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Research in Pedagogy is an international peer-reviewed journal, with an international editorial board. It is devoted to publishing research papers in different education related fields presenting findings of scientific research in pedagogy, before all, empirical, but also theoretical, applied, etc.

The journal is published with the aim of arousing interest in pedagogic research and opening up possibilities to test and critically consider the reaches and limitations of more recent theoretical approaches, models and strategies in upbringing and education according to research findings. One of the intentions is to inspire, strengthen and empower communication among researchers in the region, as well as across all European countries and worldwide, with the research findings being a bridge between theoretical concepts and practice, providing practitioners with the opportunity to investigate their own work themselves, thus getting closer to the model of reflective practitioners. Furthermore, the purpose of the journal is to serve the actors involved in the educational policies reform often grounded on arbitrary assessments and supported by weak empirical arguments; on the other hand, great social changes have in the last decades of transition been seeking for scientific explication of pedagogic strategies context.

Not less valuable aim is to incite theoretical reflections on methodological issues, i.e. to discuss meta-theoretical matters, philosophical grounds of paradigms in pedagogic research, the reaches and limitations of heterodox and orthodox paradigm, the possibility of their triangulation...

The journal Research in pedagogy is published by the Serbian Academy of Education in Belgrade (www.sao.org.rs) that organizes, develops and encourages scientific-research work in the field of education, with an emphasis on theoretical and empirical research of education as social activity, as well as teaching disciplines important for knowledge improvement. The members of the Serbian Academy of Education are acknowledged as scientists, researchers, university professors from Serbia, as well other European countries from various fields (pedagogy, sociology of education, psychology, mathematics, andragogy, technical sciences, economy, technology, physical education and biomechanics). The Preschool Teacher Training College “Mihailo Palov” in Vrsac (www.uskolavrsac.edu.rs) is the co-publisher of the journal. The college is a successor of
the institutions that used to train primary school and preschool teachers (Germans, Serbs, Romanians, Hungarians, Jews....) since the German Preparadia dating from 1954. The scientific activity of the College refers to the participation of its professors in both domestic and international projects, organization of international scientific conferences, publishing activity.

Only original scientific papers will be published in the Journal representing findings of qualitative and quantitative empirical research. It is issued twice a year (in December and June) bilingually (in the Serbian and the English language).
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References should follow the American Psychological Association (APA) style in alphabetical order. References should be cited in the text first alphabetically, then by date (e.g. Gojkov, 2010; Gojkov & Stojanovic, 2010; Stojanovic & Gojkov, 2011) and listed in alphabetical order in the reference section at the end of the manuscript. If there are three, four or five authors, all authors should be cited at the first mention. If the cited paper has more than five authors it should be cited like the first author + et al., but list the first six authors in the reference list. Use a comma between two references by the same author (e.g. Gojkov, 2000, 2002). When authors are mentioned in text, i.e. not in parentheses, do not use ampersand (e.g. As suggested by Gojkov and Stojanovic (2003), but NOT as has been shown by Stojanovic & Gojkov (2004)). When a specific page, section, equation, or other division of the work is cited, after the author's last name(s), and the year of publication, a specific page reference should be included (e.g. Gojkov, 2008, p. 5).

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Books

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- Author, A. A., Author, B. B., & Author, C. C. (year of publication). Title of a chapter. In A. A. Editor, B. B. Editor, & C. C. Editor (Eds.) [or only Ed. if one editor], *Title of the book* (pp. first page-last page). City/ies: Publisher.

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For papers reporting empirical research, state in brief: the primary objective (the research questions addressed or any hypothesis tested); the research design; the methods and procedures employed; the number of subjects; the main outcomes and results; the conclusions drawn from these data and results, including their implications for further research or application/practice. Please provide 3 to 5 key words or short phrases in alphabetical order after the abstract.

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All photographs, graphs and diagrams should be referred to as a Figure and they should be numbered as Figure 1, Figure 2, etc. Complete and descriptive titles of the figures should be put below the figure. Each table should be numbered as Table 1, Table 2, etc. Complete and descriptive titles of the tables should be put before the table. Tables and figures must be referred to in the text and numbered in order of their appearance.

Acknowledgements

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Appendices

Supplementary material should be collected in an Appendix.

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A proof will be sent to the corresponding author.
Abstract: The article discusses the impact of collegial cooperation of pre-school teachers on professional development of individuals as well as entire organizations aiming to learning community. The authors consider professional development of pre-school teachers as a process of “significant and life-long learning experiential learning in which individuals realize their concepts and change their practice. The process includes individual's personality, professional and social dimension and means development towards critical, independent and responsible decision-making and managing” (Valenčič Zuljan, 1999; 2001, 2008). According to the authors, pre-school teachers are professionals who possess sets of competencies that have been developed throughout the process of collegial cooperation and learning at different levels. The empirical part of the article presents the results of qualitative and quantitative research obtained on the sample of pre-school teachers and their assistants employed in public kindergartens in Slovenia. The authors emphasize impacts and forms of collegial cooperation within the kindergarten where pre-school teachers work. Estimations of impacts of interpersonal collegial cooperation in the kindergarten, the most desired forms of cooperation among teachers, knowledge and skills obtained with such cooperation and the effects on their professional development as well as factors that promote or hinder diverse forms of cooperation are presented.

Key words: pre-school teacher, professional development, collegial cooperation.

1 Professional development of pre-school teachers

Contemporary social conditions represent new professional challenges for educators. They are expected to act qualitatively at several levels, they should know how to work with children and their parents, colleagues and entire social environment; thus pre-school teachers are daily confronted with learning challenges and professional development. Professional development of pre-school teachers is defined as significant and life-long learning experiential learning in which individuals realize their concepts and change their practice. The process includes individual's personality, professional and social dimension and...
means development towards critical, independent and responsible decision-making and managing (Valenčič Zuljan, 1999; 2011, 2008).

Professional development of pre-school teachers depends, in addition to adequate training they received during studies also on new expert learning at all levels of professional activities of pre-school teachers with special emphasize on exchange of experiences and opinions. Quality collegial cooperation can represent a valuable motivation for innovations and reflective changes of teachers’ practice resulting in professional development of pre-school teachers. Therefore, student pre-school teachers should be aware of importance of professional development and reflective approach. Motivated workers who experience the importance of interpersonal cooperation for professional learning during the study would eagerly disseminate their experiences to colleagues outside their own kindergarten in spite of full workday and help to develop their kindergarten as an environment with positive climate and culture for professional development.

Professional development can be discussed in the narrow and broad sense. Tehart (1997, as cited in Valenčič Zuljan, 2001) emphasized that wider professional development of educators started with entry into the educational process and ends with retirement or leaving the profession. On the other hand, professional development of educators is limited with critical periods in which an individual really develops and advances. In some cases, educators do not advance for years, thus, it is important to distinguish between seniority and experiences, quantity and quality, etc.

Studying the professional development of teachers, we come across different approaches. Some researchers study phases of professional development and structures of so-called phase models (Fuller, 1969; Kagan, 1992; Katz, 1972; Berliner, 1992); others are interested in factors of development, while some others in forms and models of professional learning (Scheckley & Allen, 1991; Kolb, 1991).

Lian G. Katz (1972) studied professional development of pre-school teachers in the seventies of 20th century. She described the following four-phase time-based professional development of pre-school teachers:

1st phase: Survival. This is the first year of pre-school teacher’s employment. In this year, a pre-school teacher just looks forward to surviving. Here are some most important dilemmas. Can I survive a day without losing a child? Will I be able to work the whole life? Will colleagues accept me? In this phase of survival, a pre-school teacher needs a lot of support, understanding, stimulations and directions. More experienced pre-school teachers, head teachers and mentors can help and guide beginners.

2nd phase: Consolidation. At the end of the first year of employment, pre-school teachers find out that they can survive in the group of children. In the second phase of professional development, pre-school teachers pay attention to children with exceptional behaviour. Pre-school teachers wonder how to help a shy child or a child that does not want to learn. In this phase, a pre-school teacher needs mentor’s help. The mentor monitors teacher’s actions, later they discuss the problem, pre-school teacher’s experiences and they together find a solution. It is important that pre-school teachers
exchange experiences and ideas with more experienced colleagues and discuss their feelings that emerge from working with a group of children.

3rd phase: Renewal. Pre-school teachers often become tired of the routine after three or four years of work. They begin to wonder about new materials for work, new techniques, ideas, etc. During this phase of professional development, pre-school teachers want to collaborate with colleagues on regional and national level in formal and informal situations. They are interested in experiences of other pre-school teachers, conferences, interesting articles, expert films. Teachers are ready to record their own work and analyse the records in details. Pre-school teachers also look forward to visiting other departments, attend or organize workshops and learn about different programmes and projects. According to the author of the four-phase model, the third phase is important for pre-school teacher’s professional development, hence it represents the most active period in which most pre-school teachers intensively develop their skills, techniques and methods of work.

4th phase: Maturity. Some pre-school teachers reach the 4th phase in the third year of their professional work, while others need five or more years. The pre-school teacher in the fourth phase of professional development with rich experiences wonders if his occupation is a profession, if he as a pre-school teacher can change the society, and if his decisions and work have any effects on others. In this phase of professional development, pre-school teachers need opportunities to attend conferences and seminars. Pre-school teachers can professionally develop and advance from phase to phase only if they reflect their own experiences, i.e. they should enlighten them from various point of views and comprehend them entirely and, above all, exchange experiences and views with other pre-school teachers (Katz, 1972).

The above linear phase models of professional development reveal many questions. Are beginners such a homogenous group that the same principles of initial operation are valid for them? How and how much is professional development influenced by working environment, mentors...? Does the quality of environment have the same impact on all individuals, and do all individuals attain the highest degree of expertness, etc.? (ValenčičZuljan, BlanušaTrošelj, 2014). Some authors (Sheridan et al., 2009 p. 7) criticized phase models of professional development on one hand but on the other they follow them describing professional development of pre-school teachers over more levels.

We should be aware that formation of a model means generalization and schematization of essence because its main objective is to simplify basic factors and their relation within the research problem (ValenčičZuljan, 2008, 2012). Most of the models try to follow time dimension, consequently the quantitative approach is more stressed, for example length of service (Fuller, 1965 as cited in Kagan, 1992), while the quality of experiences that represents the basis of true decision-making and predicting of professional development is left apart.

The main objective of research is deep, complex and thoughtful knowledge of professional development. The research on professional development of pre-school teachers that describes development of professional competences and clears the roots of successful professional operation and learning (course, stimulation, obstacles, overcome
of obstacles) helps us to understand professional growth of pre-school teachers (ValenčičZuljan, BlanušaTrošelj, 2014).

We agree with critics of linear phase models of professional development that it is impossible to predict linear course of development that would be equal for all and would follow the same sequence owing to individual differences and differences of working environments and other personal factors. We think that professional learning means advancement in outlined directions according to outlined steps, which justifies the use of models of professional development to some extent. The study of expert literature on professional development of pre-school teachers and teachers leads us to conclusion that integrity and synthesis of specific phases of professional development are mostly met by branched-phase models (Sammons et al., 2007). These models somehow follow the sequence of steps from beginning to expertness and at the same time examine various factors and conditions of quality learning, taking into account specifics of environment and individuals in formation of multidirectional branch model of professional development.

2 The impact of collegial cooperation of pre-school teachers on professional development

Professional development of educators is subjected to cooperation with others; hence, educators are not left to themselves (ValenčičZuljan, 2001). NAEYC (1993) reports on nine directions of efficient professional development of pre-school teachers and highlights that professional development of pre-school teachers is efficient when it emerges from interactive approach that motivates participants to learn one from the other. Fullan and Hargreaves (2000 as cited in ValenčičZuljan, 2001 p. 133) emphasize the importance of interactive professionalism, meetings and teachers’ work in small groups in which pedagogical staff plan and test learning process, estimate its plus their own efficiency, and solve different expert problems. Interactivity means giving and accepting advice and help, along with contributions of individuals and groups to make such interaction the part of every day school climate.

Kohonen names educational institutions collegial communities (as cited in RutarIlc, 2006, p. 15) that set up area of confidence, supports and interpersonal exchange of opinions, ideas and experiences. He thinks that it is important to develop open and critical attitudes of pedagogical staff to their professional work, considering themselves as lifelong learners who reflect upon their own practice and develop new self-comprehension in real situations over reflection of critical past events. RutarIlc (2006) thinks that development of collegial community creates more space for individual growth in comparison to individual self-care. Even more, cooperation and exchange of opinions and experiences with colleagues denote self-awareness of educators as people and professionals, they learn to cooperate in different interactive processes, they comprehend group dynamics, analyse group processes and wonder about their own concepts, attitudes, strategies and practices (RutarIlc, 2006, p. 14).

Studies confirm that concepts (knowledge, learning, profession...) of pedagogical staff stand for an important segment of their professional equipment seeing that concepts
affect person’s recognition, thinking and handling (Valenčič Zuljan, 1999; 2007; 2008). “We understand concept as a personal, implicit construct formed in an individual’s personal history as a kind of sediment of his / her experiences and lessons learned from them, functioning like compasses in an individual’s life, which is demonstrated in qualitatively different ways of understanding, interpreting and acting in different individuals” (Valenčič Zuljan, 2007).

Valenčič Zuljan and Blanuša Trošelj (2014) find out in their research on concepts of pre-school teachers’ professional development that in pre-school teachers the lowest category of concepts of professional development prevails when non differentiated, simple concepts that do not show considerations of own learning process and its purpose are shown. The concepts, which indicate a certain degree of consideration of process of individual learning and consequences of individual’s professional change for his own teaching practice, have the lowest share. The knowledge of concepts represents the starting point of quality adult education. The authors emphasize that quality professional learning of learners from the first group requires more defined importance of certain education and professional learning for an individual so that each individual can feel the sense and long-term meaning. Certainly, not only explanation of contents of education is meant, but also formation of cognitive conflict in accordance to cognitive and constructive approaches, consequently learners can recognize the gap between their current knowledge and views on one hand, and knowledge and attitudes that are necessary for solving diverse professional situations on the other. Situations of cognitive conflict that are adapted to individuals and to solving, substantially depends on knowing learners’ concepts (Valenčič Zuljan, 2007). Professional development of pre-school teacher within formal education or in-service fulfilment of everyday professional tasks within institution depends on reflection of basic knowledge of quality learning in children, of pre-school teacher role, of needed knowledge and skills and their development, etc. Reflection can occur in different situations like mentoring to trainee, collegial mentoring or managers’ class observations. The most important fact is promotion of such climate that stimulates interpersonal learning of all members of community. Senge (1994, p. 6) points out to team work and team learning as important compounds of learning organization, seeing that knowledge of a group is greater than knowledge of an individual; furthermore, knowledge that is transferred into practice and to co-workers attributes to the functioning of entire organization and to development of programmes within the organization (Senge, 1990 as cited in Silins, Zaris and Mulford, 2002, p. 25).

Polak (2012) emphasizes that teams in kindergartens are not solely individuals that act together. Teams are group of people that operate homogeneously, and are integrated with the aim of achieving common objectives that cannot be qualitatively achieved by a lone expert worker in the kindergarten. Teamwork in the kindergarten embodies collaborative learning, common planning and interpersonal relations, open communication and sincere exchange of opinions. However, communication is the foundation of teamwork and includes speech, listening and feedback. It enables interpersonal social interaction within team and relations of team with environment (with children, colleagues, management, etc.), and therefore enables feedback on team’s work (Polak, 2012).
3 Definition of research problem and methodology

The aim of the research is to identify and analyse factors of collegial cooperation and professional learning of pre-school teachers. We are interested in experiences of interpersonal cooperation, desires for professional progression, self-estimation of professional efficiency (areas of eventual problems at expert work), innovations, in addition to changed working models, language skills and communication skills, knowledge of information and communication technology, managerial supports in relation to impacts such as service length, frequency of collegial cooperation, etc. We will investigate which forms of cooperation are most desired among pre-school teachers and how pre-school teachers estimate the knowledge they obtain over different forms of collegial cooperation. We would like to present their experiences obtained in international projects and their attitudes towards professional learning over the international cooperation of pedagogical staff.

In the research, we used descriptive and causal-nonexperimental educational research method. In the sample, we included pre-school teachers and their assistants who worked in 34 public kindergartens in different regions of Slovenia in the first or second age department. Seventy pre-school teachers were included into sample; three were male, along with 33 assistants to pre-school teachers, four of them being male. The largest part of included pre-school teachers and their assistants (44.7%) did not have title but they finished secondary school (41.7%) or high school (48.5%). Most of pre-school teachers and their assistants had 15 years of service and worked in the first or second age department. The sample was considered as an opportunistic sample. Data were generalized on a hypothetical basic group that was represented by all pre-school teachers and their assistants in the public kindergartens in Slovenia and were similar to pre-school teachers in our sample. Data were collected in May 2013. A questionnaire was composed for the research purposes.

For questions that concern interdependency, chi-square was calculated. In the questions where conditions for chi-square calculation were not fulfilled we calculated Kullback’s 2I divergence and mentioned it in the interpretation. Data were processed by SPSS (14.0) software package.

4 Results and interpretation

4.1 Impacts that promote and hinder collegial cooperation of pre-school teachers in the kindergarten where they work

The collegial cooperation of pre-school teachers within the kindergarten is affected by numerous factors. We were of interest how pre-school teachers estimated the impact of head teacher, leader of department and colleagues, as well as their own impacts from the point of view of promotion of collegial cooperation. We wanted to find out if they considered the stated impacts as impetus or obstacles to collegial cooperation within their kindergarten.
Table 1: The structure of impacts that promote or hinder the collegial cooperation of pre-school teachers within the kindergarten where they work (N=103)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>IMPACTS OF COLLABORATION</th>
<th>WITHIN THE KINDERGARTEN</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>OBSTACLE</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>fz</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Head teacher</td>
<td>13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Department leader</td>
<td>18</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Colleagues</td>
<td>11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Own need or desire</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

We expose that participants estimate all four impacts as positive, i.e. as promoting. According to 86.5% of participants, head teacher promotes collegial cooperation within the kindergarten. Similar results are obtained for department leaders whose support for collegial cooperation in the kindergarten is noticed by 82% of pre-school teachers. Colleagues represent an impetus for collegial cooperation for 89% of pre-school teachers. It is interesting that the largest share belongs to “own need or desire”, 90% of participants think that they cooperate with colleagues in the kindergarten because of their own desire and backup.

4.2 Prevailing forms of collegial cooperation of pre-school teachers within the kindergarten where they work

The second research question deals with the forms of collegial cooperation that prevail among pre-school teachers within Slovenian kindergartens. We supposed that pre-school teachers collaborated with their colleagues at educational conferences and expert actives. Due to too low frequencies the five set scale of frequency of implementation or forms of collegial cooperation was merged into three groups: 1 = never and 2 = rarely into the group rarely and never, respectively; 3 into occasionally, and 4 = often and 5 = very often into the group often.
The achieved results show that a high share of participants (from 60 % to 90 %) often implement or participate in the following forms of collegial cooperation within their kindergarten: team cooperation in expert active within the kindergarten (88 %); participation in seminars organized by kindergarten where they work (79 %); implementation and leading of projects within the kindergarten (83 %), and participation at educational conferences within the kindergarten (66 %). Nearly half of the pre-school teachers (45 %) often exchange information with critical friends, i.e. their colleagues; 22 % participants often get manager’s class observations. It can be noticed that some forms of collegial cooperation of pre-school teachers within the kindergarten are performed only occasionally and rarely or never. Hence, manager’s class observations are performed according to 44 % of pre-school teachers and rarely or never according to 34 % of pre-school teachers. Occasional information exchange with critical friends within the kindergarten is reported by 41 % of pre-school teachers while 59 % of participants do not use this form of information exchange. We would like to focus on educational conferences, which are a form of cooperation among pre-school teachers within the kindergarten according to 23 % participants while other 11 % of pre-school teachers report that this form of cooperation is rarely or never performed in the kindergarten.

4.2 The impact of forms of collegial cooperation in the kindergarten on professional development of pre-school teachers

The first research question displays that for most of pre-school teachers their own need or desire represents an important impact that stimulates collegial cooperation within the kindergarten. The emergence of need or desire depends on pre-school teachers’ feelings about cooperation. Further, we want to find out how pre-school teachers estimate the effects of some forms of collegial cooperation on their work in the department.
with learning, reasoning and professional development. We ask pre-school teachers to estimate how each of the forms of collegial cooperation on 3-set scale affects their professional development. Mark 1 means unimportant impact, 2 an important impact and 3 a very important impact on pre-school teachers’ professional development.

Table 2: Estimations of some forms of collegial cooperation of pre-school teachers on their professional development within the kindergarten where they work

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Forms of collegial cooperation</th>
<th>Unimportant</th>
<th>Important</th>
<th>Very important</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Colleagues’ class observations within the kindergarten</td>
<td>1, 7</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4, 5, 6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Manager’s class observations</td>
<td>1, 7</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4, 5, 6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Educational conferences in the kindergarten</td>
<td>1, 3</td>
<td>4, 8</td>
<td>5, 6, 103</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Participation in the projects within the kindergarten</td>
<td>0, 19</td>
<td>20, 21</td>
<td>22, 51, 17, 49, 5, 103</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teamwork in the expert active</td>
<td>1, 25</td>
<td>26, 27</td>
<td>28, 69, 29, 30, 79, 6, 103</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Seminars within the kindergarten</td>
<td>1, 31</td>
<td>32, 33</td>
<td>34, 71, 35, 68, 9, 103</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Feedback from critical friends among colleagues</td>
<td>1, 37</td>
<td>38, 39</td>
<td>40, 65, 41, 63, 1, 103</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>1, 43</td>
<td>44, 45</td>
<td>46, 47, 48, 103</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The obtained results show that most of participating pre-school teachers (79.6 %) find teamwork in the expert actives as very important factor of their professional development. Comparing our results with the results of the research on the impact of various factors on teachers’ professional development that included a sample of teachers and head teachers from primary schools in Republic of Slovenia we can notice similar results. Teachers estimated teamwork in the expert actives on the 5-set scale as very important for their professional development (Valenčič Zuljan, Klander and Sešek, 2009). Seminars in the kindergarten are very important for professional development for 68.9 % of pre-school teachers and 67 % of pre-school teachers estimate the participation in the projects within the kindergarten as very important. For 63.1 % of pre-school teachers feedback from critical friends is very important while nearly half of the participants (49.5 %) think that educational conferences within the kindergarten are very important. An important impact on pre-school teachers’ professional development has colleagues’ class observations in the kindergarten (65 %), while for 55.3 % of pre-school teachers manager’s class observations are also important. Comparing our results with the results obtained in the research on teachers, we notice that manager’s class observations and educational conferences have no impacts on professional development of participating teachers.
Participation in the projects and colleagues’ class observations have very important impact on pre-school teachers as well as on teachers (Valenčič Zuljan, Klander and Sešek, 2009).

4.3 The impact of some forms of collegial cooperation of pre-school teachers within the kindergarten where they work on their professional development referring to service length

This research question is oriented to the estimations of pre-school teachers with different service length of some forms of collegial cooperation within the kindergarten where they work. We formed three groups on the base of service length, namely the group of pre-school teachers with 5 or less years of service, the group of pre-school teachers with 6 to 15 years of service and pre-school teachers with more than 16 years of service.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Service</th>
<th>5 years and less</th>
<th>6 – 15 years</th>
<th>16 years and more</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Unimportant</td>
<td>Important</td>
<td>Very Important</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Forms of collegial cooperation in the kindergarten</strong></td>
<td>f (%)</td>
<td>f (%)</td>
<td>f (%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Colleagues’ class observations with in the kindergarten</td>
<td>8,5</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>44</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Manager’s class observations</td>
<td>10,6</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>46,8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Educational conferences in the kindergarten</td>
<td>4,2</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>40,4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Participation in the projects within the kindergarten</td>
<td>0,0</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>29,8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teamwork in the expert group</td>
<td>2,1</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>19,2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Seminars within the kindergarten</td>
<td>0,0</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>35,5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Feedback from critical friends among colleagues</td>
<td>2,1</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>40,4</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Results</th>
<th>χ² (2)</th>
<th>P</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Colleagues’ class observations with in the kindergarten</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>0.69</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Manager’s class observations</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>0.79</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Educational conferences in the kindergarten</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>0.34</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Participation in the projects within the kindergarten</td>
<td>4,53</td>
<td>0.53</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teamwork in the expert group</td>
<td>3,12</td>
<td>0.72</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Seminars within the kindergarten</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>0.64</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Feedback from critical friends among colleagues</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>0.36</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*g=4

Table 3: Estimations of some forms of collegial cooperation of pre-school teachers within the kindergarten where they work on their professional development referring to service length (N=103)
Pre-school teachers' answers to the question about the estimation of the impact of some forms of collegial cooperation within the kindergarten where they work on their professional development with regard to their service showed as follows. Participants in the research that are **5 years or less** in service estimate teamwork in the expert active as very important for their professional development (78.7 %); following by seminars within the kindergarten (74.5 %), participation in the projects within the kindergarten (70.2 %); feedback from critical friends among colleagues (57.4 %) and educational conferences within the kindergarten (55.4 %). An important effect on professional development for 62.7 % of participants with 5 years and less of service has colleagues’ class observations within the kindergarten, while nearly half of the pre-school teachers (42.6 %) think that manager’s class observations have also an important impact. Most of pre-school teachers that are in service from **6 to 15 years** think that teamwork in the expert active has a very important impact on their professional development (81.6 %), following by feedback from critical friends among colleagues (71.0 %), participation in the projects within the kindergarten (65.8 %), seminars within the kindergarten (65.8 %), and educational conferences within the kindergarten (52.7 %). More than half of the participants with 6 to 15 years of service estimate manager’s class observations as important for their professional development (63.2 %) following by colleagues’ class observations within the kindergarten (63.2 %). Pre-school teachers with **16 years and more** of service think that teamwork in the expert active is very important for their professional development (77.7 %), following by seminars within the kindergarten (61.1 %), participation in the projects within the kindergarten (61.1 %) and feedback from critical friends among colleagues (61.1 %). 77.7 % of participants with 16 years and more of service estimate colleagues’ class observations within the kindergarten as important; 72.2 % of pre-school teachers estimate as important manager’s class observations, and 66.7 % of pre-school teachers find important educational conferences within the kindergarten. Impacts of some forms of collegial cooperation on professional development of pre-school teachers with regard to their years of service are not statistically significant in most of the forms of collegial cooperation, which is shown in the table where $\chi^2$-values are calculated or in the cases where all conditions of Kullback’s divergence are not fulfilled. In manager’s class observations ($2I = 10.29; \; g = 4; \; P = 0.04$) in our research among pre-school teachers with different years of service statistically significant differences are shown concerning estimations of mentioned forms of collegial cooperation within the kindergarten where they work on their professional development. In all other forms of collegial cooperation, these differences are not statistically significant. Research show that pre-school teachers with 15 years and less of service find manager’s class observations more important for their professional development in comparison to pre-school teachers with 16 years and more of service. Head teacher’s class observations have very important impact on pre-school teachers’ professional development for 46.8 % of pre-school teachers with 5 years and less of service, for 31.6 % of pre-school teachers with 6 to 15 years of service and only for 11.1 % of pre-school teachers with 16 years and more of service. Concerning the obtained results we are of the opinion that some educators do not find managers’ class observations and feedback helpful for their learning and evaluation of own work as well as motivation for further professional development. Manager’s class observations might induce fear and concern in pre-school teachers, because they worry about their presentation and feedback, which is even more
evident in pre-school teachers with more years of service. It is very important that head teachers plan their class observations properly and that class observations become an important element of lifelong pre-school teachers’ professional development as well as of kindergarten as a learning community, in which knowledge and skills are developed through attending and directing pre-school teachers’ work from the beginning to the end of their service.

