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Příspěvky prošly recenzním řízením. Pro každý článek jsou jmenováni dva posuzovatelé. Jména recenzentů budou zveřejněna v posledním čísle daného ročníku časopisu.

OBSAH

ČLÁNKY

RECENZE

EDITORIAL

The international scientific conference *Tradition of Public Democratic Education*, which took place on November 12th, 2009, followed in the previous tradition of pedagogical conferences focused on the issues of history of pedagogy carried out at the Olomouc university at the end of the last century. Its title refers to year 1869 when a new school act, the so-called *Imperial School Act*, was passed and introduced in Austria-Hungary. According to historians, it was the first modern school act based on the need of school reform in the new democratic society; it introduced teachers' professional training, emphasized the need to educate children with specific needs. Thus, it is a brilliant idea to hold a historical conference in order to recall its heritage and start a tradition of gathering of the specialists over the issues of history of education and to accentuate its significance which is slightly marginalized today.

Concededly, among the most important guests of the conference was the founder and "classic" of history of pedagogy at the Faculty of Teaching, Palacký University, Olomouc, prof. PhDr. Václav Kováříček, CSc., whose contribution emphasized the need to follow the tradition of research in this area; further prof. PhDr. Karel Rýdl, CSc., one of the top researchers in the field of history of pedagogy, or prof. Roman Tomaszewski presenting the contemporary direction of history of pedagogy in Poland.

Although the conference was focused mainly on history, it also included issues seemingly marginal. These issues are still an integral part of the historical context of education and widen the rather stable concept of history with their specialization. And the attempt to re-think and re-conceive history of pedagogy as a scientific discipline within the curriculum of the undergraduate training of teachers was one of the most discussed issues of the conference. It once again proved that discussing the issues of history of pedagogy is in fact discussing the topical issues, closely related to the contemporary concept of pedagogical sciences. The integration of contributions which are seemingly not the key topics of history of pedagogy into the programme of a history-oriented conference was the greatest benefit for re-thinking the concept of the branch.

The conference organization committee represented by

Mgr. Eva Kaněčková
Mgr. Pavel Neumeister, Ph.D.

ČLÁNKY

A HUNDRED YEARS OF SOLITUDE IN MORAL EDUCATION

Bohumil Fiala

Abstract

This article deals with the discussion concerning moral education. The paper tries in brief to look at the attitude to moral education at the end of the 19th century and at the present time.

Key words

Moral education, essence of people, Christianity, postmodernism.

Sto let samoty v mravní výchově

Resumé

Tento článek je příspěvkem do diskuse týkající se mravní výchovy. Snaží se stručně ukázat na postoj k mravní výchově na konci 19. století a v současnosti.

Klíčová slova

Mravní výchova, podstata člověka, křesťanství, postmodernismus.

Moral education is needed. That should not be doubted. Opinions that moral education is not necessary and that man should develop without any manipulation should be considered as minority ones. As long as man lives in the society of other people, he/she has to be manipulated in a certain way. Morals are a social phenomenon. From the historical point of view there were always discussions what should be understood under the term "morals". From the point of view of the history of ethical thinking we can find various views of the way man should behave and act. I consider that discourse as permanent and never ending. Such dialogue relates to the merit of man and his coexistence with other people.

At the beginning of this paper I would like to say that I do not agree with opinions that morals of the society were, are or will be in some crises. These

apocalyptic views excite in feeling that in some periods of the life of mankind people behaves in a more moral way that in others. In every stage people encountered problems, every period had many positives and negatives as well, every stage had its boom and recession. There is nothing immoral on that. It is a part of the order of the course of the world. Therefore questions of morals are necessary to be comprehended in such context.

Within the public democratic education these discussions were held, are being held and provided we want to maintain our culture they have to be held. Do not let us be afraid of such reasoning as they are part of our nature. Let us keep in mind that never fixed and invariable moral values and standards will be found, however, let us reflect those that proved good in the history of mankind, no matter what their origin are and how old they are.

At the end of the 19th century in the Danubian monarchy similar questions connected to moral education as we are solving now were being solved; e.g. V. Gabriel in his "Upbringing in the Family. For Our Parents and Educators" devotes to those questions great attention.[1] We can find out that he ranges moral upbringing (in his terminology moral education) as a subset of the set family upbringing. Here we see the difference of the present concept when these problems are far more related to institutions. In the course of more than one hundred years this significant change has been made, as for my opinion. Nowhere there has been stated though that this will be the permanent state, perhaps in future this ration will change again and moral education (upbringing) will again become one of the fundamental chapters of the family upbringing. Accentuating more the moral education (upbringing) in the family and making parents more responsible for that upbringing seems to me far more natural than it is nowadays when these competences are far more adopted by educational institutions.

The roots of this approach can be seemed in the 18th century at Jean Jacques Rousseau (1712–1787). This educationalist is a typical representative of intellectuals in Johnson's conception.[2] Rousseau believed that changes are possible to be reached on the base of politic process. Johnson describes the period of his life when he put away all five children who he had with his spouse Tereza Levasseure to Hôpital des Enfants – Trouvés. Father of modern pedagogy needed to justify and advocate such "non-pedagogical" conduct of his. His act is an

[1] GABRIEL, V. *Výchova rodinná. Pro rodiče a vychovatele.* Praha: Libuše, Matice zábavy a vědění, 1896.
[2] JOHNSON, P. *Intelektuálové.* Praha: Návrat domů, 1995. ISBN 80-85495-50-3.

organical part of the process from which the theory on politics and the role of state worked out by him originated. Rousseau's state is not only authoritarian; it is also totalitarian as it controls all aspects of human activity, including thinking. By the social contract man was to bind himself to "submit himself even with all his rights to the society as the whole". This approach required totalitarian submission. It is a new outline of Lenin's "democratic centralism". Laws worked out according to the common will must have an a priori moral authority. Educational process became a key to the success of cultural engineering which the state needed to be acceptable and successful; the centre line of Rousseau's ideas was a citizen as a child and a state is a parent. The political process and a new kind of the state which creates this process are a universal remedy for diseases of mankind. Politicians will manage everything. By that Rousseau prepared groundwork for the fundamental disillusion and foolishness of the twenties century.[3]

V. Gabriel understands by moral education (in no way he distinguishes from other authors) upbringing to love, respect and esteem, virtue, order, propriety and courtesy, honesty chariness and frugality, truth and love for fatherland (in the language of that period a bit different words are used).[4]

From his "Upbringing in the Family" we can read that more than one hundred years ago he pointed at negative phenomenon at children and youth which could be seen nowadays as well (maybe in small differences). For example: "Often even good children after leaving school are led astray by bad companions and into the whirl of various profligacy pulled. Many times we see fourteen or fifteen years old young lads with cigars playing cards somewhere on the balk behind the bush, or in the pub with girls hardly left school dancing. On that matter the local moral police should watch that for not that happen.

Smoking is a vice, and who has learned that in the youth then he cannot break away from that. Smoking influences the health in a killing way and threatens greatly as much as drinking alcohol drinks threatens chastity of growing lads.

On the top of those young smokers start learning to lavish uselessly hard-earned money, which mainly for the poor class, working one has as for wealth unwelcome consequences. Many times a young worker does not have a bit to

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[3] JOHNSON, P. *Intelektuálové*. Praha: Návrat domů, 1995. ISBN 80-85495-50-3. s. 28.
[4] GABRIEL, V. *Výchova rodinná. Pro rodiče a vychovatele*. Praha: Libuše, Matice zábavy a vědění, 1896.

eat and by what he feed himself for work. But the feeding for his pipe must be got, take where you can.

By puppet theatres the delicate roots of a fragile flower of innocence are burrowed under, as children often hear here talks of Punches which not even in the barracks are heard.

And what about the adolescent youth that work in factories? Who heard here talks and songs of children just left the school and noticed hollow eyes and pale cheeks of the girls employed there, he consents to that they are lilies, by the frost of depravity stricken from which the drift of life already the pollen of innocence blew off."[5]

As long as we are going to analyse his standpoint to moral education we found out that in many aspects he does not distinguish from current standpoints. For example: "Only the man free can become the moral oned", or "to keep up the word already given and truth to love".[6]

I repeat, in one hundred years the view on the states and the role of the family in moral education and on the basic source of morals has changed fundamentally. In that I would see the principled problem which we should solve. "Morals are higher and exalts more than science and knowledge. Knowledge is only the means, morals are the aim".[7] I assume that at the beginning of the third millennium, in the consequence of the development from the second half of the twentieth century, this ratio is reverse. Nowadays above all knowledge and science is talked about, knowledge and skills which students are to have.

If we refer to the family upbringing, in many cases the family does not fulfil its traditional educational role see. "Childhood, family and old-age in the history of Europe".[8]

The fundamental problem in moral education lies in my opinion in the source of morals. Moral education is not only based explicitly on Christianity, even though many Christian elements which are rooted in our culture are transformed into moral education. For example the already mentioned author places "cultivating volition or love" (he places love among all virtues on the first

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[5] GABRIEL,V. *Výchova rodinná. Pro rodiče a vychovatele*. Praha: Libuše, Matice zábavy a vědění, 1896. s. 307.

[6] GABRIEL, V. *Výchova rodinná. Pro rodiče a vychovatele*. Praha: Libuše, Matice zábavy a vědění, 1896. s. 88, 103.

[7] GABRIEL, V. *Výchova rodinná. Pro rodiče a vychovatele*. Praha: Libuše, Matice zábavy a vědění, 1896. s. 88.

[8] HORSKÁ, P. – KUČERA, M. – MAUR, E. – STLOUKAL, M. *Dětství, rodina a stáří v dějinách Evropy*. Praha: Panorama, 1990.

place) in the famous first letter saint apostle Paul to the Corinthians where he speaks on the position of love.[9] By the fact that at the beginning of the twenty-first century the source is absent the process balances on the clay legs.

From the philosophical view firstly from post modernistic positions (post-modernisms is a concept being pushed at attempts to indicate and also to describe the wide changes the source of which became to be acknowledged in an increased extent in the second half of the twentieth century).

The Czech philosopher, V. Bělohradský, summarizes basic motives of post modern thinking, among others also by the following way. "It is necessary to extricate from the power of the myth on the final solution, on punishment and rewards which is the base of modern philosophy of the history. This myth founds domination of man over the nature by reducing the world only on some kind of object, a kind of a examination in which the one who succeeds will acquire immortality. Patočka speaks about the "happy end" which philosophy contrives constantly. How the reality became a fable – so the greatest Nietzsche's question sounds. To live without the happy end, that is a big post – a modern motif. Its consequence is "de-historicizing" of sociability. Human social relations are extricating from subordination to the historical projects into which it was thrown by the modern philosophy of the history. The sense is established in human communication. In the cyclical period of time and not in the projects of the final solution."[10] From the philosophical standpoint it is the aspect deriving its significance from the history of the twentieth century. Nevertheless from the point of view of pedagogy it brings fundamental difficulties. Honestly, without the myth and final solutions, without the stress and awards, without the happy end moral education can be realized in a very difficult way. Naturally that it proceeds. But it leans on the swamp subsoil.

The majority of human beings behave in a moral way as it is advantageous for them. This theory of moral advantageousness penetrates our whole life. Naturally there exist individuals who behave morally on the basis of moral principles, to behave so not because that it is advantageous, but for the principle. Based on the "higher moral principle" to be willing even to sacrifice the life.

J. F. Lyotard claims that the levels of statements of the world and ways of denomination of the relation of man to it are so different that they lose recipro-

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[9] GABRIEL, V. *Výchova rodinná. Pro rodiče a vychovatele*. Praha: Libuše, Matice zábavy a vědění, 1896. s. 94.
[10] BĚLOHRADSKÝ, V. *Přirozený svět jako politický problém. (Esej o člověku pozdní doby)*. Praha: Československý spisovatel, 1991. ISBN 80-202-0279-X. s. 136.

cal comprehensibility. By that also the possibility of the approach to the world as the whole vanishes and whatever certainty die away for the current man.[11]

Many people as I have mentioned need firm moral codexes from which it implies how they should behave and not only that.. The majority needs to know why it is advantageous for them to behave according to those codexes and on the contrary why it is disadvantageous for them to ignore them.

D. Šimek in "Selected Problems of the Theory of Education of Adults" refers to the fact that moral codexes in Europe practically till the present time have not exceeded the limitation given by the limits of the biblical "Ten Commandments." Moreover he states that this "Ten Commandments" by far is not the original work of the Israelites from the period of the exodus and also in this respect the authors of the texts utilized from the cultural heritage of Mesopotamia and Egypt. Moral norms of "Ten Commandments" reflect the level of moral, as well as economic, legal and mainly religious cognition of its period. In his text D. Šimek further shows that the moral codex of a builder of communist admitted at the XXII. Congress of the Soviet Union thought it comes out from dialectical-historical and dialectical-materialistical principles (which are strictly atheistic), with its general structure does not differ in principle too much from the "Ten Commandments".

T. Halík, our current most significant sociologist of religion, in the majority of his works points out the fact that traditional European religion, Christianity which is one of the European pillars historically is losing its dominant position, it recedes from the majority of areas which it addressed before. According to him it is an illusion to assume that it will recover its positions. He speaks about the fact that Christianity will be one of the jigsaws in the varied European culture. It will address not insignificant group of believers, nevertheless it will already not be and would not have ambitions to be a religion of the whole Europe.[12]

The European Court for Human Rights in Strasbourg from November 4th 2009 decided that Christian crosses in state schools endanger freedom of religion and education. The judges thus complied with the complaint of a woman who addressed them as she thought that the Italian state does not enable to

[11] LYOTARD, J. F. *O postmodernismu*. 1. vyd. Praha: Filosofia, 1993. ISBN 80-7007-047-1.

[12] viz. HALÍK, T. *Dotkni se ran. Spiritualita nelhostejnosti*. 1. vyd. Praha: NLN, 2008. ISBN 978-80-7106-979-9. HALÍK, T. *Oslovit Zachea*. 1. vyd. Praha: NLN, 2003. ISBN 80-7106-547-1. HALÍK, T. *Noc zpovědníka. Paradoxy malé víry v postoptimistické době*. 1. vyd. Praha: NLN, 2005. ISBN 80-7106-777-6. HALÍK, T. *Vzdáleným nablízku. Vášeň a trpělivost v setkání víry s nevírou*. 1. vyd. Praha: NLN, 2007. ISBN 978-80-7106-907-2.

educate children in the secular environment. It is the truth that the majority of the Italians unified in the disapproval to that verdict. The verdict however shows the position of Christianity in our present European culture. This "European" decision gives us the answer how to teach moral education. To avoid everything what could irritate someone. Education should be absolutely impartial and in the sense of political correctness in the broadest sense of meaning. The whole mentioned event was commented by the Italian president S. Berlusconi in words that the verdict is an irrational attempt to "deny European Christian roots". The second man of the Vatican City, the state secretary cardinal T. Bertone presented the statement "Europe of the third millennium refuses takes away from us the most precious symbols and gives us only pumpkins for the festival of Halloween".[13]

The French writer R. Merle in his sci-fi novel "Melville" describes the country after the nuclear catastrophe. Isolated groups of the people were saved. Heroes of the book think about the way of living in the existing situation. Even though they all have experience with the pluralistic democratic society, they decide to set their life on the order and in the sense of this order to bring up their offspring.[14]

The process of moral education proceeds in the relation with moral and value development of the individuality. O. Roche speaks about the education to pro-sociability. Pro-sociability conduct is generally understood as a type of the behaviour when one can help or be good to another person, without expecting any outer reward. That education already appeared in the 2nd half if the last century and is among others a sad reaction on those elements of the development of the society which support a general trend of man to pragmatic individualism. That except advantages which can be brought to an individual can of course be or respectively it is for man a certain risk. The systems heading here thus try to build on another tendency, the altruistic tendency.[15]

This concept seems to me superficial and idealistic. I repeat, the majority of individuals behaved, behaves and will behave pragmatically. It relates to the principle of man.

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[13] *Kříže v italských školách podle Štrasburku ohrožují svobodu vyznání.* [*online*]. Publikováno 4. 11. 2009 [cit. 10. 11. 2009]. Dostupné z: http://www.ct24.cz/svet/71535-krize-v-italskych-skolach-podle-strasburku-ohrozuji-*svobodu-vyznani/*

[14] MERLE, R. *Malevil.* Praha: Svoboda, 1992. ISBN 8020502424.

[15] ROCHE, O. *Etická výchova.* Bratislava: Orbis pictus Istropolitana, 1992. ISBN 80-7158-001-5.

I would like to refer to the work of R. Palouš "Time of Education" and "Philosophy of Education" when he attempts to map individual views on education and refers to that "anchoring" in the educational process.[16]

Conclusion

By the conclusion itself I would like to explain why I have entitled the paper. "A Hundred Years of Solitude in Moral Education" which I have borrowed from the world-famous book by G. G. Marquez. The history as if it repeated, we are solving the same fundamental problems, we are not able to analyse the past, at the same time we absent from ourselves and from the worlds as well and we do not try to understand why it is like that.[17]

The concept of the moral education from the nineteenth century as I have briefly drafted is considered by me as very incentive and inspiring in the sphere of the concrete principle. Otherwise said, without any regard to the Christian orientation of that period education, I have to behave in a moral way just because of that.

I am unable in this paper a solution, I wanted only to refer to "throwing away" anchors and offering seemingly quite surely a nice and attractive model of moral education which is based on lofty intellectual phrases, but in principle icy empty.

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[16] PALOUŠ, R. *K filosofii výchovy.* 1. vyd. Praha: Státní pedagogické nakladatelství, 1991. ISBN 80-04-25390-3.
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IDENTIFICATION OF MATHEMATICALLY GIFTED PUPILS OF LOWER SECONDARY SCHOOLS

Eva Hotová

Abstract

The contribution deals with results of the research focused on characteristics of mathematically gifted pupils. The aim of the research was to involve and describe main signs and abilities of mathematically gifted pupils.

Key words

Gifted pupils, mathematics.

Identifikace matematicky nadaných žáků na 2. stupni základních škol

Abstrakt

Příspěvek pojednává o výsledcích výzkumného šetření, jehož cílem bylo postihnout a popsat hlavní společné znaky a schopnosti matematicky nadaných žáků.

Klíčová slova

Nadaní žáci, matematika.

Introduction

The identification of a gifted child is not easy thanks to uniqueness of each individual. We can find in each of them different combination and intension of personality characteristics, abilities, behaviours. There is a question whether there are some signs and abilities that would be common to majority of mathematically gifted pupils. This question became a base for the formulation of our research issue.

Are there any signs and abilities typical for a mathematically gifted pupil in comparison with a "normal" pupil?

The research was led at five different elementary schools in Olomouc during the school year 2008. The sample consists of 8th-graders from 11 classes. All together it was 204 pupils. 20 respondents were removed from the research because they did not take part in both phases of the research.

The pupils were divided (on the basis of set criteria) into two disjunctive groups: mathematically gifted pupils and "normal" pupils.

Criteria for selection of mathematically gifted pupils were formulated as follows:
1. the result on the standardized test Kalkulie IV.
2. excellent results in mathematics (in 7th grade)
3. taking part in mathematical activities
4. described by teacher as creative, original in solving problems, with excellent knowledge, with interest in mathematics etc.

A pupil to be called mathematically gifted has to fulfil at least three of the four given criteria.

To gain the needed data we used the standardized test of mathematical abilities Kalkulie IV., non-standardized didactic test of mathematics created by the author and an interview with math teachers of the classes which took part in the research. We used methods of quantitative research to verify individual hypotheses. All hypotheses were tested at the significance level $\alpha = 0.05$.

The test Kalkulie IV. was administered in group form. Time of testing is set by the author J. Novák (2002) to 25 minutes. It is a standardized test identifying the mathematical quotient (MQ) of children from the age of 10 to 16 years. It is different from usual mathematical school tasks. It is not given only by numerical operations. While solving the tasks respondent is stimulated by spatial structure of stimuli. The test concludes 36 tasks with increasing demandingness.

Didactic test concluded 13 tasks and it took 40 minutes. The tasks were mainly open with brief (3 tasks) and wide (9 tasks) possibility of answer. One of the tasks is a select task, with the possibility of multiple-choice answers.

While testing pupils were seated alone in their desks. Testing was conducted with the agreement of the school headmaster in two days in the morning.

Teacher's interview in each class was conducted after individual agreement with the teacher and it was needed to gain information necessary to decide the fulfilling of criteria set for pupils division. The aim was to gain information:
− about the results of pupils in mathematics in summer semester of the 7th grade,

- about the participation of pupils and their success in mathematical competitions, olympics,
- about the level of originality, creativity of pupils in solving tasks in mathematics lessons.

The answers were recorded while interviewing.

Results of the standardized test Kalkulie IV. (Test no. 1).

We set the MQ of all tested students according to the results in Kalkulie IV. test (see Graph no. 1). If we compare the distribution of MQ of the research sample with the data in Novak (2002), we find out that most of the pupils is in the range of average results. On average pupils gained 104 points in Kalkulie IV., the most common results were 106 and 109 points.

Graph no. 1 Percent occurrence of MQ of the research sample
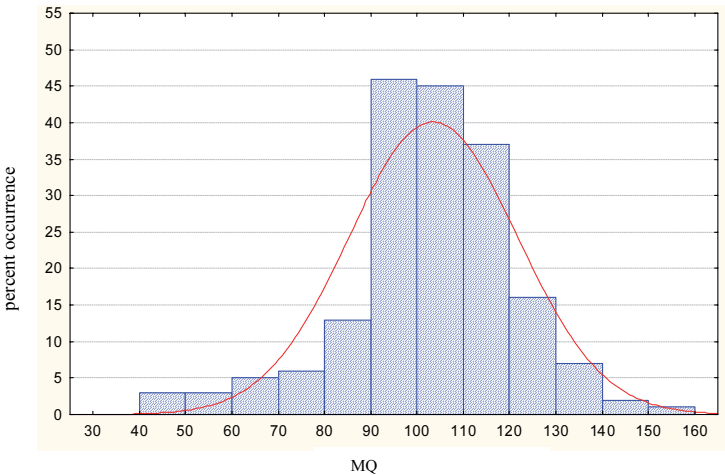
Table no. 1 Average, minimal and maximal value of MQ of the research sample

variable	average	standard deviation	minimal value	maximal value	N
test no. 1	103.5272	18.31298	46	153	184

There were several pupils who finished the test before the end of the time limit.

Following graphs and tables show the results of pupils in Kalkulie IV. We divided them according to set criteria in two groups: mathematically gifted pupils and "normal" pupils.

Graph no. 2 Percent occurrence of MQ of mathematically gifted pupils
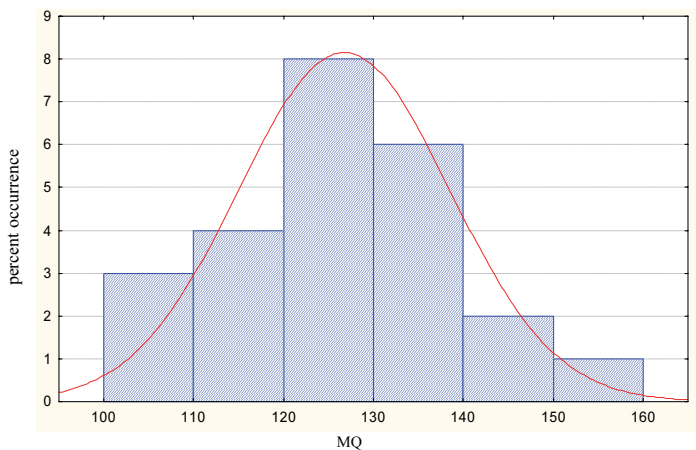
Table no. 2 Average, minimal and maximal value of MQ of mathematically gifted pupils

| variable	average	standard deviation	minimal value	maximal value	N
test no. 1	126.7500	11.74086	106	153	24

Table no. 3 Average, minimal and maximal value of MQ of "normal" pupils

variable	average	standard deviation	minimal value	maximal value	N
test no. 1	100.0437	16.50552	46	135	160

Graph no. 3 Percent occurrence of MQ of "normal" pupils
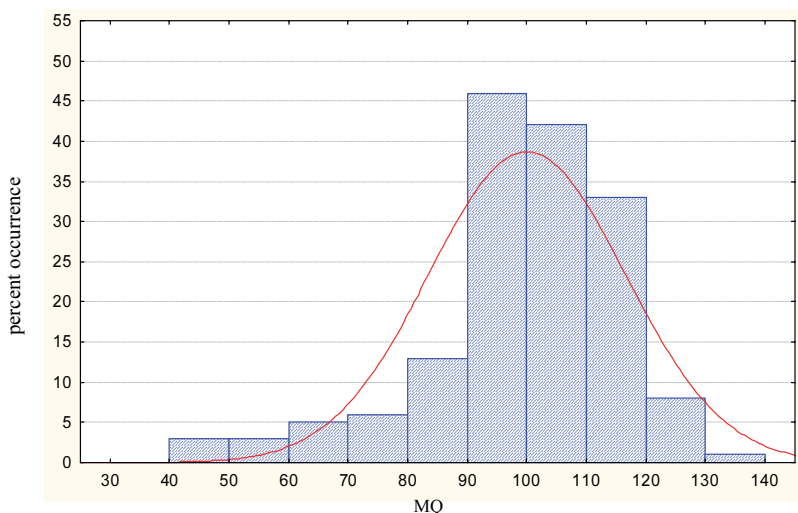
It is obvious from the histograms and tables that the results of both groups in Kalkulie IV. are very different. The difference is 27 points. The average value of MQ of mathematically gifted pupils is higher than the limit we set for criterium 1.

Results of the didactic test (Test no. 2)

The didactic test consists of 13 tasks. Pupils get 1 point for every correctly solved task. Therefore, a pupil could get a maximum of 13 points. Results from this test can be seen in Graph no. 4.

Graph no. 4 Percent occurrence of gained points in didactic test of the research sample
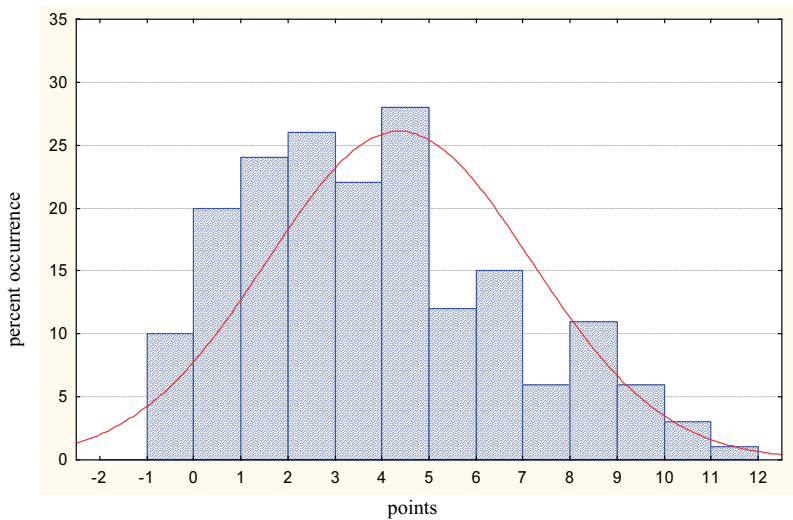
Average result in didactic test (rounded off result) were 4 points, the most common result was 5 points

Table no. 4 Average, minimal and maximal value gained in didactic test of the research sample

variable	average	standard deviation	minimal value	maximal value	N
test no. 2	4.364130	2.811572	0	12	184

The following graphs and tables show the results of pupils in didactic test after division in two groups: mathematically gifted pupils and "normal" pupils.

Graph no. 5 Percent occurrence of points gained in didactic test of mathematically gifted pupils.
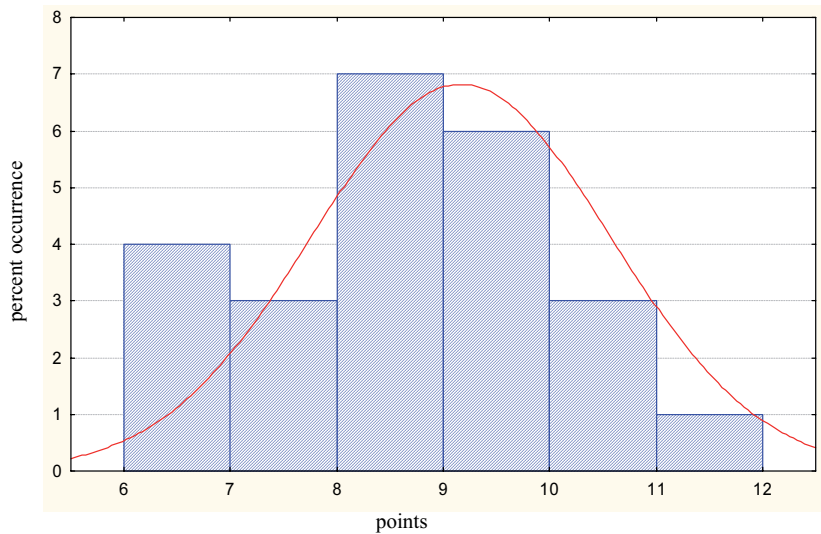
Table no. 5 Average, minimal and maximal value of points gained in didactic test of mathematically gifted pupils

variable	average	standard deviation	minimal value	maximal value	N
test no. 2	9.166667	1.403928	7	12	24

Graph no. 6 Percent occurrence of points gained in didactic test of "normal" pupils
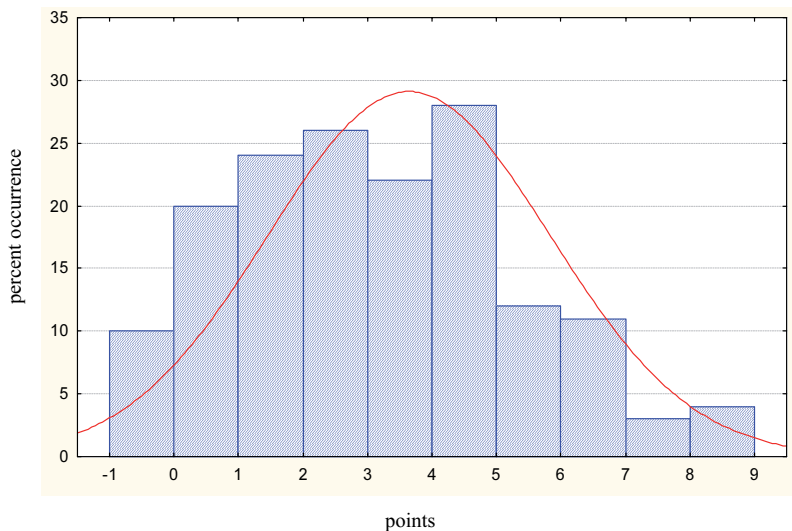
Table no. 6 Average, minimal and maximal value of points gained in didactic test of "normal" pupils

variable	average	standard deviation	minimal value	maximal value	N
test no. 2	3.64375	2.193033	0	9	160

We can see the same dramatic difference of average point evaluation of both groups as in Kalkulie IV. The difference is 5 points (rounded off result).

Research hypotheses
H1   A mathematically gifted pupil chooses problems of higher cognitive demands than "normal" pupil.

