlocutors, we need to use various types of situations, for example, meetings with Rock or other artistic narratives, and create them, cre-

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[7]   Full personal details of the authors can be found in the archive.

ate opportunities to activate and awaken in people the desire to create, to go beyond the framework, beyond the patterns, to make them want to want to improve not only their life but also the world in which they participate, express themselves in various ways. "Expression, the ability to express oneself through art, processing one's own experiences, purifies us, gives us the strength to struggle with life, causes us to be clearly perceived by our surroundings, and can also give meaning to our life" (Woszczyna, 2018, p. 306). Expressing oneself through creative activity triggers a person's sense of individuality, autonomy, identity and agency, the artists emphasised. It allows one to eliminate all masks and express one's experiences and desires honestly. Davidson emphasised strongly that

> the spirit of creation is in each of us. It is as natural as breathing and […] manifests itself in various ways. For some people, mathematics is an art; for others, it is painting their nails. In my opinion, we spend much time realising ourselves through our imperfections. Deep down, I believe that a large part of my artistic work comes from overcoming my limitations and weaknesses (Davidson, 2018, p. 298).

Thanks to music, thanks to Art, he noted, that "I learned many things". These lessons are musical but also social and very personal. Art and performance have taught me a lot about my strengths, weaknesses, and, most importantly, perception. Often, our limitations are the source of our true strength. It is impossible to predict how a performance will affect the listener. Even after concerts where I feel that I did not do well or did not play well, someone comes up to me and gives me highly positive feelings. That is part of the wonder of music. Once released and sent out into the world, it is never received in just one way" (Davidson, 2018, p. 298). An artist closes his thoughts, observations, and reflections on man, the world, and his experiences in Rock music. He explains his path:

> I think I chose music to include my world because it is what I know best in my life. I think I remain an active artist because of the satisfaction I get from it and because it is a ritual part of my life. It ties my days into an arc that I can see and measure with time. On this line, I can mark my development and recall my history. Music has a lot to do with memories, with reviving memory or reliving events (Davidson, 2018, p. 299).

Creating, according to artists, gives a sense of Freedom.

> The more the education system enslaves a person, the more he or she has to learn; the entire process of education, the institutionalised, formal one, is a process of enslavement, the more Freedom he or she needs. In Buddhism, to achieve complete Freedom, one has to become enslaved and then get rid of everything. So it is similar here. First, one has to enslave oneself entirely with this gibberish way of learning the world by learning these dates, shortened multiplication formulas, etc. It is tedious, to put it simply, and the only chance to feel a small amount of Freedom is to find an outlet for one's expression. I found it with the help of a guitar while painting once (Waglewski, 2018, p. 275).

While creating, the artist further emphasises, "I felt that I was a free person […]" (Waglewski, 2018, p. 275) Freedom is an "ethical value on the implementa-

tion of which depends on the implementation of all other personal values. You cannot improve yourself without accepting the proposed values in any way" (Tischner, 2005, pp. 17–18). It is a precious value in human life, even more valuable in education, note artists (my interlocutors). It is important not to turn this creation into a routine "and stop paying attention to the so-called social reception" (Waglewski), "[…] if I stopped caring about it, I would enter the sphere of pop music, for which the most important thing is how you look, whether it will sell, etc." (Waglewski, 2018, p. 263–279). That is why in creation "the most important thing is sincerity and authenticity. It also seems to me that an artist who thinks too much about how his Art will be received ends badly" (Cabaj; 2018, p. 312; see also Śliwczyński, 2018, p. 281–296). Art, as Mikołaj Mądrzyk-Mikser notes,

> is something that suddenly destroys – I do not know what to call it – order, some sort of order of things, and makes us look 'through the mirror', to look in a different direction. Not everyone can do this, of course. I do not know; maybe they are scared. Art often puts us into the unique states that everyday life puts us into far less often – we sit down, forget where we work, who we are, and concentrate on what we see. Listening to a piece of music convinced me of this the most. Recently, I was listening to my album with my grandmother and grandfather, and the discussion about how that album of mine was being received made me forget for a moment that I was talking to my grandmother and grandfather as if the generational difference had blurred completely. We just stepped out of this standard life for a moment, which was the task of Art, music, graphics, and photography. This seems to be one of the tasks, and what follows may, for example, enrich a person or help him in some way to solve his personal problem, for example, broaden his mental horizons in some symbolic way. This is already a very individual matter (Mądrzyk-Mikser, 2018, p. 315).

Realising oneself according to one's potential but also aware of one's limitations, along the lines of one's interests and passions, is terrific. Allowing children, pupils, and students to create, encouraging their own expression in the spirit of Freedom, and permission to make mistakes trigger meaningful cognitive risks. Taking on different challenges fosters the understanding that creation also needs a proper cognitive background, a space free from immediate criticism (cf. Schmidt, p. 22). It needs desire, passion, and perhaps that "first block of dominoes" (Cabaj, 2018, p. 311) inspiration, and impulse. Rock songs can be this impulse, inspiration. They introduce one to the world of sensitivity and imagination of other people, the world of experiences, (un)everyday experiences, reflections and pleasures. Immersing oneself in this space and entering into relationships with the texts that constitute this world is an encounter between man and the values of culture, thus enriching his mental, community and spiritual forces. It is an enrichment of the ways of human thinking. What happens in this space is truly experienced as an "event". It is the benefit of meeting another person, but also with yourself. Therefore, the artists emphasised this type of experience

should not be missing in the educational space. It is worth using Rock music in formal education, education through Art and Rock songs.

A few words of summary

Rock narratives, to a greater or lesser extent, affect people, their emotions, feelings, and thoughts and are a source of thoughts, reflections, understanding, and various activities. Immersing oneself in this space facilitates the creation of educational situations. Rock lyrics familiarise people with new ideas, beliefs and customs. They constitute links of cultural integration, a field of shared experiences and sensations, and help notice and respect cultural differences. They may turn out to be accelerators of individual or social changes.

By analysing and interpreting the statements of the surveyed students and Rock creators, I received a beautiful story built from the educational meanings they gave to Rock texts. Immersing oneself in this cultural space is understood by both students and artists as an encounter. A meeting from which something can change in a person's life causes "a breach in the current space of contact with others" (Tischner, 1978, cited in Bonowicz, 2012, p. 233). Old words, gestures, and situations take on a new meaning, and the current way of being may be problematic (Tischner, 1978, cited in Bonowicz, 2012, p. 233). A meeting is an event conducive to leaving one's "hiding place" beyond the circle of one's own Self, towards another person, towards the Other. The pedagogy students see educational meanings in this cultural space and encourage using Rock and other artistic narratives in education as often as possible. Convincing them that meetings with them liberate and develop imagination can awaken empathy, invite relational and reflective (co-)being in the world, get to know and understand oneself, and trigger creative activities. Rockwork can inspire other types of expression, including verbal (poetry, literature, essay), physical (dance, pantomime), theatre, film or, for example, culinary. It can also activate the process of acquiring knowledge about the world, other people, and other cultures, which differs from the educational model based on recording, consolidating and reproducing the messages transmitted by the teacher. The knowledge created in such a process is dialogically dynamic. It allows individual understanding of the world, independent thinking, thinking "in one's own way", and taking responsibility for one's beliefs.

Teaching content about students' worlds is connected with their everyday experiences, and they appreciate their interests. They are more willing to engage in learning and understanding them. They then trust their teachers, who express respect for their artistic choices, aspirations and interests. Education through Rock narratives meets these young people's everyday experiences,

meets their interests, and shapes competencies to help them find their way in this changing everyday life. Educating through Rock narratives opens a space for expressing oneself, one's views and beliefs, and combining content from different spaces. In the case of the described research, the aim was to combine pedagogical content (ideas, concepts, paradigms) learned by pedagogy students during classes, including from an introduction to pedagogy with the meanings they gave to Rock narratives. The research findings show that Rock texts can be read like pedagogical texts with different readings. I consider the statements of the pedagogy students and Rock artists to be a valuable voice in the discussion on the shape of contemporary education.

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Netography

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Zanurzanie się w świat rocka, aby działać. Implikacje dla praktyki edukacyjnej

Streszczenie

Artykuł wpisuje się w obszar badań nad edukacyjnymi kontekstami kultury popularnej. Jest głosem w dyskusji koncentrującej się wokół możliwych sposobów wykorzystania rockowych utworów w edukacji formalnej, w tym w edukacji akademickiej na kierunku pedagogika, wokół interpretatywnego uczestnictwa w kulturze. Prezentowane w niniejszym artykule wyniki badań własnych (ich fragment) pokazują, że refleksyjne zanurzanie się w rockowy świat, edukowanie przez utwory rockowe inspiruje do różnego rodzaju działań ukierowanych na samorozwój, sprzyja rozwijaniu, potrzebnych w zmieniającym się świecie, kompetencji, m.in. formułowania i wyrażania własnych myśli, przekonań, krytycznego myślenia czy konstruktywnego dialogu, przedstawiania i rozumienia różnych punktów widzenia, jak również doceniania znaczenia twórczego wyrażania myśli, doświadczeń i uczuć za pomocą różnorodnych środków przekazu, w tym muzyki, sztuk teatralnych i wizualnych oraz literatury.

Słowa kluczowe: edukacja; edukowanie przez rockowe utwory; rock; kompetencje.

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Equal Opportunities for Everyone in the Context of Teacher Competence in Academic Remote Education in the Times of Coronavirus

Abstract

   The article deals with the problem of teaching competencies in distance learning at the academic level in the context of equal opportunities. In this perspective, the article shows the successes and difficulties of distance learning among teachers and students. The article presents the results of a survey conducted on a sample of academic teachers after the first semester of compulsory distance learning during the coronavirus. The research concerned the assessment of the competencies necessary for the proper conduct of the remote academic education process. The objective of the study was also to diagnose the causes of successes and failures in the process of remote education in connection with the issue of teaching competencies of academic teachers. The text also introduces in-depth and expanded empirical research on this subject in the future, offering the reader a discussion of theoretical and practical significance. Showing the implications noticed in the research opens up new paths of remote work with students and new activities aimed at improving the teaching skills of academic teachers. Systematic conclusions and reflections may be handy for academic teachers in the following years of distance learning.
   Keywords: equal opportunities in distance education, competencies of an academic teacher, didactic planning, academic remote education, successes and difficulties of remote education.

Introduction

   The coronavirus epidemic has marked a new perspective and the area of further research regarding equal opportunities in education. Distance learning

for the academic community has become an enormous challenge at that time, even though a part of this process has been conducted online for years. The problem revealed new questions and made teachers aware of more complex challenges and dilemmas. An in-depth analysis of the problem, research results, and systematic conclusions and reflections may be extremely useful for academic teachers in the following years of distance learning. The study aimed to diagnose the causes of student successes and failures in remote education in connection with the teaching competencies of academic teachers. In the conclusions from the literature review and my research, the sources of success and the reasons for difficulties in the course of students' work were highlighted. The necessity of making efforts of academic teachers aimed at leading students to perceived educational success and preventing educational failures in distance learning was also emphasised. The text also introduces thorough and expanded empirical research on this subject planned for the future. Already at the preliminary research stage, the article offers the attentive reader a theoretical and practical significance discussion. Showing the implications noticed in the study, it opens up new paths of remote work with students and new activities aimed at improving the teaching skills of academic teachers. The starting points for this article are based on and relate to scientific findings made by Dodge, Marzano, Firgoł and Chojnacki (Dodge, 1995; Marzano, 1992; Firgoł & Chojnacki, 2013).

Assumptions, definition tests and the current state of research

The basis of the theoretical analysis is scientific inquiry, assuming that the remote learning process does not require a different or unique didactic workshop in educational methods. It means that the current arrangements for the course of the didactic process also apply to distance learning. The remote didactic process differs from the classical one only in terms of the form of work with the student.

This other way of organisation also means that the teacher's existing competencies should be modified or enriched with new elements. These changes concern, for example, replacing a project with an e-project, a portfolio with an e-portfolio, and a discussion lecture with WebQuests. Hence, the starting point for discussing issues related to the equal opportunities policy from the perspective of a teacher's work in remote education herein are studies completed long before the coronavirus. (Dodge, 1997; Marzano, 1992; Firgoł & Chojancki, 2013).

Widely described as early as the end of the twentieth century, this way of working with students has become known as a WebQuest, which is an inquiry-oriented activity in which some or all of the information that learners interact with comes from resources on the Internet, optionally supplemented with vide-

oconferencing (Dodge, 1997). At least two levels of WebQuests should be distinguished from one another. The instructional goal of a short-term WebQuest is knowledge acquisition and integration, described as Dimension 2 in Marzano's (1992) Dimensions of Thinking model. At the end of a short-term WebQuest, a learner will have grappled with a significant amount of new information and made sense of it. A short-term WebQuest is designed to be completed in one to three class periods. The instructional goal of a longer-term WebQuest is what Marzano calls Dimension 3: extending and refining knowledge. After completing a longer-term WebQuest, a learner would have deeply analysed a body of knowledge, transformed it in some way, and demonstrated an understanding of the material by creating something that others can respond to, online or offline. A longer-term WebQuest will typically take one week to a month in a classroom setting (Dodge, 2001).

The knowledge acquisition process should be broken out into clearly described steps with some guidance on organising the information acquired. It can take the form of guiding questions or directions to complete organisational frameworks such as timelines, concept maps, or cause-and-effect diagrams, as Marzano (1992) and Dodge (2001) described. A conclusion that brings closure to the quest reminds the learners about what they have learned and perhaps encourages them to extend the experience into other domains. This structured process of acquiring new knowledge develops thinking skills in identifying and articulating similarities and differences between things, grouping things into definable categories, identifying and articulating errors in one's own or others' thinking and constructing a system of support or proof for an assertion.

Therefore, the starting point for considerations related to the issue of the quality of teaching competencies in e-learning and remote work methods in this text is the classic definition of competencies developed long before the coronavirus. The basis for these deliberations and reflections were, among others, the scientific analyses of Cohen, Manion and Morrison (2011), Kyriacou (1991), Okoń (2003), Gajewski (2005) dealing with the problem of ensuring the achievement of educational goals also during distance learning.

The concept of competencies is used in two primary meanings: in the first one, competencies are equated with qualifications; in the second, competencies mean the scope of powers. The article deals with the competencies of academic teachers in the first sense, i.e., qualifications necessary for this profession's compelling performance. Competencies in the sense of professional qualifications are variously defined and classified (Bereźnicki, 2008; Niemierko, 2010; Okoń, 2003; Gajewski, 2005). The classifications that relate mainly to academic education and have a broad perspective of competencies necessary for academic didactic work were presented in the text.

Cohen, Manion and Morrison (2007) indicate a classification in which they distinguish five main competence areas. At the same time, this approach to the problem is closest to the authoress of the article (Kožuh 2017). One of the competencies distinguished by the researchers is knowledge of the area or subject taught. Another one is a method of transferring the acquired substantive knowledge. Equally important is a method of managing a group. Competencies in evaluating the student's work and registering his / her progress should also be highlighted, as well as a professional teacher's willingness and scope of self-improvement. A similar classification of teacher competencies by Kyriacou (1991) comes from a similar period. He formulated the professional competence of teachers in line with the presented essential skills of teachers. The first author mentions specialist competencies, which he understands as the scientific foundations of specific study subjects. In the classification, he also distinguishes psycho-didactic competencies, which he interprets as the ability to create appropriate conditions for learning and effective management of learning processes by individualising education content. As another type, the author mentions broadly understood communicative competencies, in which he points to relations outside the classroom or lecture hall. The author emphasises the importance of communicative competencies with other teachers, superiors and partners of the university and all units with which the university carries out joint tasks or projects. Kyriacou (1991) also mentions organisational and managerial competencies of adequately planning and designing teaching activities. He also indicates diagnostic and intervention competencies as well as counselling and advisory competencies, which he understands as entering into relationships with individual students to check what the student is thinking, what he feels, what problems he has and how he can be helped. In his classification, the author also included competencies in the field of reflection on one's activity, which he interprets as the ability to conclude and recognise phenomena, modifying one's behaviour, approaches and methods, both in the study and in the transfer of knowledge (Kyriacou, 1991).