5 Conclusion

In the kindergarten, different forms of cooperation of pre-school teachers are very important because new knowledge, experiences and competent models are introduced for all employees. When pre-school teachers disseminate their experiences in their departments along with problems, ideas and innovations they can develop personally and professionally, which further on enables development of the staff and kindergarten as a learning community. Interpersonal learning or learning from each other does not mean that we just gain the knowledge but also that we are the source of knowledge for others. Collegial cooperation enables information exchange among employees and discovery of covered knowledge that individuals possess and can be transferred as good practice among pre-school teachers in the kindergartens all over the country. Cooperation cannot be limited to colleagues within an institution; even more, pedagogical staff are constantly facing with new roles that require more connections and cooperation with other institutions and cross-border mobility of educators. Intensive cooperation among participants, process of exchange and comments on ideas bring new solutions and inspirations resulting in new knowledge.

Pre-school teachers can achieve mutual aims with interpersonal cooperation and support. Each member can imply his knowledge and abilities and learn from colleagues things he does not know. Most important are ideas, motivation, interpersonal help and solving of problems that emerge from work of an individual and institution in various forms of interpersonal cooperation. Our research shows that pre-school teachers most often experience collegial cooperation within the kindergartens where they work in expert actives, projects that are in progress in their kindergartens, seminars that are organized by their kindergarten and educational conferences. Colleagues’ class observations as well as managers’ are rare. All other forms of collegial cooperation are rarely or never performed. Results are not surprising; nevertheless, we are of the opinion that managers should stimulate diverse forms of collegial cooperation and thus disseminate new knowledge and innovations, which will certainly help to use the potentials, exchange of experiences and ideas for educational work and continuous professional development of employees. The stimulation of collegial cooperation requires profound study of impacts that promote or hinder the mentioned cooperation among pre-school teachers. Bearing in mind the fact that decision about collegial cooperation depends on individual and his desire or motivation, the support of colleagues and managers should ensue. Our research shows that most of pre-school teachers are motivated for cooperation with colleagues within the kindergarten where they work and they dowish to cooperate. The analysis of the results indicates
that colleagues, head teachers and department leaders motivate pre-school teachers for such cooperation. We are aware that obtained results are demonstrations of personal estimations and events of participating pre-school teachers and their own motivation and support of colleagues for cooperation. Individual’s encounter of support has an important influence on decision about participating in various forms of education, collegial activities, innovation projects, class observations, etc. Teachers’ attitudes towards various forms of education or cooperation depend on usefulness and novelties for their teaching practice and consequently significantly affect their decision about collegial cooperation. Our results of manager’s class observations reveal that estimations of forms of education and cooperation are affected by length of service besides teacher’s experiences, climate and culture of organization and method of management of kindergarten. It has been demonstrated that pre-school teachers with shorter service estimate the impact of experiences that are gained in class observations on their professional development as more important than pre-school teachers with longer period of service. Our research also show that most of pre-school teachers estimate teamwork in expert activities, feedback from critical friends among colleagues, participation in seminars within the kindergarten, participation in projects within the kindergarten and participation at educational conferences as very important for their professional development.

The analysis of received responses implies that formal as well as non-formal forms of collegial cooperation among employed pre-school teachers in Slovenian kindergartens are desired forms of cooperation. The mentioned forms of cooperation ought to be stimulated in future in larger extent at regional, national and international level. Collegial cooperation of pre-school teachers as an important impact of professional development of pre-school teachers could prosper in Slovenian kindergartens if pre-school teachers on one side and managers on the other create such culture in which collegial cooperation is a desired form of lifelong learning and thus kindergarten could develop into a learning organization.

Biographical note:

Milena Valenčič Zuljan earned a PhD in pedagogy at the Faculty of Arts, University of Ljubljana, in 1999. She works as a full professor in didactics at the Faculty of Education, University of Ljubljana. She runs various teacher development seminars and publishes research articles dealing with teachers' professional development, factors influencing teacher innovation, mentoring, student and teacher conceptions of instruction, learner activity in instruction, the cognitive-constructivist model of instruction and action research.

Sabina Krajnc graduated pedagogy and history at the Faculty of Arts, University of Ljubljana, in 2009. In 2014 she ended second cycle master study programme of preschool education at the Faculty of Education, University of Ljubljana. She works as a teacher at primary school where she teaches children with special needs. At the Faculty of Education, University of Ljubljana she works as assistant professor in didactic where she runs seminar exercises for students.
Abstract: This work is based on the fact that the problem of the (lack of) pupil’s motivation for learning chemistry has been explored insufficiently. Thus, the aim of this study is to review the impact of different dimensions of motivation on achievement in chemistry. The sample consisted of 236 grammar school pupils attending the third grade. The results showed that there is a significant positive correlation between grades in chemistry and pupil's motivation. The identified fact that individuals with high perceived self-efficiency in learning have higher achievements is part of a range of evidence that pupil’s motivation makes a reliable predictor of academic success. The data obtained are instructive for practitioners in education because they clearly suggest that there is a need for promoting academic motivation among pupils. Some of the ways to realize this goal are strengthening the sense of self-efficiency, facilitating the implementation of active learning strategies, connecting teaching content of chemistry with practical application of knowledge, and focusing pupils on learning rather than on the achievement.

Keywords: motivation, teaching chemistry, achievement in chemistry, self-efficiency.

Introduction

The amount of theories on motivation indicates the complexity of the phenomenon of motivation as well as the existence of a large number of factors affecting the (lack of) pupil’s motivation. The theoretical basis of this paper for studying motivation for learning chemistry consists of a combination of the constructivist learning theory and the motivation theory according to which the pupils' perceived self-efficiency, the use of active learning strategies, appreciating chemistry as a science, individual learning goal, as well as individual's environment are all important motivational factors (Hsiao-Lin Tuan et al. 2005). Bandura defines the perceived self-efficacy as the individual's assessment of his own capabilities of organizing and realizing the actions necessary to achieve the desired goals (Bandura, 1997). The individual's confidence in his own efficiency affects the
cognitive, motivational and affective processes, the direction of actions selected, and the choice of challenges and goals. Self-efficacy is the basis of determining the amount of invested efforts and expected outcomes (Bandura, 1997, 2001). Lack of awareness of pupils’ own cognitive capacities may limit their abilities to function in situations that require identifying and using new learning strategies (Mirkov, 2005). Pupils with high self-efficacy believe that they are able to realize the given task. To fulfill the requirements they are faced with, they apply different learning strategies that are largely conditioned by motivation. To stimulate pupil’s learning motivation it is very important to apply an open and problem-oriented approach towards learning, which should be related to his interests and nature of his curiosity (Nikčević, Milković, 2004). When applying active learning strategies, pupil takes an active role in the use of different strategies for acquiring and understanding new knowledge based on the previous one (Hsiao-Lin Tuan et al. 2005). The term "active learning" has been approached by different authors in different ways, depending on the context. In this study, the starting point is the comprehensive definition of active learning, according to which active learning involves various thought activities that occur in the interaction with teachers, other pupils, or as a result of the pupils' independent efforts (Milin, 2012).

When facing with tasks perceived as valuable and meaningful pupils are drawn by them investing higher intellectual effort to reach the goal. However, when they fail to see any value in the task, they use a surface approach to learning, such as memorizing (Pintrich & Schunk, 1996). It can be argued that teaching chemistry requires developing pupils' ability to solve problems, encouraging them to think, and emphasizing the importance of science in everyday life. This will make pupils more motivated to learn chemistry.

The scope of pupil’s participation in learning process depends on whether his motivation is focused on learning or achievement. Depending on his motivation, different learning outcomes can be interrelated – not just school success, but also feelings about school, use of learning strategies, experience of efficiency, and affective responses to success and failure (Mirkov, 2008). When pupils set achievement as a goal, they are struggling to get a positive assessment for their work, demonstrate their superiority in order to receive a positive assessment for their competence, or avoid negative assessments or evaluations by others (Mirkov, 2008; Vizek Vidović et al. 2003). Thus, learning the teaching content is a means to achieve the goal (Mirkov, 2008). Learning-oriented pupils believe that the main objective of schooling is to master the task and achieve competences in what is taught in school, improve the own knowledge, master the teaching content, i.e. understand the material (Vizek Vidović et al. 2003; Mirkov, 2008). Therefore, learning the teaching content is believed to be a self-contained goal (Mirkov, 2008). The focus on achievement leads to the application of superficial and short-term learning strategies: pupils are focused on being better than the others, as well as superficial properties of the task instead of thinking of how to understand the material and relate it to what they already know (Vizek Vidović et al. 2003).

To help pupils focus on learning, teachers should convince them that the true purpose of education is knowledge, rather than just getting high grades. This can be achieved by emphasizing the practical importance of studied material and reducing the importance of grades and other kinds of awards. Using challenging and meaningful exercises that are
related to everyday life encourages pupils to embrace the idea of focusing on learning procedure instead of achievement (Vizek Vidović et al. 2003).

Research methodology

The aim of the study is to investigate the relation between the pupils' motivation for learning chemistry and their achievement in chemistry (as measured by obtained grades and the achievement on a knowledge test), as well as to examine the differences in pupils' motivation as a function of gender and the parents' level of education. The basic assumption of this paper is that there is a positive correlation between the pupils' motivation for learning chemistry and their achievements, and that differences in pupils' motivation are statistically insignificant regarding the variables of 'gender' and 'parents' level of education'.

Research instruments

Two instruments were applied in the study. The pupils' motivation for learning chemistry was measured using the SMTSL questionnaire (Student's motivation toward science learning; Hsiao-Lin Tuan et al. 2005), which has been adapted for the purpose of this research. The questionnaire applied in this study contains 29 items which measures five dimensions of motivation for learning chemistry in school based on their self-assessment. These dimensions are defined as self-efficiency, active learning strategy, appreciation of importance of chemistry as a science, achievement-oriented motivation and learning-orientated motivation. Pupils responded by circling a number on a five-point scale ranging from strongly agree (coded 5) to strongly disagree (coded 1). As argued by the authors of the questionnaire (Hsiao-Lin Tuan et al. 2005), the SMTSL questionnaire has high internal consistency (Cronbach's alpha coefficient: 0.89). In this study, the value of the calculated Cronbach's alpha coefficient is 0.91. Metric properties of scales that correspond to specific dimensions of motivation for learning chemistry are shown in Table 1.

Table 1: Metric properties of scales

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>minimum</th>
<th>maximum</th>
<th>mean</th>
<th>standard deviation</th>
<th>asymmetry coefficient</th>
<th>coefficient of skewness</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>self-efficiency</td>
<td>9.00</td>
<td>35.00</td>
<td>24.94</td>
<td>6.22</td>
<td>-0.48</td>
<td>-0.55</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>active learning</td>
<td>13.00</td>
<td>40.00</td>
<td>30.92</td>
<td>6.06</td>
<td>-0.79</td>
<td>0.13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>appreciating chemistry</td>
<td>5.00</td>
<td>25.00</td>
<td>16.76</td>
<td>4.39</td>
<td>-0.38</td>
<td>-0.13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>achievement orientation</td>
<td>4.00</td>
<td>20.00</td>
<td>15.08</td>
<td>2.84</td>
<td>-0.79</td>
<td>0.92</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>learning orientation</td>
<td>5.00</td>
<td>25.00</td>
<td>21.37</td>
<td>3.56</td>
<td>0.82</td>
<td>-0.96</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

For the purpose of this research a knowledge test has been created of inorganic chemistry in order to investigate the possibility of predicting pupil achievement based on their motivation. The test consisted of seventeen questions and covered the material presented according to the current curriculum for the second grade of grammar school –
natural science studies. The weight of the knowledge test applied is average \((\text{AS} = 7.90, \text{SD} = 3.84)\). Descriptive indicators of the test are shown in Table 2.

Table 2: Descriptive indicators of the knowledge test in inorganic chemistry

<p>| | |</p>
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Mean</td>
<td>7.90</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Median</td>
<td>7.50</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Standard deviation</td>
<td>3.84</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Minimum</td>
<td>1.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Maximum</td>
<td>16.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Skewness</td>
<td>0.29</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kurtosis</td>
<td>-0.84</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(\alpha)</td>
<td>0.78</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Normality of distribution of the obtained results using the above instruments has been assessed based on indicators of skewness and kurtosis. Since these values are in the appropriate range, the assumption of normal distribution has been confirmed (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007).

Sample

The sample included 236 third grade high school pupils during the school year 2013/2014, from seven grammar schools with curricula comprising general science teaching subjects as well as natural science teaching subjects from the territory of Novi Sad, Sremska Mitrovica, Stara Pazova and Novi Bečej. There were 98 (41.5%) males, and 138 (58.5%) females.

Statistical analysis

The relationship and predictive value of motivation in terms of the pupils' performance on the knowledge test in inorganic chemistry has been examined using regression analysis. The structure of differences in motivation between the groups formed based on the variable of 'grade in chemistry' has been investigated using discriminant analysis. Gender-related differences in levels of motivation were investigated using the t-test for independent samples, while differences in motivation as a function of parent's level of education were studied using one-factor analysis of variance. The above analyses were conducted using the IBM SPSS Statistics 20 software package.

Research results

The level of pupil motivation for learning chemistry

The data collected on motivation for learning chemistry, measured through five dimensions of motivation, were subjected to descriptive analysis. The main results of this analysis, transformed into comparable values are shown in Table 3.
Table 3: Descriptive indicators of motivation for learning chemistry

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>dimension of motivation</th>
<th>M</th>
<th>SD</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>self-efficiency</td>
<td>3.56</td>
<td>0.89</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>active learning</td>
<td>3.86</td>
<td>0.76</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>appreciating chemistry</td>
<td>3.35</td>
<td>0.88</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>achievement orientation</td>
<td>3.77</td>
<td>0.71</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>learning orientation</td>
<td>4.27</td>
<td>0.71</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

As indicated by the results, pupils’ motivation measured with five dimensions is in the range from 3.35 for the dimension of appreciation of chemistry as a science, to 4.27 for the dimension of learning-oriented motivation. At the individual level, items with the lowest scores are "I think studying chemistry is important because I use it in everyday life" and "I think studying chemistry is important because it's thought-provoking." The highest scoring item is, "I feel satisfied when I am sure of my knowledge."

Comparing motivation based on the variable of 'gender'

Descriptive indicators of the levels of pupils' motivation for learning chemistry along the variable 'gender' are shown in Table 4. The sample (236 pupils) consists of 98 male and 138 female pupils. Using the t-test for independent samples, results obtained for motivation of male and female pupils were compared.

Table 4: Descriptive indicators of pupil motivation as a function of variable 'gender'

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>dimension of motivation</th>
<th>gender</th>
<th>M</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>standard error</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>self-efficiency</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>25.43</td>
<td>6.57</td>
<td>0.66</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>2</td>
<td>24.59</td>
<td>5.95</td>
<td>0.51</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>active learning</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>30.00</td>
<td>6.76</td>
<td>0.68</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>2</td>
<td>31.58</td>
<td>5.44</td>
<td>0.46</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>appreciating chemistry</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>16.22</td>
<td>4.42</td>
<td>0.44</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>2</td>
<td>17.14</td>
<td>4.34</td>
<td>0.37</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>achievement orientation</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>14.91</td>
<td>2.95</td>
<td>0.30</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>2</td>
<td>15.19</td>
<td>2.76</td>
<td>0.23</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>learning orientation</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>20.61</td>
<td>4.01</td>
<td>0.40</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>2</td>
<td>21.91</td>
<td>3.10</td>
<td>0.26</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

1- males; 2 - females

The results obtained using the t-test showed that there is a significant difference in motivation between male and female pupils along the dimension of learning-oriented motivation (Table 5). Also, there is an observable marginal significance along the dimension of active learning.

Table 5: Results of t-test for independent samples

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>dimension of motivation</th>
<th>Levene's test (r)</th>
<th>t</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>p</th>
<th>standard error</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>self-efficiency</td>
<td>0.05</td>
<td>1.02</td>
<td>234</td>
<td>0.31</td>
<td>0.82</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The significance level of Levene's test (Table 5) is lower than 0.05 along the dimensions of active learning and learning-orientation. The above fact indicates that groups formed on the basis of variable 'gender' are not uniform. Therefore, the assumption of equality of variance is not satisfied. However, the program calculates an alternative value, compensating for the fact of variance inequality. Values obtained in this way are shown in Table 5. However, in order to test the obtained statistical significance, the nonparametric Mann-Whitney test has been applied, which has confirmed the existence of statistical significance along the dimension of learning-orientation (Table 6).

Table 6: The Man-Whitney test of differences of motivation between male and female pupils

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>active learning</th>
<th>learning orientation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Mann-Whitney</td>
<td>5915.50</td>
<td>5508.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Z</td>
<td>-1.64</td>
<td>-2.45</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>p</td>
<td>0.10</td>
<td>0.01</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

As indicated by data provided in Table 6, differences identified in motivation along the dimension of learning-orientation between male (Md = 105.70, N = 98) and female (Md = 127.59, N = 138) pupils using the Mann-Whitney test are in favour of female pupils.

Differences in pupils' motivation by grades in chemistry

The relation between pupils' motivation for learning chemistry was investigated using the correlation coefficient along the total number of respondents – 221 (Table 7).

Table 7: Correlation coefficient along the dimensions of motivation and grades in chemistry

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>grade in chemistry</th>
<th>self-efficacy</th>
<th>active learning</th>
<th>appreciating chemistry</th>
<th>achievement orientation</th>
<th>learning orientation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>0.57**</td>
<td>0.30**</td>
<td>0.23**</td>
<td>0.25**</td>
<td>0.06*</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*\(p < 0.05\); **\(p < 0.01\)

A high positive correlation (Pallant, 2011) has been calculated between grades in chemistry and the perceived self-efficacy. A low positive correlation (Pallant, 2011) has been obtained along the dimensions of active learning, appreciation of chemistry and achievement-orientation.

Results of the discriminant analysis aimed at examining the structure of difference in motivation between groups formed on the basis of grades in chemistry are presented in Table 8.
Table 8a: Results of discriminant analysis

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>function</th>
<th>Wilks’ lambda</th>
<th>$\chi^2$</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>p</th>
<th>$R_c$</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>0.64</td>
<td>97.37</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>0.00</td>
<td>0.59</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>0.97</td>
<td>5.72</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>0.68</td>
<td>0.13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>0.99</td>
<td>1.98</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>0.57</td>
<td>0.10</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 8b: Structure matrix

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>dimension of motivation</th>
<th>correlation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>self-efficiency</td>
<td>0.95</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>active learning</td>
<td>0.32</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>appreciating chemistry</td>
<td>0.45</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>achievement orientation</td>
<td>-0.01</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>learning orientation</td>
<td>0.21</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 8c: Group centroids

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>grade of respondents</th>
<th>function 1</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>-0.94</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>-0.72</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>0.07</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>0.82</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Based on the results shown in Table 8a, it is obvious that one discriminant function is significant at level of $p < 0.01$, while the coefficient of canonical correlation shows a high correlation, $R_c = 0.59$. As indicated by the structure matrix (Table 8b), the function is the most saturated by scores on scales of self-efficiency, appreciation of chemistry and active learning. Group centroids point to the fact that pupils with grade 5 have achieved the highest scores on the discriminant function (Table 8c).

Correlation between pupils’ motivation and achievement in inorganic chemistry

Correlation between motivation and achievement in chemistry, as measured by the knowledge test of inorganic chemistry has been studied using regression analysis.

Table 9: Regression analysis: pupils’ motivation in predicting achievement in inorganic chemistry

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>$R$</th>
<th>$R^2$</th>
<th>adapted $R^2$</th>
<th>standard error</th>
<th>$F$</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>$p$</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>model 1</td>
<td>0.39</td>
<td>0.15</td>
<td>0.13</td>
<td>3.58</td>
<td>8.09</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>0.230</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Results show that 13% of the variance in criteria has been explained based on the set of predictors (five dimensions of motivation).

Table 10: Partial contributions of achievement predictors in inorganic chemistry

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>dimension of motivation</th>
<th>$\beta$</th>
<th>t</th>
<th>$p$</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>self-efficiency</td>
<td>0.21</td>
<td>2.43</td>
<td>0.02</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
After examining the partial contributions of predictors (Table 10), it can be clearly seen that self-efficiency ($\beta = 0.32, p < 0.01$) significantly contributes to the prediction of achievement in inorganic chemistry, while the significance of active learning strategies is marginal. Other dimensions of motivation were statistically insignificant predictors of pupils’ achievement in inorganic chemistry.

**Differences in levels of motivation as a function of parents' level of education**

Differences in levels of pupils’ motivation as a function of parents' level of education were examined using the single factor analysis of variance (ANOVA). The obtained results using the above statistical analysis are presented in Table 11.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Dimension of motivation</th>
<th>Levene's test (r)</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>df1</th>
<th>df2</th>
<th>p</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>self-efficiency</td>
<td>0.45</td>
<td>0.58</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>231</td>
<td>0.63</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>active learning</td>
<td>0.40</td>
<td>0.40</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>231</td>
<td>0.75</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>appreciating chemistry</td>
<td>0.22</td>
<td>0.88</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>231</td>
<td>0.45</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>achievement orientation</td>
<td>0.86</td>
<td>0.84</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>231</td>
<td>0.47</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>learning orientation</td>
<td>0.13</td>
<td>2.63</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>231</td>
<td>0.05</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

As shown by the results, there is a statistically significant difference along the dimension of motivation of learning-oriented pupils between groups formed based on mother’s level of education. In terms of mother’s level of education, pupils were divided into the following groups: Group 1 – mothers with maximum primary education; Group 2 – mothers with maximum secondary education; Group 3 – mothers with maximum university education; Group 4 – mothers with postgraduate education. The results of subsequent comparisons of pupils’ motivation conducted using the Tukey HSD test are shown in Table 12.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Pupil groups</th>
<th>Mean differences</th>
<th>Standard error</th>
<th>p</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>-0.62</td>
<td>1.79</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>0.79</td>
<td>1.79</td>
<td>0.97</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>0.13</td>
<td>1.84</td>
<td>1.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>1.43</td>
<td>0.51</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>0.77</td>
<td>0.66</td>
<td>0.64</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>-0.66</td>
<td>0.65</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Subsequent comparisons using the Tukey HSD test (Table 12) indicate that the mean difference between pupils from Group 2 – mothers with maximum secondary education ($M = 22.14, SD = 2.87$) and Group 3 – mothers with maximum higher or university education, ($M = 20.71, SD = 3.87$) is statistically significant.
Differences in motivation for learning chemistry as a function of father's level of education were identified using the same statistical analyses as in the previous case, and the results are shown in Tables 13 and 14.

| Table 13: Single factor analysis of variance of pupils’ motivation as a function of father’s level of education |
|-----------------------------------------------|----------------|--------|---------|--------|-------|
| dimension of motivation | Levene's test (r) | F      | df₁    | df₂    | p     |
| self-efficiency          | 0.16            | 4.90   | 3      | 232    | 0.00  |
| active learning          | 0.14            | 1.19   | 3      | 232    | 0.31  |
| appreciating chemistry   | 0.69            | 0.59   | 3      | 232    | 0.62  |
| achievement orientation  | 0.20            | 0.14   | 3      | 232    | 0.93  |
| learning orientation     | 0.93            | 2.10   | 2      | 232    | 0.10  |

| Table 14: The results of the Tukey HSD motivation test as a function of father's level of education |
|-----------------------------------------------|-------------|--------|-------|
| groups | mean differences | standard error | p |
| 1      | 2             | -3.76     | 3.09  | 0.62  |
| 3      | 2             | -3.96     | 3.09  | 0.58  |
| 4      | 2             | -7.55     | 3.17  | 0.08  |
| 3      | 3             | -0.19     | 0.88  | 0.99  |
| 4      | 3             | -3.78     | 1.13  | 0.00  |
| 3      | 4             | -3.59     | 1.13  | 0.01  |

A statistically significant difference of pupils’ motivation has been obtained along the dimension of self-efficiency as a function of father’s level of education. As indicated by subsequent comparisons using the Tukey HSD test (Table 14), the mean value of Group 4 pupils – fathers with post-graduate education (M = 28.05, SD = 4.66) were significantly different from the mean value of Group 2 – fathers with maximum secondary education (M = 24.26, SD = 6.25) and Group 3 - fathers with maximum university education (M = 24.45, SD = 6.41).

Discussion

The overall objective of this study was to examine the relationship between pupils’ motivation for learning and achievement in chemistry, i.e. examining the differences in motivation as a function of gender and parents’ level of education.

According to the results, different dimensions of pupils’ motivation for learning chemistry are present in varying degrees. Items with the highest scores indicate that pupils believe that it is important to learn the teaching material because it is the path towards improving and developing individual competencies necessary for advancement in nowadays society. The resultant data clearly indicate a positive attitude towards school and learning new teaching contents. Learning-oriented pupils are prone to opting for challenging tasks (Vizek Vidović et al. 2003) and using different strategies for acquiring new knowledge (Hsiao-LinTuan et al. 2005). The above statements are confirmed by the results obtained in this research.
The fact that the lowest scoring items are those related to appreciating the importance of chemistry as a science is very interesting and illustrative. This means that pupils participating in this research believe that knowledge of chemistry is irrelevant to the problems of everyday life. In order to overcome the situation presented, one possible solution is that teachers should emphasize the wonders of the subject-matter and its practical importance. Applying challenging, meaningful and practical exercises may stimulate pupils to accept science as something valuable.