H2 A mathematically gifted pupil is more successful in solving tasks which need space imagination in comparison with a "normal" pupil.

H3 A mathematically gifted pupil is more successful in solving tasks based on logical thinking in comparison with a "normal" pupil.

H4 While solving divergent problems a mathematically gifted pupil finds more solutions in comparison with a "normal" pupil.

H5 A mathematically gifted pupil is able to correctly formulate his/her statements and arguments while defending them in comparison with a "normal" pupil.

H6 A mathematically gifted pupil is more successful in solving nonstandard tasks in comparison with a "normal" pupil.

Before testing the hypotheses H1–H6 we always formulated zero and alternative hypothesis and according to nominal character of the data they were tested by statistical method for nominal data analysis – chi-square test of independence for a pivot table.

If the variables had only two alternative qualities, the hypotheses were tested by statistic test chi-square test for a two-way contingency table.

Conclusions

1. Testing hypotheses and interpretation of the research results

The aim of the research focused on characteristics of mathematically gifted pupils was to involve and describe main signs and abilities of mathematically gifted pupils. To gain the data needed we used the standardized tests Kalkulie IV., nonstandardized didactic test in mathematics and nonstructured interview with mathematics teachers. To verify individual hypothesis we used methods of quantitative research. All hypotheses were tested on the significance level $\alpha = 0.05$.

Statistical analysis of gained data confirmed that mathematically gifted pupils are more successful in solving logical tasks, tasks demanding space imagination and nonstandard tasks in comparison with "normal" pupils. In our test it was a task that 8th graders could not had met before – combinatorial task. Moreover we showed that mathematically gifted pupils can find more correct solutions in solving divergent tasks in comparison with "normal" pupils. Hypothesis H5 indicated connection between belonging to a group and the ability to correctly formulate his/her statements and arguments while their advocacy. The value of coefficient $r_{\phi} = 0.31$ showed low dependence between the phenomenon.

Statistic analysis of the data did not confirm the hypothesis that mathematically gifted pupils prefer tasks of higher cognitive demandingness in comparison with "normal" pupils.

2. Relations among individual gained data

The results of the didactic test showed that better results gained on this test are connected with higher value of MQ gained in test Kalkulie IV. Therefore, we can presume that belonging to a group would be statistically important. It was confirmed by the point-biserial correlation coefficient.

We were also interested in how tight is the relation between belonging to a group (gifted pupils or "normal" pupils) and the result gained in didactic test. We tested the relation on the basis of point-biserial correlation coefficient. Proven tightness is considerable $r_{bb} = 0.66$, which shows that belonging to a group predicts successfulness on test.

Overall we can say that the choice of tasks in didactic tests is good. It could be a diagnostic instrument for identification of giftedness.

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NATURAL SCIENCE TEXTBOOKS FOR THE FIFTH GRADE AND THEIR TEXT DIFFICULTY

Libuše Hrabí

Abstract

This article presents knowledge of the text difficulty evaluation of six current Czech natural science textbooks for the fifth grade. The text analysis was carried out by Průcha's modified method. Results indicate that text difficulty is similar in four studied textbooks (28 points). They are books of these publishing companies – Alter, Fortuna, Prodos, SPN, which can be used in fifth grade of education.

Key words

Natural science textbooks, syntactic factor, semantic factor, text difficulty.

Učebnice přírodovědy pro pátý ročník a jejich obtížnost

Abstrakt

V článku jsou obsaženy poznatky o hodnocení obtížnosti textu v šesti současných českých učebnicích přírodovědy pro pátý ročník základní školy. Analýzy textů byly provedeny modifikovanou metodou dle Průchy. Dosažené výsledky ukazují, že náročnost textu je obdobná ve čtyřech studovaných učebnicích (28 bodů). Jsou to knihy těchto nakladatelství – Alter, Fortuna, Prodos, SPN, jež mohou být používány v pátém ročníku.

Klíčová slova

Učebnice přírodovědy, syntaktický faktor, sémantický faktor, obtížnost textu.

Introduction

In our country there are many publishing companies, which produce a large range of books and textbooks. Natural scince textbooks are published by six or more companies in the Czech Republic. There are not many pedagogical

research workers, who are interested in a complex research of textbooks (Pluskal 1996). One of the most important things is to distinguish basic content from expanding content of the curriculum. Basic content of the curriculum presents a smaller part of expanding text in textbooks.

It is possible to study textbooks from different points of view – analyses of the text difficulty, tasks, surces of nonverbal information and others. Some text analyses have been realized by these authors – Hrabí 2003, 2005, 2009, Olechowski 1995, Ottich – Kowalczyk 1992, Průcha 1984, 1997, Shepardson – Pizzini 1991, Schmidt 1991. At this time is not such research widespread.

That is why the aim of this article is to bring results of some textbook evaluations.

Material and methods

Text difficulty was examined out in six natural science textbooks for the fifth grade. Natural science textbooks of the publishing companies Alter (1996, 1997), Fortuna (2001), Nová škola (2004), Prodos (1997), Scientia (1997) and SPN (2004) were examined. Ten samples of text from each textbook were examined according to Průcha´s modified method (Hrabí 2005) by random sample. Each sample consisted of 100 or more words (ΣN). Particular characteristics, their symbols, definitions, ways of calculation are written as follows:

T – text difficulty; $T = T_s + T_p$ (points),

T_s – syntactic factor; $T_s = 0.1 \times \overline{V} \times \overline{U}$ (points),

$\overline{V}$ – average length of sentence (number of words),

$\overline{U}$ – syntactic complexity of sentence (number of words),
T_p – semantic factor,

$$T_p = 100 \times \frac{\sum P}{\sum N} \times \frac{\sum P_1 + 2\sum P_2 + 3\sum P_3}{\sum N} \text{ (points)}$$

$$\overline{V} = \frac{\sum N}{\sum V}$$

$$\overline{U} = \frac{\sum N}{\sum U}$$

ΣN – number of words
ΣV – number of sentences
ΣU – number of regular verbs
ΣP – number of substantives
$ΣP_1$ – number of common terms
$ΣP_2$ – number of scientific terms
$ΣP_3$ – number of factual terms

$$i = 100 \times \frac{\sum P_2 + \sum P_3}{\sum N}$$ – coefficient of density of scientific and factual information (%)

$$h = 100 \times \frac{\sum P_2 + \sum P_3}{\sum P}$$ – coefficient of density of scientific and factual information (%)

Results

The most important characteristics of the text difficulty are written in Table 1. The total number of analysed words varies from 1006 to 1062 in the studied natural science textbooks. They form from 87 to 95 sentences. The average length of one sentence is about 11–12 words. Syntactic complexity of one sentence achieves only 7 or 8 words. The total number of common terms is quite different in the studied textbooks and achieves from 58 to 120 terms. The total number of scientific terms is very different and varies from 163 to 271. The number of factual terms achieves from 0 to 42. Values of the syntactic factor reach from 7.88 to 9.66 points.The lowest value is characteristic for the textbook of Scientia publishing company. It shows that this book contains short sentences and has a low complexity of one sentence. Values of the semantic factor vary from 15.29 to 24.30 points. According to this study it is possible to mention that the textbook of Scientia publishing company does not contain many substantives in sentences. In contrast, the textbook of Nová škola publishing company has many substantives in each sentence.

Coefficients of density of scientific and factual information (i) achieve from 18.29 % to 29.32 %, and coefficients of scientific and factual information (h) fluctuate between 60.53 % and 73.27 %. This shows that studied natural science textbooks contain various density of scientific and factual information.

Obtained results of the text difficulty evaluation show that majority of studied natural science textbooks have texts of similar difficulty – about 28 points. They are textbooks of these publishing companies – Alter, Fortuna, Prodos, SPN. In contrast, the textbook of Scientia publishing company has a text of low difficulty – 23 points, and the textbook of Nová škola publishing company has a text of high difficulty – 34 points.

Main components of the text difficulty are given in Graph 1. Received values of the syntactic factor (Ts) show similar complexity of sentences. Values of the semantic factor (Tp) are similar in majority of studied textbooks. Values of the text difficulty are very near in four textbooks.

Table 1 Main characteristics of the text difficulty in natural science textbooks for fifth grade (studied by Průcha's modified method)

Characteristic	Publishing companies					
	Alter	Fortuna	Nová škola	Prodos	Scientia	SPN
ΣN	1059	1062	1047	1015	1006	1048
ΣV	92	95	93	89	95	87
ΣU	143	127	122	133	135	132
$\overline{V}$	11.5	11.18	11.26	11.40	10.59	12.00
$\overline{U}$	7.46	8.36	8.58	7.63	7.45	7.94
ΣP_1	98	74	65	80	120	58
ΣP_2	211	271	270	232	163	239
ΣP_3	42	0	37	26	21	31
ΣP	351	345	372	338	304	328
Ts	8.58	9.35	9.66	8.69	7.88	9.53
Tp	20.22	18.84	24.30	19.55	15.29	18.78
T	28.8	28.19	33.96	28.24	23.17	28.31
i	23.89	25.52	29.32	25.42	18.29	25.76
h	64.05	70.57	73.27	65.98	60.53	71.81

Graph 1 Values of the text difficulty (T), syntactic factor (Ts) and semantic factor (Tp) in studied textbooks
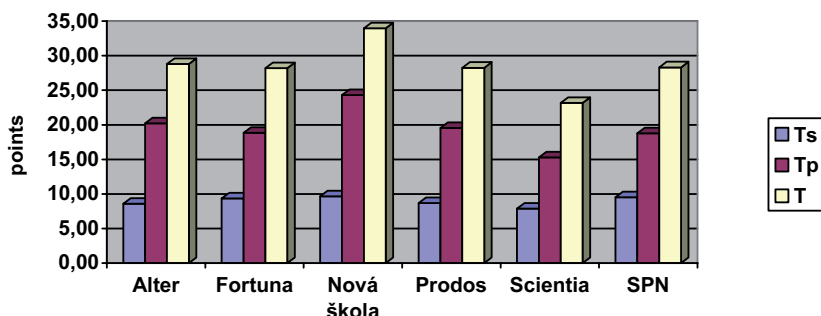
Conclusion

This paper presents findings about evaluation of the text difficulty in six natural science textbooks for the fifth grade. Results indicate that text difficulty is similar in four studied textbooks (28.19–28.8 points). They are books of these publishing companies – Alter, Fortuna, Prodos and SPN. The above-named textbooks can be used in educational process. The text difficulty is very low in the book of Scientia publishing company (23.17 points) and the most difficult text is in the book of Nová škola publishing company (33.96 points). The average value of the text difficulty achieves 28.45 points. The textbooks of Scientia publishing company and Nová škola publishing company could not be used in fifth grade.

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THE POSITION OF UNIVERSITY GRADUATES
IN THE LABOUR MARKET

Michaela Jirotková

Summary

The contribution deals with the situation of university graduates in the labour market, especially of those with hearing impairment.

Keywords

Graduate, hearing impairment, tertiary education, labour market.

Resumé

Příspěvek se zabývá situací absolventů univerzitních studií na trhu práce, a to zejména těch, kteří mají sluchové postižení.

Klíčová slova

Absolvent, sluchové postižení, terciární vzdělávání, trh práce.

Introduction

In general, the successfully completed level of education has quite a significant effect on one's success in the labour market. The level of education increases the rate of economical activity and, on the contrary, decreases the unemployment rate. People of higher education and qualification are better employable, and therefore less prone to unemployment.

Young university graduates (up to 30 years) are slightly worse than university graduates in general, since they are entering the labour market and have no experience nor work history, and they only have mediate contacts. Their unemployment rate is therefore higher than in all university graduates and it often reaches the same level as the total unemployment.[1] It is even more visible in differences among countries. In the Czech Republic, the unemployment rate

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[1] Better are those graduates, in almost all countries, who had worked with their employers working whilst on during the course of study.

of university graduates up to 30 years of age is around 5 %; even lower it is, for example, in Ireland, Finland and the Netherlands. However, for example, in Italy or in Greece every fifth or sixth graduate up to 30 years of age is unemployed. In view of the overall weak labour market the same applies to university graduates in Poland.[2]

In the labour market, university graduates with hearing impairment form a particular risk group. In addition to the general problem of unemployment of graduates, these face obstacles associated with difficulties in oral communication. However, there are also problems resulting from lack of social understanding between the aurally disabled and hearing colleagues at work.[3]

It happens that students of hearing impairment are interested in a certain interest but after the completion of their studies they do not work in the field. Qualified graduates come to an environment where the suitability or unsuitability of the chosen university major will show. This will prove only after the start of a graduate's working process. In case of failure in seeking a job the graduates lose motivation for professional self-realization, or are unwilling to take over the responsibility for their own lives. Their lack of practice, missing work habits and minimum experienceare a disadvantage in applying for a job. Great attention is paid to active involvement of graduates in the labour market, in particular through consultancy systems and tools of active employment policy.

Tarcsi (in Jesensky, 1998, p. 145) states that generally it can be said that the deaf people are able to work in various working sectors but no special attention is paid to the questions closely related to this issue, e.g. keeping a job, the subordinate/superior relation, searching for a new job, opportunities for qualification and retraining, the possibility of termination of a joband its consequences. The problems that may arise for a deaf employee at the workplace are the result of:

- limited understanding or using the colloquial language by colleagues and the employer,
- lack of knowledge of the standards of the "hearing culture" and values relevant for the organization of work,
- difficult access to "random" information as a result of hearing impairment.

Work and the resulting material security is an important prerequisite for involvement of hearing-impaired persons in the hearing society. The resolution of

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[2] Processed according to http://www.natur.cuni.com/www/data/student/doc/pdf uplatneni. [Online].
[3] Processed according to http://www.vupsv.cz/ Cervenkova_odb_priprava.pdf.

these problems, however, cannot be accidental and, according to Tarcsi (1995), not at the charitable level. It requires the cooperation of experts and certainly founding special centres that will deal with such issues.

THE DEFINITION OF A GRADUATE – JOB SEEKER

Currently the employment offices monitor three indicators related to the number of unemployed graduates:[4]

1. All registered graduates – job seekers

Graduates – job seekers, as defined by the Ministry of Labour and Social Affairs, now used only for statistical purposes, are the job seekers who are natural persons under 25 years of age, graduated two years ago as maximum; the university graduates only up to the age of 30.

2. Available unemployed graduates

The number of available the unemployed graduates represents the number "all the graduates – job seekers minus those graduates who cannot immediately start working".[5]

3. Unemployed "recent" graduates

Unemployed recent graduates include only those who finished their education in the period immediately prior to the term of the count, i.e. the count in April. These are the graduates who successfully finished their studies in the period from May 1st to April 30th of the year of the count.

PROFESSIONAL AND KEY COMPETENCES

The graduates choose their position in the labour market on one hand on the basis of the focus of their vocational (i.e. professional) training but in the end the graduates' position is determined mainly by the requirements of the labour market. In other words the graduates choose from the opportunities the labour

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[4] Chamoutová D., Burdova, J.: *Nezaměstnanost absolventů škol se středním a vyšším odborným vzděláním*, p. 13.

[5] These are the jobseekers who may who may immediately start working when offerred a suitable job, i.e. the registered unemployed who do not have any objective obstacle to a job. The jobseekers not considered available are those who are arrested, incapable for work, those participating in retraining courses or those performing a short-time job and those receiving maternal subsidy or social security income during maternity leave.

market has to offer. The graduate's actual position in the labour market thus can be very different from their own ideals and it may not even correspond to their vocational training (underqualified work or work out of the scope of training).

From the viewpoint of successful entry of the hearing disabled graduates to the labour market it is important to what extent their real abilities, skills and knowledge (competence) correspond to those required by the employers. "Competences possessed by employees and job seeker in various extend can be divided into professional and key competences. The professional competences are closely related to a particular qualification and their mastering enables (or facilitates) the exercise of certain professions or occupations. With the growing importance of qualifications exceeding individual professions and the changing work requirements the emphasis put on the key competences increases as well. The key (transferable) competences are such knowledge, abilities and skills, which appear necessary for the success not only in the labour market but also in everyday life."[6]

What applies to all graduates is that employers prefer employees with work experience. On the other hand, employers like mainly young people, and this not only because of saving on their salaries, but primarily because that in this way they can train the employees according to their requirements and needs. A number of employers prefer graduates in some cases. The reasons stated are following:[7]

- being unburdened with previous work habits,
- language skills,
- computer skills,
- willingness to learn,
- overall rejuvenation of the collective,
- future replacement of retired workers ,
- contribution in the form of new views and solutions.

Sometimes there are also conditional reasons. Graduates are preferred only if they have had some experience or a part-time-job experience in the sector they are accepted for.

Mastering these competences should contribute to the ability to perform various professional tasks or to switch among different professions without

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[6] Kalousková P.: *Potřeby zaměstnavatelů a připravenost absolventů škol – šetření v terciární sféře*, p. 7.

[7] Kalousková P.: *Potřeby zaměstnavatelů a připravenost absolventů škol – šetření v terciární sféře*, p. 9.

major problems and to help match capabilities of employees and requirements of employers.

ARTICULATION OF THE TERTIARY SYSTEM TO THE LABOUR MARKET[8]

A close interconnection between the field of employers and the educational system represents one of the paths leading to a balance of the quality of fresh workforce and the requirements of the labour market. The most frequent forms of cooperation between employers and school are students' excursions and visits to workplaces, students' study stays evaluated by employers, participation in research or other projects of particular schools, job offers advertised at schools, proposing, supervising and opposing diploma theses, or seminar papers, participation in job fairs, paid study stays or cooperation in development and research projects.

The institutional structure and political framework interconnecting the Czech tertiary institutions and the labour market, have its strengths defined below.

Strengths
➢ some public universities have study programmes, lessons and research interconnected to practice,
➢ private universities and higher technical schools are more oriented to employability and the graduates' success in the labour market,
➢ the national policy framework, created by the Ministry of Education, Youth and Sports, contains some elements forcing institutions of tertiary education to focus on employability of their graduates and their success in the labour market,
➢ a priority of the Ministry of Education, Youth and Sports is cooperation between universities and their regions and various employers, connection of theory and practice in university education.

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[8] Processed according to http://www.msmt.cz/uploads/bila_kniha/OECD_Country_Note_CZ_celek. Pdf [Online].

Weaknesses

The institutional structure and political framework of the Czech tertiary education also have their weaknesses in the context of the labour market.

Institutional structure

➢ even though new universities have started up, the balance between demand and offer is still not optimal, because a lot of students with school-leaving examination will not be accepted to get to university,

➢ universities are not fully adapted to the task of providing students education and at the same time preparing suitable for practice; university institutions are working only for themselves and do not see the need to enter into the wider society and working life.

Summary

To compare the Czech system of tertiary education with the formally binary system that is in Finland or the Netherlands, as well as with the formally unitary university system that exists in the United Kingdom, the Czech Republic has relatively few graduates prepared for the practice. "In Finland and the Netherlands study 47 % respective 67 % of students, where the schools provide professionally-oriented education with training on the basis of practical activities."[9] In the United Kingdom and other formally unitary systems most students also study at higher education institutions that are focused largely on the professionally-oriented education. In the Czech Republic too many students of public universities study too long and, above it, in programs that do not prepare them for practice.

To support the success of graduates, even those with hearing disability, in the labour market it is inevitable to emphasize mainly:

• obtaining competences and their development, adjusting the profile of student to the needs of the labour market,

• the need for the design of study programmes that enable students to acquire competences and knowledge according to their choice during their studies.

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APPENDIXES

Table 1 Weaknesses of the interconnection of the tertiary system to the labour market

OECD Countries	Czech Republic
• there are politics of tertiary education, which can be used to support the interconnections of the tertiary education to the labour markets by means of management, funding, performance and quality	• only relatively few policies are created with this aim
• in many tertiary systems cooperation of the tertiary institutions and the institutions of the labour market (companies, trade unions and professional associations) is based on the role these participants play in the management of the institutions of tertiary education	• in the boards there are external agents represented only on a small scale and the influence of these boards on strategic decision making of the Czech universities is also limited
• in some countries there are national data registers that make it possible to get a compact and long-term idea of success in the labour market by interconnecting data of students and data of wages and positions of graduates • in other countries each institution of tertiary education is obliged to monitor and publish information of the career of their graduates in the labour market	• the institutions of tertiary education are not obliged to keep track of the career of their graduates in the labour market and to report it • the ministry supported an analysis of university graduates' success in the labour market according to study programmes and institutions by funding the relevant project
• the ministry may consider the requirements of the labour market while evaluating the applications of new study programmes (i.e. will there be demand for graduates from the presented programme?) or evaluating the quality of the current programmes is the programme focused on the development of employability?)	• accreditations and re-accreditations concentrates on "the ability of the institution to provide programs in required quality" (primarily on staffing the programme with academic personnel), and not on the labour market needs nor graduates' employability
• one of the parameters of the methodology of funding of institutions may be success in the labour market	• it has a very well constructed methodology of funding of institutions, however success in the labour market as a criterion is not applicable

Source: Ministry of Education, Youth and Sports http://www.msmt.cz/uploads/bila_kniha/OECD_Country_Note_CZ_celek.pdf.

WOMEN'S EDUCATION IN A REFLECTION OF THE "HASNER ACT" AT THE END OF THE 19TH CENTURY

Kaněčková Eva

Abstract

The contribution deals with the issue of women's education in the context of the "Hasner Act". The objective of the paper is to outline the social discourse of the19th century and its impact upon the concept of subject matters and forms of women's education. The paper is focused on the representative case of higher women's education realized in the Institution of Earl Pötting in Olomouc, with tradition continuing up to this day.

Key words

Women's education, discourse of the 19th century, higher women's education, Institution of Earl Pötting.

Dívčí vzdělávání v odraze tzv. Hsnerova zákona na konci 19. století

Resumé

Příspěvek se zabývá tematikou dívčího vzdělávání v kontextu tzv. Hasnerova zákona. Cílem je přiblížit společenský diskurs 19. století a jeho dopad na pojetí obsahu a formy dívčího vzdělávání. V příspěvku se zabývám konkrétním případem vyšší dívčí školy v Olomouci, tzv. Ústav hr. Pöttinga, jehož tradice přetrvává do dnešní doby.

Klíčová slova

Dívčí vzdělávání, diskurs 19. století, vyšší dívčí škola, Ústav hr. Pottinga.

1 Introduction

The issue of female education has always stood side by side on the status and role of women in society. The social discourse of the 19th century can be seen as a consequence of the so-called two-gender model in shaping the social

meaning of gender roles. Due to the Enlightenment ideas in the late 18th century, it begins to appear in the theory of the so-called natural order of sex, which created the ideal image of a pair as a true man and a true woman. The 19th century fully perceived the definition of the female and male world and the public and private worlds. In the social construction of gender roles, there is a normative, moral and legal definition of gender roles in a different social mission and expectations.

The newly created social structure, of course, reflected also in the education of both the form and content of a particular goal. The division of spheres of public male and private female was also differentiated learning. Education became unnecessary for women, while for men it was a precondition for their professional and career development, and thus for increase of their social prestige. In education, this manifested in separation of education of girls and boys with a different conception of educational content. Even the introduction of compulsory education, by the so called Theresian Education Act, did not increase the number of girls in school classrooms, because girls were more useful and needed in the household. Only from the mid-19th century the ratio of men and girls began to be more balanced.[1] It was largely due to changes in social thought, thanks to the emancipation movement to effect inter alia to improve girls' education. Hand in hand with the national movement women became a part of the public society. Their fraternal activities also helped them raise their own self-realization, which was a prerequisite for quality education. Already in the 19th century there are attempts to encourage girls' education. An example is the activity of Bohuslava Rajská who opened her own institute for girls in order to educate patriotically-minded mothers and children in 1844. Further experiments are represented by the well-known Prague institute "Budeč ženský" founded by Karel Slavoj Amerling and managed by his wife, or the club "Slovanky" headed by Božena Němcová.[2] Despite the fact that we can see the increasing interest in the establishment of schools for girls, the predominant form of girls' education was home education across the social spectrum. The higher social classes, especially citizens and aristocrats are frequently educated by home teachers; another evidence is the growing popularity of the so-called

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[1] LENDEROVÁ, M. *K hříchu i k modlitbě*. Praha: Mladá fronta, 1999, p. 4. ISBN 80-204-0737-5.
[2] KÁDNER, O. *Vývoj a dnešní soustava školství*. Praha: SPN, 1933, p. 281 (without ISBN).

prescriptive literature as a guide to the domestic education of girls in home economics, moral principles and stereotypical notions of female destiny.[3]

Only since the second half of the 19th century we are talking about the increase of institutionalized education of girls, what gradually leads to liberalization of learning content. It should also be noted that in society the idea conceived stereotypical ideal woman as wife, mother and housekeeper still dominated.

2 "Hasner Act"[4] and girls' education

With issuing of the Imperial Act of 1869, there were some changes that had considerable importance for the development of girls' education.

The first point was the extension of compulsory schooling by two years and the introduction of a common curriculum in general schools, where there was a merge of boys and girls' education. But it should be stressed that the then society did not welcome unified education. Despite the increased efforts of women's emancipation movement, the schooling of girls was still perceived as unnecessary and superfluous, since the fulfilment of their mission was in marriage and household. Under pressure of public opinion, girls' education was again weakened by the issue of education amendments in 1883.

The second key point of the "Hasner Act" consisted in the introduction of public girls' teacher institute, which institutionalized this professional orientation for girls, while it was dominated by men by then. A year later the first public girls' "Pedagogium" was opened in Prague,. In the 90s, the number of public teaching institutions has grown considerably.

The third point, which helped girls' education expand, was an obligation to establish a network of city schools (at least one per district) to allow girls to achieve higher education. In other primary schools a Sunday course or courses started that have been guided by social needs; many of them were designed for girls and their education in the field of economics and family.

By the fourth point it was finally able to establish private teaching institutes. Thanks to the growing number of private schools there were more girls' schools in the school systems.

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[3] The most favored authors were: Honoráta Zapová, Žofie Podlipská, Věnceslava Lužická, Marie Dobromila Rettigová. In LENDEROVÁ, M. *K hříchu i k modlitbě*. Praha: Mladá fronta, 1999, pp. 50–51. ISBN 80-204-0737-5.

[4] In original: Imperial School Act no. 62, for simplification the deep-rooted name Hasner Act is used.

As a result of changes in girls' education in the reflection of the "Hasner Act", I would like to present the example of the private school for girls in Olomouc.

3 Private Institute for Girls' Education of Earl Pötting in Olomouc

The network of primary education in the Olomouc district was still in the late 19th century, significantly enough, even though the "Hasner Act" made it mandatory to establish a municipal school within half a mile with a number exceeding 40 pupils/students. Here a great role was played also by a linguistic-cultural determination of the population. The prevailing German part of the population was at the forefront of many provincial offices, including the Provincial School Board. This has deepened inequalities between the German and Czech education, although the "Hasner Act" allowed studies in all national languages. Problems of setting up schools became the main instrument of national struggles and enforcement of the Czech minority. In the district of Olomouc, the first Czech municipal school appeared in the early 1890s. In the late 1890s there was already the first girls' school in the near village of Loštice.[5]

In the radius of a nationalist group there was also a group of interested women. They believed that establishing more girls' schools acquired an important patron; it was the Count Potting Emanuel (1818–1898)[6], whose national activities significantly contributed to the flowering of the Czech education in Olomouc. Following the example of women's associations, like the "Vesna" founded in Brno in 1870, in the early 1890s the Society of the Institute for Women was founded by the count Potting also in Olomouc; the Society was supported for example by Eliška Krásnohorská[7]. Thanks to the favourable political situation, the Minister of Education, the Count Gautsch (Minister in 1895–97) granted a permit to open private schools in Olomouc according to the application to the Federal Government.

The New Department of the count Potting, a Czech boarding house and school for the education of girls was opened in the new building on 15th September, 1895. The main idea of the Institute met the contemporary concept of girls' education, a "well-educated housekeeper". The Institute was opened in three years, which were going in the girls' school curriculum. In addition the Institute provided a boarding house with dormitory. Financing of private

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[5] More in FISCHER, R. *České školství a matice školská v Olomouci II*. Olomouc, 1937. p. 80 (without ISBN).

[6] Document fund M6-47. SOA in Olomouc.

[7] Document fund M6-47. SOA in Olomouc.

schools was ensured by the Endowment Fund financed by the count Potting and a handful of patriotic patrons. Besides the contribution of bringing more girls into Czech schools in heavily German areas what has to be highlighted as well are other activities and educational support to the general public by means of evening courses at the Department of the Count Potting that got a considerable response . The courses offered attractions such as an Esperanto course, photography, models, dance and language courses of German and French and others.

The Department of the Count Potting worked under its status until 1901 and continued its tradition of girls' school of the Institute as the count Potting stated, which further expanded to a girls' higher school and girl' two-class business school. The tradition of girls' education has continued throughout the subsequent 20th century up to today when the so-called Pöttingeum hosts a secondary school for nurses.[8]

4   Conclusions

Although in retrospect the social discourse of the 19th century seems highly discriminatory against the status and role of women in society, we must consider the issue from the perspective of that time. The question of women's education is a very popular research topic for a number of feminist scholars; however, a very negative image can reduce the overall perception of the social structure of thought of that time. First was the question of universal schooling, which had already been outlined under Maria Theresa, but satisfactory results did not come even in the 19th century. One of the reasons was the social change in society, in a broad context due to the decomposition of feudal relations with the newly perceived impact on the function and structure of the family. The working or public sphere was here for men, for women, the domestic or private domain. In this atmosphere there was also a shift in the structure of education. The question of female education became pointless because simply everything girls needed to learn they learned in the family (functional training); while boys were profiled in their future profession within school structures (intentional education).

The problem encountered throughout the 19th century was to ensure institutional learning and the fulfilment of compulsory schooling. The only problem was the girls' secondary education, which the predominant part of society considered unnecessary. However, we note a progressive evolution since the second

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[8] Document fund M6-47. SOA in Olomouc.

half of the 19th century as a result of the overall national movement, patriotism, club activities and related issues of female emancipation.

As a significant milestone in the education of girls can be seen a result of the "Hasner Act" at the end of the 1860s, which resulted in a growing network of both public and private schools especially for girls. The Act essentially provided the same general basis of education for girls and boys, which started a long way to equal access to education. A specific case law is the impact of establishment of the first girls' educational institute in the Olomouc district, and even in the Northern Moravia – the private Institute of the Count Potting (1895–1901) with the municipal school curriculum, although the mission was to train "educated housekeeper" in the Czech national spirit; on the other hand, it was a unique opportunity to acquire the necessary training with the possibility of economic independence from family or the possibility of further study.

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Document funds M6-47. SOA in Olomouc.

