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Editor’s Preface

The fourth issue of The New Educational Review in 2020 is the sixty second issue of our journal since its foundation in 2003. In this issue there are papers from: the Czech Republic, Hungary, Iran, Malaysia, Poland, the Republic of Korea, Serbia, Slovakia, Slovenia, Philippines, and Ukraine because our journal is open for presentation of scientific papers from all over the world.

In the present issue the International Editors’ Board has proposed the following sections: Social Pedagogy, General Didactics, and Methodology of Social Sciences.

In the section “Social Pedagogy” eight articles are included. Some theoretical and methodological conceptualizations made by Ewa Ogrodzka-Mazur and Petro Saukh have been applied in their analysis that refers to Paweł Boski’s theory of the cultural identity based on values and practices in bi- or multicultural socialization and Harold J. Noah’s model of the comparison of academic education. The aim of the contribution by Miriam Niklová, Karina Zošíková and Michal Novocký is to map the degree of smartphone addiction in adolescents by means of The Smartphone Addiction Scale a short version of which was designed by Kwon et al (2003). The paper by Tatjana P. Kompirović, Tatjana Radojević and Igor Đurić presents the results of research on key aspects of the influence that parenting styles have on the development of social competences and anti-social behaviour in children. The study described by Norhayati et al. demonstrates that engaging graduates in a specially designed program which aims to enhance their technical knowledge and soft skills coupled with some work experience is indeed a value added strategy to enhance graduates employability. The aim of the paper by Maria Czerepaniak-Walczak is to rise reflection on the conditions of respect for the right to education in the unexpected, pandemic time and afterwards. Melissa Prudencio Calica examines the effects of parental characteristics and home resources on the reading performance of 15-year-old Filipino students using the 2018 International Assessment Program (PISA) Philippine dataset. In their study Veronika Bocsi, Hajnalka Fényes and Valéria Markos provide an overview of higher education...
students’ volunteering and voluntary group membership based on a database (N=2,199), in which full-time students from five Central and Eastern-European countries (Hungary, Romania, Slovakia, Serbia, and Ukraine) were questioned. The study by Gilbert A. Celesio aims to develop constructs of instructors’ engagement or non-engagement in research as basis for developing a training framework.

In the section “General Didactics” four articles are included. The research conducted by Ivan Lešnik highlights important correlations between teachers and pupils in music education, and especially in singing activities, where the author determined the strong influence of teachers on pupils. The study by Hyoung-Jin Moon and Jong-Ho Nam demonstrates that a comparative-history teaching method is most effective for teaching migrant brides from countries with a history of recurrent cultural conflicts with Korea. Stanisław Juszczyk and Suwan Kim in their empirical research conducted among the academic teachers and students in the chosen Polish and Korean universities demonstrate that results are similar: distance learning during COVID-19 pandemic is not satisfying for either of the two groups and it is ineffective. The subject matter of the research by Aleksandra Pyrzyk-Kuta is about the experienced of art therapy students in self experience workshops, which constitute an important element of personal development on the path of preparation for a professional role.

In the section “Methodology of Social Sciences” we have selected a study by Bakhtiar Shabani Varaki and Tahereh Javidi Kalateh Jafarabadi who interpret the theory of enaction as a platform to educational research methodological reform.

We hope that this edition, like the previous ones, will encourage new readers, not only from Central and Eastern European countries, to participate in open international discussion. On behalf of the International Editors’ Board I would like to invite representatives of different pedagogical sub-disciplines and related sciences to publish their texts in The New Educational Review, according to the formal and essential requirements placed on our website: https://tner.polsl.pl – For Authors.
Abstract
In the philosophical-pedagogical analysis of the undertaken issues, some theoretical and methodological conceptualizations have been applied that refer to Pawel Boski’s theory of the cultural identity based on values and practices in bi-or multicultural socialization and Harold J. Noah’s model of the comparison of academic education. The assumption was also made that the research into the quality of life of Polish and Ukrainian university students enables one to learn the way(s) in which students understand themselves, the others and the world – the way(s) anchored in their own experience and culture.

The undertaken studies also address the important problem of forming students’ identity in the stage of the so called emerging adulthood. It occurs in the countries where a knowledge-based economy dominates and where the intensive changes both decrease the young’s motivation to engage in adult roles and make the young postpone them.

Key words: identity forming in early adulthood, axiological preferences, one’s own life situation, Polish and Ukrainian academic youth, comparative study
**Introduction: Emerging adulthood – identity forming in the period of early adulthood**

Without a doubt, contemporary academic youth, who live in a complicated and contradicting reality, must answer some crucial existential questions: Who am I? Where do I belong? Who can I be? This social group is in a special situation, as it is subjected to various socializing experiments of history, it experiences the phenomena of exclusion, freedom, disintegration and integration of identity. The identities and biographies of the young are shaped by macro-social and macro-economic tendencies.

The most recent psychological studies on the process of undertaking adult social roles and on the development of personality have been largely influenced by Jensen Arnett’s theory of emerging adulthood, which was put forward nearly two decades ago. The stage of emerging adulthood occurs in the countries in which the knowledge-based economy dominates and in which the people aiming at satisfying social positions have to devote many years to gain education and experience and – therefore – they postpone adulthood tasks until they acquire an appropriate (in their opinion) social and professional position (Arnett, 2000, pp. 470–479). Such a situation takes place in Poland and Ukraine, where many young people aged 18–30 (especially until 25) complete the consecutive levels of education (after graduating from secondary school) and collect their first experiences at work. This will bring effects not earlier than in later years.

The cases of Poland and Ukraine point to the occurrence of similar social transformations which result in putting off the moment of entering into adulthood and in prolonging the time for shaping the basic competences, such as responsibility for one's own acts, the acquisition of autonomy, or building one's own – open, flexible, but at the same time clear and stable – identity. In contrast to the beginning of the transformation period in the 1990s, currently – the number of Polish and Ukrainian young adults who continue education at university has increased three times and constitutes 50% of the whole population at the age 19–24 (Report, 2014; Laird, Harvey, Lancaster, 2015, pp. 87–100; European Commission, 2018).

**Theoretical and methodological assumptions of the research**

In the pedagogical analysis of the undertaken issues concerning the cultural identity and education of young adults learning in a culturally diversified environment, some theoretical conceptualizations were applied related to Paweł Boski’s
theory of cultural identity based on values and practices in the conditions of bi- and multicultural socialization. Reaching for the suggested model in pedagogical analyses assumes the possibility of cultural transmission in the conditions of an intentional learning process (i.e. in the family, school, peer group, local environment) and some experiences in the social discourse of a particular country (Boski, 2009, pp. 548–564).

In the undertaken research, the constructivist perspective was also applied, which consisted in emphasizing learners’ activeness in the educational process and the resulting construction of their own educational reality (Bruner, 1996; Lunenburg, 1998, pp. 75–81). This approach seems particularly useful in the interpretation of university students’ learning, which is understood as participation in constructing the social world and a common culture.

Due to the comparative character of the research, some references were made to Harold J. Noah’s model of qualitative comparison of academic education (Noah, Eckstein 1988, pp. 165–192; Marshall, 2014). This referred to the case of Poland and Ukraine and took into account a description of the traditions and latest tendencies in higher education in both countries, namely, an analysis of university curricula, socio-economic and cultural contexts, as well as some interpretations of the educational phenomena which might become change predictors.

Own research was carried out in culturally diverse environments of Poland and Ukraine. In accordance with the applied methodological standpoint, the research was conducted with the use of both quantitative and qualitative methods and particular research tools, elaborated on the basis of the research procedures recognized within these methods. Their choice and/or construction (in the case of the authors’ tools) were determined by the applied theories and the research assumptions resulting from them.

One’s own life situation of Polish students and satisfaction from it versus the feeling of identity

Young adults’ assessment of their own life situation is related to such cognitive categories as satisfaction, happiness, feeling of mental welfare, satisfaction with life.
or with its quality. As many psychologists and researchers into this subject emphasize, these terms are not identical, yet – they all refer to the individual’s general attitude to life, owing to which a person actively struggles against adversities and consistently aims at fulfilling important values (Malinauskas, Dumciene, Lapeniene, 2014, pp. 285–293; Riberio, Pereira, Freire, Oliveira, Casotii, Boery, 2018, pp. 70–77).

The surveyed academic youth expressed their opinions on a 1–7 scale – from extreme, severe and moderate dissatisfaction, through moderate, severe and extreme satisfaction, to the answer “this does not concern me”. The declarations composed four characteristic subsystems.

What is located in the first subsystem are the indications concerning the fields of life with which the academic youth is satisfied – family life (96%), the environment of friends (91%) and the own health (88%). The respondents express lesser satisfaction at life and educational achievements (86%), ways of spending leisure time (85%), studies (84%) and emotional life (82%). They are much less satisfied also with their current financial situation (76%) and professional prospects after their studies (70%). The fourth subsystem is composed of the fields with which the respondents are the least satisfied – the economic (50%) and political (36%) situation in Poland.

The subjective evaluation of their own life situation and satisfaction with it, as outlined by Polish students, is determined by the individual system of their values and it indicates the way of students’ perceiving the surrounding reality. As the analyses carried out so far show, young adult learners give the highest rank in their life to family values and to the peer environment (including friends and acquaintances). They are also satisfied with their health condition and they undertake various activities (e.g. regular sport exercises, healthy nutrition, healthy lifestyle) which confirm their pro-health attitudes. It does not seem to be a surprise that the respondents are not satisfied with the economic and political situation in their countries, which in fact determines their financial status, educational possibilities and professional prospects after their studies.

In the authorial studies, an attempt was also made to specify the relationship between Polish students’ life satisfaction and their feeling of identity in the local, regional, national, European and supra-European dimension. The detailed data concerning the statistically significant relationships are presented in Table 1.

In the environment of academic youth, the people who feel significantly more strongly associated with their living place are simultaneously very satisfied with their studies (Mann-Whitney U test: $Z = 2.65; p = 0.008$), family life ($Z = 2.35; p = 0.02$) and friends ($Z = 2.20; p = 0.03$). Yet, they critically evaluate their town or
village as regards the economic and political situation of the country \( (Z = -2.45; p = 0.04) \), professional prospects after their studies \( (Z = -2.19; p = 0.029) \), the possibilities of spending leisure time \( (Z = -2.03; p = 0.042) \) and their own health condition \( (Z = -2.01; p = 0.044) \).

The significantly strong association with the region is related to students’ satisfaction with friends \( (Z = 2.97; p = 0.003) \), studies \( (Z = 2.76; p = 0.006) \), professional prospects after studies \( (Z = 2.54; p = 0.011) \) and family life \( (Z = 2.22; p = 0.03) \).

Young adults assess their feeling of being a citizen of Poland through negative experiences and dissatisfaction at the economic situation of the state \( (Z = -2.34; p = 0.019) \), professional prospects after their studies \( (Z = -2.40; p = 0.017) \) and their own emotional life \( (Z = -2.03; p = 0.04) \). Only the students who are satisfied with their family life are at the same time more strongly emotionally attached to their homeland \( (Z = 2.03; p = 0.04) \).

**Table 1. Evaluation of Polish students’ satisfaction versus their feeling of identity (statistically significant data)**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Categories</th>
<th>I feel a resident of my town / village</th>
<th>I feel a resident of the region</th>
<th>I feel a citizen of Poland</th>
<th>I feel a European</th>
<th>I feel a citizen of the world</th>
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<td>Students’ own life and educational achievements</td>
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Two dimensions of the feeling of identity – the European and supra-European one – are determined by significantly positive evaluations resulting from students’ satisfaction at their professional prospects after their studies \((Z = 2.67; p = 0.008)\), friends \((Z = 2.32; p = 0.02)\), emotional life \((Z = 2.21; p = 0.03)\) and family life \((Z = 2.01; p = 0.04)\).

Satisfaction (or its lack) due to the financial situation and their own life and educational achievements does not significantly differentiate the evaluations of all the surveyed students’ feeling of identity. What draws attention in the general image of the respondents’ assessment of their own life situation and satisfaction at it is the low evaluation of the feeling of being a citizen of Poland. It can be assumed that the contemporary phenomena (associated with globalization, integration or immigration) taking place worldwide are changing the way of thinking about oneself and Others. The choice of the place/country of everyday life, work or education verifies the perception of oneself and of Others and contributes to the change of the feeling of identity and the related behaviour patterns. The surveyed academic youth living in the cultural borderland shape their awareness in complex sociocultural arrangements, which in turn verify their view on and evaluation of the present reality (Ogrodzka-Mazur, Saukh, 2019).

Therefore, it can be stated that university students fulfil their own life aspirations in three basic perspectives of self-perception and the perception of the surrounding culturally diversified environment:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Categories</th>
<th>I feel a resident of my town / village</th>
<th>I feel a resident of the region</th>
<th>I feel a citizen of Poland</th>
<th>I feel a European</th>
<th>I feel a citizen of the world</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
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<td>Professional prospects after studies</td>
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<td>Economic situation of the state</td>
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<td>Political situation of the state</td>
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Legend: S – satisfaction; NS – no satisfaction; H – high significant evaluation; L – low significant evaluation

Source: authors’ own research.
• in the perspective indicated by the category of “time” – which orientates academic youth in their choices towards the present and future time, determined by the own group’s traditions;
• in the perspective indicated by the category of “identity structure”;
• in the perspective pertaining to the category of “social role”.

A portrait of Ukrainian academic youth

Today in Ukraine the vast majority of school graduates are trying to undertake university education. In 2020, this majority is 80%. However, the current Ukrainian sociological research shows that the choice of higher professional education is only partly due to interest in a particular profession. More than on a profession, young people focus on their future social status. It means that the social orientation of school graduates in Ukraine is formed before the professional one. They often have little interest in the content of the future profession, but are aware of what life benefits, privileges, well-being it provides. Obviously, this explains the fact that in recent years the number of people wishing to obtain law, economic and financial education has sharply increased. According to Ukrainian youth, these types of education provide an opportunity to be a leader in the future, a well-off person, and to have a high social rank. The modern Ukrainian student has become more pragmatic, which is manifested in the desire to get a better job in life, to achieve material well-being and high social status with the help of education.

It is “material well-being” as a terminal (life) value that ranks first in the context of the value orientations of modern Ukrainian students (Table 2). In addition, they are particularly concerned about such values as “domestic comfort”, “special peace and absence of trouble”, “economic” and “physical security”, which can also be attributed to “materialist” values, which is obviously due to the economic crisis, corruption, inflation, and war, experienced by the Ukrainian society. Our research shows that 80% of young people believe that the current economic conditions in the country are the main cause of poverty, and only 6% of respondents believe that the current situation in the country allows one to ensure the well-being by personal labor.

Ukrainian students are most concerned about such things as corruption (37%) and war (36%). These fears dominate in all regions of Ukraine. At the same time, students are concerned about unemployment (32%), and their fear is the biggest in Kyiv and the Eastern part of Ukraine (39%).
It is also significant that in addition to material well-being, the first places are held by “family” (48.2%) and “health” (47%) and this is understandable, because these axiophenomena are the foundation of human well-being. However, the “health” of the student environment is not a simple issue. Physicians determine health disorders in 90% of students, more than half of whom have an unsatisfactory physical condition. Students themselves are much more optimistic about their own health. According to our sociological research, 42.7% of respondents consider it good, 39.9% do not consider it very good, and 16.6% of respondents assess their health as satisfactory.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>№</th>
<th>Value orientations</th>
<th>%</th>
<th>Rank</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Education, knowledge</td>
<td>46.8</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Interesting, creative work</td>
<td>28.8</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Material well-being</td>
<td>66.5</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Opportunity to bring benefits to people</td>
<td>8.2</td>
<td>18</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>Family</td>
<td>48.2</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>Health</td>
<td>47</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>Personal freedom, independence in judgments and ideas</td>
<td>36.6</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>Domestic comfort</td>
<td>35.6</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>Respect for others</td>
<td>15.1</td>
<td>14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>Dignity</td>
<td>57.2</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11</td>
<td>Moral stability</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>7</td>
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<tr>
<td>12</td>
<td>Honesty</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>16</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13</td>
<td>Participation in public life, in solving social problems</td>
<td>23.2</td>
<td>12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14</td>
<td>Ecological safety</td>
<td>7.2</td>
<td>19</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15</td>
<td>Opportunity to develop, use their abilities</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>17</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16</td>
<td>Understanding relationships with parents, the older generation</td>
<td>18.6</td>
<td>13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>17</td>
<td>Complete rest, entertainment</td>
<td>26.5</td>
<td>11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>18</td>
<td>Economic independence</td>
<td>40.1</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>19</td>
<td>High official and social position</td>
<td>12.3</td>
<td>15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20</td>
<td>Involvement in literature and art</td>
<td>5.6</td>
<td>20</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: authors' own research
It is also important in the university environment that the percentage of students who have the so-called “distorted motivation” is quite small (28%). The survey shows that 51%, when choosing a profession, is guided by the opportunity to get a good job, and 50% – to acquire professional knowledge and skills. The question whether students would like to engage in research activities after higher education is answered “no” by 69% and “yes” by 31%. Interestingly, the motivation for higher education differs between those who see their future in science and

Figure 1. A portrait of Ukrainian academic youth
those who do not. Among “potential scientists”, 45% entered the university for personal intellectual development, 57% – for professional skills and only 22% indicated obtaining a diploma as a reason. The relevant indicators for those who do not want to go into science – 35%, 47% and 36%. The motivation for a future job also differs. Work in the specialty is important for 67% of those who are ready to engage in scientific activities in the future, compared to 55% of those who are not ready. Instead, the salary is also less important for them – 73% vs. 80%.

The attitude of Ukrainian students to such life values as “participation in public life, in solving social problems” (23.2%), “opportunity to bring benefits to people” (8.2%), “environmental safety” (7.2) is of some concern. “Involvement in literature and art” (5.6%), in our opinion, requires increased attention to education and communicative competence of future members of the Ukrainian intellectual elite. The analysis of these issues in terms of gender shows that girls are three times more actively involved in public activities, more actively concerned about environmental safety, literature and art. The sociological research shows a positive attitude of university youth to religion. Only 32.7% consider themselves non-believers and 67.3% believers, although they state that they do not belong to any particular denomination.

Ukrainian students value the most: decency (59.5%), self-esteem (57.2%), understanding (44.1%), independence (41.6%), freedom (36.6%), and do not tolerate: betrayal (80.9%), cruelty (49.2%), greed (33.8%) and ignorance (23.1%). Yet, the most important thing in the university student environment of Ukraine is that there is a confusion about the future (35.5%) and only 6.5% of students consider themselves happy.

Thus, the study has helped to construct a “portrait of Ukrainian university youth”, namely to allow a comprehensive view of the social feelings and values of students, their activity in various spheres of society (Figure 1). The portrait is not stable, and in time, it depends on many factors, such as economic stability, educational reforms, some new elevating factors in the society, etc.

Conclusions

In the present conditions, the characteristic features of students both in Poland and Ukraine stand out significantly from other segments of the population. This has also a special role in the youth environment. Compared to other groups of young people, students can be distinguished by the following features: higher education; a strong desire for knowledge; high social activity; quite a harmonious
combination of intellectual and social maturity. As an integral part of youth, university students are a specific social group of different social statuses and characterized by specific working and living conditions, social behavior and mentality, and a system of values, for which the acquisition of knowledge and training for work in social production, science and culture is the main or mostly the main occupation. Students are a potential elite of the society, an intellectual source of the nation.

However, as a special social group of transitional (essentially marginal) nature, students have rather an unstable culture and act as a focus group for future society as a whole. This group is characterized by a certain kind of “border”, which makes it an extremely mobile part of society, sensitive to any changes in its structure, quickly capturing new trends in culture (Saukh, 2019, pp. 67–70). It is more efficient than other segments of the youth, reacts quickly to new trends in rapidly changing technologies, business environment, fashion, literature, music, etc. As a specific sociocultural community, university students are characterized by: (1) the temporality of their social status; (2) the intensity and scale of communication; (3) lack of life and social experience, variability of behaviors, and at the same time, curiosity, the desire to expand knowledge, a polarized vision of problems and the attempts to solve them in the most radical way; (4) maximalism, often an exaggerated assessment of one’s own opinion, a certain confrontation with the older generation.

At the same time, students most vividly generate and present some new ideas and advanced views. In any time and geographical space, academic youth forms an innovative reserve of the reformist section of the society, acting as a testing ground for the production of progressive forces of society, unfortunately – often becoming a hostage of destructive forces.

Therefore, the methodological matrix of the parameters applied in the portrait of students in Poland and Ukraine is as similar as possible. This is explained, firstly, by the fact that Polish and Ukrainian students are not homogeneous groups. They have different social backgrounds and the economic, cultural and social capital. Secondly, despite their internal differentiation, students are a sociocultural community that has a similar lifestyle, specific behaviour patterns and values. Thirdly, as a social group, students are in a certain border zone between a passive object of the state and social care and an active subject of social action. Fourthly, academic youth is characterized by rational and pragmatic thinking and understanding that success in life depends only on them. This means that students have a positive desire for self-fulfilment through the use of their own intellectual potential. Fifthly, despite the lack of “commitment to common ideals” and “national snobbery” in the
student community, it is characterized by both patriotism and cosmopolitanism. Migration processes, which take place both among Polish and Ukrainian students, are rather related to dissatisfaction with their place in society and the attitude of political powers to their role in the socio-economic and cultural life of the society. Sixthly, students are a flexible and dynamic social group as regards changing basic values, they are a source of critical reflection upon the experience of previous generations, they have significant innovative potential and a high susceptibility to innovation and risk-taking. Seventhly, the academic youth has a balanced or critical attitude to various negative phenomena, which, according to its representatives, are quite common among young people – consumerism, ignorance, intolerance, cruelty and violence.

However, the portrait of Polish and Ukrainian students has its own characteristics, due to e.g. national traditions, different living standards, and the attitude of the authorities to the problems of youth. In this discourse, it is the youth environment, represented by students, that serves as the laboratory which produces and tests previously unknown values, attitudes, patterns of behavior, cultural norms and patterns.

References


Abstract
The aim of the contribution was to map the degree of smartphone addiction in adolescents by means of The Smartphone Addiction Scale (SAS-SV) short version designed by Kwon et al. (2013). The construct validity of the research tool was established by exploratory factor analysis. A unidimensional solution appeared suitable to work with. The internal consistency of the scale was determined by Cronbach’s alpha (0.831). 519 respondents aged 12 to 25 years (AM = 19.41; SD = 3.83) participated in the research. A statistically significant difference was confirmed in the degree of adolescents’ smartphone addiction by gender in favour of women, and by age, at which respondents got their first smartphones, in favour of those who got their smartphone at a younger age. The effect size of differences was weak. No statistically significant difference showed in the degree of smartphone addiction by school type attended by adolescents.

Key words: mobile phone, addiction, youth, school

Introduction
The generation of today’s young people is called the Z Generation. According to Dolot (2018) it is the generation of those who are entering the work process or labour market, or are studying and not working yet. Singh and Dangmei (2016) state that they are young people raised with the social web, digital centric and technology is their identity. We share the opinion of the above authors, that it is a so-called “Virtual Generation”.
According to Tari (2011) these young people are characterized by underdeveloped emotional intelligence, they live as if happier lives, but with less meaning and values, they are more narcissistic which shows also in leaving digital footprints; due to applications that support multitasking. Being precise, or being able to concentrate and memorize something in the long term has become more difficult for them; their thinking is predominantly visual, and creativity and imagination is only in the second place; many are suffering from chronic sleep deprivation because they do not want to miss anything.

The increasing use of mobile technologies means progressive digital colonization of children’s lives, transforming interaction of younger actors with time, space, communication and cultural production. A number of risks associated with the use of the Internet is associated with the use of mobile phones since most of such devices allow access to the Internet.

These are types of Internet risks associated with the “Internet freedom” characterized by anonymity, absence of responsibility and almost impossible identification of the person legally responsible for the content and harmful effect of an Internet page. Here, we can talk about cyberbullying, cybergrooming, cyber-stalking or sexting (Dulovics & Kamenská, 2017).

In 2008, the term “NOMOPHOBIA” was coined during a study with the objective to evaluate the possibility of anxiety disorders occurred due to overuse of mobile phones in the United Kingdom. It is used for a psychological condition when people have a fear of not being able to use their mobile phones. The study found that nearly 53% of British people using mobile phones were apprehensive when they lost their mobile phones, ran out of batteries or had no network coverage. That study also revealed that approximately 58% of men and 47% of women using mobile phones suffered from the mobile phone anxiety, and 9% felt strained when their mobile phones were switched off. 55% of the participants agreed that they were not able to maintain connectivity with their dear and near ones, which was the main reason for their phobia (Bhattacharya et al., 2019).

Excessive time spent on mobile phones affects also the level of our mood. Two hours spent on a mobile device do not give us a surge of energy and good mood, but rather a lack of interest in anything. In youth, it is obvious especially in the school setting where a media-induced aversion to school can be observed. Such unconcern is manifested not only in school performance, but also in involvement in various voluntary activities in the school setting (Spitzer, 2018).

The greatest risk of the mobile phone addiction is the use of social media and creation of profiles to get acquainted with new people, which the study by Gün-doğmuş et al. (2020) showed. The survey by Chen et al. (2017), comprising 1441
students, showed a 29.8% prevalence of smartphone addiction among participants (30.3% in men and 29.3% in women). The use of game applications, anxiety and poor sleep quality were the factors associated with the smartphone addiction. Significant factors for female students were, inter alia, the use of social network services and depression. The study by Haug et al (2015) focused on identification of indicators of the smartphone use and smartphone addiction. It found out that the smartphone addiction was more frequent in younger adolescents (15–16 years old) in comparison with young adults (19 years old and older).

The survey by Luk et al (2018) showed that a statistically significant higher degree of smartphone addiction was found in women in comparison with men, younger population in comparison with older population and population with lower education in comparison with population with higher education. The survey by Tateno et al. (2019) also identified a higher degree of smartphone addiction in women. Women, as the survey showed further, used the Internet mainly for social networking via smartphone. Cheung et al. (2019) using a linear regression model pointed out to the fact that adolescent women who spent more time using smartphones on their holidays had on average higher scores in the smartphone addiction scale.

To acquire skills and abilities from digital media, a child first needs to know how to use them purposefully. Media education is an example of how school can act preventively in this area. Its goal is the development of media literacy and acquisition of media competences, i.e. the ability to receive, analyze, evaluate and communicate a wide scale of media contents. Preventive strategies developed in the school setting are influenced by the overall involvement of pupils, teachers and parents, their mutual cooperation and overall continuity of preventive strategies.

**Methodology**

The use of mobile phones is one of the hallmarks of our age. Due to the accelerating pace of life, mobile phones have become an integral part of everyday life. They are more accessible to the public than computers and the Internet. Mobile phones, just like other modern technologies, are a threat of potential addiction. In this respect, it is necessary to pay attention to the addressed issue at the theoretical as well as empirical level. The aim of our research was to determine and analyze the risk of mobile phone addiction in secondary school and university students due to their excessive use of mobile phones, and to identify factors contributing to the emergence of potential risks associated with the mobile phone addiction.
To measure the smartphone addiction, the short version of *The Smartphone Addiction Scale (SAS-SV)* by Kwon et al. (2013) was used. The research tool was designed to map the addiction of adolescents to smart mobile phones. It has 10 items to be answered by respondents on a 6-point scale (1 – I strongly disagree to 6 – I strongly agree). In order to understand the structure of the research tool, the exploratory factor analysis was used. The principal component method and promax rotation were applied, assuming the factors not to be independent of each other.

The KMO test of sampling adequacy (0.855) showed the factor analysis was suitable for obtained data and Bartlett’s test of sphericity rejected the hypothesis that the correlation matrix was a unit matrix (0.000 < 0.001). It held that the component could not have a factor loading higher than 0.40 in two or more factors at the same time. The total exhausted variability of the variables after rotation could not be defined since the factors were correlated. It was of 53.78% before rotation.

On the basis of Kaiser’s criterion (eigenvalue higher than 1) three factors could be considered. The scree plot, on the other hand, indicated the alternative to take only two factors into account, which was a more adequate solution. In the end, interpretation of generated latent variables appeared to be a problem. It was not possible to generalize unambiguously, what the items in the factors told about. Due to this and the fact that correlations of factor scores and the mean scores of factors were moderate (\(r = 0.444; r_s = 0.517\)), a unidimensional solution was decided for.

Internal consistency of the tool was evaluated by Cronbach’s alpha (0.831).

Reflecting the analyzed studies, independent variables such as gender, age at which respondents got their first smartphones and type of school they attended (see T1) were worked with in the research. Convenience sampling of respondents was used, since we were limited by their willingness and motivation to participate in the research. Data were collected by means of online questionnaires as well as questionnaires in the traditional form in the case of secondary school students. 519 respondents participated in the research.

### T1 Characteristics of the research sample

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Independent variables</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>%</th>
<th>AM</th>
<th>SD</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Gender</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Male</td>
<td>220</td>
<td>42.39</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female</td>
<td>299</td>
<td>57.61</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Age</strong></td>
<td></td>
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</tbody>
</table>
The following hypotheses were set:

H1:  It is assumed that there is a statistically significant difference in the degree of adolescents’ smartphone addiction by gender in favour of women.

H2:  It is assumed that there is a statistically significant difference in the degree of adolescents’ smartphone addiction by age at which they got their first smartphones in favour of those who got smartphones at a younger age.

H3:  It is assumed that there is a statistically significant difference in the degree of adolescents’ smartphone addiction by type of school attended in favour of secondary school students.

To identify statistically significant differences and relationships between variables, non-parametric tests were used - the Mann-Whitney U-test, Kruskal-Wallis test, Friedman test and Spearman’s correlation coefficient, since the variable did not show normal distribution of the data set and each sub-set, which was verified by the Kolmogorov-Smirnov test (p ≤ 0.05). To determine the practical significance of differences, eta squared was used (η2). Of the descriptive statistics, the arithmetic mean (AM), standard deviation (SD), median (Me), minimum (Min) and maximum (Max) value of measurement were used. The data were analyzed using the program SPSS 20.0.

Results of research

It is evident from T2 that there is a statistically significant difference (0.000 ≤ 0.05) in the degree of smartphone addiction by gender. Female respondents
reached higher scores (AM = 2.95; Me = 2.90) than male respondents (AM = 2.68; Me = 2.70) in the smartphone addiction scale. However, only a small effect of the differences in the resulting values was noted.