An exciting look at the teacher's competencies is also provided by the classification distinguished by Kwaśnica (2003). The author distinguishes two groups of competencies. The first group consists of practical and moral competencies. They include, among other things, interpretative competencies, i.e. the ability to reasonably approach the world; communication competencies, i.e. the ability to dialogue; and moral competencies, which are understood as the ability to reflect on students' actions and behaviour morally. The second group of competencies distinguished by Kwaśnica are technical competencies. Among them, he includes competencies which he describes as postulation competencies. The author understands them as the ability to formulate goals and identify with them. In this group of competencies, the author also distinguishes methodological

competencies and implementation competencies, which he understands as the ability to select educational means and the teacher's ability to create conditions conducive to achieving the set goals in the educational process.

On the other hand, an extensive typology of academic teacher competencies can be found in Gajewski (2005) and Okoń (2003), which concern teaching competencies for academic work in university education. It emphasises the criteria and indicators for assessing pedagogical competencies (Gajewski, 2005). This typology includes competencies that cover the area of knowledge, skills and attitudes in different psycho-pedagogical areas. These are, among others, the attitude that stimulates the student's learning, the teacher's scientific approach to the process of education, the broad and in-depth subject of the teacher, knowledge of the student's learning process, knowledge of the goals and organisation of the learning process, group management and competencies in the field of organisational skills of an academic teacher and his or her striving for continuous improvement. In this approach to competencies in remote education, it is worth undertaking a detailed analysis of the quality of this process at the academic level.

For this reason, the aim of the article is also to indicate, in the area of teaching competencies of academic teachers, a broad perspective on the reasons for the success and failures of students, which most often accompany the form of remote education in an environment at the university level. Therefore, later in the article, a modification of the classification of successes and failures for this thesis is proposed. This change involves the replacement of the classic approaches to the problem of educational successes and failures, i.e. those divided into bio-psychological, pedagogical and socio-economic reasons (Kupisiewicz, 2012), with the classification of successes and failures, which are divided into successes and failures of the remote learning process, successes and failures of the remote teaching process, and successes and failures of remote education resulting from the conditions of the teaching environment. This article distinguishes three factors that comprise the sources of successes and failures in academic remote education. These factors are inherent in the student, the academic teacher, and the educational environment. In this context, the literature and research in this area are reviewed below.

A review of the literature concerning the factors influencing the successes and failures of students, in general, defines them as an apparent "discrepancy between the educational results assumed by the teacher and the educational institution, and the results achieved by students" (Kupisiewicz, 1964, p. 53). Domagała-Kręcioch (2008) adopted a different view and a new position in this area. He believes that "the great failure of the school is not so much due to the students' deficiencies in knowledge and skills as to the enormous waste of their creative intellectual potential" (Domagała-Kręcioch, 2008, p. 35). The conse-

quences of this phenomenon are not only a repetition of the year of studies or drop-out rates but, most of all, "failure to undertake the professional activity of a student adequate to his or her abilities in the field of scientific or creative and work" (Kožuh, 2018, p. 166).

The successes and failures in remote education are discussed much less frequently in the literature (Hattie, 2009; Bednarek & Lubina, 2008; Słomczyński & Sidor, 2012). The problem is often analysed using two indicators in the published ones. These are the effectiveness of education and the level of drop-out from classes (Martinez, 2003; Pyżalski, 2020; Plichta, 2020). In the case of research studies focusing on effectiveness, there are numerous methodological problems, especially regarding the accuracy of controls and reliability of analyses. Different variables are taken into account in these studies. Such as, for example, exam results, students' attitudes towards remote learning and satisfaction with participation in remote learning. The measurement tools are often not well selected, and the research includes uncontrolled, disturbing variables that "lower the value of the obtained results" (Merisotis & Phipps, 1999, p. 23). It also means that it is complicated to compare the effectiveness of distance and traditional education on their basis. However, it is assumed that it is similar. In traditional education and distance learning, it "depends on the adequacy of goals, methods, forms and means concerning the proposed content of education" (Swan, 2003, p. 45). The value of the second indicator, the level of students' drop-out from classes, fluctuates within extensive limits. Research shows that the rates vary from 20% to 80%, depending on the type of distance learning being studied. The study's author (Tyler-Smith, 2006) emphasises that the analysed data are often fragmentary and do not allow reliable inference. Regardless of the differences in views on the scale of the problem, it must be admitted that the percentage of people dropping out of classes is higher in the case of distance education than in the case of traditional education (Kozłowska & Kahn, 2006; Wach-Kąkolewicz, 2007).

About the classification of successes and failures in remote learning made and adopted for this article, the last part of this article analyses the problem based on the literature on the subject. It is divided into three primary groups: successes and failures of remote learning, successes and failures of remote teaching, and successes and failures of remote education resulting from the conditions of the teaching environment.

In the first group, many researchers agree that the sources of success and educational difficulties should not be sought in the attractiveness of this form of learning or the poor quality of the courses but rather in the fact that learning outcomes depend on the learner's characteristics such as his/her ability to remember and focus attention on the studied subject, his/her motivation, interests, individual aptitudes, skills, experiences or abilities (Postman, 2004; Tap-

scott, 2010; Castells, 2010). Some authors also point to the need to provide students with these skills before or at the beginning of their studies (Słomczyński, 2009; Striker and Wojtaszczyk, 2009; Penna and Stara, 2007). Researchers try to identify the most essential learner-related factors that determine the success or failure of remote learning. Among the surveyed factors, failures are mentioned more often than successes, pointing to numerous problems affecting the resignation from such education. It is indicated, among other things, that the student's learning style does not match the nature of the classes. The reasons for failures also include insufficient contact between the student and the academic teacher, lack of support from the teacher, loneliness of the student, lack of time to participate in classes, lack of control of the teacher and low motivation of the student (Parker, 1999; Martinez, 2003; Meger, 2008). Other authors maintain that the main reason is that the content is not adjusted to the student's cognitive abilities (Lubina, 2005; Lubina, 2004; Bereźnicki, 2008; Striker & Wojtaszczyk, 2009).

Some publications in the literature on the subject describe good practices in developing remote classes. Their authors maintain that it is due to those publications that the quality of education is equivalent to traditional education (Niemierko, 2010; Dąbrowski, 2005). The practices described in the literature mainly concern motivating and involving students in the educational process by developing scenarios for academic classes (as precise as possible), appropriate preparation of teaching materials and cooperation, and support in encouraging student interaction. The research conducted and described in the subject literature indicates that the issue of self-regulation of the learning process in remote education is rarely addressed (Roffey, 2012; Słomczyński, 2009). Some works underline the role of student predisposition in the context of success in remote education (Tapscott, 2010; Castells, 2010). Castells concludes that not all students have the appropriate level of cognitive maturity for remote learning (Castells, 2010).

On the other hand, Kozłowska and Kahn (2006) consider readiness for remote learning as a critical factor in determining effectiveness in the learning process (Kozłowska & Kahn, 2006). According to these authors, readiness to learn includes the skills necessary to use remote learning effectively. They indicate that the essential ability is to manage the learning process, which consists of organisational competencies and effective cognitive strategies. Other authors emphasise the need for organisational skills (Clarke, 2004). On the other hand, Gajewski (2005) argues that the success or failure of remote learning depends primarily on the learner's learning style and that achievements in remote learning can be predicted based on the learner's preferred style Gajewski (2005). From the point of view of successes and failures in academic education, the research based on the self-efficacy theory conducted by Słomczyński (2009) is in-

teresting. The author considers the location of cognitive control (locus of control) as an essential factor determining learning effectiveness in remote education. In his research on adults, he notes that students with a strong internal locus of control are more motivated to learn and conscientious in the learning process than those with an external locus of control. Those less affected by external factors such as technical problems or time-consuming learning pressures are much more likely to stay on online courses.

In the second group of successes and failures they are referred to as the successes and failures of the remote teaching process. Problem researchers in the literature point to the essence of teacher competence, and they believe that a decrease in student motivation in remote learning may be, among other things, a consequence of improperly conducted performance control (Rawa-Kochanowska, 2012; Kožuh, 2019; Niemierko, 2010). Proper control and evaluation should be relevant, reliable, adequate and objective (Niemierko, 2010). Errors in the control of remote learning achievements are closely linked to the quality of the testing tasks. The achievement of high marks by the student often indicates his or her ability to search for information and not his or her actual assimilation of knowledge. Teaching materials sent or used during remote learning can be motivating or de-motivating. The researchers emphasise that the competence to agree and adopt the rules of organisation and passing the course at the beginning of the semester is also very important (Niemierko, 2010; Meger, 2008; Wieczorkowska, 2004). This group of reasons for educational successes or failures related to the process of remote education also includes the teacher's competencies in the field of didactic design, competencies in the field of creativity, supporting innovative and motivating activities, as well as communicative competencies understood as the ability to convey even complex content, operating with numerous examples referring to the discussed area and students' interests (Kožuh, 2020; Wieczorkowska, 2011).

The third group, described by the authoress of the dissertation as successes and failures of remote learning, concerns both students and teachers. It is a group of elements resulting from the conditions of the didactic environment related to information and communication technologies. These conditions are understood not only as access to infrastructure, i.e., computers and software but also the quality and capability of the computer equipment and the efficiency of the Internet connection. This group of conditions also includes skills in efficiently using information and communication technologies. This group of elements also includes social conditions for teachers and students, which should be understood as the possibility of remote work without disturbing their home environment. Researchers of the problem in this group of reasons for the successes and failures of the remote education process also point to problems related to the uncertain legal status regarding the use of IT technology (Pyżalski,

2020; Plichta, 2020). Teachers, at least some of them, are concerned about, among other things, the illegal recording of classes and the use and publication of compiled excerpts from the classes in the form of mocking videos and other publications on YouTube. An additional problem indicated by teachers is the concern about the legal consequences of conducting classes with the use of "unofficial tools" such as Messenger or WhatsApp. The research shows that the lack of legal regulations in this area indicates a strong sense of insecurity among teachers.

The research presented the problem of teacher competence in the context of equal opportunities in education from the perspective of distance learning during the coronavirus. The study attempted to establish the most significant successes and failures of remote education at the academic level during the COVID-19 pandemic. In order to conduct the research, research questions were formulated and presented along with the answers and their interpretation in the "results and discussion" section. The questions concerned the time effort of academic teachers devoted in preparation for remote work, commitment to improving cognitive skills in the work performed, commitment to improving technical competencies in the work performed, involvement of students in remote work, support received in the field of remote work and methods of independent acquisition of teaching skills required to conduct remote classes with students. The research questions of the prepared questionnaire also concerned successes and failures encountered during distance learning during the coronavirus.

Methods, results and discussion

A detailed analysis of selected competencies of an academic teacher in remote education was made possible by an empirical study conducted by the author. The survey was conducted in June 2021 by a group of academic teachers. The research used a descriptive and non-experimental causal method. The research was divided into ten (10) research questions. The data was collected through a questionnaire tested in a pilot study on 25 academic teachers. Based on the random diagnostic survey method, the authoress chose 80 universities all over Poland. Not all the target teachers answered, but as many as 306 questionnaires were returned. The survey contained 10 questions: 4 questions concerned the determination of teaching skills on a scale from 1 to 5, three subsequent open questions concerned the type of expected and received support for improving competencies, and the last three open questions of the survey examined the most significant successes and failures of remote education at the academic level during COVID-19 pandemic. The respondents' answers to individual survey questions and their interpretations are presented in the "results and discussion" section.

The research results are presented in the following part of the article.

The first question in the questionnaire concerned how much time academic teachers spend preparing for work. The results are presented in Table 1.

Table 1
How do you rate your commitment regarding time and effort in the performed work? 1 means the least workload, 5 is the most workload

contribution of time	1	2	3	4	5	together
A – before the coronavirus epidemic	10	16	130	102	48	306
B – during coronavirus epidemic	0	6	19	30	251	306

Source: Authors' research.

The results in the table illustrate the time teachers spend preparing for classes. The research results indicate increased time needed for teachers to prepare for the tasks associated with work performance during the coronavirus epidemic. In the remarks (there was such a possibility in the survey), some respondents added that the increased time is due to the acquisition of competence to work on specific platforms and concerns only didactic work, and the research work time remained unchanged. Respondents also indicated in their comments that preparing material for their classes with students takes several hours a day. These results, together with the comments, do not mean at all that teachers were not prepared for work before the coronavirus epidemic. The results indicate that what academic teachers have so far presented with great freedom without the preparation of written content was suddenly sent to students in the form of lecture materials in most universities. It was particularly the case, as the respondents stressed, in the first phase when the universities failed to develop a system of work on the platforms. The results in the table perhaps also show that, in fact, the preparation of extensive materials for students required at least some academic teachers to systematise the content provided. Lecturers conducting workshop classes also found themselves in a difficult situation. Especially in the first weeks, when they did not learn all the possibilities of educational platforms (e.g. the possibility of dividing participants into groups – rooms in the Zoom application), the preparation of materials for classes, which usually took place as a simulation of certain events or situations, certainly proved to be a severe challenge for them.

The second question in the questionnaire concerned the involvement in improving cognitive competence enriching the knowledge passed on to students. The results are presented in Table 2.

Table 2
How do you rate your commitment to improving cognitive skills in the work performed? 1 means the least workload, 5 is the most workload

improvement of cognitive competencies	1	2	3	4	5	together
A – before the coronavirus epidemic	0	19	251	23	13	306
B – during coronavirus epidemic	0	17	240	34	15	306

Source: Authors' research.

The results of the study indicate a fundamental lack of difference in the amount of time spent exploring cognitive competence. There is even a slight decrease in time, most likely due to the overload of responsibilities in other areas of academic competence during the coronavirus epidemic. In their answers to the other survey questions, the respondents complained about the enormous time it takes them to prepare for classes. At the same time, this may explain the decrease in cognitive activity in most of the surveyed teachers. However, some respondents described their cognitive competence during coronavirus as higher than before. It may have been due to new tasks such as, for example, systematising content and searching for articles for students' work in meetings that could not take place in real time. It should be mentioned that most students were not ready to carry out all the activities on the timetable in the form of meetings on online platforms in the first weeks of the epidemic. Thus, when preparing links to interesting articles or problematic discussions for students, lecturers automatically reach for new content and discover unknown research or thoughts about it.

The third question in the questionnaire concerned technical competence, and its results are presented in Table 3.

Table 3
How do you rate your commitment to improving technical competencies in the work performed? 1 means the least workload, 5 is the most workload

improvement of technical competencies	1	2	3	4	5	together
A – before the coronavirus epidemic	153	69	35	43	6	306
B – during coronavirus epidemic	20	42	22	15	207	306

Source: Authors' research.

The answers to this question showed an evident increase in the involvement of academic teachers in improving their technical skills. It should be stressed here that the respondents to the survey were also lecturers at technical universities, but the majority of the respondents were from university environments. Therefore, it is likely that for most respondents, the operation of the e-learning platform and its efficient movement was a great difficulty and a great challenge requiring an express but also an intensive process of improvement in this respect. The results gathered in the survey prove that academic teachers were very seriously involved in improving their technical competencies during the coronavirus epidemic. Additional comments stressed that this improvement occurred until the examination session's end. Respondents shared their opinions that once they had started to move around the e-learning platform tools quite freely in lectures, a new challenge appeared in the form of an examination on the platform. As the respondents emphasised, it was arduous and time-consuming, especially introducing individual questions into sections on the educational platform.

The fourth question of the questionnaire concerned the evaluation of students' involvement in classes conducted in a remote form, and the answers provided by the respondents are presented in Table 4.

