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'Intercultural Communication': Concepts, Methods and Question Marks

Csaba Földes

A cowboy and an Indian meet on the prairie. The Indian points at the cowboy with his forefinger. In response, he raises his forefinger and middle finger, spread apart. The Indian folds his hands in front of his face. Then the cowboy shakes his right hand loosely. They both ride away.
The cowboy arrives home and tells his wife, "Just imagine, I met a redskin today. With his forefinger, he threatened to shoot me. At this, I signified with my hand that I would shoot him twice. And as he promptly pled for mercy, I indicated to him that he should clear off."
In a wigwam some miles to the west, the Indian tells his squaw, "Just imagine, I met a paleface today. I asked him, 'What's your name?' To this he replied, 'Goat'. Then I asked him, 'Mountain goat?' 'No, river goat.' he answered."

(Source: Koch/Krefeld/Oesterreicher 1997: 57f.)[1]

1. Introduction: topicality of the subject, aims of the article

1.1. Discourses on methodology and the theory of science suggest, that in the case of an academic product (such as a book, study or lecture), it is not so significant whether answers are presented, or of what kind they are. Much more relevant for research is to raise innovative questions. This article[2] is therefore aimed at shedding light on certain basic issues and problem fields, especially significant for the conceptualisation and the problem dimension of "intercultural communication," as well as the consequences of their analysis. Because of this background, my intention is to outline and raise for discussion some potentially extended currents of thought and argument correlations.

1 Non-English quotations in the present text have been translated by myself – Cs. F.

2 Some points of the present article are based on my following work: Földes (2007).

One of the premises of the considerations is that 'communication,' 'culture' and 'interculturality' have become fashionable key words, both in everyday communication and in the professional circles of the humanities and social sciences. The content and meaning of these terms, however, have not yet been unambiguously defined; Pólya (2004: 856), for example, concedes: "'Communication' is a collective concept, its definition not being provided even by experts with the same precision as in other academic fields."[3]

The lack of clarity becomes obvious in the work of Januschek (2005: 132), where he criticises the requirement for "defining the concept of something like *communication.*" From a multilingual and comparative-cultural viewpoint, it should be added that the content and usage of this term is not identical in all languages. For instance, Stummeyer (1999) argues that "the German word for 'communication' can be substituted in numerous cases by 'dialogue' in French. In comparison to 'communication,' the terminological field of 'culture' and 'interculturality' is possibly even more complex, as well as being particularly culturally conventionalised: English *culture*, German *Kultur* and French *culture*, as well as the terms *civilization, Zivilisation* and *civilisation* respectively, do not mean even approximately the same things.[4] This is clearly perceived in the translator's foreword to the German version of Huntington's (1996) renowned work, "The Clash of Civilizations." As an equivalent for "civilization" he consistently used "culture" in the German translation and vice versa. He used *Zivilisation* in German instead of *culture* in the original and vice versa. It should in fact result from this interlingual discrepancy, that the conceptual field of *interculturality* would also be constituted in line with the meanings of *culture* in the respective languages. This is, however, not the case. In international research there is a wide range of different concepts of interculturality, yet these differences are not due to the interlingual contrast in the meanings of the words *culture* respectively *Kultur* etc. It is, therefore, striking that even though *culture* and *Kultur* are significantly different, the terms *intercultural* und *interkulturell* are used essentially as interlingual equivalents in research literature. Due to these ambiguities, the impression may be obtained that a term such as 'culture' is often employed as an obscurity-joker.

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3 Thus, for example Kertész/Rákosi (2004: 476) have seen a distinctive characteristic in the development of linguistics as a discipline with an increasing problem-orientedness over the last hundred years: in most linguistic theories "the point is basically not to classify data, but rather […] *to construct problems* and to *solve* these problems on the basis of information available" [emphasis in original].

4 It is even more difficult, when one considers that the concept of *civilization* is rather heterogeneous, even within the English language: Vitányi (2002: 722) has identified, for instance, essential distinctions between its traditional British and modern American interpretations.

At present, aspects of culture, interculturality and communicative competence continue to gain in meaning, demanding a more tightly focused reflection of these concepts. Fortunately, Europe is now no longer a *terrain vague*. Eastern and Western Europe close ranks, resulting in the emergence of a new network and coordinate system. This is coupled with a multiculturalisation of modern societies over wide areas, leading to a distinct increase in intercultural encounters of various kinds. This present article therefore deals with the issue of so-called intercultural communication, both on the object level (as an interpersonal type of interaction) and on the meta level (as an academic discipline). Research history and paradigms are critically reviewed, in order to formulate some fundamental questions, methodological, practical and metascientific, on this basis. In consequence, the aim is to provide a new impetus for the linguistic investigation of this topic by means of a brief formulation of terminological/conceptual questions and models, as well as concept-theoretical considerations.

2. Context and strata of the linguistic investigation of ICC: horizon of problems and insights

2.1. In the international research literature, the term 'intercultural communication' (in the following: ICC), originating in the USA and Canada, has become quite widespread within various research traditions since the '70s and '80s of the 20th century (see, e.g. Ladmiral/Lipiansky 1991; Müller-Jacquier 2004; Olejárová 2004; Grišaeva/Čurikova 2006; García Canclini 2008; Samovar/Porter 2009). At first sight, the enormously great number and diversity of publications appearing creates the impression of a research situation that has been clarified in respect of theory and methodology, and is balanced in terms of subjects and fields of investigation with regard to numerous subdisciplines. A closer look at the existing state of knowledge and current research traditions, however, reveal that this has aroused interest primarily within the framework of social psychology, anthropology, ethnology, communication science, pedagogy (principally foreign language didactics), cultural studies, social theory, management studies and similar disciplines, whereas linguistics has adopted a relatively reserved attitude towards the subject area. It would be most important for the opposite to be the case, however, since intercultural encounters have become a linguistic issue in the wake of globalisation, as mentioned above in section 1.2. Linguistics should have a leading interest in these studies, as cultural encounters are performed within the framework of communication processes determined by language. As far as the object level of investigation is concerned, it is still not precisely known what the phenomenon of intercultural communication actually is and how it functions, and by analogy, it is still relatively unclear on the meta level how the discipline of ICC should be conceived. This yet unsteady status of ICC emerges from remarks by Urbán (2005: 311), where ICC is referred to in the same sentence as a "discipline," a "new interdisciplinary academic branch," and a field of knowledge that has made "great progress towards becoming an independent discipline." The approach of Roth (2004: 115), where he addresses ICC as a "genuine interdisciplinary academic discipline," is likewise contradictory, as he engages himself in a paradox by speaking of an "interdisciplinary discipline." Straub (2005: 19), on the contrary, holds the view that ICC is "neither an autonomous academic discipline, nor does it need to become one."

Besides the "compromise label" of ICC (Hinnenkamp 1994: 3), there do exist alternative concepts of terminology and subject matter. For instance, the term "international communication" used by Ammon (1991: 11), in the sense of 'communication between speakers of different mother tongues,' basically corresponds with the object field of ICC.[5] The variant "intercommunication" used by Wildgen (2003: 195) is supposed to refer to communication "across language boundaries." Takahashi (2002: 96 ff.) also uses "multicultural communication" as a synonym for "intercultural." A terminologically analogous alternative is represented by "transcultural communication," though this is used more with regard to the mass media (e.g. Hepp/Löffelholz 2002). In contrast, this is used with another meaning by Kardorff (1998) for communication between experts and laymen. The terms "intercultural discourse" (Kiesling/Paulston 2008), "interethnic communication" (Gumperz 2008), "interracial communication" (Rich 1974) and "transracial communication" (Smith 1973) are used from time to time as synonyms for ICC. Another approach to terminology and content is provided by Dausendschön-Gay/Gülich/Krafft (1995), who coin the term "exolingual communication" for situations in which native speakers are communicating with non-native speakers. The landscape becomes even more multifaceted with the proposal of Behrent (2003: 16), that conversations between non-native speakers (of the same or of different first languages) should be designated "interaloglottal communication." Among other related approaches to ICC, authors such as Hidasi (1996) should be mentioned, who comes up with "eurocommunication" (though leaving it without commentary), and also Geißner (1998), who speaks of "ethnorhetoric" and "ethnohermeneutics"

5 However, as Ehrhardt (2002: 6) points out, certain partially differing streams of issues can be identified, as in the case of "international communication" the questions taking centre stage "relate less to the process of linguistic communication itself, or to the structure of the language used, and more to the external circumstances for this."

(following Philipsen 1972, Bosse 1979 and others) and Finger (2002: 91), who uses "transnational communication" to refer to the "communication between 'sections' of various nation states [...], meaning regions, minorities, social groups, associations, etc.

In marked contrast to all these is the critical objection of Rösler (1996: 35), who claims that the impressive catch word ICC possibly conceals an arbitrarily misinterpreted cultural relativism.

2.2. Despite some undoubtedly constructive initiatives and areas of investigation, the available research literature in applied linguistics still deals with the intial stages. Most of these works contain merely fragmentary impressions and/or anecdotes, as well as sometimes including programmatic assumptions. On the whole, there is insufficient explanation of the relationship between empiricism and theory.

A consideration of the following circumstances makes the problem even more manifold:

(a) studies are carried out as a rule only on the level of (homogeneous) "nations" or more precisely the so-called political or national states, thus excluding other, often more relevant cultural strata;[6]

(b) they are restricted primarily to the investigation of communication in the economic field, and

(c) concerning the region, they generally have the Anglo-Saxon cultural realm and Japan/China in view (cf. Goddard/Wierzbicka 2009: 235).

It can be further ascertained (and this is even more unfavourable for our subject in metascientific and disciplinary terms) that linguistics scarcely plays a significant role in the conceptualisation and elucidation of ICC. The new two-volume work by Thomas/Kinast/Schroll-Machl (2003) and Thomas/Kammhuber/Schroll-Machl (2003) can be advanced as evidence for this. Although the title of the book mentions "intercultural communication," very little about communication can be found (and nothing at all on linguistics) in a book with a total of around 900 pages. The only potentially relevant contribution, "Intercultural Perception, Communication and Co-operation", by A. Thomas,

6 E.g. Apeltauer (1996: 3) uses the term "transboundary, i.e. intercultural communication" thus equating the attribute "transboundary" with "intercultural." Furthermore, especially in Slavic-Russian research, even in recent publications 'nation-specific' is used for 'cultural;' Ivanova (2001: 484 ff.), for instance, speaks throughout about the "nation-specific semantics" of phraseologies. The approach of Ferraro (2010: 24) is highly questionable, as he speaks of "international differences in language." There cannot be "international differences" between languages! All the more so as Ferraro (2010: 24) does not start with the assumption of a single language nation, but argues that some "nations [...] comprise many different cultures and dialects within their political boundaries." Boltens approach (1997: 475) is no less explosive, namely: "to equate cultural boundaries with political frontiers" for the purposes of research into intercultural economic communication.

has a largely psychological orientation, it barely tackles linguistic aspects and includes no linguistic research literature (see the review by Földes 2005). Linguistic aspects are also missing from Podsiadlowski's monograph (2004), the index of which cites no terms such as *language, linguistic,* or *linguistics* among its 201 subject entries.

One problem in the traditional "culture of interculturality" is that ICC, which as a subdiscipline often concentrates on communicative misunderstandings and stumbling blocks in a much too simplistic and rather normative way, as has been recognised by Rehbein (2001: 174): "Intercultural communication seems to be characterised by 'misunderstandings.'" This is not necessarily valid, however, for the everyday reality of ICC processes. By way of example, the lingua franca of modern professional technical-scientific communication is English. Even so, its usage causes few empirically noteworthy communicative misunderstandings. On the contrary, new communicative forms and conventions are gradually being formed, substantially based on English or American cultural standards. Individual language (varieties) are employed in ICC situations to differing degrees. "The greater the proportion of usage in such communication situations, the more the form of the particular language will be shaped by this special use, at first in the language usage, and later also in the language system" (Schubert 2004: 327). International English is undoubtedly on the way to becoming an endonormative and "constructed" language nowadays (Schubert 2004: 325), particularly since the contact of international English as a lingua franca-communication community with the normative community of native spakers is diminishing more and more.

At the same time, it should be noted that 'culture' is not the only decisive factor, because not all communication peculiarities can be explained by appealing to culture or interculturality. The ways and means communicative events come into being are influenced by a spectrum of factors, which are in part very different. The inner (individual) and outer (situational) framework conditions for communication processes are constituted by a complex package of factors. As far as situation conditions are concerned, situational conditions, in a broader sense, must be distinguished from situational conditions, in a narrower sense. The former have a superior status and exercise a modifying effect on the latter.

The outer constraints are to a great extent influenced by the cultural world to which the speaker belongs, the general situational framework in a narrower sense applies to the circumstances of the situation itself, in which communication is produced. It is true in general, that complex communication processes are subject to many influences, the combined action of which conditions the communicative acts of speakers in a particular way.

To recapitulate and summarise: (1) we do not yet know what ICC is, in other words, what our subject matter actually is; (2) consequently, we do not know (at least with any consensus) what to name that which we do not yet know what it is; (3) we only know that what we most of the time regard as ICC is termed differently (= terminological problem transcending the respective discipline) and that linguistics has not yet sufficiently commented on it (= an internal linguistics problem).