When considering gender differences in levels of motivation for school learning, previous research findings are inconsistent (Trogrlić, Šarcević and Vasić, 2013; Meece & Jones, 1996). This study revealed no differences in motivation between male and female pupils along the dimensions of self-efficiency, achievement-orientation and appreciation chemistry as a science. This finding is different than those of some previous studies according to which there are differences in perceived self-efficiency (Britner, 2008; Meece & Jones, 1996). According to some authors, these differences are reflected in a more explicit confidence in the own abilities displayed by male pupils (Meece & Jones, 1996), while other authors suggest that a higher sense of self-efficiency was recorded for female pupils (Britner, 2008). In this study, gender differences were confirmed along the dimension of learning-orientation. Thus, it is proved that female pupils show higher levels of motivation for learning activity.

In context of the problem studied, the marginal significance of differences in the application of active learning strategies makes a significant finding, pointing to higher values obtained by female pupils. The assumption that the degree to which female pupils apply meaningful learning strategies is higher is confirmed by previous studies (Meece & Jones, 1996).

Further analysis has shown that the grade in chemistry is significantly correlated with subscale that measures pupils' self-efficiency in learning chemistry. Likewise, high levels of subjectively perceived self-efficiency in learning chemistry are accompanied with high grades in chemistry. A significant correlation exists between grades in chemistry and subscales that measure the use of active learning strategies, achievement orientation and learning orientation. Generally, there is a significant positive correlation between grades in chemistry and pupils' motivation. These findings are consistent with the results of previous similar studies (Hsiao-LinTuan et al. 2005), as well as with the reports in the literature according to which motivated pupils apply higher intellectual efforts, have higher levels of thought activity and better concentration which leads to better results (Lungulov, 2010).

Analyzing the structure of motivation-differences between groups based on grades in chemistry, there is a difference in terms of the expressed sense of self-efficiency, the use of active learning strategies, and appreciating chemistry as a science. The highest scores on the subscales that measure these dimensions of motivation are those of pupils who are graded five in chemistry; as the level of pupils' motivation decreases, so decreases the grade in chemistry. Likewise, pupils confident in their abilities use active learning strategies and appreciate chemistry as a science and have high achievement in chemistry – as measured by obtained grades. Further results show that pupils who are graded 5
have high level of motivation, pupils who are graded 4 four have average motivation; in all other pupils' motivation is absent. From the perspective of an educator, behaviour of pupils graded 2 and 3 clearly indicates lack of motivation. Taking this into account, the biggest surprise is the lack of motivation among pupils graded 4.

One possible explanation for the lack of motivation in pupils graded 4 in chemistry is their prominent struggle to get 5 in this perpetual race. Perhaps this is the rationale why these pupils become self-critical and perceive their self-efficiency negatively.

The finding that self-efficiency is a positive predictor of achievement in chemistry is consistent with the results obtained in previous studies (Zimmerman, 2000). The established fact that the individuals with high self-efficiency for learning display higher achievement is a part of a range of evidences that pupils' motivation is a reliable predictor of academic success.

Having in mind previous studies that confirmed the didactic value of active learning (Prince, 2004), the fact that the use of active learning strategies is a marginal positive predictor of achievement in inorganic chemistry is worth attention, regardless of the fact that, strictly speaking, it can be rejected for its marginally significant correlation. The absence of predictability of the remaining three dimensions of motivation (appreciation of chemistry as a science, achievement orientation, and learning orientation) is inconsistent with findings of previous studies (Hsiao-LinTuan et al. 2005).

The further analysis was conducted with the aim of differentiating the specificity of correlations between the parents' level of education and pupil motivation. As indicated by the obtained results in the research field which is conceptualized in this way, there are differences in the pupils' perceived self-efficiency as a function of fathers' level of education, while as for mothers' level of education these differences reached statistical significance in terms of motivation of learning-oriented pupils.

Conclusion

The present research considered studying the differences in expressed levels of motivation for learning chemistry among pupils of the third grade of grammar school. From a set of predictor variables, the pupils' perceived self-efficiency in learning chemistry has a statistically significant partial contribution to their achievement in chemistry, which indicates that pupils who are more confident in their own abilities respond easier to the challenges of learning activity.

The data obtained are instructive for educators because they clearly suggest that there is a need for promoting academic motivation among pupils. Some of the ways to realize this goal are strengthening the sense of self-efficiency, facilitating the implementation of active learning strategies, connecting the teaching content of chemistry with practical application of knowledge, and focusing pupils on learning rather than on the achievement.
Finally, findings of this study should be considered with caution given the relatively small sample size and the fact that the analysis was conducted on data that were obtained by the pupils' self-declaration.

Acknowledgements
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Stanislava Olić has graduated Chemistry at School of Sciences of the University of Novi Sad, where she also defended master thesis in 2010. She enrolled PhD studies of chemistry teaching supported by the scholarship provided by the Ministry of Education, Science and Technological Development. As a student of doctoral studies she is engaged in education of students of chemistry teaching. She is author of several papers in the field of chemical education, published in educational journals or in international congresses. She is the co-author of the textbooks for Chemistry in 7th and 8th grade, approved by the Ministry of Science.

Snežana Babić-Kekez (Novi Sad, 1960), Assistant professor
She graduated from the Department of Pedagogy of the Faculty of Philosophy in Novi Sad and defended her doctoral thesis in 2008. She teaches at Faculty of Sciences in Novi Sad and Faculty of Medicine in Novi Sad. She is an author of more than 100 scientific papers. Area of interest: education policies, andragogy, educational system, family pedagogy, intercultural education. She participated in design of Strategy of development of high education in APV and the several proposals of the laws in the field of education. Currently is engaged in the scientific project „Pedagogical pluralism as a base for educational strategy” financed by MPN RS. Major works: Parental guide – Secrets, big and small (Matica srpska, Novi Sad 1998); Educational needs in the light of the development of the pedagogical culture of parents (Vršac 2009); Didactics, (UNS, 2012); Fundamentals of pedagogy - repetitorium (UNS, 2014).
POSSIBLE WAYS TO ORGANIZE FREE TIME OF THE YOUNG

Resume: Marking almost all areas of social life, free time is unavoidably of interest to many fields of science. It has existed in all historical epochs and will continue to exist as long as the human civilization exists. It is important in the life of every individual, especially for the young, for whom when free time is well organized it contributes to socialization, individualization and personality cultivation i.e. the realization of the basic processes of upbringing. With the development of society the concept and the scope of free time has changed. In the past the battle for the increase of free time has been prominent, while now the main problem is to organize it well. This research has been conducted on a research sample of 100 students aged 18. Starting from the premise that free time is an important factor for the development of broad-minded and emancipated individuals the research problem was defined and reflected in the question: How do young people spend their free time and what is offered? Results show that the young have plenty of free time in which self-organized passive activities are the most common. As the schools and relevant institutions do not have adequate programs, the young wish for improved opportunities quality free time. The statistical evaluation of the acquired results was done using the statistic packet (SPSS for Windows).

Key words: the young, free time, free time activities, organization of free time.

Introduction

The development of technology brought with it more free time therefore a comprehensive study of this phenomenon is needed. Especially if we are aware of the fact that it is one of the factors which influence personality development, its humanization and emancipation as well as the fact that no other generation had it to such an extent as we have it today. Free time activities are numerous and represent a rich system which influences personality and enables its development and nurturing. In free time individuals find the most freedom, they immerse themselves in a variety of activities which enable them to get to know themselves, to affirm and assert themselves, sometimes however in a negative sense. We should take into account their need for entertainment and friendship but also activities which entail physical activity and mental strain, all of this in accordance with their free choice. Hence great attention should be
given to the essential factors of free time organization, which are becoming more prominent in our everyday lives.

**Free time and the young**

The concept of free time for the youth represents the time when the individual is free from school and possible family obligations. This time we spend how we wish, without any obligations, therefore it is characterized by freedom, goodwill and lightheartedness. Rosić (2005) writes that the youth prioritize determinants for leisure time in the following way: the favorite location for spending free time, the dearest person as companionship for spending free time, and the length of time devoted to socializing. A specific pedagogical problem is found in the understanding of the youth’s free time, and the way in which they spend it along with the variety of activities that they have. A question is posed whether the young have enough free time for rest, cultural and entertainment activities, or whether they are overburdened by curriculum of certain subjects and the number of classes in school. Many scientists agree that students are overburdened by the number of classes and studying in school and at home, that they do not have enough free time which is necessary for rest and recreational activities, hence for normal development and socialization, for the realization of their need for friendship, play and fun, the need to prove themselves and self-affirmation. It is important that disharmony does not occur during the organization of the educational work and free time of the young, since if it does it can cause psychological problems (anxiety, asocial behavior, the feeling of low self-worth) and lead to the young resorting to socially unaccepted forms of behavior. The way of spending free time can be seen as “a long-term investment in the overall maturity and mental health” (Larson & Verma 1999, 702), the choices the youth make, regarding the type of activity, have a major influence on their personality. Since the young are a separate age group they have their own characteristics, hence the free time of this group has its own specific characteristics. The youths free time characteristics are firstly conditioned by their general, psychophysical and social characteristics: The first characteristic of the free time of the youth that go to school is that is – time away from school. The other characteristic stems from the fact that the young have fewer social roles in comparison to the grownups moreover the normative system which is tied to these roles is less rigorous and formal. The third characteristic is connected to the fact that the young do not have enough financial means which they can freely use for doing a plethora of free time activities. The fourth characteristic is that the young cannot completely independently decide which activities they will do in their free time. They have to listen to the advice and even orders of the grownups (Grandić, Letić, 2009).

Developing the culture of spending free time is key for good upbringing and therefore it is important to help the young in its organization. Adolescents connected to peers who have a positive value system accept such a value system themselves; however it can also happen that they accept negative norms and behavior if they spend time with peers who possess such characteristics. Adolescents do not become part of a group by chance, but choose it based on similarity and importance (Grandić, Letić, 2009). Life style is mirrored in various actions; it characterizes every young person and enables them to organize their personal and social identity. Mlinarević (2004) states that lifestyle represents the way in
which the young satisfy their personal needs in a certain social dynamic and that they show this through things they are in direct contact with (through music, fashion, film, artistic works, literature works, research projects, festivals, concerts, night clubs, cafes, sport, television, magazines, etc.). Free time fits into all areas of life and work – the areas of family life, production, manual and intellectual activities, physical culture, spiritual culture, technical-technological, scientific area, artistic and area of social life (Pehar-Zvačko, 2004). From the pedagogical point of view, this cannot be a time when the individual is passive. It should be meaningfully shaped and organized “so as to enable an individual to engage in cultural and productive activities which affirm the individual and straighten humanity” (Gradić, Letić, 2008, p.81). In free time educational activity is of special importance, because through it individuals develop habits, widen their knowledge and gain new skills while simultaneously developing self-initiative and self-education which are essential for maintaining a permanent learning process. When we talk about the cultural aspect of spending free time, we refer to a time which is suitable for thinking and forming a critical view towards the world. Today, in the new social-historical context we are talking about mass culture. The core of mass culture is expressed through the demand for the highest production, consumption and profit. The new age brought with it the automation of work, the increase of life standard and changes in the needs and habits of the population. For the widening of its influence mass culture uses mass communication, with which this culture is usually identified. Precisely these means lead to the favoring of the entertainment cultural values, where the development of individual creative ability does not exist.

**Methodological orientation**

**The research subject and problem**

In the pedagogical theory and work, free time is often discussed from the standpoint of its role in the development of the young. Every society should take care of its young, and therefore of the opportunities and ways in which they are able to spend their free time. The young can have unorganized free time, where they themselves decide what to do in accordance with their wishes and needs. Spending time with friends, as one form of unorganized free time is important, because when they spend time together, young people practice their communication skills, form relationships, develop thinking and form opinions. Therefore it is very important for them to have a wide and quality offer of organized free time which consists of organized activities (sport, educational, creative) which are supposed to develop the interests of the young. Today it is clear that the increase of free time is becoming an important factor in the integration of a person’s total time and a condition for the development of a broad-minded character. Because on this conflicting opinions immerge on the question of how to organize the young’s free time while avoiding boredom and commercialized fun. The problem is expressed in the following question: How do the young spend their free time and what is offered?

**Research goal:** Examine whether the young have enough adequate possibilities and opportunities provided by the community and society for spending quality free time.

**Research tasks:** Based on the goals of the research the following tasks were chosen:
1. Determine how much free time the young have a day;
2. Determine whether there is a relevant difference between the amount of free time and gender;
3. Determine how the young spend their free time;
4. Determine whether there is a connection between way in which free time is spent and gender;
5. Determine which type of activity (self-organized or organized) prevails in the way in which the young spend their free time;
6. Determine whether there exist any differences between the predominant activity and gender;
7. Find out what the young are missing the most in school and social environment to be content with the way in which they spend their free time;
8. Find out how interested the young are in better offers and choice of free time activities.

Research hypothesis:
General hypothesis: The young do not have adequate offers and opportunities from the community and society to optimally spend their free time.

Special hypothesis
X₁. The young have a lot of free time in a day.
X₂. A statistically significant difference does not exist between the amount of free time and gender;
X₃. The young spend their free time in a passive way;
X₄. There does not exist a statistically significant difference between gender and the way in which free time is spent;
X₅. Self-organized activities prevail in the way in which the young spend their free time;
X₆. A statistically significant difference does not exist between the practiced type of activity and gender;
X₇. The young mostly lack sports activities and sections in which their creativity is expressed;
X₈. The young want better offers and opportunities for spending free time.

Research methods and techniques, results analysis method
The descriptive method was used in this research which was chosen in accordance to the nature of the problem, the subject, goal and tasks of the research as well as the set hypothesis. The descriptive method strives to faithfully describe facts and this is why it is reliable for describing pedagogical phenomena. The technique is a survey and the instrument is a combined type questionnaire which was made for the needs of this research. The statistical evaluation of the acquired results was done using the statistic packet (SPSS for Windows) and accent was put on the descriptive statistics, nonparametric Chi-square test and charts.

Research population
The research population for this study consisted of fourth grade pupils in SvetozarMiletić high school in Novi Sad. The characteristics of the sample are shown in Chart 1.
The sample contained 100 participants, from which 69 participants were female (69%) and 31 male (31%).

Research results and their interpretation

With the goal of determining the amount of free time that the young have on a daily basis, through descriptive analysis we came to the following results:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Amount of free time</th>
<th>Gender</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Boys</td>
<td>Girls</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Does not have free time at all</td>
<td>0,0%</td>
<td>4,3%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Up to 2 hours a day</td>
<td>12,9%</td>
<td>8,7%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3 to 4 hours a day</td>
<td>16,1%</td>
<td>44,9%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Over 4 hours a day</td>
<td>71,0%</td>
<td>42,0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>100,0%</td>
<td>100,0%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

When we view the acquired results we can conclude that the young have ample free time on a day. Viewed in accordance to gender 87% of boys have 3 and more hours of free time a day and for the girls that data is 86.9%. Whether there exists a difference in the amount of free time between the genders was also of interest. The acquired results and frequencies in the table show that there is a statistically significant difference in accordance to the viewed variables $X^2 (3) = 10,167, \ p < 0,05$. Chi-square independency test shows that boys have more free time a day (4 hours a day) in comparison to girls (here the most frequent answer is 3 to 4 hours a day).
Table 2: Activities in the free time of the young

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Gender</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Boys</td>
<td>Girls</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Watch TV</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I visit social networks (facebook,twitter...)</td>
<td>13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lie in bed and relax</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Do sports</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Spend time with friends</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Volunteer</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>31</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In the free time of 67% of participants passive activities predominate, activities such as watching TV, visiting social networks, lying in bed and resting while volunteering represents the least frequent free time activity (2%). Boys and girls most frequently (41%) spend their free time on the internet visiting social networks which would imply that they are sitting in front of their computers or are using their mobile phones. If we compare the analysis results from this research with the results of the research conducted by the Institute for Psychology of the Philosophical Faculty in Belgrade by the name “Daily habits of the young in Serbia” conducted in 2008 on a high school sample, we see that the results are similar. In this research they came to a result that the young often use the computer, for chatting and playing video games. Using the computer for educational purposes is very rare: 80% of the young almost never use educational software; 70% do not use the computer for writing, drawing nor graphic presentation. When it comes to activities which are not passive, the boys mention that they do sports (19.4%), while the girls state that they spend time with friends (20.3%). The calculated Chi-factor \( \chi^2 (5) = 2.632 \ n = 0.757 \) shows that a statistically significant difference in the free time activities of boys and girls. The development of technology has brought with it numerous innovations in all segments of human life, and so it brought a change in the interaction between boys and girls. The internet is increasingly being used for interpersonal communication and branch structure enables communication between any two computers or mobile phones regardless the distance.

Table 3: The actions which prevail in the free time organization of the young.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Gender</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Boys</td>
<td>Girls</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Type of Self</td>
<td>20</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The acquired results show that in both genders self-organized activities, which they organize themselves according to their needs and wishes, are more common (74%). These activities are important because through them the young practice their communicative skills, form connections, develop thinking and form opinions. Of equal importance is that they have a good offer of organized free time activities which include sports, educational and creative content. In our research 26% of the participants stated that organized free time prevailed. And even though the Chi-square shows that there is no significant difference between the type of free time activity and gender \( \chi^2 (1) = 2,1000, p = 0,147 \), the boys stated that they have more organized free time activities (35,5%) than girls (21,7%), which is in congruence with the results acquired in table 2 where they stated that they like to do sports more than girls. However the girls stated that in their free time self-organized activities prevail (78,3%) more than in the boys free time (64,5%) which is in congruence with the results which indicate that girls prefer to spend time with friends more than boys. Free time activities in real life intertwine and supplement each other. Sometimes the activities for relaxation prevail, sometimes the ones for entertainment and fun and in the end the ones which are for personality development. No doubt that it is best when they are diverse and dynamic, rich, when they influence the mood, when they simultaneously entertain, enrich and emancipate an individual.

**Chart 2: Representation of the organized extracurricular activities of the high school**

All of the answers to the question “What is the school doing to enable you to have variety of opportunities and activities for spending free time?” we grouped into 5 categories on the basis of which we could see the variety of extracurricular activities and sections. The frequency of the answers in the first category (school doesn't do anything) 85% shows that
the school doesn't provide enough free time opportunities for its students. The other four categories (activities for cleaning the school, sports championships, art sections, drama section) have a total frequency of 15%. In addition to the usual tasks the school needs to offer to its students free time spending opportunities and familiarize the young with the importance of free time. This is why it is important that the school adapts to social changes, to help with the organization of free time activities and free time organization.

Among the activities which the young miss the most are: more sport activities (29%), public forums on current issues of the young (23%), school club (18%). In addition to these there are music section (15%) and trips to museums (8%). Extracurricular activities should not be focused only on the gifted students, but also organized to attract a larger number of students, for this to be possible the young need to be offered a large variety of activities and clubs. As we can see the young are missing extracurricular activity which is not connected to the curriculum. These are different clubs, additional courses, sports and art activities. The main goal of school extracurricular activities is to enrich the social life of the school, in which students and professors need to actively participate.

Table 4: The school is missing:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Gender</th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Boys</td>
<td>Girls</td>
<td>Total</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Organized trips to museums, galleries, theatre</td>
<td>H</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>%</td>
<td>6.5%</td>
<td>8.7%</td>
<td>8.0%</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>School club</td>
<td>H</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>18</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>%</td>
<td>22.6%</td>
<td>15.9%</td>
<td>18.0%</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Public forums on current issues of the young</td>
<td>H</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>23</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>%</td>
<td>6.5%</td>
<td>30.4%</td>
<td>23.0%</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>More sports activities</td>
<td>H</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>29</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>%</td>
<td>38.7%</td>
<td>24.6%</td>
<td>29.0%</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Music section</td>
<td>H</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>%</td>
<td>12.9%</td>
<td>15.9%</td>
<td>15.0%</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Humanitarian actions</td>
<td>H</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>%</td>
<td>12.9%</td>
<td>4.3%</td>
<td>7.0%</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>H</td>
<td>31</td>
<td>69</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>%</td>
<td>100.0%</td>
<td>100.0%</td>
<td>100.0%</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 5: I wish for a wider array of possibilities for free time activities form the community

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
<th>Cumulative percentages</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>I completely disagree</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1.0</td>
<td>1.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I disagree</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>4.0</td>
<td>5.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I neither agree, nor disagree</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>17.0</td>
<td>22.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I agree</td>
<td>49</td>
<td>49.0</td>
<td>71.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I completely agree</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>29.0</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table 6: Representation and rank of wanted activities

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Rank</th>
<th>Activity and content</th>
<th>1</th>
<th>2</th>
<th>3</th>
<th>4</th>
<th>5</th>
<th>6</th>
<th>7</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Concerts and other musical content</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>31</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Film content</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>31</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Dance content</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>26</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Literature content</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>19</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>Galleries and other forms of art</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>16</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>Peer education and other forms of experience exchange</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>Sports activities</td>
<td>51</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>19</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The results show that a larger frequency is shown on the right side of the picture (79% answers), 49% of the participants agree and 29% completely agree with the statement which refers to wanting better offers for organized free time activities by the community, 5% of answers are on the left side, which indicates that only 5 students disagree or completely disagree with this statement. The most desirable activities are:

1. Sport
2. Concerts and other music content
3. Film content
4. Literature content
5. Galleries and other art forms
6. Peer education and other forms of experience exchange
7. Dance content

Conclusion

The young are a special age group, which possesses certain psychophysical characteristics which significantly differ from adults and their social roles are less demanding and rigorous. However this certainly does not mean that they do not have them. When the young finish their family, school and other obligation they are left with time which is only theirs. By researching our sample we found out that the young have ample free time. More than half of the subjects 51 (51%) stated that they have more than 4 hours of free time a day. In the research all of the hypotheses have been proven, except for X2 because the data showed that there exists a statistically significant difference between the amount of free time and gender, boys have more free time. In their free time the young
do different activities, some are passive and some are dynamic. We do not undermine the importance of either, because the passive are sometimes needed for the individual to get some rest and relax, but if they predominate that is not good. Too much time spent in front of the television or the computer will negatively affect the young. Viewed in the long run too much watching television and using the computer can have negative consequences both physical and psychological. People are then passive, they do not blink, do not think, and programs are usually full of bad diction and aggression. People then lie in an inadequate body position and bluntly said become lazy. While questioning the subjects we came to the conclusion that predominantly spend their free time passively (67%) doing activities such as ling, watching TV, sitting in front of the computer and chatting over the social networks. In life free time activities intertwine and supplement each other. Sometimes the ones which are for rest predominate, sometimes the ones for fun and entertainment, and in the end the ones for personality development. They are best when they are diverse and dynamic, rich, when they influence the mood, when they enrich, entertain and emancipate. The school and the community help in the process of growing up; from them we can learn many good and useful things but unfortunately sometimes also bad things. From the pupils it is primarily expected to acquire adequate knowledge, and for the teachers to implement programs which are usually unproportional with the amount of time and the number of pupils. All of this indicates that little time is spent on free time activities by the school. In order to do everything which is demanded in school free time is often sacrificed. Through the research we discovered that a large number of the young (85%) does nothing to provide adequate and interesting free time activities, and those which are especially desired are sports activities. Because of the lack of creative, cultural, and sports content the young mostly spend their free time by watching TV or spending time in cafes. In their opinion, the responsible institutions do not have adequate programs which meet their needs. There are no single places where they would gather all organizations and institutions which offer quality free time activities. Well organized and spent free time can be an ally for the youth in developing their knowledge, skills, and abilities in the intellectual and emotional spheres of life. Desires, interests, and needs of young men and women must be taken into account when considering possible ways to organize their free time. The lack of support in this segment of human life can be one of the reasons young people go astray.

Providing for the young an environment which enables them to develop into adults which the society needs to develop is an imperative. For this to be achieved many conditions need to be fulfilled, connect and involve many organizations, institutions and programs in all sectors. The community needs to recognize the possibilities of free time, in which a lot of attention can be given to questions of public health and disease prevention, lowering risky behavior, education... These questions are the pillars of the youth’s politics which needs to be directed towards the enhancement of the young’s position. As we can see, here lies a challenge for society.
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Biographical note:

Marina Mijatović was born on January 28, 1990 in Karlovac, Croatia. She finished her primary and secondary education in Novi Sad. At the Faculty of Philoposhy in Novi Sad she graduated at the Department of Pedagogy. Currently she is working as an associate teacher for the specific scientific field of Pedagogy at the Preschool Teacher Training College “Mihailo Palov” in Vrsac.
SERBIAN ORTHODOX RELIGIOUS EDUCATION IN SERBIA – HISTORICAL OVERVIEW AND ITS PERSPECTIVES

Resume: At the beginning of the 21st century the Orthodox Church in Serbia has faced with huge challenges. After the period of half-century restrictions under the communist regime in former Yugoslavia, the time of change has come and it brings with itself respectfulness of religious freedom to Serbian people and freedom to practice their religion and express their religious notions publicly. Serbian society strives towards modernization and democratization; it has been trying to make its own new identity among the European Nations. Baring in mind the importance of traditional values and institutions of Serbian people, the Government of the Serbia Republic adopted The Law on Churches and religious communities in 2006 (“Official News SR”, no. 36/2006). Article no. 40 of this Law says that the right of religious education in public and private elementary and secondary schools guaranteed by the Serbian State. Although religious education has been implemented since 2001 as the alternative curriculum in primary and secondary schools by the rules of the Serbian Government (“Official News SR”, no. 46/2001.), religious education is still an issue that provokes great controversial attitudes on the political and social scene of Serbian society until now. By this act, the Government of the Serbia Republic is found itself under pressure of many factors of the civil society, who wants to obstruct the implementation of religious education with the excuse that it harms mentioned democratic processes and that religion is not a part of public sector. The Church over religious education has nowadays very difficult and serious tusk and only time will tell if we are going to overcome all the challenges and to respond to all the questions and needs of pupils, overcoming the temptations in mutual living and working, education and upbringing in accordance with the evangelical enlightenment, change of mind and the deification by introducing students in the life of the Church. A religious teacher alone certainly is not in a position to cooperate with the student’s environment and to accomplish the mission, and it is therefore necessary to create a collective atmosphere, including in the exercise missions also the students who do not attend religious education, and family and youth overall environment. Here I mean that in the case of the professors whose subjects have scientific basis different from the religious, but the common curious and open attitude it is certainly possible to overcome seemingly irreconcilable differences of scientific and religious education.