Table 4
How do you rate students' involvement in the classes? 1 means the least involvement of students, 5 represents the most significant involvement of students

involving students in classes	1	2	3	4	5	together
A – before the coronavirus epidemic	16	35	109	101	45	306
B – during coronavirus epidemic	38	57	157	41	13	306

Source: Authors' research.

The results collected in the study indicate different experiences and, at the same time, different opinions on this issue. Most respondents show that the student's involvement during the coronavirus era is lower. In the additional comments, respondents had many opinions that student involvement was very high during the first weeks of working on educational platforms. This type of knowledge acquisition was a novelty for most of them. According to the respondents, it was motivating. When, after a few weeks, online classes became routine, the majority of the respondents stressed that the involvement of students in active participation in discussions during the online meetings was much lower. Students faced with a specific task, unable to cope with it, often finished their sessions explaining their exit with a break in the Internet connection. Per-

haps a certain degree of relaxation in literature studies was greatly influenced by most universities, which, as the respondents indicate, offered classes in asynchronous time. This most often consisted of sending materials for students' work. After a few weeks, when the work on e-learning platforms started, students had a backlog due to the lack of systematic literature study. Perhaps this was the reason for their low involvement in current classes.

The fifth question was: *what kind of support for remote working have you received?* The surveyed academic teachers formulated their answers to this open research question themselves. The answers were primarily such statements as staff training on how to work on Zoom, Teams, Vox, etc. Many respondents also indicated support in the form of instructional videos sent by the IT centres operating in universities, explaining how to operate particular platforms. Unfortunately, a significant number of academic teachers indicated zero support for remote work (42 respondents), especially in the first two months after the outbreak of the epidemic was announced. This result is saddening and should be highlighted in research so that the authorities of individual departments or universities can notice it.

On the other hand, the respondents who received help and support from universities pointed to various training courses and conferences developing their competencies in using the e-learning platforms. As the respondents claimed, help and support were also provided by the faculty or university IT specialists and the office staff of individual faculties. Only a few respondents indicated help from the university by purchasing a package allowing unlimited access to work on a selected platform, such as the Zoom platform.

The sixth question in the study was: *what kind of support for remote work did you expect?* The respondents answered this open research question as in the previous question. Among the answers, the surveyed academic teachers indicated their expectations concerning support for remote work with their students. Most answers included the purchase of a personal computer by the university for the teachers to work from home, the purchase of a faster computer to work remotely from home, the purchase of a computer with more significant memory to work remotely from home and a better camera, greater availability and better contact with administrative staff and IT specialists, and purchase of a package on a platform that allows conducting classes without division into 40 - minute sessions. A large group of respondents (about 21%) expected support from junior academic staff and assistants. The surveyed academic teachers also pointed to the need to have more influence on the choice of contact form with students and the platform. The Teams platform was highly criticised as being non-intuitive, too complicated to use and preventing visual contact with a larger group of students. Many respondents also pointed out the lack of support and straightforward and quick decisions of the universities concerning possible

forms of examination. The lack of official decisions related to the final form of the evaluation process disturbed the correct course of meetings with students. In the face of this confusing situation, some respondents attempted to change the content and manner of presenting new content. Those procedures aimed to enable the tremendous success of students following the decision of the university authorities to change the previously adopted arrangements between the students and the lecturers concerning the form of taking the examination. The respondents also stressed that this sluggishness in decision-making by individual universities concerning the method of taking the final exam caused uncertainty among academic teachers and students. As a result, this state hindered achieving some of the educational process's assumed and previously adopted objectives.

The survey's seventh question was: *how did you acquire the skills necessary to conduct classes with students remotely?* The respondents constructed the answers themselves as in the two open survey questions. Most academic teachers pointed to the Internet and various instructional videos as a source of independent acquisition and complementation of skills for remote working with students. Some respondents also mentioned support in coping with more advanced communication and information technologies provided by their university colleagues as a helpful source of self-improvement in didactic work on individual e--learning platforms. This assistance was precious in moving around the new educational platforms and preparing invitations for their students to attend such virtual meetings. The colleague's assistance was also a form of support during their attempts to conduct lectures on the chosen platform. Some respondents also indicated helpful family members as a source of support as the first listeners to the rehearsal meetings. In search of the most effective ways of working remotely, about 21% of the respondents contacted their colleagues from other universities in Poland and abroad. Only a few per cent of the respondents indicated literature in the form of articles in specialist scientific journals and compact publications published in print or placed on websites as the source of such knowledge. In this respect, the literature published on websites was much more helpful for the respondents. Due to closed bookshops and libraries, the availability of printed sources consisted only of a friendly exchange of books.

The last three questions of the survey concerned the successes and failures of the education process, which in the first part of the article were analysed based on world literature. The successes and failures in the survey questions were divided, as the authoress suggested in the theoretical part. Therefore, the eighth question concerned the *successes and failures of the remote learning process, i.e. the successes and failures of the instructor – the person managing the learning process.* Among the answers on the side of successes, the respondents most often indicated mastering the remote teaching method's basic and partially advanced skills, enabling the successful conduct of various classes with stu-

dents. As a success, academic teachers also pointed to the acquisition of the ability to conduct exams on the platform, as well as to master the stress associated with speaking in front of the camera with the awareness that among the recipients of their lectures are not only students but sometimes their parents, wives, husbands, children or friends and acquaintances. In turn, the surveyed academic teachers considered the time spent mastering the efficiency of using educational platforms as a failure as well as the time spent preparing the materials they sent out before they started to conduct synchronous classes on educational platforms. Respondents also mentioned a failure in the time needed to perform other work-related duties, such as participation in conferences, meetings, gatherings and training sessions on different platforms. Almost all respondents indicated insufficient competence in remote teaching skills, especially in the first weeks of the coronavirus.

The last, ninth question of the survey concerned *the successes and failures of the remote learning process, i.e., the successes and failures of students* (*from the lecturers' point of view*). As a success of the learners, academic teachers indicated above all the easiness of students to master the skills of working on various platforms and quick adaptation to the new form of teaching. However, the greatest failure of students mentioned by respondents was the communication culture during classes and in e-mails. Among students' annoying behaviours, the teachers complained of, for example, the lack of silence in the students' rooms, i.e. listening to conversations in the students' homes for a whole year, e.g. about dinner, barking of a dog, screaming of children or younger siblings. The respondents also pointed to situations when their students forgot they could be seen on camera during the lecture and/or took strange positions, e.g., lying on a couch or in bed or sleeping during classes. Another example of the poor communication culture of students in e-mails mentioned by the respondents was the style of writing or the lack of writing style and typing skills in students' e-mails. Previously, in indirect contact, students asked many questions during the class. In the first weeks of the coronavirus epidemic, many more e-mails were addressed to the teachers than usual, which revealed the students' lack of skills in this area. Respondents pointed to a frequent lack of polite greetings, lack of student's signature, and addressing the lecturer by name instead of title (for example, Mr Paul but not Professor or Doctor). The style of writing also elicited many negative remarks. Respondents pointed out that the sentences in the e-mails often lacked punctuation marks, and sometimes, regrettably, they were also meaningless.

The last, tenth question of the survey concerned the *successes and failures of remote learning resulting from the conditions of the teaching environment.* Among the answers to this open question, the respondents mentioned more failures than successes. They pointed to the simplicity and intuitiveness of some educational platforms as successes. In the conducted survey, the Zoom platform

turned out to be the most appreciated in this respect. Respondents valued it not only for its readability and transparency of the possibility of visual contact with large and very large groups. The possibility of simple division into smaller groups and working in teams (rooms), offered by the Zoom platform, was also significant. The respondents showed much more commitment to formulating failures in the teaching environment. The respondents considered an insufficiently well-functioning network a fundamental failure of remote education from the point of view of the conditions of the teaching environment. At the same time, most of them pointed to poor equipment or shortages of equipment at home (laptop, camera, printer, scanner, etc.) and shortcomings in the equipment of individual classrooms at the university. Some lecturers who could not teach from home intended to give lectures online from the university. Unfortunately, the first weeks proved that most universities did not have adequate classroom equipment, such as computers with a camera and a permanent Internet connection. Some also indicated a failure in the lack of a licence purchased by the university to run classes on the platform. As a result, the lack of a licence interrupted meetings, for example, at Zoom after 40 minutes. Return to the lecture or meeting was possible only after a few minutes. Respondents complained that after such a break, it was difficult for them to return to the thread of the lecture or discussion they had started earlier. Problems were also caused by the absence of some students who had problems reconnecting with the platform. The trainers took much time to reintegrate the students after an interrupted lecture.

The respondents also pointed to poor contact and unsatisfactory support from computer scientists, automation specialists and technical support centres on the premises of the university as a failure of remote learning from the point of view of the teaching environment, especially during the first weeks of classes in a changed from by coronavirus. Regarding failures of the teaching environment, the respondents also mentioned the unregulated legal situation concerning the use of technology. Despite their competence in working on Zoom, Moodle and other platforms, some university teachers did not take up this challenge initially, fearing for their image. The reason for the inactivity of some respondents was the fear of illegal recording of classes by students and the use of compiled fragments of a lecture or other classes as a mocking video on YouTube. Many respondents (about 35%) commented that the classes were conducted in a "safe" form for themselves, i.e. they sent a list of tasks and links to additional materials. The respondents maintained that this did not result from their reluctance to conduct the remote education process. The reason was also not due to a lack of appropriate competencies. The choice of such a form of classes among the respondents resulted from the threat of "appearing on the Internet as a negative hero or a laughing stock of the Internet". A significant group of respondents formulated such a position, and indeed, this research element showed

a severe and disturbing problem in the academic teaching environment. Another issue outlined in the research was respondents' fears about the legal consequences of conducting classes using "unofficial tools" such as Messenger or WhatsApp, used mainly during the seminar and consultation sessions.

Conclusion

The results of the research and their detailed analysis have both theoretical and practical implications. The respondents' answers demonstrate the importance and necessity of theoretical changes, indicating academic teachers' lack of satisfactory skills in using information and communication technologies. An additional advantage of this finding is that the respondents assessed their competencies in this area and pointed to the lack of skills in the examined area. Thus, the respondents' statements prove the need to change the curricula of future teachers. The need to introduce theoretical changes in the form of modification of the content of education of pedagogical students also results from the speed of changes and development of this department of didactics. Due to the pace of development of information and communication technologies participating in remote education, we should strive to develop a system for modernising the content syllabuses of academic teaching. The method of acquiring and improving didactic skills in this area should also be widely discussed. Perhaps it should be a process organised on the premises of every university in the form of public, cyclical or even permanent training sessions.

Theoretical changes should also apply to study programmes in educational didactics. The richness of forms and systems of working with students should be presented with greater attention, pointing out the possibilities and weaknesses of the hybrid remote teaching system. It is worth making future teachers and university teachers who are already working aware of the advantages and disadvantages of the synchronous and asynchronous forms of working with students. A detailed analysis should be made of the practical ways of developing teaching materials, using previously recorded lectures, the possibility of supplementing and modernising them on an ongoing basis, and making recordings on the premises of the university in television studios specially established for this purpose and other units on the premises of the university. An issue requiring legal arrangements also concerns the ownership of materials and copyrights, as well as ways of protecting the content and image of the lecturers. The lack of a sense of security in this matter reduces the level of teaching activities due to the choice of non-interactive forms of work with students.

Therefore, the results of the research point to several fundamental problems of remote education at the academic level from the perspective of equal

opportunities. It concerns equal opportunities for students to access this form of education and equal opportunities for students resulting from the quality of such education. The quality of teachers' work at the academic level is, in turn, closely linked to equal opportunities for academic teachers. This problem is particularly evident in the area of competencies of academic teachers and their access to technical databases when working remotely with students. There is a need for both remote and direct academic teaching centres of excellence. Research has also shown that in the process of teacher training and in preparing students for the teaching profession, greater emphasis should be placed on showing the relationship between digital tools and network resources and specific substantive, media and informational competencies. These should not only be seen in preparing future teachers but should be regularly improved and updated, given the rapid development and dynamic changes in this area. Research shows that many academic teachers are unprepared for remote education. Respondents often carried out the process of remote education during coronavirus in a transmission and non-interactive way. They passed on their knowledge through materials sent or placed on the e-learning platform for independent student work. Numerous teachers took advantage of the educational opportunities offered by various e-learning platforms.

There are also implications for further research. In the future, the successes and failures of remote education should be more detailed and deeply investigated in terms of the teaching environment. Respondents have pointed out that many premises require legal regulations. They also mentioned the necessity and urgent need to modernise network access. The solutions adopted in universities in the second wave of coronavirus may prove essential and interesting for research in the future. It is hoped that subsequent phases will be eliminated because of the effective vaccine. Everything that happens to that point in academic teaching in remote education should be examined in detail and used in subsequent research findings. Remote working at the academic level has become a fact and an indispensable area of work with students in the future, regardless of the reasons for its use. Therefore, to ensure equal opportunities in distance learning at academic and other levels of education, this education field should be examined thoroughly. The research should concern the educator's teaching competencies and the recipients of this process, i.e. students of all ages. Teachers' high teaching competencies facilitate a good quality of education. Therefore, the better-educated teachers in various institutions, the better the quality and equal opportunities for student-learners to receive a good education, regardless of the prestige of a particular academic centre or school at each level. Equal opportunities in distance learning also relate to students' skills in using communication and information technologies. They are also determined by students-learners' access to the network and the technical base of a particular uni-

versity or school. The latter correlations challenge further research and studies in equal opportunities from a distance learning perspective.

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Równe szanse dla wszystkich w kontekście kompetencji nauczycieli w Akademickiej Edukacji Zdalnej w dobie Koronawirusa

Streszczenie

W artykule podjęto problematykę kompetencji dydaktycznych w ramach kształcenia na odległość na poziomie akademickim w kontekście równych szans. W tej perspektywie tekst ukazuje sukcesy i trudności wynikające z nauczania na odległość zarówno wśród nauczycieli, jak i uczniów. W artykule przedstawiono wyniki badania przeprowadzonego na próbie nauczycieli akademickich po pierwszym semestrze obowiązkowego kształcenia na odległość w dobie koronawirusa. Badanie dotyczyło oceny ich kompetencji niezbędnych do prawidłowego przebiegu procesu kształcenia akademickiego na odległość. Jego celem była także diagnoza przyczyn sukcesów i niepowodzeń w procesie kształcenia zdalnego w powiązaniu z problematyką kompetencji dydaktycznych nauczycieli akademickich. Tekst stanowi również wstęp do pogłębionych i rozszerzonych badań empirycznych na ten temat w przyszłości, oferując czytelnikowi dyskusję o znaczeniu teoretycznym i praktycznym. Pokazując implikacje dostrzeżone w badaniu, otwiera nowe ścieżki pracy zdalnej ze studentami oraz nowe działania mające na celu doskonalenie umiejętności dydaktycznych nauczycieli akademickich. Systematyczne wnioski i przemyślenia mogą okazać się niezwykle przydatne nauczycielom akademickim w kolejnych latach kształcenia na odległość.

Słowa kluczowe: wyrównywanie szans w kształceniu na odległość; kompetencje nauczyciela akademickiego; planowanie dydaktyczne; akademickie kształcenie na odległość; sukcesy i trudności kształcenia zdalnego.

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Subjective control of emotions in the opinion of students

Abstract

Emotions influence the subjective feeling of well-being and coping with difficulties and problems in various situations in life. That is why researchers often show them in explaining everyday events that impact the standard of living, education, and productivity at work and translate into the quality of human health.

This article aims to analyse the level of emotions in students` lives who started their studies in science and humanities. The research used a self-project among 383 students at The University of Rzeszów and the Rzeszów University of Technology. I used the method of a diagnostic survey and a standardised tool examining the Emotional Control Scale (CECS) by Maggie Watson and Steven Greer from Faith Courtauld Unit, King's College Hospital Medical School in London, which was adapted to the Polish version by Siegfried Juczyński (Juczyński, 2001, p. 55).