3. Aspects of ICC concerning terminology and concept theory: deficiencies, contradictions and desiderata

3.1. What arises in part from the preceding arguments is that both the principles regarding subject matter and terminology are unstable. This becomes totally clear through the fact that in English research literature, both terms such as "intercultural communication" are encountered (e.g. Scollon/Wong Scollon 2009), as well as "crosscultural" or "cross-cultural communication" (e.g. Levine/Adelman 1993). The situation is further complicated when considering that these terms occur sometimes as synonymous expressions and sometimes with different meanings. For a discussion of this problem, see Brislin (2006: 2 f.). Similarly, in other research traditions, for example.in German, one can find the terms "crossculturelle"[7] and "krosskulturelle"[8] alongside "interkulturelle" communication.

The terminological boom surrounding interculturality is also manifested in the fact that in many cases the attribute "intercultural" is used when the required meaning is simply "cultural." For example, Heringer (2004: 44 and 131) uses the term in this sense in the expressions "intercultural differences" or "discrepancies," and Stănescu (2004: 494) tackles "intercultural and applied geographical implications, and therewith those of regional and cultural studies."

The defficiencies and irregularities in the attempts at conceptualisation are in fact even more serious:

(a) ICC features on the object level in different works with different meanings; for instance: "international cooperation" (e.g. Lichtenberg 1994), "bilateral academic discourse" (e.g. Takahashi 2002), "concept of foreign language methodology" (e.g. Hüllen 1992: 8), "content mediated in foreign language teaching" (e.g. Dzuriková 2004: 582), "expansion of cultural decision-making and responsibility" (e.g. Fritz 1998), "translation into other languages" (e.g. Vermes 2003: 54 f.), "culture-contrastive communications research" (e.g. Soraya 1998), "dialogue between minority cultures and dominant

7 As documented by Geideck/Liebert (2003: 257).

8 Used in this form by e.g. Ostapovych (2004: 74).

cultures" (e.g. Kramsch 2008: 82), "advanced version of the discipline of 'applied geographics of regional and cultural studies'" (e.g. Dethloff 1992), "encounter with the 'strange'in literary works of 'intercultural' authors" (e.g. Karakuş 2001), "reception of literary works" (e.g. Cha 1997) etc. This heterogeneous, immature concept also becomes apparent by the fact that ICC is sometimes used in different senses in the very same work, for instance by Lichtenberg (1994: 27, 28, 39), but also by Zusman (2003: 328 ff.), who subsumes under ICC quite different ideas ranging from multilingual terminological work to translation. Some works are dominated by total confusion, such as Nečasová (2004: 90), when she states: "In recent decades, basic principles of intercultural communication have begun to penetrate into language teaching" or "there is a need for the problem of intercultural communication to penetrate into language teaching" (2004: 91). If ICC should be regarded here at the object level of investigation and interpreted as a type of speech act, then it could be asked: which of its basic principles "ingress" or "penetrate" foreign languge teaching? In what way do possible misunderstandings arise? Nečasová certainly did not mean their description in a teaching situation. Should it concern an academic discipline on the meta level. However, it is likewise unclear to what extent basic principles of research methodology can be implemented in the practice of language teaching. It can be surmised that the author merely had in mind that the need to prepare learners for situations of international communication should penetrate into contemporary language teaching practice. In this case, she identifies ICC normatively, as an arsenal of corresponding instructions.

(b) If we concentrate on the following only on the linguistic-communicative field of meanings relevant to our concerns, it is remarkable that in numerous publications no definition is given at all, although ICC is already explicitely indicated in the title. Those who should be mentioned here include Gumperz (2001), Rehbein (2001), Heringer (2004), Podsiadlowski (2004) and Močar (2005).

(c) Some language-related works do include a definition approach, though ICC is still not defined, for instance, Gibson (2010: 9) writes: "Intercultural communication takes place when the sender and the receiver are from different cultures." With this sentence, he merely describes the circumstances in which ICC occurs, but not what it is. Beniers (2006: 58) summarises ICC in the following way: "Intercultural communication is a symbolic, transactional process containing information, in which the extent of the differences between the persons involved is sometimes so great, that misunderstandings and differing expectations may arise as a result." It does not follow from this what kind of process ICC is, just what kind of difficulties can arise from it. Nečasová's (2004: 87) statement fulfills the criteria for a tangible conceptual definition even less well: "Intercultural communication presents a further complicated problem, as it functions in a different way from communication between two speakers having a common cultural background, (in the latter case the sender automatically chooses verbal and also non-verbal means, by which the receiver can decode the correct meaning of the assertion.) By way of contrast, understanding in intercultural communication presupposes that the communication partners dispose of the same language structure (grammar), they must use the same signs (both verbal symbols, i.e. vocabulary, and non-verbal ones, i.e. gestures, mimicry), they must further understand the linguistic background in the same way (regional and cultural studies) and last but not least, follow the same rules of language usage (that is, adequate use of stylistic elements with regard to the particular situation)." Disregarding the linguistic solecisms, the criticism can still be made that instead of providing a definition of ICC, certain possible problems with the process of understanding are discussed.

(d) In the opinion of numerous linguists, ICC designates a (linguistic) interaction between persons who belong to two different cultures (see Knapp/Knapp-Potthoff 1990: 66; Pinto 1992: 68; Clyne 2004: 313; Hidasi 2004: 33; Schugk 2004: 53; Oksaar 2005: 25)[9]. By analogy, ICC takes place when information encoded in one culture must be decoded in another (e.g. Porter/Samovar 2009: 7). The essence of the problem is therefore that our perception of reality and our connection to reality is determined by our culture, or more precisely, by the language of that particular culture, and consequently we interpret and understand the information that reaches us through the resulting filter. As the British philosopher Winch (1972: 28) has already emphasized: "We cannot explain social behaviour independantly of *our* norms of rationality." In consequence, there is a close fusion of socio-cultural values with the implementation of certain speech activities. So it is assumed in research that conversation partners in interlingual, intercultural interactions follow the behaviour patterns of their own culture, when interpreting foreign cultural linguistic actions (see the gesture joke in the motto).[10] It is essentially a matter of pragmatic transfer. Conventionally, two types are distinguished,

9 Although not dealing specifically with ICC, Wierzbicka (2006: 736) uses a similar formulation to refer to intercultural pragmatics in general.

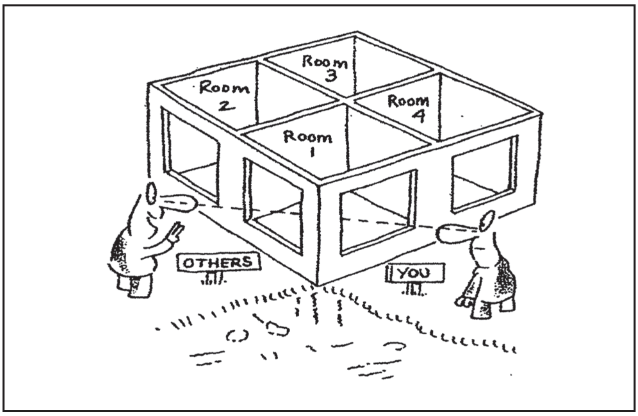
10 The catalysts are various kinds of assymetries in knowledge (for instance the knowledge about communication genres, their usage and situational modelling) that can often be repaired locally, inasmuch as they are recognised (Günthner/Luckmann 2002: 219 ff.).

namely a pragmalinguistic and a sociopragmatic transfer (see Kasper 1992: 207 ff.). In addition, following Riley (1989: 237 ff.), non-linguistic transfers (non-linguistic error) can be identified as a third type, basically applying to the non-verbal aspects of communication.

The interactional competence directing the speakers is by no means static, however, as demonstrated by e.g. Oksaar (2005: 33) on the basis of the corresponding behavioremes. It is to be stressed that it is a question of the interaction of S p e a k e r s.[11] It is also important that it is concerned with a dynamic "concept of process," i.e. so-called intercultures are created at the point of interaction of persons from different life-worlds, i.e. with essentially different backgrounds (see 3.2.).

According to a further concept of ICC, besides interpersonal interaction, it also includes the "plane of mediated intercultural communication in its various facets" (Lüsebrink 2005: 8), i.e. the forms of ICC represented by the media: in film, on television, radio, on the internet, etc.

Following the narrower concepts of ICC held by linguists, which I have commented on above, the modelling of this approach can be expressed by an illustration from Gibson (2010:20) (see scheme 1). Room 1[12] here, that we (speakers) are aware of, symbolises all the conceptions, attitudes, values and behaviour patterns that are common to us, as human beings. Besides this there are two rooms (2 and 4), which only the members of the given culture can see into, whilst room 3 remains concealed from both of them.

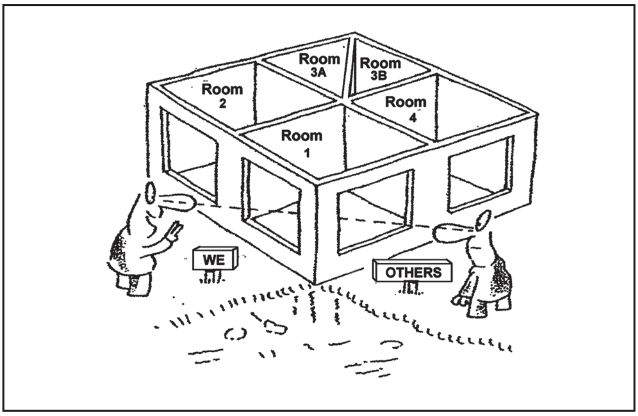


Scheme 1

11 In contrast to the approach of e.g. Zelényi (2005: 312), who conceives ICC to be "dialogue between cultures and cultural circles which differ from one another."

12 The metaphor of the house with rooms is rather static. An imagery accentuating the dynamics of the phenomenon region would have been more appropriate, in my opinion.

Scheme 2



I have revised certain details of the model (regarding both the terminology and the positioning of the figures), including separating room 3 into two parts, as in my opinion the "invisible" room is different for both communication participants, at least in part (see scheme 2):

Concerning the ICC problem, however, it must be pointed out that target language behaviour can influence native language (intracultural) communication, i.e. the effect of pragmatic transfer processes can also take place in the reverse direction (see Bou Franch 1998: 10).

The traditional ICC-concept indicated under (d) is based on four (explicit or implicit) prior assumptions:

(1) ICC only occurs when two or more persons belonging to different cultures engage in interaction with each other.

(2) 'Culture' means, so to speak, a set of prescriptions concerning what one must or must not do in the particular society (the "Do's & Don'ts" of the given cultural community).[13]

(3) Persons belonging to different cultures, when engaging in interaction with each other, assume that their partner will behave the same as they do, and they are not capable of adjusting their communicational behaviour to an intercultural situation.[14]

(4) 'Interculturality' seems to be problematic per se.

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13 A "deterrent" example from the present day concerning this matter is given in a study by Bodolay (2005), which under the label ICC supplies almost without commentary superficial information "of a stereotypical character," fragmentary observations and "formulae" deduced from them ranging from the use of titles on visiting-cards to alphabetical telephone lists.

14 Principally on the basis of contrastive investigations, for example Miebs (2003), as referenced by Siegfried (2005: 520), formulates the hypothesis that speakers in international/interlingual business negotiations behave in the same way as in intranational situations, and thus possess no abilities for adaptation.

3.2. Nevertheless, practical experience indicates that this is not so. Just to mention one aspect of this here, members of different cultures are highly able of adapting themselves to the requirements of occasional cultural contact. The new (intermediate)-culture thus formed should be regarded in each case as an interculture or better: tertiary culture. These tertiary cultures are thus constituted only as dependent on their participants. They are neither permanent nor stable, they just "happen." They are constantly reformed in the sense of a "third," or intermediate world which is not the result of the sum of the two original life-worlds.

When ICC is considered consistently, as to what it has hitherto been described as an empirical sphere of phenomena, at least five different problem areas can be diagnosed on a meta level:

- Problems with regard to 'culture.' What is culture itself[15], or when exactly do speakers belong to two different cultures? Does a Canadian from Toronto count as belonging to a "foreign culture" in New York? And if the concept of culture is already so polymorphic and complex, interculturality (as a construct of interpretation on a higher level of abstraction) must admittedly be even more complicated!
- Problems with regard to 'language.' Do the interacting parties have no common language? How then is communication achieved? If there is a common language available, why does research suggest that the participants in the interaction have not acquired any of the rules of culture or communication? If, for instance, a Japanese and a Dutchman are negotiating, why do we assume (as it takes place in many works in a latent way) that, although both of them speak English to a certain extent, which allows for verbal communication, the Japanese in fact communicates and behaves the same way as he would in Japanese in Japan, and the Dutchman as he would in the Netherlands speaking Dutch.

The "myth" of interculturality criticised above, according to which each one acts mechanically according to the habits of the communication culture of his/her own language when engaging in ICC, can be relativised by reference to the communication contexts of Esperanto, the "inherently intercultural language" (Schubert 2004: 319). Since "the peculiarity of Esperanto is its very special cultural context. [...] The bilingual community bears its own Esperanto culture. This is an 'interculture.'" (see Schubert 2004: 319, 321).

15 Consider the fact that more than half a century ago Kroeber/Kluckhohn (1952: 149) derived no less than 164 definitions for the concept of culture, and the number has apparently increased since then. These numbers differ considerably in some publications; thus Ablonczyné Mihályka (2005: 268) now knows of "more than a hundred," whilst Slembek (1998: 27), for instance, talks about "more than 300 definitions of culture." Modern research has productive concepts of culture at its disposal, e.g. those originating from ethnomethodology (Hester/Eglin 1997; Antaki/Widdicombe 2006) or post-modern anthropology (Barth 1989; Hannerz 1992).