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SCHOOL CLIMATE DESCRIPTION, ASSESMENT AND MEASUREMENT

Jana Kantorová

Summary

This paper analyses the quality of the school climate. One of its objectives is to define such basic terms as environment, atmosphere, climate, and selected climate variants, above all the school climate. Attention is also paid to the following five areas of school life, which are in my opinion of significance: 1) the overall attitude to school and the motivation to study 2) teachers' qualities and competence 3) school rules and the discipline in class 4) the solidarity of the class as a social group 5) the architectural, aesthetic and hygienic aspects of the school. The thesis also wants to present new practical methods supported by long experience of the school climate gained abroad and even by similar experience lately picked up in this country. Whereas in Europe and elsewhere the school climate is part of the basic educational disciplines, in this country it is still waiting for its recognition as a regular educational and psychological phenomenon. The primary aim of the whole thesis is to devise an adequate method, ie a questionnaire for my own research. This questionnaire has been tested in a quantitative way. It has helped me judge the quality of five areas of the school climate at a grammar school. One-factor analysis of dispersion has revealed differences in pupils, teachers and parents' judgement of the five areas. If we compare the average answers given by the three groups of the respondents, we come to the conclusion that it is teachers who are most satisfied with all areas of the school climate. Parents have turned out to be less content. The biggest dissatisfaction is among pupils. In the future the gained results can become a basis for further research in this area. The long-term goal should be to propose a model of creation of a positive school climate in the form of practical advice and recommendations for teachers and headmasters. The importance of the thesis consists in setting up a questionnaire method and carrying out the actual research.

Key words

School climate, students, teachers, parents, research, questionnaire.

Charakteristika, hodnocení a měření školního klimatu

Abstrakt

V příspěvku se zabýváme zjišťováním kvality školního klimatu. Jedním z obecných cílů textu je teoretické vymezení základních pojmů – prostředí, atmosféra, klima, vybrané varianty klimatu s důrazem na školní klima. Rovněž sledujeme pět vybraných oblastí školního života, které pokládáme za významné – celkový vztah a motivace ke škole, kvality a kompetence učitelů, pravidla ve škole a kázeň ve vyučování, soudržnost třídy jako sociální skupiny, architektonické, estetické a hygienické aspekty školy. Příspěvek si také klade za cíl přinést nové praktické metody opřené o dlouhodobé zahraniční, a v dnešní době už i naše zkušenosti se školním klimatem. Zatímco v zahraničí, a to jak v Evropě, tak i jinde ve světě, je oblast školního klimatu součástí základních pedagogických disciplín, u nás tento fenomén teprve hledá své pevné místo a stejnou důležitost jako ostatní pedagogicko-psychologické jevy. Nejdůležitějším záměrem celé práce je vypracovat adekvátní výzkumnou metodu (dotazník) pro vlastní výzkum. V rámci empirického šetření jsme kvantitativním výzkumem ověřovali vytvořené dotazníky pro studenty, učitele a rodiče. Pomocí nich jsme posuzovali kvalitu pěti oblastí školního klimatu na gymnáziu. Jednofaktorovou analýzou rozptylu jsme zjistili rozdíly v hodnocení daných oblastí z hlediska studentů, učitelů a rodičů. Srovnáme-li průměrné odpovědi všech tří skupin respondentů, dojdeme k závěru, že všem oblastem školního klimatu vystavili nejlepší vysvědčení učitelé. Uprostřed stojí hodnocení rodičů. Nejhorší pohled mají na tuto problematiku studenti. Získané výsledky se pro nás mohou stát v budoucnu výchozím materiálem pro další výzkumné aktivity v této oblasti. Jako dlouhodobý záměr vidíme snahu navrhnout model tvorby pozitivního školního klimatu pro učitele a ředitele škol (praktické rady a doporučení). Přínos práce vidíme zejména v konstrukci dotazníkové metody a realizaci samotného výzkumu.

Klíčová slova

Školní klima, studenti, učitelé, rodiče, výzkum, dotazník.

1 The term school climate specification

In our point of view, it is essential to think about the school climate in the wider context. I.e. not just from the perspective of the contemporary events,

but also due to the past and with the perspective to the future. All aspects of the school life exist in mutual relation. The processes going on in the school life are the reflection of the changes realized in the past and together with that, they have the adaptational and anticipational character. The processes and circumstances in the school environment should be observed with respect to the contemporary conditions. At once, it is necessary to confront the contemporary state with the perspective and benefit for the future. While judging the school climate, we should therefore study the whole evolution of the school environment.

The experts cannot agree on the fact what the term school climate includes and what it does not. Obdržálek (2002) states, that the school climate is a socila-pschological phenomenon which is very complex and exceptionally challenging for the analysis and exploration. Mareš (2000, p. 242) names the school equipment, processes happening in the school, the leadership style, the public reflection of the school, teachers dedication to school and school work; and students specifics as its variables. There have also appeared some provoking opinions that the term school climate is out of use and therefore we should not take care about it. (Finlayson, 1987 in Mareš, 2000, p. 242). We do not share this opinion. We despite concentrate and try to study these problems in the sense of research and theoretical viewpoint.

We know that the school climate (in some sources named as school atmosphere, school world, school life, emotional tone, school ethos, school culture, school spirit) depends on the specific situation of the individual school. It is conditioned by the school environment, where we can observe it, analyse it and evaluate. It does not happen but grows continually. It is the phenomenon which is long-lasting, typical for the individual school.

Some authors describe the term school climate as a school culture, informal perception of the processes which take place at school (Deal a Kennedy, 1985 in Aurin, 1990, p. 58). From our point of view, it is not possible to understand the terms school culture and school climate as the synonyms. There is a mutual relationship between school culture and school climate. This relationship is not one-way but mutual. According to Obdržálek (2002) the school climate influences backwards the school culture after some time, it conditions the satisfaction of the school staff, pupils and teachers. The satisfaction positively influences back the culture of school. In case all individuals feel well and satisfied at school environment, the effectiveness of school increases. Good results of school work serve as a motivation for the other activities and fulfillment of set aims. It is

possible to confirm the satisfaction of school and their school climate experience participants in the same way.

Spanhel (1993, p. 225) describes the school climate as the perceptional reality or basis, which can be observed at school. Every activity has its meaning in the regular school life. We mainly concentrate on the goal for which the teachers and students would share good relationships in an everyday life of a class or school, would be able to manage the problems or struggles and solve the set tasks together. All theese aspects can be positively influenced by the good school climate. This algorythm works also vice versa. Friendly relations and good mood can help the pleasant school climate. School climate enables the similar perception of the school environment to teachers and students, which they share. We also try to answer the question how we can improve the quality of school and school instruction through good school climate. Every school should try to build its own concept of how it will be optimalizing school climate in an everyday school life.

When judging the school climate we are mostly interested in evaluation of the participating individuals, i.e. students and teachers (compare Eckert, 1988, p. 135; compare Saldern, 1991, p. 190). We also perceive the ideas of headmasters, parents, parent association, school founder or state school authorities. When we study school climate, we can also study the objective data about the school. I.e. the number of students, number and size of classes, school organization, student population, school leadership characteristics, teacher education (Bessoth, 1989). These data do not however speak about the relation among students and teachers, about the student and teacher motivation to instructional activities or cooperation among the students. For us, the more important features are the subjective views of the school acteurs, their ways of thinking, attitude orientation, opinions, ways of behaviour or acting etc.

2   School climate research

2.1 The construction of the research method

For the purpose of school climate research we constructed the questionnaires for three groups of respondents – students, teachers and parents. In the process of research method construction we used some published tools of Freitag (1998). The author realized his research by the end of 20th century at

18 German schools, where he analysed the influence of some school climate aspects on the health of students and teachers.

At the preresearch phase we optimalized the research method. After the adaptation we constituted the questionnaires for students, teachers and parents, each of which consists of 50 items. The items are devided into five chosen areas which characterize the school climate. The areas follow:
1.   overall relationship and motivation towards the school (items no. 1–9),
2.   teacher's quality and competences (items no. 10–21),
3.   school rules and the classroom discipline (items no. 22–29),
4.   coherence of the class as a social group (items no. 30–37),
5.   architectural, aesthetic and hygienic aspects of the school (items no. 38–50).

The respondents reflected on the individual statements by the measure how they agree with the individual item. They circled their response on the scale from 1 to 5 (1 – totally disagree, 2 – more or less disagree, 3 – cannot say, 4 – more or less agree, 5 – absolutely agree).

2.2   Realization and the way of research results proceeding
The research took place at one grammar school in Olomouc region. The sample involved 231 students, 27 teachers and 221 parents.

We examined the evaluation of the school climate areas within the individual groups of respondents. We used one-way factor analysis (ANOVA) with the followed comparisson of the mean values through HSD (Tuckey) for unequal sums of comparrison within the groups. The gained results were also interpreted through the qualitative approach. In the paper we focus only on quantitave analysis of the gained data.

2.3   Research results and discussion
The research definitely confirmed the differences in evaluation of the areas of school climate from the students, teachers and parents perspective.

In the area "overall relationship and motivation to school", there appeared some differences among the groups of students and teachers, and groups of parents and teachers too.

In the second area "teacher's quality and competences" were no differences found.

The area "the school rules and the classroom discipline" was approached differently by compared groups of students and teachers, students and parents and parents and teachers.

The fourth area "the coherence of the class as a social group" did not show the differences from students, teachers nor parents perspective.

In the fifth area "architectural, aesthetic and hygienic aspects of school" we found the differences in evaluation of the groups of students and teachers, students and parents, but there were no differences clarified within the groups of teachers and parents.

On the basis of the research results we can assume not just the results in the evaluation of the selected areas. We also deduce which group of respondents evaluates the studied area best and which worst.

The first area "overall relationship and motivation to school" was most positively judged by teachers (average evaluation of 4.23), than parents (3.81) and worst by students (3.65).

In the second are "teacher's quality and competences" the similar results appeared. It was best evaluated by the teachers (3.78), followed by parents (3.56) and worst by students (3.42).

The third area "the school rules and the classroom discipline" was again best viewed by teachers (3.87), parents (3.45) and worst by students (3.32).

The fourth area "coherence of the class as a social group" was positively judged by teachers, (3.40), with similar value by parenst (3.29) and students (3.22).

In the fifth area "architectural, aesthetic and hygienic aspects of school" – there were no dramatic changes in evaluation. The area was again best viewed by teachers (3.98). The evaluation of parents (3.62) and students (3.60) was almost the same.

Now we compare average assessments of three groups of respondents – students, teachers and parents. All areas became the best evaluation from teachers, the worst from students, in the middle are parents.

We can also judge overall assessment of the areas of school climate. The most positively was viewed by all respondents the first area "overall relationship and motivation to school". The worst of all areas was evaluated the fourth area „coherence of the class as a social group".

In our point of view, some circumstances may occur, which can garble the results of the research. We think that some side factors could play a role in the process of questionaire filling (e.g. personal matters of the respondents) which reflected in the final evaluation of the selected areas of school climate.

However, we do not want to make final conclusion on the basis of these results. We realize that we have to be cautious in the interpretation of the facts. Despite this, we think that evaluation of the selected items of the school climate at a grammar school is more or less optimistic. But we also realize that even the negative aspects of school climate belong to the studied phenomenon. They mean the challenge for improvement and optimalization of the school climate.

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ENGLISH AS A GLOBAL LANGUAGE OF CIVILIZATION. EDUCATIONAL DILEMMAS ABOUT THE APPROACH TO TEACHING AND LEARNING ENGLISH AS A FOREIGN LANGUAGE

Joanna Kapica-Curzytek

Abstract

English is the world language. Therefore, English taught and learned as a foreign language has a different status than other languages. Teaching and learning is no more connected to the specific cultural or national values of the English-speaking countries. Instead, they are substituted with the global/universal values. This phenomenon has got many educational consequences, for example it requires the new role of the teacher of English who becomes a broker of the global values. Questions about model of teaching English are also posed here.

Key words

English language, world (universal) language, teaching English, cultural values, global culture.

Resumé

Angličtina je světový jazyk. Proto, pokud je vyučována jako cizí jazyk, má odlišnou pozici oproti ostatním jazykům. Vyučování a učení angličtiny není spojeno s předáváním informací o specifických národních a kulturních hodnotách jednotlivých anglofonních zemí. Tyto informace jsou nahrazeny informacemi globálního či univerzálního charakteru. Tento fakt přináší množství vzdělávacích souvislostí, například změnu role učitele angličtiny, neboť ten se stává osobou, jež zprostředkovává univerzální hodnoty. Příspěvek také řeší některé otázky modelů výuky angličtiny.

Klíčová slova

Anglický jazyk, světový (univerzální) jazyk, výúka angličtiny, culturní hodnoty, globální kultura.

1   English as a world language

It goes without saying that English is the most common foreign language. It is a mother tongue for about 350–400 million of people, and it is currently the foreign language most often learned and taught as a second language around the world. Nowadays about 1.5 billion people are learning it[1]. It is predicted by the magazine *The Economist* that until 2050 about half of the people in the world will declare knowledge of English at all levels[2].

No doubt, people who are learning English are highly motivated. It has the status of the first or second official language in almost one hundred countries (Bryson, 1991, Graddol 2000). English is one of the official languages of the United Nations. It is also widely used by many corporations and international institutions. It is the major language of almost every field of human activity: science, business, tourism, world politics and economy (cf. Olszewska-Dyoniziak, 1996). For example, more than 90 per cent of the airlines in the world use English as their official language of communication – this can be the proof of how dominant this language has become. It is also estimated that about 75 per cent of the whole amount of scientific publications worldwide are published in English (Bryson, 1991).

Due to its historical and cultural determinants, English is not only dominant in the world communication but it also strongly influences other languages. Many loanwords from English can be noticed in other languages. These loanwords appear not only in professional jargons or in colloquial language (for example in German or Polish). A lot of English words can also be often found in a standard language, e.g. in Japanese. All of them are words referring to Western and global reality and culture and they have become part of standard Japanese with small phonetic modifications only (e.g. *"chokorēto"* – chocolate, *"vaiorin"* – violin, *"hoteru"* – hotel, *"resutoran"* – restaurant). This is an interesting aspect of globalization of the English language.

Nowadays English has taken over the role of the universal world language. First of all, this fact has been caused by political reasons: the historical domination of the British Empire up to the beginning of 20th century and, in our times, the political and economical supremacy of the USA (cf. McWhorter, 2009). It is worth to stress that learning English as a foreign language is highly promoted in both of these countries and relatively much money is spent on this

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[1] http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/English_language, cf. also: http://pl.wikipedia.org/wiki/J%C4%99zyk_angielski.

[2] http://www.economist.com/world/europe/displayStory.cfm?Story_ID=883997.

branch of "industry". Profits from teaching and learning English make quite an important part of the national budgets' incomes in these countries. They come from publishing the English course books, producing teaching and learning materials, creating websites for teachers and students, etc. One of the institutions that support learning English is the British Council, where the English language is promoted worldwide, and so is the British culture. British Council works in more than 100 countries and it also participates in carrying out the English certificate exams in the whole world.[3]

There are also linguistic reasons that could explain why English has become the world language. Compared to many languages, English is found to be concise and economical: relatively much can be said in a few words – so that the expression is often shorter than in many other languages. It is also regarded to be relatively easy to learn for people of most nations, especially at the beginner's level (not too much declination and conjugation to learn and simple syntax rules). On the other hand, it is more difficult to learn and use English at the advanced level because the words have ambiguous meaning, and they can make different parts of speech. Therefore, it is always necessary to analyze the wider context of the speaking/writing act in English. Numerous native speakers of other languages (e.g. French, Chinese or Japanese) might also find the English pronunciation a bit difficult.

Yet, these drawbacks have never been any serious arguments against English achieving the status of a universal language. The top position of English on the map of languages is strong. Even though there are other world languages with a comparable number of (native and non-native) speakers worldwide (e.g. Chinese, Spanish), they do not aspire to take over the position which is currently held by the English language. Thus, it is the English language that seems to meet all hopes and expectations of people who have always had the eternal wish to communicate with help of one universal language. People in the world have always wanted to have one language that would be accessible for everybody and that would also express "unity and brotherhood of men" (Eco, 2002). At the same time, all attempts of inventing one universal artificial language of the whole mankind and introducing it on a wide range (e.g. Esperanto, interlingua, Volapük) have not met most of the expectations so far. In comparison to English, known worldwide, these languages are known rather to small circles of enthusiasts and it is surely not possible to tell in which regions or among which groups of professionals they are most often used. What is more, it is even hard

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[3] www.britishcouncil.org.

to estimate how many people in the world speak Esperanto and sources give different numbers here – from 100 thousand to 2 million users in the whole world[4].

2   New status of English as a foreign language

If we analyze the process of decision-making why people begin to learn a certain language, there has always been the natural relation between unique cultural values (e.g. music, art, cuisine) of particular countries and the potential student's decision which foreign language to learn. "I have always been fascinated with Japan, so I started to learn the language", "The Spanish people I met were so nice, and I liked the sound of their language so that's why I decided to pick up Spanish when I got back from holidays" seem to be the typical answers explaining reasons of learning a language.

Nowadays we can notice that these cultural values as a deciding factor are still important when it comes to starting to learn *all* languages, *except for* English. In other words, culture of particular English-speaking countries does not play an important role for the people who are making the decision to start to learn English anymore. As it was mentioned earlier by "The Economist" – this decision is, first of all, caused by pragmatic reasons (ability to communicate with people all over the world) rather than only fascination with culture of any English-speaking countries. This changes the status of English as a foreign language, in comparison with other languages.

We can also observe an interesting phenomenon: the cultural values of English speaking countries as a deciding factor are less important or even non-existing for people who start to learn English. Instead of this we notice the learners' aspirations to have access to the global civilization values and to benefit from them (Polak and Leska-Ślązak, 1999). Nowadays, learning English is associated mainly with becoming a part of the global information society and the civilization of universal values, and it has almost nothing to do with any particular culture of an English-speaking country. Most people learning English are aspiring to participate in the world of global culture. This aspiration is forced by the development of the information technology, mass media, and especially the Internet.

3   Educational consequences: dilemmas at the lessons of English

The new status of English language has its educational consequences. First of all, there is an important educational dilemma for the teachers of English as

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[4] http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Esperanto.

a foreign language: how to plan the English course and which textbooks and teaching materials to choose? Should the course include British or American cultural aspects or should the English lessons be culturally neutral – or international, to be more precise? Should the students of English gain some knowledge about the English-speaking countries or can the teachers skip it?

There are two models of English teaching and learning:

The "culturally neutral" approach is presented by some leading modern English course books edited in Great Britain. There is very little in them about culture or specific traditions of the English-speaking countries. For example, the textbook "New English File" consists of chapters of "International English"[5] which has neutral cultural background. Also, teaching listening comprehension is mainly based on recordings of people who are not English native speakers and who talk about their non-English speaking countries[6]. This model is more popular in the countries that are not heavily influenced by the so called Western civilization, or they can even look at the Western culture as an "enemy". Teachers and students there might be "suspicious" about conveying the culture of English-speaking countries in the textbooks and, what is more, they would think learning from these textbooks means being subjected to "western" indoctrination. This is why this neutral approach to culture is especially popular there. On the other hand, the approach to the culture-free form of learning English, which is offered by many textbooks is not trusted everywhere and it raises many doubts (Bandura, 2000).

The traditional approach simply means teaching English as it has always been taught before, i.e. in the same way as other languages. There are linguistic skills and competences to be acquired, but the lessons also provide information about the English speaking countries, their history and culture. In the traditional approach, culture is the source of the individual and national identity. Therefore, together with learning the language, the students will learn, e.g. about the Royal Family in England, St. Patrick's Day in Ireland or Halloween and how it is celebrated in the USA. This traditional concept of teaching English as a foreign language has many advantages, because many facts from the British or American culture have become known worldwide – there is noticeable influence of film, music and literature produced in these countries.

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[5] Oxenden, C., Latham-Koenig, Ch. New English File Intermediate, Oxford University Press, 2006.

[6] Oxenden, C., Latham-Koenig, Ch. op. cit.; New English File Pre-Intermediate by the same authors, OUP 2005; cf. also all levels of Headway English Course, Oxford University Press.

4 Conclusions

Our article surely will neither give an in-depth description of all these issues nor will it solve the dilemmas. However, these problems become more and more topical in the post-modern world. Nowadays we are observing the process of "erosion" of identities, the meanings blend and cross beyond the identity line. Anthropologists and sociologists talk about "cultural supermarket" (Mathews, 2005). The access to it can be obtained with help of the English language which is not limited strictly to carrying any specific cultural or national values.

Therefore, it is worth noticing that the English teachers find themselves in a different situation, in comparison with their colleagues who teach other foreign languages. Teachers of English are not only the culture brokers of the English-speaking territories but they have also got the new role: the global values' advocates. This makes an extra task for teachers of English who must be aware of the problems of identity and difference in the process of globalization. They must decide how much culture there must be at their English lessons and what are the most optimal methods of developing the cultural competences in the changing society. How can the teacher find a balance between being the culture broker of all what belongs to the English culture (Bandura, 2000) and acting as the advocate of universal values? Apart from that, it must always be remembered that the lessons of foreign language must have, first of all, their educational aim of developing the linguistic and communicative skills and competences.

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THEORY OF MIND DEVELOPMENT
IN HEARING IMPAIRED CHILDREN[1]

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Key words

Deafness, theory of mind, communication deprivation, educational system.

Theory of mind has been viewed as fundamental for our understanding of the social world. It helps us to make sense of the complex patterns of many social relationships such as the acts of deception, interpersonal conflicts and negotiations. It animates our sense of humour so it is also fundamental for our appreciation of cultural acquisition, such as literature, drama or film.

Since the first study in the field of theory of mind in the deaf by Peterson and Siegal (1995) it has been discovered that the majority of the profoundly deaf failed the false belief test. However, more recent research indicates that deaf children are rather not impaired in theory of mind development process but just delayed in developing theory of mind. Nevertheless, that developmental deficit is quite serious when compared to hearing children – deaf children aged 5–12 years solve tests focused on theories of mind better than 3-year-olds but not as well as 4 year-olds, although the background mechanism itself is not damaged (Courtin, 2000).

This article describes factors which influence that theory of mind developmental delay. It presents the context of language as well as communication deprivation within the family and educational system.

Introduction

Human beings have a deep-seated mental competence to facinate with other people; both significant others as well as strangers and to predict and explain their behavior. The process of explanation of other people's behavior is based on understanding mental states, such as beliefs, desires and intentions of those people. Individuals understand the behavior of others in terms of their beliefs about the world.

The ability of attempting to make sense of the mental life of other people is called "Theory of Mind" (ToM). The term *"Theory of Mind"* was coined by David Premack and Guy Woodruff (1978) who tested a chimpanzee's ability to predict a person's behavior by means of mental state attribution. In a study, four juvenile chimpanzees learned to indicate two opaque containers with food to a naïve human trainer. After learning to do this, two different types of trainers were introduced: a cooperative trainer acted as he had done before (attempting to locate the hidden food and when he found it giving it to the subject), and a competitive trainer (attempting to locate the food, but when he found it he kept it and ate it himself). It was found that two of the chimpanzees (50%) had learned to indicate the incorrect container for the competitive trainer. Theory of mind seems to be basic if primates are skilled in it. However, the human version of primate social cognition has some special qualities related to complex cultural life, in which individuals live in the context of their beliefs about other people's beliefs.

Theory of mind has been defined as the ability to think about other people's mental states and form theories of how they think. Mental states are abstract entities whose relations to the world are not immediately transparent, particularly when the mental states do not correspond with reality so it has been suggested that exposure to opportunities for reflecting on the discrepancy between mental states and reality is important for theory-of-mind development (Brown, Donelan-McCall, Dunn, 1996).

The theory of mind seems to be a core mechanism of human social life because its lack or disorder creates major barriers to communication and closeness. These barriers often make those closest to the individual feel a lack of sympathy, whether real or perceived, towards the individual. In the many years since the paper by Premack and Woodruff (1978) was first published the most extensive research has been done in the field of developmental psychology, where scientists have investigated what human children know about the minds of others. The most important problems in the theory of mind field of interests are related to: firstly, predictor of theory of mind development, secondly, its neurological basis as well as the process of its development, thirdly, the conditions of its proper development and last but not least, the delay or disorder in theory of mind development in atypical population.

Theory of mind – its development and assessment

After the publication by Premack and Woodruff (1978) it was suggested that children could be tested to see if they have a theory of mind by giving them a so-called false belief task. This is a test to see whether a child will act on a knowingly incorrect belief, or be aware that a second person who is not in possession of a certain piece of information may act incorrectly. There are now two main versions of the false-belief task: Unexpected Location task and Unexpected Content task.

In the Unexpected Location task, a story character places an object (e.g. chocolate) in one location. While he or she is away, the object will be transferred into a new location. The child who is tested has seen the transference, but has to figure out that the story character will look for the object where he or she falsely believes it is located, and not where it actually is. Thus, the child is asked a test question "Where will [Maxi] look for the object [chocolate]?" accompanied by two control questions, "Where did [Maxi] first put the object [chocolate]" and "Where is the object [chocolate] now?" (Wimmer and Perner,1983).

Like adults, typically developing 4-year-olds most commonly judge correctly that the figure will look where the object was located previously. These correct judgments are widely regarded as good evidence that the participant considers figure's behavior to be determined by her (false) belief. In contrast, 3-yearolds commonly err by judging that the figure will look in the new location.

In the Unexpected Content task named also the Deceptive Box task, the child is shown a familiar candy box (or Smarties tube) and is asked what he or she thinks is inside. Having been shown that something other than candy (or chocolate) is inside, the child is then asked what someone else who has not looked inside would think the box contains. Again the child has to understand that others behave according to their own beliefs about reality, even when these are inaccurate. To pass the task the child also has to correctly answer a question about his or her own false belief, "When I first asked you, before we looked inside, what you thought was in the box?" and to correctly answer the question "What is really in the box?" (Perner et al., 1987). These classic and well known procedures have been frequently used in many studies with various modifications.

Three-year-old children almost always fail theory of mind tasks. In the Maxi task they say that Maxi will look in the new location for his chocolate rather than the original location in which he placed it and where he would expect it to be. In the Smarties task three-year-olds say that another child will expect

there to be pencils in the tube. Four- and five-year-olds, however, normally pass both the unexpected transfer and the deceptive box tasks indicating that they are able to distinguish between their own knowledge about the real location and the content and that of another person who was not aware of the transfer. Therefore, Wimmer and Perner argued that children exhibit an understanding of false belief at 4-5 years of age.

The third well known theory of mind task is Appearance-Reality task (Flavell, Flavell, and Green 1983). This task involves showing the child an object (e.g. a Charlie Brown doll) and then changing the object's appearance (e.g. covering the doll with a piece of white fabric with eye and mouth holes cut out; creating the appearance of a ghost). With the new appearance in sight, the child is asked two questions. One question is known as the appearance question: "When you look at this object with your eyes right now, what does it look like?" There is also a reality question: "What is this really and truly? Is it really and truly a ghost or really and truly Charlie Brown?" To succeed on appearance-reality tasks, children must realize that an object's appearance might conflict with reality. For example, a white object viewed through a blue colored filter will appear blue, even though it is actually white. Although nearly all typically developed children achieve success on false belief tasks at approximately the same age, there are individual differences in that achievement, with some children succeeding at slightly younger ages than others.

Research on ToM has produced various theories on the nature of ToM development. One of them is a neurological theory of ToM, which explains neuorological mechanisms underlying the development of ToM, due to many examinations with the use of PET, the neuroimaging method of human brain functions. ToM depends on a specific brain mechanism related to significantly increased regional cerebral blood flow in the following regions: the temporal poles bilaterally, the left superior temporal gyrus, temporo-parietal junction and the posterior cingulate cortex (Fletcher et al., 1995, Saxe and Kanwisher, 2003). A second theory posits that false-belief understanding develops out of other capacities that mature during the infancy. For example, pretend play (Leslie, 1987) and shared attention (Baron-Cohen, 1995) may be skills that precede ToM abilities. There are some specific prerequisites to theory of mind. Firstly, a child must understand that individuals can have desires what may be assessed by joint attention and protodeclarative pointing, secondly, they use pretend play skills and metarepresentation, and thirdly, they begin to use mental state terms such as "think," "know," "want," and "remember". A third theory postulates

that the development of ToM is influenced by exposure to conversation about mental states. According to this theory, there is the relationship between verbal ability and ToM in normally developing children (Perner, Ruffman, & Leekman, 1994, Jenkins & Astington, 1996, Białecka-Pikul, 2002). However, the communication difficulties may prevent some children from being able to successfully converse with others. DeVilliers and deVilliers (2000) have emphasised that performance on false belief tasks depends on understanding complex language and that individual differences may reflect differences in language ability. Several studies have found that children with better language skills perform better on false belief tasks (egg. Astington, Jenkins, 1999). The idea that the accurate use of the linguistic terms describing mental states, such as "think", "know" and "remember", requires that they be understood. If a child does not understand what these words mean, then they are likely to fail false belief tasks.

Some researchers have pointed out that family background may also account for some differences. It was found that children with older brothers or sisters succeed in theory of mind tasks earlier than only children or those with a younger sibling (Ruffman et al 1998). Older siblings provide opportunities through play and discussion for younger children to learn about the mental states of others. Parental occupational class and the level of mother's education may also be good predictors of theory of mind development, because they influence language ability and emotional understanding within family (Cutting and Dunn 1999).

Theory of mind in the field of exceptional psychology

within the last twenty years scientists have also tried to investigate theory of mind development in children with pervasive developmental disorders and different impairments. Since prime publication by Baron-Cohen el. al.1985 numerous populations have been observed to fail tests of theory of mind, such as false belief tasks. Autistic groups and children with specific sensory impairments have also been compared.

In 1985, Baron-Cohen, Leslie and Frith were the first to ask the question of whether autistic children have a theory of mind (Baron-Cohen, Leslie, & Frith, 1985). Autism is a pervasive developmental disorder that is characterized by qualitative impairment in social interaction and communication, as well as restricted repetitive and stereotyped patterns of behavior, interests and activities (APA, 2000). Children with autism frequently exhibit atypical language development; they may have difficulties using language related to the emotional states

of other people. It was found that children with autism have neither a theory of their own mind nor a theory of other people's minds. These first findings by Baron-Cohen were fundamental to our knowledge and the way of understanding the behavioral problems of autistic persons. However, in the face of thirty years of research in the field of the deficits in theory of mind in autism the strong negative answer should be lessened. To substantiate the claim that theory of mind is a core deficit in autism, three requirements must be met: individuals with autism must universally fail tests of theory of mind; theory of mind must be innate; and theory of mind must depend on a specific neural mechanism.

McAlpine and Moore (1995) studied theory of mind in blind children and found that blind children were somewhat delayed in passing a false-belief task, though this may have been in part due to the greater information- processing demands of such a task for children who cannot use visual cues.. Although blind children are not impaired in verbal communication, they are impaired in some forms of nonverbal communication, and in particular, are not able to detect eye direction: a skill that is usually seen as important, though not absolutely essential, for the development of shared attention (Baron-Cohen, 1993, 1994). The latest findings of the research into the neurological basis of theory of mind by Bendy el al (2009) showed that despite different developmental experiences congenitally blind people have a typical ToM network. The authors concluded that the development of neural mechanisms for ToM depends on innate factors and on experiences represented at an abstract level, amodally. This finding would have great importance into other field of interests, however, researchers are still looking for exceptionality in theory of mind development by hearing impaired people. Therefore the following groups were also subject to studies: deaf children (Peterson & Siegal, 1995, Courtin, 2000, Lundy 2002), non-autistic children and adolescents with intellectual disability (Benson, Abbeduto, Short, Nuccio, & Maas, 1993), children with Cerebral Palsy (Dahlgreen, et al., 2002, Falkman, 2005), children with Down's Syndrome (Zelazo, Burack, Benedetto & Frye, 1996), Parkinson's patients (Saltzman, Strauss, Hunter, & Archibald, 2000), frontal lobe patients (Rowe, Bullock, Polkey, & Morris, 2001), and, rather curiously, children with a specific language impairment (Miller, 2001), as well as children with Williams syndrome and Pader-Willi syndrome (Karmiloff-Smith, et al, 1995; Sullivan, Tager-Flusberg, 1999; Tager-Flusberg, Sullivan, 2000).