### T2 Degree of smartphone addiction by independent variables

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Gender</th>
<th>Smartphone addiction</th>
<th>Mann-Whitney U test</th>
<th>p-value</th>
<th>η²</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Male</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>N 220</td>
<td>AM 2.68</td>
<td>SD 0.83</td>
<td>Me 2.70</td>
<td>Min 1.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>N 299</td>
<td>AM 2.95</td>
<td>SD 0.87</td>
<td>Me 2.90</td>
<td>Min 1.00</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Range of years</th>
<th>Smartphone addiction</th>
<th>Mann-Whitney U test</th>
<th>p-value</th>
<th>η²</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>6–10</td>
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<td></td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>N 270</td>
<td>AM 2.94</td>
<td>SD 0.86</td>
<td>Me 2.95</td>
<td>Min 1.10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11–15</td>
<td></td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>N 249</td>
<td>AM 2.72</td>
<td>SD 0.86</td>
<td>Me 2.70</td>
<td>Min 1.00</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Type of school</th>
<th>Smartphone addiction</th>
<th>Kruskal-Wallis test</th>
<th>p-value</th>
<th>η²</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>GS + C</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>N 87</td>
<td>AM 2.92</td>
<td>SD 0.73</td>
<td>Me 3.00</td>
<td>Min 1.10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SS</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>N 157</td>
<td>AM 2.91</td>
<td>SD 0.90</td>
<td>Me 2.90</td>
<td>Min 1.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>University</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>N 275</td>
<td>AM 2.76</td>
<td>SD 0.88</td>
<td>Me 2.80</td>
<td>Min 1.00</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Legend for values: 1 – I strongly disagree, 2 – I disagree, 3 – I weakly disagree, 4 – I weakly agree, 5 – I agree, 6 – I strongly agree

Legend for abbreviations: GS + C – eight-year grammar school and conservatory, SS – secondary school (secondary vocational schools and grammar schools)

T2 also shows that there is a statistically significant difference (0.003 ≤ 0.05) in the degree of smartphone addiction by age at which adolescents got their first smartphones. Respondents who got smartphones at a younger age had higher scores (AM=2.94; Me=2.95) in the smartphone addiction scale in comparison with respondents who got smartphones at an older age (AM=2.72; Me=2.70). Similarly as above, a small effect was noted of the differences in the resulting values.

On the basis of the data presented in T2, it can also be stated that there is no statistically significant difference in the degree of smartphone addiction by type of school attended by adolescents. Considering different types of schools, respondents scored similarly in the smartphone addiction scale.
Discussion

The aim of our study was to identify the degree of addiction to a smart mobile phone in adolescents. It is a type of addiction, which, as indicated by researches, has an impact on the physical and mental health of adolescents (students).

Mescolloto et al. (2019) found a high prevalence of smartphone addiction among students in Brazil. Participants of their survey spent almost 5 hours a day on the smartphones, which is 21% of the day. A study by Fallahtafti et al. (2020), of a sample of 398 adolescents aged 12 to 18 years, brought an interesting finding demonstrating a strong positive correlation between the smartphone addiction and Internet addiction. Thomée (2012), in a study with 1127 people aged 19 to 25 years, reported that intensive ICT use could have an impact on the mental health in young adults. A frequent use of mobile phones was a potential risk factor of sleep disorders in men and depression in both genders. Unlimited connection to the Internet via mobile phone may be a problem also in respect of potential socio-pathological behaviours such as cyberbullying and various forms of aggressive behaviour. In their study, Çankaya et al. (2011) were dealing with the influence of distrust among university students, considering also the Internet addiction. Their survey showed that when cyberbullying was mediated by the Internet addiction, its impact on distrust levels was more significant. The correlation between the Internet addiction and aggressive behaviours was presented also in a study by Borowska (2009) who found no direct relationship between the degree of Internet addiction and aggressive behaviour in secondary school students (in difference to younger pupils).

What the smartphone addiction is conditioned by remains a question. It is apparent that at present, when we are forced to deal with many things online via the Internet, using smartphones cannot be avoided. When confronted with a problem, frequently, more effective communication via mobile applications is used.

The research showed that young adults who reported more time on smartphones chatting or taking photos/videos, had higher scores in the smartphone addiction scale. Although the positive correlations were not high ($r_s = 0.377$, $r_s = 0.253$), they were more noticeable in comparison with correlations between frequencies of other activities performed on smartphones (making calls, sending SMS and MMS, listening to music, etc.) and the smartphone addiction (no or trivial positive correlations were observed in the latter cases).

The research showed a statistically significant difference in respondents’ scores in the frequency of selected smartphone activities ($p = 0.000$; Friedman test $= 1752.459$). Most frequently, adolescents used smartphones for chatting and
making calls (AM=4.71; Me=5.00; AM=3.59; Me=4.00). In their survey made at a medical university, Ammati et al. (2018) revealed that up to 46% of students used smartphones 4 to 6 hours a day with social networking the centre of their attention.

The frequency of such activities explains also confirmation of our first two hypotheses. Female respondents scored statistically significantly higher in the items reading books (p = 0.006; Mann-Whitney U test = 28752.500; AM = 1.83/1.53; Me = 1.00/1.00) and taking photos/videos (p = 0.004; Mann-Whitney U test = 28276.000; AM = 3.16/2.87; Me = 3.00/3.00) by means of smartphone. While male respondents scored statistically significantly higher in the items listening to music (p = 0.003; Mann-Whitney U test = 28068.000; AM = 3.69/3.33; Me = 4.00/4.00) and playing games (p = 0.000; Mann-Whitney U test = 23915.000; AM = 2.74/2.05; Me=2.32/2.00) on the smartphone. The mean values given for the respective activities were based on the scale never, once a week, several times a day, once an hour, several times an hour.

In the end, considering the total mean score achieved by respondents for the whole research tool (AM = 2.83; Me = 2.80) it would not be objective to speak about a smartphone addiction. It would be more appropriate to refer only to a risk of smartphone addiction (the total mean score fits the scale alternative 3, which means I weakly disagree).

The smartphone addiction risk can be reduced also by involvement of school limiting the use of smartphones to education needs. It can be inspired by the Decree No. 320/2008 Coll. of the Ministry of Education, Science, Research and Sport of the Slovak Republic on elementary schools (§20, section 7), according to which a pupil is not allowed to use a mobile phone during classes. Schools can apply this limitation in various ways, implementing it by means of school rules. Pupils and students observe the school ban either strictly during their whole stay at school, or partially, when allowed mobiles during breaks and dinners, or, as the case may be, when allowed by the teacher e. g. when the mobile phone is used as a didactic aid (this could relate also to teaching at universities).

Since smartphones are a part of young people’s everyday lives, school preventive and educational activities should be strengthened by professional staff (e. g. social pedagogue) who would help teachers to tackle problems associated with the overuse of smartphones by secondary school students (informing about risks and potential limitation of the use of smart mobile phones at school).

Our research has, of course, limitations. It would be useful to investigate also other specifics of the target group, such as peer relationships, with the scale. Another limitation is that the research took place only in one Slovak region.
The research results present a certain basis for drawing up measures relating to risks of the mobile phone use, they are a precondition for proposals of activities preventing and eliminating risks associated with the mobile phone addiction, and they open up possibilities for managing factors influencing the emergence of students’ risk behaviour. Our research indicates the need for increased prevention of online risk behaviour in the school setting, and its results will serve as theoretical starting points of the project VEGA No. 1/0396/20 “Influence of electronic media on the behaviour and development of cross-cutting capabilities in the Z generation”.

References


Abstract

Family relationships and parents’ behavior towards their children are factors that significantly influence the development of a child’s personality and their behavior modeling. Parenting styles are often seen as having an impact on their child's social functioning. Having this in mind, this paper presents the results of research on key aspects of the influence that parenting styles have on the development of social competences and anti-social behavior in children. Standardized instruments (SSBS-2 and VS scale) were used in the research, and the sample included a total number of 705 students and 44 head-class teachers. The research was conducted in primary schools on the territory of Kosovo and Metohija (Serbia). The results obtained indicated a correlation between parenting styles and students’ social competences and anti-social behavior, with a mother’s detached attitude standing out as a negative predictor of children’s social functioning.

Key words: family, parenting styles, social competences, anti-social behaviors

1 The paper is the result of the research conducted within the research project III 47023, Косово и Метохија између националног идентитета и европе интеграција (Kosovo and Metohija between national identity and eurointegration) funded by the Ministry of Education, Science and Technological Development of the Republic of Serbia.

2 In Serbian primary/secondary education, there is a teacher-in-charge-of-the-class, dealing with the general administrative tasks related to it – student’s discipline, absences, medical certificates, statistics, and various organizational matters – raising money, trips, visits, etc.
**Introduction**

Family, as the basic social environment in which a personality is developed and formed, represents an important factor in the development of any individual or society on the whole. It is the most important context in the provision of child rearing models under which the social development of children and young people are carried out. Family and acquired behavior patterns within it are directly connected to a child’s behavior because the child largely adopts the behavior it sees in their family. It is for these reasons that we developed our interest in studying the connection between parenting styles and social competences and anti-social behaviors in children.

In literature dealing with this issue, there are many claims supporting the fact that the family environment, parent-child interaction at home and parental actions influence the child’s behavior in and beyond another important environment – school. Hence, we were determined to examine the issue of the relationship between parenting styles and social competencies and anti-social behaviors in children within these two systems. For these reasons, we set the research itself in a school framework, trying to obtain the empirical indicators for this relationship.

**Parenting styles, social competences and anti-social behaviors of children**

*Parenting styles.* Parental behavior and actions have a direct impact on the child, their needs, and the development of their specific attitudes and characteristics. Parental conduct is complex and provides no uniform answers to the question of how to behave toward children of different age groups and in different situations. It is in the selection of child-rearing techniques and the behavior of parents towards children that their parenting style is. Parenting style is defined „as a constellation of parents’ attitudes and behaviors toward children and an emotional climate in which the parents’ behaviors are expressed“ (Darling & Steinberg, 1993: 493). The emotional factor (love, hate, coldness, tenderness) is considered to be the most important component of parenting style.

More significant interest in research into parenting styles emerged in the 1930s in the USA through the works of E.S. Schaefer, and later Diane Baumrind (Schaefer, 1959; Baumrind, 1966). Relying on Schaefer’s model, Baumrind defined three basic types of parent-child relationships: authoritarian, authoritative, and
permissive. Maccoby and Martin (1983, according to Darling & Steinberg, 1993) singled out another cold-indulgent (indifferent) type of parenting.

The Authoritarian parenting style is also referred to as cold-limiting, due to the pronounced dimension of control and the parents’ cold/detached upbringing. For Baumrind (1966), authoritarian parenting style refers to the actions of parents who have high expectations and demands for their children. An authoritarian style of parenting is reflected in the parents’ demanding and restrictive behavior who highly value discipline and conformation, and do not show much love and warmth. Authoritarian parents are cold and strict, they constrain initiative, spontaneity and freedom of opinion; they are uncompromising, set high demands and expect the child to blindly adhere to set rules, very often with the use of force. The consequence of authoritarian parenting styles is a low degree of pro-social, and a high degree of aggressive and anti-social behavior (Deković & Janssens, 1992).

The authoritative, or warm-restrictive parenting style, is typical of parents who encourage verbal communication and child’s initiative. This style is characterized by a relatively high, but still reasonable, level of control, which is adjusted according to the child’s age. Authoritative parenting style represents the midpoint between authoritarian and permissive parenting style and involves restrictive and responsible parental behavior, but with a higher degree of understanding. Children who come from authoritative (warm-restrictive) families are curious, confident, independent and academically successful. The research, conducted by Grolnick & Ryan (1989), revealed that children of authoritative parents showed greater social competence. These children had better self-control and fewer adjustment problems at school than children of parents who were rated as very controlling (authoritarian).

The permissive or warm-lenient style of parenting is typical of parents who behave with impunity, acceptance and affirmation to the impulses, desires and actions of their children. The permissive parenting style is described as non-restrictive, warm and accepting, but does not involve setting clear boundaries in parenting. This style is characterized by low levels of control followed by acquiescence to the demands of the child. Research shows that adolescents of permissive parents do not adhere to rules and boundaries, which they do not take seriously, and consequently find it difficult to establish self-control and have a tendency towards egocentric behavior (Kopko, 2007).

The indifferent parenting style or cold-lenient type of parenting is typical of parents who are emotionally and physically detached from their children, and who show a low level of care and support for their children. The indifferent parenting style is reflected in setting few restrictions, but also in providing scant attention,
engagement, and emotional support. This style is most often associated with the least desirable developmental outcomes in children because it does not encourage their adequate social development (Steinberg, 2001). Children of indifferent parents do not participate adequately in social interactions, are prone to aggressive behavior towards others, and are socially distanced. Since they spend a lot of time without supervision and parental control, adolescents who show various forms of socially unacceptable behavior tend to be the product of this kind of parenting style.

Social competence and anti-social behaviors of children. There are numerous definitions of social competence; however, what they all have in common is that the possession of social competences implies the efficient and effective functioning of an individual in social situations. Social competences represent a set of built-up abilities and skills in achieving one’s personal goals and social interactions, simultaneously maintaining positive relationships with others over time and in different situations (Petrović, 2008). As socially competent behaviors in school environment, for the purposes of this paper, the quality of interpersonal relationships, self-management (i.e. control of one’s own behavior) and academic skills were taken into account. The frequent manifestation of these skills indicates good social adjustment to the school environment in adolescence.

Anti-social behavior is defined as behavior that hinders adequate socialization, that is destructive and harmful, and that produces negative social outcomes (Walker, Colvin & Ramsey, 1995). As anti-social behaviors in the school period, the manifestation of externalized forms of behavior (e.g. disobedience, impulsivity, hostility, irritability, insolence, aggression) was studied. These behaviors can be manifested in the form of interfering with the work of teachers and other students, open expression of aggression (physical and verbal), hostile attitudes and disrespect towards others, disrespect for other people’s possessions, school inventory, etc.

Method

The aim of the study was to investigate the relationship between parenting styles and social competences and anti-social behavior of the students. The set goal was realized through an assessment of students’ social competences and anti-social behaviors by the head-class teachers and the assessment of parenting styles (mother and father respectively) by the students.

The School of Social Behavior Scales (SSBS-2) was used in the research (The School Social Behavior Scales, Second Edition, Merrell, 2002). It consists of 64
items, divided into two subscales and six empirically derived factors (Social Competence Subscale: Peer Relationships, Self-Behavior Management, Academic Behavior; Anti-social Behavior Subscale: Hostile/Irritable Behavior, Anti-social/Aggressive Behavior). The Scale of Educational Attitudes (VS scale) was also used in the research. It is intended to examine children’s perception of parental styles (Genc & Kodžopelj, 1995). Constructed according to Schaefer’s two-dimensional model of child rearing that reduces this complex phenomenon to two dimensions: affective and control, this scale measures four poles of these dimensions: warm, cold, limiting and lenient attitude.

The research was carried out in fifteen schools on the territory of Kosovo and Metohija (Serbia), and included students from the final grades of primary school (seventh and eighth grade students) as well as their head-class teachers. The total sample consisted of 705 students and 44 head-class teachers.

Data collection was performed using a scaling technique. The SPSS program was used for data processing, namely the following statistical measures and procedures: Pearson’s linear correlation coefficient and regression analysis.

**Research results**

The relationship between parenting styles and the students’ social competences was investigated using the Pearson linear correlation coefficient.

**Table 1. Correlations between parents’ attitudes and students’ social competences**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variables</th>
<th>Peer relationships</th>
<th>Self-behavior management</th>
<th>Academic behavior</th>
<th>Social competences – Scale A</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Father – warm attitude</td>
<td>Pearson Corr. 0.129**</td>
<td>0.114**</td>
<td>0.126**</td>
<td>0.131**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Sig. (2-tailed) 0.001</td>
<td>0.003</td>
<td>0.001</td>
<td>0.001</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mother – warm attitude</td>
<td>Pearson Corr. 0.152**</td>
<td>0.124**</td>
<td>0.153**</td>
<td>0.153**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Sig. (2-tailed) 0.000</td>
<td>0.001</td>
<td>0.000</td>
<td>0.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Father – cold attitude</td>
<td>Pearson Corr. -0.219**</td>
<td>-0.216**</td>
<td>-0.270**</td>
<td>-0.243**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Sig. (2-tailed) 0.000</td>
<td>0.000</td>
<td>0.000</td>
<td>0.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mother – cold attitude</td>
<td>Pearson Corr. -0.237**</td>
<td>-0.235**</td>
<td>-0.285**</td>
<td>-0.262**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Sig. (2-tailed) 0.000</td>
<td>0.000</td>
<td>0.000</td>
<td>0.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Father – lenient attitude</td>
<td>Pearson Corr. 0.134**</td>
<td>0.141**</td>
<td>0.130**</td>
<td>0.142**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Sig. (2-tailed) 0.000</td>
<td>0.000</td>
<td>0.001</td>
<td>0.000</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The Correlation Between Parenting Styles and Childrens' Social Competences

Variables | Peer relationships | Self-behavior management | Academic behavior | Social competences. – Scale A
---|---|---|---|---
Mother – lenient attitude | Pearson Corr. | .120** | .124** | .134** | .131**
| Sig. (2-tailed) | .001 | .001 | .000 | .000
Father – limiting attitude | Pearson Corr. | -.139** | -.137** | -.184** | -.157**
| Sig. (2-tailed) | .000 | .000 | .000 | .000
Mother – limiting attitude | Pearson Corr. | -.130** | -.136** | -.165** | -.148**
| Sig. (2-tailed) | .001 | .000 | .000 | .000

*p < .05, **p < .01.

The results indicate a connection between parenting styles and all examined forms of students’ social competences (Table 1). The results are very similar for mothers and fathers and show that a warm and lenient upbringing is associated with a higher level of social competence. On the other hand, a cold and restrictive parenting style is associated with a lower level of social competence of children in all factors (peer relationships, self-behavior management and academic behavior).

In order to examine the relationship between predictor and dependent variables more accurately, four standard multiple regression analyzes were performed (Tables 2 and 3).

Table 2. Standard regression analysis for dependent variables Peer relationships and Self-behavior management

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Predictors</th>
<th>Peer relationships</th>
<th>Self-behavior management</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Parental styles</td>
<td>R²</td>
<td>F</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1. Father – warm attitude</td>
<td>.065</td>
<td>5.848***</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Mother – warm attitude</td>
<td>.076</td>
<td>.011</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Father – cold attitude</td>
<td>-.017</td>
<td>-.044</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Mother – cold attitude</td>
<td>-.180*</td>
<td>-.164</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. Father – lenient attitude</td>
<td>.090</td>
<td>.111</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. Mother – lenient attitude</td>
<td>.009</td>
<td>.003</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. Father – limiting attitude</td>
<td>-.061</td>
<td>-.041</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8. Mother – limiting attitude</td>
<td>.025</td>
<td>.008</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*p < .05, **p < .01, ***p < .001.
Table 3. Standard regression analysis for dependent variables Academic behavior and Social competence (scale A)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Predictors</th>
<th>Academic behavior</th>
<th>Scale A</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>$R^2$</td>
<td>$F$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Parental styles</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1. Father – warm attitude</td>
<td>.091</td>
<td>8.419***</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Mother – warm attitude</td>
<td>.026</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Father – cold attitude</td>
<td>-.063</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Mother – cold attitude</td>
<td>-.194*</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. Father – lenient attitude</td>
<td>.028</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. Mother – lenient attitude</td>
<td>.059</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. Father – limiting attitude</td>
<td>.107</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8. Mother – limiting attitude</td>
<td>.057</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*p < .05, **p < .01, ***p < .001.

In the first regression analysis, parenting styles explained 6.5% of the variance in Peer Relationships. In the model, the greatest unique contribution (and only statistically significant) is given by the cold attitude of the mother ($\beta = -, 180$, $p < .05$).

In the second regression analysis, parenting styles explained 6.3% of the variance of Self-Behavior Management. In the model, the greatest unique contribution is given by the cold attitude of the mother ($\beta = -, 164$, $p < .05$).

In the third regression analysis, parental parenting styles explained 9.1% of Academic behavior variance. In the model, the greatest unique contribution (and only statistically significant) is given by the cold attitude of the mother ($\beta = -, 194$, $p < .05$).

In the fourth regression analysis, educational style parents explained 7.7% of the variance of Social Competences (total score of all social competences). In the model, the greatest unique contribution (and only statistically significant) is given by the cold attitude of the mother ($\beta = -, 188$, $p < .05$).

The relationship between parenting styles and anti-social behavior of students was investigated using the Pearson linear correlation coefficient.
Table 4. Correlations between parenting styles and students’ anti-social behavior

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variables</th>
<th>Hostile / irritable behavior</th>
<th>Anti-social / aggressive behavior</th>
<th>Insolent / disruptive behavior</th>
<th>Anti-social behavior – Scale B</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Father – warm attitude</td>
<td>Pearson Corr. -.065</td>
<td>-.083*</td>
<td>-.082*</td>
<td>-.078*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Sig. (2-tailed) .088</td>
<td>.030</td>
<td>.032</td>
<td>.042</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mother – warm attitude</td>
<td>Pearson Corr. -.071</td>
<td>-.096*</td>
<td>-.097*</td>
<td>-.088*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Sig. (2-tailed) .059</td>
<td>.011</td>
<td>.010</td>
<td>.019</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Father – cold attitude</td>
<td>Pearson Corr. .085*</td>
<td>.130**</td>
<td>.118**</td>
<td>.111**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Sig. (2-tailed) .026</td>
<td>.001</td>
<td>.002</td>
<td>.004</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mother – cold attitude</td>
<td>Pearson Corr. .134**</td>
<td>.188**</td>
<td>.181**</td>
<td>.168**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Sig. (2-tailed) .000</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Father – lenient attitude</td>
<td>Pearson Corr. -.126**</td>
<td>-.148**</td>
<td>-.158**</td>
<td>-.146**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Sig. (2-tailed) .001</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mother – lenient attitude</td>
<td>Pearson Corr. -.103**</td>
<td>-.132**</td>
<td>-.125**</td>
<td>-.121**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Sig. (2-tailed) .006</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>.001</td>
<td>.001</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Sig. (2-tailed) .219</td>
<td>.004</td>
<td>.087</td>
<td>.055</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mother – limiting attitude</td>
<td>Pearson Corr. .070</td>
<td>.119**</td>
<td>.085*</td>
<td>.092*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Sig. (2-tailed) .065</td>
<td>.002</td>
<td>.025</td>
<td>.015</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Based on the correlation analysis, it is apparent that the parenting styles of the father and mother are notably associated with aggressive behavior in their children (Table 4). The perceived behaviors of fathers and mothers show a similar pattern of association with the measure of children’s anti-social behavior: greater maternal and paternal warmth and lenience are associated with lower levels of anti-social behavior, whereas higher levels of cold and limiting maternal and paternal behavior are associated with higher levels of anti-social behavior in children. The cold attitude of the mother is mostly related to the presence of anti-social behavior.

In order to more precisely examine the relationship between predictor and dependent variables, four standard multiple regression analyzes were performed (Tables 5 and 6).
Table 5. Standard regression analysis for dependent variables Hostile/irritable behavior and Anti-social/aggressive behavior

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Predictors</th>
<th>Hostile/irritable behavior</th>
<th>Anti-social/aggressive behavior</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>R²</td>
<td>F</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Parental styles</td>
<td>.030</td>
<td>2.587**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1. Father – warm attitude</td>
<td>-.039</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Mother – warm attitude</td>
<td>-.017</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Father – cold attitude</td>
<td>.106</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Mother – cold attitude</td>
<td>.203*</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. Father – lenient attitude</td>
<td>-.128</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. Mother – lenient attitude</td>
<td>-.005</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. Father – limiting attitude</td>
<td>.069</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8. Mother – limiting attitude</td>
<td>.072</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 6. Standard regression analysis for dependent variables insolent/disruptive behavior and anti-social behavior – Scale B

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Predictors</th>
<th>Hostile/irritable behavior</th>
<th>Scale B</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>R²</td>
<td>F</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Parental styles</td>
<td>.052</td>
<td>4.601***</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1. Father – warm attitude</td>
<td>-.075</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Mother – warm attitude</td>
<td>-.003</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Father – cold attitude</td>
<td>.172</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Mother – cold attitude</td>
<td>.312**</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. Father – lenient attitude</td>
<td>-.195</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. Mother – lenient attitude</td>
<td>-.034</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. Father – limiting attitude</td>
<td>.023</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8. Mother – limiting attitude</td>
<td>.019</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
In the first regression analysis, parenting styles explained 3% of the variance in the hostile/irritable behavior. In the model, the greatest unique contribution (and only statistically significant one) is given by the mother’s cold attitude ($\beta = .203$, $p < .05$).

In the second regression analysis, parenting educators explained 6.1% of the anti-social/aggressive behavior variance. In the model, the greatest unique contribution (and only statistically significant one) is given by the mother’s cold attitude ($\beta = .293$, $p < .01$).

In the third regression analysis, parenting styles explained 5.2% of the variance of Insolent/ disruptive behavior. In the model, the greatest unique contribution (and only statistically significant) is given by the cold attitude of the mother ($\beta = .312$, $p < .01$).

In the fourth regression analysis, parenting styles explained 4.3% of the variance of Anti-social behavior (total score of all forms of anti-social behavior). In the model, the greatest unique contribution (and only statistically significant) is given by the cold attitude of the mother ($\beta = .266$, $p < .01$).

**Discussion and Conclusions**

Summarizing the results of the research, it was shown that the warm-lenient parenting style can be associated with the most desirable developmental outcomes in children: a high level of competence, self-confidence, independence, higher academic achievement, adequate self-control and responsible behavior. The established relations are expected, because various research continuously explain the importance of parental warmth as a predictor of children’s social behavior. Previous research have confirmed that parental lenience and warmth are positively correlated with social competences in children, while a cold and limiting attitude lead to the development of inadequate social competences (Maccoby & Martin, 1983, according to Darling & Steinberg, 1993; Grolnick & Ryan, 1989; Hart et al., 2003). In addition, the regression analysis conducted in this study clearly indicates a very pronounced negative predictability of a mother’s cold attitude towards lower levels of social competence of the students in all examined factors. The results show that the mother is a central figure to children, implying that love, warmth, understanding and support are expected in the relationship with the mother. In families where there are no such parent-child relationships, there is a high probability for children not to develop desirable social skills and com-
petences, potentially conditioning the development of unwanted behaviors, both manifest and experiential.

In terms of correlation between parenting styles and anti-social behavior of the students, the negative prediction of cold and limiting behavior of mothers and fathers in relation to anti-social behavior of students is consistent with some previous research (Deković & Janssens, 1992; Chao, 2001; Rigby, 2013). Patterson et al. (1989) state that parental behavior and family processes explain 30–40% of the variance in aggressive and anti-social behavior. In our research that percentage is smaller, but it is very important to point out that in all four regression analyses, the cold attitude of the mother stands out as a pronounced predictor of anti-social behavior of students in all observed factors. Thus, the negative pole of the affective dimension of the mother, that is, the cold and distant behavior of the mother, results in anti-social behavior in children.

Cross-cultural research provide a solid basis for concluding that children and young people who have experienced a rejecting (cold) relationship with their parents – regardless of differences in culture, ethnicity, language, gender or race – exhibit specific forms of poor psychological adaptation that include problems with control of hostility, aggression and passive-aggression, an impaired sense of competence, emotional instability and a negative worldview (Rohner, 2004). Also, it is significant to mention that the role of the mother in Serbian patriarchal culture is usually associated with warmth, gentleness and love shown towards children. A disruption in this relationship leads to distance and division between mother and child and causes emotional coldness in the mother’s actions. This can be frustrating and discouraging for children, something which in turn encourages the manifestation of anti-social tendencies in their children’s behavior. The results obtained in the research also support the view that, in general, those children who do not have an adequate emotional connection with their mother, whose mothers are emotionally cold and rejecting, have a higher risk of becoming violent.

Summarizing research results, it could be concluded that parental upbringing in measures in the forms of punishment, coercion, and emotional rejection and cold, indifferent behavior, particularly mothers, can serve children as an inadequate model that they might imitate and implement in their behavior. Therefore, as long as parents use “reasonable authority” or “authoritative control”, showing love and interest, warmth and understanding, children will have more pronounced social competence and fewer problems in behavior and communication in all living environments.
The Correlation Between Parenting Styles and Childrens’ Social Competences

References


Abstract
This study aims to provide insights on how and why a specialised training programme could help graduates with low performance to compete fairly in the job market. This study used an action research design, where a total of 12 graduates with low academic achievement were trained under a specialised training programme consisting of two phases within the period of ten months. Despite having low academic achievements in terms of Cumulative Grade Point Average (CGPA), the employability opportunities of those graduates were high as they were equipped with the highly sought after GST knowledge and certification and various important soft skills such as time management, communication, analytical skills and leadership. This study demonstrated that engaging graduates in a specially designed program that aimed to enhance their technical knowledge and soft skills coupled with some work experience is indeed a value added strategy to enhance graduates employability. This is particularly applicable to those who are low achievers as it provides them with some kind of competitive advantages. The findings suggest that despite having low CGPA, their employability opportunities, particularly in the accounting and commercial industries, were relatively high. This study provides some guidance to policymakers and educators on how universities and industries may collaborate to mitigate unemployment issues among the accounting graduates.

Key words: Graduate, Employability, Training, Technical Knowledge, Soft Skills, Tax
Graduate Employability Among Low Academic Achievers

**Background of the Study**

The imbalance between the increasing number of graduates and sluggish labour market forced a lot of graduates to accept job offerings that are less commensurate with their qualifications (Yoong et al., 2016). Additionally, poor overall qualities and lack of employability skills are also notable issues of graduate unemployment (Rahmat et al., 2016). To control this situation, many governments have taken up some initiatives to revise the university curriculum and to promote additional soft skill programmes such as team building, analytical skills and English language. Despite all these efforts, the level of unemployment among graduates remained high (UNESCO, 2012). As of 2017, in Malaysia, the unemployment rate among youths aged 15 to 24, was 10.8%, three times higher compared to the country’s unemployment rate of 3.4% (The Star, 2018).

Evidently graduates are struggling to be employed due to stiff competition in the job market (Nooriah, Zakiah & Norain, 2013). According to Tomlinson (2008), academic achievement is still seen as one of the crucial criteria for employment. This leads to an employment crisis among low achieving graduates as they have to compete with high achievers ones. Nonetheless, Ismail (2011) found that high Cumulative Grade Points Average (CGPA) did not necessarily help graduates to secure jobs. In the perspective of employers, they might not solely look at academic achievement as a significant employment factor (Aida, Norailis, & Rozaini, 2015), thus, equipping graduates with additional skills may bring extra merit.

In terms of soft skills, graduates are well-informed of the employers’ expectations on communication, analytical, professional and teamwork skills (Kavanagh & Drennan, 2008). Previous studies indeed suggested that graduates should focus on on-going development of personal competencies, professional attitude, self-motivation and leadership, the ability to work in a team, language proficiency and employment-readiness as it would improve their employability (Atfield & Purcell, 2010; Kavanagh & Drennan, 2008; McMurray et al., 2011; Shafie & Nayan, 2010).

