A TEACHER IN THE CONTEMPORARY MULTICULTURAL WORLD

pod redakcją naukową Kingi Łapot-Dzierwy
A TEACHER
IN THE CONTEMPORARY
MULTICULTURAL WORLD
A TEACHER IN THE CONTEMPORARY MULTICULTURAL WORLD

pod redakcją naukową Kingi Łapot-Dzierwy

Wydawnictwo Naukowe Uniwersytetu Pedagogicznego Kraków 2013
Introduction

In the contemporary world, the cultural and social changes are becoming more and more dynamic. Extensive migrations as well as social and political transformations considerably influence the educational processes (including teacher training) not only in Poland but all over the world.

Education systems are forced to search for innovative solutions which can meet new expectations. Among numerous problems, there comes the old, yet vital one: how to train teachers, how to prepare them to use innovative methods in the contemporary, often multicultural, school community? There also comes a question whether teachers are ready for changes which require them to improve their competence and constantly gain knowledge.

The book “A Teacher in the Contemporary Multicultural World” expands on and completes the reflections included in the monograph “Teacher Training – Models, Tendencies and Challenges of the Multicultural World”. It is a collection of essays written by authors who deal with theory and practice of training teachers of all levels of education.

The work is divided into two parts. The first one, “Contemporary trends in the teacher training in Europe”, consists of three essays that present three different models of teacher training. S.V. Shmalyey touches upon the issue of multicultural communication in Ukraine. He describes experiences of introducing a special program that improves students’ qualifications in that area.

Warud Jayusi presents a program of education for peace realized in Israel. He points out the heart of the matter, describing how important this model of education is for supporting and developing tolerance and acceptance of cultural and social differences, especially in communities in which ethnic minorities live in constant conflict.
Éva Kovácsné Bakosi presents experiences in teacher training in the context of implementing the Bologna Process in Hungary. The second part, “Reflections on teacher education and teacher professional practice in Poland”, includes essays that focus on the professional attitudes of teachers, their professional awareness and the anxieties resulting from the inevitable transformation.

Iwona Czaja-Chudyba, Maria Kocór, Anna Karłyk-Ćwik, Paweł Ochwat, Michał Tomczak, Maria Kmita, and Krystyna Celarek discuss vital problems of self-reflection and self-criticism of teachers, as well as their willingness to change. The considerations made by the authors include important conclusions which result from the presented research outcome. The authors concentrate on issues which seem universal, thus solutions that they propose may be applied in various educational systems.

The book was published thanks to the help from the authorities of the Pedagogical University of Krakow. My special thanks go to Prof. Joanna Michalak and Prof. Andrzej Murzyn for their detailed reviews as well as kind remarks and suggestions which greatly contributed to the substantive value of this study.

Kinga Łapot-Dzierwa
Part I
Contemporary trends in the teacher training in Europe
A.V. Shmalyey
Kherson State University, Ukraine

Formation of students’ readiness for dialogue in the multicultural environment

INTRODUCTION

Contemporary trends in political and economic changes in the world have led to an increased interest in foreign cultures and languages, accompanied by examination and comparison of customs and traditions of different nations. The perception of cultural variety is characterized by the presence of dialogue that is conducted on equal terms and whose primary goal is to keep humane mutual relations between the representatives of various national cultures, and to accept the principles of tolerance and cultural pluralism (Samovar, Porter, Stefani 1998: 303).

The modern education system should be constructed on the basis of the dialogue of cultures, should expand students’ knowledge of other nations, form tolerance and readiness for productive interethnic and multicultural interactions (Персикова 2006: 224; Тер-Минасова 2000: 260).

The course syllabus should promote mutual understanding and cooperation between people and nations regardless of their racial, ethnic, cultural and religious identity, should promote the formation of universal values among future professionals on the basis of mastering universal values of the world culture.

The given tasks entail a number of changes and additions to the existing requirements concerning the level of expertise of professionals, including foreign language teaching (Мусина 2004: 155). Establishing mutual understanding between nations and providing access to the variety of world culture become priorities. There is an actualization
of the process of multicultural communication. The status of a foreign language-speaking expert as the subject of the dialogue of cultures rises depending on the society’s need for the knowledge of foreign languages (Босова 2000: 3–8).

Apart from using a foreign language to acquire professional knowledge, students should also purposefully develop their ability to perceive other cultures and their aspirations in a tolerant way in order to promote the decision of questions of national and interethnic character. The problem of developing readiness for multicultural communication among high school students attending non-linguistic specialties is staticized (Паперная 2002: 215).

The study and analysis of literature in philosophy, psychology and pedagogy allow us to come to a conclusion that insufficient attention is paid to intercultural communication and that the phenomenon has not come under enough scrutiny. The present reality shows that it is necessary to employ pedagogy, psychology, linguistics, and the adjacent sciences to conduct research on intercultural communication. We based the research on the works founded on the theory and techniques of vocational training (Гальскова 2004: 3–8; Byram, Nikols, Stevens 2001: 283); and communication theories (Елизарова 2001: 37; Тер-Минасова 2000: 260). Theories and concepts which investigate phenomena such as culture, communication, language, tolerance, and multicultural communication have taken priority in our research. (Библер 1990: 289; Милославская 2001: 14–17; Тер-Минасова 2000: 260).

The urgency to increase the efficiency of developing readiness for intercultural communication among students attending non-linguistic university courses who participated in the research results from the necessity of sanctioning some contradictions between:

- The realization of the multicultural communication of modern professionals and the public need for forming a new generation of highly skilled professionals who are qualified to solve practical problems of mutual relations of various national cultures on the basis of the principles of tolerance;
- The need of universities for theoretical substantiation and scientific methodological management of the process of preparing future professionals for the realization of multicultural communication,
insufficient theoretical preparation of the content and structures of the examined process, as well as the need for techniques of its effective development in the process of foreign language speaking.

Urgency of the researched problem as well as its insufficient theoretical and practical readiness have formed the basis for defining the topic of our research.

The purpose of the research is to come up with a theoretical substantiation of the model of effective development of readiness for intercultural communication among students who attend non-linguistic university courses.

In the course of our research, we analyzed academic aspects of the researched problem: we specified the essence of the basic concepts and substantial characteristics of readiness for intercultural communication as well as provided theoretical proof for a set of pedagogical conditions that promote increased efficiency of developing readiness for intercultural communication among students who attend non-linguistic university courses.

The analysis of the academic aspects of the problem was preceded by our specification of the theoretical preconditions of the research, in particular, of phenomena such as culture, communication, multicultural communication, language, a linguistic picture of the world, readiness and readiness for multicultural communication from the philosophical, psychological, sociological, pedagogical, and linguistic points of view.

The fullest definition of intercultural communication, in our opinion, was created by I.I. Haleevoj who describes this process as a set of specific interactions between people belonging to different cultures and languages. Intercultural communication occurs between interacting partners who not only belong to different cultures, but also realize the fact that each of them is different and perceives the interlocutor’s allogeneity (Плужник 2003: 216).

To sum up, science considers intercultural communication as a process performed by carriers of various languages and, hence, representatives of various cultures, with the purpose of mutual understanding or confrontation driven by purposes, tasks, motives, and installations of communicators; a functionally-dictated communicative interaction of people; adequate mutual understanding of two participants of the communicative act who belong to different national
cultures (Босова 2004: 3–8); a set of various forms of mutual relations between individuals and groups belonging to different cultures; a complex multivariate phenomenon of interpersonal interaction of representatives of different language cultures.

We consider readiness of students attending non-linguistic university courses for intercultural communication as an ability to activate potential opportunities, to make use of accumulated experience, knowledge and skills, and to make independent decisions within the framework of intercultural communication.

We define the development of readiness of students for intercultural communication as a multi-sided and complete process described by the presence of social, ethnic and psychological as well as pedagogical factors.

The model of developing students’ readiness that we created includes a target unit, a theoretical and methodological unit, an organizational and technological unit, and a productive estimated unit. The developed model provides explanation of the dialectic dependence between elements of the researched problem.

The target unit includes the presence of a specific goal – the development of readiness for intercultural communication among students attending non-linguistic university courses – and includes the following structural components: emotional, cognitive, motivational, axiological, and processed activity. The theoretical and methodological unit of our model considers various approaches to the organization of the development of readiness for intercultural communication: sociocultural, linguo-pedagogical, ethno-pedagogical, personal, functional, explanatory, and critical.

The structure of the organizational and technological unit includes a set of pedagogical conditions of developing readiness for intercultural communication such as principles, methods, reception and the means, which aim at the realization of a set of pedagogical conditions.

The productive estimated unit includes the use of levels, criteria, parameters and the psychological and pedagogical diagnostic technique. The intended result of using the model is a transition to a higher level of development of readiness for intercultural communication among students attending non-linguistic university courses.
The model that we suggested acts as means of organizing practical actions aimed at developing readiness for intercultural communication among students, therefore it is pragmatic in character. The model is presented on Figure 1.

**Fig. 1.** The model of developing readiness for intercultural communication among students attending non-linguistic university courses
In our work, readiness of students attending non-linguistic university courses for intercultural communication is treated as a difficult but professionally significant personal trait. It is possible to talk about readiness for multicultural communication only on condition that the identified components are highly integrated.

The analysis of the investigated problem allowed us to identify the following pedagogical conditions of developing readiness for intercultural communication among students attending non-linguistic university courses:

- The development of multicultural potential of students;
- The use of the project method as means of developing readiness for intercultural communication among students in the conditions of multicultural environment of a university;
- Introduction of a professional program, whose base element is the course “Features of Business Communication in the Field of Intercultural Communication”, to the syllabus of the basic program of a foreign language.

We identify the development of multicultural potential of students as the first pedagogical condition.

Multicultural potential can be determined through the following set of traits inherent in a person: gnosiological, axiological, communicative, creative, and empathy that allows a person to be in constant contact with representatives of other cultures.

Many scientists define multicultural potential as an integrative characteristic of a person which assumes the presence of humanistic values, broad knowledge in the field of other cultures, as well as communicative skills, creativity, empathy, and tolerance.

In this research, we consider using the project method as the second pedagogical condition of developing readiness for intercultural communication among students attending non-linguistic university courses.

The project method raises educational, cultural and cognitive activity of students, develops their independence, creates the atmosphere of trust and support, provides constant feedback, and increases interest in and motivation for the realization of intercultural dialogue. It confirms the expediency of using the project method as means of saturating the multicultural educational space.
The third pedagogical condition recognizes that psychological, pedagogical and methodological subjects at university do not give the full idea of the character of intercultural communication. Besides, as the results of our research have shown, there is no purposeful work on the development of readiness for intercultural communication. Our research specifies that the special course that we developed is a tool for acquainting students of non-linguistic university courses with the features of business dialogue related to multicultural communication; it allows them to interpret various kinds of communicative behaviours of representatives of different national cultures, as well as helps students to acquire the skill of using theoretical knowledge to overcome multicultural barriers during intercultural communication at the decision of professional tasks.

Also, the development of readiness of students for intercultural communication is a purposeful, multi-sided process characterized by a set of social, ethnic, psychological and pedagogical factors which form a system of pedagogical conditions.

The purpose of the experimental work we conducted was to check to what degree each pedagogical condition, as well as their whole set, influences the efficiency of developing readiness for intercultural communication among students attending non-linguistic university courses within the framework of the created model.

In the process of organizing and accomplishing our experimental work, we relied on the following principles that reflect the general requirements of realizing pedagogical experiments:

- The principle of a complete study of the pedagogical phenomena;
- The principle of objectivity;
- The principle of efficiency.

In realizing the technique of developing readiness for intercultural communication among students attending non-linguistic university courses, we relied on the principles of the examined process which we had theoretically proved: the principle of cultural conformity, the principle of the dialogue of cultures, the multicultural principle, the humanization principle, the complementation principle, and the principle of cultural relativity.

The experimental work was conducted among students of Khereson State University during foreign language classes in which they took
part, and during a special course “Features of Business Communication in the Field of Intercultural Communication” (experimental groups). Separate directions of the technique of developing readiness for intercultural communication among students attending non-linguistic university courses were approved at the agricultural university. A total number of 505 students participated in the experiment. Experimental work was conducted in three stages between the years 2005 and 2009. According to the requirements that apply to experimental work, the program, whose content is presented in Table 1, was developed. Because the subject of our research is readiness of students attending non-linguistic university courses for intercultural communication, we have identified the following components as the criteria that most precisely describe the readiness for intercultural communication and the level of its development: emotional, motivational, axiological, cognitive and processed activity criteria.

*Table 1.* The program of experimental work on developing readiness for intercultural communication among students of non-linguistic university courses

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Ascertaining stage (2005–2006)</th>
<th>Purposes</th>
<th>Methods</th>
<th>Results</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Purpose</td>
<td>To study academic aspects of the problem of developing readiness for intercultural communication among students attending non-linguistic university courses in the practice of work of higher educational institutions and to develop the most effective directions of its decision; To specify substantial characteristics of readiness of students attending non-linguistic university courses for intercultural communication and to develop the diagnostic program on this basis; To define levels, develop criteria and parameters describing these levels, to define techniques of diagnosing them; To develop a technique of realizing the pedagogical conditions within the framework of the model of developing readiness for intercultural communication among students attending non-linguistic university courses.</td>
<td>Questioning students, supervision, testing, methods of mathematical statistics and computer data processing that confirm the results of the experiment.</td>
<td>The following elements should be developed: the diagnostic program, the technique of realizing pedagogical conditions within the framework of the model of developing readiness for intercultural communication among students attending non-linguistic university courses.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
### Forming stage (2006–2007)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Purposes</th>
<th>Methods</th>
<th>Results</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>
| 1. To specify methodical positions of the realization of each pedagogical condition;  
2. To experimentally prove the influence of each pedagogical condition and their whole set (i.e. techniques) on the development of readiness for intercultural communication among students attending non-linguistic university courses within the framework of the model of the given process;  
3. To analyse the course and the results of the experiment. | Supervision, testing, the analysis of the products of students’ activity, search and training experiments, statistical methods of primary processing of the results. | The following elements are determined: substantive provisions of the technique of realizing pedagogical conditions within the framework of the model of developing readiness for intercultural communication among students attending non-linguistic university courses, efficiency of the pedagogical conditions checked experimentally. |

### Productive stage (2007–2009)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Purposes</th>
<th>Methods</th>
<th>Results</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>
| 1. To conduct theoretical judgment and interpretation of the experimental data;  
2. To issue results, to formulate conclusions;  
3. To develop methodical recommendations for teachers about developing readiness for intercultural communication of the future experts. | The theoretical analysis, generalization, ordering of materials; statistical methods of secondary processing of the results of the experiment (methods of proving a hypothesis); methods of computer processing of the results of the pedagogical experiment; methods of evident representation of the results of the experiment. | The final wording of substantive provisions of the dissertational research, presentation of the technique of realizing pedagogical conditions within the framework of the model of developing readiness for intercultural communication among students of non-linguistic university courses, introduction of the results into the pedagogical process of Kherson State University. |

On the basis of the results of the research, we developed a technique focused on the development of each component of intercultural communication (emotional, motivational, axiological, cognitive and processed activity) and introduced it into the teaching practice.
University students realized tasks that correspond to the particular purpose: mastering the basic concepts, acquiring knowledge and skills related to intercultural communication, developing a multicultural outlook to form a system of values based on the principle of the dialogue of cultures, as a way of simultaneous training in foreign language and foreign culture by comparison to the native language and culture; creation of a situation of success by using a foreign language; development of empathy by using a foreign language.

The tasks presented above were realized through the following principles: the principle of cultural conformity, the principle of the dialogue of cultures, the multicultural principle, the humanization principle, the subsidiary principle, the cultural relativism principle.

In the course of the work, we selected a number of methods used to train intercultural communication: the method of self-estimation, the method of simulation, the method of role-playing, the method of interactive modelling, the heuristic method, the portfolio method. In our opinion, these methods realize our basic purpose, i.e. the development of readiness for intercultural communication among students attending non-linguistic university courses, and correspond to the set of pedagogical conditions that we developed to increase the efficiency of developing readiness for intercultural communication among students attending non-linguistic university courses.

The analysis of the biographical material has shown that the majority of students (up to 81.4%) considers readiness for multicultural communication the leading characteristic of a modern professional. Students emphasize that the mastery of a language opens an opportunity for dialogue with foreign professionals, allows them to keep abreast of modern scientific achievements in their professional field. At the same time, many students (up to 65.8%) estimate their readiness for multicultural communication as quite low. As the reason for this situation they mention their dissatisfaction with the organization of educational process. 35.9% of the students answered that they are not satisfied with the work on developing readiness for intercultural communication, 24.9% of the students noted that the existing organization of the educational process only partially promotes their development of readiness for intercultural communication and
only 39.2% of the students were satisfied with the process of their preparation for multicultural communication at the university.

The social distance has been registered at a low level. 33% of the students would not like foreigners to immigrate to Ukraine, 27% would not accept a marriage with a foreigner, 17% would not like to live in one neighbourhood with them, 10% would not allow foreigners to come to Ukraine as tourists, 13% did not show a desire to work with them. Only 37% of the students showed full acceptance of foreigners in all respects (to be their close friends, to live in one neighbourhood, to work together, to accept them as immigrants and tourists). The high level of uncertainty and anxiety experienced by students during dialogue with pupils of other cultures (67%) has shown the degree of empathy of students. Students in dialogue with representatives of other nationalities experience excitement and anxiety – 61%; try to avoid dialogue and contact with people of other nationality – 54%. The high degree of excitement and uncertainty in the dialogue with representatives of other cultures indicates the absence of openness, trust, tolerance, emotional stability, empathy, i.e. an insufficiently advanced emotional component of students’ multicultural communication.

In the first experimental group designated by the symbol E-1, we checked the influence of the first condition (the development of multicultural potential of students) and the third condition (the introduction of additional professional educational programme, whose base element is the special course “Features of Business Dialogue in the Field of the Intercultural Communication”, into the basic program of the foreign language) on the efficiency of the functioning of the model of developing readiness for intercultural communication that we created.

In the second experimental group designated by the symbol E-2, we checked the influence of the second condition (the use of the method of projects as means of developing students’ readiness for intercultural communication in the conditions of the multicultural environment of the university) and the third condition (the introduction of additional professional educational programme, whose base element is the special course “Features of Business Dialogue in the Field of the Intercultural Communication”, into the basic program of the foreign language) on
the efficiency of the functioning of the model of developing readiness for intercultural communication that we developed. In the control group (K-1) the work was carried out within the framework of the traditional training.

The difference in the results of the experimental and control groups convincingly proves that the selected pedagogical conditions influence the quality of the organization of developing readiness for intercultural communication, however the value of $\chi^2$ criterion is not statistically significant (see Table 2).

Table 2. The value of the $\chi^2$ criterion

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Compared groups</th>
<th>The beginning</th>
<th>The end</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Experimental value $\chi^2$</td>
<td>Critical value $\chi^2$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>E-1 and K1</td>
<td>0.06</td>
<td>3.84</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>E-2 and K1</td>
<td>0.05</td>
<td>3.84</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>For $\alpha=0.05$ and df =1</td>
<td>For $\alpha=0.05$ and df =2</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Proceeding from the obtained results and following the logic of the theoretical research in the preparation of the experiment, we checked the influence of the selected pedagogical conditions as a set. Based on the purpose of the given stage, we created an experimental group (E-3) in which we checked the complex influence of all three conditions, and we formed a control group (K-2), in which the development of readiness for multicultural communication was carried out within the framework of traditional training.

The results obtained in the second stage of the experiment describe changes which took place in the levels of the development of efficiency of the functioning of the model of developing readiness for intercultural communication among students attending non-linguistic university courses. The number of students in group E-3 who presented a low level of the development of readiness for intercultural communication decreased by 40%, compared with 18.19% in group K-2. The number of students in group E-3 who presented a high level
of the development of readiness for intercultural communication increased by 34.29%, compared with 6.07% in group K-2.

Table 3. Changes in the growth of students’ satisfaction with the organization of the development of their readiness for intercultural communication

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Groups</th>
<th>Beginning</th>
<th>In the middle</th>
<th>In the end</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>K_y</td>
<td>K_z level</td>
<td>K_y</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>E-1</td>
<td>1,543</td>
<td>0.217 average</td>
<td>3,513</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>E-2</td>
<td>1,491</td>
<td>0.195 average</td>
<td>3,121</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>E-3</td>
<td>1,524</td>
<td>0.211 average</td>
<td>3,815</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>K-1</td>
<td>1,532</td>
<td>0.210 average</td>
<td>2,154</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>K-2</td>
<td>1,586</td>
<td>0.223 average</td>
<td>2,168</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>E-2 and K-1</td>
<td>5,30</td>
<td>5,99</td>
<td>5,30 &lt; 5,99</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>E-3 and K-2</td>
<td>6,88</td>
<td>5,99</td>
<td>6,88 &gt; 5,99</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Having compared the results obtained in the control and experimental groups, it is possible to draw the following conclusions: the difference in the results of experimental and control groups convincingly proves that the development of students’ readiness for intercultural communication is more successful under the influence of the pedagogical conditions which we identified. However, the results obtained in the experimental group E-3 allows us to define the following general tendency: the development of students’ readiness for multicultural communication is more successful in a group where all conditions are realized, i.e. the efficiency of using a set of conditions is higher, than when the conditions are used separately.

The obtained results also show a fairly high degree of students’ satisfaction with the technique of developing their readiness for intercultural communication that we offered. The highest degree of satisfaction is shown by students from the group E-3, in which at the end of the experiment there were twice as many satisfied students as there were unsatisfied ones. According to K. Pirsona’s criterion,
the alternative hypothesis $H_1$ is correct. Hence, we can conclude that changes in the levels of the development of readiness for multicultural communication of students in the experimental group E-3 are not caused by the casual reasons, and are a result of the complex realization of the pedagogical conditions that we allocated within the framework of the created model of developing readiness for intercultural communication among students attending non-linguistic university courses. It confirms our hypothesis and proves the reliability of the results.

**Conclusions**

1. On the basis of the analysis of global social tendencies conducted in the course of our research, it has been established that developing readiness for intercultural communication among students attending non-linguistic university courses is a valid problem and requires further research and criticism.

2. In our research, the meanings of the concepts of intercultural communication and readiness of students attending non-linguistic university courses for intercultural communication are specified, and the importance of developing readiness for intercultural communication in the course of teaching foreign languages to future experts is revealed. Also the contents, structure and essence of the development of readiness for intercultural communication are determined. We define the development of readiness for intercultural communication among students attending non-linguistic university courses as a complete, multi-sided process described by the presence of social, ethnic, psychological and pedagogical factors. Proceeding from the existing representations about readiness for intercultural communication, the definition of the structure of developing readiness for intercultural communication in which the emotional, cognitive, motivational-axiological, processed activity components are included was presented as possible.

3. Our model of developing readiness for intercultural communication among students attending non-linguistic university courses includes target, theoretical and methodological, organizational
and technological, as well as productive and estimated units. The developed model provides an explanation of the dialectic dependence between the elements of the researched problem. It has been proved that the developed model functions effectively with the use of the following set of pedagogical conditions: the development of multicultural potential of students; the use of the projects method as means of developing students’ readiness for intercultural communication in the conditions of the multicultural environment of the university; the introduction of a professional program whose base element is the special course “Features of Business Dialogue in the Field of Intercultural Communication” into the syllabus of the basic program of the foreign language.

4. Proved is the technique of developing readiness for intercultural communication among students attending non-linguistic university courses, including a distinctively chosen set of methods, receptions and means directed at the construction of a complete technique on the basis of the creation of components of developing readiness for intercultural communication.

5. In the course of our experimental work, the degrees of influence of each pedagogical condition and their whole set on the efficiency of developing readiness for intercultural communication among students of non-linguistic university courses are studied within the framework of the created model of developing readiness for intercultural communication.

6. We develop methodological recommendations for teachers about the development of readiness for intercultural communication.

We include prospects of the further research with the development of the information and communication technologies promoting activation of the development of readiness for intercultural communication and alternative methods of diagnosing the level of development of readiness for multicultural communication.
Wurud Jayusi  
University of Haifa

The light at the end of the tunnel.  
Peace education in Israel

INTRODUCTION

Peace education is a very important educational field, especially in places where majority and minority groups live in constant conflict. This article discusses peace education in Israel and presents some models of encounters. It also describes a recent study on peace education programs, presents the findings, and raises an important intervention program to strengthen the long-term positive effects of peace education programs.

PEACE EDUCATION

One of the definitions of peace education describes it as a process that aims to change attitudes in order to increase understanding, respect and tolerance between conflicting parties (Oppenheimer, Bar-Tal, Raviv 1999). Peace education seeks to undermine the stereotypes, prejudices and beliefs, to change personal perceptions and perceptions of others (Bar-Tal 2000; Bjerstedt 1993). It is aimed at both personal and social change on the cognitive, emotional and behavioural level (Bar-Tal 2002: 27–36; Salomon 2002).

Not all conflicts are born alike. One way of distinguishing conflicts is according to their socio-political context (Salomon 2002). The context of the conflict in Israel is called intractable (Kriegsberg 1993: 417–421) or protracted conflict (Fisher 1997). Intractable conflict
may be characterized as stubborn, violent, central and total (Rouhana, Bar-Tal 1998), and is accompanied by great uncertainties, stress and strengthened adherence to the collective narrative of one’s group (Foster 1999: 761–770) and consequently – extreme close-mindedness (Rapoport 1960).

**Peace education in Israel** aims at intergroup encounters or dialogues conducted between Jews and Arabs in Israel, and lately, between Israeli Jews and Palestinians from the West Bank and Gaza (Adwan, Bar-On 2000). The Israeli educational system has no formal curriculum of peace education. Peace education is not a major issue in education for values. Despite this fact, there are some ways to educate for peace including:

1. Joint schools,
2. Campus-based programs and learning projects,
3. Weekend workshops,
4. Summer camps,
5. Community-based seminars or theatre clubs,

**DIFFERENT MODELS OF ENCOUNTERS**

A. **Traditional coexistence model**

Programs seek to promote mutual understanding and tolerance, reduce stereotypes, foster positive inter-group attitudes, and advance other goals in the spirit of the contact hypothesis (Allport 1954).

B. **Confrontational or group identity model**

Programs emphasize the conflict and power relations between the sides. The goal of this model is to modify the construction of identity of members of the minority and majority groups, and encourage greater awareness among Jewish participants about the asymmetrical relations between Jews and Arabs in Israel, and of their role as a dominant or oppressive group (Halabi, Sonnenschein 2004: 375–387).

This model also seeks to empower the members of the Arab minority by having them experience direct confrontation with the Jews, which includes discussion of national identities, national and
civil aspirations, and discrimination (Halabi, Sonnenschein 2004; Maoz 2004: 375–387).

C. Combination model

In the end of 1990s a model that combines both the coexistence and the confrontational aspects of Jewish-Arab relations was created. This model often uses a narrative approach in which participants do “story telling” of their lives in the conflict (Bar-On 2002: 109–116; Bar-On, Bar-On & Kassem 2004).

STRUCTURE OF ENCOUNTERS

Peace education encounter programs typically include a series of inter-group meetings held at a frequency that varies between weekly and monthly. They generally range from one-time workshops to longer processes in which the group meets regularly for one year or more. Usually, 8–12 participants from each group are facilitated by a Jewish and an Arab facilitator, and the meetings are conducted in the framework of educational and communal institutions and organizations (Maoz 2010). The encounter programs are targeted at different age groups, beginning with preschool children through elementary and high school students and ending with adults (mostly teachers and students of teacher education). The programs include different kinds of activities, the most prevalent ones being dialogue, social activities (games, etc.), and arts (drawing, drama, etc.).

In fact, the positive contribution of the workshops to the change of beliefs and attitudes of the participants toward the “other people” fades away with the passage of time (Rosen 2006; Chasisi 2009; Bar-Natan 2005; Liebkind, McAlister 1999; Yablon 2007), when the students return to the reality where a stubborn conflict exists.

The participants face difficult political events and a belligerent environment that reverts their improved beliefs and attitudes to their original state from before they had participated in the educational program for peace (Kupermintz, Salomon 2004: 293–302; Bar-Tal 2004: 27–36; Roth 2004).
RESTORING THE ATTITUDES OF THE PARTICIPANTS OF PEACE EDUCATION THROUGH PEER TUTORING

Due to deterioration of beliefs and attitudes, a need arose to search for a method that could be used to rehabilitate and preserve the beliefs and attitudes of the participants. The primary goal of the study presented below was to examine the contribution of the follow-up activities and peer tutoring, upon the leadership of students who had previously participated in a dialogue workshop. It had been proven by previous research that peer tutoring was efficient and successful in other fields (Harper, Maheady, Mallette 1993: 115–134; Utley, Mortweet, Greenwood 1997: 1–23; Delquadri, Greenwood 1981; Greenwood, Delquadri, Hall 1989; Abu Rasain, Williams 1999; Tindall 1995; Perry, Klepp, Halper, Hawkins, Murray 1986: 7–62; Hall, Delquadri, Greenwood, Thurston 1982: 107–140). Peer tutoring enables students to take responsibility for a survey of the material, the organization, the crystallization of the information, the understanding of its basic structure, finding the new significance for it and formulation of the new knowledge within new theoretical frameworks (Dueck 1993; Whiteman 1988).

All this is in addition to the cognitive and social development that derives from the communication and cooperation between the students of the same age or of different ages (Benard 1990; Maheady, Sacca, Harper 1988: 52–59). The strategy mainly influences the personal conception and the motivation to learn (Light and Littleton 1999; Steinberg, Dornbusch and Brown 1992: 723–729; Wentzel 1999: 76–97; Kagan 1989; Zessoule and Gardner 1991: 47–71). The guides participate in helpful conceptions and skills for other students and adolescents, they think about feelings and ideas, they study alternatives for solutions, and they make responsible decisions (Myrick, Bowman 1981).

The “cognitive dissonance theory” (Festinger 1957) is also likely to interpret the contribution of peers for the guides. The theory claims that for the most part there exists a consonance between a person’s behaviour and what he or she knows and believes in. However, when there is a lack of consistency or a contradiction between one’s beliefs and behaviour, a desire is created to lessen the dissonance.
From the point of view of a person who finds himself in such a situation, one possibility is to change his behaviour or his present situation. The other possibility is to change his beliefs to be in accord with this behaviour. According to Festinger, the cognitive dissonance is greater when the importance of the existing beliefs and values increases. According to his statements, lessening the importance of a value or an attitude is one of the common ways of reducing cognitive dissonance. From this a supposition arose that if the graduates of dialogue workshops became guides of their peers and told about their positive experiences from these workshops during the dialogue in ethnic groups, cognitive dissonance that could rehabilitate the retrograde movement from the attitudes from the workshop would be created. The method of peer tutoring had not been previously examined in the field of peace education and the change of beliefs and attitudes in this context. Therefore, literature does not mention peer tutoring with reference to cognitive dissonance. The present research project uses peer tutoring for the first time as a follow-up activity that is a continuation of the peace education program. In addition to the explanations of the method, the success of the method is also explained here by the cognitive dissonance theory.

In addition to the primary goal of the research, the contribution of the dialogue workshop to its participants was examined anew and the results were compared with the results of the participants’ peers who had not taken part in the workshop. This examination was carried out both quantitatively and qualitatively. In addition to this, the influence of peer tutoring was also examined quantitatively and qualitatively. In addition to the questionnaires, observations were made and we interviewed the guiding students in an effort to expose their feelings regarding the contribution or the success of the guidance. The research project presents a broader picture of the findings and the explanations for the phenomena which arose in the process. In the light of these findings it is possible to recommend peer tutoring as a positive follow-up activity through which it is possible to rehabilitate the changed views which tend to go back to their previous state.
In this research project the following primary hypotheses were examined:

1. There will be positive changes in the attitudes towards the “other side” of the conflict among participants who attend the dialogue workshop in the framework of peace education in comparison to the attitudes of people who do not participate in this workshop (reflections on previous findings).

2. The positive influence of the dialogue workshop on the attitudes and beliefs of the participants will return to their previous state after about two months.

3. Participation of the graduates of the dialogue workshop in peer tutoring – the purpose of which is a dialogue regarding their positive experiences from the workshop – will rehabilitate the changes that occurred in their attitudes in comparison to others who do not participate in this activity. In the latter group, the changes will continue fading away.

4. Among the subjects whose participation in the workshop did not influence their attitudes and beliefs, or influenced them negatively (intensified their negative attitudes towards the other side), participation in peer tutoring will cause a positive change in their attitudes and beliefs towards the other side as a function of the arousal of cognitive dissonance.

Similarly, the research dealt with the following questions:

1. To what extent does the nationality of the student influence the change in attitudes and beliefs in the wake of the dialogue workshop and the follow-up activity of peer tutoring?

2. What characterizes the dialogue workshop? How do the students participating in the workshop describe their feelings and the changes that they underwent, if there were any?

3. Did peer tutoring contribute, in the eyes of the guiding students, to the rehabilitation of their attitudes and beliefs and how?

The research was conducted in two stages:

**Stage A:** The dialogue workshop in the framework of peace education, in which 60 Jewish students and 60 Arab students participated\(^1\). In parallel, there were 60 Jewish and 60 Arab students in

---

\(^1\) The number of students who actually participated in the different stages of the research is greater than the number presented here. Some of the students did not
a control group who did not participate in the workshop. A week before the workshop (period 1), immediately after it (period 2) and after two additional months (period 3) questionnaires were distributed to all the students to measure the changes that occurred in their attitudes and their beliefs during different periods of time.