The results showed an average level of emotional control among the surveyed students. The following independent variables were considered: University, gender, age, place of residence and wealth of the inhabitants. In one study on the anger scale, there was a variation in the statistical significance depending on the age of the subjects. However, considering the average, students from Rzeszów University showed slightly higher suppression of negative emotions than those from Rzeszów University of Technology students. In terms of gender, women indicated a higher average than men.

The average level of suppression of negative emotions among the respondents indicates the strengthening of the system of education in various threats from the manifestation of anger, depression, and anxiety among high school and university students. Teachers must strengthen their abilities to counteract these and other negative features among students.

Keywords: emotions, anger, depression, anxiety, education, students.

Introduction

Man is a social being and lives surrounded by many people. Human functioning is characterised by positive, negative, or neutral relationships with other people, as well as experiencing happy or sad moments in life. All these events are accompanied by emotions and related subjective skills of maintaining control over them, which are visible in the individual's behaviour. Emotions that accompany a person have a fundamental impact on maintaining the proper mental and physical condition of the human body.

Suppressing the expression of emotions leads to their intensification or contributes to their long-term emotional tension, which may cause an increase in numerous factors harmful to health (Juczyński, 2001, p. 55).

Paul Ekman (2003) states that emotions significantly determine the quality of our lives. They occur in every relationship with another human being. The more we care about them, the more unique they are. Many research results show that emotions help in life and contribute to several types of damage.

The aim of the presented research exploration is to bring emotions closer based on literature and their level of feeling among the surveyed students of Rzeszów universities in terms of three states of anger, depression, and anxiety.

Characteristics of the scale of emotions

Emotions are an evolutionary, adaptive resource that embodies a system of meanings and informs people about the importance of events in their well-being (Greenberg, 2013). This system fundamentally impacts the organisation of the human being's ability to adapt to any action (Tomkins, 1963; Izard, 1991). It is also valuable for health care, as it helps individuals survive and function healthily (Izard, 1977; Frijda, 1986; Ekman, 2003). Emotions are also the primary signalling system for communicating intentions and regulating interactions (Sroufe, 1996). Emotions are perceptions that are, in part, a function of every perceiver's prior knowledge and experience. Construction processes occur in memories, language understanding, moral reasoning, etc. (Barrett, 2015, p. 51).

Dale Goleman (2021, p. 12) explains "emotions" as mental states or premonitions that seem vital and do not come from their own will. These sensations are often associated with the body's response to received stimuli as information. Emotions help an individual understand their experiences, e.g., sad or joyful experiences, as well as to categorise experiences. Positive emotions convert into pleasant experiences, and negative ones do the opposite.

Norman K. Denzin (1984, pp. 49-58) states that emotions are self-esteem for an individual. Emotions are also temporarily embodied, localised feelings that

result from emotional and cognitive social acts that people direct toward themselves and others.

Paul Ekman (1982, 1992) believes three distinct but related emotional systems exist: cognition, facial expressions, and autonomic nervous system (ANS) activity. Every aspect of Emotion can be mediated by cognition (Strongman, 2003, p. 187).

Robert Plutchik (1991, p. 52) defines Emotion as an inferred, complex sequence of responses, including cognitive appraisal, subjective change, and autonomic and neural impulses to act.

Marta Jankowska (2020, p. 13) defines emotions as internal information the brain receives, which helps an individual meet their needs. According to the author, there are no wrong or good emotions. Each of them carries information about what an individual needs to survive.

Maria Jarymowicz (1997) points to emotions as the perception of all conscious and unconscious processes of evaluating each stimulation.

Andrzej Dąbrowski (2014, p. 130) treats emotions as psycho-physical states of the mind-brain-body system in the surrounding human environment. These states mediate between mental and bodily and enable contact with external reality. Emotions are multi-component intentional states that can be divided into 1) cognitive-evaluative, 2) correlated with physiological and bodily changes, 3) closely related to neurological events, 4) with emotional overtones; 5) with a tendency to action, and 6) expressive.

Paul Ekman (1992) shows six basic emotions, and they are: anger, disgust, fear, depression, worry, and surprise (Goleman, 2021, p. 13).

Robert Plutshik (1991) lists eight parts grouped into four opposing parts: joy and misfortune, sadness, anger and fear, trust and distrust, and surprise and opposition (Strongman, 2003, p. 67).

For this exploration, the focus was on the subjective control of negative feelings among the surveyed students, in which three emotions related to the state of anger, depression, and anxiety were determined (Juczyński. 2001, p. 55).

Anger

Anger is a feeling or Emotion that ranges from mild annoyance to intense rage. Anger becomes problematic when it is felt too intensely or often expressed inappropriately. Excessive or frequent anger puts an extreme physical strain on the body. Inappropriate expression of anger initially has visible benefits (e.g., releasing tension, controlling people). However, eventually, these benefits lead to negative consequences (Reilly, Shopshire, Durazzo, Campbell, 2019, p. 4).

Anger can be defined as one of the emotional reactions. It occurs when the sense of security is disturbed, the feeling of being misunderstood by others in-

creases, when needs are unmet or when the sense of injustice increases (Wilczyńska, Mazur, 2013, p. 193).

Bożena Gulla (2020, p. 11) explains that anger is a complex feeling that lasts over a certain period and is a response to an individual's belief that others intentionally act to their detriment. Anger is directed against the wrongdoer and motivates the individual to retaliate, i.e., to achieve compensation for the harm suffered.

Anger appears because of frustration and suffering harm (Stein, Levine, 1990) and when the individual cannot achieve his goal and directs adverse reactions towards loved ones (Sternberg, 1999).

Anger has an adaptive function when an individual strives to minimise and remove all factors that are harmful to him or her and cause negative emotions (Smith & Lazarus, 1993).

In sum, according to Ogińska-Bulik and Juczyński (2001, p. 51), outward-directed anger (direct and indirect anger) is associated with physical and verbal aggression, and inward-directed anger is controlled and suppressed anger. Such an explanation of anger will serve for further research exploration.

Depression

Depression is often a disorder of a person's mood, means a state of dysphoria, and refers to sadness or a worsened mood. It is a set of experiences not only in the affective sphere but also in cognitive processes, behaviour and functioning in society (Zając, 214, p. 17).

Łukasz Święcicki (2018, p. 6) distinguishes two types of depression: as a human condition and as a medical disease. The first is defined as "pseudo-psychiatric civilisation-cultural states" caused by a low level of acceptable frustration and demands from the world that we cannot receive.

The second one, according to Iwona Kazimierska (2016), concerns a set of symptoms that persist for at least 14 days without a specific cause and include depressed mood, psychomotor slowdown, as well as anhedonia, i.e., the loss of the ability to experience satisfaction and pleasure.

Depression can be termed as a pattern of basic emotions, including sadness, anger, disgust, contempt, fear, and guilt. Depression is commonly thought to include five sets of traits, although many other emotional states can exacerbate it and are often associated with anxiety as a sad, listless mood; negative self--concept, including remorse and self-blame; wanting to avoid other people; loss of sleep, appetite, and sexual desire; a change in the level of activity, usually towards lethargy but sometimes as agitation. Typically, a distinction is made between neurotic and psychotic depression as more extreme, e.g., delusions (Strongman, 2003, pp. 209-210).

Constance Hammen (2006, pp. 13-17) explains depression as a set of experiences, including not only mood but also physical, mental, and behavioural experiences, which define a more long-term, harmful, and serious condition called a depressive syndrome, which includes: affect cognition, behaviour, and physical functioning. Affective symptoms relate to mood disorders, e.g., depression, sadness, depressed mood, etc. Cognitive symptoms relate to thinking and mood disorders, as well as low self-esteem and inability to manage one's life and solve problems. Behavioural symptoms refer to social inactivity and the limitation of typical behaviours, such as staying in bed for prolonged periods. Somatic symptoms also include changes in appetite, sleep, and energy.

Pseudo-psychiatric civilisation and cultural states of the respondents will be used for the research study.

Anxiety

Fear is part of the body's threat detection system as one of the essential survival mechanisms a person has, and in the event of danger, it works to get out of it soon (Robichaud, Dugas, 2015, p. 10).

Joseph Le Doux (2017, pp. 348-349) explains that anxiety begins with information from the outside when the stimulus senses some misfortune or is weakly associated with a threat.

Hans Eysenck (1957) points to a personality theory that links learning and physiology to explain anxiety. The theory depends on two dimensions: extraversion/introversion and neuroticism. In this context, the neurotic person is sensitive to anxiety-inducing stimuli, and this sensitivity is based on the autonomic nervous system (ANS). However, according to the author, fear can also be learned (Strongman, 2003, p. 201).

Anxiety and depression form the basis of emotional disorders that are closely related. The theory of David Barlow (2000) explains anxiety as a unique and very coherent cognitive-active structure in the human defensive motivational system. Jeffrey Gray (1987) considers the behavioural inhibition system to be the basis of fear unfavourable to the individual in the fight or flight system.

Arne Öhman (1993) argues that anxiety is caused by information processing sources that lead to biology-based defence mechanisms.

Sigmund Freud (1926) presents anxiety as an everyday phenomenon and a way to explain neuroses. Neurotic anxiety can take the form of being indifferent, phobic, or engaging in a panic attack.

Carroll Izard (1991) suggests that the feeling state common to many anxieties is fear. However, he argues that anxiety is related to various other emotions at various times and in different circumstances. George Mandler (1984) explains

anxiety that is based on uncertainty. The concept of uncertainty is further developed by Richard Lazarus (1991), who connects anxiety with fear.

Negative emotions such as anger, fear, sadness, and even simple worries disturb the heart's work the most and negatively affect the individual's physiology (Servan-Schreiber, 2004, p. 10).

Everyone experiences symptoms of anxiety, but most of them are occasional, short-lived, and do not cause significant problems. The difficulty arises at the level of the individual's ability to control these negative emotions.

Method

The research aims to check negative emotions in the lives of students of Rzeszów universities, including those studying the humanities at the University of Rzeszów (UR) and the sciences at the Rzeszów University of Technology (PR). The study aims to enrich the knowledge about the subjective control of negative emotions and its importance in the lives of young people who started their studies at Rzeszów universities. Concerning exploration, the following research problems were planned:

Are there differences (and if so, what) in controlling negative emotions in life among the surveyed students at the University of Rzeszów and the Rzeszów University of Technology? When planning the research question, the following independent variables were considered: University, gender, age, place of residence and wealth of the respondents.

For all cases, the null hypothesis (H_0) was assumed, stating the lack of statistical significance in comparing two groups of students. The average level of suppression of negative emotions in life in the studied groups was also assumed, showing the average range based on the research results.

The research was conducted using a diagnostic survey in the fourth quarter of 2018 among first-year students at two universities in Rzeszów. Humanities at the University of Rzeszów and science at the Rzeszów University of Technology were considered. They covered four hundred students, including two hundred studying humanities and two hundred people studying science. After careful review, seventeen surveys were rejected because of significant non-response. Three hundred eighty-three surveys were qualified for the next stage, including 190 respondents pursuing selected humanities majors and 193 studying science majors (Chodkowski, 2019, p. 177).

This research was performed using the method of a diagnostic survey and a standardised tool examining the Court Emotional Control Scale (CECS) by Maggie Watson and Steven Greer from the Faith Courtauld Unit, King's College Hospital Medical School in London and adapted to the Polish version by Zygfryd Juczyński

(Juczyński, 2001, p. 55). This scale comprises three subscales, which contain seven statements regarding the manner of revealing anger, depression, and anxiety. Such a scale measures the subjective control of these three factors among healthy and ill adults. The range of scores for each of the three subscales is from 7 to 28 points. The general emotion control index is determined by summing up all subscales and ranges from 21 to 81 points. A higher score means more significant suppression of negative emotions among the respondents (Juczyński, 2001, pp. 58–59).

Statistical calculations were carried out using the ANOVA analysis of variance. The test probability was considered significant at the level of $p<0.05$, and the test probability at the level of $p<0.01$ and $p<0.001$ was considered highly significant (Kosiba, Gacek, Bogacz-Walancik, Wojtowicz, 2017, p. 82). The results of the research were calculated using the SPPS Statistics program.

Results

The research was conducted at the University of Rzeszów and the Rzeszów University of Technology. Humanities and sciences were considered, where a comparable number of women and men study.

Table 1
Sex of respondents according to the division into universities

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

Source: Authors' research.

The data in Table 1 present the gender of the respondents by the University. Women dominate at both universities, constituting an average of 62,45% of all respondents. Statistical data confirm that for years, there has been a tendency for women to increase men in obtaining a university diploma (Dziedziczak-Folty, 2010).

Table 2
Respondents' place of residence by University

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

Source: Authors' research.

Table No. 2 presents the results of respondents' residence according to the University. Most students from the University of Rzeszów live in the countryside – 51,1%, while in the city it is 48,9%. Among the respondents from the Rzeszów University of Technology, the sum of students living in rural areas is slightly higher and amounts to 63,2%. However, only 36,8% of students from the same University live in the city.

The data from Table 3 show results of the control of negative emotions in the life of students, according to the University. In this study, the groups belong to different universities, and the comparison between them is between science and humanities. Studying in the sciences is considered more complex compared to the humanities due to the increased skills of efficient numeracy and mathematical problem-solving.

The results in Table 3 show a slight difference between the groups, which does not show the level of statistical significance where p is more remarkable than 0,05. The overall average result is higher for the University of Rzeszów (52,33) compared to the Rzeszów University of Technology (51,42). It means slightly higher control of the suppression of negative emotions among students of the humanities. Cronbach's alpha (0,780 and 0,802) shows the questionnaires' reliability. With the general indicator, η^2 (0,004) measures the relationship with a weak effect, while ω^2 is 0,2 and gives a strong effect.

Table 3

Subjective control of students' negative emotions by the University

	α	N= 383	Negative emotions control							
			General indicator		Anger		Depression		Anxiety	
			M	SD	M	SD	M	SD	M	SD
The Rzeszów University	,780	190	52,33	8,55	18,39	3,21	16,97	2,67	16,97	2,67
The Rzeszów University of Technology	,802	193	51,42	8,27	17,77	2,91	16,83	2,68	16,83	2,68
F			1,589		3,955		0,28		0,28	
p			0,208		0,47		0,597		0,597	
η^2			0,004		0,101		0,001		0,01	
ω^2			0,2		0,093		0,003		0,003	

α – Cronbach's alpha, N – number of samples, M – mean, SD – Standard deviation, F – distribution F-Snedecor statistics, p – significance level, η^2 – Eta square, ω^2 – omega square

Source: Authors' research.

The subjective control of students' negative emotions depends on various factors. Indeed, the educational environment of the family home is one of the most important. Apart from that, adapting to the school environment, relationships with peers, dealing with difficulties, etc. plays a significant role. In addition, one should also focus on the psycho-physical properties of the body, internal and external motivations of the individual, types of interests, activities, and talents and systematic development in everyday activities.

The data in Table 4 shows the subjective control of students' negative emotions by gender. The results of the calculations do not show the level of statistical significance, p>0,05. However, based on calculations, the average for women is 52,01 and for men 51,65. Women are characterised by more remarkable resourcefulness, delicacy, and submissiveness. Men compete more for leadership, show a stronger desire to achieve goals, and are more aggressive and less able to tolerate failure.

Cronbach's alpha (0,763 and 0,831) shows the internal consistency of the questionnaires. With the general index η^2 (0.01), ω^2 denotes a measure of the relationship with a weak effect.

Table 4
Subjective control of students' negative emotions by gender

Gender	α	N= 383	Negative emotions control							
			General indicator		Anger		Depression		Anxiety	
			M	SD	M	SD	M	SD	M	SD
Women	,763	190	52,01	8,29	17,99	3,09	17,01	2,59	17,01	2,59
Men	,831	193	51,65	8,64	17,77	2,91	16,83	2,68	16,83	2,68
F			0,231		0,523		1,11		1,11	
p			0,631		0,40		0,292		0,292	
η^2			0,001		0,001		0,003		0,003	
ω^2			0,02		0,01		0,005		0,005	

α – Cronbach's alpha, N – number of samples, M – mean, SD – Standard deviation, F – distribution F-Snedecor statistics, p – significance level, η^2 – Eta square, ω^2 – omega square

Source: Authors' research.