Key words: religious education, the Church, School, education.

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INTRODUCTION

At the beginning of the 21st century the Orthodox Church in Serbia has faced with enormous challenges. After the period of half-century restrictions under the communist regime in the former Yugoslavia, the time of change has come and it brings with itself respectfulness of religious freedom to Serbian people and freedom to practice their religion and express their religious notions publicly. Serbian society strives toward modernization and democratization; it has been trying to make its own new identity among the European Nations. Baring in mind the importance of traditional values and institutions of Serbian people, the Government of the Serbia Republic adopted The Law on Churches and religious communities in 2006 (“Official News SR”, no. 36/2006). Article no. 40 of this Law says that the right of religious education in public and private elementary and secondary schools guaranteed by the Serbian State. Although religious education has been implemented since 2001 as the alternative curriculum in primary and secondary schools by the rules of the Serbian Government (“Official News SR”, no. 46/2001.), religious education is still an issue that provokes great controversial attitudes on the political and social scene of Serbian society until now. By this act, the Government of the Serbia Republic is found itself under pressure of many factors of the civil society, who wants to obstruct the implementation of religious education with the excuse that it harms mentioned democratic processes and that religion is not a part of public sector. The Church over religious education has nowadays very difficult and serious tusk and only time will tell if we are going to overcome all the challenges and to respond to all the questions and needs of pupils, overcoming the temptations in both areas; living and working, education and upbringing in accordance with the evangelical enlightenment, change of mind and the deification by introducing students to the life of the Church. A religious teacher alone certainly is not in a position to cooperate with the student’s environment and to accomplish the mission, and it is therefore necessary to create a collective atmosphere, including in the exercise missions also the students who do not attend religious education, and family and youth overall environment. Here I mean that the professors whose subjects have scientific basis different from the religious, but the common curious and open attitude is certainly possible to overcome seemingly irreconcilable differences of scientific and religious education.

HISTORICAL OVERVIEW OF THE RELATION BETWEEN EDUCATIONAL SYSTEM AND RELIGIOUS EDUCATION

The educational system in Serbia began to develop during the gradual liberation from Turkish domination. Centuries of slavery destroyed almost completely the achievements of Serbian medieval educational and cultural tradition. Before The First Serbian Uprising, the population in Serbia was almost completely illiterate, “in liberated Serbia under Karadorde’s regain the schools were started to expand and there were schools in almost all towns; particularly they were spread in Belgrade for learning purposes of the new baptized Turks. Then the well – known Grand School was opened in Belgrade and it was one of a kind that the Serbs have never had before.” (Đorđević, T. 1946, 91) The opening of the High School in 1808 represented the earliest attempt of organizing secondary and higher education in Serbia. These organizational efforts to establish the school system and the expansion of education are linked to the name of Dositej Obradović, who came
back to Serbia in 1808. He took part in the opening of the High School and was the first Minister of Education (Popečitelj) in Serbia. In Serbia the names of Dositej Obradović and Vuk Karadžić are also related to the adoption of the ideas of Enlightenment age that arising from the Western culture and tradition of the time. On that basis, there is a conflict between the Church and the School, which began to separate from the Church. In the first place spirit of the Enlightenment age influenced the choice of the subjects that were thought in schools. Religious education was not taught in schools, but only the church singing.

The Seminary was founded in 1810 in Belgrade and a few facts about this school can be found in story telling of Lazar Arsenijević Batalke. The first professor in the Seminary was Vićentije Rakić from Trieste. The Seminary lasted two years. In 1812 four students graduated at this school and they were ordained as deacons.” (Ilić, A. 2002, 111)

At the time of the first government in the regain of Prince Miloš Obrenović, the foundation of school system was established in Serbia. When Mihail Jovanović enthroned Metropolitan, religious educational system has come one step further so that in religious educational curriculum and pedagogical – philosophical group of subjects has been introduced in the Seminary in order to increase the intellectual level and quality of the priests, and also thanks to his support and initiative in 1863 the first published copy of Theologian has emerged which has been published by the Belgrade Seminary youth and which we could assume the first issue of ecclesia periodicals in Serbian Orthodox Church, since in the call for subscription was announced that the Seminary youth would published a copy under this title every year.” (Sando, D. 2010, 255 – 256)

Tremendous merits of Metropolitan Mihail are that in 1873 another department of Belgrade Seminary was opened and it was called ”foreign Seminary” or ”missionary institute” where were received children from non-liberated Serbian regions and a large number of graduated theologians came out from it. His pedagogical efforts are reflected also in his further effort to open Seminary in Banja Luka in 1866 and in Prizren in 1871, wherein his great experience gained in educating spiritual centres abroad he tried to convey to our religious educational area. Then he tried to rearrange our spiritual nursery according to good results he liked in Russia: “joined together in a new draft of the law Russian spirit and Russian six-grade Seminary in nine – grade Seminary, which was named after Saint Sava. Such nine – grade Seminary was established by a special law on the Seminary, which was made public on 11th January in 1896. This reform was applied in practice only in 1899. Unfortunately he couldn’t see the new Seminary started working because the first class of the Seminary enrolled in 1900, and Metropolitan died two years before that.” (Sando, D., 2010, 256)

According to the new law primary schools are defined as basic public schools in which the main subjects are: Christian doctrine, reading, writing, arithmetic, and singing, and “the improvement of their social and educational functions was influenced significantly by numerous calls, especially from 1868, when Dimitrije Matić became the Minister of Education and Religious Affairs.” (Tešić V., 1983, 326) We can see that in this curriculum of the subjects in the first place was the Christian doctrine, and that education and religious affairs were in the responsibility of one ministry.
By the Law on Organization of the Seminary, this school was included in the general reorganization of the school system in 1863. It was anticipated that it should prepare future priests and teachers and last four years, it was boarding type of school and enrolment for this school starts at the end of the fourth year of high school. Students who came from non-liberated regions of Serbia would learn under the special program and a condition for their enrolment was different, so they could finish primary school only. In the Seminary since the beginning of 1863 besides the priests the laity can teach also. Superintendence exercised by the Minister of Education and Religious Affairs, and all decisions were made with the approval of the Orthodox Church’s Holy Synod of Serbia.

Than in 1873 curriculum was prescribed by the Ministry, and instructional programs collegiums. And for the students, School Law was adopted in 1864, which was amended and tightened in 1871. It was a similar concept as the law school to secondary school students and high schools.

At the initiative of Dečani teachers and cadets of the Belgrade Seminary Timotija Andrijanić, Sima Igumanov and his associates Ilija Stavrić and Milan Novičić founded the Seminary in Prizren on October 1st in 1871 (Sando, D., 2010, 259) In Macedonia, there were four lower and one secondary theological school in the period before the Second World War. The first Seminary was established in Bitola in 1882, and then from 1897 there was (exarchate) eparchy school for priests, while the spiritual schools existed in Skopje, Prilep and Jedrine.

As regards religious schools and education of priests, it should be noted that the gathering some parts of the Church into a united organization, were imposed the needs of a single school system. By The Regulation Act of the Serbian Orthodox Seminary issued by the Ministry of Religious Affairs in 1921, fifth-grade Seminary were planned, as state boarding schools, but „the Seminary should be in Belgrade, Srmski Karlovci, Prizren, Sarajevo, Mostar, Zagreb, and in Cetinje. Then in 1928 the Seminary continued to work as a six-grade.“ (Radić R., 1995, 25) The seminaries were in the range of complete secondary schools and were organized in 1928. Ordinance of seminaries and Guidelines was adopted in 1932.

Monastery School in Rakovica, which was opened in 1906, after the discontinuance during the Balkan Wars and the First World War, continued to work in 1922. Ten years later it was moved to the Dečani’s monastery, where it worked until the beginning of World War II. Great School in Belgrade was turned 1905, in The University, and by the Law of University of Belgrade, Article 4 it was planned the establishment of the Faculty of Theology. Due to the lack of qualified teachers and the wars that followed, legal decisions on the opening of the Orthodox Theological Faculty were made at the end of 1920. The Orthodox Faculty was opened on 6th of September in 1920.

Also, “it should be noted that by the Vidovdan’s Constitution, Article 16, religious education is set to optional basis, but already in 1929, by the law on public schools, religious education was introduced as a compulsory subject, even in high schools, under the control of the Church.” (Radic, V., 1995, 26)
Religious education (religious doctrine) before the war in Yugoslavia was taught in the regular classes, called religious and Christian doctrine ... It was taught to primary and secondary schools, and its content was the Bible. In teacher training schools religious education had among other things, the task that the teacher candidates prepare for teaching this subject. Catechist is a teacher who taught religious education, but "before the war in Yugoslavia priests were selected for religious teachers in primary and secondary schools with more classes or especially prepared people (graduates theologians), while in the smaller rural schools religious classes were held by teachers in the beginning, later were taught by the priests."(Dictionary of Education, 1967, 124)

The Patriarchy of Serbian Orthodox Church was established in 1919, soon after a new state was created, the Kingdom of Serbs, Croatians and Slovenians (KSCS) and it also united the six church organizations of various roots and history. The Church didn’t considered Patriarchy as a new institution, but renew as a direct successor to the medieval Serbian Patriarchy, but its different parts existed independently for centuries and there was a lot of work to be done for achieving their full cohesion. For the first time, the established church in Serbia, the Serbian Orthodox Church, is amongst equal religious communities in the Kingdom of SCS. By the Vidovdan’s Constitution in 1921, was adopted the principle of full freedom of religion and conscience (Article 12) and ensured full equality of all legally recognized confessions. It was a new reality, which has created uncertainty and heightened sensitivity to everything that could be regarding to the status of the Serbian Orthodox Church.

1918-1941. was one of the most important periods in the history of the Serbian Orthodox Church. Although under the patronage of the state, it possessed considerable privileges and material resources and tried to recover all that in the previous period was lost. It worked intensively on education of priests, rising and restoration of temples and monasteries, spreading the faith among the people ... After many years of struggle, the Law on the Serbian Orthodox Church was adopted in 1929, and on that foundation the Constitution of the Serbian Orthodox Church would be adopted in 1931. According to this Constitution, the Serbian Patriarchy was recognized as one, indivisible and autocephalous Church with the highest rank that could have an autocephalous Church.

“Immediately after the war, the office of the Ministerial Council of Yugoslavia on 21 October in 1945, was adopted a Decree on the Establishment of the State Commission for Religious Affairs. By this Decree was established the Republic Commission and the State Commission.” (Official News of DFJ, 1945, 21) The Republican Commissions for their work was responsible to the State Commission and it to the Federal Executive Council. Commissions had broad authority and over them the work of all religious communities were closely followed and most attention is paid to the Serbian Orthodox Church. Commission amends section 278 of the Constitution of the Serbian Orthodox Church, in which the relationship between the state and the Church represented by the Ministry of Justice. The first article of the decree states: “The State Commission for Religious Affairs study all issues related to the external life of religious communities, their relationships and the position of the Church to the state and national governments, as well as the preparation of materials for a legislative solution to the relationship between religious communities and the state.” (Bulletin of the SOC, 1946, 3, 47)
In the second article it was stated that the Commission will maintain the “most closely related to the organs of religious communities. The bodies of the religious community and the national authorities are obliged to the Commission at its request to submit the necessary information and data.” (Bulletin of the SOC, 1946, 3, 47) In parallel with the establishment of the Committee for Religious Affairs, the Act on the prohibition of incitement to national, racial and religious hatred and strife, which was a broad set almost everything could be subsumed under, so that it is possible that many were tried and convicted according to it. Its next statement has been of special importance: “Scientific criticism of religion and criticism of religious leaders and church officials and their improper operations could not be considered a provocation and incitement to religious hatred. It will be considered an aggravating circumstance if the provocation and incitement to religious hatred is performed by church representatives.” (Bulletin of the SOC, 1946, 3, 48)

Communist Party wanted gentle and cooperative church that will be in opposition, but will help the party and government policy. The Patriarch was willing to cooperate with the state, but not to be used by it.

After the World War II, the Federal Republic of Yugoslavia was created, and by its Constitution in 1946, was regulated the relationship between the state and the Church. The school was separated from the Church, which means the end of religious education in our school system. Than began the time of persecution all educational content that had anything to do with religion, and “separation of state and confessional communities means only that the state is no longer a collective believer”, and that it in no way gives the label a factor atheism. After all, the assumption that enable statehood are the same ones on which and from which rises a religion, at least as a social fact ... Separation of the Church and the State means the constitution of the state school, which was separated from the Church, but the Church was in subordinate position.” (Ćimić, E., 1984, 162) There was a period in which the process of separation of church and state should have social significance of religion and the church reduced to the level of worthless and marginal.

At the end of 1944, made a temporal decision:

1) that religious education in public schools is no longer part of the curriculum;
2) that religious teachers can maintain optional classes of religious education, for students of public schools whose parents and guardians statement that they want to, and that
3) religious teachers remain civil servants, and their appointments are still performed at the proposal of the ecclesiastical authorities. Material costs of heating, lighting and servants were supposed to be on the cost of the interested parents (Radić, R., 2002).
“Then the Holy Synod of Orthodox Church asked the Ministry of Education that in terms of religious education in schools establish a state that existed before the war; However, this proposal was rejected by a regulation of the Ministry of Education DFJ no. 842/45, and then, in March 1946, made another decision: religious education can take place outside of regular school hours, the school buildings, and religious education as a subject should not be brought into school certificates or evaluate students. It was also decided that the religious teachers from the first of May 1946, were no longer at the payroll of the Ministry of Education.” (Kuburić, Z., 2010, 19-20)

Because authority thought that one of the main obstacles to the formation of a scientific world view religious education in schools, and the influence of the clergy - the percentage of children who attended religious classes climbed to 90% - the school authorities were ordered to control the work of the priests. As a result of all this religious education is constantly retreating, until 1952, although it was officially prohibited by the adoption of the Law on public school in December in 1951. Janković (1952) notes that the teacher may not be religious person because the school has to educate the youth that will be totally free of all religious bonds and faith in God will be strange notion to them so they will be fighting atheists.

After 1952, religious education was permitted only in churches. However, SOC clergy have never been overly active in the maintenance of religious education in parishes, in contrast to the Catholic and Protestant clergy. During 1953, the Serbian Orthodox Church and the Roman Catholic Church have repeatedly appealed to the State Commission for Religious Affairs stating that teachers forbid children to go to church and the priests punished for holding religious classes. Problems in relation between the school and the church became more and more numerous. For irregularities that occurred in practice, the central authorities often blame passing the local authorities, and these were limited to existing decisions and solutions. In this game of the powerful, the representatives of different religious communities often wrote letters and personally visited Josip Broz Tito, protesting and trying to exercise their rights, and about that “then-Minister of Education, the famous Mitra Mitrović, recorded how the last visit of the Adventist church representatives to Marshal Tito was and that he promised that the children will be exempt from teaching in schools on Saturday, stressing that any difficulties arising in the everyday life. Later they had the meeting with Mitra Mitrović, to coordinate this solution. However, said has stated that it was impossible to children to get rid of school on Saturdays because it would be precedent case and all other religious communities could ask for similar concessions. The consequence of such attitudes was that the believers personally pay the price of going to church and attending religious education that they had in it: financially, imprisonment, marginalization.” (Kuburić, Z., 2010, 21) in the request of religious freedom some left the country and most of them gave up the belief practice. So at the beginning of the sixties the number of children attending religious education in Serbia dropped to about 3% of the total number of school children (Radić, 2002).
“The Law on the Legal Status of Religious Communities (Law on the Legal Status of Religious Communities, 1953, 22) was adopted in 1953 in order to resolve the status of religious communities. The law had 24 articles in total. The purpose of the Act was to provide a precise legal definition of the relevant regulations of the Constitution. Each republic is then published its own law on religious communities, but after considerable delay; Serbia, for example, was adopted such a law only in 1962. This law is basically regulated the relations between the state and religious communities, but "it was regulated only some of the rights enjoyed by religious communities and believers and outlined measures that countries can apply in the case of religious communities and believers cross the Constitution and legal frameworks, and limits of action." (Radić R., 1995, 315) the law remained in force until 1965, when it enacted the Basic Law on the Legal status of Religious Communities. This law only tightened penalties for exceeding the prescribed work of religious communities and believers, while all other terms remained the same as in the law of 1953.

“We can say that this relationship, the relationship of the perfidious and open terrorizing the church by the state authorities, lasted until around 1955.” (Radulovic, M., 2007, 2) However, realizing that the faith of the people cannot quickly or easy exterminate as expected, taking into account the recommendations and requirements of the "free world" that religious communities must not only tolerated but respected as an important social factor, the communists decided to control church from inside when they cannot completely break it. “Cooperation with Religious Communities was reduced to illegal and inadmissible intelligence control whose purpose was to determine which of the priests and the faithful continue to persist in the old historical, social and moral views, and who accepted the new socialist ideology as the only desirable and advanced, and therefore it can rely on them in the internal controlling church life. The ultimate goal of this control was to isolate the Church in the port, to its spiritual radiation, as well as cultural and social effects are reduced only to the liturgical rite, while in the public life of priests and priestly people useful to unconditionally accept and support communists' utopia. Those who fail to do so should be pressed, threatened, isolated, broken inside, so that their beliefs should not recite the others, nor must connect to the relatedness based on historical consciousness, the shared spiritual experience and based on respect, love and responsibility towards Serbian national and cultural tradition.” (Radulovic, M., 2007, 3)

According to professor Puzović “after the war in difficult circumstances Theological Faculty of the Belgrade University continued with work and since the authorities discontinued the Faculty of Theology as a state institution on February 15 in 1952, the Church has taken care of the Faculty, although it was in a difficult financial position. The Seminary in Prizren was restored in 1947, while the Seminary St. Save in the monastery Rakovica near Belgrade in 1949. Thanks to merits of Patriarch German Theological Seminary St. Arsenical in Sremskim Karlovcima was opened in 1964, initially as a department of the Belgrade Seminary St. Save, and later as an independent school. That same year he opened a two-year seminary in Krka Monastery; school year 1966/67 and five-year grade. Renovated work Monastic School in Ovčarsko-kablar Monastery of the Transfiguration of the Lord and Monastic School in Ostrog Monastery was opened in 1967. In 1986 Theological Faculty of the Serbian Orthodox Church started working in Libertyville, Illinois, USA, a division of the Theological Faculty in Belgrade, and since 1988, as an
independent theological and educational institution. At the Theological Faculty in Belgrade was founded in 1990 / 91st Theological Institute, where training takes two years (four semesters).” (Puzovic P., Serbian Orthodox Church from 1941 until today, http://www.iskon.co.yu/6/puzovic_c.html)

INTRODUCING THE RELIGIOUS EDUCATION TO EDUCATIONAL SYSTEM IN THE REPUBLIC OF SERBIA SINCE 2001 UNTIL TODAY

Anyone who was professionally involved, at the beginning of the twentieth century, in the study of social relations and education, did not need a special scientific foresight to detect the proximity of the momentum when the religious content would be restored in the school curriculum and became a reality. During these years when changes started rapidly to take place in many areas of our society, and it was inevitable that the goals and tasks of education and modernization of educational facilities at all levels of education should be reconsider. Bearing all this in mind, the Union of Pedagogical Societies of Serbia organized a symposium on “Religion and school” in 1992. It was an interdisciplinary conference and a specific attempt that the complex subject such as - the relationship between religion and education, churches and schools – should be approach from a variety of professional and scientific perspectives. At the meeting the views and arguments were expressed which should be actualized when the introduction of religious education in schools has become certain. On the basis of published papers from the symposium (Teaching and Education, 1992, No.4-5), we can get the impression that the teaching content related to religion are needed to be introduced to the school or within existing courses or introducing special cases, but that these facilities should be the part of general education, not confessional determined. Towards the end of the twentieth century, it seems that the interest in the relationship between church and school, educational and religious contents was increasing.

In 1997 in Podgorica a round table was organized by Ministry of Religious Affairs and the Ministry of Education, where a number of issues were placed on which the experts tried to respond, and “on this occasion presented research showing that there is a great interest in religion, which is interpreted as need to introduce religious education in schools.” (Kuburić, Z., 2002, 119) Significant political changes that have occurred in Serbia at the end of 2000 brought many novelties to Serbian society. The question of introduction the religious education in primary and secondary schools was in focus again. A variety of arguments pro and contra such as subject in school regularly filled the pages of newspapers. In addition, new scientific meetings that are trying from different perspectives to talk about the place of religious education in primary and secondary schools were held in many places, and the „results of the a fore mentioned studies, especially those from the early nineties onwards, mostly on the changes within the religious value orientations of young people from predominantly atheistic orientation towards acceptance and strengthening of religion as a system of beliefs.“ (Kuburić, Z., 2010, 25) The period mentioned above was characterized by the beginning of changes in many areas of life, from which our school system wasn’t excluded, too. It started by a critical review of the objectives and tasks of education, as well as the modernization of the teaching content and methods of education at all levels. Then it became clear that, given the increasing interest of young people for religious content and an increase in the
importance of religion and faith in a growing number of people working on reforming the educational system needs to thoroughly examine the possibility of re-introduction of religious content in the school curriculum.

Serbian Orthodox Church requests introduction of the confessional religious education in public schools. Request for a confessional character of religious education explained the former federal Minister of Religion Bogoljub Šijaković who said that there is no a general concept of religion and even less a common religion - that we can have the experience of religion only in a particular faith and confession, and "the introduction of religious education required under law on education, the right choice of worldview, the right to practice religion and the right of parents to educate their children according to their religious beliefs, which are recognized by international conventions." (Aleksov, B., 2004, 7) Proponents of confessional religious education pointed to the acceptance of religious education in many European democratic countries such as Ireland, Austria, Germany, Greece, Croatia, Poland, Portugal, Italy, Bulgaria, Spain, Hungary, the Czech Republic and Slovakia. In the UK and Denmark's confessional religious education was replaced by religious culture, while in the United States and France, religious education non-existed. There were also opinions of individual believers and clergy that the Church should not rely on the secular state and its education system for its own spiritual mission instead of pastoral work, but that the priests and monks should be activated through the missionary work of the Church itself, as the pious parents should make sure about the Christian education of their children. Numerous non-governmental organizations and education experts have pointed out that the method of introduction of religious education in state schools was in conflict with the Constitution of the country and established procedures and standards in the introduction of new subjects in curriculum after a two-year experimental implementation and its expertise. „The campaign against the introduction of religion education in public schools led by the Committee for the right to education without religious or political indoctrination, Association teaching staff and researchers at the University of Novi Sad, whose actions and pronouncements joined ninety NGOs. Against the introduction of religious education in state schools were Chamber of the Belgrade University, all rectors and many professors of Universities in Serbia, Education Forum, the Union of Pedagogical Societies of Yugoslavia and other expert organizations dealing with education.“ (Aleksov, B., 2004, 10)

Regulation on the organization and implementation of religious education - alternative subject in primary and secondary schools, the Government of the Republic of Serbia adopted pursuant to Article 90, item 2 of the Constitution of the Republic of Serbia, in conjunction with the Law on Primary Education (“Official News of RS”, no. 50/92, 53/93, 67/93 and 48/94) and the Law on Secondary Education (“Official News of RS”, no. 50/92, 53/93, 67/93, 48/94 and 24/96), July 24, in 2001 was, and the same decree is published in the “Official News of RS”, no. 46/2001. After the adoption of these regulations religious education in schools emerged in September in the 2001 / 2002nd year.

Article 22 of the Law on Primary Education says that a parent declares each year in the choice of religious education or civic education, however, Article 69 and 86 of the basics of the education system to regulate differently, or - declaration happens to education cycle (I - IV, V - VIII class) and not to any particular school year or cycle from the first to the
eighth grade, and as for his operation of law on the basis of educational system stronger, apply this solution.

Cherishing the human person and respect for his personal integrity must be the highest value and goal of catechist’s theory and practice. Catechist all of your messages and lessons should be put at the service of the development of what the Church believes divine qualities, and it is the most divine personality. Catechist that way teaches man not only to imitate his Creator in the moral sense, but more than that, by emphasizing the value of personality, he's young will be prepared to enter the time of participation in the Christian and then the divine life, and his life, behavior and evidence what they preach and what they teach.

As we have said, the Government of the Republic of Serbia adopted on 27 July in 2001. The Regulation on the organization and implementation of religious education and an alternative subject in primary and secondary schools (Official News of the Republic of Serbia - Education Journal, 2001a). It presents the details of the organization and realization of the religious education of the traditional churches and religious communities in primary and secondary schools. Included are: the Serbian Orthodox Church, the Islamic Community, the Catholic Church, the Slovak Evangelical Church, the Jewish community, the Christian Reformed Church and the Evangelical Christian Church. This choice, it was clear that religious education in our educational system is introduced as a strictly confessional set, not as a general education subject. Its aim, in such hypothetically and regulated by law organization, is the creation and nurturing of the faith of believers, and general religious education oriented students. Regulation has determined the status of religious education and alternative items that are organized as an optional, and also “The Decree stipulates that the evaluation of these subjects is descriptive and does not affect the overall success of students.” (Dačić, S., 2002)

Based on the previously adopted the Regulation on the organization and implementation of religious education and an alternative subject in primary and secondary schools, was enacted on October 20 in 2001. Rulebook on curriculum subjects, religious education in the first grade of primary school (Official News of the Republic of Serbia - Educational Journal, 2001b). This Ordinance “elective” is definitely called civics and religious education has remained under the same name. In the Education Gazette gives the Ordinance on the type of qualification of teachers who teaches religious education in the first grade of secondary and primary school, as well as the criteria and method of assessing students attending religious education. The criteria for evaluation are: regularity of attendance, interest and active involvement in the learning process. Student achievement is evaluated descriptively: outstanding, good and satisfactory.

According to the Regulations, the goals of religious education in primary and secondary schools are to be verified, it the content of faith and spiritual experience of traditional churches and religious communities that live and work in our living space, to provide students with a comprehensive religious view of the world and life and to allow them free adoption of spiritual values of the Church or community which historically they belong to, and preserving and fostering their own religious and cultural identity. Introducing students to the faith and spiritual experiences of their own, the historical date of the
religious community needs to be realized in an open and tolerant dialogue, taking into account the experiences of other religious and philosophical views, as well as scientific knowledge and all the positive experiences and achievements of humanity. Further, the Regulations contain a curriculum of seven traditional churches and religious communities can be organized religion originated in the school.