**Stage B:** Randomly picked students (30 Jewish students from the workshop and 30 Arab students) participated in the follow-up activity – peer tutoring. At the same time, a control group that consisted of 30 Jewish and 30 Arab students who also participated in the workshop was created. The randomly picked students were prepared for peer tutoring a month after period 3. They guided younger students a week after the preparation and during this time, they planned the activity. The goal of the activity was to develop their peers’ ability to understand “the others” even without agreeing with them, to encourage them to see that the members of another nation are also humans similar to their peers, and to bring the participants to recognize that each side “contributed” to the conflict.

Two months after the peer tutoring, questionnaires were distributed to the students who participated in the guidance and to the students who did not participate in the guidance (period 4). In this research, qualitative research was integrated with quantitative research, as was mentioned earlier, and therefore closed questionnaires (a questionnaire of feelings towards the other side of the conflict, stereotypical concepts, the measure of agreement with the components of national narrative of the other, the measurement of readiness for social closeness with the other side) that were used to collect data about the whole sampling were supplemented with qualitative research tools. Observations of the workshop groups, of the preparation for guidance and of the guidance itself were conducted. Similarly, the written answers of the students to the questions in the preparation activity, interviews with the guiding and the guided were examined and analyzed.

---

answer all questionnaires that were distributed at different points, and some left many questions unanswered. Thus, the number of questionnaires that would be examined was reduced to the number that appears here.
The principal findings of the research project:

1. The first assumption of the research was supported. There were positive changes in the attitudes towards the other side of the conflict among the participants of the workshop within the framework of peace education, compared to attitudes of those who did not participate in this workshop.

2. The second assumption of the research project was supported. Two months after participating in the dialogue workshop there was a decrease in the original level of the most of the dependent variables among the students who participated in the workshop.

3. The third assumption of the research project was also supported. A positive change in most of the variables was observed among the tutors who participated in peer tutoring in contrast to the students who did not participate in the activity.

4. The fourth assumption of the research project was partially supported. Among the students who participated in peer tutoring, in spite of the fact that they were not influenced positively or negatively in the wake of participation in the dialogue workshop, there was a certain improvement in their attitudes in the wake of their participation in peer tutoring. In contrast to this, there was no change in the situation of the rest of the students who were not influenced positively or negatively in the wake of the dialogue workshop, and who had not participated in the guidance. Even though the improvement was only in the variables that were mentioned in the previous lines, it is possible to state that the method of peer tutoring is successful in improving the attitudes of students with negative beliefs who did not improve in the wake of the dialogue workshop.

5. The first question of the research was focused on the difference between the students according to nationality, in each stage of the research. In the examination of the attitudes and beliefs in period 1 before the beginning of the workshop it was found that Jewish students were more negative in some variables and similarly, Arabs were more negative in others. Immediately after participation in the dialog workshop there were almost no differences between the Jewish and Arab students. Their attitudes improved similarly. Two months after the workshop there were almost no
differences between the Jewish and Arab students except for the agreement of the Arab students with the Jewish narrative which continued to rise. **Two months after peer tutoring** a significant improvement was accounted among the Jewish students but not so strong among the Arabs. In other words, the influence of peer tutoring was stronger among the Jewish students when it was examined after two months. The rise among the Jews started in the worn out attitudes, therefore the improvement at this stage is significant. In contrast to them, the Arab students arrived with a better condition of attitudes and therefore were not influenced significantly by the guidance. Additionally, no cognitive dissonance arose in the Arab guiding students that then encouraged the guiding students to present themselves and the truth and thus to strengthen themselves as a small minority group. While the Jewish students felt that they were forced to present opinions that were in opposition to those which were already timeworn, and so there arose a cognitive dissonance in the end.

According to what was described, we can assume that the goal of participating in the guidance was different for the Arabs and for the Jews. Concerning the influence of tutoring on the Jewish and Arab students who were not influenced or were negatively influenced by the workshop, the guidance influenced only the Jewish students. They experienced dissonance because their goal was to convince their peers about something that did not influence them previously. In contrast to them, the Arab students saw the guidance as an opportunity to convince and to encourage their peers to participate in the workshops in the future as a way of defending their attitude and to tell their narrative freely. Therefore, the Arab students had not experienced dissonance at all.

6. The workshop had advantages in the eyes of the students. The Arab students saw the workshop as successful because they succeed in presenting their attitudes and convincing others. This opportunity had a positive influence upon them. The Jewish students pointed out that they understood the Arab students and their story, but had certain reservations. The understanding of the story of the narrative of the Arabs among the Jewish students caused an increase in the measurement of agreement with
the Palestinian narrative. In any case, the students from both sides admitted that they had got to a situation of understanding each other, and this explains the general improvement in attitudes and beliefs towards the other that is similar amongst both sides.

On the other hand, as a result of the difficult arguments that took place at the various activities, students from both sides saw some shortcomings and came to extreme conclusions such as “it is difficult to live together” and “the other side is racist”.

7. Peer tutoring had advantages in the eyes of the guiding students. They pointed many advantages that they achieved through peer tutoring such as: feelings of self-confidence, responsibility, reconstruction and strengthening of the messages from the period of the dialogue workshop, the feeling of success in the delivery of messages in a free way. All these strengthened the quantitative variables that testified to the positive contribution of peer tutoring. Advantages were also brought out from the side of the Jewish students indirectly. They admitted that the “forced” guidance, in their words, pushed them to rethink the positive messages and to “start” becoming convinced, or in other words, to achieve the primary goals of the guidance. This description shows cognitive dissonance and supports the quantitative findings. Peer tutoring did not influence the Arab students who were not influenced or were negatively influenced in the wake of the workshop, because, in their words, they came to the workshop in order to encourage the students to meet Jews in order to make their voice heard and to convince them of them being right, and therefore we are not talking about dissonance in their case at all.

**Summary**

The workshop had a positive influence on the attitudes and beliefs of the Jewish and Arab students almost to the same degree. After two months their positions were fading. Peer tutoring positively influenced the attitudes of the participants (in an examination two months later). The influence of the guidance was stronger amongst the Jewish students. Regarding the students who were not influenced by the workshop or were influenced negatively, peer tutoring succeeded
partially. It seems that it improved only the Jewish students and did not succeed at all with the Arab students however it stopped the fading.

The research project contributes to the design and empirical examination of the method that is rooted in theory, and can be used for educational implementation of the rehabilitation of the beliefs and attitudes that were changed by the dialogue workshop in the framework of peace education. Accordingly, the possible importance of the research is its contribution to the theory of the rehabilitation of attitude that changed, and in the development of an implementable practical method. Similarly, this is the first time that the approach of peer tutoring is used in the framework of education for peace. Since this activity succeeded in overcoming the barriers facing the preservation of the positive influence of the original program, we should use this activity and integrate it in the future programs of peace education. The findings of the research are likely to encourage the planning bodies of peace education and to redesign the system of programs by integrating peer tutoring as an effective follow-up activity. In addition to this, the other recommendations of the research are likely to improve the programs of peace education in particular and to advance the whole field in general.
Nursery school teacher training
and the Bologna process in Hungary

The paper discusses the last “station” of training nursery school teachers in Hungary, with special emphasis on the period of reforms in the Hungarian higher education that was started by the Bologna Process.

In 2006, following the principles of the Bologna Process, the multi-cycle training system was introduced into the Hungarian higher education system, including the teacher training. Bologna set the whole teacher training in Hungary in motion.

The Bologna Process is regarded a station in the training of nursery school teachers. We arrived at this station to continue our journey with a bag that was not empty. One of the compartments of this bag was filled with professional values, while the space in the other one was requested by the professional issues that needed a solution.

As soon as the organisational restructuring, i.e. integration, was completed, the structural transformation of the higher education started. One essential change was followed by another. They aimed at creating a linear training system that is more flexible, provides easier access to different institutions and levels of training, can harmonise the needs of both mass education and elite training, is cost-effective and can make fragment studies, i.e. different degrees and qualifications, recognised. MA and PhD degrees can also be obtained abroad, and foreigners may choose Hungarian institutions to complete their higher education there.
This large-scale task fits into the process which can be characterised by the joint tendencies of differentiation, diversification and homogenisation. The focus was shifted to harmonisation – as can be read in the Ildikó Hrubos’s study (Hrubos, Ildikó: The Bologna Process, In Research. Educational Institute, Budapest 2002: 13).

In the 1950s there were already attempts for harmonisation, but the Magna Charta issued in Bologna in 1989 had the most stimulating effect. The year 1998 brought a turning point when the claim for the establishment of the European Higher Education Region was formulated in the so-called Sorbonne Declaration.

Consequently, Hungarian transformation concentrated on four major aspects:

- Lifelong learning,
- Master and PhD level training,
- European citizenship,
- Direct labour market output.

The areas of transformation included:

1. The transition from the dual model to the linear training structure. The basic components of the transition to the linear training had been given, although several demands were formulated in different fields of the education programme,

2. The introduction of the Credit Transfer System, which had already begun during the structural transformation,

3. The quality: the Higher Education Pact was provided to ensure quality and the Higher Education Quality Award was established.

How was the way leading to a new type of training for nursery school teachers?

Committees were set up to carry out the creation, professional discussions, and arbitration of the Bologna concept. The regulation of the training system came into force. The system of requirements was approved by the Hungarian Accreditation Committee (HAC). Consortia were formed for those who wished to start the training programmes for course development, then the applications for launching the courses were completed, and the training and exit requirements (JRC) were created. The training institutions submitted their claims to start the training programmes for accreditation. Tenders for the development of curricula and teaching material (HRD) were announced. The follow-up
survey and evaluation of the curricula was carried out in accordance with the tenders.

From the point of view of nursery teacher training, Bologna Process could be analysed in several aspects, including education sociology, education management, higher education economy and many others. I will point out the professional problems we had to solve in the Bologna transformation period, and will mention the new elements that were integrated into our training system. I will also refer to some prospective tasks we are facing in the future. Certainly, it is not my desire to evaluate the system, as there is no sufficient experience or data to do so. **We can declare that the changes would have been necessary even if the Bologna Process had not been introduced. This is confirmed by one of the studies written during the preparation phase** (Kovácsné Bakosi, Éva: Model of the Universal Preschool Teacher Training, Manuscript, Referral to the Deans’ College of Teacher Training Colleges and College Faculties, 2004).

Based on professional reasons and some positive international examples justifying the planned concept, the study suggests innovation concerning both the **structure and the content** of the training of nursery school teachers in the future. Modernisation of both the content and the structure of nursery teacher training was supported because **the conditions cried for renewal.** Even if there had been no “Bologna”, decision-makers should have focused on the following issues:

- **Enforcement of the principle of child-centeredness** requires a more target-oriented and thorough training in a well-balanced unity of theory and practice. This involves training that aims at real and differentiated development of children aged 3 to 7–8, the individual development of children with disadvantages and multiple disadvantages, recognition and treatment of children with behavioural disorders and/or learning difficulties, integrative education, preparation for inter- and multicultural development, along with the fulfilment of the foundation-creating function. It is necessary to focus on acquiring THE ART OF CHILD-CENTERED EDUCATION.

- Training should also prepare for the elimination of the **dysfunctions** of nursery schools, which are still expected to meet the requirements of the next stage of education. Nursery schools are not to replace family
education, but they are the scene for cooperation. Financial aspects are still dominating over children’s extracurricular activities.

- The assertion of the initial, foundation-creating function requires a **comprehensive view of the characteristic features of the child’s personality and its development** (thorough theoretical and practical knowledge of children in the pre-nursery school age and those at the age of 7–8).

- Students must be prepared to **broaden the repertoire of their professional competencies**; more emphasis must be put on the development of skills, i.e. practice (affective influence, group dynamics, self-control, reflective attitude, play skills, helping skills, knowledge of informatics, etc.).

- **Review of timeframe allocated for practice**, the proportion and content of training and practice situations, establishment of personalised practical knowledge, and strengthening the cooperation between professional individuals. More attention must be paid to “**strengthening the psychological immune system**”, the improvement of psychological health.

- Theoretical and practical training related to the institutional links (the previous stage of child development: crèche, the next stage: real school, institutions providing professional service and special services) requires improvement. Today, professionals involved in the development of children aged 0–3 are integrated into the new system of the higher education. The developing function of institutionalised infant and child care has strengthened. It resulted in the creation and accreditation of the BA level of the infant and child development educational programme, which already comprises the above-mentioned criteria, and belongs to the same area of training as preschool and primary school teacher training.

- Training objectives in the area of **cooperation with families** also need more differentiated theoretical foundation that comprises more disciplines (family pedagogy, family sociology, opportunity pedagogy).

- Training for educational autonomy built on **pedagogical pluralism and diversity** must be improved.

- New scientific findings from certain disciplines further differentiate the content of education programmes; new content will generate
the need for **new structures of education programmes**, which are expected to require a growth in the timeframe. The current training period was established during the normative pedagogical approach, and education is predominantly focused on the acquisition of pedagogical, psychological and methodological tools crucial for dealing with children of normal development.

- **New tasks have emerged** including quality improvement, measurement and evaluation, marketing and PR, creation and development of local programmes, inter- and multicultural education, inclusive education, project preparation, media pedagogy, establishment of the professional career, competition in the labour market, for which fresh graduates must be prepared when they start their careers. The current initial training provides a minimal time framework for preparing to all of these tasks.

- As a result, **the content of further specialised professional training** also needs to be reviewed: elements that must be covered by the initial training but currently are not its part must be pinpointed. A part of the further programme of specialised professional training must be incorporated into the initial training.

- It calls for the **modernisation of the organisational forms and methods of education and practical training** (laboratory work, action-oriented projects, self-reflection, problem-centred tasks, more assignments built on individual and pair research, observation-based tasks, a closer relationship between the theory and practice, interactive teaching techniques, lessons with case analysis, supervision, consultation, counselling, discussion, simulation, etc.). These methods are **more time-consuming and require smaller groups**. Sometimes, there is a slow progress; the routine solutions in education management need to be changed, there are additional costs, but the investment will pay off.

- Ongoing establishment of **mentoring network**, training and in-service training of mentors, as well as keeping in connection with them are also imperative.

- The **dead-end character** of the previous training obstructed further progress.
Some elements of these findings were built into the new education programme, but the expectations were only partly met by these changes.

**How does the training of nursery school teachers fit into the linear education system after 2006?**

1. The practice-based and good-quality training of nursery school teachers has not changed. Students excelling in the initial training may further their education at the same or other universities of their choice, working for their Master’s and PhD degrees. Thus, the dead-end character of the training was eliminated.

2. The aim was to develop a flexible system that provides transition between levels and specialisations – higher level vocational training – Infant Care and Child Development; BA level Nursery School Teachers’ training, 6 semesters, 180 credits. The first version that prescribed 180+30 credits in 6 semesters had to be modified because the extra 30 credits were impossible to handle without extended timeframe and funding; progress for MA: Education Science – Early Childhood Pedagogy specialisation course.


In other European countries, the kindergarten teacher training – with some exceptions – is a part of the higher education. It usually lasts 3 years, however some countries have a longer training period (Ladányi, Andor: On the Quality Improvement of Teacher Training. Magyar Felsőoktatás, 1995: 3). Nursery school teachers are trained at university or university level in Finland, Spain, Italy, Greece, France and the UK. Complete academic progress to MA level nursery training is provided, for example, in Finland, however they have two-cycle training, and even the BA level degree qualifies for working as a nursery teacher.

In the preparation stage, there was a moment when the training programme based on the idea of a single preschool teacher training programme could also bring essential changes in the quality of nursery school training. With 8 semesters and 240 credits, close to the end, we were unable to carry it through. Instead, the first qualification and exit requirements for BA level nursery training prescribed 180+30 credits
and 6 semesters. Problems arouse how to squeeze the credits from 7 semesters into just 6 semesters. Nevertheless, applications to start the programme were handed in. Soon after, the original training timeframe was back with the corresponding number of credits: 6 semesters with 180 credit points. The work over the improvement of the curriculum continued.

**What are the new elements?**

- The training levels are based on one another (PSP is the lowest one, then comes BA and MA, followed by PhD degree). Straight transition is guaranteed in adequate programmes. Credits are transferable.
- More open competition – any educational institution that meets the requirements is allowed to launch the training programme. There are no limits regarding the number of training institutions. The decreasing number of state-financed places is substituted by a growing number of training institutions.
- Competence-based qualifications and exit requirements (knowledge, skills, attitudes) reflect the needs for change and demands of the public education.
- Despite the opposition of those preparing the training, the national nursery school teacher training programme is only a specialisation course rather than a regular training programme, and the training period has proven to be very limited.
- In order to facilitate transition and mobility, thanks to the funds from HRD applications, the education programme for the training of nursery school teachers underwent a joint, large-scale improvement (new education units were incorporated, content of subjects was updated, system of compulsory and optional subjects was introduced). Thus, the harmonisation of the curricula has been completed. General and specialised knowledge was included in the curriculum: initial and specialisation training phases were also created. Practice-oriented training was reinforced, and the time period of the continuous field practice was increased from 6 to 8 weeks. Horizontal aspects, such as sustainable development, justice and equal opportunities appeared in the content of the training.
- Owing to their specificity, there are certain diversities between the trainings of different institutions. The college in Szarvas prepares its students for tasks regarding the education of children of national
minorities, with mental health problems and therapeutic PE. Hajdúbószörmény puts special emphasis on the pedagogy of play; and there is a big demand on its specialisation training courses in special development. It has also created two alternative programmes (Step by Step, House of Joy). The college in Sopron excels in teaching reform pedagogies; it also highlights literary development, along with its module for the development of children of national minorities. Its well-known specialities are “Freinet” education programme, and the development of nursery schools through play and children stories. The university in Budapest specialises in the development pedagogy, which is incorporated into the education of future nursery school teachers. The latest module, which claims a special place in the training, is teaching foreign languages at an early age.

• The transition to the linear training system was smooth since we did not have to face problems like the ones in teacher training, where the 5-year-long training period had to be transformed into a 3+2 period, or BA+MA. Most of the employees react well to the changes (unlike in other fields) as the BA degree of a nursery school teacher means the completion of the initial education programme, and equals gaining professional qualifications.

• However, the two-cycle system has raised the question of how to proceed towards the MA level qualifications. Will it be possible to progress towards a narrower special area, i.e. will there be a nursery school teacher training MA course, or will the training fit into a different training system? Unlike in several European countries (with Finland in the lead, but also in Sweden, Italy and France), the establishment of the MA level in nursery teacher training did not receive much support from professionals. At the same time, there are also examples of international reinforcements, i.e. the practice that the Hungarian education selected for nursery school teachers: to further their education in specialised courses of Education Science at the MA level.

• Issuing a bilingual diploma, a diploma supplement in English, is a technical change in the process of internationalisation of documentation. The curriculum and educational programmes have also been prepared in English.

• We are witnesses to an ever-increasing mobility, although in
order for the higher education to reinforce its own possibilities, and to make better use of them, the students should arrive with a better command of a foreign language. More and more institutions offer their staff and students opportunities for going abroad with mobility programmes provided by bilateral agreements. Similarly, the Erasmus mobility programme provides financial assistance in gaining experience in the professional and cultural life of foreign countries, as well as in learning and improving language skills. The desired and encouraged mobility, as one of the characteristic features of being a European citizen, is also a challenge as students arriving from a foreign country must be offered activities and courses in foreign languages. Their practice placement can also be a challenge. The only exceptions might be the institutions pursuing training courses with specialisation for the development of children of national minorities.

- Education and administration are supported by advanced information technology. The ETR (Unified Academic System) or NEPTUN systems were set up. Continuously updated home pages have also become part of the information system.

- Competition has increased. Along with clear requirements of quality education, it urges the competitors to do more effective marketing and PR activities. High-level professional workshops are in difficult situation. Due to the rearrangements, 876 applicants were admitted to 12 training institutions in 2008, 40% of them went to study in Budapest or its region. Because of the shared, or rather divided market, attention has been shifted to the new courses, thus dissipating resources, and focusing on one or two courses is already a matter of the past.

- Research activities in the field of nursery school education and teacher training are most of the time related to those working on their PhD. Even after the transition to the linear education system, specific research areas of an institution bear personal characteristics, depending on what professional image is given to them by the individuals.

- It is well-known that new training courses require highly qualified human resources, as prescribed by the Committee of the Hungarian Academy. We can approve this endeavour. However, it is difficult
to meet this requirement, as teachers finish their DLA training in several years and only in limited number. Similar difficulties can be also found in the field of physical education, special pedagogy and psychology.

We may ask the question: are nursery school teachers better trained now?

Our efforts are reflected in updating the content of the modules and study units, improvements made to the training methods, increased training period and the growing autonomy of students. Apart from that:

- Raising the level of foreign language requirements enhances international mobility.
- Incorporation of specialisation courses into the education programme will result in more thorough training. Meeting the individual needs of students is expected to lead to increase in their motivation. By paying special attention to gifted students, we facilitate transition towards MA level training.
- Special focus on the increased independence at work, and practice-oriented preparation based on the problems of pedagogical reality are expected to facilitate students, make them more independent, and nurture their professional creativity.
- More and more importance is given to self-assessment and self-reflection.
- During the training, special attention will be paid to the enforcement of the comprehensive system of influences that affect our understanding of children, as well as the individual, and people who surround the individual. We expect future educators to acquire the behaviour of a professional, who cares about the individual.
- Our intention is to identify with the principle of quality thinking.
- We support the gifted, and those aspiring to further their education, to progress to the MA level training.
- MA level is expected to increase the prestige of the profession, and the level of expertise of graduates.

The future?

- The 6-semester BA training is interpreted as an initial level of education, which prepares for the progress to MA level training. During their training period, students can complete courses in
specific themes. These courses allow them to gain an insight into special study fields to facilitate their choice in the future. They learn the basics of subjects such as developmental pedagogy, development of children with special education needs, pedagogical measurement, evaluation, teaching foreign languages at an early age, etc.

- These areas require a more specific theoretical and practical training in the framework of the MA training or in specialisation courses during 2 additional semesters. We should also consider the possibility of the “practice semester”, which has already been introduced into the teacher training.

- **The age boundaries have become more flexible.** A wider contact of different age groups is becoming more and more common, e.g. the nursery-crèche or school-nursery groups were formed. Both forms of organisation raise concerns regarding training: should it be a parallel training or an additional training? The possibility of a new graduate training may also be eligible for further consideration.

- **MA degree qualifications of the mentors** assigned to help the trainees and freshly graduated nursery teachers may gradually become a requirement – first in the practice placements, and later in nursery schools outside the training institutions.

- **Nursery school teachers’ progress to MA level in their respective fields.** This is not a restriction, only a more focused preparation for treating theoretical and practical problems occurring in the age group of children in their care, at an advanced level. It would also be desirable to claim place in the PhD level training programme, as recent changes in Higher Education Act seem to open an opportunity for this, once again.

- Elimination of language barriers by offering **study courses in foreign languages** will result in a broader understanding of and experiencing the meaning of the ‘European citizenship’ and internationalism.

  “Bologna” has not solved everything. It could not have, either. Changing the structure of the training is not enough to reach the desired improvement in education. **The most important** thing is that the mission of training educators is still with us. The improvement of the content, structure and methods of education in line with the
workshop practices and mobilisation of inner forces shaping the feeling of vocation is a never-ending objective.

We hope to contribute to the enrichment of already existing values, and that we can take pride in the improvements in the training of future nursery school teachers. We look forward to launching the nursery school teacher MA training course.
PART II

REFLECTIONS ON TEACHER EDUCATION AND TEACHER PROFESSIONAL PRACTICE IN POLAND
In the face of the oppressive reality
– criticism and self-criticism of teachers

INTRODUCTION

Problems of teachers’ criticism and reflections

Social and cultural processes of the 20th century contributed to the intensification of the feelings of fear that result from the risk of universality. The feelings are manifested by transferring the suppression from group responsibility to individual responsibility, in the transformation of the reality instead of its adaptation, in the appreciation of creative and innovative activities rather than of repetitive and ritual domination, in changes in the manner of working – from technical to intellectual. All these tendencies caused that the ability to critically and reflectively estimate the surrounding reality and oneself became the primary human skill. As a consequence, these questions became the subject of growing interests of researchers investigating the problems of criticism and reflectiveness.

Pointing out the historical sources of critical thinking, D. Fasco (2003) enumerates systems and methods of the representatives of analytical philosophy such as Socrates, Aristotle, Descartes, Lock and many other great ancient and contemporary thinkers. Presently, the question of self-reflectiveness of teachers is usually directly and strongly connected with criticism (Paul 1996) understood as the inclination to fair judgement that is based on analytical and logical grounds, and for which the major imperatives are searching for the truth, cognitive curiosity and reflective assessment. This definition of criticism is in opposition to fault-finding, which only takes the negative
aspects of the analyzed situation into consideration. It is closer to the notion of creativity that underlies the meaning of ambiguity, to noticing more than one solution to a problem, promoting tolerance, open scepticism, interest in changes as well as to discovering one’s own limitations and restrictions. S. Cotrell (2005) assumes that critical thinking is a cognitive activity that is combined with reasoning. Learning critical thinking is examined in reference to analytical processes and evaluation that activate cognitive processes such as attention, categorization, selection and assessment. The definition of critical thinking presented by S. Cotrell (2007) derives from constructivist implications of decoding the complexity of the teacher’s role. In the literature of the subject, similar way of understanding the individual aspects of the process of critical thinking is presented by Ch. Baril who puts special emphasis on initiative, curiosity, courage, self-confidence (emotional aspects), clarity and accuracy, anticipation, paying attention to details, and searching for information (cognitive aspects). Hence, a thesis may be formulated that the major factor stimulating teachers’ preparation for reflective practice is their attitude manifested as the critical orientation described above.

People who are critical thinkers conduct consequent and constant analysis of assumptions, prejudices, and reluctances as well as of things and opinions that are commonly accepted and regarded as normal. They carry out dynamic assessment of their motives, interests, positive or negative attitudes and the basis of their knowledge. The ability of reflective dialogue, which is supported by avoiding quick and provisional decisions and judgements, examining emotions and reactions, maintaining a balance between inquisitiveness, doubting and defending one’s opinions and ideas as well as by the capability of effective communication constitutes one of the most important factors that stimulate critical thinking. Individual conditions for reflectiveness (Illeris 2006) are combined with the ability to act independently as well as with responsibility, with interpretation of phenomena and meanings, flexibility and the capability of changing perspectives while solving problems, careful self-reflection, openness and independence. Teachers as reflective practitioners should be open to others’ ideas and different solutions. They ought to tolerate ambiguity, complexity and evidence that might contradict their current points of view.
They should also take different possible perspectives into account (Żmijewska 2008). Teachers should provide patterns of intellectual responsibility, ought to think speculatively, possess meta-cognitive abilities (of observation and control over their own cognitive processes) and to express research motivation. Developing critical reflection requires conscious and inquisitive interpretation of cultural texts, understanding the real nature of received information and its possible influences on our lives.

Conscious cognition assumes doubting, asking questions, investigating the sources of information and its convergence with experiences of pupils. Therefore, it requires that the information is useful for the interpretation of the surrounding reality. It is also the determination of the value of texts, agreement with the presented message and argumentation – conscious acceptation or rejection. Finally, conscious cognition is a reflection over the influence of cultural texts on the receiver, with identification of zones of manipulation and suppression. That is why R. Kwaśnica (2007) encourages teachers to ask reflective questions (so-called questions of the second degree) that should be formulated with a critical intention to reveal the hidden assumptions of our knowledge and to determine its limitations. Such an examination of the world is coupled with its criticism understood as: „exposing the circumstances that enslave human thinking and restrict the chance of using mind and free will. Such an attitude towards the world couples with self-reflection defined as an aspiration to understand our own method of sensualisation and interpretation of the reality and as freeing ourselves from different types of falseness (ideology) of our knowledge” (Kwaśnica 2007: 75). Hence, criticism plays an important role in deconstructing allegedly true results of cognition and judgements by pointing out the limitations assumed by researchers, and in revealing commonly accepted statements as dogmas. Critics always turn against prejudice and hidden ideologies.

Questions that analyze statements or ideas promoted or unconsciously presented by teachers, which are their conscious or unconscious (sometimes very fundamental) ideological presumptions, may take the following forms: *What is my opinion on this matter? How did my opinion evolve? Did I change my point of view and what forced me to revise my opinion? How did my view of the reality changed/deformed by assuming*
such a statement? Did I think over changing my viewpoint? Do I assume that the change in my viewpoint is possible? What could convince me? How can I name my viewpoints in this matter? Which of the assumptions seem unchanged to me? Hidden assumptions about the world may take the form of paradigmatic assumptions concerning axioms and rules of interpreting the world (whose revelation usually causes resistance), normative assumptions concerning specific situations and attributions that determine reasons influencing specific situations (Brookfield 1995). Questions that activate critical reflection during decision making may also be connected with thinking and wondering: What does the decision concern? What difficulties/restrictions/facilities are connected with making this decision? What are the consequences of this decision? Which factors should be taken into consideration while making this decision? What options ought to be analyzed and how they may change the consequences of the decision? Who would benefit from and who would lose if a particular decision was made? In whose interest would making the particular decision be? What evidence may confirm the rightness of the method of solving the problem?

Learning by means of critical reflection assumes making some emotional and cognitive effort, and requires diagnosing cognitive contradictions, which may appear to be a significant restriction of using this method.

In Poland, a thorough analysis of the definition, subject, and the timeframe of the mechanism and content of reflection in the teachers’ activity was carried out by B.D. Gołebniak (1998), H. Mizerek (1999), S. Dylak (1996) and M. Czerępaniak-Walczak (1997). As accurately pointed by S. Dylak (1996), reflectiveness in the context of the teaching practice and in reference to teacher education is the current paradigm of contemporary educational writing.

**PRIMARY SCHOOL TEACHERS IN THE FACE OF THE OPPRESSIVE EDUCATIONAL REALITY – THE AUTHOR’S RESEARCH**

According to many researchers from the field of critical and emancipation pedagogy, the education system is considered one
of the main factors that inhibit the development of teachers’ critical reflection. The following questions become significant when the problem is outlined in such a way: To what extent do teachers manifest their critical orientation? What is their attitude towards criticism (not only directed at them, but also used by them)? What is the most frequent and most rare subject of criticism in the professional practice of teachers? To what degree do self-reflection and self-criticism accompany their work? What are the conditions for undertaking or not undertaking criticism and self-criticism of teachers?

The following categories were determined in the analyzed research: teachers’ criticism of the educational system (distinguishing the problems and constructive search for possibilities of overcoming them), teachers’ methods of coping with the situation of criticism directed at them, teachers’ ability of critical self-estimation and subjective conditioning of the attitudes distinguished in research towards critical reflectiveness.

To explain why these particular types of psychological phenomena were distinguished, one may apply the notion of explanation pluralism or ecumenism that is understood as admitting to and rendering different types of explanations, showing various types of analysis for the reasons of a given phenomenon, its history and conditions (Wierzchosławski 2007).

In order to measure the scale of the phenomenon, the triangulation model that couples quantitative interpretation of data with qualitative methods was used in the screening tests. Bearing in mind the numerous charges as to the epistemological and ontological basis (especially reductionism) of qualitative methods, it was decided to supplement these methods with qualitative interpretation of the results. Triangulation is a method of going beyond the opposition of qualitative and quantitative research by joining a few supplementary methods. It allows for balancing possible one-sidedness, inaccuracy or reductionism of the research actions (Hurrelman 1994).

The research was conducted on 187 primary school teachers. It used the method of diagnosis probing (questionnaire) complemented with the interview and analysis of the real behaviour of teachers during classes. The research group consisted of primary school teachers who supervise the teaching practice of students of the pedagogical faculty,
In the face of the oppressive reality...

i.e. teachers who – at least in theory – are role models for future teachers and are to great extent responsible for preparing them to working at school. The average age in the research group was 43 years, with the professional experience ranging from 15 to 23 years. The teachers worked in three provinces of the southern Poland and evenly represented the environments of big cities, small towns and villages.

In the analysis of the written and oral statements, the basic research comprised the location and meaning of goals and contents connected with the distinguished aspects of critical thinking. An effort was made to distinguish common threats and subjects that constitute the categories of the higher degree according to the tactics of grouping and recognizing the common subjects proposed by Miles and Huberman (2000).

PERCEIVING THE POSSIBILITY OF CRITICISING THE EDUCATION SYSTEM BY TEACHERS

Problems of teachers’ self-reflection and criticism (concerning the awareness of being influenced by the system and non-critical acceptance of the promoted offers and education models) were recognized on the basis of questions which aimed at defining the failures of the system and the suppression mechanisms. Teachers’ general attitudes towards criticism of suppression and manipulation are presented in Table 1.

*Table 1. Coefficients of acceptation for the selected statements concerning criticism, suppression and manipulation within the teachers’ research group*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Statements</th>
<th>The average coefficient of acceptance*</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>I think that criticism is necessary.</td>
<td>0,5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I think that I am a critical person.</td>
<td>-0,65</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I often criticise the behaviour of pupils.</td>
<td>0,75</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I can question acknowledged authorities.</td>
<td>-0,34</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I often question credibility of the contents of books and textbooks.</td>
<td>0,11</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
I often wonder whether I am subjected to manipulation. -0,55
I often think how to protect myself against suppression. -0,25
I often think what is the hidden purpose of a person who transfers a message. -0,13
I often think over the hidden intentions of texts that are read or statements that are made. -1,15

* In the scale from +2 (it is precisely about me) to -2 (it does not concern me at all). The average coefficient of acceptance was calculated according to the equation: sum of the scale weight divided by the total number of people (Brzeziński 1978)

Most of the teachers admitted that criticism is tactless or even rude. Teachers’ objections to the education system concerned mainly lowering the school age (64% of respondents) and organization of school ceremonies. Objections to pupils included aggressive behaviour, disobedience or ADHD. The teachers also pointed out that there is a need for some improvements in the education system including ensuring equal access to education for children from cities and villages, changing the bureaucratic regulations of the system of promoting teachers, simplifying textbooks and programmes (sic!). Forms of transmission that were most frequently mentioned as potentially threatened by manipulation were the Internet (84% of answers) and television (73% of answers). The content of books and textbooks did not cause any mistrust. Scepticism towards the instructions given in textbooks or guidebooks is manifested by only about 35% of respondents, and the proportion between merits of textbooks that were distinguished and mistakes that were noticed is 12 to 1.