**Graduate Employability**

In the labour market, supply and demand can be influenced by various economic factors and specific rules set by industries. Hence, graduates need to be flexible in meeting the demand of the industries (Wickramasinghe & Perera, 2010). Employability refers to the party seeking a job and the other party offering the job. The literature also identified that employability comprises three main
elements namely: a) the ability to gain initial employment; b) the ability to maintain employment and make transitions between jobs and roles within the same organisation and; c) the ability to meet new transitions between organisations (Hillage & Pollard, 1999 in Wickramasinghe & Perera, 2010). Certain transferable skills were seen as essential for an individual to move from one job role to another (Wickramasinghe & Perera, 2010).

There is a significant amount of literature focusing on graduate employability and demand for the labour market (Yoong et al., 2016). The demand for labour depends to a great extent on social, economic and political changes in a society. In addition, most employers prefer graduates with soft skills rather than academic credentials alone (Aida et al., 2015; Ismail, 2011). Communication, leadership and critical thinking skills are among the soft skills that graduates should possess to competitively seek their desired careers (Atfield & Purcell, 2010; Kavanagh & Drennan, 2008; McMurray et al., 2011).

According to the report by UNESCO (2012), development of soft skills should not be limited within the areas of communication, analytical and leadership only. Other attributes such as integrity, adaptability, innovative, creativity, and team spirit are additional skills that are expected of the graduates.

Similar to other ASEAN countries, Malaysia also experiences high graduate unemployment rates. Che Omar and Rajoo (2016) identified several factors that contribute to the higher level of unemployment rate among the graduates, which include lack of industrial training and adverse personal attitudes. This situation raises the question as to whether or not the university’s curriculum is appropriately designed in accordance with the job market demands. Indeed, the university’s curriculum plays a crucial role in enhancing employability.

**Specialised Training, Technical and Soft Skills**

Seetha (2014) examined the ways employers selected new employees to join their workforce. The finding indicated that employers emphasised soft skills. Moreover, employers often expect the graduates to have a good command of English, be communicative, show positive attitude, and possess leadership skills. Graduates with outstanding academic credentials and relevant competencies would have a greater opportunity to be employed (Jayasingam, Fujiwara & Thurasamy, 2016).

On-the-job training and specialised training are among the programmes that add value to the graduates in preparing them for the job market. According to
Abdul Hamid et al. (2013), on-the-job training equips graduates with the latest skills demanded by the industries. During the on-the-job training, graduates could learn how to apply all the theories that they have learnt at the university to the actual tasks in the real world. This will therefore further enhance students’ understanding of what was learned before, and hence increase their competency and confidence level to enter the actual work environment.

The stiff competition in the job market, high expectations from industries on graduates’ academic performance, technical and soft skills, lead to an employment crisis among low-achiever graduates. Therefore, this study is conducted to provide some insights into the outcome and impact of offering a specialised programme to low-achiever graduates.

**Research Objectives**

This study aims to explain how and why a specialised programme will benefit graduates with low academic achievement in enhancing their technical knowledge, soft-skills and self-esteem. Further, this study also intends to examine how and why a specialised programme provides some directions of the graduates’ career paths.

**Research Methodology**

This research employed an interview technique to collect narrative data from graduates who had participated in a specialised training programme. The interview was conducted almost two years after the end of the programme to observe the outcome and impact of the programme towards the employability of the graduates. Twelve graduates with ‘low’ CGPA, specifically below 3.0, were selected. The main reason for the selection of this group of graduates was to assess whether providing a specialised training programme could enhance their employability or not, despite having low CGPAs.

The specialised training programme was conducted in two phases. Phase 1 was a two-week workshop on Goods and Services Tax (GST) (which was newly implemented in Malaysia at that time) and employability skills. The workshop on employability skills covered topics that could improve self-management and enhance personal soft skills of the graduates, which include self-attitude, motivation, adaptability, time management, teamwork, leadership, stress management,
problem solving, report writing and communication. Phase 2 was a six-month work attachment at several participating accounting firms. In addition, during the Phase 2 of the programme, the graduates had also attended a six-day GST training course and examination organised by the Royal Malaysian Customs. Upon passing the examination, they can apply to be a licensed tax agent.

Findings and Discussion

All participants in the GST specialised training programme were employed at the time of the interview. Findings from the interviews with the participants are discussed below.

Low Academic (CGPA) Achievements

Results showed that the three main reasons for low achievements resulted from personal attributes, failure in non-accounting courses and environment. One participant referred to ‘personal reason’ as his aversion towards an accounting programme. Despite the participant’s interest in law, his parents wanted him to pursue accountancy. He then ended up enrolling in the accounting programme half-heartedly and consequently failed to perform. He emphasised that his low achievement was not because of the education system, but mainly due to his lack of passion in accounting.

It was also acknowledged that low CGPA results could also be attributable to students' poor performance in other non-accounting (general) subjects, namely economics, languages, and Islamic studies. Additionally, students’ attitude, studies and performance might also be influenced by other factors including selection of friends, lifestyles and the university’s environment overall. It is deemed vital for students to choose friends appropriately that could bring about some positive vibes as well as inspirations to succeed. Perhaps, having friends from a similar course and background helps students to perform better.

Low Academic Achievement (CGPA) and Employability

Overall, the participants believed that examination results (CGPA) had a low or no relationship with employment opportunities. The findings suggested that high
CGPA did not guarantee job performance. One participant shared his experience as follows:

“…Even though the job advertisement stated that a minimum CGPA 3.0 was required, I still applied for the post. I got through the interview because the potential employer was comfortable with (my) one-year (working) experience...he [the employer] said that you were better than the fresh grad who had 4.0 flat…”

An opportunity to attend an employment interview often allows graduates to demonstrate and sell the talents and skills they possess. Personal appearance, communication skill (e.g. English language), IT skills and self-esteem are often deemed to be critical factors considered by potential employers besides the CGPA.

According to the participants, low achieving graduates could indeed further improve themselves in the workforce. Nonetheless, CGPA was still relevant, especially if they wanted to work in government agencies, big accounting firms or government-linked companies (GLC) that required a minimum CGPA of 3.0.

Having professional accounting certificate or any other certificates may also provide additional value to graduates in securing better career opportunities. During the specialised training programme, all students were required to sit for a GST examination conducted by the Royal Malaysian Customs. In spite of having a low CGPA (i.e. below 3.0), ten participants (83%) passed the GST examination. Passing the examination enabled the graduates to obtain a GST certificate, coupled with the degree qualifications, would further add value to the graduates’ credentials and hence, enhance employability.

One participant expressed his gratitude that he had gained much knowledge from the GST course despite failing his examination. Another participant mentioned that her failure in the GST examination was mainly due to the timing of the examination coinciding with the peak period for GST filing. This left her with a rather little time to prepare for the examination. She recalled:

“…I remembered it was October when I was busy with my first GST (filing) submission. I needed time to adapt to the compliance requirements. There were only 2–3 staff assigned to the GST. The GST training was for two weekends, and the examination was at the end of the month. To balance between the job and exam (at that time) was difficult. That was why I failed (the GST exam)…”

Furthermore, the working experience gained through the arrangement embedded in the specialised programme would also add value and help those low
achievers to climb up the ladder to achieve better career opportunities. As stated by one participant, “that programme is useful for working”.

**University Education and Employability**

Participants shared their opinions on the relevance of university education in their daily job scope. Generally, participants agreed that university education was essential in providing a strong foundation and theoretical grounds. For example, the knowledge was useful for some of the workplace tasks, particularly relating to basic accounting entries and syllabus in accounting courses in third and fourth year. Nonetheless, they only realised the link between the university education and accounting practices when they had to perform their workplace duties. As mentioned by one participant:

“…with the knowledge that I brought from university, when I started working at Firm Y, I felt like an idiot. I did not know anything. But throughout the practice, I slowly realised that what I was doing was taught by various lecturers during my study, and it appeared that the theory and the practice were connected. Only then I realised how the university’s education became relevant and getting into the picture. You needed working experience to see all these. Without it, you could not see…”

Another participant also agreed that some courses, such as audit and taxation, are very practical; hence knowledge gained during university education could be directly applied in the workplace. The university education received is important as it provides the fundamental background to understand and apply the knowledge further at the workplace. The ability to speak and write in English provides an additional advantage to the participants especially if English is used as a medium of instruction at the university.

**GST Specialised Training and Employability**

Findings from the interviews suggested that the specialised training conducted had improved self-esteem and confidence level of the participants. As supported by one participant, “I have improved not just about GST. I have learnt other skills too, including communication skills. So, the programme was okay”.

One of the participants commented, “…Maybe one of the reasons they put me in that department, the Middle East, actually was due to the GST knowledge. During the interview, they asked me about the GST, what I know about the GST…”

Another participant had also positively commented on the offering of the specialist programme. The participant claimed that “…This GST specialist training was very good …It was good because when I started to work, I was ready, I didn’t blur anymore…”

Despite their low academic achievement (CGPA), their employability opportunities were high mainly due to having a competitive advantage (GST technical knowledge and soft skills) in the job market, especially in accounting firms and commercial industry. In short, the specialised programme did benefit the participants by providing them with a higher chance to secure an employment in various companies.

**GST Specialised Programme and Soft Skills**

The specialised training programme enhanced participants’ technical knowledge and soft skills. In terms of technical expertise, the participants were given the opportunity to acquire knowledge and skills of GST, which were highly demanded by accounting and commercial firms. Moreover, the training improved their verbal and written communication skills. In short, the training prepared them with some career guides and served as a platform for future job opportunities.

The training also increased the participants’ level of self-esteem despite their low academic achievements. With a competitive advantage of having GST knowledge, the participants were more confident in delivering their job routines and dealing with supervisors and colleagues during their industrial attachment. They also earned higher income as they had additional GST knowledge.

The technical skills of GST were seen as an added value to the low achievers. One participant revealed the following:

“…Yes, when I was called up by my manager at ABC, he was expecting something from the knowledge that I have (GST knowledge). Because right now, once I am familiar with the system, then it’s time for me to improve the system. So, the way I see it, they expected more from me compared to their other employees that they hired at the same time. Because during my enrollment, there were other three new employees,
together we came and we started in ABC, so they were all fresh graduates, I was the only one with experience, so that’s why…”

On the communication skills, one participant also commented,

“…yes, it helped in terms of communication with the clients. The training did improve communication skills, such as sending emails to clients. I had the confidence to speak to the clients. Furthermore, the training also improved (my) self-esteem...”

**GST Specialised Training and Career Path**

Being low achievers, many participants confessed that they did not seem to be particularly aware of the career path that they should pursue after they completed their studies. The study suggested that the specialised programme had given them some guidelines on their career direction. As mentioned by one participant:

“…The knowledge on audit experience (that I gained in Firm Y engagement) was helpful when I was completing my work at BCD. Basically I had constructed BCD’s account by applying the audit and accounting knowledge which I had gained from firm Y, so it was connected in a way…”

He stressed further by saying, “Putting it differently, if I didn’t join this programme, I would not know where to work, where to apply, and which industry is suitable for me. I would be lost.”

Another participant commented on the relevance of GST to his career path:

“…The programme like GST was really good since after graduation, we could be employed immediately. If I did not enrol in the programme, I was not sure whether I would be employed by the firm. By getting employed upon graduation, it opened up many career paths to me. The programme was really helpful (especially to me)…”

Another participant added, “…In terms of getting a job, I did not have to worry. It was hassle-free because the programme was bundled with a job engagement. Furthermore, we have had six months practical training experience…”


**Conclusion and Recommendations**

This research demonstrates the impact of a specialised training programme on the employment opportunities of low achieving graduates. It provides some empirical evidence on the benefits that could be derived from engaging low achievers of accounting graduates into a specialised training programme, designed to enhance their specific technical knowledge as well as soft skills in order to improve their employability. The findings of the research also suggest that such training programmes must be relevant and timely to the current needs of the industry. An appropriately designed programme shall prepare the graduates to face the real working environment with confidence and high self-esteem.

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Respect for the Right to Education in the COVID-19 Pandemic Time. Towards Reimagining Education and Reimagining Ways of Respecting the Right to Education

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Abstract
The main aim of this paper is to raise reflection on the conditions of respect for the right to education in the unexpected, pandemic time and after. The right to education is presented as the main agent of personal and social well-being, respect for human dignity, and the power of changing the world. The main question that organizes the structure of this paper concerns the conditions of respecting the right to education in Poland during remote education forced by a pandemic. Attention is focused on conditions, such as the place of living, possibilities for parents with different levels of education to support students, and access to broadband Internet. The discussion highlights the role of imagination as a factor of change in education and ways of respect for the right to education.

Key words: right to education, remote education, pandemic, ICT, reimagination of education
Introduction

The right to education is the universal right of every person. It can be considered a natural law, because people learn, discover the world, and improve their skills from the beginning of the history of humankind. This right was formalized and enshrined, inter alia, in the Universal Declaration of Human Rights (1948) and the Convention on the Rights of the Child (1989). Its precursors can already be found in Jan Amos Komensky’s work titled “The Great Didactics”. More than 1.75 billion children and young people worldwide currently enjoy this right. In this text, I try to analyze the conditions of respecting the right to education in a situation of radical global change caused by a pandemic. I focus on describing the consequences of the collapse of the traditional “educational grammar” and the possibilities of using the educational potential of the devices, which until now were rather gadgets, and using them in educational interactions was considered a whim or even prohibited. The theoretical framework of the text is the critical pedagogy, on the basis of which questions are asked about the conditions of experiencing freedom, equality, and justice, including access to the good that is education.

The main question which organizes the data collection and analysis is as follows: What are the conditions for respecting children’s and young people’s right to education under lockdown caused by pandemic? The answer to this question may be the starting point for a discussion on the reimagination of conditions and respecting the right to education both at the micro and macro scale. This discussion is already taking place in many circles, professional, and unprofessional, formal and informal. It reveals a rich variety of problems and challenges. It indicates certain typically local phenomena, but also those that are universal. Among these are the opportunities but also the limitations of education with ICT and the potential of the Wikiworld.

First of all, I discuss the right to education as an indicator of behavior in conditions of suspension of teaching and educational activities in schools and educational institutions. Against this background, I present the conditions for respecting this right in a situation of an obligation to stay at home and (some) the consequences of transferring educational interactions and the implementation of the core curriculum from traditional school space-time to the home environment.
Right to Education

As Comenius wrote in the 17th century: “all young people, of both genders, should go to school. We should send to school not only the children of rich or dignified people but of everyone, both nobles, and bourgeois, rich and poor, boys and girls, in big cities and small towns and villages”. (Komensky 1967, p. 63). The right to education is the main agent at the forefront of fulfilling personal and social well-being. “States Parties recognize the right of the child to education” - such an obligation, enshrined in the Convention on the Rights of the Child in 1989, was ratified by 196 countries around the world.

Education is not a privilege. As one of the most important human activities should (even must) be guaranteed and enforced by the state. It is the responsibility of the State to ensure that the right to education is respected and to create the conditions for its exercise, including exceptional, unforeseen circumstances.

This right is the agent to fulfil the three big ideas, namely: “socialization, Plato’s academic idea, and Rousseau’s idea of development.” (Egan 2008, p.9). But they are incompatible. Moreover, each of them is in dynamic dialectic relations with phenomena and processes in the world of nature, culture, and technology. This requires a view of education and the right to education that takes into account the pandemic experience.

The great belief in the driving force of education in improving and promoting the well-being of people around the world does not mean that respect for this right is universal. It still faces many permanent, but also unexpected and unpredictable obstacles. There is still a large group of children and adolescents who are unable to exercise this right or make only limited use of it. The most common contemporary obstacles to respecting the right to education include wars and armed conflicts, the economic situation, local traditions and laws, especially in relation to girls and women. Respecting this right still requires effort and sometimes sacrifice, as exemplified by the story of Malala Yousafzai who was awarded a Nobel Peace Prize. But the unexpected obstacle on an unprecedented scale is the pandemic COVID-19 which is now threatening education. This situation, unfortunately, influences the most marginalized and vulnerable students, mainly from the poor areas and low cultural capital.
Research questions and method of collecting data

The presented situation raises many questions about the conditions of respecting the right to education in conditions caused by a pandemic. One of them is: Why and how one should reimagine education and reimagine ways of realization the right to education? Answering this question needs the wide inter and multi-disciplines research. Hence the main question I try to answer in this text is: **what are the conditions for dealing with education during a pandemic?** Of the many variables, I focus only on two, namely the material and cultural capital conditions at the site of learning, enforced by pandemic, means in the home environment. Hypothetically, I assume that in remote teaching and learning forced by pandemic, these two conditions play a key role. By the material condition, I mean access to broadband and to digital equipment. By the cultural capital, I mean family from different socio-economic backgrounds that may have the different abilities (in terms of both cognitive and non-cognitive skills) and availability to support their children in their learning process at home during the lockdown. (Di Pietro et al. 2020, p. 12).

I am looking for the answer to this question and for verification of the hypothesis in data published in generally available sources. In my analysis, I use the existing data (Reardon, Stuart 2019, p. 568) which means information previously collected by local, state, or national agencies. Existing sources of education data (statistics, records) I use are available on the World Wide Web or through government agencies such as the statistical resources of The Central Statistical Office, UNESCO, Eurostat. The use of the existing data is an example of a non-reactive study. I use these existing data to address my question.

Why one should reimagine the formal education? Because the „traditional” paradigm (Robinson 2010), “grammar of schooling” (Tyack, Tobin 1994, p. 454) and “banking education” (Freire 2005, p. 72) do not work in the open real and virtual world, especially now, when rules everyday life. One has to imagine new content and forms of educational interactions, especially with children and young people. They are familiar with and accustomed to new tools and new sources of information. Most of them are natives in the virtual space. In the world of Google, Facebook, and other „common places” they feel like a fish in the water, and scrolling is a natural activity, like a tooth brushing right after waking up. Tools like smartphones keep people connected with the world all the time. One looks for information on the Internet and makes various choices. Meantime the classroom equipped with black/green/whiteboard and with the teacher in the center is the place of boring, tiring, and wasting time. That is just
one of the reasons one needs the reimagination of educational interactions from the ground up. It requires imagination, fantasy, courage, but also responsibility. Now that challenge, caused by a horrible disease, is inevitable. Digital gadgets, so criticized by parents and teachers (“prohibited fruits”) have become a “staple food” in compulsory learning and teaching on all levels of formal education.

Education is not only the agent of changing the world, it also changes itself. It was knocked out of traditional roots. Its participants were knocked out of their daily routines, from everyday school’s rituals. Students and teachers found themselves in unusual situations requiring new skills and special emotional and moral condition. They were transferred from the traditional space-time - classroom system - in a very short time (literally within a few days in March 2020) to another environment for the realization of their tasks and programs. This made it necessary to update education as a process in synergy with the world in order to improve it. Hopefully, the “frostbite” of school’s work after the pandemic will result or may result, in new patterns of educational interaction.

Respecting children’s right to education out of school – chosen data

In an unexpected, violent descholarization forced by the pandemic, schools became the first closed institutions. According to UNESCO data, school closures as a government response to pandemic threats have affected almost the whole world. This is illustrated by the following data taken from the UNESCO (UNESCO-UIS. Stat 2020)

- **16.02.2020** – 1 country (Mongolia) closed all its schools and since then other countries have decided to close their schools;
- **04.04.2020** – In 195 countries, all schools were closed, resulting in 1,598,099,008 pupils affected by the isolation (91.3% of the total number of pupils);
- **01.05.2020** – The number of countries with all closed schools falls to 182, resulting in 1,287,401,633 pupils affected by the isolation (73.5% of the total number of pupils);
- **11.06.2020** – all schools still closed in 129 countries, which means that 1 109,020 109 pupils are still not attending school (63.3% of total pupils);
- **02.09.2020** – 826,802,660 affected learners (47.2% of total enrolled learners), 46 country-wide closures;
- **10.09.2020** – 868,011,845 affected learners (49,6% of total enrolled learners), 50 country-wide closures
- **07.10.2020** – 579,936,463 affected learners (33,1% of total enrolled learners), still 35 country-wide closures

In Poland in the middle of March 2020, almost 6.5 million children and young people from 26 000 institutions (including preschoolers) and 1.2 million students (over 21% of citizens) were left in homes. The lockdown has not only affected pupils and teachers but also their parents and guardians. “School life” has moved from the school classroom to the living room, kitchen, or other rooms. It is no longer shared with peers and teachers in the classroom but with the family members, home pets, plants, accompanied by pieces of home equipment, as well as with sounds and smells. Functioning in the daily school culture, sometimes learned with difficulty, subordination to discipline, compliance with norms, and adaptation to patterns of behavior have been suspended. This, in turn, triggered the temptation to ease body and mind discipline.

The material and cultural status of the family is a key source of its educational potential. Let us, therefore, look at this potential of Polish families according to three criteria, namely: a place of residence, level of education, and equipping households with digital equipment and devices, including the ability to adapt to the obligation to provide their children with Internet access.

Out of more than 3 millions of all Polish primary school students, 1,321,200 live in the countryside. One draws attention to this group of students because of the cultural capital of their family environment expressed by the level of education. This is illustrated by the Fig. 1.

![Figure 1. Polish population by place of residence and education (2019, in %). Source: own elaboration on the base of data from The Central Statistical Office](image-url)
Paying attention to this context of respect for the child’s right to education stems from the family’s role in participation in children’s education. It is changed with the caesura of the pandemic. While “before the pandemic” the learning conditions were (almost) the same regardless of the material condition and cultural potential of the family, the learning at home reveals the diversity of educational opportunities for pupils from different backgrounds. Crucial for the success of the online education environment is parental involvement. Parents should ensure that learners are focused on the assigned tasks. But it is not easy. In the rural environment, it is noteworthy that more than half (53.6%) of adult inhabitants have primary and basic vocational education. Many learners cannot count on the help of adult household members or even older siblings. It is not only experienced in families with low education. Parents with higher education also find it difficult to help their children with “school” tasks.

The fulfillment of school tasks at home is often accompanied by comments/questions from the members of family: “what is this for?”, “do you need these skills in your life?” Such questions indicate the separateness of two worlds: the world of school and the world of everyday life. This cannot be overcome by parents’ involvement in the realization of the school’s functions – educational, caring, advisory, therapeutic, and compensatory.

Another criterion for describing the educational potential of Polish families, or rather Polish homes, and respect for the right to education is the access to the digital equipment and devices used in everyday life. There are considerable socio-economic inequalities in students’ access to digital technologies at home. Students from higher socioeconomic status are significantly more likely to have a laptop or a computer at home than those from lower socioeconomic status. Thus students from less advantaged backgrounds are less likely to have access to digital resources at home, hence less likely to have a suitable home learning environment. According to data published in the report of the Central Statistical Office (GUS) in 2019, 86.7% of households had access to the Internet and 83.1% of households with at least one person aged 16–74 had at least one computer at home. However, in addition to a computer, laptop, and smartphone, school tasks involve the use of copying devices and printers. And these no longer belong to the permanent home furnishings.

Access to broadband Internet is an easy way to learn at home, to remote education. According to GUS data, in 2019, 83.3% of households had such access. This access was differentiated, among other things, according to the place of residence (as can be seen in Fig. 2) and the fact of having children. Almost all homes with children (99.3% compared to 80.4% without children) had access to the Internet,
which undoubtedly facilitated the decision to use this measure in forced remote education. However, this does not mean that it really opens the way for the use of the educational potential of this medium.

![Figure 2. Access to the Internet](source: own elaboration on the base of data from The Central Statistical Office)

This means that as never before, both adults, children, and young people have many opportunities to use digital media, but the thing is, by whom, how, and what for that boom is used. Especially in the context of education. As Jean-Hervé Lorenzi and Mickaël Berrebi state: “Reality, far from the dream of easily accessible, extensive and useful knowledge, sometimes turns out to be quite bleak. It should be stressed that we still lack the tools to make the utopia of universal access to knowledge a reality. We have, above all, new knowledge carriers at our disposal, which offer us new ICT solutions.” (Lorenzi, Berrebi 2019, p. 153).

Nevertheless, many students still have difficulties because of the limited access to the Internet and the lack of adequate IT equipment at home. In order to adapt to the requirements of fulfilling the duty to study in many homes, space was rearranged, new equipment appeared, time management was reorganized. I dare to risk paraphrasing an African proverb - the whole village is involved in bringing up a child - and to say that all the family members (including domestic flora and fauna) are involved in the realization of the school’s core curriculum. Their skills and behavior not only influence the fulfillment of immediate school tasks but also the life careers of learners.

The information presented on the educational potential of the family and home environment, although it does not cover the whole spectrum of its elements, indicates the scale of limitations in access to quality education as well as points out the impact of the Gini coefficient (opening scissors) in relation to school achievements and, as a result, reducing the chances of emancipation through education.

Other problems are caused by the digital competences of teachers, or rather their methodological skills in using the potential of new technologies. These
factors not only threaten respect for the right to high-quality education but the implementation of this right in general.

**Conclusions**

While this opens up opportunities for universal, democratic access to knowledge, commitment to knowledge multiplication and, as a result, increasing the chances of respecting the right to lifelong learning in every corner of the world, it also requires a change in the approach to education, to educational interactions as circumstances for mutual learning, and to the dissemination of horizontal relationships that foster the sharing of knowledge and skills. It also requires trust in people and things (including devices) and the development and updating of the “four C’s”, pointed out by Yuval Harari, it means “Critical thinking, Communication, Cooperation, and Creativity” (Harari 2018, p. 335). These “four C’s” are the basis for the engagement of persons and groups in the collective creation of a vision of the future. This applies also to the future of education as well as imagery of ways the real implementation of the right to education.

The enforced remote education helps to trigger imagination about the content and forms of learning and teaching as well as grading. These Harari’s four C’s help us to imagine the most fantastic (in sense of fantasy) conditions of fully implementing the right to education in the most unexpected situations.

The link between imagination and social life is increasingly a global and de-territorialized one. The imagination expressed in dreams, songs, fantasies, myths, and stories has always been in every society. But there is a peculiar new force to the imagination in social life today. People in different parts of the world have an opportunity to consider a wider set of possible ways of life than ever before.

Implementation of the right to education as an agent of the change of the world faces many barriers and challenges. Some of them have accompanied the upbringing, education, and learning processes for a long time, others have emerged with the pandemic. More of them will appear after the limitations caused by it have ceased to exist and one must be faced with the new, often unknown situations that will arise. It’s hard to call it coming back to what is well known. Rather, it will be a migration to “new worlds”, where digital devices may be the “guide”. This opens up new fields of pedagogical reflection. In my opinion, it is impossible to return to education functioning according to the principles of the previous “grammar”. It is also impossible to erase the emotions and skills that accompany home learning.
Emotions and skills not only of students and teachers but also of all the household members.

One ought to stress that the right to education is not only for opening ways to a decent life and social well-being but also the key agent of understanding the wonder of the world, feeling the passion, and for the richness of the entire human experience. Thus, as Juha Suoranta wrote, “the following words must be taken to the heart: »Engaged in a collective re-imagining of the present and future, creative collaboration is our best chance to leave a positive legacy. We cannot allow our children to live in the heavy detritus of outdated practices and platforms«” (Suoranta 2011, p. 500).

References
The Effect of Parental Characteristics and Home Resources on Reading Performance of 15-Year Old Students in the Philippines

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Abstract
This paper examines the effects of parental characteristics and home resources on reading performance of 15-year-old Filipino students using the 2018 International Assessment Program (PISA) Philippine dataset. Results revealed that the multiple linear regression model statistically significantly predicted reading performance. Parental education, parental occupational status, home educational resources, cultural possessions, and home ICT resources were found to be significant predictors of reading performance. With the Philippines ranking lowest on PISA reading performance, the results show that family variables are essential factors to consider. This study also provides empirical evidence of cultural capital importance in examining variations in educational outcomes.

Key words: parental characteristics, home resources, reading performance

Introduction

The 2018 PISA results revealed that the Philippines scored 353 in Mathematics, 357 in Science, and 340 in Reading, all below the OECD participating countries’ average (OECD, 2018). In reading, which was the main domain assessed in this PISA cycle, both boys and girls in the Philippines ranked lowest among all countries. The Philippines had an average reading score of 340, more than 100 points less than the OECD average of 487.
Various factors can be considered in analyzing the determinants of academic outcomes. One important factor is the effect of family variables, such as education, occupation, income, and home resources. These factors, which Bourdieu refers to as cultural capital, reinforce social advantage, especially in the children's education. Parents who are more educated are more likely to have higher occupational status and might influence educational decisions and invest more in educating their children.

As a result of the current pandemic situation, the Department of Education announced that schooling in the current academic year would take the form of remote learning. Many parents in the Philippines must provide access to online education to their children or assume responsibility for teaching them. The so-called “digital divide” or the gap in access to modern information and communications technology (ICT) has primarily affected parent's choice of modality. Those who have access to computers and the internet chose the online modality while those without access chose the purely modular/printed materials modality. Parents found themselves questioning their capacity to assist their children with schoolwork and whether they have sufficient resources at home to facilitate conducive learning.

**Problem of Research**

This study aims to assess the effects of family variables – parental characteristics and home resources on their children's reading performance. Parental characteristics are explored as well as the home as a learning environment. Availability of home educational resources, cultural possessions and ICT resources are examined and the way they have influence on reading performance.

**Research Focus**

The idea of cultural capital by Bourdieu (1973) refers to the set of symbolic elements that one acquires from being part of a specific social class. In Bourdieu's thesis on cultural reproduction, cultural capital essentially works to reproduce social advantage (van de Werfhorst, 2010). According to Bourdieu (1986), „the transmission of cultural capital is no doubt the best hidden form of hereditary transmission of capital, and it, therefore, receives disproportionately greater weight in the system of reproduction strategies, as the direct, visible forms of transmission tend to be more strongly censored and controlled” (p. 246).

Parental education, occupational status, material resources, which are indicators of cultural capital contributes to school outcomes. Several studies have examined the effects of parental education, occupational status, and income on
their children’s educational achievement (Nicholas-Omeregbe 2010, van de Werfhorst 2010). Chevalier and Lanot (2002) found that pupils from poorer families are less likely to invest in education. Blanden (2004) found that there are some substantial connections between family income and educational success and that these connections have improved over time in their intergenerational study of UK children. Thomson (2011) claimed that a significant level of educational disadvantage related to socio-economic backgrounds could be equivalent to up to three years of schooling. Differences in home learning environments with children having access to resources at home have also been found to be significant for the development of children.