A person's adolescence plays a significant role in his daily explorations in search of a suitable place. Various disturbances appearing in everyday life adversely affect the control of negative emotions, especially educational failures, love failures, and problems with finding a job with adequate gratification.

Based on the results in Table 5, the perception of controlling negative emotions among the surveyed students by age falls within a vital level of statistical

significance of p<0,01 as a general indicator. However, the index shows p<0,05 for the Emotion of anger. The averages of respondents aged 21, 22, 23 and 24 are between 53–54 and are higher than those of respondents aged 17, 18, 19, and 20 whose averages are within the range of 51–52. It proves that older respondents show more control of negative emotions than younger students.

Cronbach's alpha ranges from 0,600 to 0,900. It means the reliability of the questionnaires used in the study, while η2 (0,01) is 0,51, and ω2 − 2,45, as a general indicator, shows a weak effect in the anger questionnaire (0,06). At the same time, depression and anxiety have a substantial effect.

Table 5

Comparison of average negative emotion control results by age

Age	α	N= 383	Negative emotions control							
			General indicator		Anger		Depression		Anxiety	
			M	SD	M	SD	M	SD	M	SD
17	,980	3	52,67	8,3	17,33	2,52	17,67	2,89	17,67	2,89
18	,654	21	51,19	7,76	18,24	13,13	16,48	2,31	16.48	2,31
19	,794	231	51,75	8,23	17,96	2,90	16,90	2,67	16,90	2,67
20	,768	94	51,65	8,07	18,05	2,83	16,80	2,62	16,80	2,62
21	,678	17	54,76	8,92	19,47	4,18	17,65	2,37	17,65	2,37
22	,890	5	53,4	9,12	16,6	3,71	18,4	2,70	18,4	2,70
23	,893	6	53,99	11,21	21,33	4,32	18,33	3,44	18,33	3,44
24	−1,333	3	54,99	7,05	20,33	2,89	17,33	2,08	17,33	2,08
26 and more	,946	3	38,33	15,86	13,00	6,00	12,67	4,93	12,67	4,93
F			2,514		2,82		1,67		1,67	
p			0,011		0,05		0,105		0,105	
η2			0,051		0,057		0,034		0,034	
ω2			2,45		0,057		0,22		0,22	

α – Cronbach's alpha, N – number of samples, M – mean, SD – Standard deviation, F – distribution F-Snedecor statistics, p – significance level, η2 – Eta square, ω2 – omega square

Source: Authors' research.

Another study considered the independent variable regarding the respondents' place of residence and their control of negative emotions.

The data in Table 6 shows that the various places of residence of the respondents do not affect the differences in the level of statistical significance, where p>0.05.

The highest average (53,22) was obtained by respondents living in medium-sized cities (20,000 to 100,000 inhabitants). The respondents, averaging 52,14,

live in small towns of up to twenty thousand inhabitants. The next level of control of negative emotions is characterised by the respondents living in large cities with over 100,000 inhabitants (51,81). The lowest level of control of negative emotions is characterised by respondents living in rural areas (51,49).

Cronbach's alpha is in the range of 0,700-0,800, which means that the test is reliable, i.e., the questionnaire has internal consistency. Eta square, $\eta2 – 0.07$, is a weak effect of the relationship measure. However, $\omega2$ is 0.3 and gives an effect of high reliability of the questionnaire.

Table 6
Comparison of average results by place of residence

Place of residence	α	N= 383	Negative emotions control							
			General indicator		Anger		Depression		Anxiety	
			M	SD	M	SD	M	SD	M	SD
Village	,752	219	51,49	7,8	17,83	3,10	16,83	2,35	16,83	2,35
A small town of up to 20,000	,804	67	52,14	8,83	18,30	2,83	16,92	3,00	16,92	3,00
Medium city from 20-100 thousand	,777	53	53,22	9,13	18,70	3,13	17,26	3,00	17,26	3,00
A large city with more than 100,000	,886	44	51,81	9,72	18,23	3,20	16,79	3,26	16,79	3,26
F			0,904		1,36		0,41		0,41	
p			0,439		0,255		0,749		0,749	
η^2			0,007		0,011		,003		,003	
ω^2			0,3		0,09		0,01		0,01	

α— Cronbach's alpha, N – number of samples, M – mean, SD – Standard deviation, F – distribution F-Snedecor statistics, p – significance level, η^2 – Eta square, ω^2 – omega square

Source: Authors' research.

The economic affluence of the respondents is undoubtedly an essential aspect of personal development and systematic expansion of human potential. Information and communication technologies have been at the forefront for several years. Their proper use by students significantly facilitates the achievement of specific goals. Undoubtedly, in affluent and average families, education's technological and educational process is adequately strengthened using computer hardware and adequate programs.

Table 7

Comparison of the average results of the control of negative emotions due to the wealth of the respondents

Affluence	α	N= 383	Negative emotions control							
			General indicator		Anger		Depression		Anxiety	
			M	SD	M	SD	M	SD	M	SD
Wealthy	,836	44	51,65	9,22	18,07	3,06	16,79	3,08	16,79	3,08
Average	,768	321	51,94	8,19	18,06	3,09	16,94	2,55	16,94	2,55
Below the average	,927	18	51,34	10,33	18,39	3,03	16,50	3,65	16,50	3,65
F			0,074		0,098		0,266		0,266	
p			0,929		0,907		0,766		0,766	
η^2			0,000		0,001		0,001		0,001	
ω^2			0,01		-0,003		0,004		0,004	

α – Cronbach's alpha, N – number of samples, M – mean, SD – Standard deviation, F – distribution F-Snedecor statistics, p – significance level, η^2 – Eta square, ω^2 – omega square

Source: Authors' research.

Table 7 shows the results of controlling the suppression of negative emotions according to the wealth of the respondents. Based on the calculations, it is concluded that there is no statistical significance between the examined ranges where p>0.05. Based on the obtained averages, representatives from the "average" wealth group obtained the highest percentage of 51.94. Respondents from "affluent" families ranked second with an average of 51.65. The third place was taken by students from families with a low economic position (51.34). It should be noted that these people constitute the smallest percentage of the respondents. It is optimistic that the differences between the means among the wealth of the respondents' families show minor percentage differences and differentiate the respondents to a small extent. It leads to the conclusion that the respondents' wealth level does not translate into differentiation in the perception of self-control of negative emotions among the respondents because everyone has the same opportunities to expand knowledge based on self-education in this area by reading various publications on websites. Cronbach's alpha is greater than 0.700, indicating that the test is reliable. Eta squared (0.000) is a weak effect, while omega squared (0.01) indicates that the effect on the strength of the questionnaire's reliability is moderate.

Conclusions

The sense of subjective control of emotions undoubtedly translates into a person's mental and physical well-being. The practical ability to suppress neg-

ative emotions at a vital level positively affects solving problems and overcoming all obstacles. It is also an advantage for faster achievement of the intended goals, as it increases efficiency, strengthens motivation, and stimulates the efficiency of the individual in action. Suppressing negative emotions at a low level is destructive, discouraging, and sometimes highly pessimistic.

The article explains the concepts of anger, depression, and anxiety based on literature. It determines the general index of emotion control among students of Rzeszów universities, considering the following independent variables: University, gender, age, place of residence, and wealth.

The study was limited to comparing the self-control of negative emotions among students representing the two largest universities in Rzeszów.

The null hypothesis H_0 was set for all independent variables. In the case of age, the alternative hypothesis H_1 was adopted due to the difference between the two groups in the level of statistical significance ($p < 0,05$). In the remaining calculations conducted using the ANOVA analysis of variance concerning the subjective suppression of negative emotions in life among the respondents according to the following independent variables: by the University, gender, place of residence and wealth, no differences in the level of statistical significance were found ($p > 0,05$) and null hypothesis – H_0 ($p > 0,05$).

Considering the averages by the University, presented in Table 3, it follows that students from The University of Rzeszów have a higher level of suppressing negative emotions (52,33) concerning students of the Rzeszów University of Technology - 51,42. In the case of the gender of the respondents, women (52,01) obtained a higher average than men (51,65), which means that they are better at suppressing negative emotions towards men (Table 4). In the following table No. 5, the research results by age are presented at the statistical significance level of $p < 0,05$. Older people (average 54) show more effective suppression of negative emotions than younger people (average 52). Results in Table 6 concerned the place of residence. The highest average of 53,22 was for the research group belonging to the city of twenty thousand up to one hundred thousand inhabitants. Respondents living in rural areas obtained the lowest average (51,49). Table 7 presents the results in terms of the wealth of the respondents, in which the highest average was received by the so-called "average", i.e. representing the average level (51.94). They overtook the affluent (51,65) and the poorest (51,34). It should be noted that in the case of people from wealthy families, wealth did not affect the subjective suppression of negative emotions. However, it is related to the level of the least wealth, who obtained the lowest average.

In the summary, the following conclusions can be drawn. Most respondents are guided by the subjective control of negative emotions in life at a moderate level. Based on previous studies, as in the ones currently described, age also turned out to be a differentiating factor in the subjective control of emotions. It

means that older people control negative emotions to a greater extent. The tendency to suppress these emotions is a relatively constant feature of highly socialised people. However, the authors (Jarosz, 1978; Everly, Rosenfeld, 1992) warn that repeated and persistent states associated with negative emotions are the basis of various neurotic disorders and psychosomatic diseases. There is a relationship between emotions and disease states (Juczyński, 2001, p. 59).

Therefore, the average level of subjective control of negative emotions in the respondents' lives is a challenge for the education system. Any changes systematically introduced to the educational programs are to reflect the various needs of pupils to minimise the level of negative emotions.

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Subiektywna kontrola emocji w opinii badanych studentów

Streszczenie

Emocje wpływają na subiektywne odczuwanie dobrostanu, radzenie sobie z trudnościami i problemami w różnych sytuacjach codziennego życia. Dlatego są coraz częściej wykazywane przez badaczy w celu lepszego wyjaśnienia codziennych zdarzeń, które mają wpływ na zdrowie człowieka, poziom i jakość jego życia, edukację, wydajność w pracy czy odpoczynek.

Celem niniejszego artykułu jest analiza poziomu subiektywnej kontroli emocji w życiu studentów, którzy rozpoczęli studia na kierunkach ścisłych i humanistycznych. Badania przeprowadzono według własnego projektu zrealizowanego wśród 383 studentów Uniwersytetu Rzeszowskiego i Politechniki Rzeszowskiej. W tym celu została wykorzystana metoda sondażu diagnostycznego i standaryzowanego narzędzia badającego Skalę Kontroli Emocjonalnej (Courtauld Emotional Con-

trol Scale – CECS) autorstwa Maggie Watson i Stevena Greera z Faith Courtauld Unit, King's College Hospital Medical School w Londynie i przystosowana do polskiej wersji przez Zygfryda Juczyńskiego (2001, s. 55).

Wyniki badań wskazały średni poziom kontroli emocji w życiu wśród badanych studentów. Wzięto pod uwagę następujące zmienne niezależne: uczelnia, płeć, wiek, miejsce zamieszkania i zamożność respondentów. W jednym badaniu dotyczącym skali gniewu zaistniało zróżnicowanie w poziomie istotności statystycznej w zależności od wieku badanych. Natomiast, biorąc pod uwagę średnią, studenci z Uniwersytetu Rzeszowskiego przejawiali nieco większe tłumienie negatywnych emocji w przeciwieństwie do studentów z Politechniki Rzeszowskiej, a także kobiety wykazały wyższą średnią od mężczyzn.

Średni poziom tłumienia negatywnych emocji wśród badanych wskazuje na potrzebę pogłębienia kształcenia w zakresie różnych zagrożeń ze strony przejawiania gniewu, odczuwania depresji i lęku wśród młodzieży szkół średnich i wyższych, a także zwiększenia możliwości przeciwdziałania występowaniu tych i innych negatywnych cech wśród uczniów i studentów.

Słowa kluczowe: emocje; gniew; depresja, lęk; edukacja; studenci.

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(Re)Centralisation of education governance in Hungary: its causes, declared goals, motives and some potential hidden goals

Abstract

After municipalities (local governments) and county level governments were established in Hungary in 1990, public education was operated, governed and financed by these elected bodies with the financial support of the central government until the end of 2012. In this decentralised system differences in local wealth and income of municipalities led to significant inequalities in the funding and performance of their schools, and the learning outcomes of the children studying in these. The FIDESZ-KDNP coalition government that took office in 2010 radically centralised the system of governance and funding of schools, claiming that this will be a remedy to the problems of the system. Based on a large set of research interviews and previous research results our paper investigates the declared goals of this reform, and tries to explore its motives as well. According to our research interviews granting equal opportunity in education to every child seems to be the overarching goal of centralisation, and there are three more other goals as well, including the creation of a more efficient and cost-effective system of institutional management. However, some characteristics of the selection of these goals and the seemingly complete lack of the monitoring of their fulfilment, together with the fact that independent research already proved that the centralisation was definitely unable to achieve its main declared goal, may substantiate the claim that this just served as a cover or pretext, and there probably exists a hidden agenda that is more important for the government than the publicly declared goals. Based on interviews with former politicians, education researchers, advisors and school headmasters we tried to find some

of the possible real motives and hidden goals. Although the existence of such goals is impossible to prove exactly, we found several circumstances that may substantiate their existence.

Introduction

Based on the analysis of a large set of research interviews (50–90 minutes long each), and some pre-existing research focusing on the reasons, outcomes, consequences and problems of the (re)centralisation of school governance in Hungary during the last decade under three consecutive Orbán-governments, this paper aims at exploring the declared, and also the possible hidden or implicit goals of the (re)centralisation of education funding and school governance during the previous decade and the possible motives behind it. This centralisation is part of a much bigger picture[1] and is just 'another brick in the wall'[2] of a new education policy. The starting point of this new policy was already set in 2011 when the new Act on National Public Education (Act CXC of 2011) was enacted. The next major step in the process was the enactment of Act CLXXXVIII of 2012 on taking over of the control and funding of some education institutions from local government by the state (i.e. the central government). See Péteri (2014), Szabó & Fehérvári (2015) on the reasons, implementation and first phase of the reform. Semjén, Le & Hermann (2018) and Györgyi (2019) give a more detailed picture on the main steps of his reform and its problems and development.

9 research interviews (containing 3 with education policy leaders and/or high rank government officials[3] at the time of the interviews, and another 6 with

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[1] There is undeniably a strengthening role of the government in the provision of public services and utilities in Hungary, which can be viewed as a manifestation of a broader general trend towards centralization (Rosta, 2014 and Kornai, 2015). As Kornai (2015) writes, in Hungarian politics recently prevails an "obsession with centralization, which is intertwined in many ways with the aforementioned tendency to nationalize", and this is a tendency that "affects almost all spheres of society" (p. 6).

[2] This reference to the lyrics of the old Pink Floyd song seems to be warranted by some characteristics of the essential features of this policy itself: reducing the school leaving age of compulsory education to 16 years from 18, curtailing the autonomy of schools and their teachers, drastically limiting the schools' and teachers' rights and freedom to choose their textbooks, making entrance to (upper) secondary education [ISCED 3A and 3B level] more difficult and stressful to children, making the National Curriculum more rigid, putting more emphasis in education on knowledge than on the development of competence or independent and logical thinking, creativity and reasoning, on giving ready-made answers instead of the ability of asking the right questions.