It was noticed that teachers are not able to question the legitimacy of goals and programmes of education, even if they see their mistakes and weak points. They have a tendency to affirm discipline, order and organization, they appreciate practical realizations, instrumental and execution tasks rather than interpretation tasks. None of the teachers highlighted the importance of his or her role in the reconstruction of the education system.
SELF-ESTIMATION AND SELF-CRITICISM OF TEACHERS

The source of the feelings of safety and certainty has to be inside the teachers, in their reflection over their own limitations and in their prudent self-criticism. In the conducted research, the teachers could specify their strong points (95% of respondents) rather than their weak sides (only 49% of teachers). Negative features that were most frequently mentioned by teachers included: lack of concentration, losing control over emotions, inability to establish discipline in the classroom. Teachers usually described the strong sides of their classes, not the weak ones – the ratio of the answers obtained within this domain was about 3:1. Only 12% of teachers noticed the necessity of improving the quality of classes, most frequently by designing better help for weak pupils or by devoting more time to the individualization of the teaching process. It is worth mentioning that none of the teachers expressed the need for improving the relations with his or her pupils.

TEACHERS’ MANAGEMENT IN THE SITUATION OF CRITICISM

Coping with criticism concerns the ways of reacting to pupils’ criticism, methods of making changes in one’s own picture of the world, critical justification of the knowledge, and understanding (being conscious of) one’s own rationality, its genesis, limitations and conditions. Methods of managing criticism comprise psychological self-defence that evokes the stereotypical feeling of safety and certainty, but simultaneously makes a person stagnated, and the forms of transmitting knowledge. “Risk ambiguity” (Beck 2002) and lack of certainty may create space which inspires for changes or may initiate defensive tendencies. The situation of “the endangered I” that intensifies this effect can be defined as “the situation of actual or anticipated frustration” (Grzegołowska-Klarkowska 1989: 42). It is initiated not only in the situation of direct and present danger, but also as a result of perceiving signals of risk, when teachers treat pupils’ questions or doubting as questioning their authority of knowledge/power (Fucault 1993). Cognitive discrepancy that can be reduced
by simplifying the view of the world may also be the source of these defensive mechanisms. Additionally, they may be initiated by fear, shame or the fear of being ridiculous and incompetent.

Teachers’ strategies of coping with criticism from pupils or superiors usually include pretending engagement, joking, looking for appreciation, giving up, discussing, crawling to superiors, acting according to expectations, repeating the work, avoiding, minimizing the efforts, and provoking. They may also take the form of passive or routine actions, meek resignation, aggression and rebellion.

Reactions of teachers are characterized by dominating defence or escaping behaviours. The defence strategies that may be distinguished among teachers include: transferring the responsibility, the strategy of impossibility (e.g. too large classes), trained helplessness in confrontation with educational changes and ostensible reactions that are stiff, manifestative and usually inadequate. All these reactions constitute the form of internal passive resistance. These attitudes reflect creating appearance – „evasion epistemology” (Szkudlarek 2000a, b, c), forming explanations and cognitive practice which allow for avoiding the consciousness of pretending. General declarative attitudes of teachers towards the situation of criticism are presented in Table 2.

Table 2. Coefficients of accepting selected statements concerning the possibility of criticising teachers

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Statements</th>
<th>The average coefficient of acceptance*</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Pupils should be disciplined and obedient.</td>
<td>0.23</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I am afraid when I hear that someone is criticising me.</td>
<td>0.26</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pupils can question information from textbooks.</td>
<td>0.12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pupils may criticize knowledge transmitted by teachers.</td>
<td>0.02</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I was criticized by pupils.</td>
<td>-1.42</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*In the scale from +2 (it is precisely about me) to -2 (it does not concern me at all). The average coefficient of acceptance was calculated according to the equation: *sum of scale weight divided by the total number of people* (Brzeziński 1978)
Teachers could not formulate reflections about the common experience to understand the events, to place them within the framework of further interpretation and to build further understandings with consciousness that this decoding is neither the only nor the final one. Teacher’s honest statement that “I do not know that” or “we do not know that yet” would teach children that not all questions have immediate answers and would constitute a pattern for pupils by showing that not knowing or not understanding something is nothing wrong – it is a state/situation that may be the beginning of searching, the aim of examining.

CONDITIONS FOR TEACHERS’ ATTITUDE TOWARDS CRITICISM

The conducted research aimed at exposing multiplicity of aspects, tensions, influences, conditions and contexts that form the phenomenon of critical and reflective practice of teachers. That is why the typology distinguished below is only a heuristic tool that may be helpful in determining an outline of the meaning of the field. However, it is an attempt of pointing out important reasons for the observed negative attitude of teachers towards critical reflection about others, and most of all, about themselves, as well as the reference of indicated relations to findings and reflections of other researchers.

The feeling of safety

The most frequent barrier that can be distinguished from the answers of the examined teachers is their lack of the feeling of safety. This shortage is sensed by teachers in relation to their professional situation (economic uncertainty) and to their knowledge and values. A. Giddens (2002) looks for the sources of ontological safety in three attributive categories of cognitive attitudes – confidence, hope and courage. They provide support, enable understanding and allow for coping effectively with problems in critical situations. According to Giddens (2002), post-modernity is characterized by: a new form of trust (e.g. in the Internet, in banks), a new form of risk (e.g. atomic power plants, hacking) and the lack of clarity (instability and uncertainty of social situations). Inconsistency between the declared attitudes and
the real behaviours has the features of so-called paradox transmission, which may create the feeling of fear and uncertainty among the recipients. Teachers are generally not aware of the fact that there is no single and universal form of knowledge, and given messages and transmissions usually represent the interests or points of view of the authorities. This may be the form of a defensive reaction – renouncing inconvenient contents and dilemmas, simplifying the reality even at the cost of presenting the attitude of intellectual inadequacy and childishness.

**Teachers’ habitus – domination of the professional role and the pressure of expectations**

The term *habitus* is becoming a part of the contemporary *conditio humana* for teachers. According to P. Bourdieu (1990), it is a set of predispositions that induce people to act and react in a specified way. *Habitus* generates certain forms of acting and noticing, produces expectations and orientations that have a routine and regular character, a peculiar “horizon of expectations”. Teachers treat their duties of transmitting information and bringing up pupils by persuasive or directive arguments and rules. The answers that were obtained during the research have their source in two types of identities (Melosik, Szkudlarek 1998): *apparent* – characterized by subjection and conformability, being in compliance with fashions, media and ideology of consumption, and *fundamental* – expressed by longing for stable and coherent view of the world as the answer to its uncertainty and lack of clarity. Elements of these two forms of adaptation were clearly visible in the teachers’ answers.

The term *habitus* also includes a category of personal education theories that concern the convictions about the school reality and the perception of teachers’ role in this reality for which the basic initiation mechanism is “the self-fulfilling prophecy”. Accepting the perspective of reflection of L. Witkowski (2007), domination of the following attitudes of teachers towards critical thinking can be noticed: *instrumentalism* – based on certainty of one’s own method of action, *formalism* – where
criticism is understood as an attempt to question the competencies, mission and authority of the teachers, conservatism, technocracy, didacticism, authoritarianism and successorism – characterized by the exact determination of criteria and conditions, obsession for speed, effectiveness, success and pragmatism.

Education in dominating doctrine, which is an adaptive one, is subjected to the specified organization of the social life and the existing social order. It is expressed by transmitting hierarchic system of power and social relations onto the organization of school and its functioning. The illusion of unanimity, direct and indirect pressure onto group members (other teachers, often with greater professional experience) make the processes that is characteristic for the so-called group thinking syndrome visible (Tyszka 1999). This process is intensified by teachers’ isolation, stress that they experience, and directive management. Teachers are left on their own and schools present a picture of organizations that are atomized by rivalry and lack of clear vision of supporting the teachers. Research in the field of creative processes non-univocally estimates the influence of such barriers on the activation of criticism. Most of researchers assume their inhibiting influence, and some of them admit that such problems or difficulties may become the impulse for a change in the private or professional life. The consequences of this state may include: avoiding the examination of alternative possibilities, selective acceptance of information, self-deceiving and wishful thinking. Thus, teachers have a tendency to conform to standards that were established, formulated “above” education as well as to the imposed “patterns of explanation” (Rodziewicz 1994).

“Educational biographies”

Social, cultural and educational bases that compose a specific “educational biography”, and later on the individual patterns of acting that influence teachers’ self-esteem are significant factors influencing teachers’ approach to criticism. Teachers’ assumptions become visible in their future experiences. As a consequence, teachers affirm conservative education order that was the basis of their own education and the formation of the knowledge of the world in their later professional practice. The ideology of quantitative approach favours
thinking about teachers which results from believing in the importance of practice and routine, regardless of the level of critical reflection or intelligence. B.D. Gołębiak (2008) states critically that young people were deprived of the possibility to study independently and critically. Instead of that, they are forced to learn things that are incoherent and anchored in the past. It is worth noticing that the subsequent stages of education in Poland destroy critical thinking, strengthen habitual preferences of thinking and acting in a unified way that result both from the shortcomings of academic preparation and from numerous defects in teachers’ self-education during their professional career. It is a frequent situation that those who liked going to school and have good memories from that period want to work as teachers. Results of research conducted by Putkiewicz, Siellawa-Kolbowska, Wilkomirska and Zahorska (1999) indicate that about 90% of teachers evaluate their own school (education) experiences as good or even very good. This effect may be directly transferred to the fact that what teachers learned as pupils (students) in the past may influence the way they teach at present. Apparent simplicity and accessibility of studies as well as negative selection for the teacher profession result in the intensification of the process of teachers’ intellectual degradation. Studies that are burdened with so many shortcomings may cause that some students experience cognitive demobilization which is characterized by avoiding cognitive efforts and an aversion to cognitive engagement (Sędek 1991). As a result, such students are more prone to rely on old, routine and schematic, but proved patterns which assure that at least the appearances of realizing goals is achieved. Additionally, Polish reality is characterized by low engagement and ostentation in attending the courses of professional development – the main reason for taking part in such courses is often receiving a certificate of their completion (Muchacka, Szymański 2008). Symptomatic is also the fact that only 20% of teachers pointed that studies and courses that they attended decided about their style of working in the classroom (hence it is very unlikely to expect that teachers can critically refer to the structure of school that “created” them and which they presently constitute). Revealing the biographically formed ways of understanding the world may be one of the causes which explain why, despite many postulates formulated by education research within the period of the
last thirty years as to the changes in Polish education system, there is almost no response to them in the school everyday practice.

**Scepticism to novelty**

Answers obtained from the conducted research expose teachers’ reality expressed from the perspective of danger and incredulity, being troubled by innovations, preferring traditional values. Teachers are characterized by faulty consciousness (or rather the lack of consciousness) referring to the estimation of their own activities, by obliterating differences, pragmatic admiration of authorities (which according to S. Dylak results from the lack of patience and inquisitiveness). Formulating judgments of the world based on usual schemes rather than active searching may be the effect of simplification connected with an automatic level of processing information. Analyzing the problem of the application of critical thinking, it is possible to assume – after L. Witkowski (2007) – that the following attitudes are the frames for description of teachers: sentimentalism – thinking in categories of pathos and nobleness, unconditional and unverified “good intensions”, endangering to outlook on life – based on a belief in philosophical true, clarity of nonnegotiable foundations where criticism is regarded as harmful for the unity of a system or a group, eclecticism – with dominating resistance to unification, disagreement with strong persuasion, affirmation of alternatives, diversity of types of behaviour, tolerance and openness, felicity – connected with simplification, trivialization, criticism taken as a useless vagary and a symptom of frustration.

**Conformity**

Limitation of excessive independence may result from co-operation rules – critical people are perceived as individuals who express restrained confidence to others, who could not co-operate and are rejected from the group. That is why symptoms of the majority of types of conformities distinguished by R.E. Bernacka (2004) were observed in teachers’ attitude: opportunistic (superficial) – where individual externally agrees with the group, but internally is in discord, real – where individual externally and internally agrees with the group on the basis of a strong conviction, artificial – caused by the fear of
being excluded from the group, from the choice – being the result of reflective acceptance of the code.

Teachers are characterized by conformity, attachment to conventionality, aspiration for being safe, accent for polite forms, performing duties, and respect for the authorities. Obtained results correspond quite well with the data from the research conducted by P. Żuk (2007) which indicated that teachers mostly affirm that creating possibilities for people has an influence on making decision by authorities (56%), then keeping the order in society (22%), and the least – making it possible to openly express one’s viewpoint (9%).

Although according to T. Adorno there are two reasons for creating the authoritarian personality – high level of fear and low level of education, paradoxically, research of A. Mikołejko (1991) indicated that highly educated people as well as people who further the education more frequently than others accept authorities without criticism. The author explains this correlation by the fact that authority constitutes a more abstract and universal category for better-educated people. These results confirm the thesis that people who are in an insecure and unstable situation highly depend on authorities.

IDEOLOGY OF A SINGLE CORRECT METHOD

Already in the 1980s, J. Kozielecki (1987) noticed that school is dominated by boredom, monotony, passivism, lack of space for dialogue and taking risky decisions. A teacher who is locked in the chains of authoritarianism (being the result of external and internal standards) becomes a controller who creates a child’s understanding of the world. Transmission and instilling of specified values take the form of symbolic violence which legitimizes real violence and instilling the culture by symbolic means. Presentation of ready-made knowledge by a teacher may be expressed by different forms of oppression, for example, by the selection of textbooks. J. Rutkowiak (1981, following Wiłkomirska 2002: 74) sees the essence of teacher’s role in helping pupils to achieve optimal discrepancies that evoke active taking of a stance on reality. This task may be problematic for teachers because, according to the author, they teach “against the world” (giving the
idealized picture of the world), “by the world” (creating independent world of school knowledge that is disconnected from the reality) and “contrary to the world” (causing too many informative discrepancies).

As stated by A. Cudowska (2004), teachers should be responsible for building pupils’ experience, for forming the space for axiological dialogue as well as for making trials of interpretation of this experience from the position of a translator. However, results of Polish researchers who examine the problem of intellectual helplessness at school (Kossowska 2010) indicate that preferred learning style, accepted model of searching, asking and discussing, engaging pupils as well as estimating as competent teachers who promote understanding are derivatives of institutions – school priorities, aims, tasks and work organization. In some schools, researchers noticed that teacher’s competence is understood as an ability to maintain the discipline and a good pupil is identified with a polite child. Communicates of negative criticism such as “not this way”, “wrong”, “do not fantasize”, “do not be so clever” also dominated the observed classes. Other strategies frequently used to gain control over pupils and for teacher’s self-confirmation are “yes – no” questions, speculative questions that force students to guess what the teacher wants to know, rhetoric questions (“do you agree with me?”) which do not aim at receiving the answers and which, according to I. Kawecki (2003), do not indicate the pupil’s understanding of the analyzed subjects as they only allow for choosing between alternatives constructed by teachers. Very often such pseudo-questions are used with an intention of tormenting students, creating psychical obligation, and inhibiting critical attitude.

AVERSION TO ENGAGEMENT

Post-modernism is a “culture of risk” (Giddens 2002: 6) which may be characterized by a gap between global factors and personal disposition of individuals. A. Giddens distinguishes four basic attitudes towards post-modernity: **pragmatic acceptation** – concentration on solving life problems and driving the threats from the consciousness, **consistent optimism** – belief that it is possible to avoid the threats, **cynical pessimism** – accepting the inevitability of events, but recommending
the shortening of the time horizon and living at the present moment, *radical struggle* – mobilization of opinion, standing up and fighting, which is strongly connected with the application of critical reflection.

As a result of “the subject revolution” (Obuchowski 1992), individuals do not prepare themselves and answer to the world requirements, but rather create these requirements on their own in compliance with their private conceptions of the world and their own presence in this world. The author (2002: 32–36) describes various types of personalities in the context of adaptation to civilization changes: “people of role” – completely objective and reduced to the role they play in the world, “people of learning” – who gain the knowledge which allows them for reflecting over their real situation, and who are able to free themselves from the prescribed role (this knowledge allows them to keep a psychical distance from external situations and to structure the situations according to the individuals' own criteria), “people-authors” / “new individualists” / “open individualists” – characterized by the ability to form the concept of “the desired I” and maintain psychical distance to themselves. Hence, openness, intellectual responsibility and engagement should constitute the basic dimensions for an attitude which supports reflective practice of teachers. For teachers, development of critical thinking would mean understanding economic and political interests which have a direct influence on the learning process, but are located outside the schools. In reference to teacher profession, optimistic postulates are formulated by M. Czerepaniak-Walczak (1997: 20) who says: „Critical, prudent and analytical thinking about teachers’ work and while doing it, may be not only a significant factor of creative realization of professional role of a teacher-tutor, but also a condition for transforming education as the process of social and individual change”. However, as noticed with care by J. Rutkowiak (2002), most of teachers exhibit attitudes of disorientation, “consciousness freezing”, and as workers transform themselves only in conditions of meaningful and strong pressure. They are “people of role”, determined and restrained by situation as well as by fundamental convictions about their professional duties.
CONCLUSIONS

Teachers’ role is to present the knowledge about the world, but their authority is based on accepting the responsibility for this world. For children they are like “representatives of all adults from the world, showing different details and saying to pupils: it is our world” (Arendt 1994: 226). How this world is presented will have consequences not only for building the child knowledge, but also for forming the relation with the world of adults and expressing different attitudes towards this world. Results obtained from the conducted research justify a conclusion that teachers’ orientation and vision of their professional role are still very far from critical attitude. Teachers reluctantly take self-criticism and reflection over social, cultural and political determinants of the education system. They are unaware of changes, crisis and expectations that we have to face as a result of the dramatic speed of the changes and development of our civilization. Only in a relatively small part they are able to carry out critical deconstruction of the threats for autonomy of development (of their own and of their foster children), of suppress mechanisms, influences and symbolic violence.

Findings from the conducted research correspond with the pessimistic analysis of teachers’ attitudes towards cultural changes conducted by J. Rutkowiak (2002), T. Szkudlarek (2000a, b, c) and D. Klus-Stańska, (2003: 51) which identifies them in four domains: consciousness, attitude, aspiration and competency. According to D. Klus-Stańska, teachers’ reaction to criticism can be “accepting the challenge” or “escape”. The author concludes that teachers are not entirely able to take intellectual and critical activities, harmonizing with cultural changes.

To sum up these rather pessimistic reports one might quote the opinion of A. Nalaskowski, who aptly summarizes the issue (1995: 58) by rhetorically asking: “if teachers’ environment (despite the importance of arguments) does not want to be subjected to criticism, does not want to know the efficiency of their own activities (when the effects turn out to be poor), how it can be engaged in the democratization of the education system?"
Teachers in the face of educational changes – conclusions concerning education

INTRODUCTION

The beginning of the new age puts the societies of all countries, including Poland, in front of new challenges, tasks and dilemmas. The times we live in are the period of civilization changes and continuous invalidation of knowledge and information. We realize that social and economic development of the world depends mainly on knowledge and education. Thus, there is the need to interpret problems and educational tasks from the point of view of critical vision of the reality. The realization of civilization challenges and social aspirations of the 21st century depends on the modern school and teachers.

Nevertheless, the new millennium is associated not only with new challenges, chances and dangers, but also with the legacy of the past years. For post-communist countries, including Poland, this is, among others, the turning point of leaving so-called “realistic socialism” and entering into democracy, switching from centrally-controlled economy to free-market economy, from artificial and imposed ways of thinking and acting to dialogue, agreement, tolerance, and pluralism. As a result of the transformations in the Polish political system, the country’s monopoly was broken. Consequently, non-public schools were founded, the education was unpoliticized, educational institutions were decentralized, schools and teachers became autonomic, the basic philosophy and educational ideas as well as the axiology of education were changed (Kocór 2006). There is extensive literature concerning educational changes that have already been
accomplished and are being accomplished in Poland after 1989 (both advantageous and disadvantageous). This subject is raised by, among others: T. Lewowicki, Cz. Banach, Z. Kwieciński, B. Śliwerski, K. Denek, Cz. Kupisiewicz, J. Niemiec, T. Hejnicka-Bezwińska, M. Kozakiewicz, A. Bogaj, S.M. Kwiatkowski, M.J. Szymański, J. Gęsicki, A.W. Maszke and M. Kocór.

The changes that have already been commenced and those that will be accomplished in the present millennium require a lot of support, acceptation and activity from teachers. In times of continuous transformations, teachers deserve special attention because the effectiveness of all changes and educational reforms depends on them. Modern education and schools are becoming more and more prepared for both system and internal-system changes which should be initiated by competent and creative teachers. Overcoming the present school crisis, realizing the started, planned and postulated changes and shaping education that will become the stimulator of social and economic changes as well as general development in Poland and all over the world require creative commitment of teachers, including among others, changes in their mentality and attitudes towards innovations. In such a situation, it seems important to raise the problem of teachers' attitudes in the face of educational changes and their preparation for active participation in the processes of reforming education. The results of the reforms that are introduced and the future changes in education will depend on the attitudes of the modern teachers.

Consequently, it is worth thinking about and trying to answer the following questions: What attitudes can teachers have in the face of educational changes and what are their conditions? What attitudes concerning changes in Poland after 1989 do teachers have? Are they capable of overcoming present difficulties and crisis in the functioning of education? Are they ready to change school and reform education? What direction should their preparation take in order to make them actively join the process of educational changes?

Raising these important and difficult questions, a couple of attitudes can be found. Some of the attitudes, e.g. the one represented by I. Illich (1975) and his supporters, face the problem of the role of teachers in the changes by presenting radical views, claiming descholarization of the society, thus suggesting liquidation of
schools, without which teachers, form-masters and educators will not be needed. Others magnify the role of teachers and, as J. Galant (1996: 6) says, hold them responsible for the crisis in education. They assume active involvement of teachers in the process of changes. They claim that it is difficult to separate the actions and tasks from social actions that result from teachers’ initiative fixed by their professional role. As H. Kwiatkowska claims: “The borders of teachers’ duties are difficult to set because actions aiming at others’ goodness are difficult to set” (Kwiatkowska 1991: 104).

A lot of authors diminish the role of teachers in the process of reforming education. The supporters of such views assess teachers negatively, reproaching them for their lack of initiative, creativity and critical view on the existing reality. At the same time, they have requirements for teachers and propose introducing specific changes concerning the educational system, so they require what they think teachers are not capable of doing (Galant 1996: 6).

**Teachers’ attitudes in the face of educational changes**

Sociological and pedagogical literature frequently presents teachers’ attitudes as a state of disposition, the attitude towards something and the state of readiness to act or the state of activity concerning the subject of the attitude (taking actions). This attitude or disposition is investigated in categories of the teachers’ knowledge of the subject of attitudes including their assessment (cognitive component of an attitude) and emotions (emotional component) interpreted as acceptation – supporting, rejecting or ambivalent attitude towards the subject of the attitude. The state of readiness for taking actions that concern the subject of the attitude is interpreted as an outward element – a behavioural one. Most authors search for a fixed behaviour in the cause of attitudes. Thus, the actions are symptoms of the fixed attitude: knowledge, beliefs or emotional attitude towards things, people, situations, phenomena.

Taking this into account, it is worth characterizing teachers’ attitudes towards changes and getting to know their conditions.
Teachers’ attitudes towards educational changes can be generally divided into: **negative – conservative – behavioural**, which express reluctant, resistant and hostile attitude of teachers towards any changes and their inclination to remain in the status quo; **neutral – ambivalent – indifferent**, which means distancing oneself from any changes that take place in education; teachers who present this attitude take the role of outside observers of the changes; **positive – pro-innovative – creative**, which is possessed by teachers who have positive attitude towards changes, search for innovations, and are described as innovators (Kocór 2006: 73–74).

Except for conservative attitudes of teachers, Z. Pietrasiński names the following attitudes: pioneering – represented by teachers who independently search for and initiate creative solutions; receptive – represented by teachers who estimate changes positively and show eagerness to copy and follow them. The receptive attitude can be further divided into receptive-active, when teachers search for changes they could adopt, and receptive-anticipatory, when they anticipate decisions and ready-made projects of introducing changes issued by the superiors, however they do not show any initiative themselves (Pietrasiński 1970: 71–76).

C. Banach divides teachers’ attitudes towards the educational changes in the following way: imitative attitudes of the formal adaptation to tasks and duties, heading for status quo; good “craftsman” attitudes of those who consistently aspire to gain good work effects; creative attitudes of involvement in the process of educational changes, developing pedagogical dialogue between the subjects of education and the effort of the “author” of actions; pseudo innovative attitudes, which lack methodological preparation or experience; indifference, routine and temporary attitudes, which lack future perspectives; resignation and the attitudes of escaping into other problems and of so-called recalling substitute subjects, rebellion and sometimes quitting the job (Banach 1997–98: 5).

The good “craftsman” attitudes and conservative teachers’ attitudes are supplemented by T. Lewowicki with: conformist attitude caused by the deliberate and peaceful survival and the fear of losing the job; national functionary attitude whose representatives are obliged to change their attitudes and behaviour due to changes in the national
political system; supporters of changes who are passionate executers of reforms, sometimes the attitude results from unconsciousness of the responsibility for their own actions, from uncritical performance, one-sided perception of the social order and putting excessive trust in reformers, etc. (Lewowicki 1995: 118–121).

The classification described above shows that teachers can be supporters or opponents of the educational changes (Kwieciński 1991: 91–92). They can have indifferent, ambivalent attitude towards educational transformations. Very often such teachers have negative emotional and cognitive attitudes towards changes, and do not express readiness for their introduction. They show resistance against innovation. It can be called “zero” resistance or “minus” resistance – unwillingness or even hostility. This is an attitude of motivation, not passiveness, although “initiating important changes that require considerable differences from the shaped and approved examples of behaviour is faced with the reaction of more or less open and direct resistance” (Schulz 1997: 134). It is important to gain teachers’ approval, and in the case of unwillingness or indifference, decrease their strength and range (Kocór 2006: 75–77).

RESISTANCE AGAINST CHANGES

Resistance can be described as an illegal action or lack of action when it is needed, required and expected. This is a refusal to adapt to the requests expressed verbally or behaviourally, which can be observed or not. It is also a form of reaction to the dangers of interests of the entities or social groups that takes place as a result of introducing changes and innovations.

Consequently, it can be stated that teachers’ resistance against the educational changes is manifested by the lack of readiness to introduce the changes (passive resistance) or even fighting with the changes (active resistance). The resistance is an activity based competence and motivation types, teachers’ ability to resist. The main source of resistance is the inconsistency between the systems of values acknowledged by the teachers and the values carried by the changes (Ekiert-Grabowska 1997).
Resistance can take two forms: **common resistance**, caused by having incomplete and insufficient knowledge, abilities and competences, and lack of information concerning the planned changes; **individual resistance**, very often originating from emotional states, caused by internal prejudices and beliefs of individual teachers. This barrier is more difficult to overcome than the lack of information about the future changes. It is also caused by unskilled and ineffective reforms of education in the past (Ekiert-Grabowska 1997: 64–65).

Generally, it can be stated that the sources of teachers’ resistance can lie:

- **outside educational institutions** – social structures, non-educational institutions and organs, economic situation of the country, region or local environment, law, politics etc.
- **in educational institutions** – schools, their programs, stuff policy, material situation, equipment etc.
- **in people** – mainly teachers and headmasters, parents, students and education administration (Kocór 2006).

The main reason for teachers’ resistance to changes is a **discrepancy between the new requirements introduced by the changes and the psychological stereotypes and habits**. The increasing feeling of danger and the force of habit concerning the present conditions greatly influence unwillingness and hostile or indifferent attitudes of teachers towards changes which result in resistance, and will to stop any changes, or make the changes as small as possible. However, it is important to remember that resistance is a form of natural defence against losing the feeling of stability and safety. It concerns mainly teachers affected by the changes imposed by superiors who realize that the role that they had fulfilled so far will no longer be the same. This causes doubts about their competences and leads to the resistance against changes.

The lack of information about the future changes plays the main role in the process of increasing the resistance. The less teachers know about the changes, the more resistance and fear they manifest. This fact should be taken into account by reformers, dissidents, and education politicians so that they could stop resistance. Nevertheless, few authors treat resistance as a normal phenomenon, to some extent advantageous and useful, assuming that not everything that is new is good. The
analysis of the resistance can prove that some errors were made by those who plan and design the changes. The conviction that not every change is better or more valuable from the present state leads to the conclusion that not every resistance against changes should be treated as negative and destructive, resisting the innovation or conservatism. The resistance should be (indirectly) looked at from the point of view of reformers' interests but also of the active recipients of the change who have critical attitude towards the changes, and are not an object of simple manipulation. The history of the educational reforms gives us a lot of examples of changes that were introduced irrationally and baselessly, and brought about many harmful effects. Similar problems can emerge nowadays. As R. Schulz claims, fulfilling changes is not positive and the reaction of resistance against them is not negative. Consequently, the assessment depends on the specification of changes initiated by teachers or resisted by them, and on the analysis of the sources and causes of the resistance (Schulz 1997: 134).

It is said that teachers’ resistance to changes decreases when the changes are not introduced by orders and steered from the outside, so that their creators will be responsible for them and will feel its initiators, when the project of changes is presented publicly, e.g. by the people having authority; when teachers are informed and convinced that the changes will simplify their work and functioning, increase their prestige and acknowledgement, effects of their didactical and educational actions and will decrease their effort.

Moreover, teachers’ resistance decreases when a change is adequate to the values acknowledged by the majority of teachers who will be convinced that their present autonomy will not be violated; when they are included in the process of diagnosing the actual state of education via conducting pedagogical research, experiments, pedagogical press, taking part in conferences, seminars, scientific symposia, supplementing their education, perfecting, etc.

The threats of resistance will be smaller when a change is accepted by most of the teachers and if there are people who understand the reasons for resistance among themselves, when teachers are provided with feedback, and they are explained the need to introduce changes and reforms in education (creating the feeling of identification with changes).
If teachers have positive experience with the introduction of changes, if they trust the intention of changes, reformers, and educational dissidents, if teachers understand the changes and if their role in the process of reforming education is appreciated, teachers will treat the changes equally with cooperation, agreement and dialog which will definitely lead to their successful introduction.

Successful reforms will take place when teachers are assured of the possibility of revising the designed changes and withdrawing from them when they turn out to be wrong, as well as when initiatives concerning the introduction of alternative changes are developed. Apart from that, psychologists have to work at schools (therapy concerning pauperization of the teachers’ profession, persuasion). Their task will be to shape teachers’ readiness for changes in a mature and factual way by requiring criticism, commitment and cooperation. Undoubtedly, if conditions presented above are met, the level of teachers’ competences will increase and will include the progress of pedagogical thought and research in the scope of upbringing, positive attitudes towards changes and readiness to make them.

Teachers’ positive attitudes and their readiness for changes are influenced by the state of their consciousness and knowledge about the present educational policy in Poland, Europe and all over the world, self-criticism, their critical attitude towards the educational reality, and realization of the substantial need for changes; high level of competence, the system of introductory and incessant education; conducting scientific research on the state of education and its problems, directions of changes led by teachers-practitioners, cooperation with universities and science institutions and scientific workers.

Apart for that, their attitudes are affected by their ability to use modern scientific literature and pedagogical magazines, their interests in pedagogical literature – reading, publishing, inspiring. Other factors which are extremely important in shaping teachers’ attitudes are their personal features such as emancipation, criticism, creativity, identification with profession, their working environment – creative, active, open and responsible (features of schools as organizations), appropriate working payment conditions, material conditions, prestige, teachers’ authority, etc.
The following aspects also should be added as factors influencing teachers’ attitudes: teachers’ consciousness of their influence on educational reforms and designing changes and, as a consequence, the social, economic and cultural development of the country; active participation in preparatory works on educational reforms, stating deficiencies and malfunctions of the system of education or postulating changes and improvements. Reformers and politicians should consider teachers’ opinions, should be able to inspire them to creative work, activity, openness to changes, critical thinking and general involvement for the purpose of introducing changes by headmasters, methodologists, and those who teach or extend their knowledge, etc.

It can be assumed, after C. Banach, that teachers’ attitudes towards educational changes depend on the quality of their introductory and continual education, up-to-date knowledge on pedagogy, and living and working conditions (Banach 1997–1998: 4–8).

Research on teachers’ attitudes towards educational changes in Poland after 1989

Partial causes of teachers’ behaviour in the face of changes that are presently taking place can be found in their attitudes. That is why it is important to diagnose the attitudes of the modern teachers towards changes, their level of knowledge and their convictions about the purposefulness of the changes, emotional attitude towards the changes and readiness to materialize them. So far, there is little research on this subject, and when such research is conducted, its representativeness is doubtful.

The sounding research concerning the involvement of modern teachers and their attitudes towards educational changes in Poland after 1989 was conducted by M. Feiner and W. Went (Feiner, Went 1997). They claim that there are significant differences concerning the level and scope of teachers’ involvement in educational changes in Poland after 1989. Taking teachers’ general understanding of changes into account, they named three types of attitudes, providing their percentage contribution:
- **idealists and leaders (about 10%)** – are completely assured about the need for changes, eagerly and with interest gain information concerning changes, take part in meetings, discussions, conferences, scientific symposia concerning this subject. They undertake various initiatives of introducing changes such as their own course books, alternative syllabuses, and other unconventional solutions. Those teachers are the motive force for changes and inspiration for their less ambitious colleagues.