The home learning space, with books as an indicator, also affects student achievement. Evans et.al (2010) found in their 20 year-study that the size of home library affects educational achievement even if the educational level of the parent, father’s occupation and other family background characteristics are accounted for. They called this „scholarly culture” because it encourages family discussion and for children to read for pleasure. Van Dergen et.al (2017) reported that the availability and number of books found at home predicted child reading fluency even after parental reading fluency was controlled. Sikora, et. al. (2019) emphasized the importance of home books during childhood and adolescence. These are good predictors of student cognitive abilities, which could later lead to educational and job success.

The positive effects of computers and the internet can also be found in the literature. Selwin (2013) claimed that the internet promotes a “new learning culture.” Schmitt and Wadsworth (2006) found a significant positive association between home computer availability and British school exam performance. Fiorini (2010) found evidence of a positive relationship between computer use and childhood cognitive skills.

These studies have shown that parental characteristics and home have an impact on academic performance.

**Methodology**

**General Background of Research**

This paper uses data collection from the 2018 International Student Assessment Program (PISA) of the Organization for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD). PISA investigates the degree to which 15-year-old students have acquired the key knowledge and skills needed for full participation in modern
societies near the end of their compulsory education, focusing on how well students can deduce and apply knowledge in new contexts, both in and outside of school” (OECD, 2018). PISA 2018 is the seventh PISA cycle in which about 600,000 15-year-old students from 79 OECD and partner countries have participated. Reading Literacy, which is the main domain of 2018, and Mathematical Literacy and Scientific Literacy as the minor domains were examined. The Philippines took part in this assessment for the first time.

Sample of Research
A two-stage stratified random sampling design was used to draw the sample schools and learners in the Philippines. One hundred eighty-eight schools were randomly chosen from 17 regions in the first level. The probability of a sampled school is proportional to its estimated PISA population size. In the second level, 42 PISA students were sampled using the PISA within-school sampling program, KeyQuest, from each randomly selected school. A total of 7,233 15-year-old students from all regions in the country were included.

Instruments and Procedures
This paper used the variables derived from the PISA Student Questionnaire (STQ). The STQ asked about the “students themselves, their attitudes, dispositions and beliefs, their homes, and their school and learning experiences” (OECD, 2019). SPSS version 23 was used to run the statistical analyses in this paper.

Data Analysis

Dependent Variable: Reading Performance
The PISA 2018 computed ten plausible values (PVs) to measure student performance in the different domains obtained from Item Response Theory models generated through multiple imputations based upon pupils’ answers to the sub-set of test questions (OECD, 2018). None of these ten values are the actual student scores but representatives of 10 random values drawn from the posterior distribution of students’ scores (OECD, 2018).

This paper followed the OECD recommendations in dealing with plausible values by considering all 10 PVs to obtain unbiased and stable estimates. In performing the regression analysis, the same regression model was run ten times, once for each plausible value of the reading scores (PV1Read to PV10Read) and compute the unbiased estimates and their standard based on these ten sets of estimates. The estimates generated by the ten regression models were almost identical.
and for the sake of simplicity, the estimates for the first plausible value (PV1) were used in this paper. The same approach was used by Spieza (2011) in his analysis of the effects of computer use on educational achievement.

**Independent Variables: Parental and Home Variables**

This study included five independent variables or regressors. These variables are scale indices constructed through the scaling of multiple items. The indices were scaled, and the index values correspond to Warm likelihood estimates or WLEs (OECD, 2018). The first two variables measure parental characteristics. The index of parental education (PAREDINT) is the index of the estimated number of years of education generated from HISCED, the higher ISCED (International Standard Classification of Education) level of either parent. The second variable, the index of highest parental occupational status (HISEI) corresponds to the higher ISEI (Index of Socio-Economic Index) score of either parent or the only available parent’s ISEI score. The next three variables measure household resources. Cultural possessions at home (CULTPOSS) include the availability of books of poetry, classic literature, and other works of art. Home educational resources (HEDRES) are composed of various school items such as the availability of a quiet place to study, study desk, technical reference books, dictionary, and other books. ICT resources (ICTRES) consists of items on internet access, computers, and other electronic gadgets and educational software.

**Results and Discussion**

**Descriptive Statistics**

This section will explore the present parental characteristics and availability of home resources – physical learning space at home, availability of books, educational resources, technology access and ICT resources.

**Parental Characteristics**

The International Standard Classification of Education (ISCED) was used to categorize the educational attainment of parents. The survey showed that 62% of the mothers and 61% of the learners’ fathers have at least ISCED level 3 or secondary education, while 20% of both mothers and fathers are college-educated. In terms of those with low educational attainment, 10% of the fathers, and 6% of the mothers reported they were not able to finish primary school.
Home Learning Environment

Based on the abovementioned variables, we can create a home learning environment profile of our 15-year old learners as they embark on remote learning. Online delivery mode is one popular option for parents, especially those who may not have the capability or time to teach their children.

Table 1. Availability of Study Place, Books and Cultural Possessions at Home

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>In your home, do you have the following?</th>
<th>Yes</th>
<th>No</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>A quiet place to study (n= 6913)</td>
<td>68.8</td>
<td>31.2</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A room of your own (n= 6935)</td>
<td>49.5</td>
<td>50.5</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A desk to study at (n= 6977)</td>
<td>75.4</td>
<td>24.6</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Books to help with your schoolwork (n= 6942)</td>
<td>87</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Technical reference books (n= 6874)</td>
<td>54</td>
<td>46</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A dictionary (n= 6974)</td>
<td>88.4</td>
<td>11.6</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Classic Literature (n=6860)</td>
<td>39.3</td>
<td>60.7</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Books on art, music, design (n=6893)</td>
<td>64.4</td>
<td>35.6</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Works of Art (n=6841)</td>
<td>41.3</td>
<td>58.7</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note: Total number of cases (n) varies due to missing values

Table 1 presents the availability of conducive learning space at home for the students. Data show that 68.8 percent of the 15-year old learners have a quiet place to study, 50% have a room of their own, and 75% have a study desk. It shows that there are more who have access to a place for study, but more than 30% of the students still face the situation of having no personal space. It also shows the availability of other support learning materials. A great majority (87%) claimed that they have books at home. In terms of technical reference books, only 54% reported that these are available in their homes, while 88% said that they have a dictionary available for use.

Cultural possessions were also reported with fewer students having resources for the classics and arts. Although 64% said that they have books on arts, music, and design, only 39% reported that they have classical literature, and only 41% have works of art at home.

A separate question was asked about the number of books found in the students’ homes. A little over half (53%) of the students reported that they have at least ten
books in their house, while only 5.7 reported having over a hundred books. These books may vary in terms of genre, but it may reflect the scholarly culture at home.

Table 2. Number of Books Available at Home

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
<th>Cumulative Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>0–10 books</td>
<td>3782</td>
<td>53.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11–25 books</td>
<td>1949</td>
<td>27.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>26–100 books</td>
<td>995</td>
<td>14.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>101–200 books</td>
<td>235</td>
<td>3.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>201–500 books</td>
<td>97</td>
<td>1.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>More than 500 books</td>
<td>72</td>
<td>1.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>7130</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Technology Access**

Table 3 presents student access to home computers, educational software, and the internet. More than half of students (60%) reported not having a computer for schoolwork, while only 44% of students have access to educational software. More students (51.4 percent) have no internet connectivity at home.

Table 3. Computer and Internet Access at Home

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>A computer you can use for schoolwork (n= 6899)</th>
<th>Yes</th>
<th>No</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Educational software (n= 6852)</td>
<td>43.6</td>
<td>56.4</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A link to the Internet (n=6880)</td>
<td>48.6</td>
<td>51.4</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note: Total number of cases (n) varies due to missing values

With respect to other digital devices, students were asked to identify how many they have at home – not necessarily for personal use. In online learning, a digital device and internet access are a “must”. Table 4 shows that some students do not have access to any digital device at home and this includes 52% who do not have computers – desktop computer or laptop, 14% who do not have smartphones with internet access, 70% who do not have tablet computers and 72% who do not have E-book readers. Only 30% of the students reported that they have at least one computer, 27% have at least one cellphone, 22% have tablet computers and 20% have E-book readers. Cellphone with internet access is most common in their homes but these may be personally owned or shared with parents and other family members.
Table 4. Availability of Digital Devices at Home

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>How many of the following are in your home?</th>
<th>None</th>
<th>One</th>
<th>Two</th>
<th>Three or more</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Cell phones with Internet access (e.g. smartphones) (n=7085)</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>27.1</td>
<td>14.2</td>
<td>44.7</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Computers (desktop computer, portable laptop, or notebook) (n=7068)</td>
<td>51.8</td>
<td>29.5</td>
<td>10.1</td>
<td>8.6</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tablet computers (e.g. iPad, BlackBerry PlayBook) (n=7022)</td>
<td>69.8</td>
<td>22.4</td>
<td>4.7</td>
<td>3.2</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>E-book readers (e.g. Kindle, Kobo, Bookeen) (n=7021)</td>
<td>71.6</td>
<td>20.2</td>
<td>3.3</td>
<td>4.9</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note: Total number of cases (n) varies due to missing values

**Multiple Linear Regression Modelling**

Multiple regression assesses the effects, separately and in combination, of more than one independent variable on the dependent variable (Healey, 2016, p 365). Multiple regression was run to predict Reading Performance from parental education, parental occupational status, cultural possessions, home educational resources, and ICT resources. The Multiple Linear Regression Model is:

\[ y = \beta_0 + \beta_1 X_1 + \beta_2 X_2 + \beta_3 X_3 + \beta_4 X_4 + \beta_5 X_5 + \varepsilon \]

where

- \( y \) refers to the dependent variable PV1Read (Reading Performance)
- \( \beta_0 \) refers to the intercept
- \( \beta_p \) refers to the partial regression coefficient of the independent variable which gauges the unit change in the dependent variable per unit increase in the factors on the condition that the rest of the factors remain unchanged.

- \( X_1 = \text{PAREDINT} \)
- \( X_2 = \text{HISEI} \)
- \( X_3 = \text{CULTPOSS} \)
- \( X_4 = \text{HEDRES} \)
- \( X_5 = \text{ICTRES} \)
- \( \varepsilon \) refers to the error term.
Before proceeding with the regression modeling, the data were checked if they satisfy the assumptions of multiple regression (Laerd Statistics, 2015). There was linearity as assessed by partial regression plots and a plot of studentized residuals against the predicted values. The Durbin-Watson statistic value of 1.723 indicated that residuals were independent. There was homoscedasticity, as assessed by visual inspection of a plot of studentized residuals versus unstandardized predicted values. There was no evidence of multicollinearity, as assessed by tolerance values greater than 0.1. Checking for outliers, leverage, and influential points, the studentized deleted residuals revealed 15 values greater than ±3 standard deviations but since there were no leverage values greater than 0.2, and the values for Cook's distance is above 1 which means that none of the cases are influential, no case was dropped from the analysis. The assumption of normality was also met, as assessed by a Q-Q Plot. After satisfying the basic requirements for multiple regression, the next step was fitting the multiple regression model.

The multiple regression model statistically significantly predicted PV1Read, F (5, 6482) = 358.879, p < .001, adj. R² = .217. All five variables statistically significantly predicted the dependent variable, p < .05. Regression coefficients and standard errors can be found in Table 5.

Table 5. Multiple Regression Results for PV1Read

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Model</th>
<th>B</th>
<th>95% CI for B</th>
<th>SE B</th>
<th>β</th>
<th>R²</th>
<th>ΔR²</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>L</td>
<td>U</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Constant</td>
<td>321.767***</td>
<td>313.456</td>
<td>330.078</td>
<td>4.240</td>
<td>.217</td>
<td>.216</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PAREDINT</td>
<td>.770**</td>
<td>.226</td>
<td>1.315</td>
<td>.278</td>
<td>.033**</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>HISEI</td>
<td>1.127***</td>
<td>1.030</td>
<td>1.223</td>
<td>.049</td>
<td>.285***</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CULTPOSS</td>
<td>3.117**</td>
<td>.977</td>
<td>5.256</td>
<td>1.092</td>
<td>.035**</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>HEDRES</td>
<td>3.800***</td>
<td>1.885</td>
<td>5.715</td>
<td>.977</td>
<td>.055**</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note. Model = “Enter” method in SPSS statistics; B = unstandardized regression coefficient; CI = confidence interval; L = lower limit; U = upper limit; SE B = standard error of the coefficient; β = standardized coefficient; R² = coefficient of determination; ΔR² = Adjusted R²
*p < .05. **p < .01. ***p < .0001

The multiple correlation coefficient, R indicates the scores predicted by the regression model and the actual values of the dependent variable. A value of 0.466 indicates a moderate level of association between PV1Read and the predictors – PAREDINT, HISEI, CULTPOSS, HEDRES AND ICTRES. Adjusted R² for the
overall model is 21.6%, which means that the addition of all the five independent variables into a regression model explained 21.6% (0.216 x 100 = 21.6%) of the variability of our dependent variable. Adjusted $R^2$ is used as it corrects for this positive bias in order to provide a value that would be expected in the population as compared to $R^2$ which is based on the sample and is considered a positively-biased estimate of the proportion of the variance of the dependent variable accounted for by the regression model (Laerd Statistics, 2015).

The regression equation can be expressed in the following form:

$$\text{Predicted Reading Performance (PV1Read)} = 321.767 + .770 \text{ PAREDINT} + 1.127 \text{ HISEI} + 3.117 \text{ CULTPOSS} + 3.800 \text{ HEDRES} + 13.235 \text{ ICTRES}$$

The coefficient for parental education (PAREDINT) is +.770. The slope coefficient represents the change in the dependent variable for a one-unit change in the independent variable. As such, an increase in the index of parental education is associated with an increase in reading performance scores. An increase in parental occupational status (HISEI) also results in a 1.127 increase in reading performance. Cultural possessions (CULTPOSS) increase reading performance by 3.117, home educational resources (HEDRES) by 3.8, and ICT resources (ICTRES) by 13.235. The multiple regression equation predicts that the higher the index of parental education and occupation and home resources, the higher the students’ reading performance. It is important to note that this increase in reading performance for each increase in the parental and home WLEs occurs after controlling or holding all independent variables constant.

The 95% confidence intervals indicate the 95% of the true value of the slope coefficient; that is, with 95% confidence, the true value of the slope coefficient of PAREDINT is between .226 to 1.315. HISEI is between 1.0030 to 1.223, CULTPOSS is between .977 to 5.256, HEDRES is between 1.885 to 5.715, and ICTRES is between 11.289 to 15.180.

All the p-values of the slope coefficients are less than .05, which means that they are all statistically significant and that there is a linear relationship in the population. The standardized beta coefficient that compares the strength of each independent variable's effect on the dependent variable revealed that the index of parental occupational status (HISEI) has the strongest effect on reading scores, followed by ICT resources (ICTRES). Interestingly, index of parental education (PAREDINT) has the lowest beta coefficient among the five independent variables.
Learning at home during this time of the pandemic poses challenges to both the learners and their families. Family and home characteristics play a crucial role in providing the necessary cultural capital to ensure successful learning. The results of this study are consistent with existing literature, which identifies family background variables as significant predictors of educational achievement. This study provides evidence that parental education and occupational status have positive effects on reading performance. The reason might be that the more educated the parents are, the more likely they will invest in educational resources for their children. Cultural possessions, home educational, and ICT resources also have positive impact on reading performance. The availability of books, which is an indicator of scholarly culture, study space, computer and internet connection and even cultural possessions such as works of arts at home, fosters an environment conducive to learning. Remote learning during the time of the pandemic in this kind of home learning environment would be ideal. However, the reality is, not all learners are equipped with this kind of cultural capital.

This study reflects the Philippines' gap in education. The significant relationship between the predictors and dependent variables highlights the divide between leaners who have parents with a high level of education and occupational status, and those who do not, and those who have material resources, and those who do not. Because of lack of access, some students will engage in remote learning in more convenient or engaging ways. However, even those who might initially have access now find themselves in a problematic situation. Many parents experience loss of jobs, closure of business, or even the burden of contracting the disease. As of July 2020, the Department of Education reported a 27.3% decline in national enrollment (Agoncillo, 2020), and a significant number of learners opted to enroll in public schools over private schools. The decline in private school enrollment is a clear indicator of how the pandemic has taken its toll on parents' educational decisions.

Therefore, it is interesting to find out if the same effect goes for other PISA assessment domains. By identifying the significant contribution of family variables, it is relevant to note that an improvement in the educational and occupational status of parents, as well as access to home resources, would result in improved academic outcomes. School factors might be identified as crucial factors in existing literature, but family factors cannot be disregarded. These characteristics and resources are a function of a family's social status. The social status of the learner’s family and their parents, who are primary socializing agents, influences
their ability to access and develop cultural capital. In this study, it is evident that it affects educational performance, and in the long run, might have an impact on social mobility.

References

Abstract
The aim of the study is to provide an overview of higher education students' volunteering and voluntary group membership based on a database (N=2,199), in which full-time students from five Central-Eastern European countries (Hungary, Romania, Slovakia, Serbia, and Ukraine) were questioned. We analyzed as well, which variables influence civic engagement. Based on the results we suggest that universities in Central-Eastern European regions should make more use of students' potential in the field of volunteering and organizational membership, and should do so in an organized way, with special attention to the groups, which display low civic participation according to our research findings.

Key words: civic engagement, higher education students, factors of social and demographic background, Central and Eastern Europe

Introduction
In the literature on higher education, civic engagement of students is discussed in connection with the development in academic and life skill competences, civic consciousness, and responsibility (Astin and Sax, 1998; Hesser, 1995; Eyler, Giles, and Braxton 1997; Mabry, 1998; Khasanzyanova, 2017), it is referred to as a special teaching method (Freese 1998, Zlokowski 1996, Mabry 1998) and as a protection against attrition (Kim & Schneider 2005; Perna & Titus 2005; Baker 2008; Altbach 2009; Pusztai 2015; Pusztai et al. 2019).
In this study, we discuss the factors which influence higher education students’ volunteering as well as their voluntary organization and group membership through linear and logistic regression models. In the post-socialist countries, civic engagement is underdeveloped, but recent years have seen a rise in volunteering and non-governmental organization memberships, which, however, still lag behind Western European countries. The same is true for higher education students’ civic engagement. Consequently, it is important to follow the above trends and to uncover the social and demographic background factors, which affect civic engagement. In the summary, we evaluate our hypotheses, which is followed by some recommendations for education policy.

Volunteering and Organizational Membership among Young People

In 2019, according to the Flash Eurobarometer (N = 10,786), 58% of young people aged 15–30 stated that they had done volunteer work or had been at least once involved in an activity which helped the local community. Some 41% had been members of youth and student organizations. Membership prevalence is higher for women than for men (44% and 39%), and this pattern is also present with respect to participation in local or voluntary projects (61% and 55%). It is also typical that urban youth display greater civic engagement than their rural peers. In addition, it can be shown that young people with higher educational attainment are also more active in this field (Flash Eurobarometer 2019).

The organizational framework of higher education institutions and students’ lifestyle create a special situation for volunteering and civic engagement. On the one hand, it is important to highlight that students’ social background can be best described as middle-class (and as we have seen, more favourable background results in higher civic engagement), but on the other hand, campus lifestyle often generates semi-independent and relatively freely adjustable boundaries, which allows for activities to be inserted into the schedule. Higher education institutions in several countries offer opportunities for students to do volunteer work (service-learning), often awarding it with credits (see Brozmanová Gregorová and Heinzová 2008, Holdsworth and Quinn, 2010; Yusop and Correia 2013, Shin, 2018), which, however, is uncommon in the area we examine. In contrast, school community service was introduced in Hungarian secondary education in 2011, requiring students to complete 50 hours of community service up until graduation at any non-governmental, religious, or governmental organization with which
the school has a cooperation agreement. It is not possible to engage in similar community service activities in higher education, although it has been shown in the international literature that there is a positive correlation between academic performance and service learning, among other benefits, for example increase in life skill competences, civic consciousness, and responsibility (Astin and Sax, 1998; Hesser, 1995; Eyler, Giles, and Braxton, 1997).

Studies on students’ civic engagement highlight that such activities develop skills, which are difficult to address through classroom instruction and contribute to the adaptation of theoretical knowledge into real-life environments (Gaston and Kruger, 2014). Since moral elements are increasingly excluded from education, which focuses on professional knowledge and practical skills (Reuben, 1996), volunteer work also provides an opportunity to convey these. The phenomenon is similar with respect to interpersonal skills and time management. Other studies report positive cognitive effects (Shin, 2018; Moore et al., 2014).

Some studies also focus on the question as to which students are more likely to engage in voluntary activities or join the work of organizations. Moore et al. (2014), examining data of higher education students from the United States, has found out that older, female, and better-performing students, as well as those who engage in collective religiosity are more likely to do volunteer work. Although the link seems logical, the effect of paid work has not been found to be negative in their study. There are also differences across fields of study: students studying health sciences, social sciences, teacher education, and humanities are more likely to participate in such activities (Khasanzyanova, 2017).

In our previous studies, we analyzed volunteering among higher education students. In the five Central and Eastern European countries we examined, we recorded a gradual increase in the proportion of volunteers among higher education students between 2005 and 2015. The proportion of regular volunteers doubled between 2005 and 2010, and the proportion of those who had done volunteer work reached 26% by 2010 and then increased to 39% by 2015. According to 2015 data, the highest proportion of students volunteered in Romania, which is most likely explained by the fact that in 2014 Romania allowed higher educational institutions to accept volunteer work as formal internship.

Concerning voluntary group memberships, in 2010, the most popular groups were religious groups and sports clubs, with only about 12% of students participating in each of them. About 10% participated in cultural groups and 6% in student representative organizations. In contrast, involvement in voluntary and non-governmental organizations was only 5.2% and 3.4%, respectively, and participation in political organizations was even lower (1.9%) (Fényes and Pusztai, 2012).
Hypotheses

H1. Both the proportion of young people doing volunteer work during their years in higher education and voluntary group memberships show an increasing trend in parallel with the development of democracy and civil society in the examined region (Juknevičiusa and Savicka, 2003, Fényes and Pusztai, 2012; Fényes 2015; Markos, 2018).

H2. Volunteering is more common among students in Romania, women, children of highly educated parents, those who enjoy a favourable financial situation, urban students, those who go to church more often. The literature suggests that volunteering is higher among those, as well who have a closer relationship with faculty and external friends but have a relatively distant relationship with their parents, students of humanities and helping professions, those who engage in paid student employment, and those with better academic performance. (Moore et al. 2014, Khasanzyanova, 2017, Fényes and Pusztai, 2012; Fényes, 2015; Bocsi et al., 2017; Markos, 2018; Flash Eurobarometer, 2019).

H3. Voluntary group membership is more common among women, children of highly educated parents, well-off and urban students, religious and minority students. Students, who have a close relationship with faculty and peers, who engage in paid student employment, and who have better academic performance, are also more active in group membership (Pusztai, 2017; Flash Eurobarometer, 2019).

Methodology of Research

The database consists of a large-sample student survey1 (N=2,199), conducted in the academic year 2018/19. The survey was carried out at higher education institutions in Eastern Hungary2 and in four other countries3 (Slovakia, Romania, Ukraine, Serbia). The Hungarian subsample (N=1,034) was collected using quota

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1 The title of the research project was “The Role of Social and Organizational Factors in Student Attrition”.

2 University of Debrecen, University of Nyíregyháza, Debrecen Reformed Theological University, Saint Athanasius Greek Catholic Theological College.

3 Babeș-Bolyai University (BBTE), Emanuel University of Oradea, Ferenc Rákóczi II Transcarpathian Hungarian College of Higher Education, Constantine the Philosopher University in Nitra, Mukachevo State University, University of Oradea, Partium Christian University (PKE),
sampling and is representative with respect to faculty, field of study, and form of funding. At institutions outside Hungary, the aim was probability sampling: groups of students in university/college courses were selected and surveyed exhaustively (N=1,165). The sample consists of full-time bachelor’s students in their second year and of second-year or third-year students from undivided programs, which offer a master’s degree.

In the first part of the analysis, we examine the frequency of voluntary activity and the patterns of group membership. Than we employ linear and logistic regression to investigate the factors which influence students’ volunteering and group membership. The explanatory variables are gender, country of the institution, variables of social background, students’ religiosity, social capital variables, academic achievement, the field of study, and paid work. The dependent variable is either students’ volunteering (1: has done volunteer work during higher education studies, 0: has not), or the voluntary group membership index (0–8), which was compiled based on membership in various organizations.4

Results of Research

According to our data, there is a rise in volunteering in the investigated region: recent data show that 45.3% of students have done volunteer work, while this figure in 2015 amounted to 38%. In contrast, voluntary group membership is still low, with students participating in 0.88 groups on average. However, detailed data reveal an increased membership in almost all organizations compared to our findings from 2010 (see Fényes and Pusztai, 2012). Membership in religious organizations surged significantly (from 12% to 24%), in a similar way to student representative groups (from 6% to 11%) and to voluntary and non-governmental organizations (from 3.4% and 5.2% to 13.2% and 10.8%, respectively).

In the following table we present the findings of the linear and logistic regression analysis with respect to the factors, which affect students’ group membership and volunteering (Table 1).

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Sapientia Hungarian University of Transylvania, J. Selye University, University of Novi Sad, Uzhhorod National University.

4 Non-governmental organization, sports club or association, religious organization or small religious community, political organization (party, movement), student union or other representative membership, art group, charitable organization, other group or organization.
Table 1. Effects on students’ volunteering and on the voluntary group membership index (logistic regression Exp(B) and the significance of Wald statistics and linear regression Betas and their significance) N=2199

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Dependent variable</th>
<th>volunteering Exp(B), sign. (Wald stat.)</th>
<th>group membership index Beta (sign.)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Gender (1: male)</td>
<td>0.827 (0.075*)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hungary</td>
<td>0.840 (-0.123**)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Romania</td>
<td>1.871**(0.060)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ukraine</td>
<td>0.685 (0.098**)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Slovakia</td>
<td>1.144 (-0.059)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mother's years of education</td>
<td>1.023</td>
<td>0.037</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Father's years of education</td>
<td>0.953</td>
<td>-0.021</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Objective financial situation of the family based on the possession of durable consumer goods (index, 0–9)</td>
<td>1.073</td>
<td>0.013</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Subjective financial situation of the family compared to the student's peers (1–5)</td>
<td>0.949</td>
<td>-0.055</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Objective financial situation of the student based on the possession of durable consumer goods (index, 0–6))</td>
<td>0.913</td>
<td>-0.011</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Subjective financial situation of the student (1–4)</td>
<td>1.042</td>
<td>0.021</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Place of residence at the age of 14 (1: urban)</td>
<td>1.207</td>
<td>0.052</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Frequency of praying (1–7)</td>
<td>0.992</td>
<td>0.005</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Frequency of churchgoing (1–5)</td>
<td>1.427***</td>
<td>0.223***</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Index for the relationship with parents</td>
<td>0.950**</td>
<td>-0.074*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Index for the relationship with faculty</td>
<td>1.065**</td>
<td>0.117***</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Index for the relationship with university peers</td>
<td>1.050</td>
<td>0.016</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Index for the relationship with external friends</td>
<td>1.081**</td>
<td>0.033</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Learning achievement</td>
<td>1.070**</td>
<td>0.177***</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Arts and social sciences</td>
<td>0.873</td>
<td>-0.021</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

5 Concerning the country of the institution the reference group was Serbia.
6 The social capital indexes are based on statements, which measured several areas of the relationship; the higher level of the index shows relationship that is more complex.
7 Concerning the field of study, the reference group was the “other” category.
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<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Dependent variable</th>
<th>volunteering</th>
<th>group membership index</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Exp(B), sign. (Wald stat.)</td>
<td>Beta (sign.)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Business and economics</td>
<td>0.426**</td>
<td>-0.009</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sciences, computer science, engineering</td>
<td>0.807</td>
<td>0.009</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pedagogy</td>
<td>0.761</td>
<td>-0.017</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Paid work</td>
<td>2.602***</td>
<td>0.100**</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Nagelkerke R-squared = 0.221
Adj. R-squared = 0.152

The significance levels are marked thus: *** for significance below 0.000, ** for significance between 0.001 and 0.01, * for significance between 0.01 and 0.05.

The likelihood of volunteering is higher for students who live in Romania, attend church more often, and have closer ties with faculty and friends but have a relatively distant relationship with their parents. Those with better academic performance are also more willing to do volunteer work. Compared to the control group, students in business and economics programs are less likely to engage in volunteering. At the same time, paid employment increases the likelihood of volunteer work.

Voluntary group membership is more frequent among male students, regular church attendees, and those who have a good relationship with instructors but have a less close relationship with their parents. Voluntary group membership is also more common among those with better academic performance, paid employees, and students in Ukraine, while it is significantly less frequent among Hungarian students.

Overall, participation in both activities is increased by frequent church attendance, a close relationship with faculty, good academic performance, paid employment, as well as a relatively distant relationship with parents.

**Discussion**

Our first hypothesis (H1) has been corroborated: volunteering and voluntary group memberships have gradually increased among higher education students in the investigated region, although the participation rates still lag behind Western
European levels. The rise is explained, in addition to the development of democracy and civil society, by the fact that 2016 was the first year when universities in Hungary admitted students who had already completed compulsory school community service in secondary school, which can have positive impact on subsequent willingness to do volunteer work. In addition, volunteering may have been increased by a shift in the motivations behind it (see Bocsi et al., 2017). While in the past, students did not consider it important to include their voluntary activities in their curriculum vitae, today there might be a growing share of career-building volunteers in the examined region, and employers take such activities increasingly into account in job interviews. In addition, as volunteering grows among family members and friends, it can also motivate students to volunteer.

Our second hypothesis (H2) has been partially corroborated. The likelihood of volunteering is higher among Romanian residents, frequent church attendees, those who have a close relationship with faculty and external friends but have a relatively distant relationship with their parents, students with good academic performance, and paid employees. However, gender, settlement type, parental educational attainment, and the financial situation of the family and student exert no effect on volunteering, contrary to the prediction of the literature. In other words, higher cultural and financial capital does not seem to increase the likelihood of volunteering. Based on our findings, volunteering has a status-compensating effect as those from unfavourable backgrounds are also involved, and their possibly poorer academic performance might be compensated by the sense of achievement associated with volunteer work. Our presumption with respect to the field of study and the willingness to do volunteer work cannot be upheld either, although the analysis shows a lower likelihood of volunteering among students of economics and business.