The Holy Synod of Serbian Orthodox Church appointed Grace Bishop Ignjatija Braničevskog for cooperation with the Ministry of Education and Sports, as well as for the design, organization and inclusion of religious education in our school system. Hence, it is important to follow the interpretation and explanation of Grace Bishop Ignjatija, as necessary for an understanding of the curriculum catechetical Orthodox, which says that “the aim of introducing religious education in schools lies in the fact that people enter into liturgical community. In this, the method should also be liturgical, that is, to find all humans experience in it, therefore, common to all men, and to be interpreted as corresponding with the liturgical experience of the living relationship between man and God. It is, in fact, a method that would be less harm to the Church than any other, and that would not allow that religious education and knowledge of God replace the Church since replacing is the real danger that lies in the fact ... that children know that there is a God, to know all of God, and that they have no personal experience of the liturgical relationship by entering into the Church as a liturgical community, in fact, not salvation.” (Sabornost, 3-4)

In this way, religious education has its responsible place in the community, as it represents evangelical path in the pedagogical development of personality, and therefore the entire Serbian society. Developing awareness of the liturgical ethos of the people develops its knowledge of the iconic indication in the Kingdom of Heaven, and the healthy development of the Christian family, where again religious education constitutes inseparable element of proper education and upbringing.

Blessed professor Radovan Bigović in his book “Church and Society” says that religious education in schools should involve the intertwining of didactic and methodological pluralism, artistic communication (which includes icons, ecclesiastical singing and music, architecture of temples, etc.) and personal examples and communication. By explaining the use of the term didactic and methodological pluralism in practice, above mentioned author points out that the teaching process of religion in schools should use different sources of information, different teaching tools and methods, as well as various forms of teaching. “The educational process at protégés to engage and activate all of their mental and spiritual predispositions and processes: perception, presentation, thinking, concentration, self-observation, curiosity, emotion, imagination ... Teaching should always be dialogic and communicative, honest and opened in both ways the horizontal and the vertical. The educational process should be seen as a joy, play, communication, entertainment, hard work and achievement.” (Bigović, R., 2000, 113)

CONCLUSION

If we wanted to assess the effects of religious education in relation to the objectives of the curriculum, we would need much more than the period analyzed in this paper, as the
goals and objectives of such a nature that link, as well as the concept of religion, earthly and heavenly, past and future, mortal and immortal. Accordingly, „The goal of course Religious Education - Orthodox catechism (religious education or religious doctrine) is to give a complete orthodox view of the world and life, taking into account two dimensions: historical Christian life (the historical reality of the Church) and eschatological (future) life (the ideal dimensions)“ (Official News RS - Education Journal, 2001). To expand the perspective of the „here and now“ to observe yourself from the perspective of eternity is expressed through religious teaching assignments.

It is definitely required to give children the possibility to develop themselves into a complete and healthy person by the knowledge and study of religious doctrine and spiritual presence in our schools in the form of the subject of religious education. Physical, emotional and mental development of a child is as important as spiritual development, and especially at the age when this process occurs naturally, and to skip any stages of the development will be an obstacle in some stage of life. Religious education in schools and preschools allows children in the right time to form complex fields of human beings. Many of us are just now going through a spiritual puberty because our current system of education is not given in time to hear that part of the story. According to Professor Stojanovic „catechist should convince them to know and believe that this exam takes my whole life, and not a numerical score, but still descriptive, in order to read as follows: serves good! The success of the above will be checked for many years, and will be visible when they grow the first generation of assuming positions of responsibility. Many of our religious teachers to know and to have a good way to reach the goal, and our joy is yet to come.“ (Stojanovic, Lj., 2009, 71) According to Nada Sekulic, „it is not important what are the symbols and the facilities that are offered to children within religious education (cross, crescent, or something else), but how children acquire these symbols, what they mean to them and how much they contribute informing some fundamental and universal values such as love, tolerance, tranquillity of mind, the ability to carry on the enlightened way difficulties and openness to what is divine.“ (Sekulic N., 2002, 83) Fostering the human person and respect for his personality and integrity of his personality must be the highest value and goal for catechist, in his theory and practice. Catechist all of your messages and lessons should be put at the service of the development of what the Church believes divine qualities, and it is the most divine personality. Catechist in that way teaches man not only to imitate his Creator in the moral sense, but more than that, by emphasizing the value of personality on the young will be prepared to enter the time of participation in the Christian and then the divine life, and his life, behavior and evidence that he preaches and what he teaches.

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Biographical note:

Ninoslav Kačarić was born in Zrenjanin on December 13, 1977. After he had finished Grammar school in Zrenjanin, he graduated from Theological faculty of Serbian Orthodox Church in Belgrade in 2002. In 2014 he obtained a degree of Master of Arts at Orthodox Theological Faculty „St. Vasilije Ostroški“ in Foća, University of Istočno Sarajevo. Since 2002 he has worked as Secretary of Bishop in Eparchial administrative committee, as coordinator for religious education in Eparchy of Banat, as well as editor of magazine „Banatski Vesnik“. He has worked as a priest at church of „St. Theodore of Vršac“ in Vršac. He published several books and many professional papers in the field of pedagogy, psychology and theology, and took part in several international scientific meetings.
BILINGUALISM IN A CHILD WITH ASPERGER’S SYNDROME
IN INCLUSIVE EDUCATIONAL CONDITIONS

Abstract: Bilingual children with Asperger's syndrome and children with other forms of autism are already a recognized fact; however, this still remains an area that is under-researched. Examples of bilingualism in Asperger’s syndrome or autism are reported mostly by parents from bilingual backgrounds. There are data and cases recorded that the children from the autistic spectrum are capable of language change or code switching. This research deals with the schooling conditions and family environment of a bilingual boy with Asperger’s syndrome, as well as his developmental characteristics. As a research method, a case study was used, representing an eight-year-old bilingual boy from Vojvodina with Asperger’s syndrome in a regular elementary school. The boy's specific trait is that besides noticeable difficulties in speech and communication, he speaks two languages – Hungarian as native, and Serbian as a language of surroundings with a large vocabulary. The study covers the time period of three years during which the development of the child was followed, from preparatory pre-school group, and the first and second grade of elementary school. Classes are held according to the individualized approach in the school where elements of the Step by Step program are part of the teaching method. The results show some very interesting data and links between the child's progress, his academic achievement, and bilingualism.

Keywords: Asperger’s syndrome, autism, bilingualism, code-switch, inclusive education.

Introduction

The inclusive educational condition has only become relevant in Serbia as well as in Vojvodina in the past couple of years. This made it possible for children, who suffer from development difficulties, to have the opportunity to be admitted into regular elementary schools. The new educational paradigm has surfaced a couple of dilemmas among the educators as well as among parents and professionals. There have been frequent discussions about the inclusive educational conditions, about the advantages and disadvantages of the receptive schools, and about the methodology of teaching (Velišek-Braško, 2012).

A new law on fundamental education and educational system was adopted in 2009, which classified quality education as a national priority, which means a successful education for all children. This demands professional, methodological, and approached based reformation of schools as well as the openness of the educational system for every
child. The task of inclusive, receptive education is to educate children with special needs together with other children within the frameworks of the school system. Every child is capable of learning although, in a different way and at a different pace. The conventional education and the old mindset are not flexible enough to accept the principles of the inclusive education. The new school paradigm supports the interactive education, which is a differential education, and it encompasses individualization, diverse forms of engagement, methodologies, and learning techniques. For a school like this it is not difficult to implement the inclusive education and apply its principles, which can satisfy the unique pedagogical and educational needs of psychologically disabled children.

An elementary school in Novi Sad is a model of a receptive school in Serbia, in which the inclusive education is applied. The school's distinctiveness is its bilingual education (in Hungarian and in Serbian), the Step by Step program which contributed to the successful education of a number of autistic children.

This paper deals with the case of an autistic boy with Asperger’s syndrome in the above mentioned school. The bilingual and constructive educational environment, the pedagogues’ conformation to the personal needs of the pupils greatly stimulated the development of the observed boy.

**About the Asperger’s syndrome**

The Asperger’s disorder is a milder form of autism (its abbreviation is AS) that is, a neurobiological pervasive developmental disorder. This anomaly was first described by the Austrian psychiatrist and pediatrician Dr Hans Asperger (1906–1980) in 1944 as autistic psychopathy. The syndrome was named after him by a British psychiatrist and psychologist Dr Lorna Wing who first used this term in 1981 in one of her essays. It is characterized by a normal rate of language development. It can occur at any level of intelligence, even among the mentally disabled. In 30-50% of the cases it is not diagnosed because it’s difficult identification (Attwood, 2008).

Lora Wing (Burgoine & Wing, 1983) describes the Asperger’s syndrome the following way:

- Lack of empathy,
- Childish, not adequate relationship to the situation or one-sided relationship,
- Neat, the speech is characterized by repetitions
- Pour nonverbal communication
- Intense interests towards certain subjects,
- Clumsy, poorly coordinated movements, abnormal postures.

Asperger’s syndrome causes clinically significant social impairments or impairments in the field of other important functions. This syndrome makes children inapt to empathize with their peers. The delay of motor development may occur, e.g. they learn to ride a bicycle much later than their peers. They may have issues with movement coordination, with the synchronization of vision and movement. They may face problems with proprioception (awareness of the position of one's body), with balance, and the inability of opposable thumbs. These children do not sleep a lot, and they also wake up several times during the
night. It is unclear whether these abnormalities are relevant concerning Asperger’s syndrome in respect to other well-functioning autisms, however, they must be differentiated.

“In the spirit of the Nazi eugenics in the past every deviation and hereditary disability would have been exterminated. Asperger defended children who were diagnosed with autistic psychopathy, claiming that they also have their place in society; they occupy their roles, moreover even better than others. He also came up with the label “little professors”. He believed that these children subsequently would achieve a great step forward and they will develop into grownups who will have unique thinking (Wikipedia, 2011).” This anecdote reflects Asperger’s attitude which is equivalent to today’s inclusive education principles. Every child has a place and role in society, even if it lives with developmental difficulties.

Tony Attwood (2008) referred to children with Asperger’s syndrome as special children and pointed out six development areas in which they have particular difficulties:

- The social behavior, which refers to mutual games played together with other children, behavior principles, friendship, eye contact and emotions.
- Speech and language characteristics in the field of pragmatics, literal interpretation, speech melody, pedantic speech, specific use of idiolect, out loud thinking, auditory discrimination, distortion, and speaking skills.
- Interests and routines concerning special interests and rituals.
- Movement disorders can be detected in the field of locomotion, sensory spheres, balance, dexterity, handwriting, rapid movements, loose joints, rhythm, and imitation.
- Cognitive behavior difficulties, concerning the theory of mind, memory, flexible thinking, reading, spelling, numbers, imagination and visual thinking.
- Stimulus processing disorder can include hypersensitivity to sounds, touch, food and flavors, odor and visual stimuli, and a high tolerance for pain and temperature.

Children with Asperger’s syndrome are characterized by antisocial personality disorder, for instance, avoid eye contact, improper use of gestures to regulate social interactions; does not participate in social or emotional relationships. All of these cause significant problems in social relationships, at school or work. Language acquisition and language use is often unconventional. They are characterized by verbosity, by misunderstanding subtle nuances and the use of metaphors, unintelligible to others. Speech is formal and pedantic; the tone of the voice is not in accordance with the situation. The pitch, intonation, and rhythm of the sound can be equally affected. In addition, they may have problems with the quality of sound as well. A child with Asperger’s syndrome disregards the listener’s indications concerning whether the listener is interested in what the child wants to say or not. It may occur that the child is unable to retain his/her thoughts. The logic of their thoughts is often unfollowable, unable to draw conclusions from them, and to understand what they meant or to turn the conversation to another topic. Children with Asperger’s syndrome already in preschool may have a large vocabulary (“little professors”) however; they tend to interpret the language literally (Wikipedia, 2011). The interests of individuals with Asperger’s syndrome are often restricted and repetitive.
Stereotyped and repetitive movements also form the essential part of the diagnosis. These include hand flapping, shaking, twisting as well as complex whole-body movements. Main symptoms include narrow and restricted interests. They gather together a great amount of information in a relatively limited number of subjects, such as dinosaurs or freezers without knowing anything about the broader topic, into which the subject of interest is included. The child’s interactions are often so dominated by their circle of interests that the whole family immerses in it. Empathy is the most damaged area of individuals with Asperger’s syndrome. They are also not aware of the basics of building relationships. Further on these include a lack of social and emotional reciprocity, the difficulties in forming friendships or impairment of meta-communication (eye contact, facial expressions, and gestures).

They do not retreat from human contact they rather commence lengthy conversations about topics, which are to their liking ignoring the indications of their listeners whether they are interested or they would rather leave. This kind of behavior is active but unusual. It seems as if he/she has no regards for others and may appear insensitive. The tests showed that children with Asperger’s syndrome in theory, understand others emotional responses, and social norms, but in real life situations have difficulties in applying them. They observe, analyze and enclose these norms into rigorous rules and apply them immediately, thus they appear to be rigid or socially naive. Due to unsuccessful attempts to establish relationships they may suppress that childhood desire for company (Attwood, 2008).

The 8-year-old boy, who is introduced in this paper, is abreast of the described symptoms of Asperger’s syndrome. He was born in 2003 in Novi Sad and lives with his parents and with his 4-year-old brother. His parents have not noticed any kind of particular abnormality until he was two, two-and-a-half years old when the educational difficulties began. The integration period into pre-school was prolonged in his third year, due to frequent health problems. When he was 5 years old his behavioral problems intensified among his friends in kindergarten. In the preparatory group with the help of the kindergarten psychologist they created a personalized plan according to which the education and tutoring was conducted with him. Already at the age of 6, according to the evaluation of the psychologist, he had a rich vocabulary; he could interpret and use complex concepts for his age. He loves his friends, upon meeting them he gets in a euphoric state. However, he does not participate in games. He often plays beside children but not together with them. He does not obey the rules of board games and he is not fond of them either. His has a plump physique and has difficulties regarding his mobility, he is unable to ride a bicycle, he is clumsy concerning ball games and he is not willing to work out. He likes to dance and snorkel. His intelligence level is on the lower limit of the average and has difficulties in literacy acquisition. However, concerning empathy he has less deficiency compared to the description above. Besides the mentioned he’s most outstanding trait is his great knowledge about topics that he is in favor of (dinosaurs, animals, archaeologists, and investigations), as well as the fluent usage and vide vocabulary knowledge of the Hungarian mother tongue, the language of the environment, Serbian, and the interest in the English language and in the learning of the same. According to the Australian Scale for Asperger’s syndrome the boy has 94 points out of 144. On this scale the 0 denotes the expected average behavior of a child attending
elementary school. Out of the ten posed extra questions seven statements are related to the boy (Appendix 1 the scale and the questions). It stands as an interesting data that one can classify the difficulties in socialization and communication among the key symptoms of the syndrome however despite that fact he holds a rich vocabulary in both languages. One may pose the question, does learning languages belong to the interests of the boy or children with Asperger’s syndrome have the ability of bilingualism or bilingualism is a characteristic of the Asperger’s syndrome?

Bilingualism

In search of the resolution of complex psychological issues as the relation of thinking and speech or the affect of the diverse social environment on the development, often, along the way, they researched bilingualism as well (Göncz, 2004). Bilingualism was examined from different aspects of psychological disciplines, among them mostly developmental psychology, children’s language psycholinguistics, sociopsycholinguistics, social psychology and educational psychology.

Bilingualism has many definitions and specifications which are influenced by the various interpretations and approaches of experts and scholars, as well as their aspects of their researches.

Bilingualism is a specific pedagogical problem for gentilitial schools. The pupils of national schools must learn both their mother tongue and the language of the state. This is not the same as foreign language acquisition (Pedagógiai lexikon, 1977).

According to Grosjean’s definition (1992) “Bilingualism is the regular use of two (or more) languages, bilinguals are those individuals who need to use two or more languages in their everyday lives.” Bilingual people are equally aware of language A and language B (Csallóközi, 2011).

From the two definitions follows the explanation of two aspects of bilingualism, one as a social phenomenon, the other as the characteristics of the personality. There are more definitions on the characteristics of the personality than on bilingual individuals and from the aspect of this paper these definitions are more important.

The following definitions are distinguished concerning bilingualism (Skutnab-Kangas, 1991):

- The definition of bilingualism on the basis of competence,
- The definition of bilingualism on the basis of the function,
- The definition of bilingualism on the basis of identification.

Instead of giving a definition, Skutnab-Kangas describes bilingualism (1991:111): “A speaker is bilingual who is able to function in two (or more) languages, either in monolingual or multilingual communities, in accordance with the sociocultural demands made on an individual’s communicative and cognitive competence by these communities and by the individual herself, at the same level as native speakers, and who is able to
identify positively with both (or all) groups (and cultures) or part of them (Göncz, 2004:30).”

A bilingual person can be classified into four groups, depending under what circumstances the individual became bilingual (Skutnab-Kangas, 1991):

- **Elite bilinguals** – children from middle and upper class families who travel, live a few years abroad or children who study abroad on scholarships. Children belonging to this group voluntarily learn another language; they also receive encouragement learning their mother tongue. Positive, friendly and patient attitude is practiced towards them when they are speaking the other language.
- **Children from linguistic majorities** – children who are learning a foreign language and children who are admitted to professional programs or classes are conducted in another language most commonly in the language of the minorities.
- **In this category choosing to be bilingual is voluntary and it can be kept as an asset which already is given to them as well as benefiting from the advantages of bilingualism.**
- **Children in bilingual families** – parents of children who belong to this category speak different languages. In this case a successful bilingual education can be risky – if the child does not become bilingual it can have negative effects both on the child and on the family. In this way, the child may become discontent therefore the relationship with a parent or with both of them may get worse.
- **Children from linguistic minorities** – are under strong internal and external pressure to become well educated and to be successful on economic terms as well. Failure involves huge risks because the consequences could become disastrous. If the child remains monolingual, the possibilities for education will narrow down to which employment opportunities are closely linked. Another negative effect is the possibility that the child becomes monolingual in the language of the environment, which draws negative consequences such as breaking away from the family, even isolation can occur. The third negative consequence occurs when the child is unable to acquire any of the two languages on the level of an original speaker and the combination of the already mentioned two negative aspects can occur.

On the other hand, besides the risks for children from minority language groups, the influence of the dominant language of the environment and the encouragement and study of the minority language (mother tongue) in the family, further on, the existence of educational and cultural institutions, may provide the best opportunity for the realization of the benefits of bilingualism.

At the beginning of the last century aspects of bilingualism which were highlighted as being negative and voicing the disadvantages of the same was a commonplace, today are claimed to be the advantages:

- Contact with two languages does exist
- The state of remaining a bilingual for a longer time period is more persistent
- A bilingual individual is conscious of language A and B
- The speaker uses the languages interchangeably
• The rules do not mix
• Predominantly common vocabulary (with semantic differences)
• Knowledge of everyday and folk expressions (Csallóközi, 2011).

The 8-year-old boy, mentioned in this thesis, is bilingual. He belongs to the minority language group and most of the key aspects of bilingualism apply to him. He is consciously using both languages. He has difficulties in language usage, word order, pronunciation and following the rules of grammar in his mother tongue as well. In preschool, to the surprise of the family and his speech therapist, he adopted the language of the community on his own at a very fast pace. His vocabulary in both languages is very rich, predominantly in topics favored by him. Interestingly, he gladly uses language-specific expressions, idioms, and phrases in both languages.

The relation between bilingualism and autism

In recent years, there were such case presentations, predominantly on the internet, in which children with autism and Asperger's syndrome were associated with bilingualism. This could be referred to as a phenomenon due to the fact that no research or literature can be found on this topic.

A nanny, in 2003 in Norway, worked with a 7-year-old autistic child who was diagnosed with Down syndrome and with other autoimmune diseases, and who loved Dora cartoons. Through the Dora cartoons the child learned a little Spanish. The child knew the words for colors, numbers, letters, names of basic objects, in Spanish, English and in Norwegian. Interestingly, children with the mentioned difficulties are capable of doing the same as any other child.

On the 8th International Congress for Autism in Europe there were two presentations on the relation of autism and bilingualism. Both presentations pointed out that there were no previous studies done in this area, however, there exists data from the past about families of autistic children who were advised by professionals to choose one language for their child. Two presentations showed positive results in those families who refused the advice and the autistic children learned another language as well. On the basis of different educational experiences of families it was concluded that autistic children are bilingual (Autism and PDD Support Network).

Are children with Asperger’s syndrome capable of learning one foreign language and becoming bilinguals? This issue has been addressed by Christine Besnard and Glendon College, from the University of Toronto (York University, Toronto, Canada), and they have shown positive results. This is particularly interesting if we know that among the main symptoms of Asperger's syndrome is the disability of social communication that is, they already have difficulties in their first language (L1). In professional circles, only the mentioned study verifies that children with Asperger's syndrome are able to learn a foreign or second language (L2). There are thousands of families in the world living in bilingual/multilingual countries and are faced with the question which language should they teach their autistic child: the official language of the country or the language of their family? In their research they observed autistic children, who function on a high level,
during the acquisition of the second language (L2). They studied the benefits of this and the effect it has on their overall development. Longitudinal study was used on a number of well-functioning autistic children who were learning L2 and during that process they were monitoring the children’s progress of communication and language disorder in the regular Canadian French-language school program. The results suggest that autistic individuals who function well are capable of learning L2. Moreover, despite the fact that in the field of communication and social interaction they have deficiencies, the learning of L2 would serve as a tool for the development of the same. This study showed positive results not only in language acquisition, but the positive effect it has on the transfer of L1-L2 and on cognitive, emotional, cultural and social development as well. (Besnard, 2007)

Elizabeth Grindheim from the Rikshospitalet-Radiumhospitalet Medical Center in Oslo, Norway worked on the development of autism and bilingualism. There has been a small amount of literature written on autistic children learning two languages. Questions are raised about the ability of children with autism, learning conditions and progression. There is no literature about the development of the communication skills and language acquisition of autistic children who are mastering two cultures. According to a case study a boy, with bilingual background, who at the beginning was speechless, was observed for two years while attending pre-school. Based on the results after two years he was able to communicate in both languages. He mixed the order of the words but used them in accordance with the non-verbal signals. The case study concludes that autistic children are able to do code-switching during the use of language. In order to achieve a positive outcome it is inevitable to employ the intervention and inclusion philosophy that is, the interaction between the day-care nursery and the family contributes to the child’s cognitive development (Grindheim, 2007).

A father from Quebec posed a question, if a child who suffers from Asperger’s syndrome and has problems with pronunciation of words in his mother tongue, how is it possible for this child to learn another language? In Canada, children acquire two languages, English and French. The son (with Asperger’s syndrome), of the mentioned father, is bilingual but he is unable to speak in a grammatically correct way. He learned the Spanish language through a DVD on a computer.

From family circles a friend mentioned a family to him in which a 13-year-old autistic boy speaks 3 or actually 4 languages. He learned French, Spanish, and Japanese on his own with the help of a computer software.

The same Canadian father met a Chinese autistic child in a camp for autistic children who liked to count in Spanish and loved mathematics (Autism and PDD Support Network).

The boy with Asperger’s syndrome from Novi Sad who is shown in this paper, in addition to the mentioned bilingualism at the beginning of first grade he had major difficulties with numbers that is, he did not understand the concept of numbers. He could only count to ten in a mechanic manner, he could not connect the written number with the quantity of that number and he even had problems differentiating between numbers 2 and 3. On the child development educator’s proposal he began learning numbers in English with the help of the parents, teacher and English teacher. By the end of the first grade and during the summer holidays as a result a tremendous development happened concerning
mathematics. At the beginning of second grade he is able to grasp the concept of numbers until twenty. Operations such as adding and subtracting are performed independently almost flawlessly and he is able to count to one hundred by tens. The results can be attributed to the inclusive education that is, the child is individually, through a personalized program acquiring school material. The teacher creates separate tasks on a daily basis for the pupil with individualized expectations, instructions, and uses a lot of interactive methods in the classroom (Step by Step program). During class pupils are frequently involved in group activities and the teacher is creating a cooperative environment in the classroom.

More similar cases and examples do exist but there is no recorded data about children with autism and with Asperger’s syndrome bilingual or multilingual in a bilingual or a non-bilingual environment. Already these valuable case reports could prove that children with autistic spectrum are able to acquire one or more languages and learning languages can have a positive impact on their social and cognitive development.

Language switching and Asperger’s syndrome

Linguists refer to language switching as code switching concerning bilinguals. Different theories give explanations for code switching and its rules.

A number of researches have studied the code switching among bilinguals that is, the language systems’ reciprocal effects. Penfield and Roberts in their “one switch model of bilingual functioning” assume the existence of a neurophysiological mechanism that automatically switches off one language system while the other one is in operation. Linguistic stimuli coming from the environment automatically activates the decoding system of the language that they originate in (Göncz, 2004). The one switch model of bilingual functioning highlights language independence but opposite to this is the two switch model of bilingual functioning that emphasizes the linguistic interference during the encoding and decoding of language switching.

Howard Giles, a professor of communication at the University of California, developed the Communication Accommodation Theory CAT (2011), in which he explains cognitive changes of code-switching and other changes in speech. During a conversation the speakers are trying to minimize the existing social differences among them. According to the claims of professor Giles, when a speaker’s desire is to build other people’s approval in a social situation they are more likely to moderate their speech to their co-speaker. This can relate but is not limited to the choice of speech, accent, dialect, paralinguistic properties. The opposite occurs when the speaker uses a different phrasing through which the speaker emphasizes the social distance between him/her and other speakers. In these instances the speaker uses the speaking characteristics of their own language group and emphasizes its features. Thus in terms of the situation the intersubjective background of the code-switching can be observed or the part of the broader intersubjective process. Due to the interpersonal context we think, feel, and behave differently. This does not mean that we lose our individuality while communicating with others; instead we try to conform to others not just on the surface but on a deeper, subconscious level in order to secure the relationship with them. During social
interactions there are constant adjustments, maladjustments, and readjustments happening. With bilingual individuals code-switching may occur as part of the interpersonal settings, when they speak to another bilingual person. According to the phenomenological theory intersubjectivity allows multiple functions, such as empathy. Based on the above, the following questions arise: Since with Asperger’s syndrome social interactions and the capacity of the intersubjective adjustment are damaged, what happens to bilingual people with Asperger’s syndrome when it comes to code-switching? If the code modifies the intersubjective settings what kind of effect can it have on the Asperger’s syndrome?