[3] An MP, who was the former secretary of state for education, responsible for the design of the new, extremely centralised school governance system, and two deputy state secretaries, responsible for public education or its reform, working on the implementation or the further development or the system.

high level civil servants[4] working in the newly established centralised school gov-
ernance system) were conducted by me and my assistant in 2014. As in 2014
these interviews were conducted for a study that was ordered by the Education
Office, a government agency, with the help of the agency and with the support
of the Ministry we could organise the interviews relatively easily within the cen-
tral authority (abbreviated as KLIK) that became responsible for operating and
financing the new system of governance. It also might have helped that being
an education policy researcher since the 1980s I personally knew some of the
interviewed education policy leaders responsible for the reform.

Another set of research interviews was conducted by us between 2018 and
2020. This second set of 21 interviews contains 3 interviews with former educa-
tion policy leaders (1 ex-secretary of state during various former socialist-liberal
coalition governments, being at the time of the interview an advisor of an op-
position party, and 2 top level former government officials and education policy
makers – an ex-minister and an ex-secretary of state – during the FIDESZ-led
"conservative" coalition government between 1998 and 2002), 6 interviews
with leading education researchers and/or private education consultants, an-
other one with a leading education columnist, 3 interviews with actual or former
leaders of the two existing teachers' trade unions, another interview with the
president of the National Teachers' Association (NPK), a centrally founded or-
ganisation (all teachers working in the public sector school system are automat-
ically members of this organisation according to the law), 3 interviews with
school headmasters in the public system, 2 interviews with former and present
leaders of *Tanítanék* (I'd like to teach), a teacher protest movement against the
education policy of the Orbán-governments, that started in 2016 and was trig-
gered by the problems of the overly centralised system of school governance
and the resulting crisis of public education[5], and last but not least an interview
with a leader of an independent parents' organisation.

The 2018-2020 research interviews were conducted in a research project,
made possible by a government financed NKFIH K_17 research grant. During
this project we also tried to make some more research interviews with leading
officials of the Klebelsberg Centre (the renamed and reorganised version of
KLIK) several times, however we never succeeded, although we had good pro-

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4   One government official (the president of the central government agency KLIK that controls,
    manages and operates the new system), and five school district directors at the time of the
    interviews. (We wanted to repeat some research interviews with school district directors in
    2020 on their experience with the revised governance system with much bigger school districts
    and a bit more decision making power and autonomy given to their directors, but only one of
    them agreed and made herself available for an extra interview in 2020 January about the revi-
    sion of model and the working of the revised system.)
5   See Bajomi & Csákó (2017) for more on teacher protests in Hungary,

fessional contacts with some former educational policy officials close to the government party.[6]

Background

After the systemic change, in 1990 newly established local and county governments took over the provision of primary and secondary education in Hungary from the previous hierarchic state school governance system. Although in this post-1990 system private (church and non-church) schools were also present, and their share was on the rise, the majority of schools were still owned, funded and run by local governments, and the vast majority of 6–14 y.o. pupils studied in local government run schools. From 1990 until 2013, schools that provided primary and lower secondary education (ISCED 1 and ISCED 2 levels) within the frameworks of the public school system, were operated by local (municipal or city) governments, while upper secondary education became the responsibility of county municipalities, although local governments could also choose to maintain and operate such schools. Previous research, e.g. Varga (2000) or Hermann (2008), has shown that in this system of education governance and funding the disparities in per-student expenditures were quite substantial during the 1990s and 2000s in Hungary. Moreover, Hermann (2010) also noted that student achievement in the decentralised system was higher in high income and high spending municipalities, even if differences in the individual characteristics of students were taken into account. Socio-economic background of children played an important role in their success in education, and determined their learning outcomes to a great extent. There were huge differences in the quality of teaching and the learning outcomes of children between schools. In 2013 the central government took over the tasks of running, operating and funding of public schools from the elected local or county governments, while the upkeep and maintenance of schools at this point still remained the

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[6]   In 2018 within the frameworks of a government financed research project I wanted to make a research interview with the new president of the Klebelsberg Centre (who leads the Centre even today). I called her Secretariat several times asking for an appointment to make the interview. They always promised to call me back with the result, but they never did. Finally, having no other choice, I obtained her private phone number from a FIDESZ politician I knew well personally, and called her. She listened to my request and told me that she has to ask for permission from the Minister overseeing her work in order to grant me an interview, and that she will call back in two weeks. She never did, and she never again answered my subsequent calls: so I suppose she either did not get the permission or never even asked for it. She probably also forbade school district leaders to give me further research interviews, as (with one exception) not even those were returning my calls and willing to give me another research interview, with whom I conducted honest interviews in a relaxed mood in 2014.

responsibility of local governments (however, if these did not want to keep this task, they could also transfer it to the school district the school belonged to). This reform has changed the funding and governance of schools and reshaped the rules and practice of education governance immediately (for more details on the legal and institutional changes in school governance see Szabó & Fehérvári, 2015 and Semjén et al., 2018).

After the start of this new centralised system the governance and running of general schools (providing primary and lower secondary education), non-vocational upper secondary schools (the so called *gymnasiums*) and basic-level art or music schools have become the task of the (district-level) school district they belonged to, while vocational education institutions (including vocational schools and vocational secondary schools) were mostly governed and run by the so called county centre school districts. While the school districts became responsible for financing material expenses for the purchase of goods and services, the wages of teachers and other school staff were financed centrally by the state. To compensate teachers for the loss of their autonomy and to make the new system more acceptable for them, a New Career Model for teachers was worked out and established. The newly established central teachers' pay scale that was originally meant to be the attractive part of the new Career Model played also an important role in the process. This Teachers' Career Model took effect at the beginning of the 2013/14 school year, and tied the planned yearly adjustments of the pay scale of teachers to the yearly increase of the minimum wage. It was publicised as a significant pay rise for teachers (after a long lasting quasi wage freeze following the 50 percent wage raise for public sector employees in 2002 by the socialist-liberal coalition government), however, it was difficult to say to what extent it was indeed a pay rise, as the mandatory weekly contact hour workload of teachers was increased and payments for extra works were abolished. Even with these caveats the Career Model was meant to be the "carrot" in the "stick and carrot mix" of the 2012 reform measures that took effect in 2013. However, after the first year of the new system the link between the minimum wage and the pay scale was cut, and teachers' wages gradually have come closer and closer to the ever increasing minimum wage.

At the beginning of this reform 198 school districts were established, including 19 so called county centre school districts. In charge for the control and governance of these school districts was a newly established central mammoth government agency or office, KLIK (Semjén et al., 2018). KLIK also became technically the employer of the roughly 120 thousand teachers and 30 thousand other employees working in the public education system (van Dommelen, 2021). Nevertheless, employment decisions (recruitment, staffing and dismissal) were delegated to the individual school districts, and their decisions in most cases were in accordance with the proposals of school headmasters.

According to our research interviews, school districts did not have separate budgets[7] and had little autonomy and decision making power: they collected the problems, requests and demands of their schools and transferred them to the central mammoth authority, KLIK, that had decision making power but being far from the individual schools did not have and could not process the relevant information to make good decisions. An education researcher told me (based on his first-hand information from several KLIK leaders) in an interview that some former KLIK presidents in the first "heroic" years of operation of the (re)centralised system wanted to run it and make important decisions about finances and resources by organising regular monthly meetings with all the school district directors participating in order to present their problems and demands in public, and collected detailed statistical information from schools on paper sheets lying on the floor of their offices instead of successfully creating a functioning computerised information system. A sure recipe for chaos. Interestingly, the lack of a separate, unambiguous budget for each school district was considered a serious problem already during the 2014 round of interviews by most of our respondents.

It can also be noted that most of the school district leaders, and some of the education policy decision makers we could interview were of the opinion already in 2014 that the primitive hierarchic governance model of one centre – many school districts should be revised. Still, at this time most of them envisioned a pyramid-like multilevel model containing a strong middle (or county) level.[8] However, the popular idea of making the governance model more operational by introducing a multi-level management structure and establishing a powerful middle level proved to be short-lived, as during the second phase (decided in 2016, and implemented in 2017) of the reform this was not to be the solution that was finally selected.

The main problems of the extremely centralised (one centre – 198 school districts) governance system were collected and discussed in Kopasz & Boda (2018), Györgyi (2019), and in Semjén et al. (2018) as well. By the beginning of 2016 the serious problems of the new governance model and the incompetence and inability of KLIK to tackle them became evident for most people working at the various levels of the administration, including the responsible ministry, the school districts, and the schools themselves. It became also evident for the general public and the press. The strengthening lack of trust of the general public in

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[7] At the beginning of the new system not even the KLIK had a fixed budget, they had to ask for extra financing several times during a budgetary year, and they also accumulated a rather big debt soon.

[8] We are in no position to tell whether this opinion was held at this time by the majority of school district leaders, since the school district directors with whom we could conduct interviews were not selected randomly by us, but were designated by the Education Office.

the education system after 2012 (see Kopasz & Boda, 2018), together with the discontent of teachers due to various problems in the system[9] soon led to protests amongst teachers, especially in some of the better upper secondary schools, and the evolvement of the *Tanítanék* (I'd like to teach) Movement of teachers (wearing chequred shirts as a symbol), and several other civil organisations of teachers and education researchers (e.g. The Civic Platform on Education), parents and later even secondary school students focusing on education issues. These civic organisations and movements played an important role in organising mass demonstrations focusing on education problems, and the civil disobedience in schools. See more on their formation and role in Bajomi & Csákó (2017). Most of them are still active and have a role in the new wave of protests and civil disobedience that started in 2022, after a government decree practically abolished teachers' right to strike. Sacking some teachers of several elite secondary schools in Budapest (Kölcsey, Eötvös, Vörösmarty, Karinthy), playing a prominent role in the civil disobedience of teachers, was only oil on fire, and led to increased participation of students and parents in the protests and demonstrations.

Although for those teachers who opposed the centralised system and started to organise protests or civil disobedience, and took part in the street demonstrations demanding better education, more school autonomy and higher wages for teachers, etc., the lack of autonomy was certainly one of the main problems of the centralised system, such progressive teachers were only a minority in most schools. Many of the teachers having a nostalgic attitude towards education during the communist or socialist regime were quite content with the lack of autonomy. Autonomy means also more responsibility and requires more creativity and more work from teachers. There are teachers who are not too enthusiastic about more autonomy and responsibility, and for whom a centralised system is more convenient. Some of our interviews with education researchers and former education policy leaders suggest that the 2012 centralisation reform was the politicians response to the demands of this conservative group of teachers.

According to our interviews several ideas on different ways to reform the system were put forward and discussed within the government administration: one deputy secretary of state, who for a short period became KLIK president, nurtured the idea of closing down in smaller villages lower secondary education (or some part of it, that is some grades of the 8-year general school), and establishing big school centres in bigger settlements to which the children were sup-

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9   Increased workload, too much control, too little autonomy, low wages, etc., the obvious failure of the Teachers' Career Model and the newly established central teachers' pay scale that took effect in 2013, etc.

posed to be taken by school buses. However, in small settlements neither the local governments, nor the voters liked the idea of losing some part of their schools, and as in constituencies with many threatened small schools it was unpopular, the idea was rejected due to the pressure of the parliamentary fraction of FIDESZ-KDNP. Some education researchers whom we interviewed were of the opinion that an important reason why the idea of the bigger and better quality school centres was rejected and not pursued further was that the parents/voters in the bigger municipalities, where the school centres could have been established, were reluctant to have more roma children in the school where their kids also studied.

As it has been already mentioned, by 2016 the failure of the centralisation became obvious for nearly everyone who was in one way or another concerned with it. Protests started and some modification of the centralised system (or the reform of the reform) became unavoidable. Not only teachers and parents demanded this, but the need was evident even for those operating the system. KLIK ate up 5 leaders (presidents) in 4 years: by the time a new president more or less learned how to run the Centre and the system, he or she was already removed.

In the course of the remodelling of the system the severely criticised "one centre – many school districts" model remained in effect, but was modified to a great extent. Instead of delegating most of the tasks and the decision-making power of the overburdened and inefficiently functioning centre to a middle level, a different solution was selected. School districts have become much bigger and somewhat more autonomous, while their number have been drastically reduced, and some of the previously centralised decisions were delegated to them. However, the control of the Klebelsberg Centre over the school districts and their decisions remained rather tight. It is almost a miracle that such a deep remodelling could be done without publicly acknowledging the near complete failure and the dysfunctionality of the system introduced in 2013. It is not the case that KLIK presidents or ministers were not removed – but nobody ever took responsibility for the introduction of a dysfunctional system publicly. (No wonder it happened this way, as the person responsible for every important decision was most likely the prime minister himself.) It is not even the case that the serious problems and the non-viability of the governance system introduced in 2013 was denied – just the whole thing was presented in a "there is nothing to see here, please move forward" manner, and it was pretended as if this course of events were completely normal.[10]

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[10]   In Miklós (2017) a journalist of a web portal really close to the ruling right-wing coalition suggests in her very first question that the centralised governance model failed to achieve its declared goals as the management of the Centre was inefficient, and the Centre was unable to fulfil its task as an economic unit. In spite of consecutive consolidation measures it fell into

Semjén et al. (2018) lists the important legal cornerstones[11] of the second phase of the school governance reform (pp. 16-17). Györgyi (2019) sees this second phase of the reform as a correction of the over-centralisation in the previous governance system, and he also describes the main characteristic features of the "improved" system. Although the changes in the governance of vocational training and vocational secondary education are also important, for our present analysis, however, the most relevant points of the second phase are the reorganisation of school districts into bigger ones, the drastic reduction of their number (from 198 to 60), and delegating some of the tasks of the centre to the school districts and the transformation of KLIK into a new government agency, Klebelsberg Centre. Also an important step forward was that the previously separated tasks of (1) operating and funding of public schools and (2) the maintenance of schools were united and both became the responsibility of the school district. Granting the school districts their own budget (van Domelen, 2021), and together with that increasing somewhat their level of autonomy (Semjén et al., 2018) were also changes that were greeted by both the schools and the school districts.

The declared goals of the reform

According to its concise and rather brief preamble the Act CLXXXVIII of year 2012 has four (not especially well defined) general goals. These are the following:
— the creation of a public education system that provides equal opportunities to every child;
— the creation of the operating conditions of a state that functions in a lawful and transparent manner and provides public services fully;
— the improvement and unification of professional standards in the provision of public education; and
— the achievement of a more efficient and cost-effective system of institutional management.
These are relatively clear, although some of the notions mentioned here are not at all easy or straightforward to interpret. This is especially true to the equal-

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a debt spiral repeatedly, had severe liquidity problems and in the end it was unable to cover even the most necessary expenses of schools. And the new president does not deny it, moreover, he admits that in 2016 the original concept was revised and "moved towards decentralization". He also admits that the Centre had to be stabilised financially in order to avoid a liquidity crisis. He also says that "the necessity of decentralisation is undisputed".

[11] I.a. the amendment of the previous Act on Vocational Training and of another act on Adult Training, together with some less important related acts. The Act on National Public Education also was modified in 2016. At last a Government Decree (134/2016. [VI. 10.]) concerning organizations that perform state tasks in public education as school operators determined the new frameworks of the education governance system.

ity of opportunities, which is, as Elford (2023) demonstrates, is open to several quite different interpretations, each of which relies on assumptions that can raise a vast array of philosophical questions. However, we cannot and will not deal with them in detail here. As for the second and the fourth goal are concerned, these are not education policy goals per se or strictly speaking. The fourth goal has probably more relevance to public finances than to education. The third goal seems to deal more with the inputs of education than with the outcome.

Our interviews with education politicians who were responsible for the formulation or the implementation of this Act back in 2012 and 2013, and the school district directors working in educational governance usually mention these goals, although not necessarily in this order, and usually not each of them. The first and the last goal got the most attention and mentions both from education policy decision makers and school district leaders. Some of them especially emphasised the need for equality in education. However, neither the politicians, nor the school district centre administrators used precisely the term of equality of opportunity. In many cases they referred instead to the equalisation of the financial resources spent on the students in the various settlements and schools.