Our third (H3) hypothesis has also been partially corroborated. Findings reveal that group memberships are more common among men (not women), frequent church attendees, and those who have a good relationship with faculty but have a relatively distant one with their parents. As with volunteering, better academic performance and paid student employment are positively correlated with group membership. However, participation in voluntary groups is unaffected by the parents’ educational attainment or financial status (as with volunteering). Closer peer relationships have no significant effect, either. The explanation may lie in the fact that organizations are not related to universities, while university communities are linked to the campus, which is not volunteering-focused but enables the emergence of leisure and educational communities. The reason that group membership is more common in the Ukrainian sample and less so in Hungary...
may be that the proportion of students in a minority situation, which increases the involvement in voluntary groups, is the highest in the Ukrainian sample and the lowest in the Hungarian one. Another explanation could be that in Ukraine, since the Orange Revolution, there has been an upswing in civic movements (organizational membership, volunteering, donations, etc.) as a reaction to the improper functioning of the state, whereby people compensate deficiencies through greater civic engagement (Worschech, 2017).

Conclusions

We have seen that young people’s civic engagement and volunteering in Central-Eastern Europe is relatively low, although positive changes have occurred (which we have addressed in our first hypothesis). We have shown as well, that volunteering has a positive impact on its participants, target group, and environment. We propose that higher education institutions in Eastern European regions should rely on the potential in students’ volunteering formally, that is, in an organized way or by awarding it with credits. Our data clearly show that in Romania, where volunteer work has been recognized as a form of internship since 2014, the rate of volunteering has increased significantly. Institutions could employ a dedicated professional to coordinate volunteering and “discuss” experiences. The activities offered to students in that way may also provide them with knowledge and with a variety of soft skills, which are less “transferable” by higher education institutions. In addition, it is important for policymakers of education and higher education institutions to take into account our findings on subgroups of students, which display lower civic engagement so that promoting volunteering and organizational participation among them becomes a priority.

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General Didactics
Correlation of Teachers and Pupils in the Context of Singing in Primary School

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Abstract
Singing activity is the basis of music education and its essential implementation form at all stages of general education. Voice is a primary musical instrument and an elementary means for performing that enables pupils to approach musical art in an appropriate way so that they can successfully receive, experience and evaluate it. With the research we discover and prove the importance of mastering the vocal technique of teachers, which is a prerequisite for quality singing activity in primary school. From the stated it follows that the application of a quality method of vocal technique, which teachers use both in speech and singing undoubtedly means improving the quality of singing activity in the educational process. The results also highlight important correlations between teachers and pupils in music education, and especially in singing activities, where we determine the strong influence of teachers on pupils.

Key words: singing activity, musical education, vocal technique, primary school.

Introduction
In modern society, verbal communication is increasingly important in various fields and there are many professions where voice is decisive for successful work (Verdolini, Ramig, 2001; Vilkman, 2004). The category of professions, where a healthy voice and knowledge of vocal technique are the basic conditions for
quality work, also includes the profession of a teacher. The mentioned issues are especially topical for teachers who teach music education.

Children’s development is a complex and dynamic process within the integration of motor, emotional-social and cognitive factors that are intertwined and interdependent. The insufficient presence of quality musical activity in the development of adolescent youth leaves the consequences that are visible in a later period and cannot be completely remedied. Namely, during the development and maturation of the pupil the influence of musical stimuli decreases and consequently the lack of experience and the possibility of musical engagement can slow down both the musical and intellectual development of a pupil who is very perceptive when it comes to the stimulus of the environment in the early childhood (Green, 2006). The influence of musical activities on the pupil’s comprehensive development is undoubtedly the greatest in this period, but it subsides and declines over time. Because of this, musical activity and the recognition of quality musical content are of paramount importance to the pupils in their early childhood. This allows them to be involved in various fields of their expression, which plays an important role both in the cognitive process (Gardner, 1999), as well as in the creation of a pupil’s overall personality. Quality teaching of music education is conditioned by an integrated approach and appropriate teacher’s activity which is a guarantee for quality work in the educational process. The pre-school and school period is decisive for shaping the image of an adult, and music activity and especially singing as a key music activity plays an important role therein. In the field of music education, special attention should be paid to vocal education, vocal technique and singing. Teachers are insufficiently aware of the importance of knowing the voice apparatus and mastering vocal technique. In the domain of singing activity, knowledge of different singing methods is of great importance to the teacher and the basis for the correct approach according to the pupils' developmental level. The success and interest of pupils for singing and musical activity is entirely conditioned by their surroundings and an inadequate teacher’s approach can even create an aversion to music engagement in pupils. This is especially important when talking about singing. Knowledge of vocal technique should enable the teacher to adapt to pupils and to choose appropriate techniques for the optimal development of the vocal apparatus and at the same time musical abilities.

Experts have different opinions about the time when children should start to learn vocal technique, as well as whether they should sing at all during the maturation and formation of the vocal apparatus. We agree with those (Miller, 2004) who advocate the thesis on the harmlessness of singing at any age. They condition this by the correct soft setting of the tone and proper breathing. Many
authorities on singing pedagogy advocate the learning of appropriate vocal technique in the first three years and even earlier (Philipps, 1992; Temmerman, 2000; Welch, 2000; Miller, 2001; Nelson et al., 2002), however with the correct forms and methods. The developing voice of a child possesses unique characteristics, which the method of singing teaching must adapt to (Welch, 2000). If one does not take into account the individual characteristics of a particular pupil in teaching singing, voice problems may arise in the form of illness, injuries or improper use of the voice apparatus, which is reflected both in singing and in speech (Wilson, 1987). Vocal technique education in the first triennium of the primary school is based on various strategies of singing teaching (Sabol, Blades-Zeller, 1995; Rutkowski, 2003). The condition for successful mastery of vocal technique is knowledge of the basics of human anatomy and the functioning of the vocal apparatus. The emphasis must be, from the very beginning, on proper breathing, posture, relaxation and proper orientation and tone setting. A prerequisite for vocal education is, of course, a healthy vocal apparatus (Logan-Pelhan, 2002). The vocal apparatus of children does not differ significantly from the vocal apparatus of adults. We can talk about the same anatomical and physiological characteristics in both. The only difference is in the size of individual components. Namely, in accordance with their physical development, the child also experiences voice changes that are most pronounced during the period of mutation. This is especially evident in boys when these physical changes have a very pronounced effect on the child’s voice (Cooksey, 2000). The sound qualities of the voice depend on the size and position of body’s resonance cavities, which are conditioned by age, as well as the size of the vocal cords which is also important for the ambitus of the voice. All of the above affects the voice quality. The colour of the children’s voice is mainly due to the dominance of the head resonance; there is also a resonance of the chest cavity, but to a lesser extent. For this reason, children’s voices are usually more light and relaxed compared to adult voices. Most acknowledge the common foundations, such as the use of bright and light tones with adequate muscular support, proper and relaxed posture, covering of the ears for listening to themselves and control, individual singing without a teacher, appropriate motivation in terms of praise and criticism, and syllabic singing with the text. These basics mean easier access to vocal technique learning for many children (Rutkowski, 2003; Liao, Davidson, 2007). Teachers and other music educators must be very careful when forming children’s voices and teaching vocal technique. We need to follow principles that are also important for adult singers, but are indispensable for pupils. The progression is reflected in the corresponding rhythmic and melodic exercises aimed at the development of various musical abilities (Langness, 2000; Welsh, 2000;
Silverman, 2008). With proper body posture, we can also ensure body relaxation. When singing, we should consciously activate the diaphragm breathing muscles first. The articulation will be appropriate if we initially relax the jaw, tongue and lips and open the space in the oral cavity and throat. The setting of the tone is the basis of the proper singing and we have to pay great attention to it. It affects the purity of intonation. The expansion of the voice range must be spontaneous and a long-term matter. We need to cultivate both “legato” and “staccato” singing and all intermediate stages. Dynamics and agogics as the basic components of the interpretation must be flexible and appropriate according to the requirements of the score (Greenberg, 1970; Goetze, 1985). Teachers must, in order to successfully develop and shape the voices of pupils, know and carefully select exercises for these activities and continuously implement them in music education as well as in all other musical activities (Gordon, 1985).

**Methodology of Research**

The quality of singing activities in the classroom depends on the above-mentioned competencies of the teacher who most often does not manage the vocal field in a complex way. The problem is identified in the music pedagogy in practice in the first and second cycle of the primary school, where we want to shed the light on the reasons for the established situation. We are interested in individual segments of the singing activities of teachers and pupils and the connections between them. In particular, we are interested in the influence of teachers on pupils in mastering vocal technique. Systematic and representative research of the issue in relation to the discussed problems has not been implemented in Slovenia, while elsewhere we have found research related to singing activity only for a certain segment of creative singing and reproduction.

Research goals:
- To determine the quality of singing activities in the first triennium in terms of rhythmic and melodic reproduction, dynamics and singing phrasing.
- Find out the connections and the influence of the vocal technique of teachers on the quality of students’ singing.

The study of results is based on a quantitative empirical descriptive causal non-experimental method of pedagogical empirical research.
Sample of Research

We randomly selected and included third-grade pupils of randomly selected nine-year primary schools in Slovenia who had the same teacher continuously in the first three years of education. On the basis of the random selection principle, we included a sample of 21 urban and 20 rural primary schools from different Slovenian regions. The survey involved 935 pupils and 52 teachers from 41 primary schools.

Measuring Instruments

In the research, we used a test to evaluate the quality of singing activity, which we summarized from the project Music education in the new curriculum by The Ministry of Education, Science and Sport. We adjusted it to the purpose of the research for determining the correctness of rhythmic and melodic reproduction, dynamics and phrasing, and established connections between teachers and pupils. In setting the evaluation criteria, we relied on the test Development and validation of a clarinet performance adjudication scale (Abeles, 2002), which has high reliability (Cronbach Alpha = 0.949). We previously examined and studied other numerous non-standardized and standardized tests that measure musical abilities (Stumpf, 1883; Revesz, 1954; Bentley, 1966; Lowery; 1926; Lundin, 1967), musical achievements (Colwell, 1970), musical performance (Mosher, 1925; Watkins, Farnum, 1954) and musical interests (Hevner, 1936; Seashore, 1960; Chalmers, 1978).

Statistical Methods of Processing

The data were processed with the statistical program SPSS. We performed basic statistical data processing. The measurement characteristics of the assessment scale were determined by calculating the coefficient Cronbach Alfa and by calculation of the factor analysis. To determine the normality of the data distribution we used the Kolmogorov-Smirnov test and then normalized the data.

Results With Interpretation

Analysis of Data for Determining the Correctness of Rhythmic and Melodic Reproduction, Dynamics and Phrasing in Singing

The table 1 provides descriptive statistics for individual instruments. Depending on the asymmetry coefficient (KA) and the coefficient of flattening (KS) (values should be between -1 and 1) and values of Kolmogorov-Smirnov’s test (statistical significance of the instrument), the data were normalized according to the standardized normal distribution method prior to further processing.
## Table 1. Descriptive test statistics for vocal technique and quality of singing – variables from 1 to 16

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Claims</th>
<th>Min</th>
<th>Max</th>
<th>M</th>
<th>Me</th>
<th>Mo</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>KA</th>
<th>KS</th>
<th>K-Sz sig.</th>
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<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>3.73</td>
<td>4.00</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>1.140</td>
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<td>2</td>
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<td>4.00</td>
<td>5</td>
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<td>-0.514</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
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<td>1</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>3.88</td>
<td>4.00</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>1.278</td>
<td>-0.890</td>
<td>-0.413</td>
<td>1.809</td>
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<td>1</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>3.00</td>
<td>3.00</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1.482</td>
<td>-0.075</td>
<td>-1.356</td>
<td>1.164</td>
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<td>7</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>2.87</td>
<td>2.00</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1.815</td>
<td>0.167</td>
<td>-1.850</td>
<td>1.816</td>
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<td>5</td>
<td>1.81</td>
<td>1.00</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1.496</td>
<td>1.549</td>
<td>0.669</td>
<td>3.145</td>
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<td>9</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>2.25</td>
<td>2.00</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1.297</td>
<td>0.691</td>
<td>-0.604</td>
<td>1.704</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>5</td>
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<td>1</td>
<td>1.438</td>
<td>0.712</td>
<td>-0.940</td>
<td>1.758</td>
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<td>11</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>2.17</td>
<td>1.50</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1.465</td>
<td>0.934</td>
<td>-0.581</td>
<td>2.079</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>2.15</td>
<td>2.00</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1.363</td>
<td>0.822</td>
<td>-0.683</td>
<td>2.034</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>2.22</td>
<td>2.00</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1.331</td>
<td>0.539</td>
<td>-1.198</td>
<td>2.071</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>2.25</td>
<td>2.00</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1.440</td>
<td>0.689</td>
<td>-1.008</td>
<td>2.077</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>2.44</td>
<td>1.50</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1.650</td>
<td>0.528</td>
<td>-1.452</td>
<td>2.228</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>2.38</td>
<td>2.00</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1.561</td>
<td>0.609</td>
<td>-1.263</td>
<td>1.976</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

1. The rhythm is accurate and the tempo corresponds to the prescribed one.
2. The accents are correctly performed in interaction with the text.
3. Performance takes into account the rhythmic features.
4. Appropriate agogics is present in the implementation.
5. The melody is accurate and matches the record.
6. The melody is performed precisely in terms of intonation.
7. The initial intonation of the song is accurate.
8. Performance is duophonic or harmonically supported by instrumental accompaniment.
9. There is a dynamic scale ranging from p to f in the performance.
10. Dynamics affects the intensity of singing.
11. Recorded dynamics is taken into account when performing.
12. The dynamics are appropriate according to the melody, rhythm and text.
13. Phrases are properly set up and performed.
14. When performing, there is an appropriate dynamic increase and decrease.
15. The last syllables in the phrase are correctly not emphasized and sung, withheld.
16. Long tones are performed with an appropriate intensity based on the duration of the notes.

Legend: Min – Minimum value; Max – Maximum value; M - Arithmetic mean; Me – median; Mo – modus; SD - Standard deviation; KA – asymmetry coefficient; KS – coefficient of flattening; K-Sz – Kolmogorov-Smirnov distribution normality test
From Table 1, we can see that all the recordings were evaluated and graded. The highest mean value of the grades occurs in variable 2, “The accents are correctly performed in interaction with the text.” and it is 4.10, so rhythmic pronunciation is very good in most of the recordings. The average lowest mean value is for estimates for variable 8, “Performance is duophonic or harmonically supported by instrumental accompaniment.” and it is 1.81, which means that teachers do not master the harmonic component and, in practice, singing is not accompanied by harmonic instruments.

The dispersion of the responses expressed by the standard deviation was greatest for variable 7, “The initial intonation of the song is accurate.” (SD 1.815), and the smallest in variable 2, “The accents are correctly performed in interaction with the text.” (SD 1.125) The coefficients of asymmetry for variables 1, “The rhythm is accurate and the tempo corresponds to the prescribed one.”, 2, “The accents are correctly performed in interaction with the text”, 3, “Performance takes into account the rhythmic features.”, 5, “The melody is accurate and matches the record.” and 6, “The melody is performed precisely in terms of intonation.”, show more or less asymmetry to the left, while in the other variables asymmetry is to the right. The largest deviation of the asymmetry to the left is for variable 1, “The rhythm is accurate and the tempo corresponds to the prescribed one” and to the right for variable 8, “Performance is duophonic or harmonically supported by instrumental accompaniment”. The coefficients of flattening show the most pointed response distribution for variable 2, “The accents are correctly performed in interaction with the text.” (KS 0.762), and the most flattened distribution with variable 7, “The initial intonation of the song is accurate.” (KS -1.850). With the Kolmogorov-Smirnov test we have found that all variables are normally distributed. However, for further processing, the data were normalized using the method RANKIT. The constructive validity of the scale was determined by factor analysis. Prior to the factor analysis, we measured the measurement characteristics with the method of internal consistency of the evaluation scale. The reliability coefficient Cronbach Alfa was calculated to show the measurement statistics, indicating a high degree of consistency of the test used – 0.975.

**Discussion**

As part of the variables that evaluate rhythmic reproduction in singing, we find that 61.6 % of the teachers’ rhythm is accurate and the tempo is appropriate. Accents in the text are usually correctly performed by 76.9 % of teachers.
Rhythmic specificities are taken into account by half of the teachers, and adequate agogics is present only in 25% of teachers. A number of studies show the greatest impact of continuous intense musical education on the sustainability of rhythmic development (Shuter-Dyson, Gabriel, 1981). For this reason, teachers should give more emphasis to the development of rhythmic skills in music education.

In the second set of variables that evaluate the melodic reproduction of singing, we find that for 69.2% of the teachers, the melody is accurate with regard to the record of the score. In terms of intonation, however, the melody is accurate only by 40.4% of the teachers. A similar percentage is also shown by the results of the accuracy of the initial intonation of the song, as only 42.3% of teachers know the importance of initial intonation. It is a worrying fact that only 17.3% of the teachers perform two-voice singing harmonious accompaniment. From the results, we find that in practice too little attention is paid to the accuracy of singing intonation, which may result in a lack of discrimination in tonal heights, also confirmed by other studies (Welch, 2007).

From the results we further find that the dynamic expression in singing is insufficient in the first three years. Only 7.7% of teachers have a tendency to use the dynamic scale. In a bit less than a third (26.9%) of teachers, the singing intensity is felt as a tendency for proper dynamics. The prescribed dynamics were taken into account only by 21.2% of teachers and with the same percentage also the dynamic appropriateness in regard to rhythm, melody and text.

In the last set of variables that evaluate the intensity of the phrasing, we find that there is usually no emphasis on the proper determination and performance of the phrase. In the majority of cases, it is not possible to find suitable increases and decreases either. In half of the teachers we find incorrect emphasis on light and heavy periods, while in 46.2% of teachers, longer note values are performed without adequate intensity.

**Conclusion**

The results of our research show a close connection between teachers and pupils in the field of vocal technique and singing. Testing and analyses show that pupils of teachers who use a high quality vocal technique in teaching have a sufficiently developed musical ability and a proper attitude towards singing, appropriately master vocal technique, have appropriate musical skills for their age and enjoy singing. The results undoubtedly confirm the influence of teachers on the singing and overall development of pupils as well as the importance of the teacher’s mas-
tering of the vocal technique. On the basis of our research we can emphasize that the vocal technique in the educational process plays an important role both in the singing and the speaking domains, and it should be further explored and given proper attention. This would be an additional good basis for accepting vocal technique as an important element of musical education and the educational process in general, as a skill that teachers at any level and in any field must satisfactorily master and thus ensure a higher quality of teaching. This is essential for the music field; teachers should be aware that pupils have the right to good music education, which is also conditioned by, inter alia, appropriate vocal technique and singing activity.

References


Method to Teach Korean History to Migrant Brides in Korea from China, Vietnam, and Japan

DOI: 10.15804/tner.2020.62.4.09

Abstract
To find a more effective teaching method, the acceptance of migrant brides from China, Vietnam, and Japan of Korean history was investigated using the survey method. Four types of teaching methods were investigated. Before participating in the survey, migrant brides from Vietnam preferred the cramming teaching method (CTM), and those from China and Japan favored an audiovisual teaching method (ATM). However, after experiencing four types of teaching methods for a week—the CTM, ATM, comparative-history teaching method (CHTM), and discussion teaching method (DTM)—participants from Vietnam indicated the highest preference for ATM, whereas those from Japan and China preferred CHTM. Ultimately, this study demonstrated that a comparative-history teaching method is most effective for teaching migrant brides from countries with a history of recurrent cultural conflicts with Korea.

Key words: history education, cramming teaching method, comparative-history teaching method, discussion teaching method, audiovisual teaching method

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1 This work was supported by the Hankuk University of Foreign Studies Research Fund of 2020.
Introduction

The number of migrant brides coming to Korea is increasing. While there were 82,828 of such women in 2006, this figure increased to 107,799 in 2008 and 137,094 in 2020 (2019 Annual Report on Korea Immigration Service, Ministry of Justice). Regarding their country of origin, China takes the lead, followed by Vietnam and Japan. For their region of residence, 53% live in the capital area of Seoul and Gyeonggi-do, and the rest in provincial areas (e.g., Chungcheong, Jeolla, and Gyeongsang).

Fervor for education began to sweep across Korea in the 1980s. The generation of parents who did not receive a proper education was highly dedicated and determined to ensure the education of their own sons and daughters. Incidentally, female students who left home to attend school in Seoul also found employment in the capital city and settled there after graduation, which made it difficult for the unmarried men in rural areas to find future spouses. As a result, there was a large number of unmarried men in Korea’s rural regions, creating a grave social issue. In response, local governments launched a large-scale campaign to marry off these unmarried men (Yonhap News Agency, 2011–10–19). International marriage swiftly flourished because of the coinciding interest of women who admired the Korean culture and hoped to move there. Moreover, local governments welcomed them to pair with unmarried local men and revitalize the collapsing rural areas.

Among neighboring countries, Koreans preferred women from countries that shared the Confucian culture (Hwang, 2002), namely China and Japan in East Asia and Vietnam in Southeast Asia. Among the women from the three countries, the Korean-Chinese from China were particularly preferred because they were able to better communicate and shared similar customs, since their parents, as emigrants from Korea, were from the same ethnic group (Lee, 1994; Han & Gwon, 1994). In short, there was an element of convenience when living with these women. Similarly, women from Vietnam were also favored as brides because of shared Confucian customs like obedience to parents and showing respect towards men. Likewise, Korean men also liked Japanese women, who are seen as submissive and are from the same cultural sphere.

Given the aforementioned, what are the lives of these migrant brides like in Korea? Are their relations with Koreans amicable? Historically, Korea has experienced small and large clashes and conflicts with neighboring countries, and Koreans still harbor lingering resentment against people from these places. Nevertheless, women from these countries marry into Korea because of the shared
Confucian culture. In a multicultural household, this historic problem is not something of the past, but persists into the present.

Evidently, the historical problem is becoming an important factor affecting the lives of migrant brides. In other words, sharing historical recognition with Koreans not only affects their relationship with their husbands and parents-in-law, but is also vital to their coexistence with other Koreans. Nevertheless, there is yet to be systematic history education targeted towards migrant brides in Korea. In reality, neither a specialized history textbook directed toward them nor an established systematic teaching method exists. Currently, education fails to explain how to resolve conflicts that arise between previously learned history education from home countries and Korean history education taught upon arrival.

Awareness of this problem was the starting point of this study. Sharing the same historical recognition as Koreans is an important factor in terms of leading a smooth life in Korea. For this reason, this study examined the Korean history recognition of women from the three countries that married most into Korea (China, Vietnam, and Japan) and proposed the most effective method to teach it. A quantitative survey was conducted, followed by a qualitative survey through in-depth interviews to reach a well-rounded conclusion. To identify the most effective teaching method, four teaching methods were tested on the three groups, which were divided by country of origin.

Research and methodology

There were two parts to this study. First, quantitative and qualitative surveys were conducted over a 14-day period starting on December 1, 2019. Second, another survey was conducted to investigate changes after giving lectures that employed the four teaching methods for a week. The survey participants were 99 migrant brides in Korea, who came from China, Vietnam, and Japan. To be consistent with the number of participants per country, 33 were selected from each group.

In total, 90 samples were used in the analysis. Nine surveys were excluded, as they were deemed undependable or problematic. The quantitative survey consisted of 10 items in total (general history, religion, and interrelations). For the qualitative survey, 15 women – 5 from each country – were selected for the in-depth interviews. To identify an effective teaching method, the migrant brides were given lectures using four teaching method types for a week: the cramming teaching method (CTM), audiovisual teaching method (ATM), comparative-history teaching method (CHTM), and discussion teaching method (DTM). They
were then surveyed on the method they most preferred (Moon, Nam, & Kim, 2014; 2017). The investigation led to the finding of meaningful outcomes.

The purpose of this study was to find a way to effectively teach Korean history to migrant brides coming to Korea. Women from the three countries were selected as the subjects of this study because of their shared commonalities of Confucian culture (Nam, Kim, & Kim, 2016) and the history of engaging in war with Korea. Through quantitative and qualitative surveys, it was possible to identify the difficulties and problems migrant brides face when accepting the history of a foreign country. Careful attention is considered necessary when teaching history to those in a similar cultural sphere since there is a history of cultural clashes. There is also the possibility that previously learned history in their mother countries becomes an obstacle when accepting the history and culture of the target country, and past history continues into and impacts the present time.

**Sample: Degree of Korean history recognition**

As of 2020, 137,094 migrant brides are married to Korean men, of which 86% are from China, Vietnam, and Japan. The highest number are women from China including those who are Korean-Chinese at 44% (60,324), followed by those from Vietnam at 32% (44,172) and Japan at 10% (14,184) (Monthly Report of Korea Immigration Service (April, 2020), Ministry of Justice). In this regard, how should the women from these countries, who constitute the majority of migrant brides in Korea, be educated on Korean history? Before developing a systematic approach to education, the degree of recognition of basic Korean history was investigated with a focus on general historical knowledge, religion and culture, and relations between the two countries.

**Table 1.** Degree of recognition of migrant brides from the three countries of general Korean history as well as religion and culture (n=90)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Category</th>
<th>China</th>
<th>Vietnam</th>
<th>Japan</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Correct answer</td>
<td>Incorrect answer</td>
<td>Correct answer</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1. How long is Korean history?</td>
<td>18%</td>
<td>82%</td>
<td>40%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Who is the finding person of China?</td>
<td>24%</td>
<td>76%</td>
<td>59%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. What is the average length of Korean dynasties?</td>
<td>13%</td>
<td>87%</td>
<td>48%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
According to Table 1, the degree of recognition of Korean history as well as religion and culture by migrant brides from the three countries was not high and the rate of correct answers varied depending on their country of origin. Those from China and Japan tended to observe Korean history from the historical viewpoint of their own countries (Kim & Jeong, 2004; Yu, 2005), while those from Vietnam formed knowledge based on what they were taught, as the country is historically less involved than the other two countries.

Specifically, migrant brides from China had the lowest rate of correct answers (13%) for the question on the average length of Korean dynasties. This is because no Chinese-formed dynasty survived more than 300 years during the traditional era. Furthermore, for the question on the timespan of Korea’s history, they had difficulty grasping that Korea has a history of 5,000 years (including the beginning of Korea in the Dangun legend). This is because the history of their own country spans about 3,000 years. This tendency was also evident in their responses to “What is the indigenous religion in Korea?” For this, 43% of Chinese migrant brides wrongly answered Confucianism, and only 19% gave the correct answer: “no religion (shamanism).” Migrant brides from Japan displayed similar tendencies as their Chinese counterparts, in that they had a low rate of correct answers for questions on indigenous religion (20%) and average length of Korean dynasties (28%). They tended to consider as important the influence of Japan’s Shintoism, their indigenous faith, in Korea during the Japanese colonial period (33%). In addition, they had difficulty recognizing (rate of incorrect answers of 72%) that the average length of Korean dynasties is more than 500 years, because dynasty shifts frequently occurred during the Japanese traditional era. On the other hand, unlike their Chinese and Japanese counterparts, migrant brides from Vietnam relied on learned knowledge, as their country is historically less involved than the two other countries. As a result, the women from Vietnam had a higher rate of correct answers than those from China and Japan for the four questions on

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Category</th>
<th>China</th>
<th>Vietnam</th>
<th>Japan</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>4. What is the indigenous faith of Koreans?</td>
<td>19%</td>
<td>41%</td>
<td>20%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. Who created Hangeul?</td>
<td>56%</td>
<td>54%</td>
<td>63%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. What is the color that Koreans favor the most?</td>
<td>33%</td>
<td>32%</td>
<td>38%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
the length of Korean history (40%), beginning of Korea (59%), average length of Korean dynasties (48%), and indigenous religion (41%).

The migrant brides from the three countries were also surveyed on the degree of recognition of the historical relation between Korea and their home country. A common question on the size of Korea’s economy was also asked.

**Table 2.** Degree of recognition of migrant brides from the three countries of the relation between Korea and their home country (n=90)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Category</th>
<th>China</th>
<th>Vietnam</th>
<th>Japan</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. When did the Korean War take place?</td>
<td>51%</td>
<td>38%</td>
<td>25%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>49%</td>
<td>62%</td>
<td>75%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. When did the Imjin War take place?</td>
<td>38%</td>
<td>31%</td>
<td>43%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>62%</td>
<td>69%</td>
<td>57%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. When did Korea become involved in the Vietnam War?</td>
<td>35%</td>
<td>63%</td>
<td>29%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>65%</td>
<td>37%</td>
<td>71%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. The Korean economy ranks 10th in the world.</td>
<td>35%</td>
<td>37%</td>
<td>28%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>65%</td>
<td>63%</td>
<td>72%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Based on the wars between Korea and China, Vietnam, and Japan during the traditional era, the questions provided in Table 2 investigated how migrant brides perceived the relation between Korea and their mother countries. In the case of the Korean War that started in 1950, women from China had a relatively high rate of correct answers (51%) compared to those from Japan (25%) and Vietnam (38%), since the Chinese army sent soldiers on a massive scale under the pretext of “resisting America and aiding Korea” (Choi & Moon, 2006). Regarding the Imjin War, in which Japan invaded Korea in 1592, the highest rate of correct responses was from the Japanese migrant brides (43%). Likewise, the Korean army entered the Vietnam War (war with America in the process of unifying Vietnam, 1960–1975) as an ally of the United States, and the migrant brides from Vietnam regard it as playing an important role in the relation between Korea and Vietnam. The rate of correct responses was 63%.

In-depth interviews were conducted to analyze how the migrant brides perceived the relation between Korea and their home countries, which investigated their thoughts on who caused the war, how it proceeded, and the consequences thereof. The interviews revealed that Chinese migrant brides remember the Korean War as fighting against American imperialism by supporting North Korea. The
migrant brides from Japan also held distorted views in that “despite causing much pain during Japan’s colonization of Korea for 36 years between 1910 and 1945, such as prohibiting the use of the Korean language, it also provided much support to Korea.” On the other hand, the migrant brides from Vietnam were proud that their country defeated the United States and other powerful countries during the Vietnam War.

The findings of the quantitative and qualitative surveys show that the migrant brides from the three countries tended to recognize Korean history through knowledge previously acquired in their home countries. Based on the quantitative and qualitative findings of Korean history recognition by migrant brides from the three countries, a more effective teaching method was explored. Table 3 summarizes the results of the survey on the most effective teaching method from the views of the migrant brides.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Category</th>
<th>%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Cramming teaching method (CTM)</td>
<td>31%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Audiovisual teaching method (ATM)</td>
<td>36%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Comparative-history teaching method (CHTM)</td>
<td>23%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Discussion teaching method (DTM)</td>
<td>11%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The migrant brides from the three countries chose ATM as most effective (36%), followed by CTM (31%), CHTM (23%), and DTM (11%). Table 4 summarizes the findings regarding the most preferred teaching method for each country.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Category</th>
<th>China</th>
<th>Vietnam</th>
<th>Japan</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>CTM</td>
<td>30%</td>
<td>41%</td>
<td>21%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ATM</td>
<td>34%</td>
<td>35%</td>
<td>38%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CHTM</td>
<td>25%</td>
<td>10%</td>
<td>34%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DTM</td>
<td>101%</td>
<td>14%</td>
<td>7%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

While migrant brides from Vietnam preferred CTM, where they take in what is taught by a teacher, those from China and Japan preferred ATM for learning Korean history, which entails watching and listening to material. Since China, Vietnam, and Japan share the Confucian culture, they all indicated their different
degrees of preference for CTM (Moon & Nam, 2018) (Vietnam (41%), China (30%), and Japan (21%)). Furthermore, the women from countries with stronger conflicting relations and cultural clashes with Korea–Japan colonized Korea for 36 years (1910–1945) and China invaded Korea several times – attempted to understand Korean history by comparing it with the history of their home country.