- Problems with regard to 'communication behaviour.' Experience indicates that in situations of cultural contact, one of the partners, often unexpectedly, attempts to accommodate himself to the other by resorting to various communication practices; this may even be the partner who is employing his mother tongue (in this context, things ranging from false attributions to "foreigner talk" could be mentioned)[16]. In contacts such as these, Knapp/ Knapp-Potthoff (1990: 78) refer to "intercultural hypercorrection" and Ostheider (2004: 195 ff.) to "hyperaccommodation." As a practical example, English language dialogues between Britons and Hungarians may be cited, where some British people(aware of the fact that in Hungarian the given name follows the family name) once again reverse the order of given name-family name that has already been meticulously "internationalised" beforehand by their Hungarian counterparts (e.g. "Dr. István Kovács"), thus addressing him as "Dr. István." This interaction resulting from such hyperaccommodative, and in intercultural contexts absolutely "normal" communication strategies could be referred to as "inverse (intercultural) communication." So the requirement for successful ICC it is clearly not as simple as in the view of Heringer (2004: 194), that: "Common knowledge is sufficient."
- Problems of sociopsychological origin with regard to 'expectations of strangeness.' In so-called system theory (see Luhmann 2008: 152), the term "contingency" plays a central role. "Contingency" basically means: "Despite all our confidence in the familiarity of our world, the world can actually be totally different!" Or: "In our expectations, we must also reckon with the unexpected!" When foreigners encounter each other, therefore, confidence in each familiar normality will be quite obviously mutually drawn upon on the one hand, and fundamentally questioned on the other.

  A relevant special problem is represented by the so-called double contingency, introduced as a special term in Parsons' sociological system theory (1971) and adopted by Luhmann (2008) (cf. Vanderstraeten's interpretation 2002). This describes the unlikelihood of successful communication if two individuals condition their speaking behaviour on the contingent action of their counterparts, which often occurs in intercultural production- and reception situations. These are circumstances in which two sides of a social encounter can be found. In this case, each side contemplates the progress of behaviour of the other side, still incalculable in certain points (i.e. its contingency), thereby often disintegrating it.

16 See the following ethno-joke: A missionary to Africa is visiting patients in the villages near to his mission. In one kraal, he finds a young Blackman sick with fever. On examining him, he gives him a pill and tells him, "You not be afraid. You get healthy soon and work like elephant." "That would be great" says the Blackman. "So I can go back to Cambridge next week and give my lecture on social psychology."

By carrying out their "own happenings," in other words by their activities performed within the framework of the encounter, both sides also choose, in the broadest sense of the word, the progress of the happening from the point of view of the other side. And this signifies a selection of activities, however this is to be interpreted. Communication is only going to work, if the common happening is relieved of a general arbitrariness and is continuously directed towards something concrete by both sides.

This determination, representing a considerable reduction in the combination of all the varieties of happening originally considered possible, is the condition, means and result of communication (on this problem, see Vanderstraeten 2002). In contexts of cultural overlap or confrontation, double contingency is associated with the phenomenon of 'interculturality,' so that an intercultural (double) contingency is ultimately present.

- Problems with regard to 'perception and reception of intercultural proceedings.' This is also highly culture-specific. As a real life example, I should like to cite the report of a European specialist living in Japan for an extended period: "Native Japanese often find Western-looking people who are much too familiar with Japanese customs and language rather strange. So it is possibly simpler to cultivate this 'foreignness' as a business model." (Focus 8/2005, S. 108).

4. Conclusions: Potential further considerations and tools

Irrespective of the multitude of publications, it is obviously still unclear what type of phenomenon ICC is. What counts as ICC as far as details go? Perhaps it is as if a Francophone from Montreal speaks to an Anglophone from the same city, or if the former speaks to a Frenchman?[17]

4.1. The question can be raised: would it not be perhaps more appropriate, when delineating and defining the phenomenon, to proceed in a constructivist way and take the perspective of the participants as a basis rather that that of an observer (cf. Drescher 2004: 118 ff.)?[18] For instance, by assuming that

17 Relevant works contradict each other very clearly. Slembek (1997: 7), for instance, considers guest workers of non-German origin, mother tongue and mentality but active in Germany to be a part of German culture, whereas Krech (1998: 160) even interprets the interaction between native Germans from Germany and those of Austria as intercultural, as does Auer/Kern (2001) for native Germans from Western and Eastern Germany. Analogous to the latter, Tannen (2005: 10) even addresses a conversation between Americans having different subcultural backgrounds as ICC.

18 As a progressive metatheoretical framework, so-called social constructivism could be mentioned, which appears as a culture-psychological stream with the claim of "theory above practice," cf. Burr (2007).

interculturality (as a theoretical-philosophical construct) is constituted by us in the course of the communication events.[19] The background is, that we are all involved in the constitution of reality. We nevertheless have the impression of being playthings of deterministic forces, i.e. we (also) construct a reality which appears objective from that which is subjective. In the case in question, this can be explained as follows: speakers "read" their interlocutors continuously in a negotiation process within the framework of their interaction, between the poles of foreignness and their own group membership, during which it gradually becomes clear whether they are assessing themselves as "their own" or as "foreign." An indication of "being foreign" could be an extensive (actual or assumed) absence of common cultural information.[20] It is therefore conceivable that this reciprocal communicational-cultural negotiation may lead to different results from the points of view of the two partners. For instance, a German speaker from Germany may intuitionally consider a conversation with a German immigrant from Romania as intercultural, whereas the latter would in no way qualify it as such; as a person with a decided German identity he would possibly even regard the label "intercultural" as insulting. In this context, ICC could be so defined on the object level, that it takes place when at least one of the participants in the linguistic communication regards this as intercultural, and frames his communicative attitude and his language behaviour accordingly. For example, there emerge "accounts" known from conversation analysis (cf. Dausendschön-Gay/Krafft 1998: 167). Considering the peculiarities of the object of investigation, such an approach may be considered more open, and at the same time, more specific (i.e. in the present case more adequate) in comparison with prescriptive (normative) definitions. In this way ICC-models do not illustrate something already existent, they actually create it!

4.2. For the establishment of a suitable theoretical-methodological basis, elements from, for example, the philosophical branch of so-called methodological culturalism could make an essential contribution. Not least, because culturalism places the perceptive and active human being at the centre, and by means of his scientific theories, developed primarily for the natural sciences before now, reconstructs *recognised* nature as a cultural phenomenon, i.e. under the programmatic consideration of a "methodological

19 Dausendschön-Gay/Krafft (1998: 193) proceed in a somewhat similar way, as they represent the view that interculturality "can be described as a category of the participants in the conversation themselves," and thus as "a conversational procedure for determining relevance."

20 In line with DAUSENDSCHÖN-GAY/KRAFFT (1998: 164), by cultural information I mean on the one hand an involvement in the interpretations of everyday life shared by a community (evaluation of activities, ritual acts, categorisations and stereotypes), and on the other hand the ability to refer to so-called realia that have been passed on (central events in common history, myths and narratives, personal and place names, fundamental components of the stock of knowledge the way they have been transmitted by the current school system).

order." In such a way it is possible to adopt central thoughts from culturalism such as the principle of this methodological order, the reconstruction of social *practices*, the concept of speech as action, and hence the culture-relatedness of communication (for details, see Hartmann/Janich 1996, Janich, P. 1998 and Janich, N. 2004: 18 ff.).

Methodological culturalism as epistemology and theory of science views itself as the heir and successor of the "methodological constructivism" of the Erlanger School, as a contrary position to naturalism, or epistemological realism, and theoretical as well as practical relativism. It is a culturalistic epistemology and theory of science that is geared to the active and perceptive human being. Whilst naturalism acts on the assumption that all natural events (including human action and "culture") can be described and causally explained by means of natural scientific methods, methodological culturalism regards recognised nature as a culture-dependent object and does not conceive theories as images of nature, and as pre-existent laws of nature, but as "empirically proven technical knowledge of effect and prognosis." (Hartmann/Janich, P. 1996: 21).

So if truth is that which leads to success in real life actions, then this means that eventually it will be the success of actions in non-scientific practice that will provide truth criteria for scientific theories. Methodological culturalism, therefore, deals with and critically reflects upon existing practices in the life-world and primarily in research (i.e. regular, systematic and updated contexts of actions, invariant from person to person). The conception according to which all human accomplishments, in everyday life as well as in science, are cultural achievements, provides the occasion for reconstructing the vindication of goals and the motivation for the selection of means in an action-theoretical way.

Specifically, "culturalistic" is the basic assumption that actions may possibly fail (cf. the catchphrase: "intercultural communicative misunderstandings"), which is an important precondition for the opportunity to learn: "Yet he who cannot fail, learns nothing new either" (Hartmann/Janich, P. 1996: 45). In addition, culturalists claim that they make these reconstructions in such a way as to (1) respect the methodological order of the sequences of action, that lies at the basis of the practices even in their reconstruction and in verbalisation, and the order of which cannot be modified, and (2) in contrast to the basic attitude in the natural sciences, the reconstruction does not take place from the perspective of a detached observer, but always from *that of the participant*, since researchers themselves are also participants. The "Culturalistic Theory of Action" in particular (for details, cf. Janich, N. 2004: 20 ff.) can provide relevant theoretical elements and methodological approaches for research into ICC.

4.3. The communication process itself can be conceptually conceived and explained as dependent on, for instance, (structural) semiotics, following Greimas (1995). Accordingly, a so-called deep level can be attributed to the sense of the discourse, which comprises those basic structures of meaning that actually make discourse into something possessed of meaning; thus ensuring a potential comprehensibility. This level contains differing cultures in the same way. Meaning substantiates itself in the given context, a manifestation of meaning of this kind is directly accessible to us. This constitutes "the surface level" or "manifestation level" of meaning. The discourse is built up accordingly: its deep structure can be related to that of semantics. The deep structure of the discourse consists of an interdependency between two axes (the syntagmatic and the paradigmatic). The syntagmatic axis basically exhibits universal features (so it is not culture-dependent) and refers to the fact (following Greimas 1995 and Jackson 1997) that each human action begins with an objective ("contract"), which is followed by the implementation of the target ("performance") inasmuch as this effort does not fail ("non-performance"). In the meantime, some players support the attainment of this goal whilst others hinder it, they themselves acting as subjects with their own goals in another "narrative syntagm." The third element is reflection, since a thinking person continuously evaluates and reflects on the actions he has accomplished ("recognition," "sanction").

The triad of "Objective – Implementation – Evaluation" constitutes the so-called narrative syntagm. The paradigmatic axis bears on the fact that of each of the three points on the syntagmatic axis, whereby the player can choose what the concrete element in a given narrative syntagm should be. It is true that only mutually interchangeable elements can be chosen, without causing any fundamental change in meaning to other elements of the syntagm. Known as semiotic restrictions or semiotic constraints, these restraints on the selection are culture-dependent. The (intercultural) discourse can hence be conceived as an ensemble of two (or more) narrative syntagms, whereby culture-specific features or preferences occur, in particular with regard to the pertinent paradigmatic axis. The communication process is interpreted by the speakers on the basis of their (not always conscious) narrative models. For example they do not only consider the so-called inner coherence of a statement, but also whether the entirety of what has been said is similar to narrative models they are familiar with. This standardisation, originating from common social awareness, common knowledge, i.e. the common culture, can be regarded as outer, i.e. narrative coherence. It is precisely this narrative coherence, varying from culture to culture, that can provide a promising research object for the academic description of ICC as a phenomenon type in the above sense.

4.4. The so called lacuna-model could contribute to the set of usable analytical tools[21]. Since the 1970s, this term has been used to refer to a heuristic tool for the investigation of misunderstandings in contexts of intercultural communication in a branch of research known as "ethnopsycholinguistics," established primarily in Russia.

On this basis, Ertelt-Vieth (2004: 83) refers to it as a stock of categories for the differentiation of various aspects and levels, (a) "that interact in each and every 'critical incident," which is always unique, (b) "that were previously analysed separately according to different disciplines (word formation, connotation, patterns of interpretation, ethnographic peculiarities etc.);" (c) "that are historically contingent and subject to continuous change," as well as (d) "that are bound to certain cultural perspectives, from which they are perceived in each case." At least three major types may be differentiated for the purpose of analysis (see Ertelt-Vieth 2004: 83 ff.):

(a) mental lacunae, to which belong differences in the particular language system (e.g. the existence of patronymics in Russian), including all cognitive and affective states as well as models such as emotive lacunae, lacunae in the stock of knowledge and lacunae of the language system;

(b) lacunae of activity, referring to the differences in the usage of words (e.g. Russ. *drug* vs. Eng. *friend*) and marking overall differences in thinking, speaking, moving and other activities and processes;

(c) object-related lacunae, indicating differences in the arrangement of the world of objects, e.g. fixed texts and images (visiting-cards, photographs for applications, business reports).

The term "lacuna" thus denotes something that is absent or different from a culture-contrastive point of view, i.e. a hiatus in a context or a difference resulting from a divergent perspective. Lacunae can therefore be established by definition between (at least) two cultures or levels of culture. Complementarily, the term "symbol" can refer to phenomena which are by definition embedded in a context and which would leave a lacuna, i.e. a hiatus, should the context be missing (Ertelt-Vieth 2004: 90).

21 The word lacuna comes from the Latin lacuna (lacus), where it means 'indentation' or 'gap.' This is used in literary studies to describe gaps in understanding, whereas in translation science it denotes lexical units which are difficult to translate or cannot be translated at all (cf. ERTELT-VIETH 2004: 83).