Methodology

The research shows a positive example of inclusive education in a bilingual environment through the case study of a boy (8 years old) with Asperger’s syndrome. The model elementary school which the boy is attending has been using inclusive education for the past seven years with a highly trained staff and has been developing the school with several “inclusive” projects. In this school one can observe inclusive politics, culture, and practice. Bilingual education is one of the characteristics of the school, i.e. the education is conducted in Serbian and Hungarian languages and the application of the Step by Step program, which is a world-renowned child-centered educational program.

The subject of the research: the effect of bilingualism and the effectiveness of inclusive education on the development of a child with Asperger’s syndrome.

The research is longitudinal since, it lasted for three years from the preparatory group in pre-school until the end of second grade elementary school that is, from the time the child started receiving a personalized individual plan.

The location of the research: Novi Sad, Dunavirág Pre-School and Sonja Marinković Elementary School.

Research results

The results gathered during the course of the research show difficulties or mannerisms of the boy’s development and behavior process in the family, pre-school, or elementary schools which are grouped within the development areas:

**Emotional development**

- He was not a typical baby; he could not be calmed down by hugging or stroking only by putting him in a baby carriage and taking him on bumpy carriage rides.
- Estrangement from family members if they have not seen him for a couple days.
- He was not a crying baby
- “His love often hurts.”

By the age of seven major developments were observed concerning empathy, for example, he protects his younger brother when someone yells at him or hurts him.
Social development
- Between the ages of 5 and 6 some problems appeared in pre-school. He played beside the other children and often he would get into conflicts with them, he did not want to participate in activities.
- Between the ages 6 and 7 he is anticipating his friends’ arrival in a euphoric state but he plays with them for very short period of time. He does not like group activities.
- At the age of 8 he loves his friends very much, he likes to make friends outside of school but he is the one who is in control of the games.

Speech and language development
- In his first year he learns to speak.
- During his pre-school years people became aware of his difficulties in pronunciation of sounds and of the incorrect use of grammar in his mother tongue. (he has been going to a speech therapist since the age of four)
- By the age of five he independently mastered the language of the environment; he used full sentences and he became bilingual.
- At the age of six he aroused admiration from his psychologist and speech therapist because of his rich vocabulary and understanding of complex concepts.
- In first grade English was his favorite subject and it was the English alphabet that he learned first.
- Between the ages of 7 and 8 he often uses specific phrases in everyday speech.
- The speech rate, rhythm and loudness are specific. He often imitates sounds or situations with prominent mannerisms and body language.

Cognitive development
- Between the ages of four and seven his IQ level reached the lower limit of the average intelligence level.
- He has been tutored for three years according to an individual personalized plan (he receives individual tasks and the expectations are personalized).
- He has an incredible memory (he remembers a lot of things from his early childhood) his visual memory is specifically strong (he remembers tropes).
- He has difficulties with reading and writing.
- He is full of ideas, solutions. He is very creative and has a rich fantasy.
- At the age of seven he could only count in a mechanic manner and he only knew the concept of number 3. On the child development educator’s proposal he began learning numbers in English. By the beginning of second grade he mastered operations such as adding and subtracting up to number twenty, and he could count until one hundred. He performed these tasks almost flawlessly. In second grade he learned to add and subtract two digit numbers and he began to learn the multiplication table (in the appendix 2 the child’s products can be seen).

Conclusion

The boy presented in this case study stands as a positive example of inclusive education. He proved to be a great success and showed progress during the observation. The family is a huge support in this case and they are exemplary and accepting. Child therapists and therapies, psychologists, speech therapists, and development educators had a huge
impact on the child’s development as well as dancing, kinesitherapy, horseback riding and a variety of other workshops. The host school, the class, the teachers and their attitudes and work stimulated the child’s progress in all development areas. Owing to the high quality and effective teaching and to the Step by Step program and the well applied individualization the inclusive education shows positive results. Concerning the 8-year-old boy with Asperger’s syndrome it has been noted that he has no serious injuries in the field of empathy and he has highly expressed compassion towards close people (towards his younger brother, parents, and grandmother). It is possible that the development of this area was also stimulated by bilingualism and by switch between languages.

The most specific and interesting information of this research is the stimulating effect of bilingualism and multilingualism on the social, emotional, and cognitive development of the observed child.

This is a new area which is not sufficiently researched on the part of psychologists, development educators and educators. Perhaps it is most important for the parents to have a new treatment for their child’s development.

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Biographical note

Otilia Velišek-Braško was born in 1975 in Novi Sad. She graduated from the Philosophical Faculty at Novi Sad University, Teaching Methodology Department and became a pedagogue in 2003. She defended her doctoral dissertation in 2014 and its title was Development of competencies for inclusive education in the system of professional development of teachers, mentored by Dr Olivera Gajic at the same faculty. Her working experience refers to 8 years of engagement as a medical nurse-kindergarten teacher in nursery working with children aging between 1 and 3, and 8 years of engagement as a school pedagogue in a primary school. Since 2012 she has worked at the Preschool Teacher Training College in Novi Sad, as an assistant for pedagogic sciences, teaching courses at basic and specialist studies.
TEACHERS' PERCEPTION OF STORIES: DIFFERENT METHODOLOGICAL APPROACHES IN STORY-BASED PRACTICE

Resume: This article is based on the results gained from the research about the perception teachers have about stories. The study was conducted in Sweden and the main purpose was to partially fulfill the requirements for the Erasmus Mundus joint degree “International Master of Early Childhood Education and Care”.

The studies on teachers' perception of stories and the way they are using them are not in abundance. This fact together with the awareness that stories are inseparable part of our life, made it interesting to go deeper into the analysis of teachers' views and approaches to stories. LaFlamme (1975) argues for a more meaningful story time in preschool where children will not be only passive listeners, but active participants. Mottley and Telfer (1997) and Tin, Nonis, Lim, and Honig (2013) studies are referring to teachers' perception of the importance of stories in children's lives and what are teachers' expectation and concerns regarding stories.

The purpose of the study was to gain insights into how the Swedish preschool teachers perceive and discuss about the role of the stories and the methods they use in order to use stores in their practice. The study was conducted as a small-scale interview study and the data was collected through semi-structured interviews. The study adopted Vygotsky's socio-cultural theory as a framework for discussing teachers’ perception of stories and the role stories have in preschool practice.

Introduction

Early childhood is recognized to be a period from birth to the age of eight. For children, this is a period when the world is an open stage for learning, exploration and new experiences. Most of the time children learn by doing, but also through observation and listening (Evans, Mayers & Ilfeld, 2000). Place of stories in this formative stage has its importance. Stories give imaginative space for children to develop holistically, because there is a wide range of possibilities to use stories. The stories can be read, told or dramatized and they can be part of every educational activity. Most frequently, the benefits of storytelling are mentioned when discussing the language development. While hearing, reading or telling a story, children become aware of the structure of the
sentences and symbolic meaning of the language. In addition, children encounter new words in the stories that enrich their vocabulary (Isbell, Sobol, Lindauer & Lowrance, 2004). Children’s play is a very important segment of development and it is very common for children to role-play. The stories are usually part of role-play, where the children take the roles of different characters and in that way by “doing” a story, the children develop socialization skills and meet the world that surrounds them (Saracho & Spodek, 2006). Hamilton and Weiss (2005) argue that stories are beneficial to children in many ways. Further, they argue that one of the most important quality stories give is a sense of fun in children’s activities, regardless of whether there is an educational or just amusing purpose of that activity.

Methodological approaches in story-based practice

Choosing appropriate methodological approach in teaching is equally important as knowing about changes that occur in child development. The teaching process is an interaction between the teacher and the student, in this case, the child. By choosing appropriate approach, teacher enables learning to take place (Siraj-Blatchford, Sylva, Muttock, Gilden & Bell, 2002). In the early years, it is hard to talk about ‘teaching’ since the desirable pedagogical model is child centered and play based. Pramling Samuelsson and Asplund Carlsson (2008) argue that for children, play and learning go hand in hand and that sustainable pedagogy that recognizes that, is future oriented. Although not denying that preschool practice should be open enough for play, creativity and exploration, Siraj-Blatchfort et al. (2002) point out that effective pedagogy should be also 'instructive' to some extent in order to fulfill developmental goals and objectives.

Good educational practice is influenced by many factors. Social, historical and cultural context, policies, pedagogy, curriculum and teachers' education are some of the conditions that shape preschool practice. Even though curricula usually provide guidelines for teachers, most of the time teachers are the one who decide what pedagogical approaches and educational tools, they will use. An era of technological revolution and innovations in many areas, including education, brings new, modern approaches to teaching practice. Teachers are presented with many new techniques and tools that may improve the practice and make it more interesting for children. Interactive whiteboard, computer tablets and many other devices become useful educational tools. This equipment also facilitates the practice that refers to literacy and numeracy development (Sadik, 2008).

Dowley and McNamee (2005) write about the work of author and teacher, Vivian Gussin Paley. Paley discusses children's play, learning and friendships. Further, she argues that through children’s narratives the adults can reach the richness of children's thoughts and depth of their concerns. Paley offers a story based curriculum where the child is perceived as active in developing fantasy and reality world as a context for learning. In her curriculum, Paley offers seven narrative tools that can be used in story presentation. The tools Paley presents are: (1) children's play; (2) dictated and dramatized stories; (3) parents as storytellers in preschools; (4) story that is read over and over again, acted out and expressed through different art forms; (5) a choice of one author whose stories will be read whole year and teacher's perception on how the stories of one author influence
the children; (6) folk tales made up by teachers; and (7) a form of Socratic method, where children are encouraged to talk and discuss about classroom social issues through narratives. According to Dowley and McNamee (2005), these seven tools create a curriculum for language development, play, cognitive, socio-emotional development and arts. Paley storytelling curriculum does not assume that during the day children do not have math, science or art. Paley suggests that all of these knowledge areas can be integrated into children’s playful activities, if the adults listen the children more carefully. If the teacher listens and stimulates children’s curiosity by asking questions within different educational areas, the teachers and the children will be constantly connected to art, science, literature or some other educational area (Dowley & McNamee, 2005). Paley (1981) states that after introducing to children storytelling and story acting method, they gladly give up play for some story and drama time. However, all together, it was only an extension of play, because while telling and performing the stories, children actually did what they naturally do in playtime and that is make-believe play.

According to Paley’s storytelling curriculum, the company “MakeBelieve Arts” develops a program known as Helicopter Technique. Cremin, Swan, Flewitt, Faulkner, and Kucirkova, (2012) study was based on the Helicopter Technique and its impact. The main aim was to evaluate the effects this technique has on children and teachers as well as to provide indicators of how this technique can be improved. The technique implies that children initiate telling the story to the teacher. Those stories are scribbled by teachers and later acted by the whole group of children. The results identified benefits of this approach to language and communication development. Teachers reported significant changes in children’s confidence and sense of agency. This technique also gave a confidence boost to the teachers who were insecure about storytelling in teaching practice. The program also stimulated teachers to review their pedagogical approaches and use stories for reflective practice too. Griffiths (2010) also reports positive reaction of the teachers who used helicopter technique. The teachers argued that the technique gave them valuable time with children one on one. They found that by telling their own stories children were able to deal with some serious issues in their life. At the same time the teachers were given insights into children’s thinking that enables them to be more responsive about certain issues. Helping the children face certain life issues also enhances children’s capability to self-regulate their behavior. Berk, Mann and Ogan (2006) and Wright, Diener and Kemp (2013) argue that play-based and story-based activities help self-regulation, especially among anxious children.

Stories can be a very practical educational tool. Different methods that can be applied to stories make them attractive, interesting and innovative for teachers and children. The activities could be child or teacher initiated and still the diverse nature of stories will bring educative and fun components to an activity and that is the goal of many curricula. The stories can be used in different educational activities like math, language development, music and movement, drama, play and drawing (Bodrova, 2008; Pelletier, 2011; Scottish Consultative Council on the Curriculum, 1999).

Expressive arts like drawing and dancing, and methods like storytelling or story acting can be very stimulating for children. Edwards (1990) suggests another interesting technique of storytelling with flannel board. This technique helps teachers who are not experienced
storytellers because the presence of the figures always makes the activity interesting for children. Children are also free to move around the board and find the place they enjoy the best. The characters on the board allow the children to use their imagination in interpreting and understanding the story. Characters can be made of different materials and children can enjoy making them with the teacher. In order to capture children’s attention, except from flannel board figures, it is important to choose a good story with interesting content.

Another method of using stories that Griffiths (2010) suggests, is the ‘talking table’ technique. Teachers and children have their own special table for storytelling. Children can join the table whenever they want and share stories with peers. Teachers’ reported that all kinds of issues come around this table. Sometimes there are just issues from children’s imagination, but then the table is a good place for teachers to help children solve conflicts too. One of the teachers found that the time she had around the table, helped her realize language difficulties some children have. Further, she stated that conversations around the table made her more reflective regarding her practice and planning.

The same talking table can be used in different activities. Already motivated to tell their stories, children could express their thoughts through drawings. Griffiths (2010) argues that the drawings can be great material for starting any kind of discussion with children. The teachers can use children’s drawings and talk to children about their emotions, according to the colors the children use while drawing. Further, she argues that drawings can be stimulated by stories, but also stories can be aroused out of drawings. Wright (2010) argues that storytelling and drawing are great companions in children’s artworks. Drawing and storytelling techniques allow children to alter the drawing or story compositions to their own needs and feelings. In this imaginative passage of time, children can change characters, alter the plot content, adjust the time frame, place and genre and express their ideas and visions.

In their studies, Mottley and Telfer (1998) and Tin et al. (2013) argue that the way stories are perceived and used by teachers depends on their personal experiences and interests. In general, teachers agreed that the stories are important for holistic development of children, though there were differences in the way stories were applied in practice. Some teachers use new technologies to make the activities more interesting for children while others use role-playing, puppets, picture books and picture cards.

Teachers as storytellers

Humans are natural storytellers and language is their strongest tool, while stories present human views on reality and fiction and give meaning to human experiences (Bruner, 1986). Although people are characterized as natural storytellers, the question on the quality of the story interpretation is continuously discussed. Grugueon and Gardner (2000) argue that the technique of telling a story does not come naturally. The natural is only the human drive to tell the story, but the technique is there to be developed. The best way for that is encouragement and practice and it applies to children as well as adults. Some of the advices are that it is important to choose an appropriate story. That is the story the
storyteller has to like and feel comfortable in telling. A good story is the one that can touch the audience and get them involved. It has to have defined characters, a problem and resolution. The storyteller should communicate with the audience, make eye contacts and present the story in a way that the audience can make their own vivid images about the story events (National Storytelling Network, 2012).

Grugeon and Gardner (2000) discuss different responses of trainee teachers and teachers, on their first experiences with telling a story. A typical response was that they were anxious and that storytelling was a new thing for them. In a way, reading a story from a book gives a feeling of safety, where the reader does not need to use eye contact and body language. Most of the time, in early childhood, books consider pictures and teachers are prone to read and show the pictures to the children. Even though telling a story brings different dimension to preschool activities, reading from a book and showing the pictures is also beneficial because children use pictures to understand the story better. White (cited in Collins, 1999) discusses the importance of illustrations in the books and the pictures children form in their minds. Further, he argues that when you read a familiar story to a child, the child very often does not look in the book, but outward, picturing the images in his mind.

Stories are a part of preschool curricula even though sometimes it is not clearly stated. No matter what area of child development is discussed, stories can be used as a tool (Daniel, 2007). The phrases “active learning” and “collaborative learning” go hand in hand with stories in curricular guidelines and express the picture of an active child who is engaged and enjoy learning activities. The role of the adult in this case is to give support and encouragement (Rawson, 2002; Scottish Consultative Council on the Curriculum, 1999). Concepts of zone of proximal development and scaffolding present learning as a process of shared responsibilities. The role of the teacher is to cooperate with children and leads them in the direction of acquiring new knowledge (Bruner, 1986; Kozulin et.al, 2003). As an educational tool, stories could be good material for teachers to scaffold children’s learning and development.

When discussing the role teachers have in story-based practice, Rawson (2002) argue that teachers should be sensitive to children’s stories as well as for the stories they tell to the children. They need to follow the child and recognize their ability to tell a story. By nurturing the storytelling skills, teachers support language development. Further, he argues that teachers should avoid suppression of children’s need to tell stories by correcting them or giving constant instructions. They should organize activities where different storytelling styles will be used and where children will be active listeners.

Another great role of the teacher is to choose the appropriate story and to present the story in an interesting and for children understandable way. Daniel (2007) argues that the story should be carefully chosen. The teacher needs to connect and enjoy the story in order to pass the enthusiasm to children. The moment the children feel that teacher is enthralled with the story, they become more engaged. Further, Daniel discusses the choice of reading and telling the story and while not rejecting the value of reading, he stresses the importance of telling the stories to children. He finds that the book is a physical barrier between teacher and the children. While telling the story, the teachers
can adapt the language to the needs of the children and incorporate their responses into the telling.

To become a good storyteller and to include plenty of ideas and techniques into the practice obviously is not an easy task. Stories and their place in preschool practice as well as the role of the teachers as storytellers are questions that are unfairly sidelined. When discussing them, there are perspectives and concerns that seek for answers. In their research Mottley and Telfer (1997), among other things, discussed with teachers about their concerns regarding storytelling practice. It is interesting that 90% of the interviewees declared that they are concerned about story selection and that they usually pick the story that is interesting for them and for children. The teachers were also concerned with how to become a good storyteller, taking out as the most important feature, the ability of the storyteller to keep the listeners involved. Just a small percentage of the teachers had ideas about watching professional storytellers and actually learning how to be a storyteller as a possible solution for their concern. Mottley and Telfer further argue that the teachers agreed on the importance of storytelling and that the following constructive step should be included of storytelling seminars in teacher education.

Perspectives on the Theoretical Framework

How to “teach” becomes a question with many answers. Choosing an appropriate teaching approach in early childhood practice is a topic of considerable debate. Stremmel (1993) argues that Vygotsky’s socio-cultural theory can be a good framework for guiding early childhood practice. Further, he argues that by applying Vygotsky’s theory, a clearer perspective could be achieved regarding learning and teaching processes within the socio-cultural context where children learn and develop. About the importance of the cultural context and learning process Rogoff and Morelli (1989) argues that human development and behavior very much depend on the culture and the context of human activity. For them that is exactly what Vygotsky’s theory highlights, the connection between the development of higher mental processes in human behavior, like memory, perception or reasoning and the products of society and culture, like language or mathematical system.

Rogoff and Morelli (1989) see the application of Vygotsky’s theory as very useful in the teaching practice and learning process. The socio-cultural aspect highlights the importance of the environment where the learning takes place. The learning process is more effective if the teachers and children are perceived as active agents in knowledge formation. In active learning process, Nicolopoulou (2005) sees children's play as crucial, but also as intertwined with children's narratives. Further, she argues that play and narratives are symbolic expressions of children's imagination that is related to children's experiences in social and cultural context.

Dyson and Genishi (1994) perceive stories as social, cultural and historical tool. From the socio-cultural perspective, it can be assumed that stories can be used as material or tool in the activities of a social nature. By using stories, children will be directed to each other
and they will learn from each other. The social interactions will bring the awareness of others and direct the children to regulate their behavior too.

Methodology

The study was conducted as a small-scale qualitative research. Qualitative research has a very long history. The roots can be discerned in the 19th century, when German philosopher Dilthey used the term ‘verstehen’, meaning, ‘to understand’, in order to describe subjective views of different phenomena (Lapan, Quartaroli & Riemer, 2011).

Qualitative research can be defined as an approach to studies, done in a social world. Data are usually textual or visual materials, that describe the human experiences about themselves or interactions they have with others (Cohen, Manion & Morrison, 2007; Saldana, 2011).

The research question that guided the study is:

- How do teachers perceive stories in preschool practice?

This question is about to give answers on how teachers perceive stories, what place stories have in their practice and what are the methods they use when they include stories in daily activities with children.

The sampling strategy in this study was non-probability. Since gathering valid information is important for the quality of the study, sampling has to be adequate in order to choose appropriate participants. For this study, the best type of non-probability sampling was purposive sampling. Purposive sampling is a sampling where the participants are chosen with a specific purpose (Barbour, 2007; Fossey, Harvey, McDermott & Davidson, 2002). Cohen, Manion and Morrison (2007) and Teddlie and Yu (2007) argue that purposive sampling is used in order to gain participants with the certain knowledge of the field that is being researched.

The instrument developed for data collection, in this study, was semi-structured interview. Dicicco-Blum and Crabtree (2006) argue that semi-structured interview gives valuable in-depth information about participants’ views about certain matters. The interviews took approximately thirty to forty minutes and they were all conducted in the preschools where the teachers work. All eight interviews were audio recorded, which gave space to the interviewer to concentrate on the questions and the course of the interview as suggested by Kvale (1996).

The method used for data analysis is meaning analysis (Kvale, 1996). The interview transcripts were carefully read and coded. Strauss and Corbin (1990) argue that codes are used for naming the research phenomenon through close examination of data. The next step was meaning condensation through which I have summarized natural meaning units into short and clear themes. Meaning interpretation was the last step of the data analysis. I have interpreted the meanings of the examined phenomenon in accordance with the initial meanings coming from the interviews.
Findings

After the data was analyzed, the key concepts emerged indicating how teachers perceive the stories in preschool practice. The results also indicate how the stories are used in the practice according to the statements of the teachers.

Stories as Educational Tool

When discussing about stories, teachers agree that there are many different occasions and reasons for employing stories in their practice. The curriculum does not impose the use of stories, but the stories do become useful when teachers present some topics to the children. The results show that teachers perceive stories as a part of the curriculum and as a very useful educational tool.

Swedish Curriculum for the preschool (2010), provides guidelines for the teachers so that they fulfill certain developmental and learning goals with children. The curriculum covers different areas like language development, mathematics, creative expression and science. One of the teachers explains that, no matter which educational area she wants to cover, the preschool where she works have a big library. Among many other materials, the library possesses a large number of books that she likes to use in her practice. Since the preschool is located in the area with many immigrants, she usually uses stories about multicultural differences what is also one of the aims in Swedish preschool curriculum. Further, she explains that the books help her discuss with children about the reality that surrounds them and to explain to the children about the importance of the acceptance of the cultural differences.

Stories have their educational and informative components. Teachers agree that stories can be perceived as a motivating tool in the learning process and as a correlative link between other activities. The examples teachers give show how stories are connected to other activities like language, music or motor development and how the story can be a base for a teacher directed activity, where different goals are achieved.

For example, we did a story where a family with two children went to a zoo. I made up a story and I asked the children what they want to be in a story. Children could meet all kinds of animals there. So the animals could do some trick. Children who acted the animals could jump from one bench to another or practice balance and that is if we are talking about motor skills. In the park, there was an orchestra and some children played instruments that are also good for motor skills and musical development. The children were very excited, especially the younger one who was butterflies and flowers. We played in front of the parent and for children it was important to be in a play because they wanted to act for their parents. Children are also becoming more confident. (Teacher D)

In the quotation above, the teacher gives the example of an activity where the story, she came up with, served as a basis for a drama activity where all the children had their roles. Before the teacher and children engaged in a dramatization of the story, the teacher
introduced the story to the children and in agreement with them, designated the roles. The story made it possible for the teacher to connect language development, physical and musical education as well as learning about the nature and the society. The teacher argues that this kind of story dramatization is very beneficial for shy children. Performing in front of the audience builds children’s confidence. This occasion points how social context is important for children’s development and how cooperation with the adults helps children in their social interactions. The teachers use the story dramatization to include children in the discussion about the roles they wish to undertake and gives the children a possibility to take part in the process of making decisions. This opportunity gives to the children a chance to become aware of their social surroundings and to learn from the adults and peers.

Stories as Regulative Tool
The regulation of behavior as well as the self-regulation is commonly mentioned in preschool practice. Some children have difficulties to sit still during the circle time and follow the activity, or to get along with their peers. Teachers argue that stories are useful in regulating children’s behavior. One of the common arguments was that in the morning, when children are arriving, teachers have to come with the solution how to gather them before they start their daily activities. It turns out that storytelling is a good way for children to gather in the morning hours.

We read to them every morning when they arrive. We have a special corner where I work, it is a book corner. The teacher sits there with the children and parents come there to leave the children. We sit there and read half an hour every morning. (Teacher B)

When I come in the morning and a lot of children come at the same time, they can be loud and just run around not knowing what to do. I get them together and read a story. (Teacher C)

From the example above it is obvious that morning time is a bit turbulent with a lot of parents and children coming in the preschool. The teachers appreciate storytelling activity and the book corner to gather the children and prevent loud and crowded atmosphere.

The stories are also perceived as a good instrument to make children calm down and rest, so teachers use them at lunchtime or resting time. The stories are used to amuse children when they come back from outdoor play or if they are staying too much indoors because of the bad weather.

Another example where the teachers use stories to regulate children’s behavior is in problem solving situations. The teachers use stories to communicate with children indirectly, through story characters.

Sometimes I see that they cannot come along, if they want the same toy and they become upset. I can use the theater and puppets and tell the story so they know how to behave in future. I do not put them as main characters, but they can recognize. (Teacher B)
Situations where teachers need to interfere to help children solve the problems are common in preschool practice. The teacher uses stories, puppets and theater to explain to the children what patterns of behavior are acceptable and at the same time she avoids directly naming the children. The teacher finds the storytelling drama activities as a good way to make the children more responsible towards each other and to respect the opinion of their peers.

Socio-cultural theory stresses the importance of the context where the learning process takes place. It is highly important that the surrounding is stimulating for children. The teachers argue that storytelling, theater and puppets make the environment more relaxing for children. Further, the teachers argue that children feel free to take part in storytelling and puppetry what makes them active learners.

Discussion of the Findings

Regarding different methodological approaches, the results of the study show that the teachers use the stories as an educational as well as regulative tool. This indicates that the role of the stories is multiple and that the stories can be used differently what greatly depends on the teachers.

When considering Vygotsky’s socio-cultural theory, it is interesting to mention Wells’ (1999) observation of the schooling process in general, where he argues that schooling as a form of socialization through cultural transference has been part of our culture for a very long time. Further, he argues that Vygotsky’s theory suggests that the goal of the education is to provide children with the appropriate and stimulating environment in which the children will be able, in cooperation with adults and peers, to develop their maximum potentials. The appropriate environment and the cooperation with more experienced adults or peers will enable the child to adopt cultural tools and social values and to develop his identity and dispositions to act responsibly as a part of the larger society. Being socially active is a prerequisite for the development of language as a cultural and social tool. When discussing preschool period, Vygotsky stresses the presence of oral expressions more than written language, finding children’s drawings as the beginning of the language written expression (Kozulin et.al, 2003).