- **realists (about 60%)** – accept the need and directions of changes, but also criticize their weak points and faults, see difficulties and barriers for the successful introduction of changes into the present school realities. They are critical and reflexive. As “change healers”, they have positive attitude to perfecting their conceptions. They wish to work differently, but, what is alarming, they have an attitude of “awaiting observers” expecting a clear way of progress of changes.

- **sceptics (about 30%)** – similarly to realists, they see the need and sense of the reforms, however they remain passive, because they do not believe in successful changes. They express doubts about the success of introducing changes, and they do not see the possibility of realizing them. They wait for superior decisions. They think in old categories. They work according to the schemes and distance themselves from creative actions.

The ideas stated above can prove that the last type of attitude is presented by the teachers with instrumental and adaptive mentality. They are passive and helpless because they were taught that way. They do nothing to introduce changes into their consciousness. Their role in the process of reforming education is “reproductive”. They want to be manipulated and steered because they treat themselves as “country’s officials”, technicians of education. It can be states that this group of teachers is the most alarming and difficult to deal with during the process of reforming Polish education.

The authors came to the conclusion that the widest actions for the purpose of changes are taken by the teachers of the primary education and, in the second place, teachers of humanistic subjects. Science teachers are far less active. Teachers working at primary schools were far more involved in the processes of introducing changes than any other group of teachers.
M. Feiner and W. Went prove that the level and type of teachers' participation in changes are deeply connected with their knowledge and their attitudes towards changes. Teachers that have positive attitudes towards changes take various initiatives, and realize their ideas and solutions with passion. They create their own syllabuses, make their own course books and materials, they correct and improve syllabuses, create their own concepts of integrated teaching, use their own activation and student assessment systems, they participate in various forms of perfection such as seminars, sessions, and scientific conferences.

Despite the fact that changes in education have been taking place for a few years in Poland, the majority of teachers seems to be differently informed about the directions and essence of these changes. There are discrepancies in their assessment of the sense of these changes.

In spite of the fact that these changes are clearly described in ministerial documents and pedagogical literature a lot of teachers possess little knowledge on the prepared educational reforms and changing educational trends (Feiner, Went 1997). This fact proves that they do not read scientific magazines and literature concerning educational reforms, or treat them cursory and superficially.

Other research shows that the majority of teachers (70%) use methodological magazines which match their faculties, only 30% are interested in general pedagogical literature in which some information on changes and trends in education can be found. Thus, it is not surprising that teachers do not notice some changes as far as specialist, pedagogical and psychological knowledge is concerned (Waloszek 1997). It is difficult for them to understand the essence of mistakes in the previous psychological and pedagogical theories.

Research shows that there are conflicting opinions concerning values of educational changes among teachers. Some of them regard the autonomy of schools and its consequences as an unfavourable and destabilizing phenomenon, however they regard a decrease of the distance between teacher–student as a positive phenomenon although it can cause a lot of dangers (Wiłkomirska 1998: 16–19).

In her research, D. Waloszek proved that there are about 80% of teachers who rebel against modern educational changes, 2% are expecting them, 8% are sceptical and 10% disorientated. This
Teachers in the face of educational changes...

conclusion is bothering and not optimistic. The fact that the majority of teachers treat themselves as executors (craftsmen) and not originators (artists) (...) feel endangered, unsure and incompetent (Waloszek 1997: 300) is very pessimistic. The data mentioned above proves the lack of active participation of teachers in the process of changes commenced in 1989. The only comforting fact is that the research did not include all the teachers in Poland. Nonetheless, not long ago, Lewowicki wrote that present teachers’ reactions concerning changes were mostly negative. He asked with hope: “Will the new changes release new attitudes and motivations among passive teachers?” (Lewowicki 1995: 45–48). My own research proves that teachers assess the functioning of school and its role in the society positively and they have rather critical attitudes towards changes because of their personality, mentality, negative experiences concerning reforms of the Polish educational system, lack of belief in changes, insufficient care from the country and local governments concerning education, etc. I notice a change in the attitudes of teachers towards educational reforms into negative on the basis of results of the research conducted before the introduction of the changes and a couple of years after that. I did not decide to describe them thoroughly due to text limits, nevertheless I honestly recommend reading my publications concerning changes, reforms and teachers’ participation in that changes (Kocór 2006, 2007, 2008).

Different studies (Bogaj 1997: 5–8) seem to be optimistic due to the fact that 80% of the teachers do not agree with the fact that the Polish school is completely beyond reform and 52% could join the reforms. This phenomenon is positive when the chances of the effective educational reforms and shaping readiness for them among teachers are considered.

TEACHERS’ READINESS FOR CHANGES AND THEIR CONDITIONS

A lot of researchers claim that tiredness and pessimism among teachers result from uncertainty of the future, continuous changes in the government, dispositions, regulations, bad financial and material status of education, and very low salaries. It is said that teachers are not self-reliant, resolute, unhesitant and are not willing to show
themselves to others. Very often they stay in the background. It is caused by the fact that their need for acknowledgement and respect is insatiable. They also have low authority and social prestige (Żeleźny 1992: 74). Due to low salaries, there is no competition among teachers. Older teachers do not refresh their knowledge, they are resistant to innovations (Rusiecki 1996) and they have no abilities to use their knowledge. Lots of them do not continue their education because of the lack of time, motivation and money to pay for postgraduate studies, courses, workshops, conferences, to cover travelling expenses, hotels and to buy books. Apart from that, a lot of teachers do not have any vocation towards their profession; consequently they are not engaged in their jobs. They have no feeling of passion, internal strength and motivation. The statement that teachers’ attitudes do not change at all is still very popular. Teachers treat themselves as perfect and extremely patient. Accordingly, they do not have to require anything from themselves (...). School observations confirm that a lot of teachers show restrictiveness, intransigence and absolute attitudes and these are a part of schools’ everyday life (Ziółkowska-Sobecka 1996: 13). There are various reasons for such attitudes, the most popular of them are teachers’ inferiority complex, complex of a stone in a flowing river or a complex connected with material and social underestimation.

Such a situation requires quick and effective solutions. That is why an effort should be made by teachers, politicians, educational reformers, as well as the government and society to change teachers’ attitude towards changes in education, their consciousness, ways of thinking, self-acceptation and acknowledgement. In the future, their social prestige, material status and teaching quality and consequently modern teachers’ quality of teaching have to be changed.

In order to make teachers initiate and create changes and alternative models of education, they must be given the right to openly criticise Polish education and the ability to participate in educational politics of the country. On the basis of the research concerning teachers’ adaptation to social changes and education reforms, C. Banach concludes that although teachers generally approve of the present changes, they also postulate that the initiatives and decisions concerning education should be discussed and negotiated with them (Banach 1994). Nowadays, the Polish reforms are introduced
beside teachers and not with them. There are teachers on the one side and education politicians together with central ministerial organs on the other side. Very often both sides think in the categories of the previous system and act according to outdated schemes. That is why they should head for dialogue and cooperation with all educational subjects, bonds between theory and practice should be tighter, scientific actions should be integrated, teachers and politicians should take common responsibility for the effects of the introduced changes. The role of the creative initiator of changes requires also a teacher. Consequently, the purpose of the following deliberation will be to answer the question: What should modern teachers be like as co-authors of changes? What types of teachers should be educated?

In order to actively participate in the process of reforming education and to introduce effective changes, teachers have to be active, creative, critical and well-informed, able to constantly enrich their knowledge. Such teachers should be freed from fears, should show self-acceptance, should be sane and have zeal for work. Teachers who have their value systems threatened become less sensitive to social problems, including educational problems. Such educators must act suggestively and responsibly, thoroughly observe social and political events; should be open to the progress of science and technology.

Modern teachers should be strongly motivated to continue self-education and self-development. They should be able to fill in the new, difficult and more complex educational realities. A teacher – the creator of educational changes – should be characterized by the highest level of personal responsibility, should think critically and have cognitive inquisitiveness. It concerns autonomic identity, which is described by L. Witkowski (1990). A teacher who possesses identity that acts from the point of the threatened I aspires to submission, instrumental treatment of values and conventionalization of behaviours. The changes concerning the roles of teachers should be directed to involve teachers in social matters. Teachers have to be active, brave and critical, as "transformative intellectuals" (term: Giroux, Kwieciński, Witkowski, Szkudlarek). This change should release their subjectivity and creativity. Nowadays, the system of education needs teachers who are self-reliant, independent in thought and action, resourceful,
active and creative. Only liberated and autonomic teachers are more conscious, responsible for taking actions and their effects.

The desirable type of attitude in the face of changes in education is the attitude of a **reflective practitioner** – a person who thinks critically and uses reflection for the purpose of enriching practice. This is an attitude of rationalization, modernization and pedagogical creativity. According to D. Elsner: *Success of the reform depends mainly on “the load” of reflection given by teachers and headmasters to understanding the philosophy of the reform and “transferring” it into concrete and practical actions taken at their schools depending on their will to make an effort to become reflective practitioners* (Elsner 1998: 47–54). The notion of reflective practitioner was introduced by D. Schön (1987), however, Polish literature provides various definitions of the term. A reflective practitioner is a person who works through auto-reflection, studies and does research concerning working places, analyses experiences, draws constructive conclusions and is ready to change himself or herself and other people.

It is important to remember that experiences have various characteristics. For reflective practitioners, scientific knowledge is dynamic, and inspiring. Such teachers use innovations and are always up to date. They are autonomic knowledge seekers. They are active, happy with what they do, they have optimistic attitudes towards their jobs; critical thinking is dominant in such people. They are characterized by objectivity, intellectual curiosity, scepticism and honesty, respect for other opinions and attitudes, flexibility concerning the rejection of taking fixed positions, openness on compromise, orderliness, persistence in reaching aims and confident actions (Kocór 2006).

According to Z. Kwieciński, **teachers with critical and emancipative orientation are potentially or realistically more involved in changes**. The author understands this as *the way to approach the wider social world and dominant culture, which is characterized by the ability to analyze, understand, show hidden truths, expose myths and demystify ideologies as “false consciousness”. Such rationality is a fundament of aspiration and actions towards an alternative of the existing evil-being and crisis as a whole* (Kwieciński 1995: 86). A.T. Pearson thinks similarly and stresses that it is teachers’ **critical thinking that influences successful school reforms**. He claims that
this is the most required style of thinking and perceiving the world by teachers in the continuously changing conditions (Pearson 1988). However, research shows that most of teachers have adaptive attitudes of withdrawal (Radziewicz 1995). Many of them lack critical thinking. It is easier to be an observer of the complex educational processes and changes in education that are taking place than to constantly look for new solutions, initiate changes, and reject the older reality. That is why it is indispensable to develop such abilities during studies in various forms of teacher training.

CONCLUSIONS

In conclusion, it can be stated that besides having knowledge, intelligence and motivation, the modern teacher should have “a modern personality”. The task for psychologists, sociologists, educators would be to establish the features of this personality. A. Inkeles and D.N. Smith (Inkeles, Smith 1984: 440–446) list features such as openness to experiences, readiness for the acceptance of social and educational changes, activeness, informational energy, orientation towards the present and future, long-term action planning, professional aspirations, etc. On the basis of the research concerning correlates of innovative behaviours, they came to the conclusion that a human with “modern personality” is more emphatic, less dogmatic, more rational, has “cosmopolitan” and favourable attitudes towards changes, innovations and inspiration, science and education, is more intelligent, has aspiration, motivation and readiness to take risks. This is only one point of view on “the modern personality”, which should be represented by teachers. Personality of young generations depends mainly on those teachers.

While planning and introducing educational changes, it is important to reinforce the conviction that currently teachers can do much more for education than they could in the past, and that their role is very significant. Their present convictions and beliefs should be taken into account. Teachers should know each other well, so that they could be natural and authentic, and be able to confess their guilt.
It influences the courage of thought and shapes cognitive bravery, thus increasing self-assessment.

Are teachers able to survive the present difficulties, crisis and at the same time influence the development of education? Yes, teachers are capable of meeting the requirements of the modern times on condition that they are self-assured, assured of their actions taken for the purpose of general improvement. **They have to be aware of their important role in education which is leaving crisis** and in the process of continuous changes. They have to take transgressive actions (Kozielecki 1987: 10) which exceed the borders and aim at development and progress in education. They have to believe in their qualifications and in the fact they are able to work differently, have different motivation, they have to believe that they will change for better. The change of beliefs and attitudes should be the most important goal and task of institutions that train and educate teachers.

*What is a school without self-assured teachers?* – asks J. Galant (Galant 1996: 6). The Coombs’ opinion is also well aimed: *The change has to touch the internal life: feelings, attitudes, beliefs, self-understanding and understanding of the whole world* (Coombs 1985: 14). It is important to remember that changes usually succeed later than a change in the perception of others and this means that most of the teachers cannot be changed as a result of gaining knowledge about changes and their advantages. Only thanks to their own experiences they can substitute the old with the new. It is essential to change teachers’ consciousness, shape their beliefs, and release their cognitive motivation in order to make them want to use different sources to gain knowledge that would enrich their awareness. The aim of teacher training and education should be to release activity and search for new valuable and useful knowledge. There are few schools which hire teachers convinced of their abilities, of the fact that they can perform a very significant role in the process of educational reforms. They should become examples for those less active and they should commence new abilities, exceeding the present borders of their professional activity.

A lot of teachers who are given higher and higher requirements notice the present difficulties and crisis of schools. It is a vicious circle to expect different work and attitudes from teachers, although these teachers work in the same “unhealthy” conditions. The only way out
is to change the present system of training teachers, and to prepare them for creative involvement in the reform of schools, to prepare them to take “pro-innovative” attitudes, to be open for changes. It has to be added that some matters are not influenced by teachers whatsoever, e.g. capital expenditures, school equipment, etc. Together with the change of teachers’ mentality and system of their training and education, there should also be other changes like increasing capital expenditures on education, schools and scientific research, changing financial status of schools and the system of motivating and rewarding teachers.

The teachers participating in the research criticize overloaded syllabuses, shortages in material infrastructure, they accuse pedagogical superiors of treating them objectively and instrumentally, they also point to the weaknesses of their own preparation for almost every professional role (Banach 1997–1998) which is an important signal to introduce changes into teacher training. For many years J. Rusiecki complained that in times when we move towards integration with Europe we do not have qualified and competent teachers (Rusiecki 1996). However, teachers point out the main internal barrier to the introduction of educational changes, namely bad preparation in the scope of pedagogical and psychological abilities which are, in their opinion, essential for the realization of the new and more and more complex tasks. That is why they expect some help from the educational institutions and universities. They emphasize the need to change the education system, syllabuses, etc. (Feiner, Went 1997). The research also shows that teachers’ demands should be taken into account during the process of designing and planning changes, realizing that the scope and the way of overcoming crisis depends mainly on teachers. Apart from that, the success of reforming education depends on teachers, their readiness and effectiveness of their actions. At the same time, we should remember that preparing teachers for changes must comply with the requirements that are presently set by schools, which should know the directions of changes and contribute to the creation of new social and educational reality. It is essential to leave the old paradigm of reforms which assumes only adaptation of schools to changes in their environment. The condition of approaching the reform processes from a different point of view is to provide schools with autonomy
and to educate competent, creative teachers who can make use of achievements of the science. It is the lack of well-prepared teachers that causes tensions and difficulties in the functioning of education, consequently limiting social changes. Schools and teachers do not stimulate social development and become blockers of innovation.

Modern teachers have to play many roles, including change initiators, change designers and executioners of administrative decisions issued by their superiors. Thus, they should be educated in the way that would allow them to notice and solve various problems they meet at schools. It is essential to **prepare them not only to “receive” changes but mainly to develop critical, emancipative and creative attitudes.** They should be equipped with different qualifications and should shape their interpretative competences that will allow them to create conditions appropriate for their development. As R. Kwaśnica claims, without empathy, without the ability of deep auto-reflection, without critical analysis of the reality and conditions of their own work, teachers cannot be sufficiently prepared to actively participate in the processes of changes and, as a consequence, they do not follow educational changes (Kwaśnica 1980).

It is also very significant for teachers to have auto-creation competences – abilities to create pedagogical knowledge on the basis of their own experience, observations and research conducted for this purpose (Palka 1989). Not long ago, teachers were convinced that there is “full and sure knowledge” which was the foundation for their actions. It is important to answer the following question (as the next research subject): to what extent do teachers understand the idea of new paradigms in education with which they should be acquainted during their studies and inspired to search for more? Various suggestions concerning education should be proposed by teachers, should be widely discussed to become the “core” of education. It is clear that competent teachers know what they need for this profession. This is indisputable that teachers should have access to modern pedagogical, psychological, sociological and philosophical ideas in order to prepare themselves to active participation in the process of educational changes preceded with an appropriate motivation. On the basis of the research, Cz. Banach claims that teachers should be given conditions to increase their knowledge about:
– the processes, tendencies, mechanisms of the social and economic development in the times of huge social changes,
– laws and obligations of students and teachers, their desirable and undesirable goals, social and moral attitudes and interpersonal relations,
– assumptions of educational policy and its perspective programs, about “program basics”, “syllabuses”, course books, methods and didactic measures, which give them a chance to individualize and bring nearer education and needs of teenagers (Banach 1997–1998: 7–8).

Teachers need such information. As Z. Kwieciński claims, if older teachers educated during the previous political system do not follow changes, do not update or extend their knowledge, they adopt passive and opportunistic attitudes and make it difficult to effectively introduce changes and innovations. For this reason, it is essential to create new attitudes for teachers who would accept and create changes themselves and would trust the intentions for changes and cooperate in the building of better future (Kwieciński 1991: 88–99). A change in consciousness and attitudes is also postulated in order to make teachers understand the need for changes and their essence and reforms – not only educational but also social. Thus, it is indispensable to prepare teachers to see various conceptions of educational changes critically. These are proposed by various pedagogical trends such as pedagogy of dialogue, emancipative pedagogy, phenomenological pedagogy, hermeneutic pedagogy, humanistic, personal, global, multicultural, critical, etc. as far as abilities, limits and effects are concerned. Apart from that, teachers should also know directions of the changes and assumptions of the new models of education. Teachers who have more information about changes, have more certain sources and see their bigger validity are more likely to notice innovation features complying with their searches, expectations, values and needs. It is a mechanism of getting changes on their own, identifying with them, taking care of them. Nevertheless, the most important postulate for teachers’ effective preparation for changes is education in accordance with critical, creative and emancipative doctrines not the instrumental and adaptive ones, which were the main obstacles for changes. Authors of The report on educational policy in Poland (OECD 1996) long time ago suggested that a commission which would take care of reforming teachers’ profession should be created because
teachers are performing more and more difficult roles in conditions of the changing civilization.

Preparing teachers who will not only adapt to changes but will also participate in creating the new reality must be accompanied by actions aiming at the creation of new working places, better working conditions and higher salaries. Without these changes, there is no point counting on successful educational changes which are proved by reforms and pseudo-reforms to be apparent changes that do not contribute any good to the educational system. They only lead to confusion, despondency and pessimism. It is also essential to trust teachers and believe that they will change their attitudes, support the changes and create them, as it is said in the OECD report: it is believed that teachers will propagate new knowledge, behaviours and abilities needed by individual students and the whole society (OECD 1996). We have to remember that putting trust in teachers is not enough. It is extremely significant to change the way teachers are educated and trained as well as to trust them. They should also change their way of thinking and attitudes towards changes. We should trust that they will be ready and professionally prepared to play this extremely important role in the society.
Disciplinary interactions of teachers in comparison with their level of emotional intelligence and the style of classroom management

INTRODUCTION

Among the problems of the contemporary school, the issue of maintaining order and discipline seems to be of utmost importance. The observation of schools indicates ongoing changes. The present picture of the school is completely different from the picture that parents of our students remember. Caretakers securing the entrances to schools and knowing all the students by their first name are exchanged for magnetic doors and surveillance cameras.

However, the biggest changes occurred inside the school both in the organizational and social sphere (the relation between pupils and teachers). In most schools certain procedures are followed when students leave the school earlier, teachers during the breaks are obliged to control toilets, and the surveillance system prevents all kinds of dysfunctional behaviours. Some schools employ professional security agencies which ensure safety and peace. Other schools organize special trainings for the teaching staff concerned with drugs and aggression among pupils and ways of maintaining the discipline.

The analysis conducted by American researchers shows that the problem with maintaining the discipline is the biggest problem that teachers have to face. According to Veenman (1984), teachers who have just started working are the most prone to the disciplinary and pathological problems connected with the pupils. Polish teachers have to deal with the same problem, however its scale is not so visible as in America and in the countries of the Western Europe. The matter is
specific because problems with discipline occur not only among young teachers but also among those with longer experience (Ochwat 2010, 2011).

During the recent years, the change in relations between students and teachers has taken place. It is similar to a social revolution. Democracy based on economical development and free market made people equal, especially in the social sphere. Consequently, we have an equal right to express opinions, sympathy, or beliefs and to manifest the way we perceive the reality. According to Robertson (1998), the aftermath of this situation is the equality of rights among pupils and teachers. Because of that, dysfunctional behaviours of pupils, including loud expression of discontentment (e.g. with a mark), criticizing the behaviour of a teacher, expressing disapproval of the teacher, and ignoring the orders of the teacher with the use of aggression (direct or indirect), are very common. More and more often teachers have to deal with aggressive students who are not eager to learn, and to cooperate with parents who are not necessarily objective and blame the teachers for the problems of their kids.

These negative tendencies have a very negative impact on the contemporary school and the relations between its subjects. The reasons for this situation are innumerable. The teacher no longer leads pupils into the world of stable values. Today, everything is a matter of question. Many diplomas lead to unemployment, so pupils question the usefulness of the knowledge they have to possess. The role of the teacher no longer has an obvious meaning.

Discipline used to describe various kinds of phenomenon. There are different definitions of discipline that treat the phenomenon according to various initial premises. The definition by Kohut and Range is taken as the initial one (Kohut, Range 1986). According to their way of thinking, discipline is not connected only with punishing pupils for bad behaviour. It should lead to creating an atmosphere that helps pupils to learn, enables them to improve their internal control and to monitor their own personal behaviour.

Explicitly defining behaviour that disturbs the discipline has an important meaning for the teaching practice. For a definition of disciplinary problems to be useful for the teachers, it should clearly differentiate between behaviours that destroy discipline and require
an immediate reaction from the teacher and behaviours which do not need such a reaction.

Operational definition of the problems with discipline was suggested by Levin and Nolan (2000) who define it as behaviour which:

1. Destroys the act of teaching,
2. Disrupts other students’ right to learn,
3. Is physically and mentally dangerous,
4. Is connected with destroying somebody’s possessions.

The definition includes common behaviours like shouting or talking during the lessons, disturbing or teasing other students, and destroying some objects.

Emmer (1987) believes that managing the classroom and maintaining the discipline are extremely important ingredients of effective learning. Managing the classroom, which is a broader term than discipline, is connected with those actions of the teachers which support teaching at school. The term discipline is used to describe the level of the pupils’ discipline, their involvement into what happens in the classroom, and their readiness to complete tasks.

In the context of effectively performing the role of the teacher (Galloway 1988), it is expected that teachers not only skilfully pass the knowledge and motivate students to acquiring it, but also create atmosphere appropriate for teaching and learning. Consequently, it is important to control the group skilfully by introducing and enforcing the rules which enable effective group work. If pupils do not follow some disciplinary rules we can say that they are not disciplined. The aim of the teacher is to lead to a situation in which the pupils not only follow the discipline (behave properly) but also are able to control their own behaviours, i.e. they achieve self-discipline.

The following thesis is based on the trend in social research connected not only with the relation between the teachers and the pupils, but also between the world of the youth and the adults. Many researchers (Speck 2005, Nalaskowski 2006) believe that there are more and more tensions and misunderstandings between these two spheres and less understanding for each others’ needs, actions and attitudes.

The aim of the research was to establish what problems teachers might face during lessons and other situations connected with
working at school, in what educational areas teachers can encounter dysfunctional and pathological behaviour of pupils and how teachers react in such situations. The research also aimed at defining how the personal characteristics of a teacher direct his or her disciplinary actions at school as well as at discovering whether emotional intelligence influences the disciplinary interactions and classroom management.

The areas of educational interactions are understood in the thesis as the areas of interaction between the teachers and the pupils. It happens when a hierarchical relation is observed between the participants of those interactions and when the element of having control and maintaining appropriate social roles by the members of those interactions are taken into consideration. Besides the lessons, the basic elements of the class-lesson system that constitute the rest of teachers' disciplinary areas include breaks between lessons, school trips (e.g. to the cinema, theatre, etc.), few days trips or camps for the pupils, summer schools and the way to and from school.

On the basis of the previously stated considerations, the following research questions can be posed:

1. What kinds of interventions are used most often in particular educational situations (disciplinary areas)?
2. Is there a connection between the level of emotional intelligence and the style of managing the classroom?
3. Is there a connection between the level of emotional intelligence and the frequency of reaction in particular educational areas?
4. Is there a connection between the level of emotional intelligence and the types of intervention preferred by teachers?

At the same time, the following research hypotheses were stated:

H1: The level of emotional intelligence differentiates the number and type of disciplinary interactions used.

H2: The level of emotional intelligence differentiates the style of governing the class.
Material and methods

The research of disciplinary interactions of the teachers of various specializations was conducted in two stages. In the first stage of the project, the research notions were defined and research tools that were created for the needs of the research were prepared and empirically tested.

In the second stage of the research, adjustments were made to the trial research, appropriate approval and permission for carrying out the research were granted and the main research was carried out in accordance with strictly defined procedures. During the further stage, the research material was collected and subjected to the statistic analysis which presented the relation between the variables.

The following research tools were used:
1. The questionnaire of teachers’ reactions used in various educational areas,
2. The questionnaire of style of managing the classroom,
3. The questionnaire of emotional intelligence INTE.

The questionnaire of teachers’ reactions was prepared in a few stages. At the beginning, the most common dysfunctional behaviours of students were defined (on the basis of the research) and compared with the most common reactions of the teachers used in the particular situations. It was assumed that the research takes into consideration not only school situations during the lessons but also the situations outside the classroom and even outside the school itself.

Five disciplinary areas where hierarchical relation between teachers and pupils exists were differentiated:

1. **Compulsory classes** during which the pupils have numerous opportunities to disturb the classes by causing disciplinary problems. Here, the role of the teacher is to bring order into the classroom.

2. **Breaks between the lessons** during which the pupils frequently break the common rules, behave aggressively and irresponsibly. The role of the teacher on the school corridors is to prevent such behaviour and to minimize its results.

3. **Trips outside the school area** (e.g. cinema, theatre, sport competitions). These are situations during which the teacher has to pay great attention to the behaviour of the pupils, especially on the way to...
their destination (in the means of public transport), after arrival to the place and during the way back. The pupils can behave inappropriately during their way to the place as well as on the premises.

4. **Trips, camps outside the school** which usually last a few days. For the teachers of theoretical subjects it means going for camps and integration trips, while for PE teachers it means leaving for sport camps. Repertoire of behaviours in this case is extremely broad and certainly specific. The rules of the place where the pupils stay can be broken by the violation of the quiet hours, wandering off the place, smoking cigarettes and drinking alcohol.

5. **Teacher’s way to and from school.** Teachers frequently witness various behaviours of their students after classes and outside of school when they go to work or home. It can be presumed that some of teachers do not react in the presence of pathological behaviours of their students. The remaining teachers react in such situations, feeling their pedagogical and didactical mission.

In the questionnaire of teachers’ reactions, the behaviour of pupils that was contradictory to the school discipline was presented according to the following pattern: rebelling against the system of school discipline, against the teacher, against the colleagues. It was also grouped into the previously presented areas of educational interactions (5 types of interactions). Teachers’ reactions were divided into four groups in the questionnaire: verbal reactions, informal reactions, formal reactions and nonverbal reactions.

Verbal interventions usually aim at making the pupils aware of the inappropriateness of their actions and attitudes. The array of reactions of this type is very wide, beginning with a reprimand, talk, persuasion or negotiation and finishing with a sharp verbal reaction. Nonverbal reactions are connected with the teacher’s position towards the pupils. It includes teachers’ gestures, facial expressions, social distance, and glance, in other words the body language. These are the signals which are closely linked to the temperament. Formal interventions usually include punishments and rewards which are noted in the status of the school, generally accepted actions of the teacher such as giving the grades, analyzing pupils’ behaviour, writing a note in the class register or the pupil’s register, informing the headmaster or the parents of the pupil. The informal reactions are commonly accepted actions or
individual reactions worked out by the teacher such as additional tasks for a misbehaving student, the necessity of staying after the lessons, isolating the pupil from the rest of the group or ignoring the wrong behaviour.

The questionnaire of teachers’ reactions was constructed in the following way: the problematic behaviour of the pupil (e.g. the pupil was late for the lesson) was presented in a defined area of educational reactions of the teachers (e.g. during the classes) and a number of possible teachers’ reactions were presented (according to the previously mentioned groups). On the order scale, the frequency of using the particular reaction was defined. The respondents who filled in the questionnaire were to choose their own disciplinary reactions and state the frequency of using them in case of discipline violation by the pupil. Apart from the presented teachers’ reactions (stated on the basis of the previous research), each card of the questionnaire contained a field in which teachers could present their own “unusual” reactions which were not included in the questionnaire. Each card contained a description of one educational situation (the area of the teacher’s interaction and the pupil’s behaviour) with a set of reactions to choose from. If a teacher does not react in the particular situation, a set of answers explaining the lack of reaction was presented. All of the questionnaire elements (pupils’ behaviour, teachers’ reactions, lack of reaction and the personal reactions of the teachers) were shown in the form of a table to achieve the maximum clarity of the tool.

Finally, the questionnaire presented 19 types of pupils’ behaviour which cause problems in the five educational areas (lessons, breaks, trips with the teacher outside the school, longer trips and camps, and the way of the teacher to and from the school) with the appropriate disciplinary reactions.

The classic division of the classroom management styles into autocratic, democratic and liberal was taken into consideration during the creation of the questionnaire. The questionnaire of the style of classroom management was created by connecting the ingredients that define the styles of managing the classroom according to Flanders with the areas of managerial behaviour. The areas include steps taken while setting the aims, proceedings during the planning phase, and proceedings during finding new ideas and while making decisions,
behaviours during accomplishing tasks, behaviours during assessment and behaviour in problematical situations. For each type of managerial behaviour three styles of management were incorporated: autocratic, democratic, liberal.

The questionnaire consists of 24 statements (8 reaction areas x 3 styles) for which the respondents answered according to a four-grade scale. Grade 1 has the biggest intensity of the given characteristic (I totally agree = 4 points), while mark 4 the lowest (I totally disagree = 1 point). The higher the score achieved in a given style of teaching, the greater is the intensity of that style in the work of the respondent.

As the authors of the Polish version of the questionnaire stated (Jaworowska, Matczak 2001), emotional intelligence measured by INTE covers the ability to notice emotions as well as the ability to use the emotions while thinking and acting. During the research that deals with the accuracy of the questionnaire in measuring the level of emotional intelligence INTE, significant differences in results among the people having various types of jobs were observed.

One of the factors that determine the choice of the future job includes one’s personal abilities. Extraordinary INTE results were achieved by doctors, nurses, teachers, psychologists and clergymen. The significant differences in the INTE results between the groups of professionals and the students of various specializations, and a strong connection between the INTE results and the social competences may lead to the conclusion that INTE can be a useful tool in professional counselling. The highest results are achieved by people whose work involves contact with other people. It suggests that INTE can be used in the recruitment process of the professionals enumerated above.

It can be stated that emotional intelligence is a crucial factor determining the work of a teacher and has a considerable influence on whether the professional live is a great success or a great failure. Consequently, this tool can be used to measure the abilities of the teacher and can help to deal with the problematic situations at school.
RESULTS

The survey sample (Babbie 2004) was randomly chosen from among the teachers of 30 middle schools of various specializations in Cracow. The layered, random and proportional choice was used.

881 teachers from the schools in Cracow participated in the research, 655 women (74.35%) and 226 men (25.65%). 686 respondents (77.87%) taught theoretical subjects and 195 (22.13%) taught physical education. The sex division in both specializations is presented in Table 1.

Table 1. Sex division in the surveyed specializations

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Specialization</th>
<th>Theory</th>
<th>PE</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>No.</td>
<td>%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sex</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>f</td>
<td>563</td>
<td>82.07%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>m</td>
<td>123</td>
<td>17.93%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>All</td>
<td>686</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

$\chi^2(1) = 96.92; p < 0.001$

The average work experience of the respondents was 14.28 years (SD=8.22); the shortest experience was 1 year; the longest 41 years. The description of the most frequent reactions of teachers in the middle schools was presented in the form of a table (Table 2). Because of the fact that the list of teachers’ interactions in all kinds of educational situations is very long, only the five most frequently used reactions were presented in the table. The results can be interpreted as individual actions, not as a sequence of actions (behaviour of the pupil - reaction of the teacher – improvement or lack of improvement of the pupil’s behaviour, etc.)

After analyzing the data in Table 2, it can be noticed that the most common educational reactions used by the teachers are verbal and formal reactions. Less frequent were informal reactions (stemming from the school traditions or personal experience of the teachers), and nonverbal reactions. It seems that the teachers admitted to using verbal reactions including individual reprimand of the pupil, individual talk with the pupil after the lesson or incident, expression of disapproval (connected with the behaviour of the pupil in front of the whole class),
explanation of the incorrectness of the behaviour, and a request for changing the behaviour.

An individual talk with a pupil after the classes or after the incident is a post factum intervention which has an individual character and does not involve other members of the class. Expression of the disapproval during the lesson is more aversive as it incorporates other pupils into the process of maintaining the discipline. It is frequently done at the expense of the tempo and fluency of the lesson as the teacher is forced to stop the process of teaching in order to express his or her disapproval.