4.5. The description of so-called cultural scripts (Wierzbicka 2002) by means of a natural semantic meta-language ("NSM") that is independent of individual languages could also prove productive for pertinent research. Wierzbicka (2006: 740 ff.), who originated the concept, makes the assumption that historically developed languages and their terms are largely determined by culture and are hence unsuitable as tools for making precise, neutral descriptions. The NSM developed by her thus operates with about 60 so-called semantic primes, i.e. with absolutely elementary words (such as *good, bad, somebody, something, know, think* etc.) that exist in all languages and have the same reference. By employing this descriptive tool, a high level of adequacy can be attained in the description of scripts characteristic of individual cultures within the framework of discussion on an "intercultural pragmatic" (cf. Wierzbicka 2006).

4.6. The research of ICC as a "culture-related" linguistic paradigm in the above sense could be classified into the discipline of "intercultural linguistics," the fundamentals, aims, feasibility and content of which have been already outlined by Földes (2003).

4.7. On the whole, ICC should be regarded as a descriptive term. An increased depth of the analysis of linguistic-communicational data could thereby be attained, primarily by (a) extending the theoretical-methodological foundations, and (b) broadening the empirical bases. To this end, it seems advisable to take the following aspects into consideration during the investigations:

- ICC-research should no longer be merely programmatic nor oriented primarily to communicative requirements, it should much rather grasp communicate events in their contexts, progression forms and consequences in an empirical-analytical manner, describe and interpret these with a focus on process and hermeneutics, while resorting primarily to a contrastive and interactional-discourse linguistic approach. In consequence, research should concentrate on how these communicative requirements are actually manifested in authentic interaction situations, as well as on methods, practices and techniques employed by speakers[22]. Situations and processes are therefore to be analysed, in which persons disposing of differing cultural codes, abilities and skills communicate with one other. In more detail, on the one hand, a more powerful observation of situational and language communicational demands is required, that participants in the conversation must fulfil in ICC situations and which may influence their speech activities, and on the other hand more attention must be paid to the way these speech

22 Welcome studies in this regard are, for example, the projects of Rasmussen (2000) and Sunaoshi (2005).

activities actually take place. Consequently, a more precise differentiation of the dazzling but unspecific construct of ICC is needed, based on types of communication situations which really happen. At the same time, the paralinguistic and non-verbal dimension of culture-determined behaviour patterns must also be taken into consideration (cf. Knapp/Knapp-Potthoff 1990: 71 f.; Maletzke 1996: 78 f.; Heringer 2004: 81 ff.; Oksaar 2005: 26 f.), all the more so, because these dimensions of communication proceed much more unconsciously than the verbal ones. A more distinct consideration of the often asymmetrical expectations or constellations of participants also seems advisable, as in many research papers, because the culture factor is rather one-sidedly implied as the only decisive criterion for communicational behaviour (cf. discussion in section 2.2.).

- A solid foundation can be laid for this purpose: for the development of models, procedures and subject matter, streams of thought and scientific discipline categories such as cognitive cultural anthropology, the ethnography of communication, contrastive pragmatics, interlanguage pragmatics, functional pragmatics, interpretative sociolinguistics and in particular discourse analysis could be drawn upon. Integrated intercultural discourse-analytical approaches could thus be opened up, i.e. with the help of the methods and results from these subdisciplines, the production and reception of language behaviour could be empirically-exploratively and factually characterised in culture-determined contexts. This is also significant, because discourses and texts represent forms of social cognition. They provide access to the so-called collective memory of a social group that (a) consists of a "communicative" and (b) a "cultural" memory (cf. Assmann 2007: 50 f.). This "cultural memory" appears to be a most inspiring concept heuristically, irrespective of certain vague elements.

For the description and explanation of the most manifold speech products, at least three lines of sight should constitute ICC research: those dealing with linguistics, cognitive-psychology and sociology with cultural studies. A communication process is not only a linguistic phenomenon, but a transphenomenon,[23] implying a cognitive process and a social product at the same time. An analysis of communication activities, therefore, not only requires an interdisciplinary but also expressly a transdisciplinary approach, which is basically characterised by an integrated view of various academic disciplines. Consequently, ICC-research must be regarded as a transdiscipline.

23 For this concept, cf. e.g. Wawrzyniak (2004: 330)

- In terms of model and concept theory, as well as methodology, the constitutive assumptions of comparative culture must be finely questioned with regard to their relationship to ICC studies. Loenhoff (2003: 106 ff.) has raised a few instructive points in this respect. Starting from the dichotomy of 'participant' vs. 'observer' perspective, or following Husserl (1921: 261 ff.) the "acting" and "thematising" approach to objects of perception, he emphasises: "That which we experience in the course of perception, and that which we construct and make up about it during reflection on this perception, as well as in retrospective contemplation, are very different symbolic products" (Loenhoff 2003: 106). The result of the distinction between an active and a thematising approach to perception is that the discipline of comparative culture has a different object of investigation than ICC theory. The results of comparative-culture studies, therefore, provide no description of the intercultural communication process, as the representation values of cultural meaning structures must not be confused with their control values in the communication process (Loenhoff 2003: 109). Furthermore, the problem of the lack of identity with or the impossibility of transfer of the comparative-culture results to the ICC phenomena essentially arises from the fact that comparative-culture elements focus on structures rather than processes and functions, on speech rather than speaking, on objectivising the mental rather than cognitive styles in the concrete implementation of action, on aesthetic products rather than forms of perception (Loenhoff 2003: 110).
- It must be born in mind, that an upheaval is taking place in the international code of practice at the present time, as a result of which "prototypical" ICC activities are increasingly giving way to a "globalised" (read: Americanized) way of communication in many respects (cf. section 2.2.)
- The striking methodological difficulty of the social sciences applies particularly to intercultural investigations: i.e. the concordance of the subject and object of investigation (see Földes 2003: 57). The researcher always belongs to a particular culture. And since as a rule studies such as these deal with "distinctive features" of some kind, which in turn can only be described against the background of a situation or position regarded as "standard" or "normal," there is a danger of absolutising the criteria for order and the assessment standards of the observer's own culture when describing and evaluating other cultures, and this can lead to false ethnocentric conclusions. Analogous with this ethnocentrism, there is also a danger of forming stereotypes, and not only in intercultural contact situations, but also on the meta level in the case of intercultural research projects. All these call for an in depth consideration of methodology (cf. the approach of Schröder 1991).

In contemporary ICC research, these types of unconsidered, "ethnocentric" sweeping statements repeatedly turn up: for example, the Finnish researcher Koskensalo (1988: 99) deals with the issue of "the excessive humility of the Japanese people," and from her Hungarian perspective, Zelényi (2005: 316) is of the opinion, that "the system of traditions and conventions in Eastern cultures is much more complicated than that of Europe."

In my view, new dimensions of communication and language remain to be deciphered as the most mysterious peculiarities of mankind, taking into consideration the inner variants of a culture with a constructivist spirit, and by resorting, for example, to structural semiotics and sociopragmatic discourse analysis. For I argue that fundamentally, there is merely a quantitative rather than a qualitative difference between inter- and intracultural communication (cf. also Sarbaugh 1993: 5); there are less differences of a typological kind, though indeed, with a quantitative approach, more potential practical problem areas must be reckoned with. Both types of phenomena, however, can be described analytically as hypothetical extremes of a continuum model, whereby real speech events are to be located somewhere in the middle of this scale, at times closer to the genuinely intracultural, at others to the prototypically intercultural pole. To indicate the complexity of the relationships, a practical example can be cited here, in which it can be argued that less culture-specific "interference factors" occur in a conversation between an English and a Dutch physician than in the communication between this native English(-speaking) physician and a similarly English(-speaking) carpenter. Consequently, the question as to why certain manifestations of (intercultural) communication occasionally do not flow smoothly (due to misunderstandings etc.) is less pertinent than the question of how they happen, and what terms and methodology can be used to model them.

5. Final remarks

A current manual of empirical social research states: "Most of the theories in the social sciences are formulated relatively vaguely and they concern concepts that are not precisely defined" (Schnell/Hill/Esser 2005: 11). Linguistics should draw productive conclusions from this criticism and develop a well-defined impetus for a theoretically-founded and empirically-supported structure of terms and theory for ICC.

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Speech Acts in Legal Language

Csilla Dobos

Introduction

Pragmatics, which as a discipline emerged in the 1960s and 1970s, has brought about a significant change in both the views on language and language use. Pragmatics regards language as one of the forms of social action, and investigates the principles and procedures constituting the basis of the interactive use of language. In theory, we are free to say what we want but in practice, we formulate our ideas depending on the actual situation and select the proper language devices from our mental lexicon accordingly.

Pragmatics investigates linguistic problems in their *social embeddedness*, examining language from the aspects of use, communication and context. Among others, due to this, nowadays the results of pragmatics are indispensable in several forms of multidisciplinary research targeted at the investigation of the communication activities of society, including legal, clinical, business, political, media, classroom, mediator, intra-family etc, discourse.

1. Pragmatics in professional languages

The research of professional languages and pragmatics have become gradually intertwined. In the early period of professional language research, when investigations were primarily and in many cases limited to professional vocabulary and terminology, pragmatics did not play a significant role in the description of professional languages. The functional stylistic and syntactic investigations of the 1960s did not lead to such a progress in professional language research, either, which would have created an opportunity for the use of the results of emerging pragmatics. A change was brought about by the *communicative-pragmatic* turn in linguistics, which exerted its influence in professional language research in the 1970s and 1980s, when experts' attention turned increasingly towards the specification of the circumstances and conditions of successful professional communication (see Hoffmann 1988, Baumann 1994, Lalouschek–Menz–Wodak 1990, Redder–Wiese 1994, Szabó–Varga 2000).

The past few decades have witnessed the gaining ground of pragmatic investigations in professional language research. This, naturally, does not mean pushing traditional fields of research into the background. Quite to the contrary: it can be seen that pragmatics finds its way to lexical and syntactic investigations bringing with it its special approach and methods of analysis and making the former significantly more varied.

2. Legal pragmatics

The inner structure of legal language (see Karcsay 1981, 325-338, Szabó 2002, 116) as well as the existence and distinguishability of its written and oral version make it necessary to apply the methods of linguistic research in a subtle way. As pragmatic research is targeted at the various aspects of interactive language use, the approach of pragmatics can be successfully applied in the investigation of the language use of law enforcement, centred on spoken discourse.

According to Crystal, in the courtroom, language plays the most important role as with respect to its structure, a criminal trial hardly differs from an extremely long narrative which has a beginning (represented by the opening speeches), a main part (presentation of evidences) and a closing (closing speeches, passing the sentence). However, he points out that a significant difference is that this narrative is related by several people including two 'professional' narrators (the representatives of defence and prosecution) and exists in at least two conflicting versions. The dissolution of this conflict or discrepancy completely depends of the language skills of the participants involved. (Crystal 1998, 482)

Foreign, primarily English and German publications testify that the pragmatic approach to legal language research has become more and more popular in recent years (see Reitemeier 1985, Nussbaumer 1997, Hoffmann–Kalverkämper–Wiegand 1998, 24-118, 409-523). Within the framework of the pragmatic research of professional languages, there arose *legal pragmatics*, which set the objective to investigate legal language in operation, in a well-defined legal environment and embedded in a concrete *framework of professional validity* (e.g. during police interrogations or court trials).

The principles, rules and methods adopted by pragmatics are involved in the analysis of the language use of legal procedure in several ways. This way, for example the specification of the role of legal performatives and constatives, the characterisation of the different illocutionary acts, the frequency of the occurrence of conversational implicatures, the question of the necessity of their explication, the rate of occurrence of direct and indirect speech acts, the extent and causes of the adherence to the cooperative principle, the compliance with or violation of conversational maxims, the choice and application of the different strategies of asking questions are all aspects of pragmatic research which can be applied in the exploration of the characteristics of the language use of law enforcement with the hope of success.

3. Constatives and performatives in the language use of law enforcement

One of the potential theoretical frameworks for the pragmatic research of legal language is provided by *speech act theory*, initiated by Austin (1962) and further developed by his disciple, Searle (1976, 11-23). According to the basic principles of speech act theory, our utterances do not only serve to describe the world around us but are also capable of performing certain actions. English philosopher John L. Austin was the first to point out that a large number of our utterances do not convey information but have the value of action. When a person says *I promise* or *I swear,* these utterances result in a new psychological or social state of affairs, so in such cases, *saying* is equivalent to *doing*.

According to Austin's theory (1990, 31-68), *constatives* describe the world around us, asserting or saying something about it, and are verifiable so they may either be true or false (e.g. There are a lot of stars in the sky. Tree leaves are green.) *Legal constatives* have similar characteristics with the restriction that they do not assert something about the world in general but only about the world of law, and can be verified in a given legislation and under specific social circumstances: The public prosecutor represents society. – The public prosecutor makes the indictment, the defence counsel makes a speech for the defence. – Criminal procedure starts with an investigation phase. – Prosecution, defence and administration of justice are separated in criminal procedure. – The task of courts is the administration of justice.

According to Austin, in contrast to constatives, performatives do not describe or assert anything, do not report anything and thus cannot be true or false (1990, 32-33). Therefore, if, for example, under the proper circumstances you make utterances like *I appeal, resign* or *promise*, the utterance of these expressions is equivalent to the act of appeal, resignation or making a promise itself. The essence of performativity is the equivalence of utterance and act, or in other words, the fact that certain utterances are, at the same time, acts in themselves. This is illustrated by Austin's classical example: if a person says *'yes'* in front of the altar or in the presence of the registrar, he/she does not report the marriage service but is a participant of it and is contracting marriage. If a person says to his/her child: 'Look round before you cross the street.', he/she does not describe the world in terms of traffic conditions but performs an act, namely that of *warning.* Therefore, uttering this sentence is not a description of what can be said about what the person is doing when he/she is saying this, nor is it the confirmation of what he/she is doing but the performance of the act itself. (Austin 1990, 33)

Similar utterances can also be found in legal language. For example, if the public prosecutor makes the utterance:'On the basis of the above facts, I accuse the culprits of committing the criminal offence of theft as accomplices.', he / she does not describe legal acts but performs an act: he/she *lays an indictment* against the culprits. The declarative speech act (*I accuse)* included in the speech for the prosecution also has the value of an act by virtue of its illocutionary force.