**Results:**

**The most effective teaching method**

To examine changes from the most effective and preferred teaching methods, four types of teaching methods were implemented for a week (December 15–21, 2019). The migrant brides from China, Vietnam, and Japan were divided into 3 classes in respect to their countries of origin with 30 people in each, and the 4 teaching methods were employed during all lectures for each class. For each teaching method, three topics were taught for two hours.

Specifically, for CTM, the Korean dynasties were divided into four periods: the three Kingdoms of Korea (BC 57–918), Goryeo Kingdom (918–1392), Joseon dynasty (1392–1910), and the period when Korea was under Japanese rule (1910–1945). The characteristics, religion, and culture of each dynasty were presented. Next, for ATM, three topics were selected – the effects of Confucianism on people’s thoughts and behaviour, cases of Korea-Japan conflicts during the Japanese colonial period, and spread and acceptance of culture (e.g., Japanese animations, K-pop) – and a relevant video was shown. The migrant brides then evaluated the learning effect of the video. Furthermore, for CTM, three major historical events that took place between Korea and each of the three countries were selected: the Imjin War (Japanese invasion of Korea in 1592), Korean War (Chinese support for North Korea by sending its army when North Korea invaded the South in 1950), and Vietnam War (Korea sent its army to fight in the war). A two-hour lecture was presented on each. Last, for DTM, three topics were selected: Korean dining, housing culture, and rites of passage. Participants were required to evaluate the usefulness of the discussions.

After 24 hours of lectures over a one-week period, the participants were asked: “What is the most effective method for understanding the interrelationships between the three countries and Korean history and culture?” Table 5 provides the results for this question.
Table 5. What is the most effective teaching method for you? (n=90)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Category</th>
<th>b</th>
<th>a</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>CTM</td>
<td>31</td>
<td>22</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ATM</td>
<td>36</td>
<td>33</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CHTM</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>36</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DTM</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note: Before the education = b; After the education = a

A noteworthy finding is the change in the response for the most effective teaching method compared to the time before participating in the survey. Prior to the survey, migrant brides selected ATM (36%) as the most effective method for understanding Korean history. However, after experiencing the four types of teaching methods for one-week, they indicated CHTM as the most effective (36%), followed by ATM (33%). Table 6 shows the results.

Table 6. What is your most preferred teaching method? (n=90)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Category</th>
<th>China</th>
<th>Vietnam</th>
<th>Japan</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>b</td>
<td>a</td>
<td>b</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CTM</td>
<td>30%</td>
<td>16%</td>
<td>41%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ATM</td>
<td>34%</td>
<td>30%</td>
<td>35%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CHTM</td>
<td>25%</td>
<td>35%</td>
<td>10%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DTM</td>
<td>11%</td>
<td>19%</td>
<td>14%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note: Before the education = b; After the education = a

This change is also apparent in the responses for the most preferred teaching method. Migrant brides from China and Japan indicated a preference for ATM prior to the survey (China (34%), Japan (38%)), but after the lectures, they preferred CHTM (China (35%), and Japan (42%)). On the other hand, Vietnamese migrant brides initially preferred CTM (41%), but switched to ATM (40%) after the lectures.

These findings imply that while ATM is undoubtedly an effective teaching method, as it arouses interest and is dynamic, CHTM is the more effective method when trying to understand the history of neighboring countries where historical clashes and conflicts exist. According to the level of preference for CHTM, the preference of Japanese migrant brides increased more than that of the Chinese...
When attempting to understand the history of neighboring countries, the findings of this study demonstrate that the larger the conflict between two countries, the more effective is CTM for reducing a culture clash and learning the history of a target country. The reason the women preferred CHTM was investigated to clarify its usefulness, as shown in Table 7.

**Table 7. Why do you prefer the comparative-history teaching method?**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Category</th>
<th>%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Identify differences</td>
<td>17%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Decrease cultural conflicts</td>
<td>42%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Expand understanding of Korean culture</td>
<td>27%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Objectively observe and understand history</td>
<td>14%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

It was found that through CHTM, the migrant brides were able to decrease the discrepancy between the historical knowledge learned in their home country and that in Korea (42%). The teaching method also expanded their understanding of Korean culture (27%). In short, it was demonstrated that CHTM, which points out differences between two countries, is most effective in bringing about acceptance of the history of neighboring countries.

**Conclusion**

This study investigated the most effective method of teaching Korean history to migrant brides from China, Vietnam, and Japan. It was shown that before participating in the survey, the women from China and Japan preferred ATM, which aroused interest, and those from Vietnam preferred CTM. However, after a week of lectures, the Chinese and Japanese migrant brides preferred CHTM. The preference of the Vietnamese migrant brides for CHTM increased most by 20%.

The study found that CHTM, which mutually compares the history of two countries, was most effective for teaching the history of neighboring countries where conflicts still exist. In other words, in the cases of the three East Asian countries (Korea, China, and Japan), there were limitations to accepting the history of their neighbors because this history was taught based on nationalism-oriented narratives (Wang, 2005).
This tendency became more apparent for countries where invasions and antagonism persisted. In the case of Korea, China, and Japan, while there were periods of cordiality, wars were frequent and there is the somber history of colonization, which made room for the subjective interpretation of criticizing the other country or emphasizing the superiority of one’s own history (Kim, 2005). Furthermore, this phenomenon worsened when some politicians used history to rile the other country or educate the people as a means to further their political career. As a result, they became obstacles for the migrant brides in accepting the history of Korea.

According to the findings of this study, CTM, which is based on facts and compares the history between the home and target country, is the most effective for migrant brides in bringing about acceptance of the history of another country.

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Distance Learning in the Polish and Korean Universities During COVID-19 Pandemic

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Abstract
At work, distance learning methods have been compared in Silesian University of Technology in Gliwice (Poland) and Hankuk University of Foreign Studies in Seoul (South Korea). The results of the empirical research among the academic teachers and students conducted in both universities are similar: distance learning is not satisfying for both groups and it is not effective.

Key words: Poland, South Korea, distance learning, university, e-learning, e-class

Introduction

COVID-19, which is the name of the disease induced by the SARS-CoV-2 virus (Gorbalenya A.E., 2020a), caused that almost all schools in the world closed down in the first months of 2020. It is estimated that over 1.2 billion children had to leave their classrooms in March 2020. As a result, a dramatic change has taken place in world education: we have moved from direct education to distance e-learning education, in which the learning process uses various digital platforms. During this time, thousands of libraries were also closed, and therefore access to bibliographic sources deteriorated significantly (see UNESCO, 2020–03–19). It can be

1 This work was supported by the Hankuk University of Foreign Studies Research Fund of 2020 as well as by the Silesian University of Technology Research Fund of 2020.
concluded that schools and universities have never before experienced such a high level of disorder, which has affected all generations: preschool children, pupils, students and parents, often forced to telework. Earlier research suggested that online learning allows for more information accumulation, takes less time, can be done anytime and anywhere, therefore the changes caused by the coronavirus should not negatively affect the drastically changed form of teaching-learning.

This global crisis caused by the pandemic has brought education in all countries into the digital world. Due to COVID-19, many schools started the educational process using the Zoom mobile video program. OECD developed the principles of education in times of a pandemic in the form of distance learning (UNESCO, 2020–03–10).

Learners, teachers and parents tried to pass on to other schools the good practice in distance education, i.e. effective, efficient and positive experiences in the teaching-learning process (see Pearson, 2020; A.E. Gorbalenya et al., 2020b). The new environment of digital distance education began to be intensively diagnosed in various countries in the spring, recognized by its participants, and local online education experts began to emerge from among them.

Since March 2020, many professional colleges and universities in various countries have implemented distance online education to deliver their study programs, and this has in turn resulted in changes to class planning, the replenishment of the media and teaching materials (lots of hardware and software had to be purchased) and university campuses. The initial optimism was gradually diminishing due to the emerging problems with computer hardware, outdated software, difficulties with streaming information (sound, image or video recordings), because not all students had access to broadband Internet and many of them also had older versions of computers, as well as exhaustion associated with many hours of interactions in the e-class, more and more time devoted to browsing didactic materials received from academic teachers, or the lack of free time to pursue one’s interests and recreation. Since we received such signals from academic teachers and students in the first months of mass distance education, it prompted us to undertake empirical research on this subject.

Cultural foundations of education in Poland and South Korea

Education in both countries is strongly influenced by culture (see S. Juszczyk, 2020). Culture in South Korea is more collectivist, heavily influenced by the philosophy of Confucius (Lee J.K., 1986; Yun S.S., 1996), according to which learners,
while remaining modest, participate in numerous and in-depth interpersonal interactions (in the classroom and with peers) and in education; learners function in the society that supports them. Poland is dominated by an individualistic culture, in which people pay more attention only to their own affairs and the matters of their closest family. There are values in individuals that can be disseminated through open verbal communication. But in both countries studied, one can find high-power distance cultures, where everyone has a legitimate place in society, and this means respecting older, more educated people and the importance of the achieved social status. This implies that there is a clear hierarchy between teachers and learners, and learners tend to show respect to teachers and try to avoid conflict situations, especially in Korean education. These selected similarities and differences directly affect the culture of organization and leadership in education systems in Poland and South Korea (cf. S. Juszczyk, YD Kim, 2017, pp. 132–143).

Open, flexible and distance learning in the studied countries

The roles of self-education (self-study, self-development) and digital media (cf. S. Juszczyk, S. Kim, 2018, pp. 124–136) as well as indirect methods of communication are increasing in both countries, which contributes to the development and subsequent development of open education, flexible learning, open educational resources and social learning (S. Juszczyk, YD. Kim, 2016, pp. 163–173). Let us characterize the above-mentioned concepts and discuss their significance in the contemporary educational reality.

Open education is the concept of how people can produce, disseminate and construct their knowledge. Open learning enthusiasts believe that every individual should have access to high-quality educational or bibliographic sources, and the barriers preventing this access should be eliminated. The following factors may constitute the barriers: the costs of developing and publishing bibliographic sources, the existence of outdated sources as well as legal limitations of cooperation between learners and teachers, especially regarding the provision of teaching materials. Collaboration and enabling access have become the most distinctive features of open education because education provides knowledge and allows information to be shared between stakeholders.

Flexible learning is synonymous with open education, including the so-called blended learning, e-learning and distance learning (S. Juszczyk, 2002; UNESCO, 2002), personalized learning and learning based on the use of internet sources (web-based learning). These types of learning play an important role in broaden-
ing the educational opportunities of people from different regions of the world. They can directly expand access to higher education and increase the effectiveness of learning through work and learning in a social group.

Distance learning is a type of providing education and didactic material to learners who are not physically in a traditional place, such as a classroom or lecture hall. It can also be called „fostered open learning” which has the following characteristics: (a) flexible - because learners work where they once chose their place according to their professions, families and different commitments or responsibilities; (b) all-inclusive, as all learners receive high-quality teaching materials necessary for their studies; (c) social – because the learners, experiencing the tutorship of teachers together, participate in online conferences, study online and participate in organized forms of courses, therefore they follow the social learning characteristics given by J.S. Brown and R.P. Adler (2008).

Until the current pandemic, e-learning was mainly used at university and in senior grades of high school. In accordance with the orders of university chancellors, this form of education could be used in the implementation of specific subjects or courses or intended for people with specific disabilities, including motor or sensory disabilities (visual and hearing impairment), for people living far from academic centers and for people who, due to the nature of their work, could not participate in face-to-face studies. However, in the time of the pandemic, all primary schools, secondary schools and higher education institutions have had to fully implement the distance learning process. That is, millions of learners around the world had to undertake distance learning online or offline in their home. During the implementation of this form of learning, the following technical, social, cultural and methodological problems arise: quality and equipment of the computer, as well as its educational and communication software, access to computers (especially in large families, for people who do telework and are forced to share a computer with children, access to computers in orphanages or foster families), or the level of teachers’ preparation to use ICT, their equipment and software of various quality and often lack thereof, and the lack of advanced educational platforms in schools and universities. Schools and universities tried to overcome these difficulties by purchasing new hardware and software, organizing training for teachers and developing educational platforms. For these reasons, we decided to undertake empirical research to diagnose the existing difficulties on the part of universities and students, and to learn about the opinions of students and academic teachers during the summer semester of the 2019/2020 academic year in Poland and South Korea based on intentionally selected universities in these countries: Silesian University of
Technology in Gliwice (Poland) and Hankuk University of Foreign Studies in Seoul (South Korea).

**Distance education platform at the Silesian University of Technology (Poland)**

The LAN administrator in the Institute of Education and Communication Research at the Silesian University of Technology (SUT) said in an interview that the Distance Education Platform (DEP) at SUT was prepared before the pandemic to support approximately 90% of all subjects in the study networks implemented in university as well as courses that were intended solely for distance education. Due to the content of the education, the university purchased the full version of the Corel software ([https://www.polsl.pl/pomoc/strony; https://cze.polsl.pl/witamy.aspx.](https://www.polsl.pl/pomoc/strony; https://cze.polsl.pl/witamy.aspx)). The Moodle platform used offers the following options: (a) publishing the content of all university sources, (b) publishing or sending teaching materials by academic teachers in the most popular formats, (c) sending information to students, (d) synchronous communication: chat, multimedia conference, e.g. BigBlueButton, Skype, Google Hangouts, Zoom.us, (e) asynchronous communication: forum, e-mail, (f) interaction with students through: tasks, quizzes, (g) managing the education process by: registering students’ participation in e-classroom, analysis of their activity and learning outcomes, evaluation and self-evaluation. DEP has a well-structured user interface for teaching and self-study work, however, it shows poor operational fluidity during peak hours where academics and students use the platform. The Zoom communicator is very helpful in conducting online meetings, during which academic teachers can talk to students in real time, they can divide them into groups and carry out classes in such a way as to increase their attractiveness. Sharing the screen with meeting participants becomes very important for all participants in an online session. These two types of distance learning platforms are effective for both engineering and social science and humanities students. The only difficulty is the implementation of practice and laboratory activities. Some of the laboratory activities can be carried out with the help of computer simulations or videos presenting technical issues. In turn, in virtual classes, one can teach computer programming.

In mid-March 2020, the Chancellor of SUT issued a decree regarding the implementation of all classes in a distance manner, which was then supported by intensive training of academic teachers, carried out by local LAN administrators and the University’s Distance Education Center. The existing educational proce-
dures were reorganized and vice-chancellors, deans, institute directors and heads of departments implemented e-learning methods and principles in each university unit. We learn to support our students in problematic situations through their analysis, discussion and implementation of good practices in the teaching and learning process.

**Opinions of academics and SUT students on open education during the pandemic**

In the course of empirical research, written categorized interviews were conducted with: 2 LAN administrators, 18 academic teachers (professors, doctors and masters) in engineering and pedagogy, and 25 full-time students of pedagogy. The results of the interviews were transcribed with regard to their content and the language used.

Academics confirmed that they have high-quality computers purchased from research funds, equipped with the latest educational and specialized software. Their use is under systematic technical control of administrators and IT specialists, which results in the effective use of IT resources. As for many academic teachers the continuous process of distance education is a new phenomenon, appropriate and detailed procedures and activities have been introduced to control the distance learning process.

In the interview, many academic teachers recalled the time when they started their studies at university and called this period „the first stage, related to learning in lecture rooms, with written tables and later displayed slides containing many comments, tables and drawings or diagrams”. „During our professional career, we observed the evolution of” stage two, in which we continued to physically teach students in lecture halls or classrooms, but the use of ICT (new media in general, as well as the visualization of complex phenomena and processes, computer simulations, advanced statistical computing on supercomputers, design methods, etc.) in the didactic process increased”. As the world is currently experiencing another autumn wave of new infections in 2020, distance learning will continue in both universities and an increasing proportion of schools as the infection rate increases and teachers and students are quarantined. Therefore, in the opinion of the respondents, „the next stage of education will go beyond the replicated lectures so far”. „Therefore, we need to ask ourselves, how we can make e-classroom learning more effective, how we can make it more interesting or even enjoyable?” The respondents also believe that higher education has the character of lifelong
education, therefore the skills developed during the pandemic will certainly be used in self-education.

One professor at the Institute of Education and Communication Research, who used the tools of the Moodle and Zoom platforms in his distance teaching, said: “They changed the way of educating. They allow me to be more efficient and effective in working with students than a group chat, video meeting, speaking options and sharing teaching materials, especially when it occurs during the pandemic. My students prefer to communicate within the Moodle platform. I will continue to use Moodle even after the pandemic is over because I believe offline learning and e-learning can be used parallelly.” Whereas prof. T. Wieczorek, head of the Department of Industrial Computer Science, together with his co-workers says that: “The lack of direct contact with students makes certain issues difficult to carry out, especially those during which the student should independently demonstrate their skills or knowledge. An important issue is also to assess the ability of individual students to use not only bibliographic sources or various teaching materials (provided to them or independently found) and to distinguish these activities from the help of colleagues in completing tests, solving problems (tasks), obtaining credits or passing exams online. During synchronous direct learning, an academic teacher observes the work of students and its results, their independence or the ability to work in a group, including interactions: teacher-student or student-student, being able to assess them more objectively and be sure that a specific student is the author of the analyzed product of the action.”

In general, the surveyed academic teachers believe that distance education does not give any of them as much satisfaction as face-to-face teaching, especially when students are not visible on the computer screen during a lecture, exercise or seminar because they turn off the vision or insert their own photo (icon), only simulating their presence. It also happens that the software owned by students does not allow academic teachers to interact with them. Teachers also lack eye contact with the audience. They also stressed that their online teaching time had become three times longer than that needed to conduct synchronized classes, and they had doubts as to whether both modes of education were equally effective. In the interviews, academic teachers considered the most effective classes conducted synchronously with students, during which many emerging problems could be solved immediately.

According to the surveyed SUT academic teachers, the biggest technical problems of distance education include: (a) the class of computers and software used by teachers and students; (b) internet connection stability; (c) its capacity.

In a categorized written interview, pedagogy students confirmed that they most often use the Moodle e-learning platform in their distance education, due to its
clear interface, allowing for correct and clear categorization of both types of classes and issues, tasks, meetings, discussion threads and other activities. They use Moodle to communicate seamlessly with each other, create multimedia presentations for distance learning, and use Moodle to submit their works for evaluation. They participate in lectures and seminars conducted using the Zoom video conference program. According to the respondents, the most important advantage of Zoom is the stability of their servers, so there are no problems with connecting to a large group of students, the bandwidth needed to send audio and video or the quality of data transferred, although it can also be determined by the varying stability of Internet connections owned by students.

According to the students, the websites and applications of the Moodle platform were well developed, and all modules, along with the necessary links, were launched on time. The students, like the academics, believe that distance learning takes them longer than synchronous learning, as well as obtaining credits and passing exams. The students complain that as a result of online and offline learning they receive large amounts of didactic materials from the lecturers that they should review, understand and add to the structures of their knowledge. This also applies to the need to read the manuals of new IT tools that they use every day in their distance studies. Handing such large information packages to the students was also related to the fact that the university’s libraries were closed. During the realization of the course, individual students repeatedly interacted with academic teachers, which significantly increased their learning time, as well as the time devoted to them by teachers. In order to obtain credits in various subjects, the students had to send substantial files of structured information, the preparation of which took a long time and required a greater effort, due to the increased level of individual analysis of literature, found not only in student libraries, but most of all searched on the global network. Therefore, the students emphasized that in order to obtain credits or pass exams, their daily learning extended until late at night.

This situation also directly influenced the number and frequency of interactions between students in their group. Students emphasized that during synchronous learning they could contact each other more often and longer, while learning in a virtual group, due to the large amount of time devoted to the preparation of materials for assessment, social contacts were reduced to a minimum, but, as students emphasized, therefore more effective.
Distance education platform
at Hankuk University of Foreign Studies (Korea)

The Learning Management System (LMS) of Hankuk University of Foreign Studies (HUFS) is based on a program, which is called „e-class” (https://eclass.hufs.ac.kr/ilos/main_form.acl) and it was already prepared before the pandemic for students and lecturers to access from normal web browsers as well as application software for smart phones. But e-class system has been running as a supplementary instrument mostly for offline education and both lecturers and students have been interactively utilized e-class for conducting efficient offline classes.

However, since COVID 19 situation occurred in the beginning of this year, the enhancement of HUFS e-class system has been needed and become more import because the online classes have been asked to be conducted for the lecturers by the university after two weeks trial period in the first semester of this year in March. For online classes, HUFS fundamentally supports the usage of an online real-time conference program Webex under a contract with Cisco Co. Ltd. since the first semester and a user IDs for each lecturer of HUFS has provided under the contract. Also, HUFS has made G-Suite IDs to use Google Meet as an alternative for the lecturers to share teaching materials with students since e-class does not have enough server capacity for large data of teaching materials. With starting the second semester in September, the three latest virtual machine (VM) servers and memories for smooth service have been installed by the Information and Technology Support division of HUFS. A network management software has also been installed to monitor the current status of server usage and efficiently control the VM Servers. Last semester’s final exam CPU usage rose to 91%. However, the CPU usage is significantly reduced to 7.0% now due to the New VM servers.

A video streaming system, which is called ‘HUFS Cloud’ Has also been launched from the second semester instead of the well-known YouTube or G-Suite. Through the HUFS Cloud system, lecturers can simply edit and make video lecture materials, and upload them to HUFS Cloud for video streaming. For lecturers, HUFS conducted the several on/offline training session for e-class, Webex and HUFS Clouds till August.

In order to increase the internet communications bandwidth from 1Gbps to 2.3 Gbps, routers for managing data flows, intrusion detection systems (IPS), firewalls, and L2 switches have been changed to handle 10Gps capacity for both HUFS campuses in Seoul and Yongin. For the convenience of students’ taking classes by connecting to the wireless Internet at the campus, the WiFi access points (AP) have also been replaced and expanded to the latest version. One AP can now cope
up to 25 Webex users through WiFi connection comparing that the previous APs could not receive more than 10 Webex users.

According to the academics at HUFS, the most serious technical problems of distance learning include: (a) Internet bandwidth, (b) Internet stability on using Webex.

Opinions of academic teachers and students at Hankuk University of Foreign Studies on the open education during pandemic

As the COVID-19 situation has been prolonged, offline-centred education was converted to an on-tact and on-line education platform, and it is necessary to think about a new method of online education that has increased in proportion. In particular, with the development of digital technology, distance education has been diversified depending on devices and its effectiveness becomes extremely important.

The empirical studies were conducted in 7 colleges in Yongin Campus of HUFS. The number of interviews with academics was 56 and interviews with students was 123: Humanities (13,21); Economics & Business (5, 19), Interpretation & Translation (15, 34), Central & East European Studies (3, 15); International & Area Studies (6, 12); Natural Sciences (8,17); Engineering (6,5).

Some argue that distance education is not an emergency measure to endure the COVID-19 situation, but will become a big axis to lead the education field in the future. In this situation, the revitalization of distance education and the investigation into a new direction of university education are desperately needed.

The university students as purchasers of college education services have higher preference for untact methods using text messages or smartphone applications rather than in-person methods (c.f. P. Fidalgo, J. Tormann, 2020). On the other hand, academic teachers of the elderly who are relatively unfamiliar with untact culture or consumption patterns are not favourable to online classes. Of course, it is not possible to ignore that they are not accustomed to the program operation or are unfamiliar to distance education, but considering this as generation gap or skill level of digital devices is not helpful in constructing plan for changes in university education services in COVID 19 situation (S. Utam, I. Winarn, 2020).

Some academic teachers say that online education are complementary, not substitutes. The essence of Oxford-Cambridge university lectures is the questions of students, the answers of the lecturers, the critical acceptance and reasoning
of both sides, and the re-questioning. They believe that creativity which is the core factor of education can be cultivated through this process. Of course, due to the developing technology, discussion functions in online education platforms are installed but there is a gap that cannot be filled in relationship building between lecturers and students, which can be possible on offline education (cf. S. Shim, 2012).

It is known that the attention span of learners in offline class is maximum 15 to 20 minutes, but it is reduced to 5 to 10 minutes in online class. Many academic teachers say that there is the lack of interaction between lecturers and students in distance education and the lecturers do not expect feeling of tension or concentrativeness of students. (cf. Byeongho J., Byunghee L., Jongin J., 2015).

In a categorized written interview, the academic teachers say that they spend almost twice as much time preparing lecture online and mostly have difficulties in using Webex and e-class system because of lack of experience or system instability. Also, they found difficulties in evaluation of students by online examination. In particular, most of language exams need face-to-face test, however online evaluation system carries a burden to teachers in terms of fair evaluation. In general, academic teachers believe that distance classes do not give as much satisfaction as offline classes.

In a categorized written survey and interview, the students say that they do not have difficulties in using computer for distance learning on Webex, however some students who do not have notebook with built-in camera have to purchase webcam for their desktop computers. It means they had to pay extra for distance learning. In the opinion of students, they are not satisfied with distance learning comparing to synchronous learning. Firstly, it is not comfortable for them to communicate and interact with lecturers during the class. HUFS is representative and unique university for foreign language education in Korea which has 45 foreign languages majors including Arabic, Polish, Czech, China, Russian, Mongolian, Vietnamese, African language and etc. Especially, students feel dissatisfaction with distance language class because it needs verbal training session by teacher’s guide and feedback but they feel difficulties to do this during distance class. Secondly, students consider that the lecture delivery impact on distance learning is much less than one on synchronous learning because of lack of interaction between lecturers and students. Thirdly, many of them have problems with Webex login because of server overload and this causes students’ dissatisfaction with distance learning environment. And survey shows that students are unsatisfied with the teaching materials provided by teachers such as PPT slides or video materials.
In general, the academic teachers and students do not show their satisfaction in distance education based on Webex and e-class because of technical problem, quality of lecture and lack of interaction.

Conclusions

Summarizing the analysis of the empirical research conducted, mainly of a qualitative nature, including: content analysis, interviews with LAN administrators, academics and students at SUT and HUFS, as well as a survey conducted among HUFS students, it can be concluded that: (a) both students and academic teachers prefer synchronous, face-to-face education because of the possibility of more frequent interaction with teachers and with each other, a greater chance of understanding difficult content, the possibility of more frequent questions and answers from teachers or colleagues; then we deal with effective social learning; (b) the time devoted to the implementation of the rigors and preparation of course materials by students, as well as the time devoted by teachers to online classes is assessed by both groups of respondents as three times longer in the SUT and twice as long in the HUFS; both employees and students stressed their great fatigue at the end of the semester; (c) SUT staff have doubts about the evaluation of the works delivered by students concerning their authorship; (d) both students and employees felt more satisfied with conducting or participating in face-to-face classes than in e-learning, especially when it lasted the entire semester.

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Self-experience Workshops as an Important Factor in the Academic Education of Students of Pedagogy in Times of (in)authenticity of Relationships and Bonds

Abstract
In the proposed paper, I would like to draw attention to the workshop on self-experience in academic education, and especially in the education of students of humanities. The subject matter of the undertaken research was the experiences related to the participation of art therapy students in self experience workshops, which constitute an important element of personal development on the path of preparation for a professional role. A practical goal was established. It was important to show the effects of emotional work, shaping self-awareness, and analyzing the functioning of the students in a relationship with another human being. An important part of the article are the narratives of the students, which were subjected to qualitative analysis. These self-reflections of students clearly show the correlated stages: insightful self-development, thanks to which students acquire interpersonal skills and, as a result, learn how to work using art therapy with an individual and a group.

Key words: self-experience, academic education, self-reflection, intrapersonal and interpersonal competences
Introduction

Each day, the world we live in reveals new phenomena and situations which we are not prepared for. In the assessment of Ewa Wysocka, it has become inhospitable (Wysocka, 2012), which means that we, young people in particular, are determined by groups of factors which make the self-creation abilities weaker. In order to cope with the arising requirements, what one needs is personal maturity, consciousness and resistance. The students of the first years, who are starting their higher education, are currently facing such a challenge, and their intrapersonal and interpersonal competences need perfecting in order to be able to reach full maturity. Good communication skills, being aware of the goals, emotional maturity and empathy, seem to be the sine qua non of being a teacher, an educator, a psychologist, or a therapist. This is because such roles may – in the future – be taken by the students of pedagogical fields of study. Therefore, having in mind the highest quality of the preparation for the professions which are being handled, and in particular to such professional roles which are focusing on working with a human, it is advisable to initiate self-development work and to take a good look at one’s own experiences.

The Delphic maxim “gnothi seauton” which means getting to know oneself, is a determinant of the deep process of obtaining knowledge of oneself. This is a self-creation factor, owing to which it is possible to have a look inside oneself, which in result leads to an expansion of the intrapersonal competences, and thus translates into the building of relations with others. At the workshop, these relations are also applicable to the contact with the teacher who is conducting exercises. Such a regularity of the experiences resembles an emotional practice, the presence of which in academic teaching is highlighted by Andy Hargreaves (1998). He formulated the arguments he propagated on the basis of the concept of emotional understanding by Norman K. Denzin, on which both teaching and learning are based (1984). Professor Hargreaves highlights the importance of the cognitive processes. However, he does stress the fact that these are not more important than the emotional processes. During the course of education, we get new experiences, including emotional ones, both our own, as well as those of other people. What is important is the interpretation of one’s own emotional experiences, as well as those of others, as it has an influence on emotional understanding, and even on empathic understanding, which are the conditions for an authentic and committed relation and presence. Hargreaves is an opponent of building a distance as – in his assessment – it threatens the basic forms of emotional understanding, on which the high quality of teaching and learning depends (Hargreaves A., 2000).
Therefore, emotional practice takes place not only between the participants, but also between the teacher and the group co-creating the classes.

On the other hand, the sociologist Arlie Hochschild (2012) applies the term of “emotional work” and highlights that the “emotional work” is significant for those professions in which there are interactions and interpersonal relations, and therefore, it is also applicable to the profession of the art therapist. The sociologist’s concept focuses on the coherence between what an individual feels, perceives, and what they must do. If one cannot express genuine feelings, human feelings stop mattering to people, and in consequence, falsification and an experience of a false awareness of who they really are appears (Turner, Stets, 2005). Thus, a false appearance arises, stifling what is real, often necessary, important and beautiful, and destroys the humanistic ideas of a meeting with oneself and with The Other One.