Wells (1999) argues that classroom community has to be organized in a way to reflect the caring environment that strives towards collaborative and dialogic mode of meaning making. In addition, the curriculum has to cover broad themes of inquiry that will stimulate the children to reach for knowledge in cooperation with adults and peers. Further, he argues that the goals of that kind of classroom community and curriculum are to make conditions that will challenge and motivate the children to develop their interests and abilities while involving their feelings, personal and cultural values and cognition. The adults’ role is to give feedback and provide opportunities for the children to master the culture’s tools and technologies. The appropriate environment together with constructive feedback should enable the children to reflect on the acquired knowledge.
Stories as Educational Tool
Traditionally, stories are used for preserving the culture and traditions of different societies. Usually the stories have educational and entertaining elements and the quality of the story presentation depends how good the storyteller is (Lockett, 2007). Tingöy et al. (2006) argue that storytelling is an art where a good storyteller presents real or fictive events through words, images and sounds. Further, they argue that stories like folktales and fables are one of the oldest educational tools and that nowadays the stories can be perceived as traditional, but also as a technologically modern educational tool. The results of this study show that teachers support the view that stories are educational as well as entertaining tool. The teachers agree that stories should be part of the preschool curriculum and they use various ways in presenting the stories to children.

The areas where the stories can be used as an educational tool are diverse and it is up to the teachers to decide how and when they are going to use a story. Siraj-Blatchford, Sylva, Muttock, Gilden and Bell (2002) state that in order for the learning process to take place, the teachers need to choose an appropriate teaching approach.

The results of this study show that teachers find stories as an appropriate correlative link between different activities. They use story as a basis to include different educational areas like music, motor skills and language development and they argue that the environment where the stories are presented is also important. A similar situation is examined in the study presented by the Scottish Consultative Council on the Curriculum (1999) where expressive arts like dancing, painting and sculpturing are connected to language development through the stories children tell and perform. The study shows that it is common to use this kind of approaches where the stories are employed as an expressive and linking media. What is evident is that stories in connection with other activities cover a broad spectrum of learning and developmental goals. Also, in order to present the story and use the story as a linking media it is important to think about the environment what coincides with the argument of Rogoff and Morelli (1989) who argue that Vygotsky’s socio-cultural theory highlights the importance of the environment where the learning takes place.

Stories as regulative tool
The teachers see a good opportunity to use stories as a regulative tool. The situations are diverse; teachers argue that there is a big number of children in the group and that usually they have to find ways how to calm them down. The teachers use stories and drama activities in order to avoid direct emphasis of children whose behavior is not appropriate. Berk, Mann and Ogan (2006) argue that early childhood period is crucial for the development of self-regulation. An appropriate cognitive and socio-emotional development of children is important for the acceptance of socially and morally appropriate behavior.

One of the situations where children learn to regulate their behavior is play and teachers in this study argue that story time is usually connected to children’s play. Wright, Diener and Kemp (2013) calls it storytelling dramas while Berk, Mann and Ogan (2006) discuss about make-believe play, however the concept is the same. In both cases, stories are used as a basis for acting and playing activities. Wright, Diener and Kemp (2013) argue
that the storytelling, drama activity meets the conditions to be perceived as intentional teaching practice where developmental goals are met. At the same time, this kind of an activity can be perceived as play-based and child-led where the children are the storytellers, actors and audience.

Vygotsky (1978) perceives language as a tool for expression and communication. Further, he argues that once the children acquire the language and skill to think through words, the possibility for children to be affected by adults, expands. In the case of this study, the teachers find storytelling and drama activities very useful for developing the language and for using the language to regulate children’s behavior. The teachers use stories to metaphorically portray the situations from which children can learn moral lessons. In addition, the stories serve to transfer certain regulative messages to the children in, for them, understandable and acceptable manner. Berk, Mann and Ogan (2006) argue that after the children have dialogs with the adults, they become influenced by the language messages that come from the adults and that is how the language becomes a mental tool for solving a broad range of issues including self-regulation.

In this study, the stories are used to start dialogs among children and between teachers and children. The teachers use different contents and story characters to explain to the children the principles of self-regulation and to discuss with children about social challenges that they face every day. Vygotsky (1978) argues that by having dialogs with their peers and adults, children can develop the sense of respecting other people’s opinions and have a better understanding of their own thoughts. Cooperation also enables the children to develop skills for solving social and cognitive challenges. Further, he argues that children’s adjustment to social and cultural norms and cooperation with the adults and peers makes the higher mental processes easier to develop. If we consider the Vygotsky’s theory, it can be said that through social interactions and dialogs that are in the case of this study assisted by stories, children can easier develop higher mental processes like attention and perception. The teachers suggested that story dramatization initiate cooperation where children’s attention is long-term directed towards solving a problem and that their perception of interpersonal relations is at a high level. The development of these higher mental processes allows children to become aware of their own behavior and makes their social interactions to be raised at a higher level.

**Conclusion**

Child development and education depend on the adults and stimulating social environment where the children will be encouraged to acquire new knowledge and skills. How the stories are used and what benefits they bring, mostly depend on the adults and the way they perceive and understand the role of the stories. It is not easy to be a good storyteller and the skill requires practice and different techniques. From one side, it is important, how the story is presented to the children, but from the other side, it is also important not to give up from stories only because the teacher does not feel like capable to be a good storyteller. Therefore, how stories are used in preschool practice depends of the teachers’ attitude and that is why this study’s main aim was to gain insight into the teachers’ perception on stories in preschool practice.
During the interviews, the teachers mostly perceived stories as a tool. They discussed about the ways they employ stories while doing some activity with the children. What came as an interesting view on stories is the point Daniel (2007) make about the ways storytelling is perceived. He argues that, except of being an educational tool the teachers could perceive stories as a way to shape their teaching practice. Daniel calls it “narrative structure of teaching” and he stresses the possibility to frame the teaching process as a narrative. He argues that if we consider the assumption that humans perceive life events and the world that surrounds them in narrative terms then there is an implication for narrative teaching in the general teaching process. This could also be a suggestion for further research. If the perception on how the teachers would organize their teaching practice in the shape of narratives is added to existing findings of this study, the perception on stories and their role in early childhood education would be broader and more striking.

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VALUES SUCH AS MARRIAGE AND FAMILY AMONG YOUNG PEOPLE²

Summery: The influence of tradition and established values is in decrease under the influence of global and social processes, and causes significant changes in people's everyday life. These processes have consequences on moral development of young people, influence on their system of values, and especially on their understanding of marriage and family. These changes, occurring in every segment of life, inspired us to closely inquire what young people think about marriage and what role marriage and family have nowadays. Study of young people's system of values in today's society, that went through many changes, creates a current problem and offers an answer to many questions. The goal of this research was to examine the system of values and beliefs of young people, concerning marriage, forming a family and to give an insight of student's attitude towards marriage and family in relation to current values. Results of research show that a great deal of survey participants, regardless of gender, still value traditional values such as marriage and family, but the age for getting married and forming a family has changed. Results, also, show that men and women perceive marriage and family differently, than as it was the case in previous years. The main goal of marriage education is to prepare young people for marriage and to develop a certain amount of values. In fact, this paper is only a small step in reaching this goal.

Key words: family, marriage, system of values, young people.

To begin with, every social and cultural society is based on certain system of values. It could be said with certainty that values significantly affect our life, and without them life would be impossible. The interest for values could be assigned to importance that values have when explaining social phenomena. Changes occurring rapidly in all segments of life, have consequences on moral development of young people. We couldn't help but wonder: What place does family and marriage take according to moral development of young people, today? Since first written documents in history up until today, many pages have been written about marriage. In fact, marriage and family are common themes of contemporary research."Kamenarac" (2006), as well says that the main reasons of increasing interest for this topic are changes occurring in this area of life. Significant changes which affect present society whether they are positive or negative most definitely leave permanent mark on the system of values. Therefore, study of young

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² This thesis is an extract from the Master Thesis on the topic of “Values such as marriage and family among young people”, orally defended before members of the committee composed of: Radovan Grandić, PhD, advisor; Jovana Milutinović, Phd, member; Milena Letić, MA, member, at the Faculty of Philosophy in Novi Sad on July 11th, 2014.
people's system of values in today's society, that underwent many changes, creates a current problem and offers an answer to many questions.

According to changes in society, marriage, family and family relations are prone to change because they represent variable historical category. Naturally, they depend on development of productive forces and socio-economic relations. Also, many authors write about changes affecting family of a new age. Pašalic-Kreso (2004) is of the opinion that the family has gone through the biggest and the fastest transition over the last century whereas family system has dramatically changed over the last couple of decades. Also, Grandić (2007) indicates that the structure of family faces constant changes. Even though patriarchal family still exists it loses its importance and it is slowly being replaced by contemporary family.

Women were granted the right to participate in all areas of life and there was a huge need for equality between sexes. Also, a big flexibility in the choice of a spouse is currently present. Today, a great deal of couples does not follow the traditional form of marriage. According to young people, the big emphasis is put on the quality of couple's relationship rather than the forms in which this relationship is created. But, transformation of marriage and family does not necessarily lead to its disappearance and degradation. Vilić (2011) puts an emphasis on the fact that the content of marriage and family are notably transformed. However, marriage as an institution hasn’t lost its meaning, function and duty. Undoubtedly, the importance of marriage as an institution isn't as important as it used to be. However, marriage as well as traditional family is still the most common type of commitment in Serbia. On the other hand, alternative types of marriages are not that common.

As a result of these changes, we were inspired to do a research on the opinion of young people towards marriage. Also, the topic of this research was: what role does family and marriage have according to moral development of young people, today? Since we live in the age of degradation of human values, in the time when young people reluctantly decide to get married and when the number of divorces is bigger than the number of marriages, it is essential to examine this topic thoroughly.

According to humanistic pedagogy, one of the basic human needs is that of love and belonging, and marriage still serves the purpose of fulfilling this function. Various authors (Grandić, Knežević-Florić and Milutinović, 2004) believe that we live in the time of humanization among genders. As a result, it is essential to put emphasis on the integrity and humanity of young people, rather than differences that occur between genders.

Topic of research: young people's understanding of marriage and family as a system of values.
Problem of research: how young people understand marriage and the notion of forming a family, according to gender.
Goal of research: analyze the opinion of young people towards marriage and family as well as whether there are differences present according to gender.
According to the task of research the following assignments have been concretized:
1. Examine whether there are differences in the system of values according to gender.
2. Examine the system of values of young people towards spousal relationship and marriage in general according to gender.
3. Examine the willingness of young people to get married as well the process of forming a family according to gender. Also, it is important to determine the best appropriate age for young people to get married.
4. Examine whether there are differences in the opinion of young people towards motifs for marriage as well as the choice of a spouse.
5. According to gender, our goal is to examine if there are differences in the case of conditions which are necessary for a successful marriage as well as the question of divorce.
6. Again, according to gender, whether young people are aware of responsibility that marriage requires as well as what message they need to transmit.

**General hypothesis:** Vast majority of young people values marriage and family as preferable way of life. Precisely, marriage and family have the highest position on their list of life achievements.

**Specific hypotheses:**
1. There is no significant difference regarding the importance of values, regardless of gender.
2. There is no statistic difference regarding values and attitudes of young people towards marriage, according to gender of participants.
3. There is no statistic difference in willingness of young people towards marriage and the process of forming the family as well as the appropriate age for getting married.
4. There is no statistic difference regarding motifs for getting married and choosing a life partner, according to gender of survey participants.
5. There is no statistic difference regarding necessary conditions for successful marriage, and understanding of divorce, according to gender of survey participants.
6. There is no statistic difference when it comes to people's responsibility in transmitting the values associated with family and marriage.

**Independent variable** in this research is gender. **Dependent variables** in this thesis are values of young people towards marriage, marriage life and process of forming a family. **Descriptive method** has been used due to the nature of problem that has been analyzed. According to the chosen method the technique of ranking has been applied. **Five-level scale of Likert type**, rank scale and **three-level descriptive scale** has been formed for the purpose of research. All this has been used to compare the importance of family and marriage with respect to other values.

**Survey participants** are students of senior year and master students of Novi Sad University. Among 100 students, there were 50 young men and 50 young women aged 23-25. Gathered data has been processed by usage of statistical procedures without parameters and Xi square test.
ANALYSIS AND INTERPRETATION OF RESEARCH RESULTS

This research includes system of values and attitudes of young people towards marriage, willingness to spend life with someone, motifs for forming a family, choice of a life partner, conditions for marriage as well as the influence of family on forming the moral values of young people. Differences in the opinion of young people have been closely observed and the main factor was gender of survey participants. Results of this research will confirm or deny these hypotheses that claim that there is no statistic difference between women’s and men’s opinion about certain themes in the field of marriage and family. The results are observed from the angle of humanistic pedagogy.

First hypothesis: "There is no statistic difference in the system of values according gender of survey participants". Furthermore, participants in the survey ranked offered values from one to six in the purpose of confirming this hypothesis (love, money, career, children and health), (Table 1 and 2). In addition, three-level descriptive scale with following arguments has also been offered (Table 3):

It is important to:
1. Educate children properly and make them capable for life.
2. Have enough time for your interests and yourself.
3. Have enough time for a spouse.
4. Have a professional career and enough money.

Table 1 – Importance of family, marriage and other values according to women

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Rank</th>
<th>Love</th>
<th>Money</th>
<th>Career</th>
<th>Marriage</th>
<th>Children</th>
<th>Health</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>7 (14%)</td>
<td>3 (6%)</td>
<td>0 (0%)</td>
<td>1 (2%)</td>
<td>7 (14%)</td>
<td>32 (64%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>26 (52%)</td>
<td>1 (2%)</td>
<td>4 (8%)</td>
<td>3 (6%)</td>
<td>8 (16%)</td>
<td>10 (20%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>10 (20%)</td>
<td>3 (6%)</td>
<td>9 (18%)</td>
<td>16 (32%)</td>
<td>14 (28%)</td>
<td>1 (2%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>4 (8%)</td>
<td>8 (16%)</td>
<td>10 (20%)</td>
<td>12 (24%)</td>
<td>11 (22%)</td>
<td>5 (10%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>3 (6%)</td>
<td>12 (24%)</td>
<td>17 (34%)</td>
<td>10 (20%)</td>
<td>7 (14%)</td>
<td>0 (0%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>0 (0%)</td>
<td>23 (46%)</td>
<td>10 (20%)</td>
<td>8 (16%)</td>
<td>3 (6%)</td>
<td>2 (4%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>In total</td>
<td>50 (100%)</td>
<td>50 (100%)</td>
<td>50 (100%)</td>
<td>50 (100%)</td>
<td>50 (100%)</td>
<td>50 (100%)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 2 – Importance of family, marriage and other values according to men

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Rank</th>
<th>Love</th>
<th>Money</th>
<th>Career</th>
<th>Marriage</th>
<th>Children</th>
<th>Health</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>8 (16%)</td>
<td>2 (4%)</td>
<td>0 (0%)</td>
<td>2 (4%)</td>
<td>6 (12%)</td>
<td>31 (62%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>13 (26%)</td>
<td>5 (10%)</td>
<td>5 (10%)</td>
<td>5 (10%)</td>
<td>16 (32%)</td>
<td>5 (10%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>17 (34%)</td>
<td>6 (12%)</td>
<td>4 (8%)</td>
<td>7 (4%)</td>
<td>11 (22%)</td>
<td>5 (10%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>10 (20%)</td>
<td>6 (12%)</td>
<td>8 (16%)</td>
<td>21 (42%)</td>
<td>5 (10%)</td>
<td>2 (4%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>2 (4%)</td>
<td>10 (20%)</td>
<td>21 (42%)</td>
<td>10 (20%)</td>
<td>5 (10%)</td>
<td>0 (0%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>0 (0%)</td>
<td>21 (42%)</td>
<td>12 (24%)</td>
<td>5 (10%)</td>
<td>7 (14%)</td>
<td>7 (14%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>In total</td>
<td>50 (100%)</td>
<td>50 (100%)</td>
<td>50 (100%)</td>
<td>50 (100%)</td>
<td>50 (100%)</td>
<td>50 (100%)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
According to results shown in Table 1 and Table 2 it is evident that there is no significant difference in the answers of men and women. The most important value for both genders is health. 32 (64%) women and 31 (62%) men ranked health as a number one priority. According to 26 (52%) women, love takes the second place, whereas 17 (34%) men put love on the third position. Also, 7 (14%) women and 8 (16%) put love on first position, whereas no one put love on the last place. 16 (32%) men put children on the second place, whereas 14 (28%) women put children on the third place. Moreover, 7 (14%) women and 6 (12%) men believe that children are first in order of importance compared to other values. 16 (32%) women put marriage on the third place whereas 21(42%) men put marriage on the fourth place. 21 men (42%) and 17 women (34%) put career on the fifth place. The least important value for both, 21 men (42%) and 23 women (46%) is money and takes the last place. Only 3 (6%) women and 2 (4%) men think of money as the most important value and put it on the first place.

We came to the conclusion that there are no differences when it comes to values of marriage and family according to gender of survey participants. The most important values for young people are love, children and marriage and only then come career and money. This shows that young people still appreciate traditional values that are reputable in our culture. Health is put on the first place according to both men and women which indicates the progress of young people's health culture. Values of young people differ depending on family conditions, environmental and other factors that can have an influence on evaluations of certain values. If these results are to be compared to results in other cities, there is a big chance that some other values could be appreciated more.

Table 3 – Assessment of values according to gender of participants

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>No.</th>
<th>It is important…..</th>
<th>Gender</th>
<th>Very important</th>
<th>Moderately important</th>
<th>Unimportant</th>
<th>In total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Educate children properly and make them capable for life.</td>
<td>Men</td>
<td>49 (98%)</td>
<td>1 (2%)</td>
<td>0 (%)</td>
<td>50 (100%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Women</td>
<td>50 (100%)</td>
<td>0 (0%)</td>
<td>0 (%)</td>
<td>50 (100%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Have enough time for your interests and yourself.</td>
<td>Men</td>
<td>21 (42%)</td>
<td>29 (58%)</td>
<td>0 (%)</td>
<td>50 (100%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Women</td>
<td>30 (60%)</td>
<td>20 (40%)</td>
<td>0 (%)</td>
<td>50 (100%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Have enough time for a spouse.</td>
<td>Men</td>
<td>32 (64%)</td>
<td>18 (36%)</td>
<td>0 (%)</td>
<td>50 (100%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Women</td>
<td>37 (74%)</td>
<td>13 (26%)</td>
<td>0 (%)</td>
<td>50 (100%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Have a professional career and enough money.</td>
<td>Men</td>
<td>9 (18%)</td>
<td>38 (76%)</td>
<td>3 (6%)</td>
<td>50 (100%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Women</td>
<td>23 (46%)</td>
<td>27 (54%)</td>
<td>0 (%)</td>
<td>50 (100%)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Participants were asked to evaluate the importance of given values for them (very important, moderately important, unimportant). As Table 3 shows, the most important value for both, men and women is "educate children properly and make them capable for life". 49 (98%) men and 50 (100%) women consider this as something very important. Only 1 (2%) man claims that this is moderately important, whereas no one puts it in the category of unimportant. As for the second value, "have enough time for your interests and yourself" 21 (42%) men and 32 (64%) women label it as very important while everybody else, 29 (58%) men and 20 (40%) women label it as moderately important. Among these values in the table, "have enough time for a spouse" is of high importance. 32 (64%) men and 37 (74%) women consider it very important while everyone else label it as moderately important. The last claim, "have a professional career and enough money", 9 (18%) men and 23 (46%) women put it as very important while 38 (76%) men and 27 (54%) women label it as moderately important. Only 3 (6%) men think of it as unimportant. A slight difference between men and women could be noticed from these results. Some individualistic values such as ("have enough time for your interests and yourself" and "have a professional career and enough money") are of high importance for women. This could tell us a lot about progress of individualistic values among women. However, these differences are not so colossal due to the fact that both genders evaluate these claims as very important, or moderately important.

By analyzing these two groups, the goal was to confirm the first hypothesis which claims that there is no statistic difference of values according to gender of survey participants. Final results confirm the fact that young people are well aware of preservation of values such as marriage and family. Mentioned above, analyzing the first group of values demonstrates that young people still highly appreciate traditional values that are of high importance in our culture. Therefore, there is no statistic difference as far as values are concerned, according to gender of survey participants.

Second hypothesis: "There is no statistic difference in the opinion and attitude of young people towards marriage, according to gender of survey participants." In order to check this assumption, the following assertions have been offered to survey participants:

1. I believe that marriage is one of the most important things in life.
2. I would rather be married than live illegitimately because marriage offers much more safety.
3. The quality of relationship of spouses is more important than the conditions they live in.
4. Marital duties and responsibilities are shared equally among spouses.
According to results in the Table above (Table 4), we can notice that both men and women agree with given assertion: "I believe that marriage is one of the most important things in life." Also, their choices are primarily on the positive side of the Table and there are no colossal differences of the opinion of men and women. 14 (28%) men and 22 (44%) women strongly agree with the assertion. 26 (52%) men and 15 (30%) women agree. Next, 3 (6%) men and 6 (12%) women are neutral. 4 (8%) men and 3 (6%) women disagree whereas 3 (6%) men and 4 (8%) women strongly disagree with this assertion. There is no statistically important difference based on the gender of survey participants, as represented by calculated $X^2$ square, which has the value of $X^2=5.984$, which is far below the borderline values of the chosen levels of importance ranging from 0.05 to 0.01. With a certain amount of flexibility, borderline values of $df=4$ are $0.05-9.488$ and $0.01-13.277$. A great number of poll participants, regardless of gender, believe that marriage is one of the most important things in life. Although, this research is limited to a small group of people, this data shows that young people have surprisingly positive attitudes towards marriage. A great deal of survey participants of both genders agree with the assertion: "I would rather be married than live illegitimately because marriage offers much more safety." (Table 4) As well as in the previous survey, it is visible again that there are no crucial differences in the attitudes among participants according to gender. 14 (28%) men and 15 (30%) women strongly agree with the assertion mentioned above. 21 (42%) men and 15 (30%) women agree. Equal number of men and women, 4 of them (8%) are neutral. Similarly, the same number of men and women, 5 (10%) disagree. Lastly, 6 (12%) men and 11 (22%) women strongly disagree with the given assertion. $X^2$ square, which in this case has the value of $X^2=2.494$, again shows that statistic difference in the opinion does not exist. Vast majority of young people agree with this assertion, which again indicates that marriage and family stand on a very high position among all other values. Hence, young people, or in this case students, find marriage much more safer than illegitimate communities. For a long period of time, marriage has been much more appreciated than illegitimate way of
life. However, having in mind the changes happening so quickly the understanding of marriage is slowly starting to change.

As far as the assertion: "The quality of relationship of spousal is more important than conditions they live in" (Table 4), is concerned, most of the participants agree with. Again, the results indicate that there is no crucial difference in the opinion of men and women. 29(58%) men and 34(68%) women strongly agree with assertion mentioned above. 13(26%) women and also 13(26%) men agree. 3(6%) men and 1 (2%) woman are in the category of neutral. 4(8%) men and 1 (2%) woman disagree whereas 1(2%) man and 1 (2%) woman strongly disagree. According to final results, it is clear that the majority of people agree with the given assertion. On the other hand, there are not many people in the category of: "neutral", “agree" and "strongly agree". In the 50s people were mostly focused on providing for a family, while nowadays the focus is on self-searching for one's own identity.

Results shown in the Table 4 indicate that majority of participants have positive attitude towards the following assertion: "Marital duties and responsibilities are shared equally among spouses". Also, the results indicate that there are no major differences in attitudes of men and women. 24(48%) men and 37(74%) women strongly agree with assertion above. 22(44%) men and 12(24%) women agree. 1(2%) man is neutral. Next, 2(4%) men disagree. Lastly, 1(2%) man strongly disagrees. According to final results, it is relevant to say that there are no major differences in the attitude of men and women towards this assertion. Moreover, most of participants have positive attitude towards assertion and their answers are primarily on the positive side of the Table, whereas small number of participants have the attitude "disagree" and "strongly disagree".

According to this analysis, we have confirmed the second hypothesis. Even though this research is limited to a small group of people, this data shows that young people have surprisingly positive feelings about marriage. The answers that received from survey participants were justified from the point of humanist pedagogy. According to it, one of the basic human needs is the need to be loved and the most common way for people to achieve this sense of belonging is marriage. Moreover, we live in age when gender relations are much more sophisticated. Studies have shown that the majority of young people believe that spouses have equal rights and responsibilities. More precisely, young people have a tendency towards balancing responsibilities between spouses.

Third hypothesis: "There is no statistic difference in willingness of young people towards marriage and the process of forming the family as well as the appropriate age for getting married". In order to confirm this hypothesis the survey participants were given the following statements:

1. It would not be hard to adjust to life in marriage.
2. I already have enough knowledge about life in marriage.
3. The best time to get married and form a family is at the age of 20 to 25.
4. The best time to get married and form a family is at the age of 25 to 30.
5. The best time to get married and form a family is after the age of 30.
Table 5: Willingness for marriage and the best time to get married according
to gender of survey participants

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>No.</th>
<th>Gender</th>
<th>Strongly agree</th>
<th>Agree</th>
<th>Neutral</th>
<th>Agree</th>
<th>Strongly disagree</th>
<th>In total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Men</td>
<td>9 (18%)</td>
<td>23 (46%)</td>
<td>10 (20%)</td>
<td>7 (14%)</td>
<td>1 (2%)</td>
<td>50 (100%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Women</td>
<td>16 (32%)</td>
<td>26 (52%)</td>
<td>5 (10%)</td>
<td>3 (6%)</td>
<td>0 (0%)</td>
<td>50 (100%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Men</td>
<td>4 (8%)</td>
<td>20 (40%)</td>
<td>6 (12%)</td>
<td>12 (24%)</td>
<td>8 (16%)</td>
<td>50 (100%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Women</td>
<td>8 (16%)</td>
<td>19 (38%)</td>
<td>9 (18%)</td>
<td>9 (18%)</td>
<td>5 (10%)</td>
<td>50 (100%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Men</td>
<td>1 (2%)</td>
<td>7 (14%)</td>
<td>5 (10%)</td>
<td>20 (40%)</td>
<td>17 (34%)</td>
<td>50 (100%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Women</td>
<td>5 (10%)</td>
<td>9 (18%)</td>
<td>6 (12%)</td>
<td>15 (30%)</td>
<td>15 (30%)</td>
<td>50 (100%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Men</td>
<td>23 (46%)</td>
<td>15 (30%)</td>
<td>8 (16%)</td>
<td>2 (4%)</td>
<td>2 (4%)</td>
<td>50 (100%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Women</td>
<td>28 (56%)</td>
<td>12 (24%)</td>
<td>3 (6%)</td>
<td>3 (6%)</td>
<td>4 (8%)</td>
<td>50 (100%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>Men</td>
<td>5 (10%)</td>
<td>6 (12%)</td>
<td>8 (16%)</td>
<td>22 (44%)</td>
<td>9 (18%)</td>
<td>50 (100%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Women</td>
<td>2 (4%)</td>
<td>6 (12%)</td>
<td>5 (10%)</td>
<td>18 (36%)</td>
<td>19 (38%)</td>
<td>50 (100%)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

As for the statement: "It would not be hard to adjust to life in marriage" (Table 5), results have shown that 9 (18%) young men and 16 (32%) women strongly agree with this statement. As for 23 (46%) men and 26 (52%) women agree. 10 (20%) men and 5 (10%) women are neutral. 7 (14%) young men and 3 (6%) women mostly disagree, whereas 1 (2%) man and not a single woman completely disagrees. From the results presented we came to a conclusion that majority of both, men and women strongly agree, and that the number of those who are neutral or disagree is very low. Statistically, there is no difference between men and women which is confirmed by Chi-square test, where \(X^2=6.402\) is less than borderline value of 0.05 and 0.01 with a corresponding degree of freedom df=4. Again, there are no statistic differences in the attitude of men and women when it comes to this assertion, which is proven by \(X^2\) test. The final result is \(X^2=6.402\) which is under the borderline value of 0.05 and 0.01 level of importance with a corresponding degree of freedom df=4.