As it is well-known, in the field of law, language is not only used to describe facts (legal constatives) but often language itself creates facts. Beyond their value of act, performatives also possess legal effects and legal consequences as with the performative utterances used in proper legal contexts, rights and obligations are created and eliminated (Szabó 2001, 104-105).

In Austin's opinion, performatives are mainly verbs in first person singular the utterance of which involves the performance by the speaker of the act denoted by the verb. However, research later proved that the formal requirement set by Austin is not exclusive as there exist performative utterances which do not include verbs in the first person singular. One of the fields where such formally non-bound performatives frequently occur is precisely law enforcement and within it, the language use of court trials as it is not the judge or the public prosecutor in first person singular but the court itself that *concludes, imposes penalty or obliges* etc. a person to perform a particular act.

On the basis of the abovementioned, it can be concluded that legal performatives are distinguished from verifiable legal constatives including allegations or conveying information through their act value manifested in their legal effect or legal consequence. The objective of the performative speech acts characteristic of courtroom discourse is not to report the court trial but to exert an influence on its progress and change the legal capacity and role of the participants (e.g. the accused is indicted, sentenced or acquitted, etc.) Consequently, legal performative speech acts do not describe reality but change it.

4. Explicit performative speech acts in courtroom communication

One of the basic forms of the pragmatic analysis of legal language use is the investigation of legal utterances as *illocutionary* acts. Of the acts of communication behaviour, that is, locutionary, illocutionary and perlocutionary acts (see Austin 1990, 102-122, Searle 2000, 138-139, 2009, 35-38, 41-46, 50-60, 170, 225, Szili 2004, 76-77), the research of the language of law enforcement also focusses on illocutionary acts similarly to the investigation of everyday language use. Illocutionary acts are acts linked to and embodying the speaker's intentions (e.g. promise, order, demand, etc.) which consist of two components:

the indicator of illocutionary force and the indicator of propositional content (see Searle 2000, 139). In the next section, two examples are used to illustrate the role of the indicator of illocutionary force (illocutionary force, for short) in the expression of the speaker's intentions.

In the utterance 'I admit having made a false statement', the verb *admit* fulfils the role of illocutionary force indicator while the proposition is given in the following part, i.e. in the content of the assertion. This example, taken from the transcription of a court trial, could have also been said in the following way: 'I have made a false statement'. In the first case, the culprit admitted committing a criminal offence with an explicit performative utterance while in the second case, he/she did so with an implicit performative utterance.

The following explicit performative utterance of the judge can similarly be broken up into parts: 'I conclude that there is no obstacle to holding a continuous trial.' In it, the verb *conclude* fulfils the role of illocutionary force indicator while the proposition is given in the following part, i.e. in the content of the assertion. This example could also have been formulated in the following way: 'There is no obstacle to holding a continuous trial.' Thus, in the first case, the judge fulfilled his/her obligation to examine the conditions of holding the trial and as a part of opening the trial, to declare whether the trial could be held or not with an explicit performative utterance while in the second case, he/she used an implicit performative utterance for the same purpose [Section (1), Art. 281 of Act No XIX of 1998 on criminal procedure]

As it can be seen the omission of the illocutionary force indicator does not involve a change in or disappearance of the illocutionary force of the utterance but in some cases, may result in ambiguity, uncertainty or misunderstandability (e.g. the utterance 'You are under no obligation to make a statement.' may likewise be interpreted as a statement of facts, as calling attention or as a warning).

It is a well-known fact that the language of law enforcement is determined by the effort to express the legal idea precisely and unambiguously therefore courtroom communication is characterised by a frequent use of explicit performatives. The following examples also illustrate that the explicit character of the utterance makes clear the illocutionary force of the given performative and thus the purpose of the utterance and the speaker's intention: 'I warn you that your right to defence will be lost the moment you falsely accuse another person of committing a criminal offence.'

5. Illocutionary acts characteristic of courtroom communication

As we know, the number of verbal acts is practically infinite therefore it is impossible to specify the number of illocutionary acts. In spite of this, one of the major endeavours of pragmatics is to categorise and group illocutionary acts in some way. On the basis of Searle's criteria (the point of illocutionary act, direction of fit between the words and the world, the psychological state expressed by the speech act), publications in pragmatics put illocutionary acts into the following five groups: assertives, directives, commissives, expressives and declaratives (for details, see Searle 1976, 11-23, Szili 2004).

Legal language use is characterised by the occurrence of all the five types of speech acts with differences in the frequency of the occurrence of the specific illocutionary acts. The investigation of the recordings made at court trials reveal that due to the nature of legal procedure, *assertive* speech acts occur most frequently in trials. Assertive legal speech acts express the relation of the speaker to the truth content of the propositions, and therefore, assertives may be either true or false (e.g. 'At the agreed time, we met and got into the car in which, as I remember, there were 2 screwdrivers and a pair of nippers. We left the car on the road and went to the vineyard on foot. When we were looking around in the vineyard, H. saw the aluminum shed and suggested that we take it into parts.')

Court trials should reveal whether the allegations made (assertives) really correspond to the events of reality constituting the starting-point of legal procedure. In this pragmatic approach, the objective of the trial is to find out whether the court shares the standpoint of culprit and defence counsel concerning the propositional content of utterances, that is, whether the court accepts the culprit's allegations and the defence counsel's speech as true.

With the help of *directive* legal speech acts, the speaker wishes to get the listener to perform some kind of action (e.g. the speaker requests or instructs the listener, calls upon him/her or orders him/her to do something, expresses his/her wish for some action, etc.) The defence counsel usually formulates his/her directive speech acts in the form of requests, asking the court to impose the minimum punishment on his/her client (e.g. I request the court to regard these in this sense as mitigating circumstances, and if the cumulative punishment in the indictment is imposed, I request the court to show mercy on culprit and impose the minimum punishment.) In contrast, the public prosecutor, representing prosecution, makes motions concerning what punishment the court should impose in a much more determined way, with demands and instructions (e.g. I move that the Town Court conclude that culprit XY has committed the criminal offence of theft as accomplice, and place him on probation.) The judge's utterances include directive speech acts in those phases of the trial when following from his/her general and specific tasks, the judge provides for the organisation and direction of courtroom discourse and the order of trial (Stand up, please., Stand facing me., Do not interrupt the trial or you will be expelled from the courtroom., Leave the courtroom, please, the court is going to pass its ruling., Stay near the courtroom. etc).

A special type of directive legal speech acts is represented by *directive* speech acts of *declarative character*, mostly typical of the public prosecutor's speech (e.g. In case of culprit XY, I move that he/she be sentenced to imprisonment.')

Through the use of *commissive* legal speech acts, the speaker commits him/herself to some extent to the performance or occurrence of a certain act (e.g. I uphold the charge with respect to all the four culprits both in relation to the history of the case and the assessment thereof with unchanged content. Cuplrit and defence counsel understand sentence.')

With *expressive* legal speech acts, the speaker expresses his/her relation to a particular state of affairs (e.g. the speaker expresses his/her thanks, regret or gladness, etc.) These speech acts are relatively rare in legal language (e.g. (to public prosecutor) Thank you, Madam. Accused of the second order may be accompanied back, thank you.)

The utterance of *declarative* legal speech acts results in a change in the legal status of an object or person or in the conditions of the legal situation. In courtroom trials, a central role is played by every declarative legal speech act as these constitute an essential part in both the indictment and the sentence: 'On the basis of the above state of affairs, I accuse culprits of committing the criminal offence of theft as accomplices. On the basis of the above state of affairs, the public prosecutor accuses culprits of committing the criminal offence of rioting, and XY of committing the criminal offence of non-grievous bodily harm in cumulation.'

6. Speech act structure of courtroom trials

The trial is opened by the judge, specifying the charge. Then the judge warns the audience to maintain silence and order reminding them of the consequences of creating disturbances. After this, the judge examines who are present, names those present, and concludes whether the trial may be held or not. Following from the duties listed, at the beginning of the trial, the utterances of the judge are mainly characterised by assertive speech acts, in which the judge presents states of affairs as conclusions or simple allegations on the one hand, and expresses his/her relation to the truth content of the proposition on the other (e.g. The court starts trial and concludes that all the persons summoned are present.) The direction of fit is word to world, that is, the judge selects his/her words depending on the states of affairs in the world (or on the courtroom situation as the case may be). The determination of the order of warning the audience, directing trial and procedural acts (for example, calling upon the public prosecutor to present indictment) is performed with the help of directive speech acts of declarative character (e.g. Take a seat, please., Please, wait in the corridor., Culprits, please, leave the courtroom., Please, lead accused of the third order back to courtroom., Public prosecutor presents indictment No…. Please, start.) The phase of evidence starts with the hearing of culprit with the judge asking culprit questions. (Searle also categorizes questions as directives because the purpose of asking most of these questions is to get the communication partner to answer. See Searle 1976). It is characteristic of the judge's utterances that directives are often formulated as explicit performative utterances (e.g. 'I warn you that…, I request you to…, I call your attention to it that…) In the announcement of sentence or ruling, the judge's utterances include declaratives (e.g. the judge imposes a fine, sentences culprit to imprisonment or imposes a warning) in addition to assertive speech acts (e.g. culprit has committed the offence of false accusation, culprit has entered a plea of guilty). Commissive and expressive speech acts are not characteristic of the judge's utterances, which, of course, does not mean that such speech acts do not occur at all in them. For example, for the sake of the protection of the prestige, order and proper tone of the court, several expressive speech acts may be used at the beginning and end of the judge's speech moves (e.g. Thank you for your participation., (to public prosecutor) Thank you, Madam.)

The public prosecutor brings the indictment, represents the prosecuting authority at the trial and it is his/her duty in every phase of the procedure to take into account both the aggravating and extenuating circumstances as well as any circumstances aggravating or mitigating criminal liability. In his/her speech, the public prosecutor presents the facts and circumstances on the basis of which the guiltiness of the culprit may be concluded, and then makes a move as to on the basis of which facts the court should pronounce culprit guilty of what kind of criminal offences, what punishment the court should impose and what other rulings the court should make. Any facts and circumstances relevant to the criminal procedure are always past events which appear in the form of various allegations, recollections and assumptions. The public prosecutor summarises these facts with a series of assertive speech acts (e.g. he committed, admitted, took it away), and at the end of the speech, he/

she formulates the charge with declarative speech acts (e.g. I uphold charge, I accuse). The public prosecutor puts forward his/her indictment with directive speech acts (e.g. I move that imprisonment be imposed, if the court concludes culprits being guilty, I move that the court oblige them to…). Commissives and expressives are not typical of the prosecutor's utterances.

An attorney may act as defence counsel. In his/her speech, the defence counsel puts forward arguments in the culprit's defence. Similarly to the utterances of the judge and the public prosecutor, the description of the act triggering criminal procedure is done with assertive speech acts (e.g. They took the aluminum sheets away but it was not them who forced these sheets to come off). The formulation of the intention of defence is expressed with a specific complex assertive-declarative speech act characteristic of legal discourse. The speech of defence counsel abounds in directive speech acts with which defence counsel intends to persuade the court to pass a judgement favourable for culprit (e.g. attention should be paid to the fact that.. , I request the court to acquit culprit, I request the court to appreciate…, I request the court to show mercy, to impose minimum punishment).

On the basis of the abovementioned, it can be concluded that following from the general and specific duties of the judge, the utterances of the judge primarily consist of the assertive and directive speech acts generally characteristic of legal discourse while the judge's intentions are mostly expressed in assertive speech acts of a declarative character. In the speech act structure of the public prosecutor's speech, assertive, declarative and directive speech acts dominate with the latter expressing demands while the defence counsel's speech is dominated by assertive and directive illocutionary force with the latter expressing requests.

Conclusion

Nowadays, more and more research fields emerge which continuously increase the number of contact points between professional language research and pragmatics. In today's world, there is not only demand that the languages of the different professional fields be described with grammatical categories and characterised from different linguistic and professional aspects but most importantly, it is required to investigate professional languages in operation, embedded in concrete social situations (e.g. legal procedure, business meeting, medical consultation etc). Such investigations of professional languages are made possible by pragmatics.

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Textbook Research and Language Use

Zsuzsa Kurtán

1. Introduction

The textbook is an important and integral component of the educational process. As a distinctive genre, it basically serves the communicative function of providing a readership with new information, knowledge in various disciplines and at different levels of education.

As the social situations, contexts, including textbook writers' intentions and purposes change, the way language is used also changes. Language varies in a number of ways, depending on the people who use it, on how, in what circumstances and why it is used. In consequence, a variety of distinct linguistic forms, meanings, rhetorical and interaction strategies are applied in a wide range of textbooks.

In the context of education, textbooks basically fulfil (1) subject specific, disciplinary and (2) pedagogical functions. They provide content in accordance with academic research, and in parallel, they are based on pedagogy, i.e. some methodological approach applied to enable readers to learn the content. Both these functions are realized by language, and it is of crucial importance to use textbooks with language making messages accessible and interpretable for the readers.

Despite the dynamic interrelationship between the communicative functions of the textbook and language, there has been relatively little research focusing on language use demands. However, the way language is used in different textbooks can not be neglected as it may promote or hinder the interaction and interpretation processes between textbook writers and textbook users.