Reasons for doubting and querying the sincerity of the first goal

There are some reasons suggesting that this emphasis on the concern with equal opportunities in education may not be not completely genuine, honest or sincere.

(1) First of all, this supposed main goal was not even mentioned in the text of the original Bill (Government's Bill T/8888, introduced to the Parliament in October, 2012), from which the later "Act CLXXXVIII of 2012 on taking over the control and funding of some education institutions from local governments by the State" evolved. Instead of equality of opportunity, the first main goal listed in the Bill was a rather obscure or dim one, namely the facilitation of the establishment of the 'Good State'.[12]

(2) Although there were certainly some serious problems with fairness and equality of opportunity in the provision of education within the previous decentralised school governance system, it is far from obvious that the (re)centralisation of education can indeed be a good measure to overcome these problems. (For a brief review of the relevant international literature see e.g. Lénárd (2021), pp. 457-459 and Semjén et al (2018), pp. 10–11.)

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[12] Contrasting the notion of 'Good State' to the concept of 'good governance' seems typical in the works of political scientists (e.g. G. Fodor and Stumpf, 2007), trying to find an ideology that can support the way FIDESZ rules. They are of the view that good governance "speaks the idiom of liberalism" (p. 79). Kákay (2013) also represents this school of thought. See Semjén et al., 2018, p. 13 and p. 17 for more on this.

(3) There have been some well-known examples of successful centralised educational systems (especially in Asia), and also some examples of decentralised systems that perform rather poorly.[13] Nevertheless, the recent centralisation of educational governance and funding that took place in Hungary after 2010 certainly seems to be an outlier.

As it is demonstrated through detailed country studies (France, Poland, Sweden) in Péteri (2015) and Semjén (2019), in Europe even the more centralised education governance systems have already moved towards decentralisation. Péteri (2015) makes it also clear that the universally praised Finnish system is a decentralised one, with strong and powerful local governments. So the direction of the Hungarian reform seems rather surprising. Zhao (2015) as well presents several well-performing, traditionally centralised East Asian education systems (i.a. Hong Kong, Singapore, Korea) that in recent years have gradually loosened central control (pp. 21-22). SEAMEO INNOTECH (2012) surveys the experience of 11 Southeast Asian countries with decentralisation of their educational management. Radó (2023) also concludes that decentralised governance systems compare favourably to centralised ones in many respects (143–163), but he also suggests that on the longer run even these governance systems will have to move towards some new directions, like multilevel governance and heterarchical governance[14] (pp. 173–182). According to Radó's book two new models, the Network Governance Models and the Societal Resilience Model (pp. 175–177) will gain special importance worldwide in the governance of education soon, as signs of this new trend are already visible.

(3) If a government really wants to achieve some policy goals, and for some reasons tries to achieve them with methods that are unusual and not proved to be working, it is necessary to translate goals into objectives and targets, and monitor these. Nevertheless, in the centralised Hungarian system there is a nearly complete lack of central monitoring of results (learning outcomes, test results, etc.). Although there are national competence tests conducted every year, etc., and the results are of course collected and available, they are not

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[13] According Györgyi (2015), if one measures the success of different education systems with their PISA scores, it would be difficult to decide whether decentralised or centralised systems are the more successful ones in general. However, amongst post-socialist countries his Figure 1 (p. 25) suggests that the key to success may be a decentralised system, since if we examine the connection between the level of decentralisation and the country's PISA score by plotting each country's PISA score in 2012 against the share of locally decided education spending within total education expenditure in the country in 2011, we can see in the chart that countries with better than average PISA scores (e.g. Poland or Estonia) tend to have a rather decentralised education governance system, while countries with a more centralised system of education governance (e.g. Slovenia or the Czech Republic) tend to have below average PISA scores.

[14] See e.g. Pečarič (2015) on heterarchical models. For an example of a heterarchical model in the field of education governance see Bailey et al. (2013).

processed within the education administration in such a way that could prove for education policy makers and the general public the success or the failure of the reform in achieving its supposed main policy goals. A potential advantage of a centralised system of funding and governance could be that the policy makers could react and intervene if monitoring unveils some serious problems within the system, in certain school districts or schools. If there is any centrally approved protocol for the necessary interventions in case of obvious problems with the performance of some elements of the present system, it must be a secret. We do not know examples of this kind of centrally initiated interventions. Whenever there were centrally initiated interventions, those usually aimed at punishing those schools and teachers that were active in some protests or civil disobedience.

(4) As for the quantitative consequences of the changes reshaping education administration, school governance and school funding in Hungary, little empirical research has been done so far: Semjén et al. (2018), Lénárt (2019) and Hermann & Semjén (2021) and (2023) are a few examples of such studies. Recent research results in Hermann & Semjén (2021) and (2023), based on the analysis of administrative data and national competence test score results showed clearly that while the centralisation reform had a certain equalising effect on per student education costs, it was not effective in diminishing the differences in the learning outcomes of students according to the average income of the municipality, or the education attainment of the students' mother.[15] Centralisation also had no beneficial effect on the level of test results: Lénárd (2021) using difference-in-differences method and value added models found no improvement is average 6th and 8th grade test scores for schools operating in the centralised system.

All in all, based on recent research results we can conclude, that although the (re)centralising reform of education governance and funding definitely failed to achieve one of its main declared goals (namely perhaps the most important one, concerning the provision of equal opportunities to every child), education

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[15] Using education cost functions (loglinear regression models) that use the logarithm of per student expenditures (costs) in the various schools as their dependent variable, and the average income of the settlement where the school is, together with some independent school level control variables, the authors estimated the elasticities of per-student school expenditures to average income in municipalities. The results revealed a substantial equalization of school resources after the reform of governance and funding: while before the reform rich municipalities had spent on education per student significantly more than poor ones, after the reform no systematic difference in per student spending could be detected among schools. The authors also estimated linear regression models separately for every year. These models explained 6th and 8th grade individual national competence test scores with the settlement's average income and some individual control variables, including the educational attainment of the students' parents. The results suggested that the effect of the municipality's average income on test result did not show any significant change after the reform compared to the pre-reform years, and the differences in test scores according to the mothers' education attainment also did not disappear.

policy did not feel it necessary to intervene and change anything (e.g. funding or the methods of governance and control) within the centralised model.

A former conservative Minister of Education, working now as a mayor in an elegant residential district of Buda, suggested during a 2018 research interview that the centralization reform may not have had any education policy goals at all, and could just reflect a general lack of trust in decentralized political processes and the central government's desire for and need to control as many things as possible. According to this view, the concern for equality of opportunity was nothing more than a mere pretext. This could well be true. Nevertheless, we do not think that those education policy leaders who, according to our research interviews made in 2014 and the interviews published in the press (see e.g. Teczár, 2014) seemed genuinely believe that the main goal of the drastic reform of education governance and funding was the reduction of the unfair differences and inequalities in school finance and student outcomes, and guaranteeing equal educational opportunity to every child, wanted to mislead us. They could just be useful idiots[16]. It is up to the readers to decide which is the case – and which answer is the better.

This may easily mean that the centralization of education administration is not seen by the government as a means to an end, but is an end itself, an objective *per se*, having its own, intrinsic value for the government. The centralization of education governance, fitting into the general trend of the strengthening role of the government in the provision of public services and utilities in Hungary (mentioned earlier in footnote 1) reflects the prime minister's general lack of trust in democratic processes and his obsession with control.

Is there a hidden agenda?

Semjén et al. (2018) already pointed out that the centralization of governance might serve a hidden agenda, as it can help the government achieve undeclared or implicit goals. It is not easy to decide whether such motives indeed played a role in the centralization. The hypothesis of a hidden agenda would be extremely difficult to prove exactly: nevertheless, certain features of the lawmaking and the implementation process can substantiate such a claim.[17]

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[16] This term, probably erroneously attributed to Lenin, refers to persons supporting and propagating a cause without fully comprehending its goals. They are cynically being used by the leaders or promoters of the cause.

[17] Semjén et al. (2018) enumerates many features of the centralisation of governance that either imply a completely amateurish government, or might suggest that the true motives of it are not the ones enlisted in the Act's preamble. Such features include the complete lack of stakeholder participation in the preparation process, the lack of a pilot project prior to the introduc-

Some of our research interviews also referred to the possibility of a hidden agenda; several respondents even mentioned a few possible implicit (veiled or covered) goals that the centralisation of governance may perhaps serve. Unfortunatley, in most cases our respondents eventually rejected the hypothesis of the existence of a hidden agenda as based on probably unfounded rumours. However, even by mentioning these and feeling the need to deny their existence they acknowledge that these hypothetic implicit goals behind the centralisation are not completely absurd.

We just enumerate a few of such popular veiled or hidden goals that were suggested during the second round of our research interviews:

— producing cheap labour force with some specific skills but with a low level of general skills (workers for the future labour market of a low value added country envisioned as a huge assembly line),
— deliberately worsening the standards in public schools in order to create masses of potential voters susceptible to propaganda,
— cutting the education budget/reducing public expenditures spent on education,
— worsening the standards in the public sector so as to divert students coming from middle class families towards church schools that are better financed that the public ones, have better (and better paid) teachers and standards, and (due to the different regulations regarding admission and selection in public and private schools) can be in some cases less inclusive (especially towards ethnic minorities) than public schools (see Ercse, 2018 for more on state-encouraged church-assisted segregation in the school system),
— making the education system more selective and thus creating obstacles to social mobility in order to conserve the present social structure.

In order to keep this article reasonably short we will deal here in some detail with only two of these hypothetical hidden goals.

Cutting expenditures

Although the majority of education policy makers and education administration officials denied during the 2014 round of research interviews that cutting expenditures was one of the reasons of the reform of education governance, the data in Semjén (2018) show that in the first two years after the introduction of the new system of governance, current per student education expenditures fell (p. 24.) However, later they were increased little by little.

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tion of the new, centralised system in the whole country, the lack of any feasibility study and thorough impact analysis, the lack of clearly defined intended outcomes and expected benefits, translatable into targets that can be monitored easily, the lack of accountability (a consequence of the lack of an organised monitoring process) and the frequent *ad hoc* modifications of the system as a response to its reported problems.

Cutting education expenditures may be a completely legitimate government goal in case of economic austerity and a need for budget cuts. As one of our respondents said, one of the goals is a more efficient and cost-effective system of institutional management, and if this goal is achieved it may mean smaller education expenditures, i.e. cutting the education budget. This is especially true if due to demographic trends the school age population decline.

One of our interviewees, who used to be the leading education politician of FIDESZ from the mid-90s for some 10–15 years, explained that cutting budgetary resources was a means to bring public education under stricter control. It can also be seen as an example of a typical Orbán-strategy concerning public services: as a first step resources are cut drastically, and when there are already really serious problems in the everyday operations of the services in the sector, money starts to dribble back bit by bit from the budget to the sector. This strategy may help the government to find where the limit of inoperativeness or collapse really is, and may be especially useful in situations when the politicians responsible for running the sector are not really trusted by the prime minister and thought to exaggerate sectoral needs and the lack of resources.

Worsening the standards in public schools in order to produce more voters susceptible to government propaganda

Low-quality education as a means of providing voters for the government may sound as a phrase taken for some dystopia. Nevertheless, it is obvious from detailed election results data that FIDESZ is much stronger in villages and rural regions than in bigger cities or the capital. It is also a well-known fact, that the educational attainment of the population in rural regions is lower than in bigger cities and the capital. However as voting in elections are secret data, we will need exit polls or public opinion polls to determine the composition of a party's voters. These data can show i.a. that FIDESZ is much stronger in older cohorts than in younger ones.

Pék (2023) presents the results of a recent public opinion poll which was conducted by asking a relatively large (roughly 7200 potential voters strong) sample of randomly selected voting age people via telephone interviews in the first quarter of 2023 about their party preferences.[18] The sample was representative according to gender, age group, educational attainment and type of settlement.

Since a huge number of parties operate (and an even bigger number used to participate in the elections) in Hungary, we classified them in the Appendix into

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[18] They were asked which party they would vote if the parliamentary election was held that Sunday. If they could not give an answer to this open question, they were given a list of parties and could select one item from the list (provided that they were willing to answer this question).

four groups to make our figures in the Appendix easily comprehensible. The first group contains the two parties of the populist FIDESZ-KDNP coalition that have governed the country since 2010. These allied parties run for parliamentary seats jointly, using a joint electoral list. The so-called group of far-right parties contains two competing nationalist parties, Jobbik-Konzervatívok (The Better one – Conservatives) and Mi hazánk (Our Homeland). The difference between the political ideology of these parties and the ruling FIDESZ-KDNP is not too significant according to some observers and political scientists, but as they fight for basically the same voters, they are more rivals than allies. Nevertheless, on some issues these extreme right parties may vote together with the MPs of the ruling coalition.

The group of "opposition" parties (DK, MSZP, MKKP, Momentum, Párbeszéd-Zöldek, LMP) is a rather mixed lot (socialists, social liberals, greens, liberals, etc.), although some of them may support a common candidate in an election. Some of these parties have already lost most of their previous voters, while some others never ever had many voters. All in all, there are at least 2–3 parties in this group that have little or no chance to win parliamentary seats if they run separately.

The group of other small parties contains MMN and A Nép Pártján, and many other minuscule parties without any chance to get a seat.

In Figure 1 of the Appendix there is a shocking contrast between the education profile of committed FIDESZ-KDNP voters and committed voters for the "opposition" parties. While the share of FIDESZ-KDNP voters steeply diminishes as educational attainment becomes higher, in the group of "opposition" parties we can see an opposite tendency: their share of voters grows as educational attainment increases.

If we compare the composition of the voting age population according to educational attainment (Figure 2) to that of the committed FIDESZ-KDNP voters (Figure 3) we can see immediately that while in the voting age population as a whole the share of those with completed upper secondary (ISCED 3A or 3B level) education or with a tertiary degree taken together is close to 60 percent, amongst committed FIDESZ-KDNP voters this share is much-much lower, just a bit above 40 percent, while the share of those with general school education only or with ISCED 3C level secondary education (i.e. vocational school) taken together is well above 50 percent. So FIDESZ-KDNP voters are on average much less educated than the average voter, and lagging far behind the education attainment of the voters favouring the "opposition" parties.[19] Let's not jump to

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[19] Pék (2023) also demonstrates that the average FIDESZ-KDNP voter is not only less educated than the average voter, but is also much older. While in the voting age population the share of those above 50 y. of age is only 48 percent, amongst committed FIDESZ-KDNP voters this share is 59 percent. At the same time the share of younger people (18-39) amongst FIDESZ-KDNP voters is 41 percent, while the same share in total population above voting age seems to be 52 percent (p. 9).

conclusions too early! Perhaps these differences in the education profiles of voters of different parties are not enough to make an impact on education policy: however, taken this together with the supposedly high demand for low-skill labour force[20] perhaps can somewhat explain some surprising features (e.g. reducing the length of compulsory education by 2 years, introducing an extremely selective, centrally administered entrance examination for children wanting to enter ISCED 3A and 3B level upper secondary education, etc.) of the Hungarian education policy after 2010.