I was curious to know what students think about the value of the workshop classes. The research part of the following article focuses exactly on the feelings and perception of the students taking part in the self-experience workshops, on their self-reflection consisting of their own potential, impediments and limitations.

**Methodology of Research**

The empirical part aims at presenting the opinions of third year students of art therapy regarding the workshops in which they participated during their studies, both those being within the basic scope and being an obligatory element of the education, as well as regarding those which they have undertaken independently and which have been recognized as self-improvement. This is an intimate and carefully recruited group of young people who want to use art, multimodal solutions, for the purposes of therapy, as well as for improving and communicating with others. Art therapy has an interdisciplinary, inter-university nature, as it is co-created by three important academic institutions: the University of Silesia in Katowice, the Karol Szymanowski Academy of Music in Katowice, and the Academy of Fine Arts in Katowice. Due to the unique concept of education, the students are in contact with a wide scope of knowledge and – due to the large number of practical modules – a broad spectrum of expression, favoring internal enrichment, taking a look at oneself, the formulation of creative attitudes and acquiring social competences and responsibility for any future work with people.

When I was conceptualizing the research, I wanted to obtain an individualized perspective of the students within the scope of the experiences and the interac-
tions which have been created, as preparation for the further professional path, that is why I have developed a tool – the open interview survey. Steinar Kvale (2008:19–20) defines the interview as a specific form of a conversation, during which knowledge is created in an interaction between the interviewer and the respondent. However, due to the pandemic we are currently facing, I have decided to resign from interviews handled in direct contact. An argument in favour of such a choice is also the willingness to ensure comfort and anonymity, which can be ensured by unfettered narratives. The applied data collection technique is located within the qualitative research pattern, which allows for a freedom in the scope of the expression and the developed open question formula required some auto-analysis and self-reflection, thus it seemed advisable to provide the answers in written form. The subject of the research were the experiences related to the participation of the students in self-experience workshops as an element of work development during their academic education.

Two practical goals of a two-dimensional nature were established:

- an intrapersonal dimension, and here, getting familiar with the meaning the self-experience workshops have for the students is of particular interest. Next, I was also interested in the opinion of the respondents on the potential influence of the workshop experiences on their own emotions.
- a prospective and interpersonal dimension, meaning cognition, to what extent working on oneself allows one to get prepared for one’s professional role.

The scope of the completed empirical analyses is determined by the three following research problems:

1. How do the participants of the workshops perceive them with regard to fulfilling their own needs, strengthening their intrapersonal resources?
2. In what scope do the participants of the workshops consider them as favorable with regard to the group process?
3. To what extent does the participation in the workshop determine one’s self-perception in the role of an art therapist?

The students who have proceeded with self-reflection have in fact performed an analysis of the subjective evaluation and understanding of reality, they have given thought to their own activity, manner of decoding and emotional perception of the world, as well as their attitude towards themselves in their relations with other people, and themselves in the role of an art therapist. Thus, they relate to their self-awareness, self-esteem, self-realization, motivational mechanisms and aspirations.
Results of Research

The students’ statements constitute the axis of this discussion and the essence of this study; they pertain to their authenticity, agency and relations, and therefore I will cite some of those (due to the limited space).

I have been interested in whether workshop learning stands out from other major subjects. In their evaluation, the students have used a 0–10 scale. The average score has been 9.5. Half of the participants have awarded 9 points and the other half have awarded 10 points. The uniqueness of the experiences is undoubtedly a fascinating factor, as expressed by this statement: “Workshop activities are generally the most efficient form of learning. No two experiences are ever going to be the same.” This activity is examined from the didactic aspect, for students learn how to implicate and implement a given method or technique, but also ascribe a personal meaning with a self-therapeutic value to it: “I could activate my self-reflection and have my own individual insight into what attracts me and what doesn’t about further self-therapy and art therapy work.”

However, the core of this statement is expressed in the following words: “This method is crucial and fundamental in learning and obtainment of experience, as during a workshop, we learn the most – relations between each other and about ourselves.”

The students learn art therapy techniques and how to use multimodal approaches, thus drawing on various art genres and forms of expression. They have listed the types of expression most familiar to them. Some have also noted the benefits enjoyed by them due to their artistic activities “Writing, movement, painting, making music, photography – one can just kind of feel it; it is like enchanting one’s own emotions into the work one is creating.” The author of that statement is aware that activities through art activate one’s subconsciousness.

“I love movement and music expression, as well as movement and facial expression. When I am moving, I can relieve my internal tensions. Apparently, I cannot hide much, as everything is ‘written’ on my face. Perhaps I unconsciously use my facial expressions in a desire to avoid a verbal comment.” This statement has noted verbalisation, which is incredibly important and involves attribution of personal meaning to works: “Writing, drawing, painting and speaking have purifying effect on me”.

Self-experience workshops are usually innovative and eye-opening. The students have shared their opinions which exercise and experience have allowed them to see themselves differently: “Biblio therape utic experiences combined with impressing my face and hands to the accompaniment of music.” Music can be a strong inductive material, and the resulting works have a very symbolic aspect.
to them and can have strong emotional connotations. The resulting works involve ourselves or our friends and family, with whom we form relationships; we can examine how much they mean to us and what feelings are evoked by thinking about them: “Drawing myself now and in the future, drawing my family. That experience has allowed me to get to know myself better through confrontation with my fears.”

“There have been many such moments, but what was innovative to me personally was how we worked with keywords and topics, which everyone had to filter through a given material or object, e.g. clay, and create something at a given workshop. I was surprised at what I wanted to talk about and how intimate the topics I wanted to discuss were.” The mention of the intimacy resulting from the tasks is undoubtedly connected to the revelation of one’s own truth about oneself and waiting for the reaction of approval and understanding from others, seeking a safe space for emotional exhibitionism, as it were. Such intimacy, revelation of what used to be hidden and reserved only to oneself may entail difficulties and limitations, which has also been mentioned by the participants: “Reluctance and lack of motivation. More things were often happening around me and I could not focus on my task.” That opinion is very important; the participant notes her inability to concentrate, and focus on ‘here and now’ is an important aspect of workshops.

Sometimes, when we participate in something for the first time, we can be sceptical, feel some internal resistance. It appears to be a natural emotion that is possible to overcome. The students have described how they have felt about that and what factors facilitate disposal of negative feelings and barriers: “In moments of internal resistance, I try to think about how much I can gain by overcoming it. I am aware that if I do not leave my comfort zone, I will be missed out. That is not simple; sometimes I succeed, sometimes I unfortunately fail despite my best intentions. A significant factor is my curiosity and awareness that I can learn from every new experience.” Shifting one’s attention to the future and the prospect of the benefit resulting from learning through experience minimises one’s objections.

The set of negative feelings and emotions has been broad in scope in some, and narrow in some others; in two participants, there have been no negative conditions. The experienced negative feelings have included: internal resistance, uncertainty, embarrassment, fear of failure, and lack of trust in a partner. Resistance, uncertainty, doubt and fear of failure have been the most common. Fear of failure appears to simultaneously imply unwillingness, lack of conviction and doubt. It is necessary to identify the factors making us feel discomfort, as this builds awareness, perhaps creates concern for ourselves or activates assertive behaviours, which also
serve protective functions. Positive emotions connected with the reception of the workshops have also been examined. All of these emotions appear to be significant and legitimate: openness; joy; motivation; curiosity; surprise; involvement; trust in the lecturer; trust in a partner; positive feelings toward the lecturer; positive feelings toward an exercise partner and toward the group; fulfilment; satisfaction; the need to create. The need to create is a very important factor, for it overcomes passivity and stagnation, and orientates one at the future and activity.

The experiences described are individual and characteristic of specific participants and their intrapersonal resources. The course and reception of the workshops in the context of group processes will be analysed next. The students have been asked which experience was innovative and allowed to view the group differently. No specific indication dominates the answers; everyone has named one's own element that reinforced one's bonds: “We have been brought together by rhythm therapy, shared vocal and instrumental classes.”

“Dance therapy, movement and attentiveness have greatly integrated and supported us as a group. Creating our own non-verbal motion stories for a shared performance.” The feeling of unity and community creates new transgressional strengths and heightens sensitivity and consent to eye contact and touch: “It was all of the paired activities. Experiences involving overcoming of one’s communication barriers, establishment of a momentary close relationship with another, who is normally a stranger, are interesting. A peculiar bond is formed, often based on eye contact.”

The co-creation of a stage performance, team activities during the classes, mutual conversations and fascinations affect the interpersonal communication and relations within a group. The workshop experiences have strengthened the group relations and enabled: strengthening of bonds; increase in kindness; recognition of the needs of others; cooperation skills; responsibility for others; increase in respect and trust; they have also enhanced the desire to spend time together. However, what the students have felt the strongest, was an increase in empathy, the understanding of their own and others’ emotions; they have deepened their interpersonal relations and felt that they have been part of a group. The formation of safe relations within a group has also allowed them to overcome their resistance, which is evidenced by these words: “I often feel internal resistance. This is alleviated by the openness of the group and the lecturer, supportive attitudes, their acceptance of my expression, kindness and openness to questions.”

The statement has stressed the significance of the person conducting the workshops. Usually, this is a person with exceptional interpersonal competences, sensitive to the creative process and group interaction as well as relations with
each participant, and aware of the selection of the materials and goals. If we operate within the field of didactics, it is important to impart the knowledge so that the lecturer provides information and demonstrates the broad capabilities of art therapy as well as they can.

Through self-experience workshops, students not only build themselves, but also a set of their skills. Therefore, it has been asked whether the workshop has enhanced their professional competences, whether they can indicate their strongest points useful in the art therapist profession and in the independent conduct of group classes: “I think my strongest point is the feeling of responsibility for the group and provision of support whenever necessary. Responsibility and the feeling that I am here for them and watching over them is natural to me.” Trust enables the formation of an authentic relationship, whilst also determining the acceptance of one’s responsibility and care for the group: “Confidence and trust in myself and in the group – that is what calms me down. My confidence also stems a bit from the fact that I can quickly get out of a sudden situation; I immediately come up with a substitute solution. This is helped by working on myself, by knowing myself and my limits, and openness. I feel like I keep improving at that and am often tested with new workshop challenges (new groups and places).”

The spirit of humanism and involvement, and therefore the complexity of traits important in an art therapist can be observed in this narrative: “I feel like I have sensitivity and authenticity in me, as I truly desire to get to know the people I accompany; their problems are important to me, and a love for them, admiration and recognition of their potential truly awaken in my heart. Expressiveness that can rouse and inspire, call me to action. Kindness that is simply likeable.”

The statements regarding the skills acquired during the workshops sometimes contain criticism, but also a form of humility; indeed, the students are at the beginning of their career path, so their doubt, inadequacies and clearly felt difficulties are understandable. They also mention their stress and fear of how they are going to be understood by the group and whether they will be able to fulfil their plans:

“... I often feel a lot of stress at the very beginning, but it quickly disappears. Before the workshops, I always try to have a moment to myself and tell myself what I am here for and why, and what is my goal. I try to feel and trust myself, trust in what is going to happen.” One’s first independent classes during field practice with previously unfamiliar groups are a test of sorts: “I feel some uneasiness resulting from my not having a lot of experience and being aware that when I do something for the first time, I can, and even will, make mistakes. At those times, I experience a lack of confidence, which makes me worse as a lecturer, and I deal with that by simply allowing myself that and enjoying the fact that I have the opportunity and
privilege of being with others.” The students place their uncertainty above the wellbeing and comfort of the group; they have the best intentions, but are still accompanied by difficult emotions and doubts: “I try not to show any weakness during my classes. Inside me, joy and openness clash against fear, a feeling of pointlessness, ignorance, a fear that the participants will not like it and that I am doing something unprofessionally.”

As noted by Cathy A. Malchiodi (2012), it is the practice, awareness, responsibility and knowledge of their own competences that are intrinsic to the education of future art therapists. Independently conducted classes can reveal inadequacies, but more importantly, they can show new fields of development and areas for improving oneself and one’s interpersonal relations; they show one’s desires regarding self-improvement and betterment of one’s professional approach: “I would like to notice important symptoms of various phenomena of the human nature. I am aware that this is not a matter of learning rules, but a matter of time and open eyes.” The concern for the process and relations is crucial here, as it conditions the success of interactions. Cooperation is important in practice, which the students also learn: “I would like to work on cooperating with others, on trusting that everything is going to be ready on time, on trusting that everything is going to work and I am not going to let anyone down and that no one is going to let me down.”

As shown by the statements cited, training for the profession of art therapist is usually a long journey full of insightful work on oneself, empathic understanding, methodological skills, psychological and pedagogical knowledge and knowledge on the use of techniques, attentiveness, care, respect and responsibility.

**Conclusions**

Self experience workshops originate from psychological and psychotherapeutic practice. Each profession that has the word ‘therapy’ in its name assumes some specific professional skills, interdisciplinary training, as well as self-improvement. Therefore, the aim of self experience workshops is to develop self-awareness and analysis of one’s functioning in one’s relations with others. Having analysed all of the narratives, an answer arises naturally that self experience workshops are necessary in academic education with regard to the fields of pedagogy and liberal arts.

The self experience workshops have given the examined art therapy students group notable intrapersonal, self-creational and interpersonal benefits. They have allowed them to look into themselves, into what defines them, their past, present
and future. They have paved the way to their self-awareness of their own potential, but also limitations, doubts and fears. They have shown how important skills are, including those of an academic teacher, in order to draw on the standard solutions. They have demonstrated the importance of forming relations based upon kindness, respect, trust, care and authenticity. The factor of community and significance of bonds between humans, among whom we express ourselves through art, discover, purify and free ourselves of our difficulties, has been noticed. Their perception of themselves as art therapists has also changed. Their own workshop work has given the students insight into their traits and interpersonal skills, which can translate into their advantages and disadvantages when conducting classes on their own, and can determine success or failure of an activity. They have discovered the truth about themselves, and by learning about themselves, they have become more mature and prepared to meet others in a dialogue, artistic creation and shared activity. They have become attentive to group processes. The increase in their individual and professional competences has not deprived them of their reflectiveness and further desire to broaden their horizons and their need to develop, seek new things and enjoy assisting others in their self-expression.

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Some Aspects of Methodology
Abstract
A theory of cognition and an interdisciplinary research program so-called enactivism put forward by Varela, Thompson, and Rosch since their book titled: “The Embodied Mind: Cognitive Science and Human Experience” had been published in 1991. The theory and research program proposed in this book can be explicated in terms of eight significant themes including auto-poiesis, sense-making, emergence, experience, embodied mind, embedded mind, enacted mind and the extended mind. This paper is an interpretation of the theory of enaction as a platform to educational research methodological reform. So it is argued that the non-reductionistic enactive approach is the promising arena for addressing educational research methodology so that circulation between first- and third-personal phenomena makes sense across a range of objective and subjective issues that mixed methodologists want to deal.

Key words: Neuro-phenomenology, theory of enaction, circular research methodology, educational phenomena and activity

Introduction
Mixed methods research, as the third methodological movement (Creswell, 2011, 273), had a rapid growth and became a formal methodology in a variety of discipline areas including psychology, education, and social science through the
The main reasons for mixed methods could be conceptualized in:

Two types of considerations. The practical level, mixing the arguments related to the use of sampling, data collection, and data analysis techniques and the theoretical level, the reasons entail the pragmatic, the false duality and the warrant-through-triangulation arguments. (Shabani Varaki et al., 2015, 28–29)

However, mixed-methods opponents and proponents argued that both arguments are controversial and problematic. They classified the crises in different ways: four levels of problems; “philosophical, cultural, psychological, and practical” (Mingers, 2001, 247), two-level of problems practical and paradigmatic (Shabani Varaki et al., 2015, 29) and “four major crises or challenges to mixed methods research: representation, legitimation, integration, and politics” (Onwuegbuzie and Collins, 2007, 282). Since several mixed-methods proponents argue “the problems are not insurmountable” (Mingers, 2001, 247), the opponents believe that we need to have an alternative to avoid the issues and the methodological trilingualism (Shabani Varaki et al., 2015). This paper will explore the alternative through the theory of enaction as a conceptual framework and methodology. Enactivism tends to cover the issues and challenges with the mixed method and replace trilingualism with unilingualism. Enaction theory will be explicated in terms of eight significant themes including autopoiesis, sense-making, emergence, experience, embodied mind, embedded mind, enacted mind and the extended mind. The paper concludes with options for a non-reductionist, unbroken coincidence, amalgamated and an ecumenical approach to the world with an inter-subjective interaction; self-other co-determination; reciprocal causal interaction, non-linearity, beyond equilibrium.

**Neuro-phenomenology: the origin of enaction**

Neuro-phenomenology as a neuroscientific research program, in contrast to the neuro-philosophy and eliminativist position rooted in analytic philosophy (Churchland, 2002), has derived from the continental tradition of phenomenological philosophy, the particular phenomenology of Husserl’s philosophy (Varela, 1996). While neuro-philosophy wants to reduce mind into the brain, the neuro-phenomenology aims to recognize mind, brain, body and environment in the lineage of cognitive science and the Husserl’s phenomenological legacy for
direct experience (Rowlands, 2010). Therefore, this program invites us to consider both physiological and experiential data in every scientific study of cognition. Whereas the previous program tries to explain how the brain works in itself, neuro-phenomenology tries to consider perception, emotion and all cognitive events associated with brain, body, and environment.

Furthermore, although neuro-phenomenology focuses on the rigor oriented investigation of cognition, it puts forward this idea that it is required to overcome the onlooker attitude about the experience. This account is phenomenological, which can provide an experiential validation for the rigor biological oriented examination and constrain the interpretation of empirical data (Lutz & Thompson, 2003). Accordingly, the two domains of discourse (the physiological and the phenomenological) are circularly intertwined (Lutz, 2002).

This approach is a unique synthesis of cutting-edge neurobiology, philosophy, and cognitive science that has implications for our understanding of human consciousness. (Hallowell, 2009, 144)

Indeed, there are two crucial advances in the development of cognitive science: “the embodied turn” and “the interactive turn”. The embodied turn refers to the neurobiological, and the interactive turn refers to the social foundations of the enaction. Therefore, the enactive approach is a response to false dualisms “between brain and body” and “between individual and others” (Kyselo, 2014). Moreover, the embodied turn seeks to explain that cognition not just in the brain and no longer restricted to third-person operational descriptions, but in “the somatic contexts of the organism as a whole”. Therefore, enaction favours an embodied cognition to neural dynamics which embedded in “cycles of organismic regulation of the entire body; cycles of sensorimotor coupling between organism and environment; cycles of intersubjective interaction” (Lutz & Thompson, 2003, 41). Accordingly, neuro-phenomenology is an alternative approach which believes the controversy between reductionism and holism is false and the correct position is one that is similar to yin and yang, in Chinese philosophy, the two domains of explanation are complementary and amalgamated.

Reductionism implies attention to a lower level, while holistic implies attention to a higher level. These are intertwined in any satisfactory description: and each entails some loss relative to our cognitive preferences, as well as some gain . . . there is no whole system without an interconnection of its parts, and there is no whole system without an environment. (Rudrauf et al., 2003, 40)
Therefore, we need to set a comprehensive account to move towards credible knowledge about educational phenomena continually. In the following section, rooted in the neuro-phenomenology project, we scrutinize how the theory of enaction could be recognized as comprehensive view of educational research methodology.

**Theory of Enaction: Major themes**

Theory of enaction is a new approach within the field of cognitive science focusing on the ontological and epistemological underlying cognition and cognitive science which is presented by Maturana and Varela (1980) and Varela, Thompson and Rosch (2016). The theory is a departure point of representationalism and the computer model of cognition, and underlying cognitive science, phenomenology, and Buddhism, it focuses on “the continuity between life and mind” (Stewart et al., 2010) as an alternative to overcome the Cartesian dualism.

Enaction suggests a dynamic process of world-constitution that is always intimately linked to a particular bodily identity and situated within a greater field of interpenetrating relationships. (Malkemus, 2012, 201)

Thereupon Varela, Thompson, and Rosch (2016) emphasize that there is a significant difference between the crystalline system such as the game of chess and the less well-defined domain like driving world. Although in the driving space we can recognize some discrete items in contrast with the game of chess the limits of this space are not clearly defined and so the driving world is strongly depended on both knowing-that (acquired skills) and knowing-how (the continuous use of non-specific background). In other words, Maturana and Varela (1987,26) believe that: “All doing is knowing, and all-knowing is doing”. Thus “the universal nature of doing in cognition” (Maturana and Varela, 1987, 28), indicates that there is no gap between knowing, being and acting. In this paper, we examine the framework in light of the eight intertwined key concepts:

**Autopoiesis**

Autopoiesis is a term invented by Maturana while talking with Varela and Jose Bulnes, to describe “the central feature of the organization of the living, which is
autonomy.” It is “a word that could mean what takes place in the dynamic of the autonomy proper to living system” (Maturana and Varela, 1980, xvii). Thompson (Thompson, 2005, 407–408) described the critical ideas of autopoiesis as follows:

The first idea is that living beings are autonomous agents that actively generate and maintain their identities, and thereby enact or bring forth their own cognitive domains.

The second idea is that the nervous system is an autonomous system: it actively generates and maintains its own coherent and meaningful patterns of activity … The nervous system does not process information in the computational sense but creates meaning.

The third idea is that cognition is a form of embodied action. Cognitive structures and processes emerge from recurrent sensorimotor patterns of perception and action. Sensorimotor coupling between organism and environment modulates but does not determine, the formation of endogenous, dynamic patterns of neural activity, which in turn inform sensorimotor coupling.

The fourth idea is that a cognitive being’s world is not a pre-specified, external realm, represented internally by its brain, but a relational domain enacted or brought forth by that being’s autonomous agency and mode of coupling with the environment.

Accordingly, the autopoietic system is a network characterized by a continuous interaction between its components. This interaction has two functions; the production of the components and the existence of the system. In other words, when a property of a component in a system changes, other components upgrade their properties and keep the system alive. We believe that this idea links the enactive approach to educational research because both provide the same circumstances that cognition comes through a constitutive relation to the environment. In this respect, we argue that educational research is a dynamic study of the changing world, and it could be considered as a medium which is changing continuously. A researcher and researched will work all together as agents at the medium and super-complex system so-called autopoietic.

**Sense-Making**

In a seminal article published in 1997, entitled “Patterns of life: Intertwining identity and cognition,” Varela stated the central idea of his theory of autonomy in the following way:
I want to start by declaring that I think that understanding of organisms and the living is possible, that defining these terms in a satisfactory manner is not a utopian dream, and that we even have a good deal of the road already charted. However, this is under a fundamental condition: that the autonomy of the living is highlighted instead of forgotten, as it has been.

To highlight autonomy means essentially to put at center of the stage two interlinked propositions.

Proposition 1: Organisms are fundamentally a process of constitution of an identity.

Proposition 2: The organism’s emergent identity gives, logically and mechanistically, the point of reference for a domain of interactions. (Varela, 1997, 73)

He illustrated the two propositions in figure (1) and emphasized that they are complementary.

Accordingly, he believes that lived cognition is an activity that relies on an autopoietic system, a lived and survival organization that requires knowledge to make sense of its environment. He called this activity as “sense-making”. Indeed, for Varela, “notion of sense-making, assumes that the whole organism is a vehicle of meaning” (Stewart, Gapenne and Di Paolo, 2010, 147), and so “sense-making is also world-making”, because any organisms, including school, enact a world for its survival and continuity (Malkemus, 2012, 205–206).

![Figure 1. The two key intertwined concepts to account for the autonomy of the living (Varela, 1997, 74)](image-url)
Emergence

Thompson (2007) argues that the theory of enaction is a way of thinking about emergence. The dynamic co-emergence of cognition means that cognition emerges from the interaction between brain, body and environment.

“Dynamic co-emergence means that a whole not only arise from its parts, but the parts also arise from the whole. Parts and whole co-emerge and mutually specify each other. A whole cannot be reduced to its parts, for the parts cannot be characterized independently of the whole, conversely, the parts cannot be reduced to the whole, for the whole cannot be characterized independently of the parts” (Thompson, 2007, 38)

Therefore, the central idea of emergence theory forms a background to define and explain educational activity as emergent phenomena which require an enactive approach to educational research.

The theory characterizes emergent phenomena by five significant properties, radical novelty, coherence, macro level, dynamical and ostensive; all these are demonstrated in the table (1):

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Properties</th>
<th>Meaning</th>
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<tr>
<td>radical novelty</td>
<td>not previously observed not able to be anticipated in their full richness before they show themselves not deducible from micro-level components</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>coherence</td>
<td>appear as integrated wholes spanning the separate micro-level components into a macro-level unity</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>macro-level</td>
<td>the locus of emergent phenomena occurs at a global or macro level</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>dynamical</td>
<td>not pre-given wholes associated with the arising of new attractors in a complex system a system evolves over time</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ostensive</td>
<td>recognized by showing themselves ostensibly recognized</td>
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Accordingly, Goldstein (1999) explains that the construct of emergence requires focusing on the across-system organization and an interplay between the parts and the whole to study complex or self-organization systems. Additionally, “emergence follow more of a continuum than a discrete jump from part to whole (Figure 2)” (p. 50).
The parts alone or functioning and properties of parts alone

The organization or configuration of parts in an emergent whole

**Figure 2.** Continuum of emergence explanations (Goldstein, 1999, 51)

The concept of “whole” in emergent phenomena defers from the idea of gestalt; “the whole is greater than the sum of the parts” (Ehrenfeld, 2008, 103). Gestalt is a non-dynamical idea that refers to a pre-given whole. However, emergence is a dynamic idea that is associate with the originating, not pre-given attractors. Indeed, emergence characterizes a quantitative and qualitative change by bifurcating a dynamic system.

**Experience**

The experience explained here comes from a holographic view of life. It is connected with both first-person subjective data – Participants’ own consciousness – and third-person data – of the structure and function of the brain and body. Both kinds of data have “equal status in demanding full attention and respect for their specificity” (Varela, 1996, 343). Accordingly, experience “becomes a guiding force in a dialogue between phenomenology and science, resulting in an ongoing pragmatic circulation and mutual illumination between the two” (Stewart et al. 2010, 43). Varela, Thompson and Rosch place this sense of experience at the center of enactive theory, methodologically. Furthermore, they introduce the phenomenological method into the experimental lab.

The new sciences of mind need to enlarge their horizon to encompass both lived human experience and the possibilities for transformation inherent in human experience. Ordinary, everyday experience, on the other hand, must enlarge its horizon to benefit from the insights and analyses that are distinctly wrought by the sciences of mind. (Varela, Thompson and Rosch, 2016, 15)

For enactive theory, the nature of direct experience is irreducible, ordinary, everyday, inter-subjectively available, and describable. Indeed, it is irreducible to components and avoids over-emphasizing any particular physical, mental, emo-
tional, collaborative, or other modality. So we need to invite all dimensions of experience to engage in the research process's unfolding by addressing the interior and exterior.

**Embodied Mind**

Embodied mind, rooted in Martin Heidegger and Maurice Merleau-Ponty's works, means being connected to the body and at the same time the body influences the mind. The process of consciousness goes beyond the mere brain and is not confined to cortices. Although the brain is an integral part of the body, the mind has specific experiences of the world due to being in the body with a particular structure and function. In other words, the body, because of its structure and function, determines our experiences in the world.

Wilson and Foglia (2011) summarize four quotes from; McNeill 1992, O'Regan and Noë 2001, Rizzolatti and Craighero 2004 and Donald 1991) as evocative examples of phenomena; gesturing, visioning, using mirror neurons and performing cognitive tasks that have motivated embodied mind.

“We typically gesture when we speak to one another, and gesturing facilitates not just communication but language processing itself (McNeill 1992). Vision is often action-guiding, and bodily movement and the feedback it generates are more tightly integrated into at least some visual processing than has been anticipated by traditional models of vision (O’Regan and Noë 2001). There are neurons, mirror neurons, that fire not only when we undertake an action, but do so when we observe others undertaking the same actions (Rizzolatti and Craighero 2004). We are often able to perform cognitive tasks, such as remembering, more effectively by using our bodies and even parts of our surrounding environments to off-load storage and simplify the nature of the cognitive processing”. (Donald 1991)

This idea is a refutation of Descartes' when he claimed; “there is a great difference between a mind and a body in that a body, by its very nature, is always divisible. On the other hand, the mind is utterly indivisible (Descartes and Cress, 1998, 100–101)”. Therefore, by considering an example of the sense of hearing, we can explain that if we had another ear like a bat's ear, we would hear and experience sound differently. The body creates a soft constraint on the nervous system so the mind cannot process that information not transmitted by the form and raw material of the body, and the command of movement issued by the brain cannot be physically transferred to
the body. Therefore, perception depends on the body, located in a specific time and place. The mind, therefore, is not a Cartesian abstract object of thought. Physical and chemical processes are not merely cerebral, but consciousness in a body with specific capabilities recognizes the world around it and reveals the world to us through the body filter we have and the things we can do.

## Embedded Mind

Embodiment means locality of the mind, and being in the body, embedded means locality of the body in terms of being in the world. For example, when we use the word “in” to say that water is “in” a glass, or that the color is “in” a can, “in” here means being and being in a pre-given body in another pre-given body, but there is no connection between the two. Nevertheless, using “in” to say the root is “in” the soil, or say that the body is the “in” the world, the two can no longer be separated. The root and soil are coexistent. The growth of a plant root affects the surrounding soil and vice versa. Both are the generic composition of the plant.

Varela, Rosch and Thompson taking an example of color study, discussed the differences between Chicken position and egg position: by the Chicken position they mean “The world out there has pre-given properties. These exist prior to the image that is cast on the cognitive system, whose task is to recover them appropriately (whether through symbols or global sub-symbolic states). By Egg position, they mean “The cognitive system projects its own world, and the apparent reality of this world is merely a reflection of internal laws of the system”. They explain that we should bypass the logical geography of inner versus outer, by embracing the middle of the two chicken and egg extremes. We have seen that colors are not “out there” independent of our perceptual and cognitive capacities. We have also seen that colors are not “in here” independent of our surrounding biological and cultural world. Contrary to the objectivist view, color categories are experiential; contrary to the subjectivist view, color categories belong to our shared biological and cultural world. Thus color as a study case enables us to appreciate the obvious point that chicken and egg, world and perceiver, specify each other (Varela, Rosch and Thompson, 1993, 172).

Therefore, our experience of the educational activity has such an orientational structure not as the result of the objective direction of “out-there” and not as a result of our cognitive system projection of in-here. Instead because of the golden mean position, understanding educational phenomena requires to appre-
ciate the Scylla of cognition (recovering what is outer) and Charybdis of cognition (projecting what is inner) evolved together.