In a wide range of educational contexts, there have been many criteria developed to analyse and evaluate textbooks, resulting in a relatively large amount of publications with various aspects of textbook analyses. As an example, one of the most contemporary and comprehensive sources used internationally is the 'UNESCO Guidebook on Textbook Research and Textbook Revision', the second and revised edition of which was published in 2010 (Pingel 2010). It is an excellent source of reference with an up to date overview of the state of the art, and it offers a first overview of the different aspects that have to be taken into account when planning textbook research projects. It also provides a wide range of reference to various approaches and methodologies in textbook research. In addition, the book contains practical advice for textbook reviewers, including methods and aspects for analysis, a selective list of institutes of textbook research and a reading list.

However, we still have not enough information for a full understanding of the linguistic demands placed on textbook authors and readers across disciplines in various educational contexts. With the development of needs-based communication and task based approaches in education, the linguistic characteristics of textbooks must be fully described and understood before adequate teaching materials can be developed.

The aim of this study is to draw attention to the importance of raising professionals' awareness of some features of language use in the textbook, which may promote or hinder the effective use of textbooks in educational processes. A specific emphasis will be laid on the interpersonal function of the textbook supported by examples, the sources of which are textbooks analyzed by the author of the present study.

2. The textbook as a particular genre

The textbook bears the characteristic features of the genre in general on the one hand, and specific characteristics as a particular type of genre in certain educational contexts on the other hand. It requires specific purpose language use, and the reading demands, roles and attitudes differ from corresponding demands, roles and attitudes belonging to reading in other contexts e.g. reading in leisure time. The readers, the learners are faced with demands to learn and develop themselves through reading and interpreting texts.

The textbook as a particular type of genre can be analysed in terms of its functions, some of which can be summarised in the following (Kurtán 2001)[1]:

- Textbooks embody a view of the nature of the content, the state-of the art in the given discipline; making statements about what authors think about the essentials of their discipline.
- Textbooks provide stimulus to learning. Good textbooks do not teach: they encourage learners to learn. Therefore, they contain scientific content knowledge which is reliable, embedded in texts that engage the readers' thinking capacities and students can cope with.
- Help to organise the teaching-learning process, by providing a path through the material. Structuring of facts, knowledge is basically determined by discipline-based theoretical background.
- Textbooks reflect what authors think about the potential readers, their anticipated knowledge, motivation, and needs.

1 Translation by the author

- Textbooks create a balanced outlook which both reflects the complexity of the given field, yet makes it appear manageable.
- Textbooks contain appropriate language use, functioning as a vehicle for learning, facilitating the construction of knowledge.

The similarities and differences between general and specific purpose communication can be grasped looking at how participants of discourse communities carry out social actions using language in various situations. Swales (1990) found that a discourse community has a broadly agreed set of common public goals, has mechanisms of intercommunication among its members, uses its participatory mechanisms primarily to provide information and feedback, utilizes and hence possesses one or more genres in the communicative utterance of its aims, has acquired some specific lexis (specialized terminology, acronyms), has a threshold level of members with a suitable degree of relevant content and discourse expertise.

The definition of genre is provided by Swales (1990: 58):

> *A genre comprises a class of communicative events, the members of which share some set of communicative purposes. These purposes are recognized by expert members of the parent discourse community, and thereby constitute the rationale for the genre. This rationale shapes the schematic structure of the discourse and influences and constrains choice of content and style. Communicative purpose is both a privileged criterion and one that operates to keep the scope of a genre as here conceived focused on comparable rhetorical action. In addition to purpose, exemplars of a genre exhibit various patterns of similarity in terms of structure, style, content and intended audience.*

Within the wider frame of discourse and text analysis, genre analysis can be based on the pragmatic contextual analysis as a first stage to be followed by the functional and linguistic (lexical-grammatical features, textual patterning, text structure) analysis.

Contextual analysis can reveal in what social setting a particular kind of text is typically produced, and what constraints and obligations this setting may impose on writers and readers. The communicative purpose of the text is investigated together with what roles may be required of writers and readers in the particular genre. Analysis also covers what knowledge of other texts may be necessary for writers and readers, and what shared knowledge of formal texts features, i.e. conventions is demanded to communicate effectively in a particular genre. Using and complementing the speech event model by Hymes (1974), the main factors that may influence the choice of linguistic forms and may serve as aspects for the contextual analysis of textbooks are the following:

- *Norms, conventions, expectations, requirements for text*
  (e. g. textbooks provide readers with new information; they encourage and motivate learners to learn; texts are interpretable)
- *The setting of the textbook*
  (e. g. texts are mediated to the reader by textbook authors in various disciplinary subjects; they are used in a wide range of primary, secondary and tertiary level educational contexts)
- *The intended audience, their expected needs, purposes*
  (e. g. the author takes the role of a guide, and depending on the role of the reader assigned by the author, more or less guidance is provided for them)
- *Background knowledge assumed, expected*
  (e. g. textbook authors rely on the readers' assumed previous knowledge)
- *The intentions, aims, purpose(s) of the author*
  (e. g. authors express their assumption about the necessity of the subject, emphasizing its importance, arousing readers' interest, engaging and motivating them for reading and interpreting the text)
- *The relationship between participants (author, reader)*
  (e. g. textbook authors establish the presence of their readers by addressing them directly with questions, directives, references to shared knowledge)
- *The topic, focus and perspective of the textbook*
  (e. g. topics are highlighted in various structural parts of the textbook; authors usually define what the topic is and point out their main and secondary themes; authors draw in the reader with the use of macro- and micro-structural discourse markers, logical connectives, endophoric markers, various types of references, deixis, code glosses)
- *Relationship with other texts*
  (e. g. textbook authors guide their readers to recognize relations to other texts, drawing their attention to other parts of the textbook and also referring to texts from other sources).

On the theoretical basis of Halliday's systemic functional grammar (1974), three interrelated functions of language can be described and applied for textbooks:

(1) the *ideational* function of representing experience, concerned with the selection and presentation of information;

(2) the *interpersonal* function of expressing the relations between the people (textbook writers and readers) interacting, and their attitudes;

(3) the *textual* function of organizing and constructing a coherent message or text.

This functional approach to language provides a link between language seen as an abstract system of rules and language in real communication as used in context. It also helps us to understand how functional variables will have some effect on the linguistic and pragmatic choices we make in textbook interactions.

3. Textbook research and the functions of language

3.1. In textbook research it is the *textual* function of the textbook which has been the main focus of studies of the language of the textbook. The basic aim of such studies was mainly to point out syntactic structures which were predicted or empirically found to pose difficulties for the intended readership.

It has been identified and summarised (Harrison 1980) that the main sources of difficulties can be grasped in the high number of clauses per sentence, the use of the passive voice, nominalizations deriving from verbs, ellipsis, and the modal verbs. Factors that affect the relative accessibility of the language of textbooks have also been pointed out, including the choice of sentence initial element or theme, or cohesion. There has been an assumption that the element selected for first, initial position in the written language of the textbook may be essential in processing.

Lexical density related to the written mode of textbook communication can also be another significant source of problems, which is worth investigating. On the whole, technical vocabulary, for instance, is less of a problem as teachers emphasize it and pupils seem to absorb it quite readily. Of more concern are familiar words which have different meanings according to their contexts (Perera 1984).

3.2. Textbook research from the aspect of the *ideational* function of the textbook can be exemplified by the identification of topic types based on lexico-semantic categorisation rather than grammatical (Davies and Greene 1984). It has been pointed out that certain topics are consistently represented in texts with certain functions, for example description (properties, structure, and process), classification, instruction, etc. However, topic-type analysis for the evaluation of textbooks has not been systematically carried out concerning the relative distribution features across textbooks in the school curriculum.

3. 3. The *interpersonal* function in textbooks has received little attention in research despite its great importance to investigate the roles of authors and readers in interactions though language. Focusing, for instance, on the perspective of what roles textbook authors may take to create relationships with their readership, their potential roles may be summarized for use in textbook analysis in the following:

- the textbook author as a source of information, knowledge;
- the textbook author as an interactive facilitator of learning;
- the textbook author as a manager/trainer in methodology;
- the textbook author as a model of language use in various disciplines.

Each of these functions are realized in distinct linguistic forms in textbooks, the analysis and evaluation of which can contribute to the understanding of essential features of textbook characteristics and their potential influence on the readers[2].

The informant role, for instance, is mostly expressed through the use of declarative clauses[3]:

> *This chapter looks at eight countries – four industrial and four developing – that together account for 56 percent of the world's population.* (ENVIR)

The interactive facilitator role is typically associated with the use of questions and personal pronouns:

> *First of all, how does DNA replicate faithfully? To answer that question, we need to know the overall structure of the DNA molecule as it is found in the chromosome.* (AGR)

The manager/trainer role is represented by imperatives:

> *Consider various ways of describing the morphemic structure of sentences* (LING)

The model of language role is typically realized by providing the reader with definitions:

> *Morphemes are the smallest elements that have meaning.* (LING)

3.4. Certainly, the above roles can not be sharply separated in textbooks. The dominant role of textbook authors is that of the informant, however, authors often shift to other roles, mostly to that of the interactive facilitator. In the following, some examples are given to demonstrate a few possible language use forms and strategies authors apply to interact with their readers.

2 A more detailed description with further examples of textbook analysis can be found in Kurtán 2009

3 The sources of examples are disciplinary textbooks used in higher education (economics, agriculture, environmental studies, EU law, biology, linguistics) analyzed by the author

Authors explicitly establish the presence of their readers by addressing them directly with questions, directives, references to shared knowledge, using a wide range of linguistic forms, person and relational markers. They apply relational markers to explicitly refer to or to build relationship with the reader:

> *As you can see… you may be discouraged by the economics you have encountered in textbooks and newspapers…* (ECON)

The first person plural pronoun seems to be frequently used even by a single author, for example, introducing or summarizing a topic, drawing in the reader:

> *We will have to determine… We have found… We saw that ….*

The reader is seen as an equal partner:

> *We like a good story, and the history of genetics is a very good one.* (BIOL)
> *We should bear in mind…* (BIOL)

Authors use evaluatives, which can serve the purposes of guidance and orientation for readers, pointing out differences between more or less essential issues in the text:

> *A knowledge of the subject is essential…*
> *It is important to recognize that…*
> *Fortunately…. much more simple and straightforward…* (LING)

Textbook authors express their attitude (agreement, disagreement) towards the propositional content, and emphasize force, importance or the writer's certainty in the message:

> *Of course, the failure to reverse in only five years trends that have been under way for decades is not surprising. Unfortunately, few governments have even begun the policy changes that will be needed to put the world on an environmentally sustainable path.* (ENVIR)

Authors attempt to convince the reader about the advantages of the subject with the use of evaluatives:

> *The study upon which you are embarking is a fascinating one…* (BIOL)

The language use forms and strategies textbook authors apply in the above examples show that authors intend to engage and bring in their audience, which has great importance since these attempts may elicit the learners' strategies for interaction and discourse interpretation in the process of reading the textbook (Kurtán 2009).

4. The interpersonal function of questions in textbooks

In the communicative interactions between authors and readers, the dialogic nature of textbooks can be studied, for example, by the investigation of questions. I have analyzed the frequency of occurrence of questions in introductory textbooks[4] used in higher education in five disciplinary areas: economic, agriculture, environmental studies, EU law, and biology (Table 1).

DISCIPLINARY SUBJECT AREA	WORDS	QUESTIONS (WORDS)	%
Economics	73854	5298	7, 2
Agriculture	19815	246	1, 2
Environmental studies	3563	0	0
EU law	115768	1270	1, 1
Biology	141925	4722	3, 3
Total	354925	11536	3, 3

Table 1 Frequency of occurrence of questions in disciplinary textbooks

The results show that there are proportional differences in the use of questions by textbook authors as interactive strategies across disciplines. The highest number of questions can be found in the textbook on economics (7, 2 %), lower numbers can be seen in the textbooks on biology (3, 3 %), agriculture (1, 2 %) and EU law (1, 1 %), while there are no questions in the text on environmental issues. As the results demonstrate, the small textbook corpus investigated (354925 words) contained questions in the proportion of 3, 3 % in unequal distribution.

In the above sources the questions occur embedded in the text or separated from the text, for instance, in the title, and they can often be seen graphically emphasized (larger size, bold letters etc.). Questions may take different positions, serving a number of functions in various structural parts of the textbooks, for instance in the title, at the beginning of chapters, paragraphs, or towards the end of certain structural parts. At the beginning of the text, for example, they can highlight a topic, challenge the reader into thinking about the topic of the text, or they may signal a change of subject:

4 Examples have been compiled based on the National Scientific Research Fund project titled '*Specific purpose translation from English into Hungarian: typical activities, features of translated LSP texts and their assessment'* (2004–2008), in which the author studied discourse characteristics of English and Hungarian LSP texts, also including textbooks. Further details in Kurtán 2008

> WHY READ THIS BOOK?
> C H A P T E R 1
> What's Going On?
> O N T H E N A T U R E O F E C O N O M I C S
> WHAT ARE WE STUDYING?
> "What does it study?" Another way of approaching the same issue is to ask, "What basic assumptions does it bring to its examination of the world?"

At the end of a structural part in the textbook questions are used to point to the future with suggestions for discussion or future research:

> *Where do we go from here?*

Questions in the textbooks examined are of various types, typically yes-no questions, alternative questions, Wh-questions, embedded questions, and rhetorical questions. In everyday communication, when uttering a question, addressors express that they do not know something for sure, and want to get to know it from the addressees of the question.