Appendix

Note: In Figure 1, Figure 2 and Figure 3 below the term „secondary education" refers to ISCED 3A and ISCED 3B level programs that lead to school leaving examinations entitling the students to enter higher (tertiary) education (ISCED5 level). Vocational school refers here to ISCED 3C programs not entitling their participants to enter higher education.
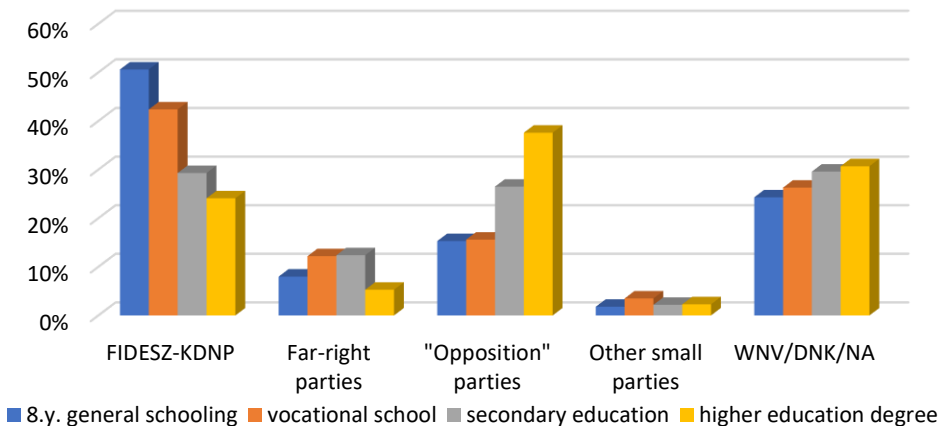

Figure 1
Party preferences* according to educational attainment

* Preferences are measured here as the percentage of committed voters for the 4 groups of parties in each of the educational attainment categories shown in the Figure. The percentages refer

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[20] Please note that this hypothesis is false according to any labour economist that can be taken seriously. Nevertheless, the influential president of the Hungarian Chamber of Commerce and Industry has been promoting this view for a long time and complaining of a shortage of skilled workers and a surplus of higher education graduates. However, the labour market shortage of low skill workers is mostly due to the low level of Hungarian wages in uncompetitive companies and the free movement of labour force. Wage premium data, however, did not and do not support the concept of graduate surplus and over-education et all.

to the whole voting age population, including also those not wanting to participate in the elections, or those who are uncertain or want to hide their preferences. (WNV stands for „would not vote", DNK for „does not know" and NA for „no answer".) Educational attainment refers to the highest level of education that an individual has completed.
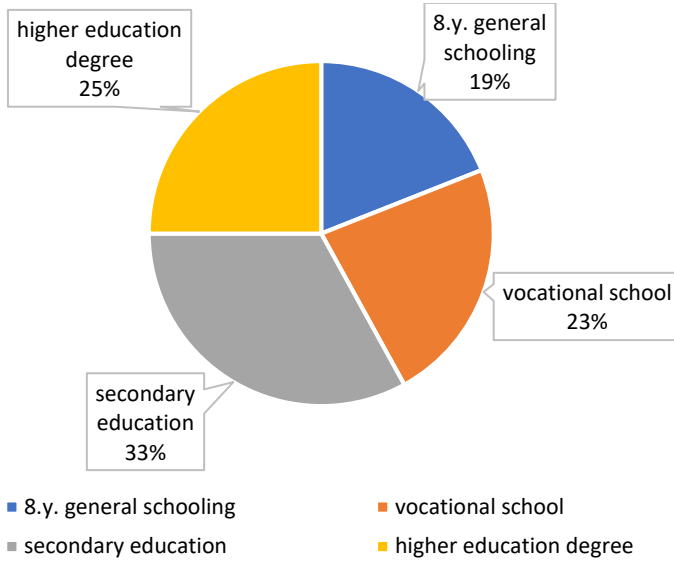

Figure 2
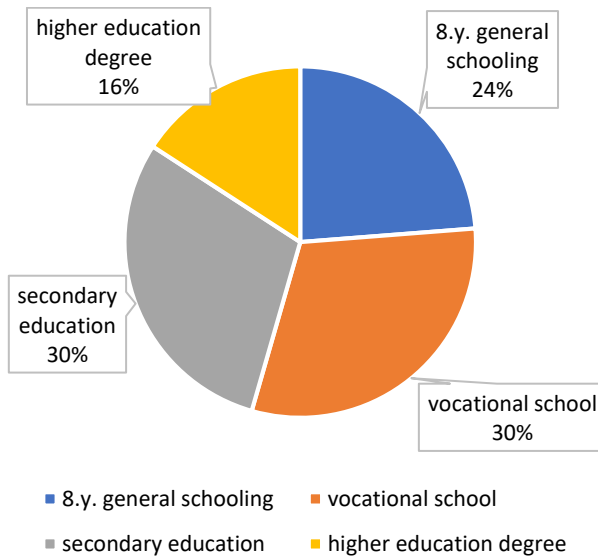Educational attainment of voting age (18+) population

Figure 3
Educational attainment of committed FIDESZ-KDNP voters

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(Re)centralizacja zarządzania oświatą na Węgrzech: jej przyczyny, deklarowane cele, motywy i potencjalne ukryte cele

Streszczenie

Po utworzeniu na Węgrzech w 1990 r. gmin (samorządów lokalnych) i władz na szczeblu powiatów, do końca 2012 r. te wybrane organy prowadziły, zarządzały i finansowały edukację publiczną, przy wsparciu finansowym rządu centralnego. W tym zdecentralizowanym systemie różnice w zamożności i dochodach gmin doprowadziły do znacznych nierówności w finansowaniu i wynikach szkół, a także w osiągnięciach w nauce dzieci do nich uczęszczających. Objęty w 2010 roku rząd koalicji FIDESZ-KDNP radykalnie scentralizował system zarządzania i finansowania szkół, twierdząc, że rozwiąże to problemy systemu. W oparciu o duży zbiór wywiadów badawczych i wyniki wcześniejszych badań w naszym artykule analizujemy deklarowane cele i motywy tej reformy. Z naszych wywiadów wysuwa się wniosek, że zapewnienie każdemu dziecku równych szans w edukacji wydaje się być nadrzędnym celem centralizacji, ale istnieją jeszcze trzy inne, w tym stworzenie bardziej wydajnego i opłacalnego systemu zarządzania instytucjonalnego. Jednak pewne cechy wyboru tych celów oraz pozornie całkowity brak monitorowania ich realizacji, w połączeniu z faktem, że niezależne badania wykazały już, że centralizacja nie była w stanie osiągnąć swojego głównego deklarowanego założenia, mogą uzasadniać twierdzenie, że służyło to jedynie jako przykrywka lub pretekst i prawdopodobnie istnieje ukryty program, który dla rządu jest ważniejszy niż publicznie deklarowane cele. Próbowaliśmy znaleźć możliwe realne motywy i ukryte cele na podstawie wywiadów z byłymi politykami, badaczami edukacji, doradcami i dyrektorami szkół. Chociaż istnienia takich celów nie da się precyzyjnie udowodnić, znaleźliśmy kilka okoliczności, które mogą je uzasadniać.

Słowa kluczowe: zarządzanie edukacją; centralizacja; równość szans; wyniki testów.

Zasady przygotowywania publikacji

I. Wymagania podstawowe

1. Dokument powinien zostać dostarczony w postaci elektronicznej (adres mailowy: pe@ujd.edu.pl) w pliku typu „doc" lub „docx" (program Word).
2. Format: A4 standardowego maszynopisu (marginesy: 25 mm), czcionka Times New Roman, 12 punktów, odstęp 1,5 wiersza.
3. Stopień pisma w materiałach uzupełniających (tabele, przypisy, podpisy) powinien być o 2 punkty mniejszy od stopnia pisma tekstu głównego (10 pkt). Maksymalna szerokość tabel i rysunków to 12,5 cm przy układzie pionowym i 18 cm przy układzie poziomym.
4. Imię i nazwisko autora w lewym górnym rogu, poniżej afiliacja; tytuł tekstu wyśrodkowany i wytłuszczony.
5. Do artykułu należy dołączyć: jego streszczenie w języku polskim i angielskim oraz słowa kluczowe (maksymalnie 5 terminów) w języku polskim i angielskim.
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7. Przy wykorzystaniu jakichkolwiek materiałów pochodzących z innych publikacji należy stosować się do przepisów wynikających z prawa autorskiego.

II. Tekst główny

1. Akapity należy rozpoczynać wcięciem ustawionym jednakowo dla całego dokumentu (za pomocą linijki górnej bądź w oknie formatowania akapitu).
2. Dokładne **cytaty** wprowadza się za pomocą cudzysłowów „drukarskich". Cytat w cytacie oznacza się cudzysłowem «franuskim». Cudzysłów francuski należy wstawiać z tabeli znaków (polecenie: wstaw symbol). Można też stosować oddzielny akapit o mniejszym stopniu pisma.
3. Omawianą leksykę zapisuje się pochyłą odmianą czcionki (*kursywą*).
4. Odmianą pochyłą (*kursywą*) zapisuje się ponadto: tytuły dzieł drukowanych (*O dobrej i złej polszczyźnie*, *Hamlet*), wtrącenia obcojęzyczne (*à propos*, *ex lege*), łacińskie nazwy systematyczne (*Corvus corvus*), włoskie terminy muzyczne (*legato*).
5. Partie tekstu można wyróżniać przez **pogrubienie** lub r o z s t rz e l e n i e. Nie stosuje się wyróżnienia poprzez podkreślenie. Należy również unikać łączenia ***kilku rodzajów*** wyróżnień. Wyróżnienia powinny być stosowane jednolicie i konsekwentnie w obrębie danej pracy.

III. Zasady podawania informacji bibliograficznej

1. Obowiązuje styl APA. W tekście umieszcza się odsyłacze bibliograficzne, na końcu artykułu – bibliografię.
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W przypadku dokładnych cytatów podaje się też numer strony oddzielony od roku wydania przecinkiem, np. (Łukaszewicz, 2005, s. 74). Jeśli kilka prac tego samego autora opublikowano w tym samym roku, należy po dacie dodać litery „a", „b", „c" (bez spacji).

3. Nie stosuje się formy tamże/ibidem. Nazwisko autora podaje się za każdym razem. Prace dwóch autorów zapisuje się z przywołaniem obu nazwisk (Prigogine, Stenger, 1990). Prace 3–5 autorów: w pierwszym przywołaniu podaje się wszystkie nazwiska, w kolejnych tylko pierwsze i formułę „i in." Prace sześciu i więcej autorów: zarówno w pierwszym, jak i kolejnych przywołaniach podaje się tylko nazwisko pierwszego autora i formułę „i in.".

IV. Przykłady opisu bibliograficznego

1. Monografia

Klus-Stańska, D. (2010). *Dydaktyka wobec chaosu pojęć i zdarzeń*. Warszawa: Wydawnictwo Akademickie ŻAK.

Bandura, A. (1973). *Aggression: A social learning analysis*. New Jersey: Prentice-Hill.

2. Artykuł w pracy zbiorowej lub wydawnictwie nieperiodycznym

Bakuła, K. (2006). Efekt motyla, swobodnie mówiąc. W: K. Bakuła, D. Heck (red.), *Efekt motyla: humaniści wobec teorii chaosu* (s. 24–78). Wrocław: Wydawnictwo Uniwersytetu Wrocławskiego.

Smetana, J. (1991). Adolescents' and mothers' evaluations of justifications forconflicts. W: R. Paikoff (red.), *Shared views in the family during adolescence: New directions for child development* (s. 252–273). San Fracisco: Jossey-Bass.

3. Praca pod redakcją

Bakuła, K., Heck, D. (red.). (2006). *Efekt motyla. Humaniści wobec teorii chaosu*. Wrocław: Wydawnictwo Uniwersytetu Wrocławskiego.

Paikoff, R. (red.), *Shared views in the family during adolescence: New directions for child development.* San Fracisco: Jossey-Bass.

4. Artykuł w czasopiśmie

Serafin, K. (2013). Aksjologiczny wymiar tożsamości podmiotu osobowego w ujęciu Marii Gołaszewskiej. *Świdnickie Studia Teologiczne*, *10*, 319–331.

De Wied, M., Branje, S., Meeus, W. (2007). Empathy and conflict resolution in friendship relations among adolescents. *Aggressive Behavior*, *33*(1), 48–55. http://dx.doi.org/10.1002/ab.20166.

Jeśli artykuł posiada numer DOI, należy podać go na końcu opisu bibliograficznego (po kropce), w formie aktywnego hiperlinku.

Rules for preparing publications

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2. Format: A4 standard typescript (margins: 25 mm), Times New Roman, 12 points, 1.5 line spacing.
3. The font size in supplementary materials (tables, footnotes, captions) should be 2 points lower than the font size of the main text (10 points). The maximum width of tables and figures is 12.5 cm vertically and 18 cm horizontally.
4. Author's name in the upper left corner, affiliation below; the text's title is centred and bold.
5. The article should be accompanied by: its summary in Polish and English and keywords (maximum 5 (five) terms) in Polish and English.
6. The author himself prepares summaries in Polish and English. The outlines should be a shortened version of the article. Each attached abstract should not be longer than 200 words. The article's title should be placed above the text of the abstract (if the abstract is in English, the title should also be translated into English).
7. When using any materials from other publications, the provisions of copyright law must be observed.

II. Main text

1. Paragraphs should be started with indentation set the same for the entire document (using the top ruler or in the paragraph formatting window).
2. Exact quotations are entered using "print" quotation marks. In addition, a reference within a quote is marked with «French» quotation marks. French quotation marks should be inserted from the character table (command: insert symbol). You can also use a separate paragraph with a smaller font size.
3. The lexicon in question is written in italics (*italics*).
4. The following items are also written in *italics*: titles of printed works (*O dobrej i złej polszczyźnie*, *Hamlet*), foreign-language insertions (*à propos*, *ex lege*), systematic Latin names (*Corvus corvus*), Italian musical terms (*legato*).
5. Parts of the text may be distinguished by making them **bold** or s p a c e d   o u t . Emphasis by underlining is not used. You should also avoid combining ***several types*** of distinctions. Instead, distinctions should be applied uniformly and consistently within a given work.

III. Rules for providing bibliographic information

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2. A bibliographic reference in the text consists of the author's surname and the date of publication of the source in round brackets, separated by a comma, e.g. (Łukaszewicz, 2005). In

the case of exact quotations, the page number is also given, separated from the year of publication by a comma, e.g. (Łukaszewicz, 2005, p. 74). If several works by the same author were published in the same year, add the letters "a", "b", and "c" (without spaces) after the date.

3.   The form ibidem/ibidem is not used. Instead, the name of the author is given each time. Works by two authors are listed with both names mentioned (Prigogine, Stenger, 1990). Works by 3–5 authors: in the first citation, all names are given; in subsequent citations, only the first and the formula "et al." Works by six or more authors: in both the first and following citations, only the name of the first author and the formula "et al." are given.

IV. Examples of bibliographic description

1.   Monograph

Klus-Stańska, D. (2010). *Dydaktyka wobec chaosu pojęć i zdarzeń*. Warszawa: Wydawnictwo Akademickie ŻAK.

Bandura, A. (1973). *Aggression: A social learning analysis*. New Jersey: Prentice-Hill.

2.   An article in a collective work or non-periodical publication

Bakula, K. (2006). Efekt motyla, swobodnie mówiąc. In: K. Bakuła, D. Heck (eds.), *Efekt motyla: humaniści wobec teorii chaosu* (pp. 24–78). Wrocław: Wydawnictwo Uniwersytetu Wrocławskiego.

Smetana, J. (1991). Adolescents' and mothers' evaluations of justifications forconflicts. In: R. Paikoff (ed.), *Shared views in the family during adolescence: New directions for child development* (pp. 252–273). San Fracisco: Jossey-Bass.

3.   Edited work

Bakuła, K., Heck, D. (eds.). (2006). *Efekt motyla: humaniści wobec teorii chaosu.* Wrocław: Wydawnictwo Uniwersytetu Wrocławskiego.

Paikoff, R., (ed.), *Shared views in the family during adolescence: New directions for child development.* San Fracisco: Jossey-Bass.

4.   Journal article

Serafin, K. (2013). Aksjologiczny wymiar tożsamości podmiotu osobowego w ujęciu Marii Gołaszewskiej. *Świdnickie Studia Teologiczne*, *10*, 319–331.

De Wied, M., Branje, S., Meeus, W. (2007). Empathy and conflict resolution in friendship relations among adolescents. *Aggressive Behavior*, *33*(1), 48–55. http://dx.doi.org/10.1002/ab.20166.

If the article has a DOI number, it should be given at the end of the bibliographic description (after a period) in the form of an active hyperlink.