The findings mentioned hereinbefore have been highly influential on the field of developmental psychology and have implications for study of theory of mind in hearing impaired children.

Theory of mind in hearing impaired children

Why does sensory impairment influence specific problems within theory of mind development? What are the predictors of normal development in children with hearing impairment? Answers to these questions could give real support to parents and help the families of children with hearing impairments to deal with developmental delay, as well as to stimulate social development of their children.

The first study in the field of theory of mind in the deaf by Peterson and Siegal (1995) revealed that 65 % of profoundly deaf Australian children aged 8–13 using Auslan (Australian sign language) to communicate failed the false belief test. They reported that only 35 % of them passed a version of the classic "Sally- Anne" task. The level of performance shown by deaf children did not differ significantly from that reported for autistic children of a comparable (nonverbal) mental age. These results were replicated in a later comparison of deaf and autistic children across a wider age range using a wider range of tests (Peterson & Siegal, 1997, 1999, 2000).

More recent research indicates that deaf children are not impaired in theory of mind development but just delayed in this process. However, that delay is quite serious compared to hearing children, in some cases not reliably understanding false belief until early adolescence. Deaf children aged 5–12 years solve tests focused on theories of mind better than 3-year-olds but not as well as 4 year-olds, although the background mechanism itself is not damaged and the problem is not related to hearing impairment per se but rather to some aspects of language context (Courtin, 2000; Lundy, 2002).

1   Early exposure to language

The role of language has often been perceived as fundamental to theory of mind development in hearing children, which was described previously (Astington & Jenkins, 1999; de Villiers & de Villiers, 2000; Biłecka-Pikul, 2002), thus it should also be important to the deaf. The strong evidence for such a general conclusion was found in researches comparing the false beliefs in deaf children who are native signers of a sign language (usually the second generation of deaf children who have been raised by signing deaf parents) and late signers – deaf children of hearing parents (often learning sign language only once at school). Serious delay in theory of mind development was first argued within the theory of limited early exposure to language. It seems that many deaf children will be delayed in gaining conversational access to information about the intangible thoughts and feelings of others. According to Peterson and Siegal (1995, 2000),

the primary cause of a delayed development of ToM is the lack of access to conversations.

It is obvious that the deaf children group is not homogeneous because more than 90 % of deaf children have hearing parents. So it might be concluded that theory of mind developmental delay occurred in deaf children of hearing parents (late signers).

Studies composed of different tasks show interesting, however differential results due to the fact that in many studies late signers are older than the compared hearing children, when typically pass false belief tasks. So it is difficult to determine how native signers compare with hearing peers in terms of development of false belief understanding if different age groups are taken into account. Peterson and Siegal (2000) summarised the results of 11 separate investigations from different cultures and educational systems involving profoundly deaf children and false belief tests and found consistent support for the finding that late signers are seriously delayed in acquiring theory of mind, whereas the delay amongst native signers was not so marked. The value of the child's social and emotional development depends on visual and tactile communication techniques of interacting developing naturally between a deaf child and a deaf parent.

Peterson et. al. (2005) have shown that only a third of the late-signers aged 5.5–13.2 years could pass a false belief task, whereas 60 % of deaf adolescents from hearing families could not understand another person's false beliefs. It ought to be emphasized, however, that the findings of different scientists from the studies comparing different age groups are divergent, depending on age, and depict smaller developmental delays in ToM development. According to the study by Moeller and Schick (2006) deaf children pass false belief tasks at younger ages (6- and 7-year-olds: 63 % passed; 8- and 9-year-olds: 75 %) and native signers perform significantly better on ToM tasks than their late signers peers. The only study so far to compare native signers with their hearing peers at the same age was conducted by Courtin (2000), who studied ToM skills in a both native and late signers. It was discovered that the 5-and half-years-old native signers outperformed the 7-year-old late signers, regardless of whether the latter were learning sign language or spoken French. And what is more significant, native signers were significantly better on the false belief tasks than a control group of hearing peers. This results show an enhanced performance in deaf children learning sign language because most sign languages (if not all) have grammatical structures to indicate the space. All of linguists divided signs

into several phonemic distinctive features: hand shape, palm orientation, hand movement, hand location, as well as non-manual features such as facial expression, posture, and mouthing which are going on within space. Therefore, taking one's own or somebody else's perspective within the visual space is a basic element of the sign language grammar. Because of visual aspects of sign language, deaf children learning sign language may be particularly advantaged when taking perspective of others as well as learning concepts about mental states.

As in the previous studies Schick et al. 2007 found that the development in the field of understanding false beliefs and konwledge about mental states was delayed in case of deaf children of hearing parents, irrespective of a dominant language of an educational system (schools with spoken English or ALS). In contrast, native signers performed with no significant difference to the hearing children on any of the ToM tasks, either verbal or low verbal. This means that the deaf children with hearing parents are not delayed in ToM because of their deafness per se. Early access to an equivalent language in another medium, namely ASL, is just as effective for communicating ToM, as demonstrated by the native signers performance. This study showed that early exposure to sign language is an important factor of ToM development but, in contrast to a finding by Courtin (2000), does not show that the native signers are advantaged in their ToM development compared with their hearing peers, providing there was no evidence that sign language was facilitative over spoken language.

Hearing families that experience difficulty in communication with deaf children about everyday routines also suffer extreme difficulty talking about thoughts, beliefs and intentions. As a result, language-delayed deaf children miss out on references to abstract, unseen entities such as mental states, and have fewer raw materials to develop ToM concepts. Deaf children do not have any special problems with social interaction other than that imposed by delayed language skills, unlike children with autism, who have also been shown to be significantly delayed in ToM development (Peterson & Siegal, 2000).

2 Common engagement

If a child is not able to communicate with others by means of a communication channel he or she understands, it limits the child's background of the psychical safety feeling construction, which is the basis of the ability to create his/her identity (Zalewska, 1998). The stress by a hearing mother of a deaf child makes her experience herself as also being deaf in contact with her child because her communicating skills are not adequate. As a result, many deaf

children have access to neither spontaneous spoken conversations nor non-verbal behavioural dialogues. The early behavioral dialogue is fundamental for developing imitation and cooperative skills as the basis of all different learning skills. During a behavioral dialogue, which constitutes a first step towards the development of episodes of common engagement, a mother gives all her love and care to her child, which provides the child with the feeling of security and helps them establish a secure attachement. It was found in hearing toddlers that the theory of mind development during a preschool stage takes place as toddlers attend to both social-emotional and symbolic aspects of shared events. When controlling for language comprehension at 30 months, higher preschool false belief scores were associated with more time spent in both coordinated joint engagement with a caregiver in an ealier toodlerhood and in a symbol-infused joint engagement in a later toddlerhood (Nelson, Adamson, Bakeman, 2008). Tomasello et al (2005) describe three levels of episodes of engagement predictable for social cognition. First is **Dyadic engagement** called also *protoconversations* (before 9 m). These are social interactions in which the adult and infant look, touch, smile, and vocalize toward each other in turn-taking sequences based on sharing behavior and emotions. Second is **Triadic engagement** based on sharing goals and perception (9–12m.). The child interacts together with a goal-directed agent toward some shared goal. In doing this, both interactants perceptually monitor the goal-directed behavior and perceptions of the partner. These are activities such as giving and taking objects, rolling a ball back and forth, building a block tower together, putting away toys together, "pretend" games of eating or drinking, "reading" books, and pointing-and-naming games. During these activities, infants' looking becomes coordinated with that of the other person triadically toward the relevant outside objects as well. Third is **Collaborative engagement:** the stage of joint intentions and attention (12–15 m). The child interacts with an intentional agent toward some shared goal and with coordinated action plans as manifest in a joint intention – and with joint attention (mutual knowledge) as well. Tomasello argues that humans' cooperative communication emerged first in the natural gestures of pointing and pantomiming. Conventional communication, first gestural and then vocal, evolved only after humans already possessed these natural gestures and their shared intentionality infrastructure along with skills of cultural learning for creating and passing along jointly understood communicative conventions. Prelingually deaf children, being born unable to hear but growing up in an environment rich with episodes of engagement at all three mentioned above levels, may be free

of communication difficulties. Deaf children born to signing deaf parents can develop natural and fluent communication skills as well as ToM (Marschark, et al., 2000; Moeller, 2002; Gray & Hosie, 1996). Deaf children of hearing parents usually grow up in the environment poor in stimulations and with low impact of engagement, and they often are treated as objects of speech therapy, which is connected with the more authoritarian way of communication that seems to focus on parental own wishes rather than the subject of personal dialogue in which the child' feelings and needs are respected. In such a situation, deaf children of hearing parents are usually deprived of any possibilities as well as motivation to explain their own needs and take their own, independent decisions. What is more, they are often forced to communicate verbally with others. Such a contact and an early communication experience result in deaf children's tendency to use repetitions and arguments that do not provide new information to their conversation partners and in their decreased ability to take the perspective of others.

In contrast to such a developmental pattern, deaf children of deaf parents who use a sign language as native (native signers) will not be at all delayed in ToM. Native signers performed the same as hearing controls at ages 4, 5, and 6 years on both verbal and low verbal ToM tasks (Courtin, 2000; Peterson & Siegel, 1997, 1999; Woolfe et al, 2002).

3   Language acquisition

Second context of language might be pointed out as *language acquisition*. Many studies of deaf children suggest some causal role for language acquisition in the development of an understanding of false beliefs (P. de Villiers, 2005). A subgroup of native signers are exposed to a full language from birth in the form of a natural sign language, so their language acquisition follows the normal timetable and have demonstrated similar developmental pattern in language acquisition to hearing peers (Schick, 2003). In contrast, many late signers have significantly delayed language acquisition, although they have age-appropriate non-verbal intelligence and active sociability. Language delayed deaf children also show a significant delay in ToM development.

Lundy (2002) used Language Proficiency Profile and found that age was the most significant predictor of verbal false-belief task performance. Language skills of 34 deaf and hard of hearing children, ages 5–10, were found less significant for the children's theory of mind development then age. More recent studies showed that grammatical skills of deaf children were highly correlated

with false belief measures (Moeller and Schick 2006). The children's own language scores predicted a small but significant 14 % of the variance in their ToM scores, however, both age and maternal language were highly correlated with the children's ToM performance. Significant predictors of ToM might be also both vocabulary comprehension and syntax production (de Villiers and Pyers 2002) It was found that there were significant predictors of 23 oral deaf children's performance on both verbal and nonverbal tests of false belief tasks, even when the effects of age, nonverbal IQ, and hearing loss were controlled. However, the language acquisition is very important for theory of mind development, it was also found, when comparing late signers to native signers in terms of language age that they are still significantly delayed in their false belief reasoning (Woolfe et al., 2002). This might be interpreted as the background of theory of mind development by deaf children is very complex and conditioned by numerous factors.

4 Significant others – the mother and siblings

Both aspects of language context basis for theory of mind development in deaf children which were mentioned hereinabove are related to the common mode of communication within family. Moeller and Schrick (2006) has found that *mother's* signed use of mental state expressions (desires and cognitions) in describing events to their signing deaf children is predictive of the children's ToM reasoning, independent of the children's own language skills. It means that a deaf mother spontaneously stimulates theory of mind development of her deaf child, even though his or her language competences are not highly developed. When engaging in conversations about mental state, a mother's signing skill impacts the frequency and diversity of these discussions.

Several studies have found that relatively few hearing parents achieve sufficient proficiency in manual communication to converse fluently with their deaf children about imaginary or unobservable objects as well as abstract concepts (Marschark, 1993). Hearing mother's use of sign language to name significant mental states has a crucial influence on the development of ToM in deaf children, irrespective of the fact if the mother herself is a native signer or not. Thus, a training of hearing mothers of deaf children in the first generation in the field of basic command of the signs of sign language that describe mental states seems to be of paramount importance. As a mother is one of the most important significant others in early childhood as well the best model of language development, she exerts a very important impact on the value of her child's

social interaction and ToM development. Results (Moeller, Schrick, 2006) showed that maternal sign proficiency was correlated with a child's language, false belief, and mothers' talk about the mind. Frequency of mothers' mental state talk was significantly related to ToM, after controlling for the effects of language. The frequency of maternal mental state input was influenced by the level of maternal sign skill.

Although initiating an interaction and communication with a deaf child often motivates a hearing mother to learn sign language, she is in many cases unable to communicate mental states to her child. Moeller and Schick (2006) found that hearing mothers varied in their ability to use signs for mental state terms and that the mothers' ability and willingness to talk about the mind was correlated with their own child's ability to pass false belief tasks.

Deaf children of hearing mothers who use sign language in communication about mental states demonstrated only slight ToM delays in comparison to other studies.

Siblings of deaf children, both deaf and hearing, might also play an important role in theory of mind development. It was found that the quality of the sibling relationship predicted ToM reasoning over and above the age of the children and the effectiveness of conversation about the physical world (Woolfe, 2003). Siblings of deaf children can provide a positive environment in which children are exposed to talk about mental states that alerts them to the possibility that beliefs may differ from reality. Participating with siblings in pretend plays, deaf children engage in numerous communicative situations that require describing mental states and reality. The children also might have an opportunity to confront the reality and false beliefs of another person.

5   Schooling system

Theory of mind development might also be related to an *educational system*. School environment also seems to be an important factor of ToM development in deaf children. They usually are taught in three different type of schooling: segregated, mainstream or regular schools for the hearing. These types differ not only in the impact of social and cognitive integration but, what is more influencial, in the mode of communication. Schools varied in the level of oral vs. sing language to be used.

Children educated by means of total communication, bilingual communication and oral language were compared (Courtin, 2000, Peterson, Siegal 1999). Deaf children of hearing parents are delayed in the development of theories of

mind no matter what communication pattern has been adopted in their education, which means that the delay is not specific or related to the way of teaching. The findings showed that education in a TC classroom where sign was used along with speech neither enhanced nor detracted from ToM development, relative to mainstream schooling (Peterson, 2004). Some hearing parents of deaf children opt for a purely oral approach to family communication and for mainstream or regular oral-only schooling. Language development is generally delayed in orally educated profoundly deaf children who use conventional hearing aids (Svirsky, Robbins, Iler-Kirk, Pisoni, & Miyamoto, 2000) so they also would have delay in ToM. Along with delayed language, restrictions upon the oral deaf child's opportunities to exchange information about thoughts, feelings, or intentions with hearing parents, peers and siblings may curtail ToM development. Orally-taught deaf child not exposed to sign language experience the limited speech, vocabulary and syntax typically present at age 4 years however this level is not sufficient to support elaborate mind-talk, especially reference to others' beliefs. Consequently, if language and early family conversation are critical factors for ToM development, orally educated deaf children with hearing aids should be delayed in mastering concepts of false belief.

That might be the argument for bilingual education (Singleton et al., 1998) which assumes that sign language is the primary basis of deaf children's development both in cognitive and emotional-social aspects. Its good frame for the development of the second language development, which for the deaf means oral national language used by the hearing majority.

There is also evidence that teachers of the deaf, as well as hearing teachers of hearing children, vary a great deal in how much they talk about the mind. Given that many deaf children often have a limited range of social partners who can they communicate fluently with, restricted input is a serious issue for many children.

The education of deaf children living in an integrated environment needs to look beyond functional communication and academic skills and ensure there is also a focus on more complex aspects of social and emotional understanding and development.

Theory of mind skills could be *trained* both in autistic children (Wellman, et. al. 2002) and the deaf (Cerruto, 1999). In the study by Cerruto (1999) it was hypothesized that children who are deaf would demonstrate delayed development of theory of mind on a pretest. However, two sessions of training would improve their belief tasks performance in a posttest. Training study was

organized for a group of 38 children, between the ages of 5 and 13. The children participated in control and belief training groups and received two sessions spanning two weeks. A two-week and subsequent four-week pretest, posttest and follow-up task were administered. A simple false belief pretest task results showed that firstly, the vast majority of children who are deaf (77 %) failed that task, secondly, a significant relationship between age and belief task performance existed, thirdly, an insignificant relationship between IQ and belief task performance was found, and fourthly, an insignificant relationship between gender and belief pretest performance was found as well.

In general, the results of the study suggest that two belief training sessions spanning two weeks had an effect on deaf children's performance on false belief tasks. The results of a t-test indicated that significant differences were found between the theory of mind training group and the control one on posttest scores measured on total, self, and other scores. More detailed results showed that the gender was not the significant factor in theory of mind improvement after training. This early bird study suggested that future research should be done to predict the transfer of training results into different objects as well as secondary level of beliefs.

Conclusion

Many studies found that deaf children represent a delay in theory of mind development, however, the performance of false believe tasks by native signers (deaf children of deaf parents) is much better then late signers (deaf children of hearing parents). It is argued that deaf children with language delay are significantly delayed in their mastery of false-belief reasoning. Language may, therefore, perform two important roles: it can be a common code of communication, which during an interaction strengthens communicative competences of deaf children and it can facilitate establishing social contacts with significant others.. Sharing common attention during the episodes of engagement stimulates the ability to take perspective of others and to communicate about mental states. Significant others (mother and siblings) are very important figures in this process.

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QUALITATIVE ANALYSIS OF RESILIENCE IN CHINESE FAMILIES OF CHILDREN WITH HEARING IMPAIRMENT

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Abstract

Children' hearing impairments not only impact on themselves, but also influence all aspects of family life. Family resilience describes the path how family adapts and thrives in the face of stress, including the reality of having a child with hearing impairment. This study adopts semi-structured interview and qualitative analysis methods associated with grounded theory to analyze the experiences of seven resilient Chinese families with hearing-impaired children. It explores themes of the drive force for diagnosis of hearing loss, the families' reactions to the diagnosis, the difficulties families experienced during parenting and the strategies used to cope with childhood hearing impairment in Chinese context. Eventually the limitations of research are discussed.

Key words

Qualitative analysis, resilience, Chinese family, children with hearing impairment.

Kvalitativní analýza resilience čínských rodin s dětmi s postižením sluchu

Resumé

Sluchové postižení dítěte nemá vliv pouze na dítě samotné, ale také na život rodiny. Resilience rodiny je výsledkem úspěšného vyrovnání se stresem, souvisejícím se skutečností, že se narodilo dítě se sluchovým postižením. Tato studie zpracovává polostrukturované rozhovory a kvalitativní analýzu sedmi takovýchto čínských rodin. Zabývá se důvody, které vedly k zahájení diagnostického procesu, reakcí rodiny na výsledek diagnózy, obtížím, které rodiče překonávali, a strategiemi, které rodiče volili k vyrovnání se sluchovým postižením dítěte. Ve studii jsou také podchycena omezení prováděného výzkumu.

Klíčová slova

Kvalitativní analýza, schopnost přizpůsobit se, čínská rodina, dítě se sluchovým postižením.

Introduction

Family is the central social context within which the development of the individual child occurs. Family involvement in education is especially important for children with handicaps including hearing impairment. The study of history of deaf education and those successful deaf individuals have revealed that parental involvement in both formal and informal education is one of the best predicator of children's academic success (Marschark et al., 2002). However, accumulated body of knowledge about the impact of hearing impairment on a family has demonstrated that it is the family, not the child himself or herself, that is in turmoil (Gregory and Knight, 1998). Indeed, as United Nations High Commissioner for Human Rights proposed in Convention on the Right of the Child, the family as the fundamental group of society and the natural environment for the growth and well-being of all its members, especially for children, should be afforded the necessary protection and assistance so that it can fully assume its responsibilities within the community (Office of the United Nations High Commissioner for Human Rights, 1989). It is insightful that the family with children of any handicaps, including hearing impairment, should be supported to be with resilience by community or society before they can have ability to play their social role.

Resilience is the ability to withstand and rebound from disruptive life challenges, it involves dynamic processes fostering positive adaptation within the context of significant adversity (Walsh, 2003). Over the past decades, the research on resilience has gained prominence as a branch to study the processes and mechanisms through which exposure to risk factors may be associated with individual's positive and negative outcomes (e.g. Werner, 1995; Murphy, 2008). Recent years' researches on resilience have been extended from individuals who are at-risk in variety of conditions, ranging from living in poverty, exposure to parental abuse and parental death alike, to the families which as a function unit, also encounter various stressful events, such as unwanted health – related crises, unexpected life events or changes. In general, regardless of individuals or families, the core question of resilience research is "what accounts for why some stay healthy and do well in the face of risk and adversity and others do not?" (Patterson, 2002, p. 360).

According to Hann et al. (2002) family resilience describes the path a family follows as it adapts and prospers in the face of stress, both in the present and over time. From the point of view of family system theory, family is a system which is dynamic and holistic. There is no doubt that the birth of a child with hearing impairment or having a hearing-impaired child presents special challenges to the most hearing families because most cases of hearing impairment are not hereditary, many hearing impaired children will have congenital or early-onset hearing loss that are totally unexpected (and usually unrecognized for some time) by their parents. Consequently, the presence of hearing impairment in a family has the potential to affect all area of family life including family interaction, family resource, parenting and support for child. (Jackson and Turnbull, 2004). However, no matter how hard the situation is, in any social context, there always exist some families who can cope with hearing impairment successfully and be resilient while others not. Despite numerous studies have explored the experience of families of children with hearing impairment in western or industrialized countries, few studies, if any, have been conducted to examine the experience of Chinese families from a completely different social cultural background. This study attempts to present thick rich experiences from the perspectives of caregivers of children with hearing impairment and to increase our understanding of how families in Chinese social context adapt to the challenge of having a child with hearing-impairment and fostering them. Specifically, this study has tried to answer the following questions: how Chinese families react to the diagnosis of hearing loss, what difficulties they will experience in parenting, what strategies they have used to deal with the challenges resulted from children's hearing loss. The answers to these questions will inform the professionals in special education field and policy-makers in inside and outside of China.

Method

This study was a follow-up part of a comprehensive questionnaire survey for my Ph.D. dissertation and it aimed to better explore some questions which is less amenable to quantitative comparison. It mainly used semi-structured interview and some of qualitative analysis methods associated with grounded theory (Strauss & Corbin, 1998, 2008) to collect data and analyze data. In recent years, qualitative methods have become more widely used to allow holistic descriptions of individuals or families' experience in some specific condition. Like other qualitative problems, the nature of the topic of this study, how families adapted

to the challenge facing families with hearing impairment could not be suited to quantitative measures. This study initially started with an open and free talk between authors and some parents who attended a lecture which was given by the first author. Touched by experience of one resilient family struggling with the adverse impacts of hearing impairment on them, the concept of resilience came out in researchers' mind. To get more accurate and detailed experiences from diversified family background, two researchers eventually planned to recruit more resilient families to participate in the qualitative research to deepen and richen the questionnaire study. Within the general topic of how families of children with hearing impairment in the Chinese context adapt to reality, several questions in the interview guide had been asked via face to face personal interview. These questions included: (1) How was the hearing impairment diagnosed? (2) How did your family respond to the diagnosis? (3) What difficulties had your family experienced during the parenting? (4) What supports had your family got to help you deal with the child's hearing impairment? (5) What strategies has your family used to adapt to the reality of having a child with hearing impairment? All the interviews were recorded and transcribed shortly after. After collecting the data, the raw data spoken in Sichuan accent mandarin was translated into written raw data in general Chinese mandarin word by word. The interview and raw data collecting were completed by the second author Zheng Linying, a graduate student applying for master degree in special education in Sichuan Normal University in China. To avoid taking for granted subjectively and to reach agreement in coding, the qualitative analyses were completed by two authors using open coding, axial coding and comparative analysis again and again. According to Strauss and Corbin (1998, 2008), we used open coding to break data apart line by line and delineated concepts to stand for blocks of raw data in terms of their properties and dimensions. After open coding, we went on relating concepts to each other and labelled them as some categories. Then we used comparative analysis to compare categories from different families for similarities and differences. At last we grouped our understanding of experiences of family experience with childhood hearing impairment in the Chinese context into four themes: the process of diagnosis, reactions to the diagnosis, difficulties in parenting and strategies used to coping with children's hearing impairment.

Participants

The main caregivers of children from resilient families judged by their responses in the questionnaire of families with hearing impaired children were invited to participate. Simply put, in this study the resilient families should satisfy the following requirements: 1) accepting well-up till to the time of participation family accepted child's hearing impairment basically and felt peace in family; 2) functioning well – involving keeping intact and meeting the members' economic needs, daily care needs, affection needs, educational needs, specifically, doing everything affordable and possible to promote children's potential development; 3) expecting well – believing in child's future, having self-efficacy in dealing with the future crisis. According to the above requirements, seven families were selected and would like to take part in the interview with consent. They were from two educational agencies, the Chengdu Rehabilitation and Education Center (CREC) for disabled preschoolers in Chengdu, the capital city of Sichuan Province, and Luxian Special School in Luxian, a agricultural county in Sichuan Province. As a whole, compared with other cities and counties in the eastern coastal regions or other developed areas, Chengdu and Luxian, two regions located in the western area of China, were relatively undeveloped in economy and social culture. However, from another point of view of representability, the families from two regions, one urban area, one rural area, may be more likely to be representative and suitable samples to study the Chinese families. For the convenience of participants, all interviews took place in the special school or rehabilitation center where the participant caregivers sent child to special teachers or trainers. The caregivers were encouraged to share their perspectives according to the level of comfort and to focus on the issues of importance to them based on the experience in caring for child. In order to be confidential and to be convenient for further analysis, the seven participant children are given pseudonym of Bao, Hang, Shuai, Mnan, Wang, Lulu, Luhua. The key demographic and clinical characteristics of the participant family and children were detailed in Table 1 and Table 2.

Table 1 Characteristic of participant children

Name	Age	Gender	Degree of hearing loss	Age at diagnosis	Sensory device	Communication method
Bao	53months	Boy	100dB	6 months	HA & CI	Oral
Hang	45 months	Boy	>90dB	12 months	Ha & CI	Oral
Shuai	58 months	Boy	>110dB	45 months	HA	Mixed
Mnan	37 months	Boy	>110dB	20 months	HA	Natural gesture
Wang	48 months	Boy	>110dB	25 months	CI	Oral
Lulu	72 months	Boy	not clear	12 months	None	CSL
Luhua	132 months	Girl	not clear	12 months	None	Written and CSL

Note: HA = Hearing Aids; CI = Cochlear Implants; Mixed = Natural gesture plus spoken language, CSL = Chinese Sign Language

Table 2 Demographic characteristics of participant families

Name	Caregiver	Parental hearing	Community type	Educational attainment	Family income
Bao	Grandma	Normal	Urban	University	Middle
Hang	Grandma	Normal	Suburb	Middle school	Low
Shuai	Aunt	Normal	Rural	Middle school	Low
Mnan	Mother	Normal	Urban	University	Middle
Wang	Grandma-in-law	Normal	Suburb	Middle school	Low
Lulu	Mother	Normal	Rural	Middle school	Low
Luhua	Mother	Normal	Rural	Middle school	Low

Note: educational attainment = highest educational attainment among family members

Results

Based on the developmental process of families experiencing children's hearing impairment, the findings of this study were formulated into the following themes: diagnosis and drive force for diagnosis, family reactions to the diagnosis, the difficulties families experienced while parenting their hearing-impaired children, strategies of family coping with children's handicaps in terms of the shared experience from the main caregivers of seven participant families:

Diagnosis and drive force for diagnosis

Early and accurate identification of hearing loss is critical to the child's overall development and family coping with hearing impairment. All participant families expressed the view that newborn hearing screening services should be desired to be an important part of overall support services for children with hearing loss. However, in reality the diagnoses or identifications of hearing loss in seven families proceeded with in their own way differently and were driven by different forces.

Parents were often the most effective identification sources. Luhua, the eldest child of among seven children, who was 11 years old from the Luxian countryside, her hearing loss was identified around her one year old because of her responsive mother. "I felt she had problem in hearing by intuition. She appeared to have no response to my voice. So I and my husband sent her to the affiliated hospital of Luzhou Medical Colleage" she stated, "but up till to now, I did not know exactly the degree of hearing loss. I simply remembered that the doctor told us 'your child has severe hearing loss'." Like Luhua, Lulu's hearing loss was also firstly identified by his mother and diagnosed in hospital after one year old.

Mnan's mother shared her suspicion and made a slight complaint against the doctor's suggestion with the interviewer: "I had some suspicion about his hearing around his one and half years old because he can not speak. Then I went to the local hospital near my home and told the doctor my suspicion of his lag in language development and communication problem between us. After simple observation and comparison with behavioral checklist of autism, the doctor simply told me that he had no sign of autism and let me go on with observing his behavior. With the hope that he was just a boy opening mouth later, we delayed his diagnosis till he was two years old."

Both Wang's grandma- in-law and Shuai's aunt recognized the two children's hearing loss earlier by their experience of parenting children, yet because of their parent's self deceiving the diagnosis of two children's hearing loss were delayed. As Wang's grandma-in-law recalled: "when I told my suspicion of Wang' hearing loss to my son-in-law and my daughter, they self-deceived themselves that both of parent are normal, there was no reason for his deafness. At last, supported by the more apparent signs of no response to human voice and no locating reaction to sounds, more importantly, moved by my determination, the diagnosis was implemented when he was 25 months old."

With the emergence of implementing newborn hearing screening in China after entering new century, some children benefited from such new technology revolution. Both Bao and Hang' were screened as positive in hearing loss which was one part of newborn disease screening paid by family at their birth. At last Bao's hearing loss was diagnosed accurately when he was six months old while Hang got his diagnosis when he was twelve months old.

Putting together the data many factors can be found to contribute to the time of diagnosis of children hearing loss. There is no doubt that hearing technique is important factor, but more important drive force for early diagnosis is responsiveness of caregivers and attentions paid to children's health.

Family reactions to the diagnosis

Seven families in this study were families of parents with normal hearing. Children's hearing losses were completely unexpected to them and created rigid family crisis. Though some families had some suspicions of children hearing loss earlier, all seven families demonstrated various kinds of intense negative emotional reactions to the diagnosis. For example, when Hang's grandma was asked how her family reacted to the diagnosis, she stated: "the whole family was overwhelmed with the bad news and all the families members, father, mother, and grandparents, wept their heart out." Further she explained: "It was unfair, our families didn't do anything evil, why we were punished by being given a child with such a handicap?" According to the parent experience, the most salient reactions of seven families and the focus reasons for their reaction were detailed in Table 3.