So embedded mind intertwined with the embodied mind. Embodiment requires to appreciate human body with its various sensorimotor capacities that are a significant source of their experience, and the sensorimotor capabilities are embedded in a more encompassing physical and cultural environment (Varela et al., 2016).

**Enacted Mind**

Enactive refers to an assumption that the mind depends on the activity of the agent. Moreover, the activity of the agent is done by filtering the body and within the capabilities of the body.

A cognitive being's world is not a pre-specified, external realm, represented internally by its brain, but a relational domain enacted or brought forth by that being's autonomous agency and mode of coupling with the environment. (Thompson, 2005, 407)

So, the mind is in the body; the body is within the environment; the mind relates to the world through sensorimotor activities. That is, due to the recurrent sensorimotor activities concerning the world. These activities affect the world, the body, the mind and consciousness, and cognitive patterns. Indeed, the mind is formed by a recurrent sensorimotor pattern.

Cognitive structures and processes emerge from recurrent sensorimotor patterns of perception and action. (Thompson, 2005, 407)

The sense of sight is an example. It has been traditionally said that man is a passive creature whose visual stimulus strikes his eyes and is worked on by brain activity, and a command is issued that allows us to see that object. This process is only a small part of the operation of the mind, and there is also the reverse flow, that is, if there are no sensory-motor rules and movement and action and attention, we do not see anything.
**Extended Mind**

This idea was first proposed by Clark and Chalmers (Clark & Chalmers, 1998) in an article entitled “Expanded Mind.” They did not accept the demarcations of skin and skull, and so proposed an alternative so-called; active externalism. They argue that in driving cognitive processes, the environment has an active role.

“The human organism is linked with an external entity in a two-way interaction, creating a coupled system that can be seen as a cognitive system in its own right. All the components in the system play an active causal role, and they jointly govern behavior in the same sort of way that cognition usually does. If we remove the external component, the system’s behavioral competence will drop, just as it would if we removed part of its brain. Our thesis is that this sort of coupled process counts equally well as a cognitive process, whether or not it is wholly in the head”. (Clark and Chalmers, 1998, 8–9)

The mind does not stop at the head or skin of the body. At the beginning of this article, they ask, where the mind stops and the world begins. To answer this question, they took an example of someone who has Alzheimer’s and the benefit of the booklet as a reminder. In this case, the pamphlet can be considered as part of the mechanisms of the brain. Therefore, the mind is not limited to the body, and cognition arises from the circular cooperation between mind, body and environment.

In brief, enacted consists of “perceptually guided action” and “cognitive structures” emerge from the recurrent sensorimotor patterns that enable action to be perceptually guided (Varela, Thompson and Rosch, 2016, 173).

**Final remark: macro strategies of the circular methodology**

This paper is an interpretation of the theory of enaction as a platform to educational research methodological reform. So it is argued that the non-reductionistic enactive approach is the promising arena for addressing educational research methodology so that circulation between first- and third-personal phenomena makes sense across a range of objective and subjective issues that mixed methodologists want to deal. Accordingly, we consider research method as a strategic framework consisting of macro and micro strategies. Macro strategies mean guiding principles derived from the theory of enaction and micro strategies refer to
context-oriented issues related to research procedures. The strategic framework is consistent with our “para-quantitative methodology” (Shabani Varaki et al., 2015), and also has the potential to transcend the limitations of the quantitative mono method and qualitative mono method and the concept of pre-given Pushmi-pullyu methodology with two approaches at opposing origins and ends, trying to mix two incommensurable methods.

Thus, as shown in figure (3), we offer eight macro strategies to conceptualize the circular methodology derived from the theory of enaction as guiding principles, and a general plan, based on which researchers will be able to study an educational phenomenon using first-person, and third-person data together.

1. Autopoiesis; this strategy means that the researcher and the researched are parts of the autonomy dynamics proper to a living system. They are autonomous agents that actively generate and maintain their identities. Moreover, research methods are processes that emerge from recurrent sensorimotor patterns of perception and action which coupling between organism and environment modulates.

2. Sense-making; this strategy means that in virtue of being autonomous agents, the researcher and the researched can be considered as sense-making systems. So they are practicing related to environment. Being-in-the-world that is entirely different from that of water being in a glass. Accordingly, research is a process of sense-making in interaction and a way to the emergence of important information and human identity as well. Therefore, the whole organism (including the researcher/the researched) is a vehicle of meaning.

3. Emergence; this strategy involves five significant properties including radical novelty, coherence, macro level, dynamical and ostensive of educational phenomena. It requires focusing on the across-system organization and an interplay between the parts and the whole to study complex or self-organized systems.

4. Experience; this strategy intertwined with both first-person data - Participants' own consciousness – and third-person data - of the structure and function of the brain and body. So it requires to synthesize first-person data with experimental methodology in educational research. This strategy avoids over-emphasizing any particular physical, mental, emotional, collaborative, or other modality in educational research.

5. Embodied mind; this strategy means being connected to the body, and at the same time, the body influences the mind. Although the brain is an integral part of the body, cognition is not confined to cortices. So we, as researchers,
should consider the contribution of the body with a particular structure and function to understand educational phenomena.

6. Embedded mind; this strategy means locality of the body in terms of being in the world. It intertwined with the embodied mind. Embodiment requires to appreciate the human body with its various sensorimotor capacities that are a significant source of their experience, and the sensorimotor capabilities are embedded in a more encompassing physical and cultural environment. Therefore, educational research inspired by this strategy should be considered situational.

7. Enacted mind; this strategy refers to the activity of the agent, which is done by filtering the body. So, the mind is in the body; the body is within the environment; the mind relates to the world through sensorimotor activities. Through this strategy, educational researcher requires enlightened eyes to understand the educational world.

Figure 3. Macro-strategies of Research method inspired by the theory of enaction
8. Extended mind; this strategy means the possibility of cognitive extension. Therefore, the human mind extended throughout the living body and the world. As educational researchers, we need to consider the expanded cognitive system, which is beyond the body's boundary. The expanded cognitive system consists of the body, and everything (external to the body's boundary) has a function in the sense-making interaction with the environment.

Acknowledgements
This research was supported by the Ferdowsi University of Mashhad and Western Sydney University. We wish to express our sincere thanks to them for providing the opportunity for us to do this project.

References


Abstract
Teaching, community involvement, and conducting research are the three functions of higher education institutions (HEIs). This exploration aims to develop constructs of instructors’ engagement or non-engagement in research as basis for developing a training framework. This study employed exploratory factor analysis. Eighty-four (84) instructors answered the questionnaires. The findings revealed four (4) factors of instructors’ research engagement: administrative support, recognition and promotion, motivation, and institutional requirement. It further showed instructors’ non-engagement in research could be due to four (4) factors such as time constraints, lack of experience and training, financial limitation, and lack of motivation. The scales have copious sampling adequacy and a high level of reliability. The instruments can be useful in assessing the level of instructors’ engagement and non-engagement in research.

Key words: research engagement, research non-engagement, exploratory factor analysis.

Introduction

As one of the three functions of higher education institutions (HEIs), research enhances instructors’ capability to conduct technology-directed and innovative/creative work. The principle task of institutions such as colleges and universities is to produce and circulate knowledge in different academic disciplines. Higher
Education Institutions play a significant role in developing and nurturing research culture among their instructors and people.

The CHED – Siliman University Zonal Research Center conducted the Research Capability of Higher Education Institutions and found out that: (1) there was low importance put on research concerning finance and further provision associated with the emphasis on instruction and extension service; (2) the superiority of research productions inspire investigators to publish in refereed or peer-reviewed periodicals and local papers; (3) several scholars plan to do research in out-of-date areas and shy away from the developing interdisciplinary, or practical ranges desirable for progress because many professors in the master's or doctoral degree programs do not have research background; and (4) there are lots of professors holding Master’s and PhDs but their research productivity is low (Salom, 2013).

Teacher engagement in research is more likely when their work is characterized by the following: time for teachers to do research, resources, positive attitudes to teacher professional development, and an expectation that staff engages in professional development (Borg, 2013). The absence of external pressure, lack of time, and institutional support are considered to be crucial teachers’ obstacles (Tabatabaei & Nazem, 2013).

Essential research abilities, such as creating data-gathering instruments, doing statistical work, and interpreting findings were hindrances to instructors’ active involvement in research (Salom, 2013).

Lack of information resulting from poor access to electronic databases, e-journals, e-books, and lack of faculty mentorship remained of severe concern. Also, work environment as being unconducive to their research and professional growth (Mugimu, Nakabugo, & Katunguka, 2013).

Successful faculty performance in research is guided by a series of strategic decisions about what to research, how to conduct research, and how to obtain funding. Providing these opportunities in a manner that best enhances the skillful amalgamation of capabilities is the challenge of HEIs (Salom, 2013) and facilitating activities that include in-service teacher education would likewise appear to have a vital role (Borg, 2010).

Teaching is a multifaceted endeavor and some barriers such as attitudinal, theoretical, and technical also stop teachers from being engaged in research. An effective strategy to inspire faculty to actively engage into research is scholarly support from the administration (Montgomery & Smith, 2015).
Instructors’ Engagement or Non-Engagement in Research

Problem of Research
This study investigated the factors contributing to the engagement and non-engagement of the instructors in Higher Education Institutions (HEIs) in research. Bengo, Herrera, and Santos (2012) emphasized that facilitating research engagement includes administrative support, the time element, money matter, recognition, individual attributes, career advancement, team collaboration, topic, scope, and teacher’s responsibility. Teachers are more likely to value research if given enough administrative support, time, money, and recognition in the context of their situation. On the one hand, money and recognition served as the teachers’ motivational factors in pursuing research endeavors. Career advancement, individual attributes, team collaboration, topic, scope, and teacher responsibility were conceived to be contributory conditional factors in doing research.

Research Focus
This study intends to develop constructs of instructors’ engagement or non-engagement in research. Furthermore, this study aims to determine the instructors’ level of engagement and non-engagement in research and develop a research training framework for instructors.

Methodology of Research

Research Sample
Four (4) Research Directors and eighty-four (84) full-time tenured instructors working in the college for at least three years participated in this study. These participants came from the four sectarian colleges, namely Marian College, Saint Vincent College, Saint Columban College, and Collegio de San Francisco Xavier in Region IX- Zamboanga Peninsula, Philippines. Permission was sought from the four sectarian colleges to be the research participants of the study and it was followed by obtaining informed consent from the participants. Confidentiality of the data was observed to protect the integrity of the institution and recruitment of the participants was voluntary.

Research Instrument Development
The study employed the researcher questionnaire based on the transcript of the interviews of the four research directors. The verbatim interview transcript was used to generate data, formulate questions, and the scale. Statements were then constructed with their meanings. The items were grouped according to engage-
ment 35 questions and 32 items for non-engagement. Validation process involved six experts who analyzed each of the items. After the validation, only 34 questions for engagement and 28 questions for non-engagement in research were approved by the six experts. The questionnaire was given to 23 instructors of the Pagadian Capitol College (PCC).

Using Cronbach’s alpha, Research Engagement Scale and the Non-Engagement Scale obtained 0.96 which confirm that the items of the proposed scales are highly reliable. The tools were used to measure the teachers’ engagement in research. The psychometric properties of the instrument were established and found valid and reliable.

**Results of Research**

**Validity Analysis of Instructors’ Engagement in Research Scale (Phase 1)**

**Sampling Adequacy and Test of Sphericity.** The appropriateness of statistics for factor examination was assessed. The Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) measure of sampling adequacy registers 0.733, indicating that the sum of partial correlations is small compared to the sum of connections. Hence the sample is adequate, and factor analysis is appropriate for the data set (Field, 2005).

Bartlett’s measure revealed the approximate Chi-Square value of 1490.222 and a p-value of 0.000 indicating that there are some relationships between variables in the 34 questions included in the analysis, and therefore factor analysis is appropriate.

**Construct Validity.** By Kaiser’s criterion, to extract four factors, the sample size must exceed 250; variables are less than 30; commonalities after extraction are higher than 0.70, and average communality is greater than 0.60. To support the number of factors extracted, there is a need to use the Scree plot. Figure 1 shows a point of inflection after the fourth factor; therefore, four factors were kept.

**Psychometric Properties of the Four Factors of Instructors’ Engagement in Research Scale.** The results of the exploratory factor analysis of the 23 items (EFA) retained four factors for the variable research engagement. The 34 items of the scale were subjected to principal component analysis (PCA). The analysis yielded the removal of eleven (11) items as they have factor loadings below 0.50. All the variables retained register factor loadings higher than 0.50. The measure of sampling adequacy indicates that factor 1 (MSA = 0.842) has great sampling adequacy. Factor 2 (MSA = 0.762), factor 3 (MSA = 0.702), and factor 4 (MSA = 0.726) have good level of sampling adequacy. As to the reliability of each factor, Cronbach’s
alpha coefficients were computed. Factor 1 (\(\alpha = 0.881\)), factor 2 (\(\alpha = 0.798\)), factor 3 (\(\alpha = 0.725\)), and factor 4 (\(\alpha = 0.703\)) possessed high level of reliability. Hence, all constructs are considered valid and reliable. The scale is, therefore, an acceptable measure of instructors’ engagement in research.

**The Factors of Instructors’ Engagement in Research Scale.** Using the principal component analysis (PCA), four factors were extracted, retaining the variables with factor loadings with 0.50 and above. Out of 34 items, eleven items were deleted as they do not reach the factor loadings of 0.50. The twenty-three (23) items composed the four-factor scale namely: Factor 1 – Administrative Support (7 items), Factor 2 – Recognition and Promotion (7 items), Factor 3 – Motivation (5 items), and Factor 4 – Institutional Requirements (4 items). The items per construct, as well as the factor loadings, are presented in Table 1.

**Factor 1 – Administrative Support.** The teachers agreed that support from administration in various means was the topmost condition facilitating their research engagement. Support includes research budget, material resources and equipment, research facilities, and provision of research workshops and training.
for teachers. Also, encouragement and moral support are seen to be vital to success in research.

**Factor 2 – Recognition and Promotion.** Teachers would take advantage of research when their effort is given due recognition. The teacher endeavor outcome will be satisfying when the research work is presented in a forum or convention as well as when included in a publication or citation. Similarly, teacher enthusiasm in research is increased when the institution grants them awards. Some teachers do research with the purpose of earning a degree, promotion, ranking, and academic growth, including improvement in their teaching practices.

**Factor 3 – Motivation.** The question of incentive and remuneration also goes beyond a division between teachers and researchers, or teaching and research. Many teachers want to conduct research to enhance their teaching performance and scholarship.

**Factor 4 – Institutional Requirements.** Conducting research should not be seen as something extra that teachers can do, which goes beyond their usual teaching but a responsibility once teachers are hired in the HEI.

**Table 1.** Item Loadings Per Component based on Rotated Component Matrix

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Items</th>
<th>Factors / Indicators of Research Engagement Scale</th>
<th>Components</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Factor 1: Administrative Support</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Item 28</td>
<td>The College has approved budget allocated for research.</td>
<td>.844</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Item 10</td>
<td>Research Fund is allocated to priority areas.</td>
<td>.802</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Item 30</td>
<td>There is sufficient funding from the college for research.</td>
<td>.721</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Item 11</td>
<td>The school identified priority research areas for the research agenda.</td>
<td>.720</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Item 27</td>
<td>Instructors are required to produce institutional research.</td>
<td>.685</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Item 12</td>
<td>The college grants financial assistance.</td>
<td>.652</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Item 29</td>
<td>Research is one of the items in the College Improvement Plan.</td>
<td>.635</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Factor 2: Recognition and Promotion</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Item 25</td>
<td>I know how to utilize online materials as sources of information.</td>
<td>.796</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Item 22</td>
<td>Research has been included in the criteria for ranking and promotion.</td>
<td>.710</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Item 24</td>
<td>I have some experiences in conducting research.</td>
<td>.694</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
### Factors / Indicators of Research Engagement Scale

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Items</th>
<th>Factors / Indicators of Research Engagement Scale</th>
<th>Components</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Item 31</td>
<td>I desire for promotion in rank.</td>
<td>.632</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Item 18</td>
<td>I am allowed to conduct classroom-based research.</td>
<td>.582</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Item 17</td>
<td>Research outputs are requirements in ranking for promotions.</td>
<td>.576</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Item 16</td>
<td>Research is a major requirement in my graduate program.</td>
<td>.558</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td><strong>Factor 3: Motivation and Training</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Item 14</td>
<td>I am motivated to conduct research after attending a research forum.</td>
<td>.747</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Item 15</td>
<td>After a seminar, I am expected to produce research proposals.</td>
<td>.701</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Item 13</td>
<td>I am encouraged to present outputs in research conferences.</td>
<td>.654</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Item 5</td>
<td>Research is required of me as an instructor per the mandate of CHED.</td>
<td>.575</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Item 8</td>
<td>The college sent me to attend a seminar on research.</td>
<td>.510</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td><strong>Factor 4: Institutional Requirements</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Item 23</td>
<td>The College organized a research club for the exposure of students.</td>
<td>.715</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Item 7</td>
<td>The college conducts seminars and training on research every semester.</td>
<td>.678</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Item 2</td>
<td>I am required to submit proposal every semester/year for approval.</td>
<td>.672</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Item 21</td>
<td>I am part of the team conducting government-funded research.</td>
<td>.612</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


**Level of Instructors’ Engagement in Research.** The instructors’ level of engagement in research was also assessed in this study. The overall results of Mean and Standard Deviation reveal that the instructors have a high level of research engagement ($M = 2.62; SD = 0.43$). The findings imply that the instructors will be highly engaged in research if there is tremendous administrative support, recognition and promotion, motivation, and an institutional requirement.

As further revealed in the results, the factor administrative support posted high level of engagement ($M=2.68; SD= 0.62$), which means that the instructors are...
highly engaged in research because the college has sufficient funding for research. Regarding recognition and promotion, the factor posted descriptive results ($M=2.88; SD=0.58$) which reveals that instructors are highly engaged in research because their outputs are included in the criteria for ranking and promotion.

Motivation and training results ($M = 2.58; SD = 0.55$), showed that motivation and training are factors to be considered when discussing instructors’ research engagement. Therefore, administrators should look into resources to send instructors to attend workshops and conferences related to conducting research. Moreover, institutional requirement obtained descriptive figures ($M = 2.34; SD = 0.62$) implicating that it could also be another factor that can highly motivate instructors to engage in research. As institutional requirement prescribed by the Commission on Higher Education (CHED). Administrators should include in the contract of teachers upon hiring that to do research is not only an institutional requirement but one of the three functions of HEIs as mandated by the Commission on Higher Education (CHED).

**Validity Analysis of Instructors’ Non-Engagement in Research Scale (Phase 2)**

**Sampling Adequacy and Test of Sphericity.** In assessing the validity of the Instructors’ Non-Engagement in Research Questionnaire, the suitability of data for factor analysis was evaluated. The results presented KMO value of 0.807 suggests that patterns of relationships are relatively compact that factor analysis yields decisive factors. Hence the sample is adequate, and factor analysis is appropriate for the data set (Field, 2005).

Further, Barlett’s measure testing the null hypothesis supports that the original correlation matrix is an identity matrix. The Chi-Square value of 4615.695 and a p-value of 0.000, indicating that there are some relationships between variables included in the analysis, and therefore factor analysis is appropriate.

**Construct Validity.** Using Kaiser’s criterion to extract four factors, the sample size must exceed 250; variables are less than 30; commonalities after extraction are greater than 0.7, and average communality is greater than 0.6. To support the number of factors to extract in this analysis, there is a need to use a scree plot. Figure 2 shows a point of inflection after the fifth factor; therefore, it is safe to keep four to five factors in this analysis.

**Psychometric Properties of the Four Factors of Instructors’ Non-Engagement in Research Scale.** The results of the exploratory factor analysis of the 28 items (EFA), retaining four factors for the variable attitude toward paper advising. The 27 items of the scale were subjected to principal component analysis (PCA). The
Instructors’ Engagement or Non-Engagement in Research

The analysis yielded the removal of one item (item 9) as it has a factor loading of below 0.50. All the variables retained register factor loadings higher than 0.50. The measure of sampling adequacy indicates that factor 1 (MSA = 0.863), factor 2 (MSA = 0.850), and factor 3 (MSA = 0.848) have possessed great level of sampling adequacy level while factor 4 (MSA = 0.657) has mediocre sampling adequacy respectively. As to the reliability of each factor, Cronbach’s alpha coefficients were computed. Factor 1 (α = 0.872), factor 2 (α = 0.877), factor 3 (α = 0.882), and factor 4 (α = 0.749) suggest that each construct has high level of reliability. All the constructs are considered valid and reliable. Therefore, the scale can be a good measure of instructors’ non-engagement in research.

**The Factors of Instructors’ Non-Engagement in Research Scale.** Table 2 shows the 27 items grouped into four (4) themes according to its rotation component matrix. Factor 1 – Time Constraint, Factor 2 – Lack of Experience and Training, and Factor 3 – Financial Limitations have both eight (8) items each and Factor 4 – Lack of Motivation has three (3) questions.

**Factor 1 – Time Constraint.** Investigators anticipate the time required for data collection and data analysis. It was revealed that the ability to do research depends mainly on the availability of time. As revealed, teachers have no time, due to the demands of being a teacher, responsibility at home, their children, and others.
Factor 2 – Lack of Experience and Training. Lack of skills and training on research was also perceived to contribute to research engagement. Researchers must have acquired specific skills to pursue a research study. Without the necessary skills, one would only see research as a burden or an additional task to be accomplished.

Factor 3 – Financial Limitations. The teachers also talked about money matters and revealed that money increases their willingness or motivation to conduct research, especially when additional income or high compensation will be given to them. Based on the interview of the research directors, three significant hindrances to research productivity including the lack of funds and a proper encouragement scheme, the lack of Ph.D. mentorship programs and incentives, and the competition for the time between undertaking research and teaching in private universities were observed.

Factor 4 – Lack of Motivation. As expected, younger individuals are more aggressive in many activities, including research. More inexperienced teachers are willing to engage in research if the administration shows support and encourages them to do research and give them fewer teaching loads. On the other hand, envy, favoritism, and intrigue are conditions which are believed to be detrimental to research engagement, especially when there are no clear institutional policies or rules presented for researcher selection.

Table 2. Item Loadings Per Component based on Rotated Component Matrix

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Items</th>
<th>Factors / Indicators of Research Non-Engagement Scale</th>
<th>Components</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Factor 1: Time Constraint</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Item 20</td>
<td>Research is stressful or tiresome.</td>
<td>.825</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Item 13</td>
<td>I have no time for research.</td>
<td>.793</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Item 10</td>
<td>I lack perseverance in conducting research.</td>
<td>.748</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Item 28</td>
<td>I prefer to take extra teaching load rather than a research deloading.</td>
<td>.710</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Item 14</td>
<td>Research is expensive.</td>
<td>.636</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Item 11</td>
<td>I have more than four (4) teaching preparations a day.</td>
<td>.598</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Item 12</td>
<td>I am fully loaded of teaching jobs.</td>
<td>.561</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Item 17</td>
<td>I have no experience in conducting research.</td>
<td>.525</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Factor 2: Lack of Experience and Training</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Item 2</td>
<td>References are limited regarding of specializations.</td>
<td>.813</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Instructors’ Engagement or Non-Engagement in Research

<table>
<thead>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Item 3</td>
<td>The College research priorities are yet to be aligned with CHED research agenda.</td>
<td>.745</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Item 7</td>
<td>I am busy with curriculum revision in preparation for K-12.</td>
<td>.726</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Item 1</td>
<td>The College reference materials for research are inadequate.</td>
<td>.654</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Item 5</td>
<td>My research capability is yet at the developing stage.</td>
<td>.652</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Item 6</td>
<td>Research culture in the College is yet to be established.</td>
<td>.631</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Item 4</td>
<td>The research director is new and inexperienced.</td>
<td>.593</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Item 8</td>
<td>I need training in data analysis.</td>
<td>.555</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Factor 3: Financial Limitation**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Items</th>
<th></th>
<th>Components</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Item 23</td>
<td>The College has no budget for part time teachers to replace teacher-researchers.</td>
<td>.844</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Item 24</td>
<td>The College Administrators are not supportive to teacher-researchers.</td>
<td>.745</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Item 21</td>
<td>Staff in the research office is inadequate in number.</td>
<td>.669</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Item 19</td>
<td>Research financial assistance/incentive is not attractive.</td>
<td>.647</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Item 22</td>
<td>Research function is attached to another office, hence, less productive.</td>
<td>.627</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Item 25</td>
<td>Research funding of the College is limited.</td>
<td>.598</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Item 15</td>
<td>Small school cannot afford to finance research.</td>
<td>.578</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Item 16</td>
<td>No personnel in the research office to help me out.</td>
<td>.547</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Factor 4: Lack of Motivation**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Items</th>
<th></th>
<th>Components</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Item 27</td>
<td>Group research is discouraged, and I cannot do it all by myself.</td>
<td>.756</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Item 26</td>
<td>Research is possible only for big schools.</td>
<td>.675</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Item 18</td>
<td>The college research priorities are not yet set.</td>
<td>.512</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Notes: Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.
Rotation Method: Varimax with Kaiser Normalization.
a. Rotation converged in 6 iterations.

**Level of Instructors’ Non-Engagement in Research.** The instructors’ level of non-engagement in research revealed an overall mean of 2.22 and a standard deviation of 0.60 showing low instructors’ engagement in research activities in their respective colleges.
As to time constraint, instructors consider research as stressful and tiresome considering that they carry full and extra loads ($M=2.23; SD=0.57$). Regarding experience and training ($M=2.22; SD=0.60$), the instructors reveal that their engagement is low in research because they are yet developing their research capabilities, and their research director is new and inexperienced. Financial limitations ($M=2.18; SD=0.64$) were also a factor of instructors’ low engagement in research. They say that research incentive is not attractive, and research finding of the college is limited. Lack of motivation ($M=2.21; SD=0.60$), according to the instructors, also made them not to engage in researching. Group research is discouraged in their school, and research priorities are not set yet.

**Discussion**

The goal of this study is to develop constructs of instructors’ engagement or non-engagement in research, determine the instructors’ level of engagement and non-engagement in research, and develop research training framework. Instructors’ engagement in research presented a four-factor scale namely: Factor 1 – Administrative Support, Factor 2 – Recognition and Promotion, Factor 3 – Motivation, and Factor 4 – Institutional Requirements. Administrative support includes research budget, material resources and equipment, research facilities, and provision of research workshops and training for teachers. When administrative support in various means is provided, it can facilitate teacher engagement in research (Bengo, Herrera, & Santos, 2012). Teachers would take advantage of research when their effort is given due recognition. Similarly, teacher enthusiasm in research is increased when the institution grants them awards. Many teachers want to conduct research to enhance their teaching performance and scholarship. Distinctive characteristics include the person’s innate abilities (i.e., IQ, personality, and age) and personal environmental influences (Erdil, & Bilsel, 2005). Therefore, it should be realized that research is done so that knowledge may be generated, and that this knowledge may be shared so that it may produce even more info knowledge (Bengo et al.,2012). Moreover, doing research should be an integral part of instructors’ duties as professionals because engaging in research is believed to be a teacher’s responsibility (Scheibehenne, Greifeneder, & Todd, 2010).

Furthermore, instructors’ non-engagement in research disclosed four (4) themes: Factor 1 – Time Constraint, Factor 2 – Lack of Experience and Training, Factor 3 – Financial Limitations, and Factor 4 – Lack of Motivation. Lack of time, skills, and training on research were perceived to be contributory to research
Instructors’ Engagement or Non-Engagement in Research

The difficulty of being deficient of research capability or ability has an unforeseen outcome affecting further complications (Bengo et al., 2012). Research undertaken by instructors who are novice to research found out to be not so reliable and low validity (Amri, 2012). Conditions beyond faculty control both personal and contextual such as heavy teaching loads, inadequate funding, and poor remuneration undermined their potential to engage in active research agendas, hampered their research output as well as teaching (Mugimui et al., 2013).

The level of engagement of instructors in research is high. The findings indicate that the instructors are actively aware of their college instructors’ responsibilities and that one of the tri-fold functions of the college is to engage in research. The level of instructors on non-engagement in the study is low. It indicates that the research participants have feelings of uncertainty in involving themselves in research. Therefore, necessary steps should be undertaken to boost their morale and actively engage themselves in research through a training framework designed for the colleges to use.

Based on the findings, the following ideas are expressed in this study: (a) The research training framework proposed herein is also recommended to be adopted by the colleges if they want to improve research productivity in their respective institutions. (b) University and college administrators are recommended to continuously motivate their teachers to conduct research. They can plan reward strategies that will be incorporated in the Faculty Handbook.

Proposed Instructors’ Training Framework for Research Development. This training framework aims to improve the instructors’ engagement in research based on the result of the present study. Research training framework is a process of staff development to improve the engagement of instructors in research with assigned job responsibilities. Promoting the specialized development of teachers is the primary goal of this framework.

Goals. Following the Republic Act 7722 otherwise known as the Higher Education Act of 1994, the Commission on Higher Education (CHED) through its mandate, has long been requiring all higher education institutions throughout the country to establish research program and have the vision and mission of the colleges which will benefit from this training program, and the guidelines set by the Commission on Higher Education, the Establishment of Research & Development (R&D) Centers. The R&D Centers are prepared to help CHED in promoting higher education research and bringing nearer the support essential to strengthen research and development functions of HEIs.

A. Enabling the instructors to overcome their non-engagement in research due to time constraint by following necessary steps in time management;
B. Equipping the instructors with the essential background in researching to make them actively engage in research. Instructors will be provided with the technical-know-how and guidelines for writing and publishing a research output. The seminar-workshop will give special attention to problems and challenges related;

C. Conduct of research capability building seminar-workshop to solve the low level and interest of instructors in research. Capability training should include but not be limited to: the research agenda, identification of research problems, research format, etc.;

D. Developing a clear understanding of the change to which the instructor or college and the college’s research program is hoping to contribute to better design, implementation, and evaluation.

E. Develop research-friendly environment: and examine the incentives and constraints influencing the production of high-quality research and its use by policymakers, especially the Commission on Higher Education Research Agenda and the National Higher Education Research Agenda (NHERA – 2).

Conclusions

The study provides a scale to measure teachers’ engagement and non-engagement in research. Based on the Cronbach’s alpha coefficients results, the tools in both Instructors’ Engagement and Non-Engagement in Research possessed a very high level of reliability and construct validity. Therefore, the instrument can be useful in assessing the level of instructors’ engagement and non-engagement in research. It can be utilized by the research directors, vice presidents for administration and academics, dean of graduate schools, CHED personnel, researchers, and instructors in assessing the levels of both the instructors’ engagement and non-engagement in research. It is suggested that the newly developed scale be retested for confirmatory factor analysis to validate the items further.

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