Explanation of the impropriety of the behaviour is a less strict reaction in which the teacher explains the pupil that the particular behaviour disturbs the lesson and other students in the class. Frequently, the teacher refers to the common rules of behaviour in the classroom which are set by the way the school is organized. However, this reaction is very time-consuming and needs a lot of patience and persuasion skills. The request for the change in behaviour is a positive or neutral reaction which is deprived of negative emotions. This reaction is directed towards a specific pupil or a group of pupils. In order to make that reaction effective, the teacher needs to express the request in calm and a matter-of-fact manner to avoid showing the position of domination and submission.

The most common formal reactions in all educational areas and situations are informing the class teacher and writing a note in the class record book informing about the behaviour of the pupil (at the end of the record book there is a special column for such notes), as well as notes informing about latecomers and absences.

Informing the class teacher is the reaction which is postponed in time. The teachers acting in this way probably blame the class teacher for the negative behaviour of the students. After all, the class teacher tries to enforce the positive changes in the behaviour of the pupil. The note in the class record book is a formal intervention which stays for a long time in the school documentation. The results of that intervention are also postponed in time, since the note is taken into consideration while deciding about the final note, or can result in asking the parents to visit the school. At the end of the class record book, there is a special card which is designed for that purpose. The class teacher analyzes the notes and decides about the next steps of disciplinary actions.
Table 2. The five most popular interventions used by teachers in the particular educational situation (regardless of the sex and specialization of the teachers)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Situation 1</th>
<th>Situation 2</th>
<th>Situation 3</th>
<th>Situation 4</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Average</strong></td>
<td><strong>Average</strong></td>
<td><strong>Average</strong></td>
<td><strong>Average</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A note in the class record book</td>
<td>Individual reprimand</td>
<td>Individual reprimand</td>
<td>Individual reprimand</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.39</td>
<td>3.48</td>
<td>3.36</td>
<td>3.35</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Individual reprimand</td>
<td>Short meaningful look</td>
<td>Informing the class teacher</td>
<td>A note in the class record book</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.03</td>
<td>2.91</td>
<td>2.89</td>
<td>2.79</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Short meaningful look</td>
<td>A request for the change in behaviour</td>
<td>Individual talk after the classes</td>
<td>Expression of disapproval</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.55</td>
<td>2.69</td>
<td>2.81</td>
<td>2.70</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A request for the change in behaviour</td>
<td>Informing the class teacher</td>
<td>A note in the class record book</td>
<td>Informing the class teacher</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.33</td>
<td>2.45</td>
<td>2.77</td>
<td>2.70</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Witty remark</td>
<td>Individual talk after the classes</td>
<td>Explanation of the impropriety of the behaviour</td>
<td>Individual talk after the classes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.25</td>
<td>2.41</td>
<td>2.72</td>
<td>2.57</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Situation 5

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th><strong>Average</strong></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Individual reprimand</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A request for the change in behaviour</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Expression of the impropriety of the behaviour</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Individual talk after classes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Expression of disapproval</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Sit.1. A pupil is late for the class.
Sit.2. A pupil disturbs the lesson (verbally or physically: moves, does not listen to the teacher’s orders, does not pay attention).
Sit.3. A pupil acts aggressively and provokes the teacher and other students.
Sit.4. A pupil uses vulgar language.
Sit.5. A pupil does not listen to the teacher’s orders or does it negligibly.
Situation 6
- Individual reprimand: Average 3.38
- Informing the class teacher: Average 3.17
- Individual talk during the break: Average 2.96
- Explanation of the impropriety of the behaviour: Average 2.91
- A note in the class record book: Average 2.89

Situation 7
- Individual reprimand: Average 3.42
- Informing the class teacher: Average 3.34
- Individual talk after the incident: Average 3.22
- An imperative to apologize the aggrieved: Average 3.09

Situation 8
- Individual reprimand: Average 3.43
- Informing the class teacher: Average 3.28
- Individual talk after the incident: Average 3.09
- Explanation of the impropriety of the behaviour: Average 2.92

Situation 9
- Individual reprimand: Average 3.59
- Informing the class teacher: Average 3.05
- Individual talk after the incident: Average 2.94
- Explanation of the impropriety of the behaviour: Average 2.84
- Expression of disapproval: Average 2.80

Educational area II: breaks between the lessons

Sit.6. A pupil destroys the equipment of the school (e.g. benches, toilets, sport equipment, etc.).
Sit.7. A pupil behaves aggressively towards other pupils: laughs at them, hits them, makes inappropriate comments.
Sit.8. A pupil does not act according to commonly accepted rules of the school: throws rubbish, smokes, drinks alcohol, or takes drugs.
Sit.9. A pupil behaves vulgarly during the breaks, uses bad language and gestures.
### Educational area III: trips outside the school (e.g. to the cinema, theatre, or sport competitions)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Situation</th>
<th>Average</th>
<th>Situation</th>
<th>Average</th>
<th>Situation</th>
<th>Average</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Individual reprimand</td>
<td>3.56</td>
<td>Individual reprimand</td>
<td>3.60</td>
<td>Individual reprimand</td>
<td>3.27</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Individual talk with the pupil</td>
<td>2.93</td>
<td>Individual talk with the pupil</td>
<td>2.92</td>
<td>Explanation of the impropriety of the behaviour</td>
<td>3.13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Request for a change in behaviour</td>
<td>2.80</td>
<td>Request for a change in behaviour</td>
<td>2.81</td>
<td>Informing the class teacher</td>
<td>2.99</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Informing the class teacher</td>
<td>2.78</td>
<td>Informing the class teacher</td>
<td>2.80</td>
<td>Strict taking the pupil back to order</td>
<td>2.91</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Explanation of the impropriety of the behaviour</td>
<td>2.67</td>
<td>A note in the class record book</td>
<td>2.62</td>
<td>A note in the class record book</td>
<td>2.78</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Educational area IV: longer trips with the youth (school, sport camps)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Situation</th>
<th>Average</th>
<th>Situation</th>
<th>Average</th>
<th>Situation</th>
<th>Average</th>
<th>Situation</th>
<th>Average</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Individual reprimand</td>
<td>3.48</td>
<td>Individual reprimand</td>
<td>3.37</td>
<td>Individual reprimand</td>
<td>3.50</td>
<td>Individual reprimand</td>
<td>3.54</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Individual talk with the pupil</td>
<td>3.34</td>
<td>Individual talk with the pupil</td>
<td>3.32</td>
<td>Individual talk with the pupil</td>
<td>3.42</td>
<td>Individual talk with the pupil</td>
<td>3.46</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Informing the parents</td>
<td>3.24</td>
<td>Informing the parents</td>
<td>3.24</td>
<td>Informing the parents</td>
<td>3.28</td>
<td>[\text{explain}]</td>
<td>3.38</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Explanation of the impropriety of the behaviour</td>
<td>2.99</td>
<td>Explanation of the impropriety of the behaviour</td>
<td>3.19</td>
<td>Explanation of the impropriety of the behaviour</td>
<td>3.17</td>
<td>[\text{explain}]</td>
<td>3.31</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Informing the class teacher</td>
<td>2.98</td>
<td>Informing the class teacher</td>
<td>2.97</td>
<td>Informing the class teacher</td>
<td>3.11</td>
<td>Informing the class teacher</td>
<td>3.26</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Situation 10. A pupil behaves incorrectly in a tram or a bus.
Situation 11. A pupil behaves incorrectly after arrival to the destination place (the cinema, theatre, etc.).
Situation 12. A pupil stays out of the group without the permission of the teacher.

Situation 13. A pupil does not follow the rules of the place (e.g. violates the quiet hours, destroys the equipment and devices).
Situation 14. A pupil goes outside the area without the teachers’ permission or avoids taking part in organized activities.
Situation 15. A pupil behaves aggressively towards teachers and colleagues.
Situation 16. A pupil drinks alcohol/takes drugs.
### Educational area V: teacher’s way to/from school

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Situation 17</th>
<th>Average</th>
<th>Situation 18</th>
<th>Average</th>
<th>Situation 19</th>
<th>Average</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Individual reprimand</td>
<td>2.97</td>
<td>Individual reprimand</td>
<td>3.14</td>
<td>Informing the class teacher</td>
<td>3.19</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Informing the class teacher</td>
<td>2.86</td>
<td>Informing the class teacher</td>
<td>3.05</td>
<td>Individual reprimand</td>
<td>2.93</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Individual talk with the pupil</td>
<td>2.76</td>
<td>Individual talk with the pupil</td>
<td>2.73</td>
<td>Informing the parents</td>
<td>2.85</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Expression of disapproval</td>
<td>2.56</td>
<td>Verbally taking the pupil to task</td>
<td>2.71</td>
<td>Explanation of the impropriety of the behaviour</td>
<td>2.85</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Short, meaningful look</td>
<td>2.54</td>
<td>Informing other teachers about the pupil’s behaviour</td>
<td>2.47</td>
<td>Individual talk with the pupil</td>
<td>2.84</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Sit. 17. A pupil comments and labels the teachers by laughing at them in public places e.g. a bus stop, a bus.

Sit. 18. A pupil behaves in a vulgar way outside the school, uses vulgar vocabulary and gestures towards other pupils and teachers.

Sit. 19. A pupil smokes cigarettes, drinks alcohol, or takes drugs outside the school.
The most common informal reactions were explaining the necessity of apologizing to the harmed pupil, and informing other teachers about the actions of the pupil.

The necessity of apologizing to the harmed pupil is the intervention which aimed at forcing the wrongdoer to admitting to fault, expressing the remorse and apologizing to the pupil who was harmed. The intervention of that kind needs possessing the skill of persuasion, in order to enable the teacher to achieve the previously set goal. Informing other teachers about the incident is a reaction which passes the information about the problem to other teachers or only to the chosen ones. Usually, that intervention does not have any formal consequences for the pupil and presents only the teacher’s personal interpretation of the incident.

The nonverbal reactions were presented in the case of the situation 1 – the pupil is late for the classes, and situation 17 – the pupil comments and labels the teachers, laughs at them in public places. In this kind of situations a short meaningful look was used. As the researchers highlight (Robertson 1998), body language in nonverbal communication has a significant meaning. Mixed with other reactions, eye contact has a crucial role in communicating the meanings. When teachers want to show that the pupil behaves incorrectly, they frequently treat the wrongdoer with a long, piercing look, raising the eyebrows at the same time. It is a short intervention, aimed at a single pupil, who is the source of the problem.

In general, some of the interventions are regular and occur with high frequency in all kinds of educational areas and situations. Because of the fact that the number of possible reactions is very high, only the most common reactions were presented in the outline. It seems, however, that teachers react in a very schematic way in certain problematical situations. Interventions used in all kinds of situations are described as the universal reactions and are used by the teachers with no specific connection to the place or educational situation.

One can notice a set of specific original reactions used only in clearly defined situations, however they are placed at the end of the list in the outline.

In that context, it is worth considering whether teacher’s personal qualities have any impact on the choice of disciplinary interventions
and the general point of view on school discipline and class control. Because of that, an attempt to analyze the correlation between the emotional intelligence of the teacher and a way of controlling the pupils was made. For that reason, the first research hypothesis (H1) which says that the emotional intelligence of the teacher differentiates the number and type of disciplinary interventions that he or she uses was verified. The analysis was made with the use of the Spearman’s rho correlation which is used to measure the connection between measurable variables and to order them.

Analysis of the correlation between the level of emotional intelligence and the frequency of the reactions in the given educational situations leads to the following observations:

- the higher the level of the teacher’s emotional intelligence is, the more frequently he or she talks with the pupil during the lesson in a situation when the pupil does not listen to the teacher’s orders or does it negligibly (positive correlation, weak connection),
- the higher the level of the teacher’s emotional intelligence is, the less frequently he or she gives a mark from the subject he or she teaches when the pupil goes outside the school without the teacher’s permission or avoids taking part in activities, e.g. during school trips (negative correlation, weak connection),
- the higher the level of the teacher’s emotional intelligence is, the less frequently he or she informs the headmaster of the school when a pupil behaves badly towards other members of the class or towards teachers (negative correlation, weak connection).

The presented correlations are connected with three educational situations which belong to the group of two educational areas. In the rest of the situations no important correlations were observed.

Answering the research questions:
- Is there a connection between the level of emotional intelligence of the teacher and the frequency of the reactions in the particular educational situations?
- Is there a connection between the level of emotional intelligence of the teacher and the types of preferred interactions?

It should be noticed that, apart from the three examples above, there was no statistic differentiation between emotional intelligence,
and the frequency and type of disciplinary interventions used by the teachers.

It should be also noticed that, making the verification of the hypothesis H1, the level of emotional intelligence of the teachers does not differentiate the number of the disciplinary interactions used. When it comes to the type of interactions used, the correlations were noticed in three types of reactions: individual talk after lesson (positive weak correlation), giving a mark from the subject (weak negative correlation), and informing the headmaster of the school (weak negative correlation).

In general, it can be observed that when it comes to the examined teachers, the set of abilities that condition the choice of emotions while dealing with problems (mainly in social situations) does not influence the types of disciplinary interventions used. Such a conclusion comes from the fact that a correlation was observed between the type of relations and the level of emotional intelligence in three out of nineteen possible types of educational situations. Consequently, teachers control and discipline pupils in a very unified and sometimes even schematic way (they use universal reactions). The actions of the teachers that are designed to maintain order at school do not have any connection with the level of emotional intelligence. Therefore, this type of teachers’ activity is not in relation to the empathy, which is one of the elements of emotional intelligence.

Thinking about the relation between the level of emotional intelligence and the style of managing the class, verification of the second hypothesis (H2) which states that the level of emotional intelligence differentiates the style of managing the class was made. During the verification of the second hypothesis (H2), analysis of the correlation of R. Pearson was used to examine the relation between the measurable variables. Because of the big number of respondents (N=881), even very low correlations (below r = 0,1) are statistically important. Correlations of this type, even statistically important, are certainly entirely marginal. Consequently, while analyzing all kinds of variables (management style, character, emotional intelligence), only correlations higher than 0,2 with p < 0,01 were taken into consideration.
Table 3. Correlation between the psychometric tests (correlation of R. Pearson)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Democratic style</th>
<th>Liberal style</th>
<th>SPP</th>
<th>SPH</th>
<th>RPN</th>
<th>INTE</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Autocratic style</td>
<td>-.25**</td>
<td>-.22**</td>
<td>-05</td>
<td>.01</td>
<td>.01</td>
<td>-.04</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Democratic style</td>
<td></td>
<td>.32**</td>
<td>.18**</td>
<td>.06</td>
<td>.13**</td>
<td>.26**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Liberal style</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>.15**</td>
<td>.17**</td>
<td>-.02</td>
<td>.05</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SPP</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>.28**</td>
<td>.60**</td>
<td>.31**</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SPH</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>.31**</td>
<td>.17**</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>RPN</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>.35**</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

** p < 0.01

As it can be concluded form the data presented in Table 3, there is a weak positive correlation between the level of emotional intelligence of the teacher and the democratic style that he or she represents. However, there is no visible correlation between emotional intelligence and the other styles of class management (autocratic and liberal).

Answering the research question whether there is a connection between the level of emotional intelligence and the style of the classroom management, it should be stated that there is no correlation for autocratic and liberal style, and when it comes to the democratic style there is a weak positive correlation.

Verifying the H2 hypothesis, it can be stated that the level of emotional intelligence of the teachers does no correlate with the represented liberal and autocratic style; however it shows a positive connection with the democratic style. It seems, that the higher the level of emotional intelligence the teacher possesses the more often he or she uses a democratic style to manage the classroom.

CONCLUSIONS

A teacher – an important person in the life of every pupil – influences the development of the pupil’s mind. Certainly, this influence depends on many conditions: whether the teacher has a rewarding meaning for the pupil, whether the pupil likes the teacher (and the other way round), whether the pupil pays attention to the opinion or
approval of the teacher and whether the pupil appreciates substantive abilities of the teacher (Górski 1986). Most of us acquired the intuitive knowledge of that kind from schools we used to attend and in which we had contact with various types of teachers. There were teachers who not only could teach perfectly and were able to make the subject interesting but also supported students in difficult situations of the school life.

So, what characteristics a teacher who is a councillor, a friend or even a therapist has? What kinds of abilities or special techniques a teacher of that kind should have?

According to Rogers’ theory (1991), the only condition that is necessary for the effective therapy and education to take place is the possession of the triad of behaviour:

1. empathy – the ability to understand the feelings and emotions of other people,
2. acceptation – the respect for other people and equal treatment without setting additional expectations, no matter what the current behaviour is,
3. congruence – the teacher’s ability to react according to his/her feelings, without pretending or hiding them.

The first condition – empathy – is a personality trait connected with the definition of emotional intelligence. Generally, emotional intelligence can be defined as a set of characteristics which condition the use of emotions while dealing with various problems, especially in social situations (Strelau 2000). In the literature, it is possible to find many definitions and components of emotional intelligence (Goleman 1997, 1999; Bar-On 1997).

The model of Salovey and Mayer (1997) involves four different types of abilities which constitute emotional intelligence. The first group includes the ability to notice and express the emotions including the ability to notice the emotions in our own physiological states, thoughts and experiences. Other abilities in that group are connected with observing emotions in other people (on the basis of the tone of voice, behaviour or appearance) and the ability to express the emotions and the needs connected with them.

The second group consists of the abilities that accelerate emotional thinking (the ability to assimilate the emotions in a cognitive process). This group of abilities includes the ability to emotionally direct the
attention (directing it for the important information), the ability to find in oneself some defined emotions which can help to understand the situation better, the ability to accept various points of view (corresponding with the changeable moods), the ability to use various actions to deal with the problematic situation.

The third group includes the abilities to understand and analyze emotions and take advantage of emotional intelligence. These are: the ability to define emotions, the ability to interpret emotions, their connection with the defined behaviour (e.g. the connection between sadness and loss), the ability to understand complex feelings (e.g. love combined with hatred), the ability to understand and predict changes in emotions (e.g. the change from anger to shyness).

The fourth group consists of the abilities to control and regulate the personal emotions and the emotions of others. These are: the ability to “open” for both positive and negative emotions, the ability to engage consciously in emotions or to separate from them, the ability to follow and grade the emotions, the ability to direct the emotions of others as well as our own emotions – getting rid of negative and enforcing the positive ones.

Such a model indicates the complex and simultaneously crucial ability of a human being to deal with problematic social situations. Numerous psychological, pedagogical and pedeutological research indicates the importance of “the emotional warmth of the teacher” (Janowski 1980) for his or her effective didactic and educational work.

Teachers in their professional careers are faced with the dynamic environment where the educational, social and didactic situations are constantly changing. They have continuous contact with their co-workers, pupils and headmasters. Almost every time when we are in contact with other people, we create interactions of various levels of intensity, complication and various time of existence.

Interaction has an extremely broad meaning and deals with various levels and aspects of an individual influencing others. It can consist of a wide range of interactions between teachers and pupils and is connected with the range of the requirements, the type of control of the material, typical ways of participation in classes or the atmosphere during the lessons. On the other hand, it can be considered in the micro scale. Then, it is possible to analyze the lesson, e.g. on the basis of the number of answers initiated towards the pupils, the types of tasks or in
the context of the chain of interactions (the pupil answers – the teacher reacts – the pupil modifies the answer).

According to Janowski (1980), pupils and teachers observe each other carefully and communicate. It can be stated that they are in constant interaction, and two kinds of phenomena are involved in that interaction: perceiving and communicating with each other. Mutual interaction is needed to create the appropriate educational and didactical results, which can be defined in the category of attitude. The interaction between the pupils and the teachers takes place in the presence of a team, which is not passive. At the beginning of each interaction it is possible to measure the involvement of each member of the team. So, it is possible to talk about the functions crucial for the interaction of the teachers, pupils and the team.

Generally speaking, interaction is a mixture of various aspects of mutual influence of the individuals in a micro and macro scale, dealing with broad aspects of human interaction and other variables which include the social position, type of personality, level of knowledge, the age of the individuals involved, the preferred procedures of the lesson, or expectations towards the pupil–teacher relation.

Research (Jackson, Lahaderne 1967) devoted to the interactions in the classroom, especially interactions between teachers and pupils, was conducted by Jackson and Lahaderne. The following types of interactions were defined:

1. Training interactions in which the participants deal with the program from a given subject or aim at gaining precise educational effects,

2. Interactions concerned with the type of management aiming at interpretation of the rules governing the classroom,

3. Approval or disapproval interactions which aimed at keeping the class in order and punishing the incorrect behaviour.

The research made by the author dealt with disciplinary interactions, i.e. the interactions between teachers and pupils as well as between the teacher and a group of pupils. The researched problem did not deal only with the situations during the lessons or at school but also with the situations outside the school.

The research presented that the level of emotional intelligence of the teachers shows a positive correlation with the teacher intervention which is an individual talk with the pupil after the class. Teachers with
the higher level of this type of personality more often talk individually with the pupils who behave incorrectly, usually after the lesson, without the presence of other members of the class. Such talks enable the pupil and the teacher to concentrate on the real reason and consequences of that behaviour. A pupil who is deprived of the presence of the colleagues certainly can analyze the problem in a better way than in front of the whole class. The social context of the class (the social interactions of the other members of the group who would witness the intervention of the teacher) would change the possibility of analyzing the situation. For the teacher, the group of peers is certainly an element that changes the effectiveness of the educational interventions.

From the rest of the results, it is worth mentioning that the level of emotional intelligence of the teachers is in inverse correlation with interventions such as giving the lower mark from the subject and informing the headmaster about the problem.

When it comes to other cases (interventions), no significant connections were observed. Thus, it is possible to state that emotional intelligence does not influence the way of behaviour while disciplining the pupils in various educational situations.

The research on the disciplinary interventions presented that there exist specific interventions which are used in educational situations and areas. However, a set of universal interventions used by the teachers in most of the interactions was also observed (Table 2).

On that assumption, it can be stated that the teachers’ actions aiming at bringing back the order in the classroom are unified, schematic and limited to a certain number of interventions. Emotional intelligence (the emotional warmth of the teacher) influences other areas of teaching process, not necessarily the way of disciplining the pupils.

The research showed positive correlation between emotional intelligence of the teachers and democratic style of managing the classroom.

Very detailed research (Mika 1998; Hamer 1994) on the styles of managing the classroom leads to the conclusion that, despite the fact that the democratic style should be preferred by the teachers, it seems to be quite important to adjust the elements of management to the qualities which are present in a given situation.
Hamer believes that the teacher’s flexibility to adjust the management style to the level of adulthood of the pupils is the quality which each teacher should possess. Not only is the level of adulthood of the pupils important but also the position of the leader in the structure of power. When the position of the leader is very low or very high, autocratic style of management seems to be more effective; when the position of the leader is average, he or she influences the subordinates more effectively using the democratic style. Taking into consideration the type of the task that the group has to deal with, it seems that the autocratic management is more fruitful when the task is clear (there is nothing to be discussed, action is needed), or when there is no task or the one that exists is not clear (then it must be forced). When we have to deal with a task that is not explicit (there is a need to explain it and discuss), democratic management seems to be more effective.

Thus, the teachers should modify the management style depending on the following conditions: the context of the educational situation, the qualities of the involved parties, the type of the task or the conflict, the place of the incident and others. Despite the fact that teachers with the higher level of intelligence more frequently manage the classroom in a democratic way, they need to change and adjust the management style to the precise situations.

The knowledge of the possible reactions of the pupil who may cause problems also has some practical meaning. The more the teacher knows about the problematic behaviour of the pupils, the more he or she can be prepared for that. On the other hand, the awareness of some disciplinary procedures can be extremely useful. The choice of disciplinary reactions is quite broad and gives the teacher an opportunity of choosing the appropriate reaction depending on the situation, the characteristics of the teacher and the pupil. The ability to adjust the reactions to the variables enables the teacher to choose the appropriate set of interventions adjusted to the situations, taking into consideration the personality traits and the methods of managing the classroom. Such knowledge (Hammer 1994) certainly enriches the teacher’s workshop with new competences and abilities in dealing with managing and controlling the classroom and leads to a better discipline and consequently better educational results.
Michał Tomczak
Gdansk University of Technology

The awareness of the profession and the self-reflection of the primary, secondary and upper secondary school teachers on their own practice in the light of empirical studies

INTRODUCTION – PROFESSION AND PROFESSIONALISM

The term profession refers to a system of concepts and symbols (Robson 2006: 22). It is synonymous with job, activities which a person specializes in, and deals with in their job, therefore “professionally”. H. Kwiatkowska (2008: 167–168) claims that contemporarily there is a tendency to understand the profession in terms of the level of performance, however, work in occupations identified as professions is so complex that it is difficult to determine the closed system of activities assigned for them.

Ch. Day (2004: 21–22) distinguishes four basic features in the traditional understanding of the concept of “a professional”:
1. specialized professional knowledge – technical culture,
2. making meeting the customers’ needs the main objective – the service ethic,
3. a strong sense of collective identity – professional involvement,
4. colleague cooperation as opposed to bureaucratic control of the practices and professional standards – professional autonomy.

The author makes a reservation that due to the fact that teachers have no control over professional standards (and their autonomy is reflected primarily in the expression of their own judgments when making decisions in the classroom), their profession is said to be semi-freelance and their professionalism is described as limited professionalism or growing professionalism. Being focused on class
environment it has an intuitive nature and to a greater extent comes from experience rather than theory.

Professionalism is not merely a skill, efficiency or effectiveness in practice. It is the type of practice referred to as the mission of a public service (the profession of public trust), the implementation of the relevant objectives and targets of the social welfare, the performance of which requires the highest qualifications, including ethical and moral qualifications, and meeting high cognitive, performance and ethical standards. Professionalism cannot be updated on the grounds of the past experience, duplication, and playback of the familiar activities, because the acquired skills may be insufficient for a professional who faces new conditions of the implemented practice. There is a necessity for the self-study (both individually and in groups), and reflection on one’s own practice, especially the new, unconventional circumstances and work situations. The result of these actions is the creation of personal knowledge that is complementary to academic knowledge (Kwiatkowska 2008: 167; see Śliwerski 2010).

Within the modern concepts of the current discourse in the field of profession and professionalism of teachers, a few points of view and several dimensions or types of professionalism can be observed, particularly with reference to English literature (Gewirtz, Mahony, Hextall, Cribb 2009: 3). There appears, among others, a new concept of professionalism (Hargreaves, Day 2004: 27–28; Nixon, McKreown, Ranson, Day 2004: 31–32; Elliot in Kwiatkowska 2008: 183–186), then managerialist professionalism and democratic professionalism (Sachs, Day 2004: 33–34). J. Evetts (2009: 19–30) distinguishes some other types of professionalism: an organizational professionalism and occupational professionalism. According to J. Reeves (2009: 106–116), the following can be distinguished today: restricted bureau-professionalism, managerial professionalism, and, finally, new professionalism. According to the concept of Eric Hoyle (cf. Kwiatkowska 2008: 181–183), some other varieties of professionalism of teachers are distinguished, namely, limited and extended professionalism.

However, for the research whose results are presented below, the concepts of professionalism by D. Schön and E. Wenger seem to be the key ones.
TEACHERS AS REFLECTIVE PRACTITIONERS AND MEMBERS OF THE COMMUNITY OF PRACTITIONERS

According to D. Schön (cf. Kwiatkowska 2010), professionals are reflective practitioners who are able to reflect on and recognize their own deficiencies and thus continue their development. Their characteristic is to make a reflection in action and reflection on action. As a consequence, Schön’s empirical research demonstrates that a spontaneous action performed by professionals (including teachers) which is adequate to the specific situation and requirements of the moment has its source in the professionals. In the process of “knowing in action”, i.e. learning in action, the operations of thought are run, but they cannot be easily verbalized or explicated. However, they are the subject of reflection and a subsequent description by a practitioner-professional after the occurrence of a specified event (Gołębiński 2003).

Reflection in action is characterized by the fact that it is contextually limited, since it describes the decision-making process of the teachers at a time when they are actively involved in teaching, which means the continuation and modification of the action while on the run (Kwiatkowska 2005; see Gołębiński 2003). However, the reflection on action takes place already outside the professional practice that is its subject, and is therefore unlimited. It is still focused on the specific, practical actions, which in a way means a temporary pause during the action in order to reflect on it, in response to a new stimulus, an event that has occurred in a situation in which it operates. This reflection takes place both during the action and after its completion (Day 2004: 54, Kwiatkowska 2008: 69–70).

E. Wenger (2002a) introduces the category of “communities of practice” in the context of professionalism. These are groups of people who are interested in the same issue, share the same passion for doing what they do and teaching one another how to do it better during their regular interactions. These are unique combinations of three basic components: the domain (identifying a set of issues), the community of people who are characterized by their care for the particular field of knowledge, and a common practice which they continually refine in order to be effective in their field (Wenger, McDermott, Snyder 2002b: 27–40). Participation in such communities is mostly informal and is
The awareness of the profession and the self-reflection... based primarily on good will, the will to act and mutual interest in a specific subject area. Being a member of a particular community of practitioners is not determined by a profession or degree, but most of all by interactions, and learning from each other by all the people who form the community. Common range of interests and similar problems encountered in everyday life allow for the creation of specific identities within each community of practitioners, which in turn produces a whole repertoire of knowledge such as: experiences, tools, stories that simply build up their common practice. The practice and shared knowledge enable the understanding and giving the meanings (as a consequence of the processes described earlier: the negotiation of meaning, participation and reification), bearing witness to the coherence of the group (Wenger 2002a: 49). Participation in a community can not only assure the exchange and acquisition of knowledge, but also facilitate both professional and personal development. Communities of practitioners can take many forms and can be small or big, long-lived or short-lived, collocated or distributed, homogeneous or heterogeneous, spontaneous or intentional, inside and across boundaries, unrecognized or institutionalized (Wenger et al. 2002b: 24–27). Teachers – members of the community of practitioners – gain knowledge, teach each other, and consequently develop themselves (which is particularly important in the context of their profession), becoming more effective teachers and practitioners – professionals.

THE NATURE OF RESEARCH

The problem undertaken in the study is an attempt of describing teachers’ awareness of their own profession and daily practices, the vision of their professional role, a sense of identity as well as satisfaction and professional activity. Empirical data was obtained by means of a survey. The study (the results presented below are a part of the research project done under the promotional grant by MSHE nr NN 106007238, supervised by Prof. T. Szkudlarek) was exploratory in nature, the result is a description of the report, the picture of the surveyed population, and therefore no hypotheses had been formula-
ted before the research was commenced. The study used a survey questionnaire, which is a standardized technique designed for quantitative studies, however it was based on direct communication. The sample was selected according to the method of selecting the quota and consisted of 290 people (245 women and 45 men) employed in public elementary, secondary and upper secondary schools in Gdansk.

**AUTOSTEREOTYPE OF THE TEACHER**

In an attempt to describe the awareness of the teaching profession, it may be worth looking at the advantages and disadvantages of this occupation, which were indicated by the respondents. Among the most troublesome symptoms related to the teaching profession, the issues related to low salary were pointed out by more than three quarters of the respondents (75.4%). As for the drawbacks, approximately half of the respondents mentioned the lack of money for the necessary equipment, poor facilities (52.1%), and inappropriate behaviour of pupils (48.2%). What was also pointed out were: employment insecurity (27.1%), stagnation, lack of meaningful changes for the better (26.4%), lack of expertise and competence of some teachers (24.3%), conflicts and tensions between teachers (20.1%), uncertain regulations concerning rewards (18.3%), uncertainty about the intentions of the management (17.6%), extortion of the need for further training through different levels of career advancement (13.7%), too much parental interference in the school affairs (12.7%), poor housing conditions (10.6%), and poor relationships with the school management (2.1%). 7.4% of the respondents still pointed to other problems such as growing bureaucratization and the excess of the paper work, or the prospect of the low old-age pensions. Women are slightly more bothered by the employment insecurity and low salaries, while men often complained about the lack of money for the necessary equipment and poor facilities, stagnation and the lack of meaningful changes for the better. The oldest (over fifty years of age) and the youngest (before their thirties) more often indicated the employment insecurity and low salary. Teachers in their forties also more frequently mentioned conflicts and tensions between teachers,
stagnation, the lack of meaningful changes for the better, and too much parental interference in the school affairs.

Table 1. Disadvantages associated with the work of a teacher

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Disadvantages</th>
<th>%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Low salary</td>
<td>75.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lack of money for the necessary equipment</td>
<td>52.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Inappropriate behaviour of pupils</td>
<td>48.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Employment insecurity</td>
<td>27.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Stagnation</td>
<td>26.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lack of competence of some teachers</td>
<td>24.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Conflicts and tensions between teachers</td>
<td>20.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Uncertain regulations concerning rewards</td>
<td>18.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Uncertainty about the intentions of the management</td>
<td>17.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Extortion of the need for further training</td>
<td>13.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Too much parental interference in the school affairs</td>
<td>12.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Poor housing conditions</td>
<td>10.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Poor relationships with the school management</td>
<td>2.1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: own research

Among the advantages related to work, three-fourths of the respondents (74.6%) listed long holidays and stated that the reason for their satisfaction is the achievements of their students (64.8%). Approximately every other surveyed also pointed to the possibility of interesting, independent and creative work (51.2%), and the ability to pursue their passions and interests (46.7%). The following places ranked on the grounds of the frequency of the responses provided are occupied by benefits such as the sense of stabilization, employment security, low risk of losing their jobs (34.5%), the possibility of training, the use of various types of subsidized courses which allow for boosting qualifications (27.9%), the possibility of career advancement (23.7%), good reputation and popularity with the students (17.8%), professionalism and competence of the colleagues (17.1%), clear and transparent rules of remuneration (12.9%), well-established position in the workplace and “good prospects” for the future (8.7%);
the prestige of working in school that brings recognition and respect among other people (6.6%), satisfactory remuneration for work (2.1%) and some other benefits which were indicated by 2.4% of subjects such as: developing creative thinking and acting on the part of the students, “infecting” students with interesting passions, pro-social attitude, less than twenty hour working week, contact with other people. Middle aged teachers (i.e. people over forty years of age) and older ones who are in their fifties more often indicate the possibility of realizing their passions, interests and their reputation and popularity with the students. The possibility of an interesting, independent and creative work and promotion, along with the prospect of long holidays were more frequently mentioned by young teachers.