Table 3 The most salient reaction to diagnosis and focus reason

Family's name	Most salient reaction to diagnosis	The focus reason for reaction
Bao	Despair	*All family members have no experience with deafness*
Hang	Grief	*It's unfair, why we are given a child with deafness*
Shuai	Denial	*The child will be normal over time*
Mnan	Shock	*We have some suspicion but the diagnosis is beyond my expectation*
Wang	Anger	*Why our child is abnormal while others not*
Lulu	Grief	*Deafness means both child and parent have no future*
Luhua	Grief	*Both our families have no history of deafness and it is shame to speak to others*

The difficulties families experience while parenting the children

    The children's hearing loss is not an acute event which happens and its impact will be ended at a particular point of time. In contrast it is chronic stress through long drawn-out process which may well produce marked challenges on family and which may continue to produce substantial difficulties on family. While recalling the images of conducting interview and working with the data of conversations, the main issue or theme that kept coming out in the mind was "difficulty" and experiencing difficulty was a constant day-to-day affair. The deepest impression of interview was that all participant caregivers looked fine and strong on the outside, but when they sat down to talk, all caregivers wanted to cry. Indeed, every difficult family was difficult in its own way.

Difficulty in communication with children

    Because of the direct impact of hearing loss, seven caregivers expressed the more or less frustrations with communication with children. For Shuai, who was 58 months old, with profound hearing loss, but without systematic learning of sign language and without help of appropriate hearing device, his aunt described a large amount of experience about their communication difficulties: "sometimes he could understand what I said, sometimes he could not. Because of his severity of hearing loss, most of time he could not hear what I said. We used natural gesture and guess to communicate. It was more difficult for him to express his ideas. Every time when he understood what I said, he would nod with smile. But when he did not understand what I said, or when ha could not make himself understood by me, he was angry and badtempered. I often got frustrated when I saw my nephew being frustrated." For Mnan, who was 37 months old, the youngest of seven children, his mother was planning for his use of cochlear implants to address the problem of communication. She stated, "After his hearing loss was diagnosed, we firstly considered his use of hearing aids. But till to now, it did not work well. At present I used natural gesture to communicate with children. Because he was very young, he could not hear well, speak well and understand well. Sometimes he understood the simple things I said, but for more complicated meaning, he had difficulty. When I had to tell something important to him, I used body language to let him understand or teach him hand by hand and force him to exercise again and again." Similarly Lulu's mother also commented the hardship of communication with children. But with the growth of children, new communication means of the written language to be used in communication. Luhua's mother mentioned improvement in communication

between them by writing, "When Luhua was young, I experienced the frustration with communicating with her. But after she attended special school, he learnt sign language, and she taught me the sign language, so we can communicate more complicated meaning. Now she could write, we often used writing to express our ideas, so we felt communication between us easier." For three children with cochlear implants, their communications were in different context. Bao, who was implanted cochlear implants (CI) at the age of 22 months old, with the time of 31 months use of CI, having going through the long time of adaptation to CI and hearing speech training, he could understand the majority of what parent and teacher said. For Hang and Wang's families, they were struggling with exercising hearing and speaking to benefit more from hearing and speech training after the average 18 months of use of cochlear implants.

Difficulty in family economy

Even in western developed countries, some families report difficulty meeting the financial demands related to equipment or service including the cost of sensory devices, therapy, and early intervention programs etc. (Jackson et al., 2008). For these Chinese families from China, the largest yet still poor country, economic burden is the second biggest difficulty of families experienced following the communication difficulty.

Bao was a boy from a middle income family. His parents had job with stable income, and his grandparents could get pension because of retirement from the work. But the financial burden resulted from his hearing loss almost put his family into poverty. When asked the details of the money spent by his grandson, Bao's grandma collected: "firstly, my family paid the expense of newborn screening including hearing screening, then the family pay the money for the comprehensive audiological evaluation. I could not remember the exact money because it was paid by my son. After audiological evaluation, as a result of doctor's suggestion, we spent 15,000 RMB to buy hearing aids for Bao. But Bao did not benefit from this expensive device and he still had no response to sound stimuli. Afterwards we were told that maybe cochlear implants could work. However it was much more expensive than hearing aids, with price ranging from more than 140,000 to more than 200,000 RMB. Despite the price was far beyond the family saving, but with the belief that we should do everything we can to maximize Bao's development, we decided to sell our house for it. It was really lucky that in later time Bao became one of qualified targets of the National Cochlear Implants Program organized by the China Disabled Per-

sons Federation and funded by Mr. Wang Yongqing, a famous industrialist from Taiwan. My family only paid more than 40,000 RMB for service related to cochlear implants operation and consequent hearing and speech training. However, comparing the money spent with our income, we still regarded it as a large amount expense."

Not as fortunate as Bao's family, Hang's family was deep in debt because of Hang's use of cochlear implants. According the description of Hang's grandma, when he was born in hospital, he was given newborn hearing screening and was tested as positive in hearing loss. When he was one and half years old, he was sent to hospital to test hearing loss and was diagnosed with profound hearing loss of more than 110 dB. To help Hang's hearing, his family rent a hearing aid from the Chengdu Rehabilitation and Education Center with a small amount of money. But hearing aids did not bring any gain in hearing. They were then told that cochlear implants may help Hang. At that time, the cochlear implant made by Australia was well-known in local deaf community and its price was 148,000 RMB. Compared with the average overall income of 10,000 RMB annually, the cochlear implants was far beyond the family's financial affordability. However, the family still firmly made up their minds to implant the cochlear implants with the belief that they would do everything beneficial to their child at all costs. With the allowance of 56,000 RMB from the Chengdu Disabled Persons Federation, eventually the family paid 92,000 RMB for the operation of cochlear implant in 2008. Most of the money was borrowed from their relatives. One child's hearing loss let the whole extended family fall into debt.

Wang's family had similar experience to Hang' family. At present they were in heavy debt because of using cochlear implants. As for other three families, namely, Mnan's family, Lulu's family and Luhua's family, their economic conditions were depressed by children's hearing loss to larger or less extent. As main caregivers and mothers of three hearing impaired children, they had to stay at home to take care of children with the notion that hearing impaired children were more dependant on parental care than hearing peers. Because of only one breadwinner in families, the family income reduced. As Lulu's mother stated: "I could not go to city together with my husband to earn money like other mothers. My husband worked in city as a migrant worker all the year. He was the only breadwinner in my family. Because of my son's deafness, I could not leave him to his grandma. So my family economic condition was worse than other families who had more people to earn money in this village." The only family unaffected apparently by child's hearing impairment was Shuai's family.

His family rented hearing aids from the CREC. His father had applied for the National Cochlear Implants Program for him, but was rejected eventually. At last he gave up the idea of implanting cochlear implants to his son because he thought it was not cost-effective.

Difficulty in access to intervention services

Due primarily to the large population of the country and the associated financial constraints China was facing there were few intervention programs which provided services, for example, information about hearing impairment and sensory device, funding sensory devices, social support to help family accept hearing loss, teaching sign language, etc. for the hearing impaired children and their families, if any, they were far from being accessible. In this study, Lulu and Luhua from the Luxian county, had never used hearing aids and cochlear implants despite their profound hearing loss, and their families reported they had never get any free social support from governmental agencies and professional institutions. Their children only could communicate with people surrounding them by sign language after they learnt in special school. Mnan's mother was worrying about the surgery of cochlear implants for his son but she only could get some information from parents. The main regular intervention services that the other four families from Chengdu city could get were hearing aids for rent and hearing-speech therapy provided by the CREC for disabled children. But the service of hearing-speech therapy was not easy accessible for Hang's family and Wang's family who lived in a suburb and Shuai's family who lived in a rural area. Hang's grandma shared her tough experience with interviewer, "because my family fell into debt for cochlear implants, all the family members had to save money as much as possible. It was valuable that the CREC could provide the associated hearing and speech training after cochlear implants, but it was extremely far from my home. On every Monday to Friday, I and Hang got up at 6 o'clock and walked one hour to bus stop, then after one hour's bus trip we could got to the CREC to start training. When Hang received training, I either stayed at the rest room or went out to wander in streets. Then at 4 o'clock in the evening we went back home following the same path. This life was hard, but it had lasted for more than one year, so we were already accustomed to it."

Difficulty in making decision

According to Jackson (2008), families of children often met difficulty in making decision in communication mode, sensory device and educational place-

ment. The factors influencing decision making are mainly from parents' desire, information and health and safety concerns (Jackson, 2008). Comparing the data from seven families in this study with previous researches, a bit different conclusions were formed and presented in the following sections. From the surface, all of seven families reported that they seldom experience difficulty in making decision in choosing communication mode. All families expressed the common desire to maximize their children's hearing and speaking ability. When these caregivers were asked how they dealt with the difficulty in communication between them and children, six caregivers told interviewer that their families insisted on using spoken language mixed with natural gesture to communicate. Only Lulu's mother took initiative to educate herself sign language by reading the book *Chinese Sign Language*. As stated in Shuai's grandma' words, "The hearing and speech training provided by the CREC is in the form of oral mode, we must help Shuai exercise it at home. So we try our best to communicate with him in spoken language." In this study, no family really knew sign language and no caregiver had ever received systematic training in sign language. So, to some degree, it was not fact that they had no difficulty. More accurately, it should be said that they had no choice in making decision.

As for the choice of educational placement, the condition was similar to that of communication mode. All families reported they had no difficulty in making decision. Four families of younger children with or planning for cochlear implants gave a consistent comment that regular school was better placement than special school. To a larger extent this consensus could be put down to the lack of understanding of a special school. As Wang's grandma said, "I did not know a special school and I felt it was not good. I never thought of sending him a to a special school." Mnan's mother emphasized that the purpose of implanting a cochlear implants was the opportunity to attend a regular school. She stated, "Regular school was certainly better choice for my children. But if he could not get good hearing by cochlear implants, the special school was acceptable. Yet in that case, the money we spent in cochlear implants was wasted." In contrast, three families of children without using cochlear implants had another consensus. Luhua's mother said, "The special school was beneficial for my daughter. There she has learned sign language and got literacy. She also could communicate with peers with similar experience in the special school." Similar to Luhua's mother, both Shuai's aunt and Lulu's mother emphasized the importance of attending the special school. In their opinion, the best choice for children who could not communicate by the oral approach was the special

school where they could communicate with sign and got education appropriate to them.

For three families of children using cochlear implants making decision in cochlear implants was not fully evidenced-based. Lacking of appropriate information from professionals, they made decision by trial and error and experiences from other parents. When asked why at last they chose cochlear implants as sensory device, the explanation from Bao's grandma and Hang's grandma was: "It was a result of trial and error. When hearing aids could not work, we only could choose cochlear implants. We were not sure of its effect, but it was the last hope." However, Wang's family was another case. Wang's grandma stated, "Wang did not go through a tryout of hearing aids before he was implanted cochlear implants. When we first went to the hospital to diagnose his hearing loss, we had met and talked with a parent of a child who firstly used hearing aids and then was implanted cochlear implants when hearing aids did not bring a great gain in hearing. When we went to the hospital second time to get the diagnosis we met another parent of a child with cochlear implants and asked about its effect, we were told it was not ideal but better than nothing. After that Wang's father searched some information from internet. At last, the family decision was made that cochlear implants would be implanted without trying of hearing aids to avoid the money being wasted." When participating this study, Mnan's mother was considering his son's surgery of cochlear implants and have somewhat worry about the invasive nature of surgery. However, regardless of her health and safety concern, her decision had been firmly made.

Strategies of family coping with childhood hearing impairment

Living within a social context which was of no solid social security system, these Chinese families used their unique strategies to deal with various life challenges or difficulties caused by childhood with hearing impairment. The following story line was demonstrated by integrating the relevant concepts appeared in the conversations.

Bao's family was the most resilient case according to our understanding of resilience. This family completely consisted with the standard of accepting well, functioning well and expecting well. When Bao's grandma was asked how her family went through these years, she elaborated their experience of restructuring their family to gear toward optimizing Bao's potential in behalf of her family. She stated with a bit pride: "In the early time when we were told the diagnosis we really felt the sky collapsed. We embraced together and cried. He

was the only child in this extended family. We felt extremely unprepared for his hearing loss and uncertain about his future. Fortunately my family was closely connected. My son and my daughter-in-law never quarreled for the child's hearing loss. To reduce their time demand I and Bao's grandpa took initiative to be responsible for taking care of Bao's life while my son and my daughter-in-law went on with their work to earn more money. Before the child was born, my daughter-in-law had planed to stay at home to care of her child by herself after the child's birth. Things changed greatly because of the hearing loss. Firstly we were overwhelmed with an unexpected handicap, then with the challenge of a large amount of money for hearing aids and followed by the hearing aids' failure. More fortunately, we were informed of the National Cochlear implants Program by the CREC and got the donated cochlear implants after his passing multiple examinations including the intelligence test, hearing and speech test and test of adaptability to cochlear implants. After using cochlear implants, Bao also could go to the CREC to receive free service of hearing speech training on week days. Over years all family members tried our best and didn't miss any opportunity for the good of Bao. In the daytime of every weekdays his parent go to work while I and his grandpa take him to go to the park or go to the CREC to receive hearing and speech training. At night his parents help him exercise what he had learnt at the center and we couple could have a sound rest. This process was not easy but fruitful. Before Bao attended regular preschool he was assessed by the professionals in the CREC as a top hearing-impaired child with high intelligence, second grade of speech ability, a degree which was understood as with capability of communicating with people around them basically. Speaking of Bao's near typical level of development, we really wanted to express thanks to those who gave us help. They were the CREC and their teachers in the CREC, those parents with similar experiences to us, our neighbours and relatives, Mr. Wang Yongqing who donated the cochlear implants, and all the families members who stood together to turn the tragedy into comedy. We all hoped that Bao would be contributing member to redound upon society."

Other six participants expressed the similar experience of difficulty in parenting and at last adapting to the challenges positively. Wang's grandma-in-law accepted Wang's handicaps as her family's destiny. "His coming to the world was asking us to pay the debt we owed in previous existence. Now all the families were working together to earn more money for clearing debt due to cochlear implants and preparing for his future." Hang's grandma accompanied by Hang had been walking in the long distance between the CREC and their home day

after day while Hang's parents were busy with earning more money for his future life. Shuai's aunt repeated again and again that Shuai's parents should devoted more time to take care of their son by themselves. However, Shuai's parents were occupied with their business with belief that enough money could guarantee Shuai's security in the future life. Mnan's mother did not worry about family economy because of higher income from her husband and she was planning the operation of cochlear implants for her son with optimistic expectation that cochlear implants would help Mnan greatly. Lulu's mother from the countryside were educating herself Chinese sign language by reading book *Chinese Sign Language* to overcome the communication barrier between her and her son. Similarly, Luhua's mother, also from the countryside, felt gratified with her daughter who had learned sign language in a special school and could communicate with her fluently using language and writing. All these families went through the hoops and were functioning well. Despite they all worried about their children's future, they all believed that their children should have their own future.

Connecting the Walsh's (2003) conceptual framework of family residence to the experiences of participant families, the strategies which these families used to cope with life challenges were categorized into categories of accepting what can not be changed, cooperative parenting, making using of social resources, taking concrete steps towards goals.

Accepting what can not be changed. All but one caregiver expressed complete acceptance of children's hearing loss. Seven families explained the reason for their acceptance. Bao's grandma stated, "Although his profound hearing loss let us in hot water in the early days, eventually his loveliness and striking progress after using cochlear implants let us out of it. Now I did not think it was very bad thing." From another prospective, Hang's grandma explained her acceptance. She stated, "Now that it was our fate, we just accepted it." Similarly, Lulu's mother felt children's handicap was his destiny. Mnan's mother and Luhua's mother shared the same idea, as they stated, "It is the irreversible reality, you cannot change it." Only Wang' grandma reported the partial acceptance of her grandson's handicaps, as she described, "Sometimes when I felt tired, I could not accept it. But I knew accepting reality was helpful for all of us."

Cooperative parenting. The category of cooperative parenting discussed here meant two or more caregivers taking part in fostering children. In terms of the shared experience from participant families it greatly reduced the increased time demand and physical fatigue resulted from an additional burden of caring

of handicapped children. In this study, five of seven hearing-impaired children were co-fostered by parents and caregivers from their extended families. Only Lulu and Luhua, from the Luxian Countryside, were mainly brought up by their mothers while their father, the main breadwinner of families went to cities as a migrant worker to earn money.

Mobilizing social networks. When asked what supports from social networks families had got to help them cope with the children's hearing impairment, except for Bao's family and Hang's families, other five families expressed that they did not get adequate support from social networks which were understood by participants as public welfare agencies. In fact, all seven families utilized more or less supports from inside and outside of families demonstrated in their conversations. Analyzing their experience, families had got economic, emotional, and parenting support from extended family, relatives, other parents with similar experiences, rehabilitation center (CREC), special schools, regular preschools. Table 4 detailed the main sources of support which families had got.

Table 4 The main social resources which give families support

Social resources	Bao's family	Hang's family	Shuai's family	Mnan's family	Wang's family	Lulu's family	Luhua's family
Extended family	●	●	●	●	●	●	
Relatives	●	●		●			
Other parents	●	●	●	●	●		
Rehabilitation center	●	●	●	●	●		
Special school						●	●
Regular preschool	●						

Focusing on the goal and taking concrete steps. All seven families held the hope that their children would not have a not very bad future and could survive, be independent on others in adulthood. In order to reach their hopes, all the families took their own steps. The common point across families was earning more money for children's future. Other concrete steps included buying or renting hearing aids, implanting cochlear implants, implementing family training, participating in hearing and speech training, learning sign language etc. Table 5 listed the concrete steps families taken toward children's future.

Table 5 Families' steps taken towards children's future

Steps towards future	Bao's family	Hang's family	Shuai's family	Mnan's family	Wang's family	Lulu's family	Luhua's family
Using hearing aids	●	●	●	●			
Using cochlear implants	●	●			●		
Family training	●						
Hearing and speech training	●	●	●	●	●		
Learning sign language						●	●
Earning more money	●	●	●	●	●	●	●

Limitations of research

Reflecting the research process of this study we sensed that each research conducted was compromise between an ideal plan and the reality. The most apparent limitation of this research was the small number of participants due to constraints of time, energy, availability of subjects. Despite lack of clear regulations on the number of participants in qualitative research, "it was safe to state that the researchers should continue to collect and analyze data until theoretical saturation takes place." (Corbin & Strauss, 2008, p. 324). It was clear that seven families were far from the status of theoretical saturation. However, through the limited participant families, some voices from hearing-impaired families had been heard. Considering the heterogeneity and large number of hearing-impaired population in China and the disparity in development between urban and rural locations and among regions, it is desired that more families from culturally and linguistically diverse backgrounds with children of different age, different severity of hearing loss and in different educational placement will be involved in future researches and more varied voice will be heard.

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SECURITY EDUCATION IN THE PERIOD
OF THE FIRST CZECHOSLOVAK REPUBLIC

Janusz Mika

Abstract

The article discusses the security education issue concerning in the First Czechoslovak Republic period. The main focus is on security education of adults in the period between 1918-1938. It demonstrates the rich Czechoslovak tradition and its usage for securitology and education for security in the present and future.

Key words

Security, education, security education, adult education, securitology.

Bezpečnostní vzdělávání v období 1. republiky Československé

Abstrakt

Článek pojednává o problematice bezpečnostního vzdělávání v období 1. Republiky Československé. Na základě analýzy bezpečnostního vzdělávání v období let 1918–1938, především dospělé populace, poukazuje na bohaté československé tradice a možnost jejich využití v oblasti securitologie a bezpečnostního vzdělávání v současnosti a budoucnosti.

Klíčová slova

Bezpečnost, vzdělávání, bezpečnostní vzdělávání, andragogika, securitologie.

„NOTES: Safety of people and possessions in endangered by 1. people commiting crime, 2. other bad deeds, 3. natural disasters, 4. sudden misfortune, 5. sudden death, 6. not meeting certain laws.

As long as bad people exist there will be wrong-doing, oppression, violence. There is only one mean to turn the bad one into the good one. This could not be done by partial hatred but only by love. (Nový lid 1921, 251)".[1]

1 Introduction

From the beginning of his existence the humankind tried to avoid the risks and to live safely. The essential need of security was based on the contest of power seizing in various spheres of political, economical and military activities. The turn of 20/21st centuries brought important changes to the development of foreign relations, security system and education. The transformation of the whole security character, omitting so called "hard security", demanded mainly the security literacy of the people. Security literacy can be ensured by understanding of the important difficulties of the security phenomenon.

This article aims to analyse the chosen aspects of security education during the First Czechoslovak Republic, i.e. 1919–1938 period. The analysis concerns the reality of security in the mentioned time horizon and geographical space. The author of this article does not want to provide with a complete description of the security education during the period of the First Czechoslovak Republic, but he wants to point out some of the significant issues. The article was processed by the means of empirical and theoretical methods, especially document analysis, synthesis, induction and deduction, and historical comparative methods. The author supposes the other research methods (i.e. oral method) used for further detailed analysis to be very enriching the research results. The topic should point out the rich tradition of security education in Czechoslovakia and it can specify the way of history facts and their application using within the scientific disciplines as there are andragogy and securitology.[2] The author realizes the fact he used a lot of contemporary science terms as andragogy, securitology, security education, which describe the issues in the accordance to the contemporary terminological apparatus.

2 Security and Security Education

History of humans was accompanied by many negative events of various character. There were natural disasters, catastrophes, organised violence. New territories settlement and society industrialization caused that forms of the risk

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[1] Cit. NOVOTNÝ, O. J. (1924), díl III. (stupeň horní), část 3., p. 381.
[2] KORZENIOWSKI, L. F. (2008), pp. 5–274.

and its variety increased. The number and rate of the secondary risks[3] were more often than the primary risks[4]. The phenomenon of security was about to be explored and consequently many of scientific approaches originated. Mostly, the security issue explored was limited to the war and peace category, and violence. The conception of security often came out from the philosophical understanding of the war and peace relationship[5], polemology and irenology.

Concerning the security education analysis during the First Czechoslovak Republic, it is necessary to point the specific aspects of the social phenomenon of security[6]. Security science has been structured and formed from the new point of view of the security during several recent years. The new terms describing security theory has been launched, e.g. securitology.[7] Even though the most precise terminology would be abstracted, it is possible to state the security phenomenon used to be and it is very probable to be related to the social life, relationships and activities. The same bond existed during the First Czechoslovak Republic period. We can mention also a very remarkable anthropological phenomenon. None of living creatures is able to jeopardize itself as the human being throughout all the activities – social relationships, natural resources or using of technical means. Historically, wars became the most dangerous phenomenon. In the period 1918–1938, "the new independent state, whose exotic name Czechoslovak Republic[8] was not very familiar to Europeans" was founded on the residuals of the Austro-Hungarian Monarchy. The state that had a lot of its own problems was facing the real threat of the next world war in the coming years, provides a very interesting occasion for an analysis of the complicated security education matter. Official authorities have started to support adult education legislatively and financially, which has caused new educational institutions for adults foundation, e.g. citizen schools, high citizen schools devoted to general education and requalification of the unemployed. It was important that the new political organization of the state, and troubles emerging from it, led the state officials to support the new generating system of citizen education. One of the first legislative acts of the new republic there was Act no. 67 on the citizen courses organization issued on 7th February 1919. The free courses of citizen education were held under the rule of this law. The

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[3] Rising as a result of activities of man.
[4] Natural disasters, catastrophes, etc.
[5] HOFREITER, L (2009), p. 13.
[6] ŠKVRNDA, F. (2009), pp. 85–91.
[7] KORZENIOWSKI, L. F. (2008), pp. 5–274.
[8] Cit. JOHN, M. (1994), p. 9.

courses intended to spread the basic knowledge of the government of the state, historical development, the meaning of democracy and the security of citizens of the republic, as well. The concept of Act no. 67 was broader[9] and it should include all the citizen-educational reality. But the actual political, financial and time matters had narrowed its validation to only citizen education. The following political and economical situation has enabled courses broadening to other fields – science – security of the science as well, philosophy – philosophy of security also, history – history of security, etc.

3 Philosophical-methodological View of the Security Education

The army used to have the central position in the security education. The education concentrated on army leaders and modulation of their personalities. T. G. Masaryk set the leaders to form the army morality[10]: "The life force emerging from the intelligence, the initiative, and especially from the loyalty that must get through right to the flesh and blood of the army. This life force came from, and it is kept on, reasonable and ethical activities of the officers corps...".[11] Education, seminars in various fields, was the condition of the command to achieve a level. T. G. Masaryk focused the fact the commander in democracy must satisfy high professional needs, which used to be established by the best old armies. Masaryk declared he himself was not an officer[12], but he openly approached military and professional problems. The first president appreciated professionals which he called the educated. In his opinion the military art and professional army control were not easy to learn. These abilities were formed and passed on by generations. These are inherited war experience and systematic intellectual work, together with values cummulated by significant individuals and groups and transferred by their daily service. Masaryk had already emphasized the importance of the qualifications during his stay in Russia.[13] And also during the period of the First Czechoslovak Republic he demonstrated his advanced reality understanding by founding of the intellectual professional base – Military Institute of Science.[14] The institute[15] began to issue the magazine Military Insights and its supplement Exercising Units as one of the most important activities, it

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[9] ŠERÁK, M. (2009), p. 85.
[10] FIALA, B. (2001), pp. 45–48. Description individual types of morale.
[11] cit. GAVET, A. (1922), p. 106.
[12] MASARYK, T. G. (1925), p. 401.
[13] In context of reality, when cs. military corps had came to fight with Prussian soldiers.
[14] MIKA, J. (2006), pp. 67–74.
[15] Vojenský historický archiv v Praze, fond VÚV, kartón 1–8.

also issued a lot of books, translations and dictionaries. Important were also other activities as the lectures programme and making the institute library available to professional public. Military Institute of Science contributed to public interest of scientific work in the army by organising of several competitions, it supported the military training of citizens and organizations and organised preparative courses for commanders. The institute founded The Military Museum as one of its famous contributions. According to the president's thoughts the significant competences were given to the French Mission, especially in the educational part. The president followed the "old" French Army doctrine, which expanded[16] after the winning war and were giving warranty of creating the staff base for professional work and education. The president's attitudes were reflected in his words quoted in the magazine which was very helpful in security education field – Military Insights. "The modern army must be armed also with education for its strategy and tactics. The education here does not mean the dead knowledge, but the ability to develop the most effective means and ways of defend by the means of science."[17] He supposed high level of education of the officers occupying very responsible posts, however he demanded high education generally.[18] T. G. Masaryk did not want to admit such a situation when education makes the gap between the army and civil population.[19] He admired French officers that were highly educated, and so he recommended the Czech army officers to get comprehensive primary education.[20] The president found improving the comprehensive education essential for increasing of the professional level of the army. He thought every adept of military art must be generally smart and be able to think well.[21] On his own experience from the world war when he met officers that were not suitable to existing war circumstances, he concluded the army needed the best educated people. This ensured possible flexibility of strategy and strategy estimations. He attributed the important role in the security education to general intelligence development.

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[16] Upon acceptance of the Munich contract, French military cooperation was virtually nonexistent. Distaste and general attitude towards France deepened within the ranks of the military. More closely NENIČKA, L. (2007), pp. 281–282.

[17] Cit. MASARYK, T. G. (1933), 2nd volume, p. 402.

[18] Cit. MASARYK, T. G. (1933), 1st volume, p. 105., 2nd volume, p. 478.

[19] MASARYK, T. G. (1933), 1st volume, p. 117.

[20] Through high school.

[21] MASARYK, T. G. (1933), 2nd volume, pp. 402–403.

So called political education made very important part of adult education in the eriod of the First Czechoslovak Republic, and it was also significant part of the education in the Czechoslovak Army. T. G. Masaryk understood political education of the officers as the obligatory premise for successful fulfilment of the commander role. According to the president the commanders might have their political feelings, insight and experience, but they should not bring politics to the army.[22] When analyzing the security education entirely it is needed to say the political education attributed significantly not only to soldiers education but to the education of all inhabitants of the new state. The former Austria-Hungarian Monarchy was not interested in Czech national enlightenment and it used to behave restrictively to Czechoslovak educational tendencies.[23] The new founded state had to defend its own existence, to find its own identity and solve a lot of problems. To support the adult education was one of the possibilities, and the political education of commanders and their subordinates also played an important role. "A politically educated commander is able to lead his subordinate and to give him an advice, and to be his leader."[24] The need of political education was sustained by the fact it could be partly contained in the commanders resolution and it could also make the commanders' and politicians' cooperation possible. Political education made an important part of universal education from this point of view. "A politically educated commander does not feel isolated in the democracy state, but he understands democracy features and forces."[25] The first president paid an important attention to the security education forms and methods, he wanted to know which of the civil sciences were studied in the army. He wanted officers to be able to watch and solve the real life problems. He understood the political education as a way how to give army higher sense of the state and the necessity of military forces in the state life. He focused on that "the democratic army would be an army of thinking soldiers."[26]

4 Conclusion

The brief analysis of the security education during the First Czechoslovak republic period was the aim of this article. Author wanted to point out especially the key questions – issues, that could form certain inspiration for experts studying the described theme nowadays. The author was not allowed to provide

[22] MASARYK, T. G. (1933), 1st volume, pp. 112–113.
[23] BENEŠ, M. (2008), p. 25
[24] Cit. MASARYK, T. G. (1933), 1st volume, pp. 99, 105–106, 2nd volume, p. 478.
[25] Cit. MASARYK, T. G. (1933), 1st volume, p. 99.
[26] Cit. MASARYK, T. G. (1933), 1st volume, p. 115.

detailed analysis of the matter because of the given size of the article, that is why he concentrated on the specific philosophical-methodological aspects of the adult security education, not on its organisation and material-technical background. On the basis of the found knowledge it is possible to state that the security education was given extraordinary attention during the First Czechoslovak Republic period. The whole spectrum of various subject, namely the state, the state apparatus, the army, the schools and the special-interest organisations used to pay their attention to the security education. The author expects this brief analysis can initiate the discussion about the role and importance of the security education of adults.

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Archival Source:
Vojenský historický archiv v Praze, fond VÚV, kartón 1–8

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BIBLICAL AND NON-BIBLICAL TIME PARADIGMS IN EDUCATION AND ITS MULTICULTURAL ENVIRONMENT

Cezary Andrzej Mizia

Resumé

This article describes historical-anthropological change in the education system based on territory of today's Czech Republic. It clarifies understanding of human existence and its final purpose by examining the influential strength of time paradigms. Ancient and biblical time paradigms explain the historical changes in the meaning of education. Understanding the effluence of the different ways in perceiving time paradigms helps to prevent many social conflicts and increases the effect of education in a multicultural environment.

Key words

Time paradigm, education, biblical time, ancient time, multicultural proceeding.

Biblická a nebiblická paradigmata času v edukaci v multikulturním prostředí

Abstract

Příspěvek chce zachytit historicko-antropologickou změnu ve vnímání času v edukační praxi na území dnešní České republiky. Článek se zabývá také vlivem časových paradigmat na vnímaní lidské existence a její smysluplnosti. Časová paradigmata antického a biblického charakteru ovlivňovaly v dějinách postoje k vyučovaní. Antické termíny *Chronos* a *Kairos* spolu s lineárním a cyklickým konceptem času vysvětlují možné varianty vnímaní času ve školství. Monochromní a polychromní pojetí času specifikuje jednotlivé kultury a věkové skupiny. Pochopení rozdílů v chápání časových paradigmat napomáhá v zamezení konfliktů a zefektivnění edukace v multikulturním prostředí.

Klíčová slova

Paradigma času, edukace, čas biblický, čas antický, multikulturní přistup.