If we look at the assertion “I already have enough knowledge about life in marriage” (Table 5), we can easily notice that 4 (8%) men and 8 (16%) women strongly agree. 20 (40%) men and 19 (38%) women agree. 6 (12%) men and 9 (18%) women are neutral. 12 (24%) men and 9 (18%) women disagree, whereas 8 (16%) men and 5 (10%) women strongly disagree with the assertion. Although there are some disagreements among participants, most of them do agree with the given assertion. Also, it is clear that answers do not differ as much as they should, having in mind the difference in gender. Chi-square only confirms this claim with the result \(X^2=3.04\) being under the borderline value of 0.05 and 0.01 level of importance.

Most of the participants disagree with the assertion “The best time to get married and form a family is at the age of 20 to 25.” (Table 5). Also, it is clear that there are no differences in the opinion of men and women towards this claim. 1 (2%) man and 5 (10%) women strongly agree with this assertion. 7 (14%) men and 9 (18%) women agree. 5 (10%) men and 6 (12%) women are neutral. 20 (40%) men and 15 (30%) women disagree, whereas 17 (34%) men and 15 (30%) women strongly disagree. Chi-square, whose value is \(X^2=3.16\) and is under the borderline value of 0.05 and 0.01 level of importance, again confirms that there are no statistic differences in the opinion of men and women as far as this assertion
is concerned. Most of young people disagree with this assertion. Main reasons for this could be associated with the inability to find employment after finishing University, extension of University studies or even intentionally reaching independence later in life.

Identifying the results from Table 5, it is evident that most of the survey participants agree with the following assertion: “The best time to get married and form a family is at the age of 25 to 30”\(^\text{1}\). Also, there are no differences in the opinion of men and women towards this claim. 23 (46%) men and 28 (56%) women strongly agree with the assertion above. 15 (30%) men and 12 (24%) women agree. 8 (16%) men and 3 (6%) women are neutral. 2 (4%) men and 3 (6%) women disagree, whereas 2 (4%) men and 4 (8%) women strongly disagree with the assertion. Xi square, whose value is \(X^2 = 3.92\) being under the borderline value of 0,05 and 0,01 level of importance, again confirms that there are no statistical differences in the opinion of men and women as far as this assertion is concerned. However, any differences that occurred from the answers of both genders are the case of coincidence.

The last assertion was: “The best time to get married and form a family is after the age of 30” (Table 5). It is evident that young people strongly disagree with this assertion but again, there are no differences in the opinion of men and women towards this claim. Most of the participants disagree with this assertion but, on the other hand it is clear that there are no differences in the opinion of men and women towards this claim. 5 (10%) men and 2 (4%) women strongly agree with the assertion mentioned above. Surprisingly, the same number of men and women, 6 (12%) of them agree. 8 (16%) men and 5 (10%) women are neutral. 22 (44%) men and 18 (36%) women disagree, whereas 9 (18%) men and 19 (38%) women strongly disagree with the given assertion. Xi square, whose value is \(X^2 = 4.92\) and is under the borderline value of 0,05 and 0,01 level of importance with a corresponding degree of freedom df=4, again confirms that there are no statistical differences in the opinion of men and women as far as this assertion is concerned. However, any differences that occurred from the answers of both genders are the case of coincidence.

There were no statistic differences in the opinion of men and women found by analyzing this particular group of assertions, which only confirms the third hypothesis. In accordance with the pace of life today, many young people believe that the most appropriate time for getting married is somewhere between the ages of 25 and 30. Extended schooling and intentionally reaching independence later in life could be supporting reasons for this claim. In fact, a big number of young people decide to get married later in life rather than in their 20s. Another point is that many young people assume that they are ready for marriage. In other words, they claim to have enough precognition about marriage in general and that adjusting to marriage life would not be hard.

IV hypothesis of this paper was: “There are no statistic differences in the motifs for getting married and choosing a life partner according to gender of survey participants”. In order to confirm this hypothesis, five assertions have been presented to survey participants:

1. Financial security is an important motif for getting married as well as starting a family and it plays a big role in choosing a spouse.
2. The most important motif for getting married is love.
3. Social status is an important motif for getting married and represents the best criterion for the choice of a spouse.
4. Equal level of education is important while choosing a spouse.
5. Wishes of parents play an important role when choosing a spouse.

Table 6 – Motifs for getting married and choosing a spouse, according to gender of survey participants

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>No.</th>
<th>Gender</th>
<th>Strongly agree</th>
<th>Agree</th>
<th>Neutral</th>
<th>Disagree</th>
<th>Strongly disagree</th>
<th>In total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Men</td>
<td>9 (18%)</td>
<td>16 (32%)</td>
<td>5 (10%)</td>
<td>17 (34%)</td>
<td>3 (6%)</td>
<td>50 (100%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Women</td>
<td>8 (16%)</td>
<td>17 (34%)</td>
<td>3 (6%)</td>
<td>18 (36%)</td>
<td>4 (8%)</td>
<td>50 (100%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Men</td>
<td>27 (54%)</td>
<td>17 (34%)</td>
<td>3 (6%)</td>
<td>1 (2%)</td>
<td>2 (4%)</td>
<td>50 (100%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Women</td>
<td>36 (72%)</td>
<td>12 (24%)</td>
<td>2 (4%)</td>
<td>0 (0%)</td>
<td>0 (0%)</td>
<td>50 (100%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Men</td>
<td>1 (2%)</td>
<td>13 (26%)</td>
<td>7 (14%)</td>
<td>22 (44%)</td>
<td>7 (14%)</td>
<td>50 (100%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Women</td>
<td>1 (2%)</td>
<td>10 (20%)</td>
<td>4 (8%)</td>
<td>23 (46%)</td>
<td>12 (24%)</td>
<td>50 (100%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Men</td>
<td>2 (4%)</td>
<td>12 (24%)</td>
<td>5 (10%)</td>
<td>17 (34%)</td>
<td>14 (28%)</td>
<td>50 (100%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Women</td>
<td>4 (8%)</td>
<td>19 (38%)</td>
<td>7 (14%)</td>
<td>11 (22%)</td>
<td>9 (18%)</td>
<td>50 (100%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>Men</td>
<td>0 (0%)</td>
<td>4 (8%)</td>
<td>5 (10%)</td>
<td>19 (38%)</td>
<td>22 (44%)</td>
<td>50 (100%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Women</td>
<td>1 (2%)</td>
<td>3 (6%)</td>
<td>7 (14%)</td>
<td>21 (42%)</td>
<td>18 (36%)</td>
<td>50 (100%)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In the case of the assertion: “Financial security is an important motif for getting married as well as starting a family and it plays a big role in choosing a spouse” (Table 6), there is equal number of positive and negative answers. As a result, the given assertion could not be completely confirmed nor denied. We can observe that there is no difference between levels of agreement based on the gender of survey participant. A number of 9 (18%) men and 8 (16%) women strongly agree with this statement, 16 (32%) men and 17 (34%) women agree, 5 (10%) men and 3 (6%) women are neutral, 17 (34%) men and 18 (36%) women disagree and finally, 3 (6%) men and 4 (8%) women strongly disagree. When it comes to this statement, there is no statistically important difference based on the gender of survey participants, as represented by calculated X² square, which has the value of X² = 1.019, and is far below the borderline values of the chosen levels of importance 0,05 and 0,01. The difference in the levels of agreement with this statement amongst young people can be justified by the fact that, in our culture, the choice of a spouse is also based on his or her material standing. However, it is not prevalent for the success of marriage. Money is necessary in the sense that it is quite difficult to financially support a family without it. In this sense, it is important, but only as means, and not the ends.

Based on the results shown in Table 6, it was quite obvious that almost all men and women accepted "Love as the main motive of engaging in marriage" statement. A number of 27 (54%) men and 36 (72%) women strongly agree with this statement. 17 (34%) men and 12 (24%) women agree. 3 (6%) men and 2 (4%) women are neutral. 1 (2%) man and not a single woman disagree and finally, 2 (4%) men and not a single woman completely disagree. When it comes to this statement, there is no statistically important difference based on the gender of the survey participant, as represented by calculated X² square, which has the value of X² = 4.02 which is far below the borderline values of the chosen levels of importance 0,05 and 0,01. Based on presented results, we can conclude that even with all the negative influence of this society, young people have inherited the real values and reasons for which one would engage in marriage. We could highlight the
results of a research conducted by Kameranac (2006), which have arrived at the precisely same conclusions, that love is the main factor for getting married.

When it comes to "Social status is important motive of engaging in marriage and criterion for choice of spouse" statement (Table 6), the answers are quite diverse. Again, we can, with certainty, claim that there is no important difference based on the gender of survey participants. Only 1(2%) man and 1(2%) woman strongly agrees with this statement. 13 (26%) men and 10(20%) women agree. 7 (14%) men and 4 (8%) women are neutral. 22(44%) men and23 (46%) women disagree and finally, 7(14%) men and 12(24%) women strongly disagree. Calculated value of $X^2=2.48$, which is far below the borderline values of the chosen levels of importance 0,05-9,488 and 0,01-13,277, shows that there is no significant difference based on the gender of the survey participants, with corresponding degree of freedom of df=4. The majority of survey participant disagrees with this statement and considers that social status has no importance when it comes to motif for engaging in marriage. However, there is a number of young people who feel differently. There are young people who simply value a different set of virtues, and those who take the social status into equation when looking for a partner.

As for the "Same level of education is important criterion for the choice of spouse" (Table 6), statement, the opinion of the young people are divided, however, the majority of them, regardless of their gender, disagree with this statement. A number of 2 (4%) men and 4 (8%) women strongly agree with this statement. 12 (24%) men and 19 (38%) women agree, 5 (10%) men and 7 (14%) women are neutral. 17 (34%) men and 11 (22%) women disagree and finally, 14 (28%) men and 9 (18%) women strongly disagree. When it comes to this statement, there is no statistically important difference based on the gender of survey participants, as represented by calculated $X^2$ square, which has the value of $X^2=4.96$, which is far below the borderline values of the chosen levels of importance 0,05 and 0,01. Based on the presented results, we can conclude that women agree with this statement more, which can be seen as a result of centuries long perpetuated image of a woman as a subordinate and her low level of education. We can conclude that the majority of men and women find that the spouses do not need to be of the same education degree. If partners know each other well, have love and respect for one another and have common interests, they will not be bothered by the potential difference in the education of their partner. It is often the case that two partners of same education have squabbles and disagreements, so this is not an important prerequisite.

As for the "Wishes of parents play an important role when choosing a spouse" statement (Table 6), we can notice that most of survey participants disagree. We can observe that there is no difference between levels of agreement based on the gender of survey participants. Only 1 (2%) woman strongly agrees with this statement, while not a single man does. 4 (8%) men and 3(6%) women agree, 5 (10%) men and 7 (14%) women are neutral, 19 (38%) men and 21 (42%) women disagree and finally, 22 (44%) men and 18 (36%) women strongly disagree. We can observe that there is no difference between levels of agreement based on the gender of survey participants, and that the most survey participants disagree with this statement. In other words, their answers are on the negative side of the scale. Values are changing, whereas it used to be that the parents were the ones who chose the spouses of their sons and daughters, today it is the young
people who make these choices on their own. They consider this choice to be their own, as they have to find someone matching their own preferences, and not to let other people, or chance, make that choice instead of them.

Based on the analysis of this group of statements, we can conclude that the presented results confirmed the fourth hypothesis. If we take into account the decay of values of today's society, and if we notice that young people still consider love the most important, it is commendable to say that men and women of today have a very critical outlook on negative influences.

**V hypothesis:** “There is no statistic difference regarding necessary conditions for successful marriage, and understanding of divorce, according to gender of survey participants”. In order to confirm this hypothesis, survey participants have been offered with following assertions:

1. Strong love is a neccessary condition for a successful marriage and spousal maintenance.
2. Open and honest communication is important for a successful marriage and spousal maintenance.
3. Loyalty, trust and understanding are important factors of successful marriage and spousal maintenance.
4. People are not obliged to stay married if they are not satisfied.

Table 7 – Opinion of young people towards the foundations of successful marriage and divorces according to gender of participants.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>No.</th>
<th>Gender</th>
<th>Strongly agree</th>
<th>Agree</th>
<th>Neutral</th>
<th>Disagree</th>
<th>Strongly disagree</th>
<th>In total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Men</td>
<td>22 (44%)</td>
<td>18 (36%)</td>
<td>4 (8%)</td>
<td>4 (8%)</td>
<td>2 (4%)</td>
<td>50 (100%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Women</td>
<td>35 (70%)</td>
<td>12 (24%)</td>
<td>2 (4%)</td>
<td>1 (2%)</td>
<td>0 (0%)</td>
<td>50 (100%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Men</td>
<td>42 (84%)</td>
<td>7 (14%)</td>
<td>0 (0%)</td>
<td>1 (2%)</td>
<td>0 (0%)</td>
<td>50 (100%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Women</td>
<td>48 (96%)</td>
<td>2 (4%)</td>
<td>0 (0%)</td>
<td>0 (0%)</td>
<td>0 (0%)</td>
<td>50 (100%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Men</td>
<td>37 (74%)</td>
<td>11 (22%)</td>
<td>0 (0%)</td>
<td>2 (4%)</td>
<td>0 (0%)</td>
<td>50 (100%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Women</td>
<td>47 (94%)</td>
<td>3 (6%)</td>
<td>0 (0%)</td>
<td>0 (0%)</td>
<td>0 (0%)</td>
<td>50 (100%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Men</td>
<td>19 (38%)</td>
<td>18 (36%)</td>
<td>10 (20%)</td>
<td>3 (6%)</td>
<td>0 (0%)</td>
<td>50 (100%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Women</td>
<td>30 (60%)</td>
<td>14 (28%)</td>
<td>5 (10%)</td>
<td>1 (2%)</td>
<td>0 (0%)</td>
<td>50 (100%)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

By looking at the results from Table 7, it is evident that most participants agree with the following assertion: “Strong love is a necessary condition for a successful marriage and spousal maintenance”. Also, it is obvious that there are no statistic differences in the opinion of men and women towards this matter. Moreover, most of the answers are on a positive side of the Table. 35 (70%) women and 22 (44%) men strongly agree with the assertion mentioned above. 18 (36%) men and 12 (24%) women agree. 4 (8%) men and 2 (4%) women are neutral. 4 (8%) men and only 1 (2%) woman disagree, whereas 2 (4%) men strongly disagree. Xi square, whose value is $X^2 = 6.67$ and is under the borderline value of 0,05 and 0,01 level of importance again confirms that there are no statistic differences in
the opinion of men and women as far as this assertion is concerned. According to humanistic pedagogy, a man is in constant process of changing. Humanistic education in relation with psychological legacy puts an emphasis on the quality of relationships and display of affection. Although activities such as reading and dealing with the inner life are traditionally more often associated with women, a great deal of men nowadays share interest for these activities and are much more courageous to ask for a piece of advice.

Most survey participants, regardless of gender, agree with the following assertion from Table 7: “Open and honest communication is important for a successful marriage and spousal maintenance”. Again, most of the answers are on the positive side of the Table. In fact, it is obvious that there are no statistic differences in the opinion of men and women towards this matter. 42 (84%) men and 48 (96%) women strongly agree with the given assertion. 7 (14%) men and 2 (4%) women agree. There are no neutral participants or ones who strongly disagree, whereas only 1 (2%) man belongs to the category of “disagree”. Consequently, it is obvious that everyone except for one man arranged their answers on the positive side of the Table. Similar to most cases, we can notice that there are no statistic differences in the opinion of men and women towards this assertion. Importantly, men and women equally believe that open and honest communication is important for a successful marriage and spousal maintenance. Of course, communication is of essential importance for a quality marriage. However, if there is lack of communication between spouses it would most probably lead to lack of intimacy as well. When it comes to the following assertion: “Loyalty, trust and understanding are important factors of successful marriage and spousal maintenance”, (Table 7), almost all answers are placed on the positive side of the Table. Also, there are no statistic differences in the opinion of men and women towards this matter. 37 (74%) men and 47 (94%) women strongly agree with the assertion above. 11 (22%) men and 3 (6%) women agree. There are no neutral participants, whereas only 2 (4%) men fit in the category of “disagree”. Obviously, there are no statistic differences in the opinion of men and women towards this matter and almost all of them agree that loyalty, trust and understanding are important factors of successful marriage and spousal maintenance.

Majority of participants agree with the assertion: “People are not obliged to stay married if they are not satisfied”, (Table 7). 19 (38%) men and 30 (60%) women strongly agree with this assertion. 18 (36%) men and 14 (28%) women agree. 10 (20%) men and 5 (10%) women are neutral. 3 (6%) men and only 1 (2%) woman disagree, whereas no one fits in the category of “strongly disagree”. Based on final results, an obvious fact is that there are no differences in the opinion of young people towards this assertion, regardless of gender. Xi square, whose value is $X^2 = 5.62$ and is under the borderline value of 0.05 and 0.01 level of importance again confirms that there are no statistic differences in the opinion of men and women as far as this assertion is concerned. Regardless of gender, young people strongly believe that people should not stay married just for the sake of being married if they are not satisfied.

There is no major difference between these four statements according to gender of survey participants. Thus, the fifth hypothesis is confirmed. We came to a conclusion that even though the spiritual and moral standards are plummeting, young people can still inherit proper values. As the pressure of the traditional view of marriage ceases, an
individual may now cancel such a bond, so that one could pursue fulfillment and happiness, which one denied in the past. Society we live in is wide open for all options and activities.

**Hypothesis six:** "There is no statistic difference when it comes to people's responsibility in transmitting the values associated with family and marriage." In order to confirm this hypothesis, survey participants were given the chance to express their opinion whether they agree or disagree with this statement. This group contain following statements:

1. Family plays a big role in the preparation of young people for marriage.
2. Young people should visit marriage counselors before getting married.
3. If the young people were to be educated and prepared for married life, the divorce rate would go down.

Table 8 – Understanding of the role of a family in the preparation for marriage according to gender

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>n</th>
<th>Gender</th>
<th>Strongly agree</th>
<th>Agree</th>
<th>Neutral</th>
<th>Disagree</th>
<th>Strongly disagree</th>
<th>In total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>1</strong></td>
<td>Men</td>
<td>13 (26%)</td>
<td>29 (58%)</td>
<td>4 (8%)</td>
<td>2 (4%)</td>
<td>2 (4%)</td>
<td>50 (100%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Women</td>
<td>26 (52%)</td>
<td>19 (38%)</td>
<td>3 (6%)</td>
<td>2 (4%)</td>
<td>0 (0%)</td>
<td>50 (100%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>2</strong></td>
<td>Men</td>
<td>3 (6%)</td>
<td>11 (22%)</td>
<td>10 (20%)</td>
<td>11 (22%)</td>
<td>15 (30%)</td>
<td>50 (100%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Women</td>
<td>3 (6%)</td>
<td>12 (24%)</td>
<td>13 (26%)</td>
<td>12 (24%)</td>
<td>10 (20%)</td>
<td>50 (100%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>3</strong></td>
<td>Men</td>
<td>9 (18%)</td>
<td>16 (32%)</td>
<td>11 (22%)</td>
<td>10 (20%)</td>
<td>4 (8%)</td>
<td>50 (100%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Women</td>
<td>10 (20%)</td>
<td>18 (36%)</td>
<td>12 (24%)</td>
<td>6 (12%)</td>
<td>4 (8%)</td>
<td>50 (100%)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

According to results in Table 8 “Family plays a big role in the preparation of young people for marriage” majority of students agree with this statement. More precisely, most of them place their answers on the positive side of scale. Based on the gender of survey participants there are certain minor disagreements regarding this statement. 26 (52%) women strongly agree with this statement but only 13 (26%) young men have this attitude which is twice as many as women. 29 (58%) young men disagree with this statement whereas only 19 (38%) women have this attitude. 4 (8%) young men and 3 (6%) women are neutral. 2 (4%) men and women disagree, whereas 2 (4%) men strongly disagree with this assertion. That there is no significant difference between opinions based on gender of survey participants, or the calculated x square, that is $X^2=7.2$ which is far less than the borderline values of the chosen levels of importance. Again, there is a degree of freedom present. Judging by the results presented, we can see that young people’s families play an important role when it comes to forming of their values regarding marriage and marital life. Children are taught how to accept and return love, form right moral values, nurture the feeling of responsibility and based on these things learn in their youth how to form a family on their own.
By examining the results found in the Table 8, we can see that when it comes to "Young people should visit marriage counselors before getting married" statement, the opinions of the survey participants are divided. In other words, there is not one answer that could be singled out as the answer that got majority of the votes, so we could not form a generalized overview. A number of 3(6%) men and 3(6%) women strongly agree with this statement. 11 (22%) men and 12(24%) women agree. 10(20%) men and 13(26%) women are neutral, and finally, 15(30%) men and 10(20%) women strongly disagree. When it comes to this statement, there is no statistically important difference based on the gender of the survey participants, as represented by calculated $X^2$ value of $X^2=1.46$, and is far below the borderline values of the chosen levels of importance. We notice that opinions of the young people are highly differentiated regarding this statement. When observing this from the point of view of humanist pedagogy, we notice that values are not imprinted on us permanently, instead they keep evolving. The same theory applies for marriage counseling. While its influence was widely negated in the past, today we notice that the opinions of the young people when it comes to counseling are varying. Perhaps, we can expect that in the future, marriage counseling will be accepted.

When it comes to "If the young people were to be educated and prepared for married life, the divorce rate would go down" statement (Table 8), again, there are highly varying opinions among young people. A number of 9(18%) men and 10(20%) women strongly agree with this statement, 16(32%) men and 18(36%) women agree. 11(22%) men and 12(24%) women are neutral, 10(20%) men and 6(12%) women disagree, and finally, 4(8%) men and 4(8%) women strongly disagree. When it comes to this statement, there is no statistically important difference based on the gender of the survey participants, as represented by calculated $X^2$ value of $X^2=1.33$, and is far below the borderline values of the chosen levels of importance, degree of freedom. We notice the opinions of the young people are highly differentiated regarding this statement. The most important matter here is the improvement of relationship within family because the young people need to learn proper emotional skills, and the best place to obtain them is one’s home. Aside from the family, there are some other factors as well that influence the readiness of young people to get married, such as school, social organizations and mass media just to name some. A fact is that marriage is something that needs to be talked about more in schools.

Analysis of this group of statements attempts to confirm the sixth hypothesis. As there haven’t been any major differences based on the gender of the survey participants for these three groups of statements, we conclude that the sixth hypothesis is confirmed. Based on the analysis of all the following statements, we can conclude that the young people have positive opinion of family and marriage. The final results show that the proper values regarding marriage are maintained among the younger generations. When all results are pooled together, along with six confirmed hypotheses, we can confirm the final and general hypothesis that the young people still value marriage and family highly, or in other words the family and marriage are held in high esteem by the younger generations.
CONCLUSION

The goal of this research was to closely examine the phenomenon of marriage and family from various angles. In order to fully understand the way marriage and family change through time, we engaged in the analysis of transformations. A great deal of survey participants, regardless of gender, believe that marriage is one of the most important accomplishments in life. Moreover, results of research mentioned above show that young people still value traditional values such as marriage and family. In fact, many young people claim that marriage provides much more safety than illegitimate way of life. However, as far as the relationship of spouses is concerned, almost all participants agree that quality relationship is much more important than the place of living. Having that in mind, young people pay much more intention on the mutual pleasure in marriage. Also, it is obvious that men and women perceive marriage and family differently, than as it was the case in previous years. In addition, results have also shown that young people strongly believe that spouses have equal rights and responsibilities.

Young people consider marriage as one of most important things in life but the age for getting married and forming a family has changed. According to young people's pace of life, the majority believe that the best time to get married and form a family is at the age of 25 to 30. Their opinion could be explained due to the fact that all of them want to finish their studies and achieve independence. Young people want to finish their studies, find a job and only then they could get married and form a family. When observing this from the point of view of humanistic pedagogy, we can notice that young people are still adapting moral values that are necessary for forming a marriage even though life serves rapid changes and degradation of society. However, society in which young people grow up gives them a chance for setting up new standards and changing their system of values.

Humanistic pedagogy is the basis for this thesis. In order to achieve humanization of social relations, it is of crucial importance to be mentally prepared for marriage. The main goal of marriage education is to develop a certain amount of values. If people want to form an opinion about something, they need to have moral principles to which they hold on in everyday-life. We consider that future research should put more emphasis on preserving traditional moral values as something very important for marriage and family life. Lastly, goal of pedagogy is to make sure that young people preserve certain moral principles that will lead to humanization of social relations and responsible parenting.

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Ljubinković: VALUES SUCH AS MARRIAGE AND FAMILY AMONG YOUNG PEOPLE

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Biographical note:

Marijana Ljubinković was born in 1990 in Loznica, where she finished primary and secondary school. She graduated pedagogy from the Philosophical Faculty in Novi Sad in 2013. She gained her MA degree at the same faculty in 2014 with best grades having defended her master paper entitled Marriage and family as values among young people.