*Table 2. Advantages associated with the work of a teacher*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Advantages</th>
<th>%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Long holidays</td>
<td>74,6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Satisfaction with achievements of the students</td>
<td>64,8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The possibility of interesting work</td>
<td>51,2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The possibility of pursuing passions and interests</td>
<td>46,7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sense of stabilization</td>
<td>34,5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The possibility of training</td>
<td>27,9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The possibility of career advancement</td>
<td>23,7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Good reputation and popularity with the students</td>
<td>17,8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Competence of the colleagues</td>
<td>17,1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Clear and transparent rules of remuneration</td>
<td>12,9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Well established position in the workplace</td>
<td>8,7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Prestige of working in a school</td>
<td>6,6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Satisfactory remuneration for work</td>
<td>2,1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: own research

Interestingly, several advantages mentioned by some respondents are treated as drawbacks by others. Almost every fourth responding teacher (23.7%) recognized career advancement and development as an asset resulting from the exercise of the profession. Nearly 28% also indicated the possibility of training and participating in the subsidized
courses as an advantage, but almost 14% of the respondents said that enforcing the need for training is one of the drawbacks of this profession. Similar differences in the respondents' opinions can also be seen in opinions about the rules of payment, which are regarded as clear and transparent by nearly 13% of the respondents, while over 18% of them is of the opposite opinion. An even greater discrepancy of the results is visible in the judgements concerning salaries in education since more than three-fourths of the respondents complain about them compared to only 2% of the teachers satisfied with their salary. One interesting phenomenon is also constituted by large differences in the assessment of the realities of working in education. Thus, less than 35% of the respondents mentioned stability and certainty of the employment which gives them a sense of stability as an advantage, while over 27% of the respondents mentioned employment insecurity and uncertainty about the intentions of the management as drawbacks (17.6%).

**Motivation in choosing an occupation**

When it comes to the reasons that led to choosing the teaching profession, more than a half of the respondents (58.3%) indicated their interest and willingness to work with children and adolescents as a deciding condition. Quite a high percentage of the surveyed (37.5%) also mentioned their education and completed pedagogical studies as the reason for choosing this career. Treating the teaching profession as a vocation was indicated by every fourth teacher (25%), while the creative nature of the work was noticed by 23.3% of respondents. There were also such responses as: a convenient working time (17.7%), family tradition (14.9%), or the prospect of stable employment (9.7%). According to the declarations, 12.2% of the teachers chose their profession accidentally, few (1.4%) have also identified a desire to gain respect in the community. As can be seen, the motifs for the choice of the profession were determined mostly by personal interests, which were reflected in the majority of the responses and the perspective of the creative nature of work.
It is worth noting that holidays were listed as by far the greatest benefit of the profession, however in the light of the above findings it did not turn out to be the decisive motive for choosing this career path.

As many as 66.9% of the respondents declared that they would not select the teaching career if they had the opportunity to choose again, 35.2% of which is definitely convinced of that opinion. Only one in ten respondents (10.7%) declared readiness to choose the same career, and as many as 6.9% of them answered “rather yes”. Every fifth respondent did not have any strong views about this question.

VISIONS OF THE PROFESSION DEVELOPMENT

Before I proceed to presenting the results of the research about the visions which teachers have on the directions of development (which they should follow in their profession), I would like to notice that the surveyed, without significant differences caused by gender and age, are unanimously aware of the exceptional nature and characteristics of their profession. As many as 82.7% of the teachers claim that teaching
The awareness of the profession and the self-reflection...

is a unique profession, and educating and bringing up young people should be dealt with only by highly qualified professionals who have good reputation and high moral standards, because being a teacher is not only a profession but also a kind of mission and vocation.

![Pie chart showing opinions about the teaching profession]

*Chart 2. Opinions about the teaching profession*

*Source: own research*

A similar trend which involves perceiving the teacher’s job as unique and particularly important socially has been revealed in the responses to a question concerning the role the teacher should have in the course of his work. Nearly one in five respondents (18.5%) agrees with the statement that a teacher is a professional who should only pass his knowledge and teach specific skills, while the family is primarily responsible for civic education and the preparation of young people for active participation in the social life. The vast majority of respondents (77.3%), however, broadens the teachers’ duties and their professional responsibility and believes that a teacher is an educator who should not only pass on his knowledge and teach specific skills, but should also educate young people as citizens and prepare them for active participation in the society. Only about 4% of the respondents had no definite opinion.

Comparing the responses of those questioned in terms of demographic data such as age, some regularities appear. The older the person, the higher the percentage of answers that the teacher is
primarily an educator and the differences between the two variants of answers increased for different age groups, beginning from the youngest: 39.1%, 44.2%, 60.4% and 79.4%. The chart below shows the detailed percentages of the answers.

![Chart 3. Visions of the role of the teacher with regard to age](chart)

Source: own research

Teachers, asked which of the four selected and proposed functions they regard as the most important within the framework of the educational process, list the following: the substantive function (transmission of the specific knowledge and skills) – 21.3%; civic function (preparing students for active participation in the social life, the science of “being a citizen”) – 9.4%; cultural function (inflicting the need to be in touch with the highbrow culture on students) – 5.2%, and the ideological function (transmission of the specific ideological, historical content) – 1%. Above all, however, most respondents (61.2%) believe that all of the above functions are equally important and should be pursued in the course of education delivered to pupils, which corresponds to the previously presented response about a teacher as a master who does “an exceptional job”.

As far as the management of a group of students or a school class is concerned, respondents were asked to choose between the two selected styles tentatively named: democratic (all the important decisions consulted with the students) and authoritarian (decisions are taken by the teacher alone). One in three respondents (34.2%) pointed to the first of these styles, whereas only one in forty respondents (2.5%) guides students in an authoritarian manner. Respondents had quite clear views about it – only about 2% responded “it is difficult to say”. The majority (61.3%) declared they comply with the “golden mean” rule, which is the use of both the democratic and authoritarian style. Women and young people were a little more inclined toward the democratic style.

Trying to sketch an outline of how the respondents envisage the future of the teaching profession, they were asked to identify a set of qualities they believe “the perfect teacher” should have. The answers focused particularly on four combinations of features of which most of the respondents (70.5%) pointed to: patience, tolerance and kindness, then (63.9%): ease of making contacts, openness in communication, what conventionally can be called “a good approach to a student”. 59.7% respondents indicated the acquired characteristics which do not have so much reference to the teacher’s personality: the substantive knowledge, and high professional competence. The last of the most frequently mentioned characteristics indicated the combination of diligence, conscientiousness, and responsibility (51.4%).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Features</th>
<th>%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Patience, tolerance and kindness</td>
<td>70,5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ease of making contacts, openness in communication, “a good approach to a student”</td>
<td>63,9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Substantive knowledge, high professional competence</td>
<td>59,7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Diligence, conscientiousness, responsibility</td>
<td>51,4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Creative character of work</td>
<td>37,5</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Responses of men and women were very similar, although women slightly more often pointed to the features such as the creative nature of work, objectivity, innovation and fairness. The men have laid more emphasis on diligence, conscientiousness and responsibility.

Analyzing the structure of the responses according to the age of the surveyed, some differences can already be noticed. The younger teachers highlighted personality traits such as patience, tolerance, kindness, ease of making contacts, openness in communication, “a good approach to a student”, diligence, conscientiousness and responsibility. The older respondents, especially those in their fifties, often pointed to the substantive knowledge and high professional skills, talent and teaching skills, i.e. features very strongly linked to the teaching process, which is probably conditioned by experience and the knowledge of the realities as well as the scope of the situations resulting from everyday teaching practice, and these features directly translate into their expertise.

THE LEVEL OF IDENTIFICATION WITH THE PROFESSION AND SCHOOL

The vast majority of teachers (89%) identify themselves with the school in which they work. An even higher percentage of the respondents (90.9%) declared to identify themselves with the profession and their responses to this question are very firm, because about 65% of the people who identify themselves with the profession,
definitely chose the answer “yes” and only 26% said “rather yes”. The percentage of the respondents not identifying with the school and the profession was negligible, and fluctuated around 3%.

Identifying with a particular place or a particular professional group, however, is not synonymous with the experience of a sense of pride in this respect. 71.1% of the teachers declare to be proud of their work in school, although it is worth noting that more than half of them declared to be rather proud of it, with about 9% of the teachers claiming that they do not feel any pride in this respect. One in five respondents (19.6%) did not have a crystallized opinion about that. More than three quarters of the respondents (75.6%) take pride in working as teachers, the majority in this group firmly saying “yes” (39,2%), whereas 8.5% of the respondents declared no pride to work in the teaching profession. The respondents in their fifties and working in primary school revealed the strongest sense of identification with both their profession and the institution they work in.

The teachers’ sense of pride in their work in school was argued in the following ways:

- *It’s nice to work with people who care about the fate of students, who care about the working environment and complain less than the average Pole.*
- *I have an impact on the positive perception of the school and good results achieved in examinations and competitions.*
- *I think that the school in which I work is in some way different from the others. There is a very friendly atmosphere, discipline. The education level is high, teachers are very involved.*
- *The school performs well, is perceived well in the environment, liked by the students.*

However, the question of why the surveyed teachers are proud of teaching triggered responses such as:

- *The ability to help others, the diversity of situations makes me feel needed, the contact with pupils raises my self-esteem.*
- *Teacher’s work is a very important social function – the development of young people who will make decisions about our future.*
- *Working as a teacher is very interesting, it gives me great satisfaction, enables to discover the world together with the students.*
• *I see the results of my work, observe the development of the children, parents appreciate my work and years later I meet with kindness and gratitude of a large number of my students.*

• *I treat the teaching profession as a vocation in my life and working with the students gives me great satisfaction.*

• *It is a beautiful and noble profession.*

• *I like seeing the results of my work that is a weak student who understands the problem and a capable student who wins awards.*

THE SENSE OF BEING A SUBJECT

For the sake of this paper the sense of the impact on the surrounding reality was decided to be a crucial determinant. The teachers who were asked whether the people who actively participate in various associations, organizations, clubs, trade unions, etc. have a real impact on different areas of their daily lives such as the workplace (the school in which they work), the issues of the local environment, city affairs, matters of the country and the situation of a particular group of people (e.g. teachers), have a rather pessimistic attitude towards it. In all cases, the percentage of the negative responses oscillates on the level of tens of percentage points, as compared to only a dozen or so percent of the people who believe that the activities of various organizations and associations have a real influence on what is happening around us.

The replies of the respondents who were directly asked whether they feel they influence what is happening around them were also dominated by a scarcely optimistic tone. The teachers have a sense of influence merely on their place of work (i.e. the school where they work), the ratio of 56.9% of affirmative answers to 19.4% negative ones, although among those declaring a sense of influencing their workplace, the majority (42.4%) was thoroughly convinced about it, marking the answer “rather yes”. As for the sense of influencing the immediate environment (the place of residence – a building, street, estate, district), the ratio of the affirmative and negative responses is similar: 32.7% to 38.2%. In the case of further questions, the differences are very high. The sense of the influence on the situation in the city
of residence was declared only by 3.7% of the teachers, compared to 71.9% of the respondents who are of the opposite opinion. Similarly, the influence on the country’s affairs and the authorities’ policies brought a huge disproportion between positive and negative responses: 5.8% to 74.8% respectively. The differences in the responses concerning the impact of the surveyed teachers on the teaching environment are by far smaller, although still the opinion about the lack of influence prevails (40% vs. 28.6%).

![Chart 4. The sense of impact](source)

Source: own research

**JOB SATISFACTION**

Responses to the questions that were designed to determine the level of satisfaction with the professional situation in which the teachers find themselves present a fairly optimistic view. The respondents who were asked whether they like their job, almost unanimously answered “yes” (up to 95.8%), including as many as
68.3% of them who firmly believe it, and 27.5% of the respondents answered “rather yes”. The teachers who claim that they dislike their job constituted a small percentage, less than one percentage point. A high percentage of affirmative responses is seen in the answers to the question of whether the teaching profession brings them satisfaction. Over 90% of the surveyed replied affirmatively, and over a half of those (51.6%) declared a firm conviction. Only less than two percent of the respondents gave opposite answers.

These figures seem even more interesting when confronted with the already presented results of the previously conducted studies related to the issues of motivation and identification. The peculiarity of this profession (which is characterized by a kind of an inner conflict and contradiction, seen as a common denominator by most of the surveyed teachers) seems to be further confirmed by the fact that despite the vast majority of the respondents takes pride in being a teacher, identifies themselves with the profession, likes their job, and declares that it is a source of satisfaction, only one in ten teachers, given the opportunity, would be willing to re-select their career path.

![Chart 5. Selected opinions about the occupation](image)

Source: own research
Creativity and professional output

Taking the subject of creativity and a creative approach to work into consideration, it is worth getting to know the teachers’ attitude to change. 67.2% of the respondents believe that the introduction of any changes in their school is necessary, and only 13.7% are against it. Only one in ten respondents (10.5%) expressed concern that any changes in school will shake his position at workplace, while nearly three quarters of the people surveyed (73.2%) do not feel such concern. Furthermore, up to 88.7% of the teachers (compared to only 3.9% of negative answers) declare that they willingly engage in changes which lead to the improvement of the quality and organization of work at school. Finally, as many as 81.6% of the respondents said that they might undertake difficult and responsible tasks in their job. Only 6% would not like to make such an effort.

Taking these answers into account, one can create a very optimistic picture of teachers as self-confident, self-assured and self-aware competent professionals who are open to changes and new challenges. Is that really true?

Comparing these figures with the subsequent responses a kind of contradiction is highlighted. On the one hand, teachers who were asked to assess changes in the educational system introduced by the reform of education which decentralizes the school system and gives teachers more freedom in choosing the curriculum, for the most part (41.2%) were of the opinion that adjusting the program to the specific needs of the students it is a very good solution. The percentage of affirmative responses prevails, which seems to confirm the abovementioned “favourable” attitude towards changes. Only according to 24.8% of the respondents the above changes proved to be a bad solution because the programmes implemented by different teachers are too diverse, which may cause the diversification of the opportunities for the students sitting examinations later. Strangely enough, after more than ten years since the reform was introduced, one out of three teachers (33.9) has not formed an opinion on this matter.

On the other hand, only a quarter of the teachers surveyed (24.3%) used the opportunities created in this area by the education reform and implement their own original curriculum. It is true that 30.1%
declared readiness to apply their own copyright syllabus in the future, but almost half of the respondents (45.6%) is confined to the standard syllabus perceiving it as the best solution. Women are more likely to implement the copyright syllabus whereas men often declare such an intention in the future. Considering the age structure, both its current implementation and plans for the future in this respect, were declared by the respondents between thirty to thirty-nine years of age.

In this case, some inconsistency can be seen, since the respondents declare flexibility, openness to change, welcome more freedom to contribute to setting up the curriculum, and at the same time do not fully exploit these opportunities.

**ATTITUDES TOWARDS DEMOCRATIZATION AND SOCIALIZATION OF THE MODERN SCHOOL**

Teachers are favourable towards the idea of socialization of the modern school. As many as 92% of them agree with the statement that the development of cooperation and strengthening the partnership with the school environment, for example, through cooperation with the local community and parents in the organization of the events, festivals and clubs, common rooms etc. is a very important element in the educational process. Only 2.4% of those surveyed thought the opposite.

The youngest teachers (up to twenty-nine years of age), all of whom shared this view, are most favourable to the idea of openness and socialization of the modern school. Responses to this issue were not differentiated by gender.

The respondents also agree with the idea of treating parents as participants in the system and regard it as beneficial for the school, pupils and the whole process of education. Such view is present in 65% of the respondents’ feedback, compared to only 15.5% of the teachers who claimed that excessive parental involvement in the affairs of students, school and the educational process is not beneficial. It should also be noted that almost one in five teachers (19.5%) backed up neither concept. The oldest teachers (72.2%) and women (65.8%) are slightly more favourable to this statement.
The awareness of the profession and the self-reflection...

The respondents also cooperate with school organizations. 58.3% of the respondents cooperate with the school self-government, 54.5% with the parent’s council, 73.5% with the form council, whereas the cooperation with the teachers’ trade unions was declared by less than half of the respondents with the proportion as low as 46.1%.

Women more frequently declare their cooperation with the parents’ council and trade unions, and men work with the school and form self-government. The oldest age group often collaborates with parents and form self-government, the youngest with the school self-government, and middle aged respondents (forty to forty nine years of age) with the teachers’ trade unions.

As many as 85.2% of the teachers believe that the parents’ council has an influence on the school’s affairs, half of them (49.4%) believe that this is a significant influence, while only 1.8% of the responses were contrary. The respondents also appreciated the role of the school’s self-government and as many as 80.9% of them say that it affects the school’s affairs (as compared to only 5.2% negative responses). A slightly lower percentage of affirmative responses was received by the form government (64.6%) and trade unions (56.6%), with several percents disagreeing with this statement.
Men more often pointed to the school council and trade unions, while women to the parents’ and form council. The teachers over fifty indicated the parents’ and form council, respondents between forty and forty-nine the trade unions and the school’s self-government (similarly to those between thirty and thirty-nine).

CONCLUSIONS – APORETIC AWARENESS OF THE PROFESSION AND HOPES FOR THE FUTURE

Awareness of the profession and its understanding by the surveyed teachers is diversified, although most of the respondents perceive their profession as unique, as the realization of a mission, and only few are of the opinion that it is a profession like any other and therefore should not be given a unique rank. The teachers identify themselves with their profession, are satisfied with it, even declare pride. At the same time, if they had such a possibility, they would not have chosen this profession again, and thus they would be voluntarily deprived of a source of pride and satisfaction with being teachers. Perhaps the aporetic understanding of the nature of their own profession is a consequence of an arduous nature of the work and difficult conditions under which they have to work, feeling undervalued, imposed and formalized (and simultaneously demotivating) promotion system and the unsatisfactory salaries, which in turn may lead to the phenomenon of burnout.

On the other hand, it is worth to emphasize the occurrence of the trend described above (with which one can hope for making changes in the teaching profession gradual evolution and further professionalization possible). The youngest teachers (in their twenties) tend to perceive their job in professional categories (professional performance). It can be interpreted as the beginning of the transformation process within the studied occupational group, and consequently the chance for gradual convergence of the model of the reflective practice in teaching, which is the concept introduced by Schön, or a member of the community of practitioners in accordance with the theory of Wenger.
Perhaps the teacher of the future will prove to be a professional aware of himself and his work, able to carry out a constructive reflection on his practice which will open new opportunities for analysis and discussion of teaching with others, for creating a community of practitioners, making teachers even more aware, and more effective professionals.

The possibility of developing the teaching profession is one of the potentials which can be confirmed in the long run by further research in this thematic area.
Rehabilitation educator as a reflective practitioner in the eyes of the students of resocialization

INTRODUCTION

Diverse, multi-cultural, non-transparent and problematic nature of contemporary life along with the crisis of today’s institutions, social life and interpersonal relationships (Nowak-Dziemianowicz 2008: 135) account for both the cause and the background of the search for a new model of teacher/educator and a new model of teacher training that would be more adequate to the requirements of today’s world that is marked by both civilization and cultural transformation.

The contemporary understanding of education as “a set of inter-generation actions serving the formation of the entirety of human abilities (physical, cognitive, aesthetic, moral and religious), making human a mature creature, aware and fulfilling oneself, well-adapted to the particular culture, able to produce constructive criticism and reflective affirmation” (Milerski, Śliwerski 2000: 54), and the role the teacher fulfils in this process show that we are dealing with either the end or the beginning of traditional pedagogy (Hejnicka-Bezwińska 2008: 18).

This diagnosis also refers to special pedagogy, including resocialization pedagogy, which has been dealing with a serious “identity crisis” for more than a dozen years now. The source of the aforementioned crisis is the acceptance of and stiff adherence to classical, traditional and currently insufficient perspective of understanding resocialization as aiming only to achieve an ostensible social re-adaptation of wards (Konopczyński 2009: 26). Currently, the provision of adequate social re-adaptation as a way of helping people who need resocialization is
insufficient. The world we live in is so ambiguous and changes so quickly that things to which resocialized people are adapting today may be invalid tomorrow. The new challenge for resocialization is to help such people to understand and accept the ambiguity and unpredictability of today’s world and help them develop abilities that would allow them to deal with problems independently, adequately and creatively. What is more, it is vital to expand aware and constructive fulfilment of one’s own development potential.

In order to comprehend and, what is more, to meet the challenges of contemporary world, a teacher of resocialization is required to adopt a more active, reflective and creative attitude and to develop, in a broad sense, both professional and personal competences. Thus, what we can notice more and more often are calls for redefining the process of resocialization and its effects. What is also needed in resocialization pedagogy is a deeper analysis of not only methodological and teleological assumptions, but above all the pedeutological ones.

THEORETICAL ASSUMPTIONS

Today’s world is issuing a challenge to educators. Exposing the crisis of contemporary educational and resocialization systems, it provokes educators to start a more active search for an adequate model for fulfilling their new professional role.

Today’s pedagogy, plunged into the identity crisis, “speaks” many different languages and offers a variety of approaches to teachers, creating a characteristic “postmodern diversity market” (Kosakowski 1996: 34). Critical pedagogy, which is a part of the postmodern discourse, proposes (among others) a model of subjective humanist pedagogy whose actor is a subject – a self-fulfilling and inner-driven active human. According to Wołoszyna (1993: 13), humanist pedagogy demands from teachers that they stay aware of upbringing, have an insight into upbringing. What should help teachers/educators in achieving that goal is emphatic attitude, “dialogical culture”, the ability to create communication of equal partners on the plane of always subjectively-understood educational teacher–student relationship. We can see here the image of a teacher who is open, creative, innova-
The educator of the future is a person who avoids routine in his/her work and is wary of excessive adherence to clichés and superficial treatment of educational reality.

What is more, the educator of the future aspires to be creative and innovative in his/her pedagogical tasks. Chief qualities of a professional educator are readiness and openness to change, which according to Czerepaniak-Walczak (1993, 1997), is linked with the following factors: a constant necessity for modifying educational situations, the ability to cope with variety of circumstances, critical, rational and adequate evaluation of the reality and, above all, the ability to make responsible and sensible decisions. Talking about the profile of the educator of the future, (among others) the following attributes are highlighted: the ability to make choices, modifying and creating own educational programmes, interpersonal communication ability, ability to work as a part of a team, self-analysis and the ability to accept feedback from students in his charge as well as colleagues in the educational micro-system (Węgliński 2000: 67). In addition, the humanist model of a teacher presents him/her as a person of unique personality who is perceived more as a facilitator than an expert in his field and who is authentic in the face to face encounters with students. Another attribute of such a teacher is unconditional acceptance of a student in his charge even if the student displays “difficult behaviour” (e.g. aggressive behaviour). Hence, the teacher’s professional development consists in discovering own professional identity and is not about learning the provided and universal behaviour patterns (Mizerek 1999). In this creative teacher/educator model, the pedagogue aims for personality development, gaining self-analysis and self-evaluation abilities and self-improvement in both his/her own knowledge, and creative and innovative activity. Therefore, within the paradigm of multi-dimensional development of teachers, the “individual action theories” will play more and more important role. An educator will become a designer of changes who creates new educational programmes as his own “practical theories” will be more in line with the educational reality than general theories that are out of touch with the current practice (Kuźma 1995: 37). What is unavoidable in
Rehabilitation educator as a reflective practitioner...

this perspective is a wide autonomy of a teacher/educator that gives him a chance for acting independently and shaping both oneself as a person and the educational reality, which is generally perceived as creating original conceptions and educational programmes. The appropriate use of such autonomy is linked with adequate preparation for it and possessing competences that would enable an independent and creative action since, as M. Grzegorzewska said, the technique of a teacher/educator in young offender’s institution is “[...] a wonderful technique that does not allow to reach the end, that does not allow for the break in creation, for passivity at work, on the contrary, it requires constant research, quest, creativity development and fighting with routine [...]” (Kosakowski 1996: 32).

What role does a contemporary resocialization pedagogue exactly have? Kosakowski (1996: 42) claims that a rehabilitation educator is a facilitator on the one hand and an accepted companion on the way to independence and social inclusion of his wards on the other. Such a pedagogue shows his/her students possibilities as well as helps to shape and express themselves, helps to cope with adversity present in the world surrounding them and to cope with own weaknesses. Therefore, according to Nowak-Dziemianowicz (2001) the roles of a guide, interpreter, researcher and also an empathic therapist can all be ascribed to the resocialization pedagogue. Sekułowicz (2002: 60) adds the roles of professional intellectualist and reflective facilitator to the list. The change of a teacher/educator model that is “happening” now – during civilization turning point – was called by Bauman (1990) a transition from a legislator role to an interpreter role. According to Hejnicka-Bezwińska (2008: 19), in the context of this transition, we find a justification for the following thesis: contemporary world requires a transition from affirmation as an expert to the affirmation of the teacher/educator role as a reflective practitioner.

The model of a teacher promoted today and present in the humanist discourse is therefore a model of cognitive independence that embraces the transformative intellectualist and professional master/artist conceptions. The link between them is the conception of a teacher – reflective practitioner (Schön 1983).

The foundation of the model of the reflective practitioner is the consideration of a relationship between theoretical knowledge and
practical activity of a pedagogue who knows what, knows how, knows why and knows who and why me. This knowledge allows him/her for an essential reflection in and about his/her own activity (Palak 2008: 84–85).

Using the achievements of the general pedagogy and pedeutology, special pedagogy has devised a certain postulative-empirical image of a special pedagogue that seems to be in line with the model of the reflective practitioner.

Sekułowicz (2005), analyzing the picture of a pedagogue emerging from the research, notes that it does not have a homogeneous structure and has a dynamic character. This situation is the effect of a diversity of personal experiences, specific personality traits, self-reflection ability, different work conditions and many other factors that overlap and destabilize the model. As a result we see that it is a project rather than reality. This project contains the following attributes characterizing the image of the special teacher/pedagogue:

- reflectivity and flexible thinking,
- the awareness of one’s own role and the responsibility this role entails,
- the ability to create a positive social image of students in charge,
- patience and persistence in the hard therapeutic and educational work,
- authenticity,
- sense of justice,
- organizational skills,
- cooperation and collaboration skills,
- the ability to understand a child,
- resistance to difficulties inherent in the work, persistence in overcoming these difficulties and ability to cope with them,
- the ability to carry out a psycho-pedagogical diagnosis and therapy using appropriate therapeutic methods and techniques tailored to a person’s age and the type and depth of the disorder,
- the ability to adapt in relation to technological transformation, ability of quick and creative assimilation of new information and openness to innovations, especially pedagogical and therapeutic ones (Korczyński 2002; Sekułowicz 2005: 24–25).
Special pedagogy has devised a certain image of a special pedagogue based on the conception of the teacher – reflective practitioner. Resocialization pedagogy in contrast to special pedagogy is still in search for the model of resocialization pedagogue.

On the one hand, it seems that the model of the reflective practitioner caters for the needs of the “changing” resocialization pedagogy whose new face requires creative and understanding attitude from the rehabilitation pedagogue that would be expressed by his/her creativity, independence, openness to innovations, flexibility and reflectivity. On the other hand, however, the specific nature and complexity of the work of resocialization educators forces them to perform many different roles, making it difficult for them to become a part of any concrete model of professional functioning.

The reality shows then that the answer to a fundamental question posed by Kosakowski (1996): “Who should a special pedagogue be?” is not and cannot be obvious and explicit.

Although the analysis of the postulates and theoretical assumptions shows the legitimacy of transferring the reflective practitioner model to the field of resocialization pedagogy, the analysis of the actual role and tasks of a special pedagogue proves that requirements of the reflective practitioner conception are too high for the teachers and pedagogues to meet.

Research results of Kwiatkowska (1997) quoted by Sekułowicz (2002) prove that teachers feel much better in the role of deliverers of a definite content and do not want the possibility of independent action, preferring clearly defined requirements. Thus, what they choose more often is a strategy in which they are free from the necessity of making independent decisions and responsibility for these decisions (Sekułowicz 2002: 59). Thus, they resign from autonomy and the possibility of applying their knowledge and skills gained through teaching training into practice. According to Kwiatkowska, it can be explained by the fact that the humanist conception of teacher education has not yet dealt with the problem of teachers-in-training; and this is the fundamental condition for the practical use of knowledge, because discovering the individual meaning of the gained information happens in the process of personal experience of usefulness of knowledge (Kwiatkowska 2008: 56).
This unfavourable diagnosis referring to pedagogues’ preference for passive and rather uncreative professional approach is confirmed by the most up-to-date research by educators of young (under-age) offenders institutions. The results show that resocialization pedagogues perceive themselves as fulfilling the role of instructors/experts and their resocialization actions seem very cautious, conservative and oriented toward the control and supervision over students. This means that their actions are not aiming for their wards’ development, being rather undiversified, even routine-like, deprived of innovations and changes. The explanation of this situation lies in the insufficient training (practical and theoretical) and co-related low level of professional competences (technical, practical and moral), especially those enabling the fulfilment of professional tasks in a more active, creative and reflective way (Karłyk-Ćwik 2009).

The subsequent problem (signalled in the literature and confirmed by empirical research into the knowledge and competences of pedagogues and teachers) is the problem of reflective inability of teachers, whose causes D. Klus-Stańska (2006) seeks in:

• the dominance of objectifying pedagogy,
• the dominance of technical knowledge in teacher training,
• the dominance of informal knowledge (informal and individual educational and training theories that occupy teachers/pedagogues’ minds),
• the presence of stereotypes in teachers/pedagogues’ thinking about pedagogy,
• communication inability of teachers/pedagogues and the co-related inability to verbalize their own and other people’s educational experiences and inability to benefit from scientific theories (expressed in the language that meets the scientific criteria),
• the lack of general criticism,
• affirmation of personal experience encapsulated in a common sense manner,
• the climate of educational institutions in which there is generally no acceptance for individualism, otherness and discourse, etc.

With regard to aforementioned explanation, according to Hejnicka-Bezwińska (2008: 24), we can talk about a syndrome of very complex conditions (mental, historical, and practical) and their effects that are
the reason for the professional inability of pedagogues who perform
the role of reflective practitioners.

The assertion of discrepancies between pedagogues’ acceptance
of the reflective practitioner conception and simultaneous reflective
inability of teachers suggests the need for analysing the connection
between the aforementioned conception and the defined models of
pedagogical training.

The model of wide-profile training assumes incorporation of
general, academic, pedagogical, humanist and philosophical-scientific
training, whereas narrow-profile training is specialist, vocational,
sub-disciplinary, technical and practical (methodical). There are two
models of educator/teacher that correspond with the models of training
described above. The first one is the model of a teacher/interpreter
or in other words a reflective practitioner. The second one is the
model of legislator/expert (Hejnicka-Bezwińska 2008: 24). Hejnicka-
Bezwińska (2008: 26) also highlights that the model of teacher training
is always linked with the preference for a certain model of knowledge-
construction and a certain type of acting. Thus, the narrow-profile
model of teacher training and professional functioning is linked to
the construction based on both informal knowledge and ideologically
or traditionally developed roles and standards corresponding with
the logic of objective acting and adaptive rationality. As for the wide-
profile model of training and professional functioning, it is linked with
constructing pedagogy using “pieces” of different types of knowledge
possible to verify in the context of different philosophical assumptions
(used consciously in the process of verification and discourse about
education), theoretical assumptions and historical knowledge (about
the conditions of its establishment, the development processes,
changes in social reception). This model corresponds with the logic of
communication actions and with the emancipation rationality.

The above description shows clearly that what is more adequate
to the needs of contemporary, changing and critical reality is a wide-
profile model promoting “broadened professionalism” (Gołębniak
1998) that allows for training an independent, conscious and creative
reflective practitioner.

Unfortunately, also here, in the situation seemingly obvious, in
the field of resocialization pedagogy, theory meets with the strong
resistance of practitioners. It is because special pedagogues in a very decisive manner form their expectations regarding greater specialization and making resocialization pedagogy training more practical, criticising at the same time the narrow-profile model of training for being not narrow enough (too general and theoretical, not practical enough and methodical) (Ganczarska 2002: 59–60; Karłyk-Ćwik 2009; Minczakiewicz 2006: 60–61; Szecówka 2006: 51–52). Here raises the question how to train a creative resocialization pedagogue that would embrace the model of reflective practitioner. How is it possible in the situation when the local universities of pedagogy have difficulties in developing even narrow professionalism, not to mention broadened professionalism?

The contemporary pedeutology proposes a compromise regarding the choice of a pedagogical training model. The compromise consists in enriching (not eliminating) the currently dominating training developed in the expert narrow-profile model in a new philosophical-scientific dimension (philosophical-theoretical-historical) (Hejnicka-Bezwińska 2008: 27) and pedagogical-psychological dimension (Nowak-Dzieniewicz 2008: 129–162). The justification for this solution lies in the fact that a complete professional training (development of professional and personal aspects of a professional role) is not just a process of gaining knowledge and skills (the training), but also shaping the personality traits and competences that make up a specific psycho-social functioning (the upbringing) (Chodkowska 2010: 55–60). Professional training defined as above will help teachers/pedagogues to perform their professional roles as reflective practitioners.