1 Introduction

Ancient and biblical traditions help in understanding not only our past but also today. Education is an element of culture and as such, subsequently flexible, similar to the changeable elements of human life. Under the influence of historical events, transformations occur in political-economic systems, socio-cultural and our psychological understanding of the world. Notable is the concept of time and how its understanding creates new paradigms influencing teachers, students, as well as the comprehension of education. More and more noticeable is time paradigms impacting education in multicultural environment in the Czech Republic.

2 Chronos and Kairos

Like most modern languages, Czech has only one term for time. The ancient Greeks distinguished between times and used two different words: kairos and chronos, whereas Czech translation of both is consisted in one word.

It is noteworthy that each of those different words describe specific function of time. Chronos is time on the move, which means time as before and after, time as the future passing through the present. This means that the present become the past even at the moment we are thinking or speaking about the present.

In Czech language, the closest word derived from "chronos" is the word "kronika" (originally "chronika"), or the word "chronologie", which means a chronicle of events in their order of occurrence in time. The Greek chronos could be measured by the distance that exists between the events and their subsequent time. By the Greek, chronos was uncontrollable, savage and destructive. The Greek god, Chronos devoured his own offspring.[1] Greeks have expressed this belief in the inexorable fulfillment of destiny, which man can not change. As with the mythological Oedipus, who killed his father and married his mother and could not do anything to escape fulfillment of prophecy.

Kairos, to distinguish from the previous, was presented as a god in the form of a young man with wings on his feet and sometimes with a razor in his hand. This symbolism expressed the transience of a moment, which is given to man. Kairos can be understood as the time or opportunity to seize in the event.[2] Human life can be described as man's kairos placed in eternal chronos. Chronos is a measurable quantum; Kairos is a qualitative and significant form of time. It

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[1] BURN, L. *Greek Myths*. (2002) pp. 11–13.
[2] STAFFORD, E, HERRIN, J. *Personification...* (2005) pp. 123–135.

is an opportunity which has its importance, and in this, lays its essence. In the Christian concept, time is not empty but is filled with meaning (see: Galatians 4:4). Salvation in Christ realizes in time, and through the participation of believers in the Christian mysteries. Education is part of this concept of the divine plan of salvation, in which everything is focused and complete in Christ. Kairos can also express the temporal sequences in education such as classes, semesters and teaching hours. In the concept of Kairos, education is understood as positive. It is an opportunity to produce and experience the value and a chance to gain wisdom that students will need in their lives.

Up to the Age of Enlightenment, education was oriented on searching for Wisdom, the absolute Truth, which was God. In the territory of the Czech Republic this concept had been present almost since the arrival of the Byzantine missionaries – Saints Cyril and Methodius.[3] Czech schools were founded on the Christian foundations but during the Austro-Hungarian Empire this paradigm changed. The schooling started to be devoted to prepare man for service in the hierarchical structures of the state. During this absolutist state, the time was to appoint social roles and responsibilities, which supposedly led to the grandeur of the monarchy. The modern model of education was an important factor of strengthening the state. And so, a teacher became a civil servant and students were formed (educated), in order to fulfill the role of their state best. This school concept was associated with the development of Enlightenment philosophy and was accompanied by its scientific discoveries in fields such as astronomy, physics and others. In classical Newtonian physics, time is independent from the other dimensions and runs simultaneously throughout the universe. Mechanistic physics, together with notions of time, became part of understanding the world. In this way, the Post-Enlightenment concept of time approached the ancient Chronos. At the same time, since the Roman Catholic religion was the official Austro-Hungarian ideology, Kairos remained as one of the concepts of time. Kairos even though inherited from Christian-Latin civilization was already understood more as individual and less systematic.

At the time Czechoslovakia was established, education was comprehended as a tool to strengthen national identity while still gradually becoming a priority for individual student success. The sense of individualization of education was associated with the development of liberal capitalism which meant that the individual and his interests were primary. During the First Czechoslovak Republic, the state drew from the Enlightenment era the concept of civic edu-

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[3] See: MIKA, J. Sociální a kulturní... (2009) p. 72.

cation, and although Christianity remained the dominant religion, it ceased to dominate as the fundamental ideology as it was in the previous period of the monarchy. Students and teachers had to find their own way and sense of existence. Structurally, the time paradigm associated with Christianity, as part of the institution of the state, lost its influence on one's finding place in the world.

In 1948 Marxist materialism overwhelmingly started to dominate Czechoslovakia using Hegelian dialectical analysis of history, where time acted as the contractor of historical necessity. The nature of the Marxist dialectical process presented a person's fate as irrelevant against the class struggle, which is the source of implementing the ideology. Education and the time paradigm were subjected to requisite incarnation of this idea at all levels of society. The totalitarian regime of the Marxist ideology of Czechoslovakia instrumented education, however, it gave students and teachers a clear historic-time paradigm. In a liberal and multicultural society this attractive environment continues to this day because it is not able to offer a sundry option. Paradoxically, new discoveries in physics with the theory of relativity did not have a major impact on time perception in education. Today the Newtonian concept of time in understanding of the Greek chronos dominates. Time is the fourth dimension of space-forming by the theory of relativity and its passing depends on the observer, so it differs by every observer. The modern concept of time is mostly suited to the concept of Kairos which regards merciless Chronos and stresses the subjective nature of events. From the modern physics viewpoint, describing hours spend at schools, a word "chronotopic" education curriculum should be used because it would emphasizes the subjective and spatial-semantic nature of time.

3   Cyclical and linear time paradigm

One of the oldest and also the basic time paradigms is the cyclical concept of time. It is connected with the determinism view of world history and human life. Cyclically repeated bouts of life come from the observation of natural cycles, where there is a recurrence of the seasons and phases of life and especially the reproductive cycle. To this day the cyclic conceptions of time are dominant and remain in the cultural environments under the influence of Hinduism, Buddhism and New Age. Traced from the time of ancient Greece and Rome and also in European civilization, this concept has its place. Later this dominant way of thinking was replaced by the Christian Roman Empire with the biblical concept of linear time. Cyclical time paradigm is best presented in the classic Greek drama of Odysseus. After a long battle in Troy, and innumerable

obstacles Odysseus returned to his native island of Ithaca. The fate of a man is locked in a time circle filled with a predetermined scenario. Man in this drama of gods, and humans, is determined not only to a time circle, but also to a role which he has to play. In the ontological and ethical sense, a-person-a-mask plays his role well when he compels what is in man's essence[4]. Here time presents a factor that is plastic: it can flow slowly or quickly, it is subjectively perceived as Kairos – it is a given time so a person can fulfill its role.

The other time paradigm is the linear concept of time. This concept is understood as the result of biblical revelation and is linked with human freedom and uniqueness of life. The Judeo-Christian tradition symbolizes a history of a person as on a road. The linear narrative is the consequence of unique events. During the travel on that road, a person is placed not only in front of the dramatic nature of life's facts, but also the drama of choices to make, which changes a person's fate over time[5]. The classical linear history is the way of Abraham to the Promised Land (cf. Genesis 12–22). Abraham, who could not find the meaning of life in a relatively stable environment of Uhr Chaldean, decided to set out on a risky journey into the unknown. Abraham was on the road, but did not know exactly where he was going. The road is a dialogue, during which Abraham knew that the fulfillment of the meaning of pilgrimage, during his lifetime was perhaps more important than achieving a specific objective[6].

Odysseus' story ended up with him coming back home. Abraham's story is a pilgrimage to the hometown to which he will never return. In this time paradigm, people's events are somehow similar to each other because they follow the nature of living on earth, but in fact, happen only once, uniquely, and so are important. In time, human decisions influence not only the history of individual lives but also affect the fate of others, therefore, every decision carries an enormous responsibility. The ancient gods and later God of the biblical revelation are not indifferent to the drama of people on the world stage. In the biblical sense, human time is the time of salvation. God is the master of time as well as the master of history. Since the dramatic events arise here and now, time paradigm has to answer questions that people ask today in these particular circumstances. A person's life is radically unique and individual one, and if it is desired, that life does not become a parody of the "drama", a circus; it must exceed space and time so as to be more than a string of political, economic, or social events.[7]

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[4] See: BARTNIK, CZ-S. *Personalizm*. (2000) pp. 71–72.
[5] GOLDFAJN, T. *Word order and time...* (1999) pp. 34–39.
[6] WILSON, M. R. *Our Father Abraham...* (1989) pp. 159–162.
[7] PIOTROWSKI, E. *Teodramat*. (1999) pp. 29–30.

Christian concept of time contains both, an element of the experience of Abraham which is the linear path, and the Greek concept of the cyclically recurring elements of time. The uniqueness of it is expressed in both responsibility for the acts and the cyclicality of many similar simultaneous events. This is particularly visible with the establishment of the liturgical cycle. Christian life began to take place within a time limit of Advent until the next season of Advent. The main event of this annual cycle is Easter followed by liturgical periods such as Christmas, Lent and regular time. When Christianity became the soul of the Roman Empire, in a sense, schooling began to copy the series. Education began to take place between major holidays. The time from autumn until Christmas formed the first part; second part of the school year began after Christmas and ended on the Holy Trinity and Corpus Christi holidays, followed by school break. In this way following the natural cycle of nature, the education cycle gained its spirituality.

In the concept of time the First Republic of Czechoslovakia followed the historically inherited cycle of continued schooling. However, there has been a fundamental change due to an opposition to Catholicism, understood as part of Austro-Hungarian domination. This opposition had led to a time paradigm shift in education. The previous linear-cyclical model with Abraham, exemplified in saints, has been replaced by historical-linear model, with an indication of national heroes such as Jan Hus, Jan Žižka, and Jan Amos Komenský. The salvation *telos* was replaced with the welfare of the nation and the state.[8] The transcendent purpose suddenly became immanent, time lost its biblical – linear form. What was left from the Christian liturgy cycle was the remnant of cyclically repeated civilian school year. Although the majority of the population of the First Republic of Czechoslovakia continuously recognized Christian values, but its education system had already given a clearly definable sense of life and the knowledge gained in schools served more utilitarian functions, separated from seeking the absolute Truth.

4   Cultural – psychological aspects of time

One of the important elements detailing a specific culture is its understanding of time. To some extent time paradigms determine the behavior of individuals and groups. In the Czech culture, similarly to the Western European students, they identify their existence by the "real life" time where they are free from school and responsibilities.

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[8] PUTNA, M, C. *Česká katolická literatura...* (1998) pp. 588–592.

After completing their education, students then carry this style to their workplace. The most common goal of education is graduation in a utilitarian understanding of it, not so as to gain knowledge and wisdom. Students seek to accelerate the sequences of educational time and slow down the susceptive time to "feel that they live". Time devoted to activities that make no sense is experienced as lasting a long time. The susceptive phase of time is understood as pleasant or unpleasant, going together with time devoted to required activities and those of leisure.

One well-known psychological phenomenon is that children perceive the passage of time slower than adults. Small children understand time as a course of individual sequences. Initially these sequences are just satisfactions of physiological needs. Then they take a form of pleasant and unpleasant events. The perception of time is dependent not only on the actual turnout, but also its intensity. Day, week, month and year in the schooling years are marked by events connected with schooling. The multiplicity of changes and the uniqueness of these years mean that education time elapses relatively slowly. The uniqueness is also connected with a student's promotion, and accompanying changes in mental and physical development. The quantum for children, for instance, the time in class requires concentration combined with abstract thinking; children feel it as unending. Naturally, smaller children have difficulty with focusing on one subject for a long period of time, to allow re-concentration their "hour" should be shortened, or at least arranged to short sequences.[9]

It is known that young children understand time as present and can not imagine a distant one, even in relatively near future. Waiting time always seems extraordinary long. Children as well as adults do not plan their futures. They do not wonder what they will be doing next week, month, year. Depending on the culture, adults can experience their psychological time as directed towards the future, past or present.[10] For example, the Africans live mainly in the present, which is the result of cultural and social experiences. The future is unknown, so it is uncertain, and therefore does not need to take place. In the Czech culture, adults tend to live in the future "until the children finish their school; until we have saved for it; until we have more time for it..." Getting older comes together with the internal psychological retrospective of time.

Many cultural differences can be explained by monochromatic and polychrome time recognitions. The polychrome explains that time becomes very

[9] MONTANGERO, J; CATTIN, J-P. *Understanding changes in time...* (1996) pp. 6–19.
[10] See: ONTANGERO, J; CATTIN, J-P. *Understanding changes in time...* (1996) pp. 6–19.

flexible, events could be accelerated and decelerated, and could change priorities. The basis of this perception of time is its flexibility and improvisation, but unfortunately also it is associated with unpunctuality and not keeping up terms. The monochromatic perception is characterized by precise planning of time, punctuality and reliability, but also a little flexibility. In this case, events can not be sped up or slowed down. Overall, the nations of Northern Europe and North America understand time as a physical fact, with its material value of "time is money". There, a man may lose time, win, distribute, or schedule it. Time as an element of education determines not only the stages of learning, but may be converted into concrete gains in terms of achieving graduation, license, title, etc. To the nations of southern Europe, America and Africa, time is in the service of man. In these cultures, people are less abided by time and use it more for their own good. Through education, people profit and achieve social recognition.

Education systems increasingly encounter problems with multicultural groups. People living together with different time paradigms have problems with understanding each other. They produce negative stereotypes. Cultural differences can create misunderstandings in teacher-student relations. Generally, fifteen-minute late time limit is not considered a serious offense by students from southern cultures. The nations perceiving time as a intermittently flowing factor, social gatherings can last much longer than in the Czech environment where such excessively long gatherings are considered a waste of time.

In education, time specifically understood in different cultures requires a multicultural approach. The primary task is to understand the existing culture and the communication language which generate requirements of expressing symbols and paradigms understandable to that culture. Educational systems by their nature standardize requirements for all individuals and groups, they cannot adapt easily to the minorities without detriment to the majority. One solution would be for the individuals and groups to adapt to the education systems of countries in which they live. The other option would be an education system directed towards mutual appreciation of the differences that come from different cultures' time paradigms.

5 Conclusions

Time understanding is strongly linked to cultures and cultural values and is reflected in all aspects of life. Education in the Czech Republic has undergone a long evolution, which is reflected in substantial changes in time paradigms. Today's education lacks an integral concept of meaning and of substance recog-

nizing existence as a whole, in which individual sequences of time are anchored to the linear paradigm with a clearly defined transcendent purpose. Diverse cultures experience time in different, specific ways. A multicultural environment needs to be reflected in education and possible adoption of emerging time paradigms.

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MUNICH 1938 AND CHANGES OF EDUCATION IN CZECH LANDS

Lubomír Nenička

Abstract

This paper deals with some aspects of the history of Czech education in the post-Munich era. The most attention is paid to the consequences of the Munich Treaty for Czech education. The service to the nation was presented as the key principle of quality of education during the Second Republic. A typical feature of changes in the post-Munich era was the growth of nationalism and growing influence of the Catholic Church.

Key words

Munich Treaty, second republic, education, Catholicism, nationalism.

Mnichov 1938 a proměny vzdělávání v Českých zemích

Abstrakt

Příspěvek se zabývá některými aspekty vývoje českého vzdělávání v pomnichovském období. Hlavní pozornost je věnována důsledkům přijetí Mnichovské dohody pro české školství. Jako hlavní princip kvality vzdělávání v době druhé republiky byla prezentována služba národu. Typickým rysem změn v pomnichovské éře byl nárůst nacionalismu a rostoucí vliv katolické církve.

Klíčová slova

Mnichovská dohoda, druhá republika, vzdělávání, katolicismus, nacionalismus.

Introduction

The Acceptation of the Munich Treaty belongs to the most tragic moments in the whole Czech nation's history. The sacrifice, the Czechoslovakia was forced to make, questioned its principles of being and foreign political tendencies. Under the impression of the "Munich Trauma" the new political representation

cast aside Masaryk's "humanitarian ideals" and its new politics began to be governed by a general conviction that all the thinking and doing should be submitted to the interest of the independently determined nation. These tendencies infiltrated all parts of the public life – including the education.

This paper tries to introduce the post-Munich Treaty development of the education in Czechoslovakia. It describes briefly the main practical problems and recurrences associated with the changes in national borders. Furthermore it exemplifies the main conception of the new objectives and tasks of the Czechoslovak educational system while in the same time it shows in short examples how these conceptions were being put in practice. Limited text length of this paper however only allows it to show just an ideological outline of the changes in the Czechoslovak educational system during the post-Munich Treaty period and possibly determines the orientation of further research works.

Munich Treaty Aftermath and the Czechoslovak educational system

The results of the Munich treaty afflicted the Czechoslovak educational system as strongly as they afflicted the other parts of public life. The operation of particular types of schools had already been afflicted distinctively by the dramatic events that took place in the second half of September 1938. The opening of the new school year was made impossible by the general mobilization. Lots of school buildings were temporarily seized for military purposes. In the concrete the basic schools were evicted and given over to the army. The teachers were called up or joined the civil authorities to help.[1] Also the college students were called up in the time of the general mobilization and student's houses and campuses were used for military purposes. It was why the Ministry of Education and National Edification decided to cast aside enrolment for the winter half and dates of all examinations.[2] When the extraordinary circumstances were overcome the schooling was started again.

Even after that the Czechoslovak educational system had to face lots of practical problems associated with territorial changes. Among the refugees and evacuees from occupied areas were lots of students and pupils from different types of schools. Just the number of secondary school students increased with 15 %.[3] Lots of schools in the occupied areas were closed down and employees

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[1] Státní okresní archiv Frýdek-Místek (SOkA), f. Obecná škola dívčí ve Frýdku, Školní kronika, inv. n. 1.

[2] MATES, P. K situaci na vysokých školách.. (1989), p. 101.

[3] GEBHART, J. – KUKLÍK, J. (2004), p. 204.

had to find new places of work in the Czech interior.[4] The Teacher's boards came up with lots of proposals how to solve the hard situation of refugees, head of which were the requirements for pensioning all teachers older than 55 years with more than 35 years of service and banning the employment of married female teachers.[5]

In the end of October 1938 the parliamentary saving and control committee put a proposal to the government in which it pressed on accelerated solving of the question of married women's employment. The application of the proposal was granted by the Statutory Order nr. 379 from 21st December which among other formulated rules for dismissal of married women and otherwise secured female employees. They could either leave at their own request or be dismissed even if they had already reached for tenure. The same Statutory Order also made a decision on vacation of civil servants who superannuated under the newly introduced conditions.[6] The age limit for teachers was decreased from 70 to 65 years. In the coming year the age limit was due to decrease even lower.[7] The decision to pension before time the civil servants influenced the situation in the educational system rather in the bad way. The results were felt especially by the colleges from where the highly reputable experts were due to leave during the year 1939. Representatives of particular faculties warned openly of the problems concerned with the compulsory retirement of erudite professors. Even the press, which would under different circumstances welcome the changes, expressed certain doubts. For example according to Lidové Listy the pensioning before time of 40 college professors who had to leave until June 1939 could have a affect undesirably the standard of Czechoslovak college education.[8] The college life was to be affected even more by the forthcoming law which the government's intention to circumscribe autonomous status of colleges. However the sudden end of the second republic prevented these plans from being implemented.[9]

The enthronement of the new regime was in the first place accompanied by a discussion on the necessity of reformation of the educational system. Particularly in the case of the high school system several different lines of thought were pursued which demanded conformation of the system to the new

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[4] See for example KURAL, V.– RADVANOVSKÝ, Z. (2002) or MIKA, J. (1992).

[5] Teachers proposals see for example Zemský archiv v Opavě (ZAO), f. Policejní ředitelství v Moravské Ostravě – relace ze schůzí, kart. 1241, sign. 439.

[6] MATES, P. Projevy fašizace.. (1989), pp. 171–172.

[7] ŠIMŮNEK, M. (2002), p. 107.

[8] *Změny na vysokých školách.* Lidové listy 21. 1. 1939, p. 4.

[9] MATES, P. K situaci na vysokých školách... (1989), p. 101.

circumstances. Supporters of one of the lines of thought recommended that the system should focus on elite-oriented education of "leaders" capable of leading the "diligent crowds".[10] According to the supporters of the other line of thought the education should have had a practical effect in the first place and enable the students to assert themselves in the industry or trade. One of the most distinctive speakers for the line of thought was the entrepreneur Jan Antonín Baťa who proposed the creation of "comprehensive job-related schools" working on the principle of "industrial and trade organization". According to him the schools for children between 14 to 17 years of age should have been incorporated with particular industrial concerns and the education should result from practice just as the needs "of the nation in our situation" demanded.[11]

He elaborated this utilitarian approach in daily newspapers. This entrepreneur from Zlin for example proposed to use the newly created working units to educate the youth. Joining up these units should have been compulsory even for high school and college students who could continue their education in the camps.[12] In one of his papers Baťa also suggested to file the young unemployed teachers as well. Thanks to joining up the teachers would undergo the "school of work" and begin to be "excellent experts in life" which would also heighten their prerequisite for educating the youth.[13] The necessity of practical education was emphasized in a speech by the PM Beran during the meeting of secretaries of the Strana národní jednoty/ National Union Party (SNJ/NUP) which was the ruling party at the time. According to him the educational system should have been transformed in such a way that it would lead the youth towards choices of "practical occupations".[14] The PM spoke in the same spirit at the meeting of the National Front of Youth in Brno in the end of January 1939. He emphasized at the same time the importance of religious values and of the St. Wenceslas Tradition.[15] These words indicate in which direction the thoughts about the changes of the Czechoslovak educational system also went.

Efforts to ideological changes in the Czech education

The discussion over reform of educational system made a part of post-Munich reflection on deeper ideological changes in the education. According to

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[10] VESELÁ, Z. (1992), pp. 106–107.

[11] Ibidem p. 107.

[12] *Co máme dělat urychleně*. České slovo (ČS) 12. 10. 1938, no. 282, p. 3.

[13] *Pro lepší budoucnost našich dětí*. ČS 9. 11. 1938, no. 310, p. 2.

[14] GEBHART, J. – KUKLÍK, J. (2004), p. 45

[15] *Velký projev předsedy vlády Berana v Brně*. A–Zet 30. 1. 1939, pp. 1–2

the SNJ's blueprint papers the youth should have been educated in the national and Christian spirit. Also the curricula and text books should have been created in such a spirit.[16] The changes in education were also marked with the post-Munich show-down with the First Republic to which the first two Czechoslovak presidents were fell victims in the symbolic level or their portraits respectively. Upon the Government order the portraits of especially president Beneš should have been taken away from all classes and studies. In the Ostrava region his portraits began to disappear during the January and February 1939. It was the tendency in the government's official position towards Tomáš Garrigue Masaryk to dissociate with the unwanted heritage of the First Republic as well as the regards for Masaryk's still living authority and popularity.[17] It was why his portraits could remain in the public rooms including school classes but only if accompanied with portraits of other important personas of Czech history. The lack of respect for the first Czechoslovak presidents was accepted mostly with discountenance evidence of which can be commentaries in many left-wings and centric newspapers or records in school chronicles, for example chronicle of the basic school in Frýdek does not hide bewilderment due to the sudden impeachment of the importance of Tomáš Garrigue Masaryk. The author of the record wonders how the "founder of the state, previously worshiped was suddenly dropped ".[18] The supporters of opposite opinions at some colleges however acted openly. The hatred against Tomáš Garrigue Masaryk was expressed most clearly in the beginning of November by taking down of Masaryk's bust in the Philosophic Faculty's hall done by a student, member of the fascist Vlajka.[19]

The portraits of Czechoslovak President hanging in the class rooms began to be replaced with crosses as symbols of the post-Munich movement towards the Catholicism, which should create one of the pillars for the new Republic. Soon after Munich the Catholics began to pursue the hanging out of the crosses as a symbol of the religious renaissance which was to put the new Czechoslovakia on basis of catholic principles. The introduction of catholic symbols was a part of a widely conceived "cultural revision" which was to clean the Republic of the already unwanted heritage of the Masaryk's and Beneš's pre-Munich Czechoslovakia.

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[16] GEBHART, J. – KUKLÍK, J. (2004), p. 204.

[17] The attitude of post-Munich Government toward TGM describes FEIERABEND, L. K. (1994), p. 79.

[18] SOkA, f. Obecná chlapecká škola ve Frýdku, školní kronika, inv. n. 1.

[19] Report of police office in Prague. Národní archiv v Praze, f. Prezidium ministerstva vnitra, kart. 1299, sign. X/V/5.

The introduction of the education in thoroughly catholic spirit besides the hanging out of the crosses included also compulsory religious education as well as recourses for atheistic teachers but struck on the reticent position of the Ministry of Education and the agrarian wing inside the SNJ.[20] It was however typical for these thoughts to have remained in the general, declarative level.

The cultural purification should have struck as well the school libraries from where various improper documents and text books should have been discarded. It was however left for the teachers to decide on the relevant changes in the schooling. In the end of November after being questioned over the case The Ministry of Education stood reticent. It admitted that the new conditions may have some influence on curriculum and would therefore ask for due modifications in text books but on the other hand refused wholesale and hasty change of textbooks particularly because the new conditions have not "settled down". The teachers themselves should in due way clarify all possible discrepancies.[21] The forthcoming education reform, introduced by the Minister of Education and National Edification Jan Kapras in the beginning of the year 1939 was to decide about the changes in schooling. It was a part of the reform to establish a text book provisioning committee. The substance should have been first of all national and catholic but should in the same time conform to the "needs of practical life".[22]

Within the context of the request for revision of the text books some diatribes appeared in the catholic press against progressive teachers whose positions did not conform to the changed conditions. For example the head representative of the People's Party Bohumil Stašek believed that the previously invoked humanity without proper national substance could not form the basis of education. Only the St. Wenceslas ideal could have formed such a new basis.[23] The efforts to strengthen the catholic substance of education were accompanied by a raise of nationalism and anti-Semitic tendencies began to enforce themselves. In the beginning of the year 1939 the Ministry of Education and National Edification issued an order upon which the public high

[20] RATAJ, J. (1997), pp. 136–137.

[21] Order of Provincial School Board from November 30th. 1938. Moravský zemský archiv v Brně (MZAB), f. Zemská školní rada, kart. 173.

[22] *Reformy národní výchovy*. Lidové listy 31. 1. 1939, pp. 1–2.

[23] Bohumil Stašek: *List k českým učitelům*. Lidové listy 19. 1. 1939, p. 1. During the Nazi occupation, religious instruction was banned. In detail see for example MIZIA, C. A. (2007), p. 40.

schools and teachers colleges had to present a list of all Jewish employees, i.e. of all whose parents claimed themselves to the Jewish religion or nationality.[24]

Such measures have brought the Czechoslovak educational system dangerously close to the racial tendencies at the time openly enforced in the remaining German schools in the post-Munich Czechoslovakia. These tendencies however penetrated the Czech environment more likely under foreign pressure and had in fact no influence on operation of schools.

Epilogue

The post-Munich Treaty development of Czechoslovak educational system was originally affected by practical problems of preparation for war and later by results of territorial changes. As early as in the time of the general mobilization lots of schools were emptied and given over to the army. Vis-a-vis the flow of students and teachers from border areas some non-standard solutions had to be adopted such as concentration of several schools into one building, introduction of alternate schooling or partition of school classes. The educational system was directly affected by the Statutory Order over early retirement of public servants.

The necessity to re-educate the young in spirit of Christian and national doctrine proclaimed by the representatives of SNJ headed by integral Catholics should have expressed itself in the fundamental changes of education, while in the same time even the Czech environment began to be inspired by foreign utilitarian tendencies of totalitarian educational systems, that had to educate the young towards the practical service to the national complex. The short time given to the Second Republic however did not allow these tendencies to develop. The education was in fact changing under the influence of ideological re-evaluation of the educational system; local conditions however did not much come along the actual laying of the new foundations. To restore the schooling and develop it under the conditions of general gloominess was a goal hard enough to achieve with which the request for re-education could not compete. Even though some tendencies, especially in the higher grades of schools began to push themselves thus outlining the development of the education in Czechoslovakia during the reign of totalitarian regimes.

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[24] Instruction of the Ministry of Education from February 13th. 1939. MZAB, f. Zemská školní rada, kart. 174.

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THE THINKING ABOUT THE CHARACTERISTICS, CAUSES AND COUNTERMEASURES OF ADOLESCENT INTERNET ADDICTION IN CHINA

Yan Peng[1]

Abstraction

As a new clinic 'disease' or 'disorder', internet addiction has caught attention by more and more researchers. China is a special developing country with the biggest population in the world. This paper focuses on discussing the characteristics and causes of adolescent internet addiction of China. Finally, this paper outlines the predicaments and countermeasures of the treatment of adolescent internet addiction in China.

Keywords

Internet addiction, adolescent, characteristic, cause, predicament, countermeasure, China.

Znaky a příčiny závislosti čínských adolescentů na internetu, možnosti nápravy

Resumé

Závislost na internetu je nová nemoc či porucha, která v současnosti přitahuje zájem stále více odborníků. Čína je země se speciálně rychlým rozvojem a s největší populací na světě. Příspěvek se zaměřuje na diskusi o znacích a příčinách vzniku této závislosti u adolescentů v Číně. Také se zabývá možnostmi nápravy, případně léčby.

Klíčová slova

Závislost na internetu, adolescent, znak, příčina, léčba, náprava, Čína.

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Internet addiction and its impairments

Background of the emergence of internet addiction

The concept of internet addiction was put forward firstly by I. Goldberg in 1990 (Young, 1998), and then it was developed by Dr. Kimberly Young. Internet addiction is a new kind of addictive action along with the development of modern information technology. It had appeared in many countries and is becoming more serious (Young, 1998; Kim K, 2006; Xia, 2003). Internet addiction appeared in China relatively later comparing with other developed countries, but it has developed very fast and brought much developmental impairment not only to the teenagers but also to the whole society.

With increasing of amount of clinical cases, researchers have paid more and more attention to internet addiction. There are several different appellations for the phenomenon of internet addiction, such as internet addiction (IA), pathological internet use (PIU), internet addiction disorder (IAD) and problematic internet use (PIU) and so on. All of them include the approximate basic content refers to excess in using internet, which affects individual daily living, learning and work, and at the same time, damaging the individual's physical and psychological health. It is appearing to be a growing social concern. More and more researchers have interests to do some research in this area.

What is Internet Addiction?

Internet addiction is a new pathological phenomenon comparing with other substance addiction, such as alcohol addiction, drugs abuse etc. There are still some debates about if problematic internet use should be called addictive, but internet addicts have much similar behavior as other substance addictions, especially the similar psychological dependency. Because of no interference of substances, it is an effective way that we can explore more psychiatric behavioral rules in the context of impact of a plenty of information. And it is still a special perspective to discover how addictive psychological dependency comes into being. There are some special symptoms include a preoccupation with the internet, increased anxiety when off-line, hiding or lying about the extent of on-line use, and impairment to real-life functioning (Young, 2000). And there are five general subtypes, include addiction to cybersex, cyber-relationships, online stock trading or gambling, information surfing, and computer games (Young, 2000). There is such a definition following:

Internet addiction is defined as any online-related, compulsive behavior which interferes with normal living and causes severe stress on family, friends, loved ones, and one's work environment. Internet addiction has been called internet dependency and internet compulsivity. By any name, it is a compulsive behavior that completely dominates the addict's life. Internet addicts make the internet a priority more important than family, friends, and work. The internet becomes the organizing principle of addicts' lives. They are willing to sacrifice what they cherish most in order to preserve and continue their unhealthy behavior[2].