In yes-no questions the function is usually to get epistemic information by the listener, to receive confirmation whether something is the case or not. The addressor has less information than the addressee, who is supposed to be capable of answering the question. However, in textbooks the writer does not address the question to the reader, he knows more, and does not expect the reader to be capable of answering the question. Questions are frequently asked on behalf of the reader, and the text can be regarded as the answer to the question raised. Readers are called upon to make the question asked by the textbook writers to their own question. The readers accept the necessity of answering the question, as their motivation is aroused. They will look forward to read the text because they are interested in the answer the writers provide.

> *Can we lift our standard of living by protecting domestic industries?*
> *Can it really be that the universe at its most fundamental level is divided, requiring one set of laws when things are large and a different, incompatible set when things are small?* (ENVIR)

Alternative questions ask the receivers of the question to make a decision between two or more alternative facts. The writers assume that the readers are aware of the problem and may be aware of the solutions. The alternative question may serve as a reminder of a specific problem. In addition, the readers are made curious because they want to know which of the alternative solutions the writers argue for.

Who can best decide how much to spend on such marketing: The owners of the exporting companies, who have their own money on the line, or government bureaucrats, betting other people's money on the outcome?

Rhetorical questions may also serve various functions, for instance to convince their readers about their claims, to attack or criticise other authors or theories:

Can anyone be considered educated today who does not understand a little about molecular biology? (BIOL)
Why should the subject seem so obscure? (ECON)

5. Research on the use of the textbook

There has been relatively little research based on observations, related to how textbooks are used in educational contexts. Therefore, we can only introduce a few examples to demonstrate some typical approaches to the investigation of linguistic and pedagogical characteristics of the use of textbooks in educational processes.

Few studies on how students use textbooks in an unsupported situation have revealed that the potential sources of difficulties exemplified above do create problems for learners (Nicholson 1984). There is also some evidence, however, that when teachers provide support for the learner readers, the difficulties of the language of textbooks can be overcome.

There have been few examples of comprehensive studies of the use of textbooks from linguistic perspectives, for instance in Australia and the United Kingdom. The Australian ERICA (Effective Reading in Content Areas) project (Morris and Stewart-Dore 1984) was developed as a program for improving high school reading in content areas. The Reading for Learning Project in the UK focussed on the informative-ideational function of the textbook, and a topic-type categorization of texts was suggested based on their information constituents (Lunzer et al 1984). Evidence that topic type analysis has great potential for raising teachers' awareness towards text characteristics has been accumulated, and teacher training programmes were based on the methodology 'DARTS' (directed activities related to text). These activities were designed with the aim to sensitize readers to the nature of texts in the textbook and to enable them to process texts in an analytical and critical way.

Horsley and Walker (2003, 2006) reported about findings of video-based classroom observations focusing on the role of teaching and learning materials and textbooks in learning. They point out that there were many differences in the way novice teachers and expert teachers used textbooks. The novice teacher, for instance, laid less emphasis on alerting students to the underlying structure of the knowledge source, while the expert teacher was far more focused on using materials to help students understand the knowledge to be learned. The expert teacher, with greater pedagogic knowledge and experience, chose teaching and learning material which best represented disciplinary understandings and which met the learning needs of her students. From the perspectives of a sociocultural analysis of expert and novice teacher use of textbooks, it was clear that novice teachers were much less concerned with using texts to acculturate students into the academic disciplines taught. While the expert teacher used text material to provide students with essential disciplinary knowledge sources, novice teachers used texts as sources of activities and exercises for students. Novice teachers scaffolding was far more focused on the content itself. These differences in scaffolding strategies also draw our attention to the importance of language used in textbooks, and the need to sensitize teachers to language use characteristics in the textbook.

6. Summary

All teachers should be aware that readers construct the meaning they get from the textbook as a result of their interaction with it, and many factors affect this process, including language used by textbook authors. The readers are offered explicit or implicit guidelines by the authors. Depending on the role of the readers assigned by the authors, more or less guidance is provided for them. A deeper knowledge of how language is used in textbooks is of great value to teachers, learners, translators, and textbook authors themselves. This knowledge may lead to a heightened awareness of the language forms and strategies applied by authors.

There is no textbook which can be directly applied in educational contexts, fully satisfying the needs without any modifications. It is the teachers' important role to bridge the gap between the textbook, its language and the actual context of use. Therefore teachers have to use various methods and techniques of adaptation, modification, and supplementation.

The above findings, statements and examples indicate the need for large scale empirically based investigations of the functional roles textbook authors may fulfil through language and their effect on readers in textbook corpora across disciplines in a wide range of educational contexts.

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The Place Names of Ipoly mente

Tamás Török

Introduction

In this work I am dealing with the functional linguistic analysis of 13 settlements' contemporary and historic names of the Ipoly mente. Altogether, I am analysing 754 historic and 692 live geographical names. The choice of this topic was motivated by personal reasons: my parents are from the Ipoly mente (Ipolybél and Lontó), my relatives still live there. I was born in Ipolyság, and I spent unforgettable years with my grandparents. Thanks to them I became fond of the countryside, got familiar with the way of farming and folk culture.

Some information about the place names of the examined area have already been published by Gyula Jankus (Jankus 1988; 1994), but he has not dealt with their linguistic analysis. With the collection of both historical and live place names I succeeded to create such a database, which has helped not only write my own work, but it may serve as a source in any forthcoming research. Besides the linguistic investigation of place-names, I attempt to give a general idea about the Hungarians living in the Uplands, about the language use of legal regulations followed by the change in power relations, about the history and ethnography of the area examined. I shortly introduce the local dialect, concentrating on phonetic phenomena.

After a brief investigation of place-names from a viewpoint of their origin, typology and construction/formation on the grounds of Lajos Kiss (Etymological Dictionary of Geographical Names. 1997) and Milan Majtán (1972), I provide data about the place names' etymology, and the first appearance in written records and historical data about the modification of the names. Next the linguistic analysis of the place names of Ipoly mente is described. .

By the functional-semantic analysis I identify those appellative motives which played an important role in the formation of the name (cf. Hoffmann 1993, 43). I categorise parts of place-names according to their meaning and function. The linguistic devices composing the structures of names are selected into different groups according to a lexical-morphological investigation. Their special word classes and connotation features are introduced as well.

In the course of the syntagmatic analysis of the two-element place names, the grammatical relation between the components is analysed. Considering the special features of place names, different categories are used to introduce the word compositions.

I have carried out an analysis of the Slovak place-names of the latest maps, comparing the changes between historical and live (Hungarian) names and the Slovak names used and translated by the mapmakers.

Settlement names

As I have already mentioned in the introduction, my aim is not to analyse the names of settlements in a detailed way. After a short original, typological and structural investigation I provide a list of places-names, their etymology, first appearance in a written record and some historical data containing the alterations of place names. The above data are published in entries. The sources used are the Etymological Dictionary of Geographical Names and the work *Názvy obcí na Slovensku…* by Milan Majtán (1972).

"The comparative study of the 9th, 11th-13th century place-names in the Carpathian Basin clearly proves that the Hungarians who moved into this territory between 895–900 did not adopt earlier names of already existing villages, forts and towns." (Györffy 1990, 327). This certainly does not mean that from an etymological viewpoint all the place names arisen from Hungarian appellation can be traced back to a Hungarian common noun or a proper noun (firstly a personal name). There are numerous examples to prove that Turkish and Slavonic borrowings from the Pre-Conquest period and our personal names stemming from these borrowings played an important role in the birth of our place-names arisen from Hungarian appellation (ex. *Szalka* [see below]). Elements from the language/languages of the Slavonic population remained in the Carpathian Basin after the Conquest became basic elements in creating place names (ex. *Ipolypásztó* [see below]).

There preserved only some names to do with water from the Pre-Conquest period place-name system of Slavonic population living in the Carpathian Basin, which might subsequently become names of settlements(see also Györffy 1990, 327).

The settlement names examined (altogether 13) from this area are all of Hungarian appellation. There is one tribe name derivative (*Ipolykiskeszi*), 2 common noun derivatives (*Ipolyság*, *Lontó*) and 10 personal name derivatives (*Gyerk*, *Helemba, Ipolybél*, *Ipolypásztó, Ipolyszakállos*, *Ipolyvisk, Leléd*, *Pereszlény, Szalka*, *Szete*).

Considering their structure, I analysed names consisting of one, two and three items. The local usage mentions only one-component names: *Bél, Gyerk, Helemba, Keszi, Leléd, Lontó, Pásztó, Pereszlény, Ság, Szakállos, Szalka, Szete, Visk*. It is characteristic that half of our place names possess a distinctive prefix that refers to their location near the river *Ipoly*: *Ipolybél* (1907), *Ipoly(kis)keszi* (1497/1773/1907), *Ipolypásztó* (1691), *Ipolyság* (1799), *Ipolyszakállos* (1863), *Ipolyszalka* (1913), *Ipolyvisk* (1907). All the settlements with the exception of *Ipolypásztó* and *Ipolyság* received their names during the 19th and 20th century nationwide settlement-name arrangement (Mező 1982).

In case of *Ipolykiskeszi* I would like to add some explanation about the three data in brackets. Our place name containing a prefix with tribal-name origin can be registered back to 1497 (*Ipolkezew*). 300 years later, it appeared with another prefix, 1773: *Kiss-Keszi*. In 1907 during the nationwide settlement-name arrangement, the form *Ipolykiskeszi* was constructed from two historical entries. This fact can justify the existence of another settlement called *Ipolykeszi* in the County of Hont.

Functional-semantic analysis

This issue of names from the Ipoly mente contains solely one- and two-element names. I have dealt with 754 historical and 692 live geographical names altogether. I only realised during the arrangement of these names that István Hoffmann's statemen is true: "the analysis of one-element names causes much more difficulties than that of two-element names" (Hoffmann 1993, 54). After the initial hardship, I decided to carry out the functional-semantic analysis of one-element and two-element names separately. I digressed from the basic model, but I hope that my system is transparent and distinct.

The primary function of the one-element names is appellation. This is valid for those names that, from an etymological viewpoint, were formed from two-element names.

	Estate Map Names		Live Names	
Purely appalling function	52	25%	45	25,28%
Denote the quality of a place	17	8,17%	34	19,10%
Denote the specialities of a place	131	62,98%	93	52,24%
Can be analysed in different ways	8	3,84%	6	3,37%
Total	**208**	**100%**	**178**	**100%**

Table 1 The functional-semantic features of one-element names

The features of 208 historical and 178 one-element live names can be compared according to Table 1 above. We may establish that names with purely appellative function and names with different ways of analysis can be found in both corpora in a very similar proportion. A great divergence – of approximately 10-10% – appears in the groups of names indicating qualities and specialities. Among the live names – in comparison with historical names- there are more one-element names indicating quality of place, while in case of names indicating specialities the situation is reverse.

The reasons for the difference can be explained by the moments of genesis. It is possible that the rise of names indicating quality was resulted by the completion of historical names, while the decrease of names indicating specialities was resulted by an ellipsis. Of course only a part of cases can be explained by these processes, the extinction and formation of new names should be counted with as well. My argumentation explains the possible reasons of changes only theoretically. For exploring the real reasons, detailed etymological examination is needed, which traces the changes at every single name.

Lexical-morphological analysis

The functional-semantic background was taken into consideration by the lexical-morphological examination of place names. My research of the Ipoly mente supports Hoffmann István's perception, according to which it is the function (the content to be denoted) that determines the term's formal realizations (Hoffmann 1993, 62).

Here I would like to add some words about the correspondence of the functional-semantic and lexical-morphological analysis and categories. In my analysis I have laid a great emphasis on consistency, i.e. certain lexical-morphological categories had to correspond in contents (concerning classified place-names) with some functional-semantic categories. By way of example a name segment with a denominating function, can always get into the lexical-morphological category of place names or place name derivatives (*<u>Mank</u>/hegy, Hosszú/<u>Homok</u>*) because '[t]here is always a real place name in a denominating function'(Hoffmann 1993, 47). In case of the function of two places' common relation the appearance of another lexical category can be possible if the name parts express a related situation (*<u>Alsó</u>/dűlők, <u>Belső</u>/félhold*).

Seemingly I get into a contradiction with Hoffmann's classification groundwork. István Hoffmann takes into consideration those lexical elements - based on semantic aspects and the meaning of common nouns-, which create place-names or functional name parts (Hoffmann 1993, 57). Alongside the application of the standpoints above my analysis is different, because I do not take the common noun meaning of one-element place names and name elements with denominating function (see examples above) for terminus a quo. Consistently making a rule of functional aspect – in case of one-element names the name itself – I examine them among the place name derivatives.

The exception is made by the one-element place-names of personal name origin (*Ágota, Bencék*), because despite their denominating function they got into the lexical-morphological category of personal names. Although the name *Bencék* etymologically is a name, which was probably formed with a place-name suffix and this fact would sooner classify it to the group of one-element place names. But in case of personal names I did not consider expedient the ranking of these names into other lexical-morphological classes.

There appeared such name segments whose name segment function and word class affiliation could not be defined because of the lack of data (e.g. *Farkas/hegy, Török/lyuk*). Because of this reason, I pasted the group of diversely analysable names into the lexical-morphological categories as well.