THE MAIN METHODOLOGICAL ASSUMPTIONS OF THE RESEARCH

Preparation for a specific occupation that is a part of educational process is simultaneously the basis for prospective fulfilment of a professional role. Students, before they start working in a specific profession, have certain notions of how their professional roles should be performed, which is the beginning of the profession identification process. This is the way in which the personality sphere of the behavioural plane of professional functioning is shaped (Chodkowska 2010: 54).
Thus, it is worth considering these notions of the future professional role, as they to a great extent influence the process of profession identification and the professional role and, consequently, a completely conscious, adequate, efficient functioning in the profession and fulfilment of professional duties. What is more, the analysis of notions present in the minds of students who are prospective pedagogues will allow for the identification of their preferred model of resocialization pedagogue and will help to establish how close or how distant these educators are from the model of the reflective practitioner.

Research questions:

In relation to the aforementioned problems, the following questions have been formed:

1. What model of a rehabilitation educator is currently put into practice and preferred in the eyes of the students of Resocialization Studies?

2. What trends (technological, functional, and humanist) dominate in the search for a model of the contemporary resocialization pedagogue according to the students?

3. What attributes and personality traits dominate in the image of a professional role (its personal aspect) of resocialization pedagogues according to the students?

4. What is the description and level of intrapsychological and interpersonal skills of contemporary resocialization pedagogues according to the students?

5. What is the structure and the level of the professional competences of actual resocialization pedagogues?

THE METHOD AND RESEARCH TOOLS

The empirical data was collected by means of a diagnostic survey using a questionnaire. Subsequently, the qualitative and quantitative analysis of the data was conducted.

The research tool used in the study was the author’s “Questionnaire of Perceptions of the Professional Role of the Resocialization Pedagogue”.
The sample

The sample consisted of 124 students of 3rd year (Bachelor level) of Special Pedagogy (Resocialization specialization) from one of the Lower Silesia’s universities. There were 106 females and 18 males in the sample, aged 20 to 48 (average age: 25 years).

Presentation of the results of own research

The model of resocialization pedagogue in the eyes of the students of Resocialization Studies

It is important to take into consideration the fact that the complexity and multidimensional nature of the resocialization pedagogy requires performance of multiple roles from the pedagogue in his/her professional environment and that the ambiguity and complexity of the professional role hinders or even makes a pedagogue unable to enact a definite model of fulfilment of this role. An attempt has been made to decide what role (out of many possible roles performed by resocialization pedagogues) dominates in this diverse image of professional functioning in the minds of the students of Resocialization Studies (preparing to become resocialization pedagogues).

For this purpose, respondents were asked to rate the professional performance of resocialization pedagogues in particular roles from 1 to 5 (1 being the lowest and 5 being the highest mark). Not only were their particular roles in every day work rated, but also the extent to which these roles should be fulfilled in order to improve the effectiveness of their actions was rated. The findings are presented in the table below.

Table 1. The actual and desirable (preferred) roles of resocialization pedagogues according to the researched students

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Roles of rehabilitation educators</th>
<th>Actual roles (who they are)</th>
<th>Desirable roles (who they should be)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Guide</td>
<td>3,516</td>
<td>4,612</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Expert</td>
<td>3,467</td>
<td>4,580</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The above comparison of the actual and desirable roles of resocialization pedagogues indicates slightly higher rating of the guide role (seen as a leader/director/instructor) and expert role (belonging to the expert model). However, the mean score of all professional roles (in both actual and desirable categories) are similar which suggests that there is no clear dominance of rehabilitation educators in the image of professional functioning. This also confirms the hypothesis that the resocialization pedagogues simultaneously perform many different roles, both linked with the expert model and the reflective practitioner model.

The above comparison also shows that the hierarchy of the actually performed roles based on rating of the researched students is similar to the hierarchy of the desirable roles. In both cases the reflective practitioner can be found in the middle of the created hierarchy (coming respectively sixth and fifth). The other roles that belong to the reflective practitioner model, namely: professional master/artist, reflective facilitator, and professional intellectualist – were ascribed to actual resocialization pedagogues and the desirable roles of rehabilitation educators least frequently.

The comparison of the actual and desirable roles under analysis differs, by and large, only in the height of the ascribed ratings. This, however, is irrelevant to the important changes in the hierarchy of the rated roles as a proportional increase of ratings of particular roles was noted (ca. 1 point in the desirable roles’ group). We can see an obvious quality – content change in the category under analysis; in other words,
respondents claim that the pedagogue of the future should be the same as the pedagogue of today – should perform the same roles in the same proportions – only to greater extent.

Characteristic here is the cohesion between the observations, examination and the ratings of the actual roles of pedagogues, and the notions and expectations in relation with the desirable, ideal situation in the minds of the researched students. This cohesion may facilitate the process of professional identification and may help to strengthen the diversified and multi-dimensional structure of the role present in today’s pedagogues by the prospective pedagogues (currently students of the last year of Resocialization Studies).

What emerges from the image of a professional role under analysis (the image that prospective resocialization pedagogues identify with) is a complex and diversified, but at the same time internally coherent and stable structure of the professional role of the resocialization pedagogue.

It seems then that prospective rehabilitation pedagogues, similarly to contemporary ones, will be versatile actors performing different roles (depending on needs, situations, and context) who cannot be placed within stiff frames of one definite model.

This is also a conclusion of the analysis of the second research question. In order to establish the way students of Resocialization Studies understand the role and perceive the model of rehabilitation educator, characteristics of three different ways of understanding the role of the pedagogue were devised. These approaches are linked with three trends in the search for the teacher/pedagogue model: technological one (related to behavioural psychology), functional one (based on the cognitive psychology) and humanist (inspired by humanist psychology) (Kwiatkowska 2008: 40–57; Mizerek 1998: 40–42).

Subsequently, the respondents were asked to separately rate particular traits (using 1 to 5 scale) and then to indicate an approach that yields as close as possible to the understanding of who the pedagogue of today is.

The analysis of students’ responses enabled me to conclude that they perceive and understand the professional role of a resocialization pedagogue mainly from the perspective of humanist psychology
(the actual pedagogue was rated highest in the categories that belong to humanist approach). The students’ way of thinking of the resocialization pedagogue also reveals (although to lesser extent) cognitive psychology and the functional approach that it creates as well as the assumptions of behavioural psychology and technological approach. This eclecticism was confirmed in the students’ responses regarding the optimal approach allowing for a complete understanding of the role of the resocialization pedagogue. According to the students, the optimal approach is a combination of functional and humanist approaches (supported by 47 respondents i.e. 38% of the researched). The second best was the humanist approach (33 respondents, ca. 27% of the researched). 19 respondents (more than 15%) preferred a combination of all three approaches perceiving it as the best way to the complete understanding of the role of a resocialization pedagogue.

What image of the pedagogue and his role emerges from this analysis? According to the students of Resocialization Studies, a contemporary resocialization pedagogue is authentic ($x = 3,798$), thinks creatively and critically ($x = 3,685$), is reflective ($x = 3,620$), empathic ($x = 3,588$) and fully acknowledges and understands the emotional and axiological aspect of his/her relationships with students in his/her charge ($x = 3,556$). All of these characteristics can be ascribed to the model created within the frames of the humanist approach. Only further in this hierarchy we can see the hallmarks of functional-thinking about the pedagogue, namely an acknowledgment of his/her competences (competent – $x = 3,451$) and abilities of intentional actions directed at achieving an anticipated final situation (a well-thought-out action – $x = 3,322$), and also a technological approach in which the researched students appreciated and acknowledged the efficient fulfilment of a clearly delineated tasks by the actual pedagogue (a person fulfilling definite tasks – $x = 3,370$). The characteristics of the actual resocialization pedagogues that were least acknowledged were: unreflective ($x = 2,185$), uncritical ($x = 2,225$), outer-driven ($x = 2,370$), over-rational, unemotional ($x = 2,556$).

Unfortunately, this image, although very optimistic, seems to be not very realistic and in contrast with the unfavourable image of incompetent and, above all, inefficient resocialization pedagogues present in the society. Moreover, it is in contrast with research into
the ways of fulfilling the professional roles of pedagogues and their efficiency, their psycho-physical condition (including the level of occupational burnout), personality traits and competences of that occupational group (Bartkowicz 1987; Karłyk-Ćwik 2009, 2010; Machel 2006; Pytka 1992: 19; Szecówka 1995: 45). This indicates students’ tendencies to idealizing their prospective professional role.

PERSONALITY TRAITS AND PROFESSIONAL COMPETENCES OF THE REHABILITATION PEDAGOGUES IN THE EYES OF THE STUDENTS OF RESOCIALIZATION STUDIES

In order to understand students’ conceptions of their prospective professional role, it is not sufficient to identify categories of professional roles (ascribed by students to resocialization pedagogues). The identified categories must be filled with meanings so that a more precise description of personal and professional aspects of the role of rehabilitation educator can be created in the minds of the students of Resocialization Studies.

In order to do that the researched students were asked to rate (using 1–5 scale) particular characteristics and personality traits, intrapsychological, interpersonal and professional skills (technical as well as practical and moral ones) emerging in the professional functioning of the actual resocialization pedagogues.

Firstly, particular characteristics and personality traits of the actual rehabilitation educators were rated by the students.

The particular characteristics and personality traits of the actual resocialization pedagogues under analysis created three theory-based categories describing a personal dimension of their professional functioning, namely: passionate (warm) heart, independent mind and invincible character (Nawroczyński 1968). The following characteristics of the pedagogue were ascribed to the first category: kindness, empathy, care, involvement and optimism. In the second category, that is the closest to the reflective practitioner model, we can find: independence/autonomy, openness, creativity, reflectivity and self-awareness/awareness. As for the third cate-
Rehabilitation educator as a reflective practitioner...

gory described as invincible character we can find the following characteristics: courage, justice, consistency, credibility and honesty. The individual categories mirror three different aspects of pedagogue’s personality (emerging from his/her way of performing his/her professional roles) that go in the following order: emotional, cognitive and behavioural aspects.

Table 2. The particular characteristics and personality traits of the resocialization pedagogues in the eyes of the researched students

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Place in the hierarchy</th>
<th>Characteristics and personality traits of the pedagogues</th>
<th>( x )</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1.</td>
<td>Consistency</td>
<td>4,637</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.</td>
<td>Courage</td>
<td>4,588</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.</td>
<td>Credibility</td>
<td>4,564</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.</td>
<td>Honesty</td>
<td>4,564</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.</td>
<td>Involvement</td>
<td>4,491</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5.</td>
<td>Creativity</td>
<td>4,435</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6.</td>
<td>Justice</td>
<td>4,395</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6.</td>
<td>Self-awareness/awareness</td>
<td>4,395</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7.</td>
<td>Openness</td>
<td>4,314</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8.</td>
<td>Optimism</td>
<td>4,185</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9.</td>
<td>Reflectivity</td>
<td>4,129</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10.</td>
<td>Care</td>
<td>4,088</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11.</td>
<td>Independence/autonomy</td>
<td>4,064</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12.</td>
<td>Empathy</td>
<td>4,056</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13.</td>
<td>Kindness</td>
<td>3,959</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

As can be seen from the above table, the image of the resocialization pedagogue dominating in the students’ minds is the image of a person of an invincible character. The researched students then attach the greatest importance to those elements of a personal dimension of pedagogue’s role that are directly linked with the resocialization activity and given assignments, not the emotional plane of educational interactions, that is: consistency \( (x = 4,637) \), courage \( (x = 4,588) \), credibility \( (x = 4,564) \) and honesty \( (x = 4,564) \). The characteristics that make up the image of a pedagogue of invincible mind (that are
the main attributes of the reflective practitioner) are placed further in the above description/hierarchy of rehabilitation educators. At the bottom of the hierarchy, according to the researched students are autonomy ($x = 4,064$) and reflectivity ($x = 4,129$), and then around the middle: openness ($x = 4,314$) and self-awareness/awareness ($x = 4,395$), and at the top we have (5th place) creativity ($x = 4,435$). What is striking is the fact that the last place in the catalogue under analysis is occupied by emotional traits (characteristic for a passionate (warm) heart pedagogue): kindness ($x = 3,959$) and empathy ($x = 4,056$). Kindnesses as well as empathy are, according to humanist psychology assumptions, conditions for the understanding approach to students in charge and for creating an appropriate interpersonal relationships based on an emotional bond (Rogers 1987). Underestimation of the importance of kind and empathic attitude/approach of an educator significantly oversimplifies the understanding of a ward and the educational situation, impoverishes educational interactions and limits the effectiveness of actions. It is worth noting that the above rating of resocialization pedagogues (performed by students) is in line with the self-evaluation of the resocialization personnel (Karłyk-Ćwik 2009). Thus, this result should give a cause for concern, especially if we assume that the way of fulfilling a professional role by prospective pedagogues is formed and developed on the basis of observations and notions appearing as early as at the beginning of professional identification process, i.e. during studies. Since the students perceive and even idealize pedagogues who are marked by kindness and empathy the least, they may fulfil similar “not humanist enough” model of professional role where persons marked by efficient fulfilment of tasks and expertise will replace empathic therapists.

Similar image of task-oriented rather than emotional resocialization pedagogue also emerges from the analysis of ratings of intrapsychological and interpersonal skills of the educators (ascribed to them by the researched students). In the case of the professional functioning of the task-oriented pedagogue the attributes of a reflective practitioner seem to be merely a matter of a secondary importance.
Table 3. Intrapsychological and interpersonal skills of resocialization pedagogues in the eyes of the researched students

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Place in the hierarchy</th>
<th>Interpersonal skills of the pedagogues</th>
<th>$\chi$</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1.</td>
<td>Clear, open communication</td>
<td>4,564</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.</td>
<td>Assertiveness</td>
<td>4,556</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.</td>
<td>Understanding own emotions</td>
<td>4,548</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.</td>
<td>Readiness for receiving feedback</td>
<td>4,540</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5.</td>
<td>Attentive and active listening</td>
<td>4,516</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5.</td>
<td>Understanding other people’s emotions</td>
<td>4,516</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5.</td>
<td>Self-awareness</td>
<td>4,516</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6.</td>
<td>Constructive coping with stress</td>
<td>4,500</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7.</td>
<td>Understanding other people’s needs</td>
<td>4,467</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7.</td>
<td>Reducing emotional tension (soothing, calming down, relaxation)</td>
<td>4,467</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8.</td>
<td>Understanding one’s own needs</td>
<td>4,451</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9.</td>
<td>Cooperation and collaboration</td>
<td>4,435</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9.</td>
<td>Constructive problem solving</td>
<td>4,435</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10.</td>
<td>Giving constructive feedback</td>
<td>4,419</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10.</td>
<td>Openness</td>
<td>4,419</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11.</td>
<td>Negotiating</td>
<td>4,403</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12.</td>
<td>Empathy</td>
<td>4,370</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13.</td>
<td>Creative thinking</td>
<td>4,362</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14.</td>
<td>Creative and innovative acting</td>
<td>4,338</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15.</td>
<td>Showing warmth, acceptance and support</td>
<td>4,314</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15.</td>
<td>Reflectivity</td>
<td>4,314</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16.</td>
<td>Critical thinking</td>
<td>4,193</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>17.</td>
<td>Free expression of emotions (all emotions: pleasant and unpleasant ones)</td>
<td>4,149</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>18.</td>
<td>Showing confidence in other person</td>
<td>4,104</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>18.</td>
<td>Constructive expression of difficult emotions and feelings e.g.: anger, helplessness and anxiety</td>
<td>4,104</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
When analyzing the above table we can notice that all ratings ascribed by students to the skills presented by the actual resocialization pedagogues are very high (the mean score above 4, where the highest mark is 5). This fact can prove the inclination of the students of Resocialization Studies (revealed in the earlier analyses) to idealizing their future professional role.

However, what is characteristic is that out of all 25 generally highly rated skills, these most characteristic of the reflective practitioner model were rated almost lowest and in the classification made of 18 positions they occupied the following ones: 16th – critical thinking ($x = 4.193$), 15th – reflectivity ($x = 4.314$), 14th – creative and innovative acting ($x = 4.338$) and 13th – creative thinking ($x = 4.362$).

A slight advantage of technical (task-oriented) approach to understanding the professional role of resocialization pedagogues was also revealed during the analysis of the level of professional competences ascribed to the pedagogues by the researched students. In the opinion of the students of Resocialization Studies, the technical competences (in the structure of professional competences) slightly dominate ($x = 4.382$) over practical-moral competences ($x = 4.307$).

Table 4. The level of professional competences ascribed to the pedagogues in the eyes of the researched students

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Place in the hierarchy</th>
<th>Name of the skill</th>
<th>Mean score $\bar{x}$</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Understanding oneself, students in charge and the mutual relationship</td>
<td>4.435</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Ongoing analysis of the educational situation</td>
<td>4.427</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Accepting feedback</td>
<td>4.411</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Giving feedback</td>
<td>4.370</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. Two-tier open communication on equal terms</td>
<td>4.306</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. Creating the atmosphere of acceptance and kindness</td>
<td>4.298</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. Consideration of the moral legitimacy and appropriateness of own behaviours as a pedagogue</td>
<td>4.282</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Rehabilitation educator as a reflective practitioner...

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Place in the hierarchy</th>
<th>Name of the skill</th>
<th>Mean score $\bar{x}$</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1.</td>
<td>Planning educational actions</td>
<td>4,532</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.</td>
<td>Educational diagnosing</td>
<td>4,475</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.</td>
<td>Controlling behaviour of students in charge</td>
<td>4,467</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.</td>
<td>Choosing appropriate methods and techniques of actions</td>
<td>4,467</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5.</td>
<td>Selecting appropriate means for the fulfilment of the planned actions</td>
<td>4,403</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6.</td>
<td>Indicating desirable work goals and identifying with them</td>
<td>4,395</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7.</td>
<td>Forecasting – anticipating a course, length and results of the actions</td>
<td>4,322</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8.</td>
<td>Creating (organizing) conditions that would help to fulfil the educational goals</td>
<td>4,306</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9.</td>
<td>Creating own educational conceptions and work programmes</td>
<td>4,282</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10.</td>
<td>Modifying and improving working techniques</td>
<td>4,177</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The mean score of the variable, technical competences 4,382

Very high scores in the above table indicate (yet again) a tendency among prospective pedagogues to idealizing their own professional role. What is also interesting is the fact that students’ evaluation of pedagogues’ professional competences differs significantly from the self-evaluation of resocialization personnel (see: Karłyk-Ćwik 2009). In this comparison, the competences linked with the reflective
practitioner approach (among others: understanding oneself, student in charge and mutual relationship \((x = 4,435)\) and the ongoing analysis of the educational situation \((x = 4,427)\)) were classified the highest in the catalogue of practical-moral competences. However, in the general comparison of all 20 professional competences they were not rated that high and came after: planning actions \((x = 4,532)\), diagnosing \((x = 4,475)\), controlling behaviour of students in charge \((x = 4,467)\) or selecting the working techniques that were established earlier \((x = 4,467)\). What is more, the reflection on who the educator should be and how he/she should act \((x = 4,161)\), which is a very important part of the functioning of the reflective practitioner, was rated even lower as it came next to the last in the entire catalogue of professional competences. The relatively low level of pedagogues’ reflection on their own actions translates into low ability to create own educational conceptions and work programmes designed to modify and improve working techniques. This regularity was mirrored by the research results presented above. This image of resocialization pedagogues present in the minds of the students of Resocialization Studies seems rather distant from the reflective practitioner model that assumes an ongoing reflection on own functioning, examining and researching own technique assumptions and analysing own experiences in order to introduce changes (courageously and creatively), to demolish routine and habits, to gain and change the reality. What was rated lowest in the presented catalogue of professional competences was giving the meaning and importance to own professional activity \((x = 4,137)\), which also makes students’ notions of the resocialization pedagogue distant from the reflective practitioner model that constantly questions the meaning and methods of own professional activity and constantly analyses the structure of own beliefs and interpretations anew.

**Conclusions**

Years of searching for the optimal model of a special pedagogue (including resocialization pedagogue) have not yet led us to an unequivocal answer to the question “Who the special pedagogue should be?”. The difficulty of matching a rehabilitation educator to one model
of professional role fulfilment lies, above all, in the ambiguity and complexity inherent to this role. In addition, defining a professional role of resocialization pedagogues (both on the normative level, i.e. internalized norms of the role, notions of ways of behaving, expectations, and on the behavioural level, i.e. performing the role and referring to the behaviours outlined by the conception of the role and its dictates) to a large extent depends on certain institutional conditions and socio-cultural factors (see: Kutrowska 2008). Resocialization pedagogue works in variety of institutions (e.g. penitentiary, resocialization, educational, tutelary and educational, practical, therapeutical, etc.) which impose definite, formal and legal regulations of the role and specific informal requirements. It all determines a significant dynamics, variability, inner diversity of the role of a resocialization pedagogue and makes an unequivocal ascription of the role to any model by and large impossible.

Besides, due to an interactive character of the work of a resocialization pedagogue, his professional role cannot be treated as something ready, outer, explicitly defined; on the contrary, it should be seen as something ever-developing and in constant creation in the educational interactions. This is the reason why the role cannot be explicitly defined, and only its performed role can be established (Szacka 2003: 146–147).

This is also the reason why in my own research (presented above) the professional role of the resocialization pedagogue could not be explicitly defined in the eyes of the students of Resocialization Studies. However, the analysis of the empirical data obtained from the research enabled me to form certain insights and conclusions that could bring us closer to the image of professional functioning of rehabilitation pedagogues (both present and prospective ones) who now, still being students of Resocialization Studies, identify with the image of the professional role emerging from the presented analyses.

The professional role emerging from the presented analyses is complex, heterogeneous, diversified. In the foreground of the structure of this role we can see the roles of a guide and an expert that belong to the expert model downgrading a bit further the roles based on cognitive independence, namely those of a reflective facilitator,
professional intellectualist and professional master/artist that all have the reflective practitioner conception in common.

What is both a confirmation and exemplification of the aforementioned finding and the understanding of the professional role of the resocialization pedagogue by the researched students is the description of personal and professional aspects of pedagogues’ professional functioning. This description emerged from the analysis of particular characteristics and personality traits, intrapsychological and interpersonal skills and professional competences (technical and practical-moral ones) that are revealed in the professional functioning of resocialization pedagogues.

What emerges from the above analyses is the image of a pedagogue who is more task-oriented than emotional or reflective. However, all these descriptions seem to co-exist in the notions of prospective pedagogues about their professional role.

Therefore, based on the aforementioned research, the resocialization pedagogue is a consistent, assertive, courageous and credible person fulfilling a definite set of tasks. It is also a person, who (in his job) concentrates mainly on appropriate – active and understanding – communication with the wards in his/her charge and also on the planning and methodological fulfilment of resocialization actions that are oriented towards the control of the wards’ behaviour. In the work of such a pedagogue the cognitive independence, reflectivity, ability to think creatively and critically, and to act innovatively seem to give way to efficiency and proficiency in mastering methods and ways of acting and of fulfilling actions, making a resocialization pedagogue an efficient methodologist rather than a reflective practitioner.

Unfortunately, a strongly noticeable tendency among the researched students to idealize resocialization pedagogues significantly limits possibilities of interpreting the gathered diagnostic data (obsurring and deforming it). However, these overstated marks ascribed to the pedagogues by the students seem to mirror the way rehabilitation educators think about themselves, their work, and professional role. Their professional role can be described as the role where the technical, routine-like, conservative, rather uncreative and non-reflective, oriented to task fulfilment (mainly tasks related to control and supervision) approach to resocialization activity
dominates (see: Karłyk-Ćwik 2009). A certain compatibility and similarity (content/quality one – not quantity one) of descriptions emerging from the analysis of students’ evaluations and opinions as well as self-evaluation of resocialization educators suggest that the image of resocialization pedagogue’s role (revealed in the analysis of my own research) to a large extent mirrors the actual way of functioning of the representatives of this occupational group. Nevertheless, what should be remembered is that the analysis presented above is merely an attempt to portray the notions of prospective and present resocialization pedagogues about their professional role and that this analysis is not a factual description of the reality, therefore, it requires further research, quest and verification.

Taking into consideration the above reservations, it is still worth noting that the analysis of the opinions of Resocialization Studies students gives us certain basis for forming an assertion whereby the reflective practitioner model is more and more noticeable in the professional functioning of rehabilitation educators. This means that the current expert monopoly is being restricted and perspectives for necessary changes and dynamic development of resocialization pedagogue who is closer to the conception of the reflective practitioner are created.

It seems that in the minds of the students (prospective resocialization pedagogues) the process of these changes aiming at transferring the reflective practitioner role to resocialization pedagogy has already been initiated. In order to strengthen this favourable tendency it would be worth developing in prospective pedagogues (during their studies and professional preparation) the characteristics defined by Schön (1983). These characteristics could facilitate the acquisition of the attitude of a reflective practitioner:

a) rationality – meaning the ability to identify logical incoherence during work, disapproval of incoherence or even contradiction and readiness to test own assumptions in practice;

b) reflectivity – that can be seen in the readiness to analyze own mistakes, making “thinking experiments” and testing own arguments critically;

c) inclination to taking cognitive risks – understood as readiness to accept the challenge related to the perspective of learning something
completely new, predisposition to acknowledge own mistakes (treating them more like solving riddles than a source of discouragement).

The development of these characteristics is particularly meaningful in the context of results of the research into the professional beliefs of pedagogues and teachers (Karłyk-Ćwik 2011; Sęk 1992: 325–343; Merchel 1993) that, similarly to the ones presented here, reveal a strong inclination of the representatives of this profession to idealize own profession and the co-related role. The representatives of social professions may be then characterized by relatively high perfectionism, low level of autonomy, low tolerance of diversity and lack of acceptance of ambiguity. What is more, these persons may not be rational and reflective enough due to stiff and hierarchical beliefs (that are additionally given a large quantifier which increases their inclination to work burnout). Low level of rationality and reflectivity may cause (in the way of thinking of people, especially of low sense of own identity and self acceptance) irrational, extreme and categorical personal and professional beliefs. Such beliefs can strengthen the drive for perfection, a fear of possibility of making a mistake or reluctance to take cognitive risk. Adhering to these beliefs minimizes chances for success and increases probability of failure and experiencing negative feelings (Sęk 2000: 90–91).

What can be helpful in freeing oneself of that vicious circle of failures (fuelled by irrational beliefs and excessive elaborations) is incompleteness theory formed by Schön (1983). This theory includes the following assumptions:

• Do not try to be perfect and complete in your actions;
• Do not be afraid of making current changes in your approach or do not be afraid to change what you previously said after you re-think it;
• Defend your own matters, present your own viewpoint as clearly as you can but remember to combine it with accepting other viewpoints and possibility of correction of your own conception;
• Do not hesitate to be imperfect, incomplete in terms of expressing just one of many viewpoints.

What completes the incompleteness theory and possibility of working on one’s own feelings is behaviour heuristics formed by Schön
The behaviour heuristics are designed to help to reach the reflective practitioner model.

- Combine the defence of your own viewpoint with testing the beliefs of your interlocutors;
- Define the assumptions (attributions) you make with regard to a problem and explain how you have solved it and ask the interlocutor whether he accepts it;
- If you are experiencing a dilemma, express it publically, openly (Filipowicz 2005).

The above assumptions that are the effect of years of Schön's (1983) experience and research into optimization of professional development process, especially in social professions, are the basis for the conception of the reflective practitioner. This conception provides many invaluable instructions to the professionals who wish to combine effective work with their own development.

Taking into consideration the results of the research into the notions and beliefs of students of Resocialization Studies regarding their future professional role, it seems legitimate to say that the assumptions of the reflective practitioner conception should become a basis for teacher training and preparation for work or as Kwaśnica (1994) calls it – resocialization pedagogues’ development aid. All the more so because the results of the research has led to the following conclusion: either the teacher profession is chosen by “idealistic” people or in the course of preparation for work too strong adherence to principles is developed among the teacher-trainees (Sęk 2000: 90). This could mean that the model of pedagogues training functioning today is not in their favour in terms of professional development preparing for the reflective practitioner role.
INTRODUCTION

This paper begins with a discussion of the potential of today’s educational system in Poland. Subsequently, the challenges of the 21st century pedagogy are presented. The main focus of the paper is on the up-to-date humour research and the importance of humour in school and in the teacher’s work life. Finally the benefits of implementing Humour Studies into teacher training are analysed.

It seems a good starting point to begin the discussion about the place and application of humour to education by giving some information about the Polish educational system. In the world’s ranking of educational systems (OECD/PISA 2010), Poland was on the 15th place, surpassing, among others: England, Spain and Italy – countries that are considered by Polish people as the “more developed West” and in relation to which Poles still suffer from the inferiority complex. The potential of the Polish education system was noticed in the Great Britain. After the results were published, the British media talked about Polish success.

After familiarising himself with the PISA results, Education Secretary Michael Gove highlighted the importance of using nations such as Poland, Singapore and Finland as England’s inspiration (Mail Online 08/12/2010). What is more, the English press revealed that Chile, Israel and Poland made strong gains in reading literacy (Times Educational Supplement 10/12/2010). As for science, the biggest improvements in this subject were achieved by Turkey, Portugal, Korea, Italy, Norway, the US and Poland (Times Educational Supplement
It was reported that UK schools still performed in line with the international average in reading but were outperformed by countries including Liechtenstein, Poland and Estonia (Telegraph 07/12/2010). What is more, it was noted that countries where schools had more bureaucratic freedom performed better and the study showed a strong link between good discipline and high scores (Telegraph 07/12/2010). It was also found out that countries including Poland and Norway had overtaken the UK in the last three years (Telegraph 07/12/2010). What was also noticed was that Poland, Germany and Chile were among the countries that introduced reforms which produced tangible improvements (BBC 07/12/2010). Furthermore, it was highlighted that a major overhaul of the Polish school system helped to achieve dramatic reductions in the variable performance between schools, reducing the share of poorly-performing pupils and raising the overall performance by the equivalent of more than half a school year (Times Educational Supplement 10/12/2010).

Now remains the question whether the success of the Polish education system is recognized in Poland, and whether its potential is fully achieved.

THE CHALLENGES OF CONTEMPORARY PEDAGOGY

The 21st century poses a range of challenges for today’s pedagogy since the relationships between students and teachers, school and society, and parents and school as well as the role of school and the teachers have all changed. Furthermore, pedagogy as any other discipline is involved in the process of computerization, globalization and socio-cultural transformation. Educational researchers highlight some important changes and challenges contemporary schooling has to meet.

(Woods and Jeffrey 2002) as well as accused of all ills of the society (Dainton 2006).

Lackowski (2010) claims that in today’s educational system creative teachers too often give up their work at school as they cannot agree to stay within a static and bureaucratic institution focused only on reaching unrealistic targets. He also notices that young people fascinated with teaching have great problems in finding a post. Leszczyński, on the other hand, makes a point that universities around the world are becoming more like corporations, which is also unavoidable in Poland (Gazeta Wyborcza 09/01/2011). In the context of providing training for prospective teachers, it is all of paramount importance. On the one hand, we have the missionary image of the teacher’s profession; on the other hand we are presented with the brutal post-recession world and messy reality of post-structuralism. Here arises the following question: How to juxtapose such disjointed needs in the teacher’s everyday work and how to train prospective teachers so that they are ready for even the most varied challenges?

Leppert points out the need to introduce some changes into teacher training courses and highlights that a contemporary teacher needs to learn assertiveness, methods of effective communication, train empathy and obtain problem solving skills (Gazeta Wyborcza 23/05/10). It seems clear that there is no such thing as one recipe for all the problems of contemporary education; however, introducing certain innovations to the content of teacher training courses, implementing studies on the importance and application of humour in teachers’ work in the courses could to some extent influence the quality of teachers’ lives.

MULTI-DISCIPLINARY RESEARCH INTO HUMOUR

Humour is a multidimensional and cross-disciplinary subject that has been researched by specialists from a variety of fields, from medicine to philosophy. Thus, it is a very difficult to actually define humour, because how does one describe something so abstract? Researchers in different disciplines have been disputing the definition of humour for some time now. When debating humour in this paper,
I will be referring to the following definition (taking into consideration the fact that there is no comprehensive definition of humour): humour is “a frame of mind, a manner of perceiving and experiencing life” (Raskin 1985: 7).

Psychologists and neurologists believe that humour fulfils certain functions. What is more, similarly to educators, they call for a strategic use of humour to help, in this case, patients or more generally people suffering from stress or anxiety. They perceive humour as affecting well-being, as a healthy and therapeutic strategy for coping with distress (Skevington and White 1996; Shami and Stuss 1999). Moreover, both sociologists and psychologists recognize humour as having a special place in social interactions and note that humour is so highly valued and desired that very few people would admit to the lack of the sense of humour (Shami and Stuss 1999). Psychologists also distinguish between hurtful and healthy humour, at the same time admitting its complexity (Sultanoff 1995). Linguists not only see the complexity of humour in general, but also acknowledge how intellectually and socially difficult it is to grasp even a simple joke (Nash 1985). Linguists perceive humour as a heavily cognitive and semantic process (Semino and Culpeper 2002). Philosophers, on the other hand, have been concentrating (since ancient times) on explaining the notion and nature of humour by means of the following theories: superiority, inferiority, relief, incongruity and play; treating those theories misleadingly as rivals and ignoring the fact that the explanation of humour might be achieved by combing those theories (Internet Encyclopaedia of Philosophy 2011).

HUMOUR RESEARCH

Researchers from New Zealand and USA, where humour research is most advanced, have conducted studies on humour at different workplaces ranging from big corporations to factories. As for studies on humour in schools, and especially humour in school staffrooms – they are scarce; therefore I hope to partly fill this existing gap by conducting my Ph.D. research into the importance of humour in the staffrooms.
Before presenting different views on humour, I would like to note that contemporary humour researchers can be divided into two main categories: those who treat humour mainly as an obtainable tool or a skill that can be used for different purposes; and those who have a more humanist approach to humour and note its importance in relation to well-being, atmosphere and relationships.