The impairments of internet addiction for juvenile

As a group, adolescents are heavy users of internet. The following will discuss major negative consequences of addictive internet use.

Individual problems

(a) The decline of academic achievement and physical constitution. Once the adolescent becomes addictive in internet, they will spend most of time in front of a computer and neglect school study. Most teen-age addicts' academic achievement will drop down quickly and cause other academic problems, such as playing truant, lying, cheating. Because of lacking sleeping, regular eating, for the adolescents who are in the key period of physiological development, they will become weaker and weaker. All these will influence their academic achievement again and it will form a vicious circle.

(b) The confusion between realistic roles and virtual roles. When the adolescents overly addict themselves to the virtual roles of internet, they are easy to miss realistic selves. They will meet role conflicts when they use internet rules to deal with realistic relationships. Usually, when teenagers meet frustration in interactive relationships, they want to look for consoles through virtual internet friends for negatively escaping reality. That will enhance the roles conflicts and alienation of interactive relationships in real life. It does not benefit for the development of adolescent personality and social development. The data from '*The report of Chinese adolescents' internet addiction in 2007*' discovered there were relative differences between adolescent internet addicts and adolescent non-internet addicts. Adolescent internet addicts had more interactive relationship problems than non-internet addicts. Such as, the relationship problem

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[2] What is internet addiction. Accessed time: Nov. 13, 2008 via: http://www.netaddiction.com/faq.htm.

between teacher and student, between parents and child, among peers, was 22.32 %, 21.59 %, 21.35 % respectively (CYAND, 2008).

(c) The decline of moral sense. Because of its anonymity, convenience and escape (Young, 2000), internet provides more free space to adolescents. In the virtual internet space, they are not supervised by adults, such as teachers and parents. They can talk freely and do not need face to face. Because of lacking enough self-control, the adolescents are easy to indulge themselves in internet games, pornography webs and chatting rooms. In one investigation of 3000 adolescents, 46.7 % of them admitted they browsed pornography websites (Wei, 2003). In addition, internet addicts are more apt to transgress in internet use, such as stealing other people's e-mails or private information, transferring internet virus. According to one investigation of internet adolescent users, 37.4 % adolescents thought it was normal to speak graceless words, 24.9 % adolescents thought people can do anything that need not care about others in internet (Research group of Chinese scientific institute, 2000). All these will cause adolescents' decline of moral sense and cause more juvenile delinquency. Then it produces more familiar and social problems.

Familiar problems

Once the adolescent becomes addictive in internet use, there are inevitable conflicts among family members.

(a) The conflicts between parents and child. For the sake of internet use, adolescent need abundant time and money, they will cheat on their parents and get more money from parents, even stealing money from family. When parents find their child is addictive in internet use, they will be very angry, sad, disappointed and worried. They will complain their child and try all kinds of ways to prevent the child from using internet again. Most parents will use the compulsive approach to deal with their child's internet addiction. But the intervention of internet addiction is not a simple process. It is a complicated process and needs parents' continuing patience, effort and cooperation and exterior support system. Adolescence is in the treasonous stage. In the treatment stage or relapsing stage, the child will try all kinds of ways to rebel for internet use. That will cause abundant conflicts between parents and the child.

(b) The conflicts between parents. Some parents will complain to each other when they find their child's internet addiction. Because the successful intervention of internet addiction is a long and complicated process, then for most of parents, how to recover the child's internet addiction will puzzle them

and make them feel tired. Some marital discords will be produced. And in other words, parents' marital discord is one important potential factor that causes their child's internet addiction.

Chinese adolescents' status quo and characteristics of internet addiction

Compared with other countries, Chinese adolescents' internet addiction has following outstanding characteristics:

The age of the main body of internet users and internet addicts respectively younger than other countries

Until December, 31, 2007, the Chinese adolescent internet users under 25 years reached 0.107 billion, which was more than half of Chinese internet users (50.9 %), the adolescent internet users were the biggest age group (CNNIC, 2008). And according to 'The report of Chinese adolescents' internet addiction in 2007', the percent of adolescent internet addicts was 9.72 % in the adolescent internet user population; it was a very high proportion.

Comparing to other countries, especially developed countries, Chinese main body of internet users centralized the age period from 15 to 25, but other countries focus on 20 to 30 years old. And we have a big internet addictive proportion from 15–20 years old. At the same time, there are still more than 30 % adolescent internet users in the adolescent internet user population have the tendency of internet addiction, they are a high-risk crowd. So, the research of problems of Chinese adolescent internet addiction is serious and necessary.

The aims of internet application focus on cyber-chat and cyber-games

Usually, there are five general subtypes, including addiction to cybersex, cyber-relationships, online stock trading or gambling, information surfing, and computer games (Young, 2000). The problems of pathological internet use in China focus on cyber-chat or making friends and cyber-games. The addictive adolescents' aim of cyber-chatting or making friends was near 50 %; and the aim of cyber-games was more than 40 % (CYAND, 2008).

Adolescent internet users are the main force of cyber-games and the students at middle schools and primary schools are the loyal users of cyber-games. At present, the population of middle school and primary school students who play games on line have reached 36.82 million, which is 17 % of whole population of students at middle school and primary school, 73.1 % of the whole population of internet users at middle school and primary school. (CNNIC, 2008)

The place of internet use focus on family and internet café

Usually, Chinese adolescents would like to choose their family or an internet café to use internet. Relatively, as the alternative place of internet use, school is not the favorite place to be chosen by adolescents. Approximately 60 % of adolescents will use internet in the family. And as an important complement, there are 47.8 % of adolescents who choose internet café to use internet (CNNIC, 2008). Whatever comparing with developed countries or developing countries, it is seldom to see such flourishing industry of internet café in other countries.

Severe cases of adolescent internet addiction are increasing

There are more and more severe cases of adolescent internet addiction reported in news or happening in our real life. These increasing severe cases include sudden death caused by long time internet use, theft or robbing because of lacking of money to logon, bleeding conflicts with other people for online-games, and so on.

It is reported that an online funeral was organized for a girl who died after spending consecutive days playing the Black Dragon Prince game and a man was sentenced to life for stabbing a 23-year-old gamer to death in a dispute over a cyber sword in the same game. One Beijing judge, Shan Xiuyun, declared that 90 per cent of juvenile crime in the city was internet-related[3].

These severe cases cause serious consequences and bad influences to related individual adolescents, family and society. And these phenomena are concerned by more and more scholars.

Analysis of main reasons of characteristics
of Chinese adolescent internet addiction

Adolescence is a transitional stage from childhood to adulthood. After the development of this period, an individual will be more mature through physical growth and the development of psychology and sociality. At the same time, adolescence is a special and complicated developmental stage which is full of contradictions and conflicts; we can call it the phase of crisis. There are some main characteristics in this phase, such as imbalance development between psychology and corporeity, contradictions between the feeling of adult and the status quo of half or incomplete mature, the special psychological and behavioral changes caused by these contradictions and conflicts, etc. Because of its anonymity, convenience and escape (ACE model) (Young, 2000), internet can

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[3] China's young escape into the web, The Observer. Sunday November 20, 2005. Accessed time: Nov. 10, 2008 Via: http://www.guardian.co.uk/technology/2005/nov/20/news.china.

be accepted quickly by the mass of adolescent. They can talk and play freely and do anything without the supervision of adults. Everyone is equal when they are online. And most of the half mature adolescents lack enough willpower to resist these temptations of internet, especially when they meet frustrations and failures in their real life.

Why does the internet addiction of Chinese adolescents have these characteristics? I think there are following reasons:

The rapid development of Chinese economy since the Chinese reform and opening-up

With the persistent development of Chinese economy, especially after middle of the 1990s, more and more families and schools have money to buy computer as the assistant teaching and learning tool. It is more popular in big or middle cities of China. Because the rural economy development lags behind urban, there are few families that buy computer for children. But there are lots of internet cafés appearing almost all over the country after middle of the 1990s. You can easily find an internet café even in a remote small town. So the most teenagers in rural areas go to internet café to use internet. And many adolescents would like to choose internet café to use internet for avoiding the adults' supervision. So, it is the reason why internet café and family can become the most important two places which adolescents would rather choose. The rapid development of Chinese economy since the Chinese reform and opening-up provides the physical environment for adolescent internet addiction.

One child national policy of population and unitary evaluation criterion of adolescent development

Because of the pressure of huge population, the Chinese government insists carrying out one child national policy of population to control the expand of population since late of the 1970s. It is a special policy of population comparing to other countries. As it brings the apparent effects of reducing the population, it brings many potential problems in social developmental areas, especially in families. The traditional big family gradually becomes the nuclear family. The only child in the family is prone to be coddled and indulged by numerous family members, such as parents, grandparents from mother's side and from father's side. And at the same time, they have been endowed too much expectations by the family, because they are the only descendants of their families. Under such developmental circumstance, the adolescent tends to form some ill characters, e.g. bad self-control, yielding themselves up, having no feeling of duty and responsibilities. And in China, the study of teenagers is still exam-

oriented, only a small percentage of high school graduates have opportunities to enter colleges under the competitive education system.The evaluation criterion of adolescent development is unitary, that's to say, if a teenager can get good academic achievement, he or she would be the 'good' student of teachers, 'good' child of the family, the child will have a brilliant future. By contraries, they would be the 'bad' student, 'bad' child, it will be difficult to get success in the future for their 'fails'. This criterion neglect the teenager's other abilities and talents. The adolescents who cannot get the high scores tend to produce inferiority complex and discouragement. And some of the adolescents who had once gotten good academic achievements will indulge themselves after entering into university, because they lose their interest in learning on the base of long time exam-orientated study.

As we know, adolescence is one of the most important periods of transition. The conditions we had mentioned above would heavy their burden. When they cannot stand or encounter even small frustration, they will look for the released approach, escape real-life pressures. Because of its anonymity, convenience and escape, internet becomes one of the favorite ways that adolescents would like to choose.

Three kinds of lack of current adolescent' development in China

Usually, three main lacks will appear in adolescent development, including the lack of fatherly function, plays and peers[4].

The lack of fatherly function

The father is very important for the adolescents, especially for the boys. In the family, the role of father often represents the rule, order, duty, responsibility, brave and reason. How the father role works will affect the forming of adolescent self-control, the achieving of responsibility, and the brave of meeting frustration. Usually, father is more busy than mother. Most fathers will devote most of their time to their work but most mothers have to spend more time with their children. Father lacks enough time and opportunities to take part in the education of his child, extremely in a divorced family.

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[4] Why Chinese children always suffer from internet addiction and 90 % of them focus on playing computer games. Accessed time: Nov. 12, 2008 via: http://news.xinhuanet.com/edu/2006-10/11/content_5187284.htm.

The lack of plays

Many people should consider play only belongs to childhood. For example, for adolescents, their duty is to study hard; they do not need play more. In fact, everyone needs play, playing is a kind of a special relaxing approach through which people can get fresh energy and happy feelings. As the matter of fact, the play plays an important role in adolescent life. Good and abound plays can help adolescents to develop their social roles and pressure releasing. The appropriate physical plays can help adolescents release superfluous energy and unhappy feelings and get happiness and the sense of success outside of academic learning, particularly for adolescent boys, such as playing football. For Chinese adolescents, even children, they have not enough time to have plays. They must finish burdensome homework, someone has to attend some training class to cultivate so-called strong suits except the academic achievement. Most parents think they cannot let their children fail at the 'starting line'. Consequently, the children should do everything the parents think it is benefit for the child's future but plays. Comparing children, adolescents have heavier study burden, have more psychical pressure and growing annoyance, but less playing time. How to get the alternative thing? Internet can provide so many interesting games and funning things, so, as the alternative, it is easy to be addictive by adolescents.

The lack of peers

As we know, peers play an important role in an adolescent's social and psychical development. The quantity of peers and the quality of peer relationship will heavily affect the adolescent's successful transition from family to society. For the sake of one child policy of population, most adolescents born after the late 1980s have no sibling, the natural peer. With the great change of the family structure, nuclear family lives alone, the child has few chances to play with their cousins. In most cities, people live in high buildings, they have no interest to know neighbors, so, the people living in the same building often do not know each other at all even if they live in the same building for a long period, not to mention that the child can easily know peers and make friends with the other neighbor children. It is difficult to develop a high quality peer relationship with classmates during limited school time. But internet can give adolescents the 'endless' chances to make new friends.

The adolescents can play games, make friends and get sense of achievement; all of these can compensate the lacks mentioned above. So, internet has great attraction to adolescents and easily makes them addictive.

Mass of rural stay children and migrant children lack supervision

In the process of China's social, economic and political reform and development, large numbers of peasants have migrated to cities for better job opportunities since the 1980s. The population of migrants was more than 100 million in 2000, 140 million in 2005 and 150 million in 2006 (Zhai and Duan, 2006).

Most of these migrants, once they have settled down in the destination, they will either bring their children to cities or generating many migrant children. Because of various political constraints about child schooling at the place of destination, most of migrants cannot bring children to the cities. Consequently, only a small proportion of children live with migrant parents, those children are called migrant children, but most children have to stay in their original home without parents or with only one parent. Those children are called as stay children. According to China's 2000 census, there are about 7–8 millions of stay children (Duan, 2005). Due to lacking strict supervision of parents and immature ability of self-control, lots of stay children have been a high-risk mass and a part of them have been addictive to internet.

Discussion: the predicament and countermeasures of the treatment for adolescent internet addiction in China

The predicament

Most people have no common sense of internet addiction

Internet use is a new phenomenon appearing with information technology developing at top speed. Computer is more popular only after the late 1990s in most urban areas in China. Most urban parents whose are older than 40 are not good at using computer, not to say the rural parents. And most of parents do not know what the internet addiction is. When their children are addictive, they do not know how to deal with that. There are two typical attitudes towards their addictive child. One is they would take forced approaches to forbide their child to use internet again. Another is the parents are extremely scared about internet addiction and have no idea how to deal with their children's internet addiction.

Lacking of support system for the family with an internet addictive child

Usually, the parents with an internet addictive child cannot get a social support. Now there are few formal centers of internet addiction treatment in China. And because internet addiction is a new disorder appearing recently, many psychological counselors, educational educators, clinic psychologists have not enough preparation of professional knowledge and practical experience of

internet addiction treatment. For the parents with an internet addictive child, to successfully solve the problems of internet addiction is still very difficult.

The neglected high-risk crowd

As we mentioned above, the mass of rural stay children is one big and potential high-risk crowd. If we do not pay much attention to this problem, more and more stay children would be addictive to internet. How to care of the rural stay children is still a complicated problem related to governmental, social, economic and educational supports.

The countermeasures

Building social support system

The first thing should be an increasing publicity and educational activities to arise public attention and common sense about internet addiction. Secondly, the Chinese government should still develop a corresponding legal system and enhance the lawful supervision to teenagers' internet use in internet cafés. Thirdly, it is an urgent thing to cultivate large numbers of multi-disciplinary professionals to serve for the prevention and treatment of internet addiction. At the same time, we have so many internet addicts, but few centers of treatment, so building some professional public and private treatment centers for internet addiction is still urgent.

Psychoeducation

A handful of Netizen have formed since the middle of the 1990s. China now has 130 million people who can get online even in the most remote places. But the way how to correctly use computer did not have time to develop. With the computers getting more popular gradually, we should carry out lectures about how to prevent internet addiction when we teach basic computer using skills and knowledge, especially at primary and middle schools. To prevent using computers is impossible, the key point is how we can guide teenagers to correctly use computers and how to control overly internet use; this is a more important and effective approach than to force teenagers not to use computer and logon. And when the teenagers know the characteristics, categories, and consequences of internet addiction, they will be more prone to have consciousness to control themselves not to use internet overly.

But most important is how adolescents can avoid the lacks mentioned above in their growing process. The pressure can be too much for some adolescents

in the real life, especially if they fail. Then they escape to the virtual world to look for achievement, importance, satisfaction and a sense of belonging. How to help them to find these in real life? It will be a very complicated problem.

At first we must transform the exam-oriented unitary evaluation criterion and dig out the other potential talents of children out of academic achievement. There is no doubt that academic achievement is very important, but it is not all. This will correlate to the deep educational reform of China.

Secondly, the schools and communities should provide more healthy and active plays and all kinds of interesting activities to promote the communication and contact among teenagers. They can find more peers and have more chances to get friendship, happiness and satisfaction.

At last we must emphasize the important function the father acts in family education. When both parents actively take part in the education of their child, the child will most benefit from family education. It is very important to cultivate the sense of responsibility and the ability of self-control to children, that will help adolescents raise the ability of resisting overly internet using.

And the mass of rural stay children, migrant children and lots of children from divorced families or single parent families are a high-risk crowd. They need more care and concerns. We must enhance the care for high-risk crowds.

Further studies in internet addiction of adolescents

What is internet addiction? Should it be an addiction like other substance addictions? How to explain this kind of addictive phenomenon? Are there some biological and psychological differences of internet addiction between different nations and different ages? What type of treatment is the most efficient one?... All these international questions still are confusing for the professionals.

Dr. Young had done much work in the area of internet addiction. Her program is based on cognitive-behavioral techniques and she also focuses on the spiritual principles of twelve steps. We need to incorporate the expertise of the knowledge of internet addiction and further studies.

How to explain the internet addiction in China? Now most theories and treatments of internet addiction still come from the developed countries. As we know Chinese internet addiction has some its own characteristics, we can utilize other work and borrow ideas from other countries, but we cannot explain and implement these ideas into status quo directly. We need to do further studies in this new research area.

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HISTORY OF EDUCATION – SOLID OR UNNECESSARY PART OF PEDAGOGICAL KNOWLEDGE[1]

Roman Tomaszewski

Resume

The process of modernization in the 19th century enabled pedagogy to establish its identity but the fascination of the empirical knowledge of the 20th century was to provide it with an efficiency of technical sciences. History of education as a kind of a cumulated pedagogical experience became an ornament of empirical researches. It does not allow verification of the set of educational reforms between the 19th and 20th centuries or organize the pedagogical researches contemporarily treated as historical creations. As a result of this history of education was reduced in the Polish pedagogical higher education.

Key words

Time, education, change, pedagogy without history, the world without history.

Historie vzdělávání – pevná a nezbytná součást pedagogického poznání

Resumé

Díky komplexnímu procesu modernizace byl v 19. století stabilizován obor pedagogika. Současně ovšem fascinace možnostmi empirického poznání způsobila, že byly v tomto období výrazně posíleny technické vědy. Historie pedagogiky se stala pouhým přídavkem či ozdobou empirických pedagogických výzkumů. Z tohoto důvodu nebyl zpracován důsledný výzkum, který by utřídil poznatky o systému vzdělávacích reforem v 19. a 20. století a který by zhodnotil jejich historický význam. Důsledkem je fakt, že v polském vysokoškolském pedagogickém vzdělávání došlo k redukci tématu historie vzdělávání.

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[1] The text is an attempt to present a discussion about historicism in Polish academic pedagogy. It is written from the Polish point of view and refers to main issues: Polish educational reforms in the 20th century and pedagogical standards.

Klíčová slova
Čas, vzdělávání, změna, pedagogika bez historie, svět bez historie.

Introduction

The great ideas of Enlightenment were absorbed by social minds through the educational reforms initiated in the second part of 18th century. The French Revolution only speeded up the whole process, however for the educational reforms to be real and fulfilled there was a need of technology to make it possible. There was a demand for another scientific and technological revolution. The ideas and the earlier educational reforms of the 18th century and the first six or seven decades of the 19th century had a little impact due to the limitations in technology or social conservatism. Its creators or protectors – even the monarchs cannot be accused of having bad intentions but they committed many mistakes.

The effect of modernization was first noticed in the seventh decade of the 19th century when there was an increased movement in economical relationships and in industrialization and urbanization. The high number of population and the rapid development in communication led to the fact that schools were in a near distance. The duty of education which already had existed in most of the European countries was then enhanced. From this moment in time the educational aspirations of middle and higher social class were accompanied by the need of the elementary mass education which was not a case of philanthropy or charity. The new man in a modern society should not have been illiterate. For these the seventh and the following decades of the 19th century were known for their educational reforms: Albert Falk's in Germany, Józef Dietl in Galicia, Aleksander Wielopolski's in Polish Kingdom. Alongside with the above stated the Hasner's reform on Czech's lands has to be mentioned.

As well as the Czech's lands, Galicia belonged to Austria so the possibility of passing any reforms by Hasner or Dielt were a result of a forced autonomy. The changes that took place after 1866 in Czech speaking and Polish speaking areas of the monarchy within the school field and a long term meaning. They settled the organizational school systems in the thirstiest of the 19th century because the Polish one from 1919 and the Czechoslovakian one from 1922 were based on Dielt's or Hasner's standards.

In case of Central Europe the important factor of the modernization process turned out to be the institution of a modern university from Berlin (1809). During the times of breakthrough in the political and social opposition the aca-

demic intellectualists became a modern model. They were initializing the liberal ideas.[2] Within the university buildings there was an initialization of pedagogy taking place and its structure was being established and divided into disciplines: general pedagogy (philosophy of education), didactics, and the history of education.[3] The process of creating pedagogical departments was long and lasted between 1779 and 1871. It was connected to additional educational functions of the teachers and due to the amount of the didactic staff the reforms of Hasner, Dietl and Falk were limited. After 1980 the pedagogical departments in Austria were treated with a distance or reduced. Pedagogy was becoming a younger sister of philosophy, history and theology and through them pedagogy was acquiring the styles and knowledge as well as teaching methods but also through them it was gaining its staff. Using the words of Wolfagng Brzezinki, "they were sober and did not tolerate the pedagogical prattle."[4] It was them who with their educational authority taken from the (older) disciplines supported the scientific function of pedagogy in the 19th century.

Both mentioned elements: the modern effect and the emancipation of pedagogy proved the success of educational reforms, starting between the sixties and seventies of the 19th century.

The following changes in school systems in Central Europe which took place in the 20th century had a slightly different character in the interwar times than over the traumatic times of the Second World War. However they cannot analyzed as two separate items. According to the prof. Julian Dybiec from the Jagieloński University "History of Education as a knowledge is a deposit of cumulated pedagogical experience, a verifier of successful and unsuccessful educational reforms, innovations and changes."[5] The following reforms of Polish education from 1932–1934 when the so called Jędrzejowska Reform was unifying the three different school systems in annexations; from 1948 when the communist government was trying to interfere in educational system of after-war Poland and took over the control over schooling, and from 1961 when the main intention of the government was secularization. There was also the unsuccessful

[2] T. Nipperdey, *Rozważania o niemieckiej historii*, Warszawa 1999, p. 343.

[3] T. Hejnicka- Bezwińska, *Pedagogika Ogólna*, Warszawa 2008, pp. 107–112.

[4] W. Brezinka, *Wychowanie i pedagogika w dobie przemian kulturowych*, Kraków 2008, pp. 139–140.

[5] J. Dybiec, *Historia wychowania, historyk wychowania i standardy. Treści historyczne w studiach pedagogicznych,* red. K. Bartnicka, Pułtusk 2007, pp. 139–140.

reform of Jerzy Kuberski in 1973 and the post communist reform in1999 by prof. Handke which should not be discussed separately.[6]

I personally believe that changes in the Czech educational system should have a chapter in the Czech history of education. It should include Hasner's reforms up to the establishing of the Czech Republic and applying European Union standards. We should all try to link the strategies of "long lastingness" with a respect to certain facts.[7]

Historical orientation in pedagogical reflection was an everyday element of the 19th century because history had become an approved branch of knowledge earlier than pedagogy. Its usefulness was noticed by Herbart.[8] History is a valid source of knowledge when analyzing the reforms. However it does not excuse the attempt to separate history of education from history of pedagogy as the second one is a part of the first one.[9] History of education cannot be only a supportive area in pedagogy which could only deal with a "pre-pedagogical" times. It is made to study times up to contemporary days. The meeting point of the distant history with the close history is commonly described as "the final word" which is known to the historians of the education. But only reaching "the final word" may explore the future.[10] Into the future where "the final word" has to be discovered and 140 years since the Hasner's, Dielt's and Falk's reforms have to draw the future. The analysis of any changes within educational – political area have to be reached through history of education. There is no idea that comes from nowhere.

The above mentioned idea may lead to the unification of humanistic sciences, no matter whether such changes would take place around the history or pedagogy. History of education may become canvas for other disciplines to put colours shades on it. Each discipline has its unique colour.[11]

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[6] The First Czechoslovakian Republic did not have a problem of unification of the educational system between 1918 and 1939 because the Czech and the Slovak lands were in one country.

[7] F. Braudel, *Gramatyka cywilizacji*, Warszawa 2006, p. 23.

[8] T. Hejnicka-Bezwińska, op. cit., p. 31.

[9] Ibidem, p. 243.

[10] F. Braudel, op. cit., p. 31.

[11] "It is possible to stay in a certain historical period of time in case of a detailed study. But when it comes to the synthesis – when talking about history of civilization – we need to gather the maximum amount of the paintings created in different times, which then should be combined into one according to the sunlight pattern which mixed together give one bright light.", F. Braudel, op. cit., p. 33.

Since Herbart's ideas, history of education was playing an important role in educational, mathematical and technical disciplines. However at the beginning of the 20th century pedagogy faced criticism. Prof. T. Szkudlarek seems to present the pedagogical view best in 1993: "it is difficult to find people from outside of its (pedagogy – R. T.) professional areas, who would take it seriously."[12] This notion was presented in November 1993, so a few months after the 1st Pedagogical Congregation in Poland after the political system had changed. Was the postmodernist reaction leading to hesitations in its scientific value? I personally doubt it. Similarly to limitations in the history of education, other sub-disciplines such as the history of pedagogical ideas or history of pedagogy cannot guarantee similar nobility. The pedagogical knowledge created this way leads to narrowing or limiting the historical knowledge and makes the history of education a "grey area." Obviously postmodern history is impossible, although there was an attempt to establish a postmodern pedagogy.[13] There is a discussion over the question if the first part of the 20th century can be described as "late modernity", which proves winning over the past and usefulness of the past. Using the historical perspective in the latest Polish book of general pedagogy allows us to hope that historicism will be returned to the educational disciplines in Poland.[14]

History of education had an unquestioned position in Polish pedagogy in 1948. It was present in pedagogical researches and during the historical congregations in 1925 and 1948, where special sections of history of education. Due to the political systems it was absorbed by the communism in 1949. Also the "cultural delay" during the 50s–70s did not have a positive influence on history of education. It is worth mentioning on the areas of the strong Soviet influence the development was limited. History of education in pedagogy was only to prove the ethos of a "great educator – institutional communism." It led to a low profile of history of education didactics which refused to analysis of history after 1944. As a result of which other representatives of university pedagogy started to treat history of education as a necessary evil. The changes in political system in 1989/1990 brought hope.

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[12] T. Szudlarek, *Pedagogizm i pedagogika, Racjonalność pedagogiki*, red. Hejnicka-Bezwińska, Bydgoszcz 1995, p. 41.

[13] B. Szacka, *Czas przeszły pamięć mit,* Warszawa 2006, pp. 24–25.B. Szacka brings examples of representatives of young American historians society: J. Appelby, L. Hunt, M. Jacob are not consequent in their believes and present their feminism. (*Powiedzieć prawdę o historii,* Poznań 2000.)

[14] T. Hejnicka-Bezwińska, *Pedagogika ogólna*, Warszawa 2008.

During the 1st Pedagogical Congregation (Warszawa-Rembertów 1993) the studies of the 7th section were dedicated to the negligence of history of education, which were described as "blank spots". Educationalists who then were dealing with history of education managed to establish the key objectives for their sub-discipline and to describe their preferences within the contemporary studies. Fascinating was the openness on the western history – free modernism. It was then when the dilemma included in this topic came out – is history of education a solid or unnecessary part of educational knowledge?

Historians of education were accused of antiquarian ideas in their researches and taking up the so called "history of events".

The American pragmatism was supporting the freedom from the past. Historicism as a symbol of change was not in favor. Pedagogy treated earlier as a integrated branch of knowledge became an untidy group of unclear theories. The visions of Fukuyama, Toffler and others were against the idea of evolution changes and they claimed that history is valueless discipline.[15] during the last decades of the 2th century the ideas were accepted without any criticism. Nobody paid attention to the Karl Popper's approach who in *„Nędza historycyzmu" (The Poverty of Historicismus)* (London – New York 1992) admitted that „ I was trying to prove historicism is a dead method. The method which does not bring any friut. But in fact, I did not demolish it."[16]

The attempt to win over the differences between the supporters of historicism and antihistoricism in Polish pedagogy took place during the 5th Pedagogical Congregation in Wrocław, in 2004. It only led to highlighting the differences. It became even more visible in Polish academic pedagogy books. In the book from 2003, a chapter dedicated to the history of education was written by prof. Wołoszyn who represents the pre-war pedagogical and humanistic approach.[17] However, in 2006 it was accomplished by the representative of the trend which was supporting the reduction of historicism in pedagogy, and at the same time the representative of the younger generation of educationalists – S. Sztobryn.[18] The characteristic feature for both narrations is treating

[15] W. Brezinka, *Wychowanie i pedagogika...,* op. cit., pp. 170–173; T. Hejnicka-Bezwińska, op. cit., p. 204; F. Fukuyama, *Koniec historii,* Poznań 1996; A. Toffler, *Szok przyszłości,* Poznań 1998, pp. 381–395.

[16] K.R. Popper, *Nędza historycyzmu,* Warszawa 1999, p. 9.

[17] S. Wołoszyn, *Rozwój i zmienność wychowania i kształcenia*, Pedagogika. Podręcznik akademicki. red. Z. Kwiecińska and B. Śliwerski, t. 1, Warszawa 2003, pp. 74–182.

[18] S. Sztobryn, *Historia wychowania, Pedagogika, r*ed. B. Śliwerski, t. 1 – *Podstawy nauk o wychowaniu,* Gdańsk 2006, pp. 1–77.

the latest history of education as a form of comparison of the pedagogical ideas (S. Wołoszyn) and directing the whole spectrum of history of education towards the history of pedagogical ideas. So the postulate of keeping the historians of education gathered around the latest events (after 1945) was proposed in Rembertowo in 1993 by prof. K. Mrozowska and in Wrocław, in 2004, by prof. T. Hejnicka-Brzezińska. Moreover it is rather difficult to qualify the text by S. Sztobryn as a narrative from the history of philosophy or a draft of history of pedagogical ideas.

The lack of faith of some of the representatives of Polish pedagogy, in history of education resulted in the lack of clarity: either the history of pedagogical ideas or the history of pedagogy. The "pure" pedagogy accompanied by the idea of history with literature identity, which is easy to read, but for the pedagogy it does not bring anything constructive.[19] When valuing this type there is a lack of classical approach of A. Toynbee from 1946, about the relationship between history, fiction and science.[20] Taking into account the common memories of the past should not be associated with the history, scientific approach should be separated from the fiction one in the pedagogical reflection. Without the support of history of education it is rather impossible.

Atomization of the pedagogy which is displayed in a vast number of subdisciplines leads to separation from historicism and treating the history of education as anti-knowledge which should be omitted.[21] It is taking place although the declarations that the latest history of education makes the present times more understood and allows pedagogy acquiring the understanding perspective, typical for the evolutionary changes.[22] As a result the latest standards of university education in Poland at the pedagogy have limited classes of history

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[19] P. H. Hutton, *History as Art of Memory,* Hannover-London 1993, p. 9; T. Stryjek, *Przeszłość narodu i nurty dwudziestowiecznej historiografii, Kultura i Społeczeństwo* 3–4/2001, p. 28 (after B. Szacka); R. Tomaszewki, *Dobrowolność jako artybut historii wychowania,* Treści historyczne w studiach pedagogicznych,* op. cit, p. 110. ("In case of history we do not reasearch the past because it does not exist anymore" A. Ciążela.)

[20] A. Toynbee, *Studium historii*, Warszawa 2006, pp. 23–24.

[21] J. Dybiec*, Historia wychowania w postmodernistycznym świecie*, Biuletyn Historii Wychowania 1–2/2003, p. 9; S. Sztobryn, J. Semków, Kraków 2006, pp. 214–216; R. Tomaszewski, *Historia wychowania jako synonim antywiedzy*, Edukacja i jej historiografia..., op. cit., pp. 197–206.

[22] T. Hejnicka-Bezwińska, *Konsekwencje a-historyczności pedagogiki*, Pedagogika ogólna: tradycja-teraźniejszość-nowe wyzwania, Bydgoszcz 1995, p. 77. Idem, Pedagogika Ogólna, Warszawa 2008, p. 172. At the same time prof. Hejnicka-Bezwińska makes a point in the fact that the latest history of education has a biographical factor in the of its creators, historians – the direct witnesses or attendees of the vast events.

of education. It resulted in the limited amount of subjects covered as well as the limited amount of classes in many subdisciplines.[23]

The reaction of the majority of academic pedagogical environment was the conference organised in October 2007. (The standards mentioned were a result of the laws passed by the Minister of Higher Education in July 2007.)

Co-organizers of the conference were The History of Education Society, The Institute of the History of Polish Academy of Science and the Pułtusk University. The presence of the representatives of the above mentioned organizations proved the importance of educational disciplines in Poland.

To push away the accusation of the lack of objectiveness which might be the case when a historian of education writes about his discipline, the achievements of the conference resulted in words of professors. They are the published opinions of experts not dealing with history on everyday basis.

Prof. Bronisław Siemieniecki – *"History of education makes an important element in creation of new theoretical conceptions in pedagogy"*;

Prof. Tadeusz Lewowicki – *"...understood and explained are the doubts in historical creations. The predicted notions in their standards are too general"*;

Prof. Bogusław Śliwerski based his opinion on Paul Ricoeur: *"...tradition is not a dead deposit, but a great source which should be creatively used. I would say even more – one of the duties towards the inheritance is to bring to life the elements of the past".*[24]

The meeting in Pułtusk was concentrated on academic areas of education and history of education and the earlier attempts of their support in 2004–2007. At the same time another act of opposition was the initiative of Polish pedagogy in the twenties of the 20th century. This argument over "pedagogism" or "non-pedagogism" of history of education was anagogic to the dilemma of locating the history of economy in economical studies and the laws in the law studies or other forms of use of historical knowledge. The dispute came into life directly after the 2nd World War and was present during the 7th Polish Historians Congregation in Wrocław, in 1948.[25] Pedagogy at this point in time

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[23] Rozporządzenie Ministra Nauki I Szkolnictwa Wyższego z dnia 12. 07. 2007 w sprawie standardów kształcenia. Zał 78.

[24] K. Bartnicka (red.), *Treści historyczne w nowej koncepcji studiów pedagogicznych,* op. cit., pp. 44, 56 and 140. In case of prof. Śliwerski who based his ideas on P. Ricoeur's ideas it is worth to point out that they were developed and explained in the book *Pamięć, historia, zapomnienie.* Kraków 2006.

[25] A. Cwer, *Czy historia wychowania jest dyscypliną naukową – dyskusja w II Rzeczypospolitej,* Treści historyczne..., op. cit., pp. 153–165.

had not had a well established position. The relationship between history and pedagogy loosened. As the pedagogy expanded history of education was accused of not having their own paradigm, but this gap had been filled with "a specific character of contemporary postmodern historiography". As a criterion of its usefulness educationalists introduced the term "pedagogical history of education" and suggested the reduction of historical and pedagogical ideas.[26]

Polish critics of history of education missed on a paradigm existing since the 20s of the 20th century, created by the Annalysts in which *"... history should become what should always be: the research of the contemporary"*.[27] Fernand Braudel was promoting the arrangement of "A Common Council on the Basis of the Studies on Human". For Polish educationalists such paradigm functioning over 800 years became a discovery of the 21st century. The reduction of historicism in the studies of education would have to result in the filling the gap by the "directed mythology" about which prof. Świderski has warned us.[28] However, the reduction of history of education to the history of pedagogical ideas would lead to the description of history of imaginary events. The pedagogical reflection, no matter its paradigm, should be historically organized because there is no thought or idea from nowhere![29] History is a record of the development not the imagination of the development. It can be treated as literature without the burden of education and object to its development. So where should we take our courage from to educate?

The alternative for the absence of the history of education are the ideas of the suitable to the past fitting into the future directed by the educationalists. They are, however, in this case, only the colourful extras, not the support or the order. For this reason the presence of the educationalists after the sixth year

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[26] C. Majorek, *Najnowsza historia edukacji wobec potrzeb pedagogiki, Educational ways,* ed. S. Kowal and R. Kwiecińska, Kraków 2002, p. 46; S. Sztobryn*, Polskie badania nad myślą pedagogiczną w latach 1900–1939 w świetle czasopiśmiennictwa. Ujęcie metahistoryczne,* Łódź 2000, p. 6; Idem, *Historia wychowania*, Pedagogika, red. B. Śliwerski, t. 1 – Podstawy nauk o wychowaniu, Gdańsk 2006, p. 4.

[27] F. Braudel, op. cit., p. 444.

[28] B. Śliwerski, *Ewolucja modeli oraz autonomii i uspołecznienia szkoły w okresie III Rzeczypospolitej,* Szkoła – Państwo – Społeczeństwo między autonomią a podległością, Gdańsk 2009, pp. 23–24; M. Turlejska, *Zapis pierwszej dekady 1945–1954,* Warszawa 1972, p. 7.

[29] J. Topolski*, O mitach w badaniu przeszłości*, Metodologiczne problemy badań nad dziejami myśli historycznej, ed. J. Maternicki, Warszawa 1990, pp. 52–53; P. Zwierzchowski, *Myślenie mityczne w pedagogice (w świetle koncepcji mitu Ernesta Cassiera)*, Bydgoszcz 1997, pp. 28, 42 and 64 (the author is wrong – the mythical thinking does not finish with Socialist Pedagogy – p. 57).

absence in the work of the 17th Polish Historians Congregation, which took place in September 2009 in Olsztyn.[30] The presence of the history of education specialists alongside with the historians of other specialism for the first time since 1948 was noticed and approved. It much harder to gain such approval of a part of representatives of educational disciplines especially when historians of education are absent during the pedagogical congregations – although the history of education tried to create their own section. The pedagogical accusations which state that Polish history of education is antiquarian and eventful are not right as in this case it is simply becoming boring. There is a tendency of pushing aside the history in pedagogy. However there is an improvement of quality of the historical researches and the display of priorities for the latest events; also within history of thoughts and systems of education and the evolution of educational systems.[31] *History of education gives pedagogy and the educationalists a chance to function in the „World with history".* This statement by the historian prof. K. Jakubiak supports the opinion of Jose Ortega y Gasset *"a human does not have a nature but a history".[32]*

There are two basic areas of gathering the knowledge. The first one is history which is the reason for the disputes within the educational arguments leading to its reduction but made to think even more. The second one is internet, so the virtual word which does not enhance thinking. Perhaps the "human gap" described in the report of the Roman Club is the reason for not taking into account history. The question about the condition of the history of education which was the key issue during the conference in Olomouc in November 2009 is still a valid aspect. It is proved by the discussion over Polish historicism in pedagogy lasting from 1918 up to now (2010). Historicism makes difficult the assessment of the past reforms in education. The lack of historicism in educational disciplines will lead to pedagogy being taken over by politics.

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[30] The main role in organising the section of the Historians of Education had prof. W. Szulakiewicz from the University of Mikołaj Kopernik in Toruń. She also described the attendance of pedagogical staff in other congregations of historians. S. Szulakiewicz, *Z dziejów uczestnictwa historyków wychowania w zjazdach historycznych*, Z dziejów polskiej teorii i praktyki edukacyjnej, Toruń 2009).

[31] F. Braudel, op. cit. pp. 10–19.; T. Hejnicka – Bezwińska, *Pedagogika ogólna*, Warszawa 2008, p. 437.

[32] J. O. y Gasset, *Bunt mas*, Warszawa 2002, pp. 95–96; K. Jakubiak, *Tradycje i aktualność w dyskusji o roli użyteczności historii wychowania w kształceniu pedagogicznym,* Treści historyczne..., op. cit. pp. 38.

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SECONDARY SCHOOLS IN THE DISCUSSIONS
OF THE FIRST HALF OF THE 20TH CENTURY

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Abstract

The paper deals with the views of proponents and opponents of the introduction of the system of uniform secondary schools in the first half of the 20th century.

Key words

School system, uniform school, first half of the 20th century.

Resumé

Příspěvek se zabývá názory stoupenců a oponentů jednotné základní školy 2. stupně v první polovině 20. století.

Klíčová slova

Školství, jednotná škola, první polovina 20. století.

The character of secondary schools had been subjected to criticism since the turn of the 19th and 20th century. Already more than a hundred years ago T. G. Masaryk called for the reform of secondary schools; he saw – as their specific defects – their heterogeneity, excessive intellectualism, neglect of the development of feelings and will, excessive workload of pupils, cult of detailed facts at the expense of thinking, lack of a unifying spirit, neglect of natural and social sciences, and insufficient moral education.[1]

The reform of the secondary school system was also discussed by the professional community. Already in 1919, the Ministry of Education (MŠANO) conducted a poll the results of which were published in 1922. In the same year the publication "K reformě střední školy" (Secondary School Reform) by secondary school teachers Jan Čeněk and Přemysl Hájek was published by

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[1] MASARYK, T. G. Jak pracovat. Praha: Čin, 1928, 74 pp.

the State Publishing House. J. Čeněk warned that "reducing the educational level of secondary schools out of an ideal unhealthy effort for them to serve the broadest possible masses means reducing the cultural level of the nation at all. It must not be forgotten that it is not possible for all sections of the nation to receive higher education."[2] He rejected the argument that the existing secondary schools only served children of wealthy parents, and argued that to the contrary, the Czech secondary schools were filled with children of poor parents, and a number of leading intellectuals grew up in a poorer environment. In 1930, E. Čapek in his book "Sto hlasů o střední škole" (One Hundred Votes About High School) published the results of the polls in which the majority opposed to a uniform school. For example Prof. Dr. F. Chudoba expressed his concern about the monotony of the school system because monotony deadens both the individuals and the nation.[3]

In the thirties Social Democrats concentrated around "Dělnická akademie" (Workers' Academy) in their action plan "Co chtějí socialisté" (What The Socialists Want) demanded a uniform school system differentiated according to student abilities and needs and incorporating all schools into a uniform system to maximize the possibility of transition. Compulsory school attendance should have been extended to 16 years of age. According to the Socialists, education was a right for all, not a privilege of some.[4]

After the Second World War the President Dr. E. Beneš got involved in very intense debates on secondary schools in his speeches to teachers and school staff in 1947. The President urged that the implementation of uniform schools should be free from a dogmatic bias and leave the possibility of changes according to subsequent experience and diversity of implementing conditions. He therefore recommended early differentiation with respect to a variety of pupils' giftedness and the direction of their future work.

In his speech to a deputation of secondary school teachers in the Union of Employees of Schools and Further Education Institutions on 19th March 1947 the President stated that he was not against reforms, but expressed his hopes that the theory of the reforms would be very well-thought-out, the reforms would be practically well-proven and prepared by cooperation of competent experts.[5] He expressed his appreciation of the importance of the secondary

[2] ČENĚK, Jan – HÁJEK, Přemysl. K reformě střední školy. Praha: Státní nakladatelství, 1922, p. 7.
[3] ČAPEK, Emanuel. Sto hlasů o střední škole. Praha: Nové Čechy, 1930, 181 pp.
[4] BĚHOUNEK, Václav. Co chtějí socialisté. Praha: Dělnická akademie, 1934, pp. 44–47.
[5] BENEŠ, Edvard: O školské reformě. Praha: Pokrok, 1947, p. 17.

school system, which in its current form shaped the Czech intelligentsia both for life and for study at universities. He pointed out that its basis was formed a century ago and that it therefore needed to reform: "However, it is necessary to reform just such parts of it which really need reforms... it is not about levelling out and eventually standardizing the average, if not the below the average."[6] He warned against the imitation of the West or East and against coercing the solutions "which we would change the next day or two."[7] He called for early differentiation of pupils according to their aptitude and abilities, as in his opinion the natural inequality and dissimilarity of people was the reality. He pointed out that the public opinion got out of the balance due to the war and May revolution, as reflected also in the assessment of issues related to the reform of the school system.

On 5th April 1947 Dr. Beneš said to the representatives of professors of the Prague Faculty of Philosophy and Faculty of Science that the reform of secondary schools should be based around the fact that after a two-year common base, differentiation should be made already from the third grade according to the pupils' talents. At the senior secondary school the differentiation could then escalate to the direct introduction in the university studies. According to Beneš, the university was supposed to exactly specify what the secondary school should give to its graduates; and in turn the secondary school was supposed do anything so that its graduates do not have to overcome the gap between the secondary school and university. He pointed out that two foreign languages (one western language and Russian) should be taught already in the junior secondary school.

In an interview with a group of reform school workers led by the Rector of Charles University Prof. Dr. B. Bydžovský on 23rd April 1947 the President said that he considered the principle of uniform schools in our country essentially correct and viable. He expressed the wish that all reforms should be made after the agreement of the widest possible circle of interested people.

The President said to the deputation of the Union of Employees of Schools and Further Education Institutions, which visited him on 25th April 1947, that the differentiation should be applied in time. He spoke against a rushed and hasty discussion of such important issues. This indicates that the President was not against uniform schools, but demanded their differentiation.

Unlike the President, who had to use a diplomatic language, other discussants expressed their views regarding the uniform school system much more

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[6] Ibidem, p. 16.
[7] Ibidem, p. 17.

openly. Already in July 1945 the psychologist Dr. Robert Konečný called for dropping the scheme of the uniform school system: "The secondary school should be the school of a special type, teaching Latin from the first grade; a strictly selective type; the type of elite of gifted people. And it should be open to all without distinction if they meet the requirement of exceptional education... Otherwise we will have what we have already had: studied semi-intelligentsia, graduating on a massive scale, neither fish nor fowl."[8]

According to the draft basic law on education, by introducing a uniform undifferentiated school of the 2nd level the current junior secondary school was supposed to disappear. Mainly the teachers of general and "town" schools expressed their views in favour of the uniform school. As opposed to this, the cultural public and almost without exception all professorial staffs and head-masters of secondary schools expressed their views which were against the un-differentiated uniform school. Also parents' associations in secondary schools opposed the uniform school.

The main promoter of the uniform school was Dr. František Kahuda, then the employee of the Research Institute, later in 1956–1963 the Communist Minister of Education; he claimed that the uniform school would contribute to maintaining the unity of the nation and that earlier only the rich were given an opportunity to study. The Communist Minister of Education in the years 1945–1946, Prof. Dr. Zdeněk Nejedlý, stated that the goal of the uniform school was "to remove this impossible distribution of youth when a decision is made even for a ten-year-old boy whether he will or will not be a master. This is the main reason for a uniform school and a uniform second level."[9]

After the war the opponents of the uniform school warned that after the destruction of the junior secondary schools the Communist Party of Czechoslovakia would remove the existing senior secondary schools as well and introduce the whole secondary school as a uniform school (i.e. both 2nd and 3rd level). And indeed, in 1973 the July plenum of the CPC Central Committee approved the project of the new educational system, which was supposed to achieve a maximum approximation of the secondary schools of general education, secondary vocational schools and secondary apprenticeship training schools.

According to some newspaper articles published after the war our entire history until 9th May 1945 was worth nothing, everything in it was wrong, out-dated, reactionary, anti-social and anti-democratic; true happiness occurred only

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[8] Svobodné noviny. Praha: Sdružení kulturních organizací, 10. 7. 1945.
[9] MERTLÍK, Rudolf. Nebezpečí jednotné školy. Praha: V. Petr, 1947, p. 13.

after the May Revolution. The educational system of the First Czechoslovak Republic was also reportedly worth nothing, not to mention old Austria. And it was therefore necessary to reform it at any cost. Who dared to say that it was something good even in past times, was declared a reactionary. Demagogic lies were repeated stating that previously only those socially strong had received training and that "a less gifted pupil of wealthier parents... finally got a better assessment than a pupil who was socially weaker, but talented".[10]

The spiritual father of uniform, but differentiated schools was Dr. Václav Příhoda. But the Communists no longer spoke about differentiation, but manifested that the uniform undifferentiated school would be introduced whether people liked it or not. The statement that a uniform school of the 2nd level (i.e. after the merger of the existing "town" schools with the first four classes of gymnasiums) would provide students the broadest and deepest of education was, in the first place, doubtful because it was not supposed to teach classical languages. Prof. Dr. H. Vysoký had already spoken against restrictions on Latin and Greek since our culture in its entirety rested, as on a granite pillar, on the ancient culture and there would be no genuine education without this culture.

Many teachers, especially secondary school professors, warned that the undifferentiated school of the 2nd level would be an educational and social injustice committed on pupils since on one hand it would be too demanding for some, and on the other hand the gifted students would not receive as much as they would be entitled to in accordance with their talents and abilities. Uniform schools would not create conditions for laying solid foundations of language education in an age when memory is receptive to learning foreign languages either.

The biggest mistake in the preparation of a school reform was that this issue became a political issue. Another basic mistake was that the major part of the reform was prepared by teachers who never got to know secondary schools of the gymnasium type, i.e. the teachers of the "town" schools who, after finishing the "town" school, studied at the Teachers Institute. In practice the draft presented by the Reform Commission virtually meant the destruction of the current level of secondary schools.

An alternative draft was submitted in May 1946 by Prof. Dr. V. Hlavatý, who recommended the introduction of two joint years of the uniform school of the 2nd level, which would then, in the 3rd and 4th year, part into two branches. The first branch would give education for practical life to those who do not intend to study, the second branch would prepare for further study. The distribution

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[10] Svobodné noviny. Praha: Sdružení kulturních organizací, 17. 9. 1946.

of pupils in these two branches would be subject to their study results in previous years.[11]

Another solution that would eliminate or alleviate the defects of uniform undifferentiated schools was prepared by Jan Čeněk, the secondary school professor. According to him, the school of the 2nd level should have three years of uniform undifferentiated schooling, which would provide closed general education. The fourth year would be targeted and differentiated according to pupils' future professions.[12]

Some tried to remove the disadvantages of uniform undifferentiated schools of the 2nd level by internal differentiation, i.e. by splitting the class into groups according to pupils' talents and hobbies, where the same teacher would teach in joint lessons. The national-socialist Minister of Education in the years 1946–1948, Prof. Dr. Jaroslav Stránský, suggested that the common basic education of pupils aged 11–15 should be supplemented by a set of optional subjects, by which gifted pupils would receive at least a partial necessary preparation for the 3rd level. Such optional subjects could be, for example, a foreign language, Latin, laboratory exercises, etc.

In his book "Nebezpečí jednotné školy" (The Danger of Uniform School) Rudolf Mertlík warned, inter alia, against the problem of foreign languages. He stated that the post-revolutionary enthusiasm for Russian had faded with almost all pupils: "And not only faded, many even developed resistance to it, for we cannot ignore that Russian substitutes Protectorate German ... in addition, it is being taught with an ideological tone and it has received a kind of an official stamp." [13] He reminded that German had been forgotten and pointed out that a graduate of a traditional gymnasium at the time of old Austria was really knowledgeable and well educated, because no subjects of a training or practicing nature were introduced in this type of schools. The traditional gymnasium did not look at what students would need in practice, but provided good education.

Already in 1945, Prof. Dr. F. Novotný said in "Národní obroda" (The National Revival) that pointing out that the organization of our secondary school system was a hundred years old proved nothing in itself, since for example the democratic system had already existed from the 5th century BC. He did not consider as very good the slogan 'socialization of education' either, since education could not be socialized as mines or banks; education had to be conquered by

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[11] Ibidem, 30. 5. 1946.
[12] Naše doba. Praha: J. Laichter, 1946, p. 241.
[13] MERTLÍK, Rudolf. Nebezpečí jednotné školy. Praha: V. Petr, 1947, p. 49.

proper work of each and every person individually. He said that a radical reform of the school system would be an attempt for which we would pay heavily, and after the implementation of which we would gradually over time do away with the reform and approach the status quo. [14]

The idea of undifferentiated uniform schools of the 2nd level, as sought by the Communists, was rejected by educational officials of the Czechoslovak National-Socialist Party, the Czechoslovak People's Party, the Slovak Democratic Party and the Roman Catholic Church, who – in the summer of 1946 – called for a differentiated second level. The discussions over the Basic Education Act, accompanied by demagogy, ended only in April 1948 when, after the February coup, the Communists had a free path to the introduction of undifferentiated schools of the 2nd level.

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[14] Národní obroda. Brno: ČSL, 14. 7. 1945.

RECENZE

LITERARY CHILDHOODS: GROWING UP IN BRITISH AND AMERICAN LITERATURE

Milena Vodičková

Edited by Šárka Bubíková. Červený Kostelec: Pavel Mervart in cooperation with the University of Pardubice, 2008.

Literary Childhoods is a series of essays edited by Šárka Bubíková which are adumbrated under one theme (childhood and coming of age) and its reflection in British and American literature. The book consists of ten chapters, whose authors show a wide range of interests. Most of the chapters examine childhood and its representation in children's literature; however, three of them focus on novels for adults and discuss how the image of a child might perform a symbolic function and how the adult characters learn to cope with the loss of their childhood and innocence or how the concept of a child can be used as a device for the construction of a novel.

The topics of the individual chapters are presented in the introduction, in which the editor also points out the current growth of interest in the phenomenon of childhood in cultural and literary studies. She admits that the essays cannot provide a comprehensive image of all the aspects of childhood and growing up; however, they do provide some idea of the changes that childhood has undergone over two centuries in two countries (the UK and the USA) and how they are reflected in literature.

Šárka Bubíková is not only the editor of this multi-author monograph, but also the author and co-author of four chapters, which together bring quite a wide range of topics focusing on childhood and literature written for children. That is why these essays can be a very useful source of information for everybody who is interested in children's literature written in English. In the first chapter, "Concepts and Experiences of Childhood," Bubíková explains how society has changed its attitudes to children and to the process of their growing up and upbringing. She describes the religious, cultural, and philosophical influences that shaped the concept of childhood over several centuries. As the individual headings of the subchapters suggest, it is possible to identify three main concepts: pre-modern childhood, childhood in the age of industrialization, and childhood

in postmodern society. Although Bubíková shows slightly more interest in the American reality, the image of childhood that is presented also holds true for children growing up in Britain.

In another two chapters (Chapter 7 and Chapter 9), Bubíková provides literary examples of her description of childhood in chapter 1. In Chapter 7, "Growing Up and the Quest for Identity," Bubíková explains that the image of the child represents a metaphor of newness and that forgetting one's biological parent and finding one's spiritual parent instead is a recurrent theme in American literature. This process is, however, complicated by some cultural and racial aspects described by Mona Chang, the first Chinese-American novelist, in *Mona in the Promised Land*. This novel is identified as an excellent example of the popularity of the Bildungsroman genre nowadays. The essay also illustrates how this novel addresses issues of ethnicity in American culture and explains why "going ethnic" has become so fashionable.

In Chapter 9, "Growing Up Postmodern," Bubíková looks at the versatile range of images of childhood in American literature which have appeared as responses to American reality. Her focus is, however, on the representation of children in a postmodern multicultural society. First she provides Nathan Glazer's theory of multiculturalism as a background for her interpretation of *The Crown of Columbus* by Michael Dorris and Louise Erdrich. She explores the character of postmodern childhood, which can be considered synonymous with childhood in a post-industrial society because children have become "independent consumers and participants in a separate semiautonomous culture" (134). The essay also examines how the novel exemplifies a typical element of multiculturalism: the revision of history (the story of Columbus). Another theme Bubíková identifies in the novel is the blending of cultures, which is demonstrated by the immersion of the main character in diverse cultural backgrounds. A child character plays a symbolic role in the novel because it can be considered a metaphor for cultural confluence.

Chapter 6, "Becoming Little Women," explores the autobiographical features in the novel Little Women, by Louisa May Alcott. It also describes the position and life of women in the 19th century. Štráchalová and Bubílková suggest that the title of the novel stems from the idea that girls were the seeds of future women. The transition from childhood to womanhood is seen as a struggle towards self-improvement. The focus is on the development of the narrator Jo, who has to overcome the rebellious nature of her character. Štráchalová and Bubíková consider the character of the mother Marmee an enlightened educator

and point out the unique qualities of this novel, which does not abound in sentimentality and preaching, unlike other novels written by Alcott's contemporaries.

Two chapters (Chapter 2 and Chapter 5) deal with very popular works of children's literature, Jungle Book and Harry Potter, however, they try to bring new and fresh views. Especially Chapter 2, "'My Heart is Heavy with the Things That I Do Not Understand': Initiation and Identity in Kipling's Mowgli Stories" by Patricie Ráčková shows an interesting analysis of Mowgli's Stories. This essay presents Mowgli's situation in the whole story as a problem of split identity and isolation and provides evidence of this statement. Mowgli's story is also interpreted on the basis of Hannah Arendt's work Life of the Mind. According to Arendt, *thinking* "inevitably implies double identity, its kernel being a dialog" (37) between oneself and oneself. Taking this approach into consideration, Ráčková understands Mowgli's monologues as an example of his double identity and an illustration of Arendt's concept of the *thinking self.*

In Chapter 5, "The Magic of the Real/the Real of the Magic in Harry Potter" Libora Oates-Indruchová aims to prove that the Harry Potter story is only seemingly set in a fantasy world. The structure and the themes indicate that Harry Potter represents the Bildungsroman genre. The essay examines elements typical of a moral story of growing up and points out its political commitment when the reader is required to take part in solving moral dilemmas.

In Chapter 3, "Growing up in Jane Gardam's Novels," Milada Franková examines aptly Jane Gardam's ability to respond to changing views on the topic of children's upbringing and education, especially how she managed to reflect the reaction against stiff Victorian mores and values and the changing attitudes to this issue in the 1960s, when the young protagonists fought against the limitations imposed on their freedom by their parents. This well-written essay analyzes three novels by Jane Gardam: *Bilgewater*, *God on the Roc*ks, and *Robinson's Daughter*, in which the years of growing up and maturity are viewed as a period during which a bright child negotiates with adult authority. The novels, which show how the mind of the child protagonist reflects and explores her surroundings, can be considered as a kind of Bildungsroman. Franková provides some examples of this genre and demonstrates how the theme of childhood and growing up was tackled in literature both in older and contemporary novels.

Although Petr Chalupecký's essay in Chapter 4, "Freedom, Spontainety [sic], Imagination and the Loss of Innocence – the Theme of Childhood in Ian McEwan's Fiction" deals with McEwan's novels written predominantly (with the exception of *The Daydreamer*) for adults, it brings such thought-provoking

analyses of the image of childhood that it deserves its place in this book. Chalupecký identifies social dysfunction as the common denominator of the first longer fictions. *The Cement Garden* centers on a dysfunctional family and shows that when children gain independence from parental authority they start acting spontaneously in an act of opposition to their father's tyrannical discipline. Chalupecký points out that the detached uninvolved narrative strategy (Jack's voice) enhances the dreamlike atmosphere and that the novel could be read as a variant of a psychological story of childhood and adolescence.

Chalupecký argues that the theme of the loss of a child in the novel *The Child in Time* means a physical loss as well as a metaphorical loss because adults cannot retain their childlike innocence, spontaneity, and curiosity. *The Daydreamer*, the only longer work written for children, is linked to McEwan's earlier works by its celebration of childhood as a time of freedom and anarchy. At the same time it also shares some themes that appear in *Atonement*, as both the novels have child protagonists who possess excessive imagination. Briony in *Atonement* is a very sensitive and imaginative child and when she can see that the traditional order she knows from her fairy-tale-like fictional world is being destroyed, she tries to restore it. Chalupecký points out that McEwan finds some similarity between spontaneous childhood and the process of writing, and in Briony's decision "to write an atonement" (61) he sees McEwan's personal "atonement to silence the strengthening voices of his critics" (61).

Another essay examines novels which were not written for children, but in which a child is a very attentive observer of the situation caused by the terrorist attacks. It is Chapter 10, "Motif of Childhood in the "9/11" Genre", which analyzes works in which the child characters' perception is important because, as it is stated, children try to make sense of the world of adults and thus they make "the familiar and everyday strange" (149). The child's imagination is responsible for the reversal of the roles of parent and child. This shift may suggest that there is a similarity between the behavior of children and that of an attacked state that strictly monitors everything that provokes people's imagination and thus fear. When Ewa Kowal interprets *Windows on the World* by Frédéric Beibeder, she points out that the fathers failed to play their roles and that children frequently live in a fantasy world because of comics, computer games etc. That is why they can believe that the plane crash that they observe from the top of the North Tower on 9/11 cannot be real.

The essay pays attention to some more novels dealing with the events of 9/11, in which children are a useful vehicle for thoughts: *Extremely Loud and*

Incredibly Close by Jonathan Sefran Foer, *Dear Zoe* by Philip Beard, and a meta-textual graphic novel by Art Spiegelman, *In the Shadow of the Tower* (presenting the tragedy of 9/11 as an analogy to the Holocaust). Kowal realizes that addressing the 9/11 tragedy directly means taking risks for the authors and that is why she considers their strategy of choosing child narrators, who are known to be unreliable, as a kind of insurance against this risk.

Chapter 8, "Killing of the (Inner) Child, Auto-American Biography and American Sublime in Joseph Heller's *Something Happened*," focuses on the significance of the Romantic Child image for the construction of the plot of Heller's novel *Something Happened*. Zofia Kolbuszewska explains how it relates to the figures of the narrator's historicized children. In the essay there are references to the concept of the Romantic child, to Freudian theory, and to Peter Brook's approach to narrative based on his reading of Freud's *Beyond the Pleasure Principle*, which makes the reading of this chapter quite difficult. The essay also discusses how Heller used a child figure as a device that moved his narrative forward and how the novel and its representation of the child are related to Heller's creation of America's representation of itself.

Overall, this multi-author monograph offers a highly valuable source of different approaches to literature. It makes readers realize how child protagonists can be used to move the action of the story forward and can provide interesting comments on society. The essays dealing with books written for children can also generate an interest in children's literature (which has been neglected in the past), as the authors of these essays showed that good books, though written for child readers, deal with themes that can enrich adult readers too.

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