WORKPLACE HUMOUR RESEARCH

According to Plester (2009), fun and humour are important components of any workplace and there is a need for further research into humour in different work settings. What is more, recognizing the value of humour at the workplace is profitable to the employees (Poon Teng Fatt 2002). Smith, Harrington and Neck (2000) even argue that the sense of humour has become a requisite quality for every worker. Lee and Kleiner (2005) add that there are physical, psychological and organizational benefits of joking and laughing at work. Miller (1996) says that laughter, play and the sense of humour at the workplace are tools for improving communication, innovation and empowerment. McIlheran (2006) on the other hand, claims that humour contributes to improved organizational cohesion. What is more, it is believed that “to restrict play to leisure time, that is time outside work, is to misunderstand and underestimate its importance in human life” (Roopnaire 2002: 249). It is further argued that experiences of play can be mood transforming. Holmes and Marra (2002) point out that humour shapes every workplace and is a way of “doing collegiality” at work.

Holmes (2007) even calls for employers’ recognition of the importance of humour in constructing, maintaining and reinforcing positive workplace relationships. Scott (2009), although admitting the advantages of laughter and humour at work, points out the dangers of offensive humour. There are both social and lawful limits to the free use of humour at the workplace. Wolfe (2009) talks about laws that by protecting ethnic minorities, the disabled or women from harassment at work make some jokes not only inappropriate but also illegal. Yarwood (2004) notices that political correctness severely circumscribes topics
of contemporary humour. He also poses the question of whether or not humour is being limited too much nowadays. Cummings (2001) goes even further, highlighting the impossibility of being both politically correct and funny. Holmes (2007) observes that there is generally little research focusing on the use of humour among professionals in particular workplaces.

RESEARCH INTO HUMOUR AT EDUCATIONAL SETTINGS

Woods (1980) does not find it surprising that teachers’ staffroom conversation is dominated by joking and tension-releasing conversations, given the demanding work of dealing with large groups of involuntarily attending pupils and the need for a minimum of colleague co-ordination. Davies (1990) adds that laughter in a staffroom fulfils important functions such as: neutralizing excessive bureaucracy, subverting or compromising senior personnel and promoting solidarity among the staff. Holmes (2000), in her study on workplace humour, notices that humour provides socially acceptable means of signalling lack of agreement, registering a protest, or even a challenge to more powerful figures. She also points out that humour is a useful strategy for softening criticisms in contexts where work is being regularly evaluated and assessed. Mawhinney (2008) highlights that the teaching profession requires teachers to continually mask their emotions in order to maintain a positive and professional image in front of the classroom. She further elaborates that this makes the staffroom a place where teachers can release the suppressed frustration, anger and sadness, and where humour is used as a coping strategy. She explains that humour and jokes can bring lightness to the intense work activity and release tension and also points out that experiences of play are mood-transforming. Teachers’ well-being is an important aspect of their professional lives as it is about being comfortable, happy and healthy (in Holmes 2005). Gorrow, Muller and Kappa Delta Pi (2008) notice that humour does have an effect on the physical well-being of teachers as it relieves stress and pain, and relaxes the muscles. Mawhinney (2008) believes that there is a need
for research specifically observing the spaces where teachers have informal social interaction.

THE IMPORTANCE OF HUMOUR AT SCHOOL

Humour is an inherent element of school life. In order to understand it, it should be sufficient to look up the funny responses of students so frequently quoted in the Polish newspapers. It is worth noticing, however, that school humour cannot be confined solely to this form of humour as there are so many other forms present in the school life. Humour thrives during lessons (especially at the back of the classroom); in the tiny notes pupils pass to each other and in the carefully drawn pictures (either on the desk or at the back of a notebook). But it is not just pupils who laugh during lessons. Teachers are also often amused by pupils’ witty responses and creative ideas. Loud laughter accompanies both teachers and students during lunch breaks, in the corridors, in the staffrooms, on the football pitches, in the playgrounds, as well as in the cloakrooms and in the school canteens. The simplest explanation of why school is filled with humour is that it is a place where so many different people spend so much time with each other.

It is also possible that the presence of humour in the school helps to counterbalance the serious goals that this institution represents. Or maybe it is natural for humour to occur in places where work time (i.e. lessons) is accompanied by free time (i.e. breaks)? Humour can be seen as a mental escape that allows for a momentary detachment from all what is important, serious and necessary; giving an opportunity for our imagination to run riot in the everyday toil of responsibilities.

THE APPLICATION OF HUMOUR IN THE TEACHERS’ DAY TO DAY WORK

When it comes to the functions that humour fulfils in the school, they are innumerable. However, I would single out several essential functions such as: humour shows solidarity among pupils (when it
is directed at the educational system, school, head teacher, teachers, tests, etc.), shows solidarity among teachers (when is directed at school bureaucracy, school administration, misbehaving pupils, critical parents, etc.), entertains, e.g. it is a time-killer, combats boredom but also stimulates creative thinking (Goldstein and McGhee 1972). It also stimulates the mind (Chiaro 1992), and finally humour forms one’s character and is an information carrier. The two first categories seem to be ideal for producing irony and sarcasm as well as parody, whereas the third category could be rich in abstract/absurd jokes and word-play. The fourth and fifth categories represent mixed humour types.

An example of the first category:

A student to her teacher: “I refuse to do my homework as in my opinion its scope exceeds the new curriculum basis.”

Source: http://historically.blox.pl/resource/1200909.gif

This example is directed at the system, it ridicules the policy of the educational system.
An example of the second category:

A history teacher comes into a staffroom very irritated and says to the head teacher: “Oh this class! I cannot stand these morons! I asked them who took Bastille and they shouted that none of them had!” The head teacher replies: “Oh just calm down, maybe it was really somebody from another class?”

Source: http://www.menis.pl/dowcipy.html

The above example illustrates humour directed at the head teacher, ridiculing his historical knowledge and diminishing his position at the school.

An example of the third category:

A pupil using a spray repeatedly writes on the school wall: “I will not write on the school wall ever again”. The head teacher holds a ladder for him.

Source: http://www.sp4.konin.lm.pl/encyklopedia/humor.jpg
The above example shows a combination of creative thinking and absurdity, we laugh here at the reverse convention.

As for the fourth category – namely humour that forms one’s character – it’s a function of humour which in my opinion is of great importance but is omitted by many humour researchers (notably apart from Paul McGhee).

I believe that being in an environment where the frequency of humour is very high enables a person to build a self-deprecating armour, whereby on the one hand a person is able to appreciate humour (having jokeability), but on the other hand is capable of handling jokes directed at him/her (being joke-proof or in other words being able to laugh at oneself). Teachers are often the target of critique and therefore I believe that the skilful application of humour would help them become immune to different comments, spitefulness or negative job appraisal. Toughening up by means of humour is certainly a process, thus it is possible that the results would not be visible straight away but it is a free of charge treatment and is available to everyone.

Now I would like to briefly concentrate on humour as an information carrier. This type of humour fulfils a particular role in communication between employees who occupy different positions in the workplace hierarchy. Foot and Chapman (1977) note that humour is often used to transmit serious messages. A witty subtext, allusion or innuendo may amuse the recipient at the same time making him or her aware that we are not satisfied with him/her or that we feel resentment or grievance against him/her. Thus, humour can be used as a camouflage (Holmes 2007).

An example of the fourth category:

A PhD student comes to his supervisor and starts a conversation by saying: “Excuse me, Professor...” The professor interrupts him and says: “Oh, you don't need to call me ‘Professor’, just refer to me as ‘Master’.”

Source: anecdotal
An example of the fifth category:

A teacher to a student who is habitually late: “Zalewski you are always late, who is sending you the timetable? National Railway?!”

This example shows how a serious message can be coded in the form of a joke and how humour can be used to soften criticism (Holmes 2000).

The example below proves that the aforementioned categories do not always occur separately but can be combined and mutated.

The drawing is entitled: “Deviousness: When you are one step ahead of your enemy”.
The notice on the blackboard says: “Who did this?”

Source: http://demotywatory.pl/2753666/Przebieglosc
In everyday life we trivialize the importance of humour (Miller 2008); whereas I believe that humour can play a vital role in the emotional and intellectual development of a person, improving his/her creativity (Goldstein and McGhee 1972), giving him/her oratorical panache and finesse, even brilliance, and at the same time equipping him/her with tools to combat stress and discontent. What is more, humour enables us to remain detached from ourselves and our problems (Categories 1, 2 and 3). I am referring here to both teachers and students who after all co-exist in the school environment which is not always completely serious.

Humour at school mirrors school reality along with its advantages, disadvantages, problems, joys and challenges. It is worth noting that school humour often shows something in a distorting mirror. When we assume that humour is such a metaphorical mirror we begin to understand how powerful humour can be as mirrors reflect the truth. The skilful use of humour can be useful in the teacher's day to day work and his/her relationships with students, parents and colleagues. However, restricting humour to merely a tool designed to achieve some goal is criticized by Westwood and Rhodes (2007). In the reality of the school environment humour has the potential of fulfilling many different functions simultaneously. Humour, it is often highlighted, has a therapeutic effect (Skevington and White 1996; Shami and Stuss 1999). Although it is very individual and people can perceive humour as more or less helpful, humour is (I stress the point) a free and readily available solution. However, humour is not just a way of coping with and relieving stress, it can also be an inspiration and “stimulation of mind” (in Chiaro 1992) as it does have an incredible creative potential. Humour is also, or maybe mainly, a form of entertainment. Certainly many teachers treat a lunch break in the staffroom as an occasion for joking and telling each other different anecdotes. For many teachers the quality of staffroom life is a key indicator of how “good” the school is (Woods 1980), especially since teaching is a rather lonely occupation with limited opportunities for adult–adult interactions (Miller 2008). In my opinion, teachers, just like students, need or even have a right to have a decent laugh, free from critical looks, rules and regulations and the imposed code of conduct. The lunch break in the staffroom seems like a great opportunity for free, unobstructed laughter to occur.
and the importance of such laughter should not be trivialized. After all, the lack of sense of humour is a drawback in the teaching occupation because humour is also a weapon and since today’s teacher has such a restricted repertoire of actions in the event of students’ aggression or misbehaviour, humour seems to be an acceptable weapon for combating certain class misconducts.

Having discussed humour potential, some humour types and functions, I would like to move on to a discussion about the implementation of Humour Studies into teacher training courses.

IMPLEMENTATION OF HUMOUR STUDIES INTO TEACHER TRAINING COURSES

Since humour in itself is a multi-disciplinary subject, it is hard to categorically indicate just one subject from the teacher training course that Humour Studies could be incorporated within. Humour is such a wide topic that it could be a part of different subjects during teacher training courses or become a separate course. Miller (2008), who ran a course dedicated to humour at the academic level (and more precisely within teacher training courses) warns against the domination of topics relating to humour in student–teacher relationships. Humour studies should incorporate both theory and practice, should show the multi-dimensional and multi-functional nature of humour, being at the same time in direct relation to problems and concerns present in the teaching profession. What is more, Humour Studies could cater for the problems that accompany Western teachers such as pervasive political correctness which, although not omnipresent, is present in Poland as well. Returning to the content of the Humour Studies programme, I believe that consulting experienced teachers and head teachers would be essential in constructing such a programme. I would also argue that both qualitative and quantitative research into the presence and importance of humour in teachers’ professional lives would help to establish a list of issues and problems the programme of Humour Studies could address.
Apart from a concrete curriculum it is important to discuss the short and long-term goals that would underpin the subject. If, for instance, we assume that the goal of the subject is to raise awareness among prospective teachers about the benefits and dangers of using humour at the workplace, the subject could be divided into six main topics:

- Humour – a free cure for stress and frustration,
- Humour and communication at the workplace,
- Humour and over-familiarity,
- Humour and relationships at the workplace,
- Limits of humour,
- Humour and power.

In order to construct the content of the subject we could also derive inspiration from a professional humour service run by an American humour researcher Paul McGhee – the authority among humour researchers. He runs paid humour training for different occupations, including teachers, during which he presents different applications of humour. The aim of those training sessions is to equip teachers with humour to cope with work-related stress and also to provide them with emotional resistance, which could help them to stay effective in their occupation in these difficult times (The Laughter Remedy 2011). The training sessions also aim to point out that humour is an effective technique in alleviating tension among pupils and making lessons more attractive. McGhee’s service is not one of a kind though. Miller (1996) writes about many different companies that employ professional comedians who teach employees how to incorporate humour into work and how to relax at the workplace, pointing out that it is proven that so called “fun workshops” for employees introduce a significant change in their sense of empowerment.

When discussing such training, it is worth noting the functionalist approach to humour that Westwood and Rhodes (2007) warn us against. I would go even further and argue that humour in such training sessions may be objectified and treated as yet another product such as a washing machine or a vacuum cleaner, where knowledge of the attached manual enables everyone to use it correctly. What is more, the sheer notion of “effectiveness” of humour must horrify and alarm all sophisticated humour “users”. But on the other hand, humour
training sessions are probably perceived by employers as an attractive and useful service. I believe that Humour Studies, in order to cater for the needs of teachers, should embrace a variety of different topics and move beyond the functionalist approach to humour. Humour Studies should also at least touch on different disciplines that deal with different humour aspects. Humour Studies, and this is worth highlighting, should not be perceived as a one-dimensional subject detached from all other disciplines and easily fitting into instruction-oriented training. On the contrary, Humour Studies fall outside the traditional definition of a structured subject, course or training. Woods (1980), for example, makes an interesting point about the importance of having knowledge of sociological processes before implementing humour into teaching and class management strategies. We could go even further and argue that both philosophy of humour and history of humour research should be a part of Humour Studies in order to avoid oversimplification of the topic. The broadening of the subject could help to present subtlety and artistry hidden in humour.

It could be argued that what is needed is even wider and more varied content of Humour Studies that would incorporate studies on different methods of coping with stress, relaxation techniques and “playfulness” (Roopnaire 2002) or the ability to find the “inner child” (Miller 1996). This approach would allow us to combine Humour Studies with play and fun in the broader sense which in the case of teacher training can have double benefits (for the prospective teachers and their pupils). When discussing implementation of Humour Studies into teacher training, it is worth noting that this training innovation is not a “quick fix” solution as the effects are not immediate. Therefore, I believe that apart from Humour Studies, more immediate solutions could be implemented into particular schools. Since rules of the world of business already permeate school reality, it would be worth looking into how “Humour Rooms” (Holmes 2007: 522), or in other words playgrounds for adults/rooms where employees have fun, could be implemented into schools and more precisely, school staffrooms. “Humour Rooms” have a potential of producing immediate effects and thus benefits for teachers. This of course, similarly to the idea of Humour Studies, would require some in-depth research and consultation with teachers, educators and head teachers to avoid
dangers inherent in ill-judged fun needs of employees (Westwood and Rhodes 2007). However, fresh ideas and innovative programmes are worth considering, especially that they have been reported to work in a business world (Holmes 2007; Miller 1996).

CONCLUSIONS

Humour is so marginalised both in research and teacher training that it would be worth considering including the issue of humour into the debate on Polish education. Humour has incredible potential and plays a substantial role in the social life of every human. The understanding of the multi-dimensional and multi-functional nature of humour could open the door to many innovative solutions in both teaching and relationships among different parties at school, and also give teachers more job satisfaction. Obviously, humour cannot be perceived as a universal recipe for all difficult issues and problems awaiting teachers in schools. Humour is not an explicitly positive phenomenon, however, it is worth considering what role humour can play in the teachers’ professional lives and what the benefits of teachers’ use of humour are. Of course, the voice of teachers should not be omitted in the discussion about Humour Studies; they could not only enrich the debate with their experience but also point it in the right direction.

The above paper only touched on some aspects of humour and therefore should be treated as an introduction to the debate about humour in schools and not as an exhaustive, in-depth analysis of humour. Nevertheless, I hope it can serve as an invitation to a multi-disciplinary discussion about the place of humour in the teacher training in Poland. A country which decides to implement Humour Studies into the teacher training course has got a chance to become a pioneer in Europe. I strongly believe that Poland has the potential to accept this challenge.
Krystyna Celarek
College of Business in Dąbrowa Górnicza

Information and Information Technology as important aspects in the process of educating children and young people in the 21st century

INTRODUCTION

The term “informatics” arose from a combination of “information” and “automation”. As a result of logical associations of these terms, the concept was formed to determine collective information that is stored, searched on request, processed and delivered in a rapid, accurate, and reliable way by using an automatic device (Kurcyusz 1979: 7).

IT concerns information processing that is characterized by two attributes. Firstly, it is rational, i.e. based on general laws and techniques adopted in this field. Secondly, it is automatic. The essential aspect of information science is therefore processing information by electronic machines (Sobczak 1978: 13).

The increased interest in the processes of transferring information in our times, reflected in the emergence of new fields of science and new technologies, is caused by the so-called information explosion. It involves tremendous increase in the amount of information in almost all areas of life. Thus, the modern scientific and technological revolution is primarily a revolution in collecting and processing information (Wroblewski 1985: 6).

The IT revolution, which we have been witnessing for several years, resulted in the increasingly important role that electronics, especially digital recording and transmission, play in our lives. Both these technologies have evolved rapidly over the last decade. Technological progress in the field of recording and transmitting information in digital form has allowed for accumulating a substantial part of the
intangible heritage of humanity, including literary works, scientific achievements, musical performances, etc. It is reasonable to believe that in the foreseeable future the vast majority of all content ever put on paper, celluloid or magnetic tape, or similar media will be collected in digital form. The present knowledge and the development of digital recording technology indicate that the possibility of collecting information in this form is unlimited. At the same time, popularization of computers, IT education, development of relevant infrastructure, economic reasons and ecological considerations add to the fact that more and more information is created in digital form (Przetocki 2001: 27).

The fact that the Internet has become a source of dissemination of knowledge and culture is not without significance for the ongoing changes. It provides a tool for accessing information – so essential and important in today’s world. Finally, it is a new medium of global scope, decentralized, not subjected to control by any state or private institution, and impossible to be fully controlled because of the scope and technological conditions. This creates new opportunities for participating in the transmission of information, and it is definitely better than any other existing mass media, as the users (Internet audience) can affect the received (reported) content. The Internet facilitates communication and exchange of information that becomes available throughout the world almost immediately after it was entered into the memory of one of the computers connected to the Internet (Stanisławska-Block 2002: 22). Today we observe the accumulation of social effects of implementing various techniques and technology – the 21st century is the age of informatization. However, in order to ensure that the technology does not bring any damage, adequate legal solutions protecting individual rights and regulating availability of public information are required. Gaining knowledge of this subject by students in computer science class will allow shaping the informed and responsible information society. One of the goals of the education system is to prepare children and young people for life in the modern world. The educational process must therefore adapt to the requirements of the developing civilization, using the achievements of modern information and communication technology (Bednarek-Michalska 2005: 2).
The aim of this study is to draw attention to the IT education model, which cannot be limited to merely teaching computer skills and the ability to use IT solutions. In the education process of children and young people it is important to focus on issues concerning access to public information on the one hand, and ensuring the protection of personal data on the other. This requires expanding teachers' knowledge in this field and changing the model of IT education.

THE MODEL OF IT EDUCATION IN THE 21ST CENTURY

Modern technology and methods of communication are the most characteristic aspects of the modern society. The 20th century ended with a real explosion of possibilities of collecting and processing data by electronic means which were inconceivable until recently. An individual in the modern world is the beneficiary, but at the same time the victim of modern methods of collecting information (Safjan 2001: 3).

Apart from developing the ability to use technological solutions to protect privacy on the Internet, efforts need to be made to increase user awareness of the hazards connected with using the Internet (Bart 2004: 239).

The vast majority of the Internet users – members of the community sometimes referred to as the “information society” – do not realize the threats which the use of the global network poses to their privacy. According to H. Garstka, “euphoria associated with using the new media stands in contrast with the carefree attitude of most users towards the consequences that it brings for their personal rights” (Garstka 1998: 7).

Surfing the Internet creates an illusive feeling of anonymity which often results in complete lack of awareness of the adverse consequences arising from gathering and using personal information from the user’s private sphere. Users of online services usually do not care about warnings against risks to the confidentiality of information, often carelessly give detailed personal information by filling out various questionnaires and surveys, do not pay attention to details concerning the purpose the information will be used for (Fajgielski 2000: 92).
By “defaulting” or “preferring” certain actions, computer equipment tends to decrease the degree of control that the individual has over the information that constitutes the private sphere (Lekka-Kowalkik 2000: 456).

The Internet is and will be the essential tool for work and recreation of many young people, and therefore fighting it should be replaced with education whose main objective will be “to prepare for use the Internet as a tool for intellectual work and for using web services in an informed and critical manner” (Strykowski 2004: 44).

The reasoning quoted above shows the need to introduce general assumptions arising from the provisions of the Act on Personal Data Protection into the IT education model. The fundamental characteristic of the new approach to education in the EU is a return to the idea of training which involves not only conveying knowledge, but also developing the skills to apply this knowledge in practice, developing information-seeking skills, and shaping appropriate social and professional attitudes. The main goal of education is to prepare graduates for the changing technological and civilization conditions (Strategia 2009: 36), and for functioning in the information society. This process should be initiated early – when educating children and young people.

An answer to the needs of the emerging information society is introducing IT skills, including the legal aspects, into the set of standard professional skills of teachers. In the literature on the subject, it is indicated that the teacher must be more of a guide and an interpreter of the contemporary reality than a person conveying knowledge. This requires having extensive knowledge of sociology, psychology, but also elements of legal solutions regarding new technology (Aftański 2004: 83).

Common access to the bulk of information gained through the Internet and other media that young people use today puts the teacher in a slightly different role. His work must not, as previously, be based only on conveying knowledge, assessing the amount of knowledge students memorize, and shaping simple cognitive skills (Siemieniecki 2007: 137). In the literature on the subject it is noted that nowadays it is necessary to educate and train teachers in new skills. These skills should differ from the previous ones in terms of their content (they
should be combined rather than highly specialized, open rather than closed, creative rather than imitative), and in terms of their professional role (the teachers should depart from being conveyors and enforcers and become the guides and interpreters) (Kwiecinski 2000: 17).

The teacher, fulfilling the role of the guide and interpreter, must be able to draw attention to the right to access public information on the one hand and the right of an individual to be protected (protection of personal data) in the information-driven world on the other. However, in order to pass this knowledge, they must possess it. It is by no means about purely theoretical legal knowledge, but rather the ability to “open for the students the doors of knowledge” which will then be useful in practice.

PUBLIC INFORMATION – LET US TRY TO MAKE YOUNG PEOPLE AWARE OF THE RIGHTS THEY HAVE

The Act of 6 September 2001 on the Access to Public Information, in article 2 section 1 states that everyone has the right to access public information called “the right to public information”. The person exercising the right to public information must not be required to demonstrate a legal interest (Mucha 2002: 144). The Act consists of 26 articles, grouped in three chapters. Section 1 contains general provisions (Articles 1–5). Public information has been defined as any information about public affairs.

The right to access public information involves the right to obtain public information, including information that has been processed by the issuing entity in the scope that is particularly important for the public interest, the right to access official documents, and the right to enter sessions of collegial authorities coming from general elections. The subjects obliged to make public information available are all authorities and, importantly, subjects performing public functions (Aleksandrowicz 2004: 56).

Chapter 2 of the Act (Articles 6–23) regulates the scope of public information to be provided, the procedure in which this information is made available, establishes judicial control over the decisions to refuse
access to public information, as well as contains a penal provision. The array of information subject to being provided under the act is quite broad and is not exhaustive.

The Act provides three ways of accessing public information (paths of accessing public information). The basic way is publishing official documents on the Internet in the Public Information Bulletin. The second path is to provide information at the request of an interested person or by posting the relevant information in the usual manner. The third path is the right to enter sessions of public authorities, but only those chosen by general elections (Aleksandrowicz 2004: 58).

Access to public information is basically free. Only when the subject concerned has incurred additional costs connected, for example, with the way of transferring information indicated in the application, they may charge a fee in the corresponding amount. The information must be provided without undue delay and no later than 14 days from the date of filing. If that term is unattainable, the entity responsible for providing the information notifies the petitioner, explains the reasons for the delay and sets the date when the information will be provided. This must not, however, be later than 2 months after the request has been made. A refusal to provide public information is an administrative decision, thus the appropriate provisions of the Administrative Procedure Code are applied, with the proviso that the appeal against the decision must be considered within 14 days. Chapter 3 contains provisions to amend the regulations in force, as well as transitional and final provisions (Articles 24–26) which regard changes of the press legislation (Aleksandrowicz 2004: 60).

Public Information Bulletin is of key importance in providing access to public information. The Act grants the Bulletin website the status of an official information publisher which should function as a unified system of sites in the public network. Thanks to the official status of the information, the data published carries a presumption of correctness.

At the same time, the Act sets a minimum mandatory scope of information in the Public Information Bulletin. However, this does not cause undue restrictions because all public information, disclosure of which is not restricted by law, can be published in the Bulletin (maximum scope) (Sibiga 2006: 101).
Public information on the sites of the Public Information Bulletin is to allow the fullest possible realization of the fundamental principles: universality, speed, and free access. The information presented in the Public Information Bulletin should be available around the clock, thus avoiding the time limit related to the office opening hours. The electronic form of information, using data communication network, also offers the way to remove barriers to the place of access – public information contained in the Public Information Bulletin is available from any computer connected to the Internet, so the range is practically unlimited. Materials contained in the Public Information Bulletin are electronic, so they can be copied and saved, which makes the access much easier, quicker and lowers the cost of providing the materials (Fajgielski 2007: 81).

Discussing that aspect, I would like to emphasize that the role of the teacher would obviously not be to discuss the legal basis for public information, but to indicate the opportunities to access public information with the use of solutions such as browsing the Public Information Bulletin of the various bodies and institutions, allowing to find information on their operations, or the processes of law establishment and law enforcement, etc. That would not only be education about public information, but also an attempt to shape the attitudes of students, showing that a lot of valuable content can be found on the Internet.

An active attitude towards change should be assumed. The more we realize the great possibilities of the new digital world, as well as the magnitude of the emerging risks, the more we should engage in the process of change. It is the responsibility of the informed participants of the ongoing changes (including computer science teachers) to create mechanisms that would strengthen the positive phenomena and weaken the adverse ones, so that the future generations will not be able to accuse us of failing to face up to the challenges of our times and allowing the humanity to become enslaved to an unimaginable scale (Wolf 2001: 146). Free flow of information and practically unlimited access to it must be balanced by the right to privacy and protection of personal rights of every human being (Wolf 2001: 147).
PROTECTION OF PERSONAL INFORMATION – A VITAL ASPECT OF EDUCATION OF CHILDREN AND YOUNG PEOPLE

The Act of 29 August 1997 on Personal Information Protection (Journal of 2002, No. 101, point 926 with subsequent amendments) consists of nine chapters which regulate, among others, the processing of personal information, the rights of the person concerned, security of personal information, and registration of personal information databases. In accordance with Article 1 of the Act, everyone is entitled to the protection of their personal information. Personal information is defined in the Act as any information concerning an identified or an identifiable person.

The provisions relative to the protection of personal information are used primarily to serve two basic functions. On the one hand, they are to be a tool indispensable for ensuring respect for the fundamental, universally recognized rights and freedoms, notably the right to privacy. On the other hand, their task is to protect the interests of users of modern information technology and the Internet to provide confidence and security necessary for their actions, and that also includes various public institutions (Bart 2004: 52).

In addition to the implementation of technological solutions appropriate for privacy protection on the Internet, efforts need to be made to increase user awareness of the hazards connected with using the Internet, and to develop appropriate legal regulations which take into consideration the nature of data processing and protection in a network environment (Bart 2004: 239). Issues related to raising users’ awareness of the hazards connected with using the Internet, including aspects related to personal information, should be discussed during computer science classes.

Personal information, i.e., various types of information about identified or identifiable individuals, is processed on the Internet in huge quantities. We are also dealing with completely new categories of personal information. The information of personal nature most frequently used is the web addresses of e-mails (Fajgielski 2000: 89).

The risk to the private sphere in connection with processing personal information in computer networks is increased not only by the enormous amount of information, its availability and ease of
processing, but also due to the fact that frequently the person whom
the data concerns is far away from the entities that process that
data, and thus the possibility to exercise direct control is decreased
(Fajgielski 2000: 89).

The issue of protecting personal information on the Internet needs
to be simultaneously considered on three interrelated levels. These
include issues concerning:

1. The level of the Internet users’ awareness of the risks to privacy
resulting from the use of the network,
2. Technological solutions ensuring confidentiality and integrity
of data and the possibility of anonymous access to the network,
3. Legal regulations on that subject.

It should be emphasized that the aim of the Personal Information
Protection Act is not only to regulate the processing of personal data
and the application of sanctions in the event of infringement, but
primarily to realize the need for preventive measures against this type
of risk (Kaczmarek: www.giodo.gov.pl).

Information from various spheres of life is considered to be
personal data if it is possible to link it with the designated person. It may
include information of an objective or subjective nature, measurable
or opinion-based, referring to the past, present or future, permanent
or temporary. Personal data includes information on:

a) objective facts (name, sex, height, distinguishing marks,
citizenship, fingerprints, place and date of birth, details of identification
documents, social security number),
b) acquired characteristics (education, command of languages,
certificates held, handwriting, marital status),
c) personality traits, psychological characteristics, including the
beliefs, interests, outlook, tastes, way of spending free time,
d) financial situation, financial operations,
e) various signs of activity,
f) related to active or passive participation in various events.

Some information inherently identifies the person; most of it
becomes personal data only in combination with other information
identifying the person directly or indirectly (Barta 2004: 382).
Awareness of the role that personal information plays, what it is, and
how it should be protected is the knowledge students should obtain during computer classes.

SUMMARY

The need to change the IT education model, taking into account the elements of access to public information and personal data protection, must primarily get the acceptance and understanding among teachers. If teachers have the relevant knowledge and inner conviction about the need for change, we can expect that this will translate into effects of IT education. It will be difficult to expect students to have knowledge on what the subject of this study is if teachers do not take it seriously. This is not about conveying purely theoretical knowledge, but being able to orient students towards that matter, to “sensitize” them to certain phenomena, to make them aware of their rights and responsibilities. This can only be attained by a person who “feels the subject”, and does not only recites passages from books or legal acts. We can easily say that this is a big challenge for teachers, but also an opportunity to demonstrate the interdisciplinary approach to conducting classes.

Education is an important social, economic and political investment. Education and competence are the most important values of modern information civilization and societies based on knowledge (Banach 2000: 12).
Literature


Giddens A. (2002). *Nowoczesność i tożsamość. „Ja” i społeczeństwo w epoce późnej nowoczesności.* Warszawa: PWN.


Kocór M. (2007). Nauczyciele wobec lokalnej polityki oświatowej po wprowadzeniu reformy, [In:] T. Grabiński, L. Woszczek (eds.), Społeczeństwo edukacyjne w strategii rozwoju regionu. Chrzanów: TOZC, WSPiM.


Kossowska M. (2010). Bezradność intelektualna w szkole. „Psychologia w szkole”, No. 2 (26).


Плужник И.Л. (2003). Формирование межкультурной компетенции студентов в процессе профессиональной подготовки. Москва: ИНИОН РАН.


Literature


SPIS TREŚCI

Introduction 5

Part I
Contemporary trends in the teacher training in Europe

A.V. Shmalyey
Formation of students’ readiness for dialogue.
in the multicultural environment 8

Wurud Jayusi
The light at the end of the tunnel. Peace education in Israel 23

Éva Kovácsné Bakosi
Nursery school teacher training and the Bologna process
in Hungary 34

Part II
Reflections on teacher education and teacher
professional practice in Poland

Iwona Czaja-Chudyba
In the face of the oppressive reality – criticism and self-criticism
of teachers 48

Maria Kocór
Teachers in the face of educational changes – conclusions
concerning education 66

Paweł Ochwat
Disciplinary interactions of teachers in comparison
with their level of emotional intelligence and the style
of classroom management 87

Michał Tomczak
The awareness of the profession and the self-reflection
of the primary, secondary and upper secondary school teachers
on their own practice in the light of empirical studies 110
Anna Karłyk-Ćwik
  Rehabilitation educator as a reflective practitioner in the eyes of the students of resocialization 132

Maria Kmita
  Humour and its place in the teacher training 158

Krystyna Celarek
  Information and Information Technology as important aspects in the process of educating children and young people in the 21st century 174

Literature 184
Publikacja jest znaczącym głosem w aktualnej dyskusji o roli nauczyciela we współczesnym wielokulturowym świecie. Mamy tutaj do czynienia nie tylko z rzetelnymi badaniami nad złożonością samej sytuacji kulturowej, w jakiej znajduje się współczesny nauczyciel, ale także z próbą zrozumienia jego postawy wobec zachodzących zmian i związanych z nimi oczekiwań, jakie kierowane są pod jego adresem ze strony pozostałych podmiotów edukacji.

Dr hab. prof. UŚ Andrzej Murzyn

Tłem dla prowadzonych przez autorów tego zbioru rozważań jest sytuacja społeczno-kulturowa, w jakiej przyszło pracować nauczycielom we współczesności. Świat, w jakim dziają się procesy edukacyjne, jest pełen problemów, niepokojów, znaków zapytania. Z drugiej strony, ten sam świat daje nam szanse na rozwój, twórczość, [... ] oferuje zaawansowane technologie, które można i należy pozytywnie wykorzystywać. [...] Niniejsza praca inspiruje do uważnego spojrzenia na otaczającą rzeczywistość, do indywidualnego zdobywania i doskonalenia wiedzy, zaznajamiania się z nowymi i mniej znanimi teoriami na temat kształcenia i doskonalenia nauczycieli.

Prof. nadzw. dr hab. Joanna Michalak

Uniwersytet Pedagogiczny im. Komisji Edukacji Narodowej w Krakowie
Prace Monograficzne nr 653

ISSN 0239-6025
ISBN 978-83-7271-789-4