	Estate Map names		Live Names	
Common nouns	303	40,18%	278	40,17%
Place names (derivatives)	322	42,70%	282	40,75%
Personal names	14	1,85%	24	3,46%
Other proper names	2	0,26%	5	0,72%
Words of adjectival character	71	9,41%	88	12,71%
Word structures	39	5,17%	7	1,01%
Diversely analysable name segments	3	0,39%	7	1,01%
Name segments without categorisation	-	-	1	0,14%
Total	**754**	**100%**	**692**	**100%**

Table 2 The results of lexical-morphological investigation

Comparing the results of lexical-morphological investigation of two-name materials we may establish the fact that the majority of functional name segments are common nouns or place-names. The burden of both categories is of the same character. The high number of common nouns can be explained with the frequency of geographical common nouns(Estate Map: 87,78%, A: 82,37%).The existing names' important role played by the creation of new names can be proved by the fact that approximately 40% of functional name segments are place-names. The only difference between the name groups is that there are five times more word structures in the historical corpus than in the group of live names. In my opinion, this can be explained with the mapmakers' frequent usage of circumscriptions to make the localisation more accurate and with the application of data providers' notes as parts of names (e.g. *Nagyoszlás a szőlők alatt- Nagyoszlás under the grapes*). The other reason is the case of pathnames already reviewed, thus the mapmakers named certain paths independently from the folk(original) appellation.The names were given according to the paths' directions, i.e. where do they lead from (*Szete felöl, Visk felől*) or where do they run to (*Kis-Keszi felé, Szalka felé*).

Syntagmatic analysis

In my syntagmatic analysis the grammatical relation is examined between two-element place names. Considering the specialities of place names, I used the categories created for the introduction of common noun compounding.

Hoffmann confronting the existing systematisations establishes that in spite of using the same concepts the results were different. He rejects the ability of subjective and objective relations of connecting functional name segments, (Hoffmann 1993: 59, 60).

Accepting Hoffmann's argumentation I based my paper on attributive, adverbial and compound relations as well as names with different structures (Hoffmann 1993: 60) and other basic types. However, the names of Ipoly mente consist of only attributive and adverbial structures and that is why I examined these two types in a more detailed way.

	Estate Map names		Live names	
Attributive structures	258	94,50%	253	98,47%
Adverbial (prepositional) structures	15	5,49%	4	1,55%
Total	**273**	**100%**	**257**	**100%**

Table 3 The results of syntagmatic analysis

The attributive structures dominate in both name materials in almost the same degree. The reason of numerical difference of adverbial structures can be explained by the mapmakers' method of appellation. The Estate Maps, and the Hungarian surveys try to show the names used at that time but unfortunately in numerous cases they differ. I do not expect that such complicated names as *Ipoly-Pásztói hattárra dűlő, Kis-Keszi határra dűlő, Öreghegynéli Mogyorós, Őtrendes Kőpedéktónál* were actively used in everyday speech at that time.

The Slovak varieties of the place-names of Ipoly mente

In connection with the newest Slovak maps I examined the changes of Slovak names in comparison with historical and live (Hungarian) names, what and how it was translated by the Slovak mapmakers.

The Slovak maps of the period after Trianon contain 356 different place-names. By paralleling, in the maps with different languages there appeared some typical features of the translation, which helped create two main categories: calque and Slovak names based on a new motivation. Since I examined the operation of calque in a wider sense, I had an opportunity for a more modulated introduction of certain converting operations.

Calque	Calques	136	44,59% (38,20%*)
	Transcriptions	25	8,19% (7%*)
	Form alteration	93	30,49% (26,12*)
	The change of grammatical structure	32	10,49% (8,98%*)
	Other	19	6,22% (5,33%*)
	Total	305	100% (85,67%*)
New motivation		51	100% (14,32%*)
Total		**356**	**100%**

Table 4 Converting operations Note: * Related to all translations

The data of the chart show that the 50% of Slovak names are calques or transcriptions, this way they are in a close connection with the original Hungarian name material. The divergences (e.g. in numbers, or the Hungarian suffixes are replaced by prepositions in the Slovak version) appearing during the converting operations are caused by the differences in the two languages' typology and ways of appellation.

Conclusion

I do not consider the process of data collection finished by the act of writing my study. There are numerous opportunities offered to be done, e.g. the research of name alterations, which may answer many questions in connection with the etymology and physiology of names. I intend to do the examination of certain name types and discover specialities of their appellation. Not a little is interesting the research of geographical common nouns, whose examination may bring many interesting results, connected with words' geography. Lastly I would mention the names of intravillan names which were unjustly left out of the classification and are still to be done.

I made an effort to stay loyal with the rich traditions of onomastics, but I intended to provide some new information, which is closely connected to the facts of modern research in this discipline. I always followed the academic requirements, clarity and distinctness.

Researching place names is not only a task for philologists, but it also provides a great deal of valuable information for other disciplines (ethnography, archaeology, history of settlements). In many cases, the geographical names preserve thousand-year-old memories, and that is why their professional collection and minuting is necessary. This is especially true for Hungarian territories beyond the Hungarian border.

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On the Education for Librarians: a Few Conclusions of a Study

Géza Györe

1. Antecedents

In the last few years, several studies have been carried out on how teachers acquire knowledge (Pedagógusok 2002, Celler–Csík 2005), as well as on the situation and users of school libraries (Varga 2002). Having analysed the results, we may conclude that the pessimistic inferences of the relevant research derive from the scantly equipped resource centres and libraries, the flaws as well as the roughness of the applied educational methods and those related to how to use libraries. All this is well reflected in the study completed by Péter Fehér about *The effects of information and communication technologies on the internal world of schools* (Fehér 2004), highlighting that an adequate usage of these technologies in the process of education requires knowledge that can be obtained as long as one has a mastery of how to use libraries.

To the best of our knowledge, one cannot find studies focusing on the conditions of school librarians and librarian teachers, and on how they conceive of their profession. Research on school libraries usually inform us of the resources, the number of users and whether the status of school librarians and librarian teachers is provided and filled or not.

2. Our experiment

The study examined the qualification and professional preparedness of librarian teachers and those persons who work as school librarians as well as their views about their profession and the position they have in the society of teachers and librarians. For the experiment, a questionnaire was constructed. In this report, we are not going to detail the advantages and disadvantages of the applied method, which might be the focus of another analysis.

A professional operation of school libraries is a prerequisite for the adequate functioning of an institute of public education. Thus, we presupposed that in Hungary, a library can be found in each institute of public education and it is operated by someone. Due to this consideration, we disregarded the interrogation of the total multitude.

One can find data related to school libraries in the database of the Ministry of Education and Culture bearing the title *Statistical Data of Public Education 2006*[1], *Institutes possessing libraries related to types of institutes.* This provides relatively detailed data concerning libraries of different school types but one cannot find information about professionals working as librarians. The tabulated data clearly show that the number of the institutes operating libraries is 4275 altogether. 'The opening stock of library units' is 49.475.166 altogether[2].

Instead of a personal interrogation, we chose to forward the questionnaires by e-mail and have them filled this way. As a prerequisite for being included into the sample, each educational institute was supposed to have a public e-mail address. The level of maintenance of the e-mail address meant the following criterion to narrow the sample. For different reasons, we were unable to deliver the questionnaire to about 550 addresses. The number of the potential informants further decreased due to the circumstance that it was uncertain whether the leaders of the institute forwarded the delivered documents to the actual addressees, i.e. the librarian teachers and the school librarians or not.

The questionnaires were sent out at the beginning of the second semester of the 2006/2007 school year. Thus, it reflects a state preceding the dramatic wave of cutback[3]*, affecting public education and school libraries simultaneously.*

Among the returned questionnaires, we found 189 pieces suitable for processing. 1,5% of the informants work in a small village, 3% in a village, 3,2% in a big village, 48,5% in a small town, 29,7% in a big town and 14,1% (27 persons) work in the capital city.

3. The questionnaire

The sets of questions are the following:

I. Qualification data

1. The institute of higher education in which you prosecuted your studies
2. Which year did you finish your studies?
3. Which year did you finish your additional studies?
4. The highest qualification you have
5. In what form did you conduct your studies? *(obtaining the first degree)*
6. In what form did you conduct your studies? (*obtaining the second degree*)

1 http://db.okm.gov.hu/statisztika/ks06_fm/index.html) Last access: 11 December, 2008

2 An imposing number. However, we cannot find a statement about the extent to which it has become obsolete and how big that part of the stock is that fulfils the educational requirements in our days. An ordinary school library with 11.573 units seems to be compelling as well, however it is only a quantitative index, the qualitative factors of which should also be revealed.

3 Only one datum: In the year 2006/2007 the number of primary schools in Hungary was *3064*, however in the year 2007/2008 it was only *2520*. Source: *Statistical Yearbook of Education*. 2007/2008. Budapest, 2008. p. 15.

7. Did you attend a postgraduate course?
8. What kind of course was it? Where did you attend it? Which year did you finish it?

II. Personal data

1. Gender
2. Age
3. Permanent address
4. Occupation of your parents

III. Data applying to studies of computer engineer librarians

1. Why did you choose computer engineer librarian as your specialization?
2. Do you plan to conduct additional studies?

IV. Questions related to the librarian profession

1. In which fields of the profession are you interested the most?
2. What prospects do you think the librarian profession has?

V. Questions related to school library

1. Describe what you consider to be the function of a school library (media warehouse, resource centre) and what roles you attribute to it in the institute.
2. Do you think there is a difference between work in a public library and work in a school library?
3. Do you feel it necessary to change the developmental strategy of school libraries on an institutional level?

VI. Questions related to school librarians and librarian teachers

1. In your view, the school librarian is a person who
2. In your view, the librarian teacher is a person who
3. According to your experience, which are the most important personal traits that a librarian teacher must have to be able to prosecute his or her profession successfully?
4. According to your experience, which are the most important spheres of knowledge that a librarian teacher must possess by all means?
5. According to your experience, which definition describes the most accurately the concept of *library pedagogy*?
6. According to your experience what is the attitude
   a. of the agents of the librarian profession toward the work of librarian teachers like?
   b. of the society of teachers toward the work of librarian teachers like?

This presentation of the answers of the questionnaire is not intended to be exhaustive. We review only those results that we consider to be the most important.

3.1. Data applying to qualification

All of the interrogated participants had obtained at least one degree in an institute of higher education and they attended considerably different postgraduate courses. Only 12, 8 % of the subjects do not have a second degree.

Having examined the highest qualification, we found that 106 persons had graduated from a college, 80 persons had obtained a degree at a university, none of the participants has a PhD degree and 3 of them did not give an answer to the question.

The following question relates to postgraduate studies. 68, 8 % had attended a postgraduate course, 25 % had not attended any and 12 participants did not give an answer to the question. On the average, 2, 1 courses had been attended by those who indicated that they had been involved in one or more postgraduate courses.

3.2. Personal data

The following table shows the distribution of the informants according to gender and age:

Age	Male	Female	Total
26–29	0	29	29
30–49	2	107	109
50–60	3	40	43
Above 60	1	0	1
No data	0	7	7
Altogether	**6**	**183**	**189**

Table 1 Distribution of informants related to gender and age

3.3. Data related to the studies of the librarian

A majority of the participants (87 persons) marked *I was interested in this profession* answering to the question that applies to the reasons for choosing this specialization. 39 participants had been working as a librarian beforehand. We may suppose that in addition to their inclination, the need to preserve their job had also been a motivating force of their decision. 30 subjects did not give any answer. The reasons might be guessed at: a) they do not remember their motivation; b) they are reluctant to recall the circumstances of choosing this field etc. 8,9 % had decided to be a librarian due to a force to enrol for a second major. 3 participants had started their studies due to their parents' suggestion and none of the subjects indicated that their choice had been motivated by their friends' advice. 13 participants gave a textual answer.

About 34, 9 % of the informants would like to be involved in additional studies. As opposed to this, 41,2 % make it clear that they do not intend to enlarge their knowledge, 15, 9 % do not take a stand on the question and 8, 0 % do not deign to answer. If we reckon the latter among those who do not have the intention to pursue additional studies (this is like enough regarding that they evaded the answer), 49, 2 % of the sample immures themselves from the organized enlargement of their knowledge.

3.4. Questions related to the librarian profession

First, we aimed at identifying *those fields of the profession that count as the greatest interest* of the participants. We asked them to name and rank maximum three of these fields. We did not give the names of the fields previously so as to get an insight of the terminological preparedness of the informants.

Due to their high number, we classified the enumerated forms of activities into six groups that are shown in Table 2.

Form of the activity in the library	Position in rank order			
	1st place	2nd place	3rd place	Total
Guidance in the library	73	40	19	132
Activities connected to library pedagogy	32	54	23	110
Building stock	16	32	47	95
Generalities related to the activity pursued in the library	41	25	23	89
Virtual library services	13	11	31	55
No answer	7	16	21	44
Other activities not typically practised in the library	7	11	25	42
Altogether	**189**	**189**	**189**	**567**

Table 2 The rank order of the types of work in the library

The next question in the set related to the future of the librarian profession. A majority of the participants anticipate a significant transformation. It is interesting to observe that the answer saying the profession will not at all cease to exist but it may be transformed, occupies the second place in the order. These two possibilities constitute 78, 2 % of the answers. The high rate of them is reasonable since it reflects the radical alteration of the daily practise of the libraries, taking place under the very eyes of the participants. It is more difficult to explain why 15, 9 % of the informants take a stand that the profession is about to disappear simultaneously melting into the profession of computer engineering. We ordered this answer among the negative foresights of the librarians. It is the duty of the professionals to avoid the predominance of this view. 4, 8 % of the participants did not pay attention to this particular question. The greatest part of them had already reached the age of retirement. This also holds for that 1, 1 % that do not foresee any changes within the profession. Nobody marked the answer saying that '*The profession will live on without significant changes*.' The answers make it clear that the majority of the participants thoughtfully attend to the proceedings of the profession. They are open to the intense spread of the utensils of information technology.

3.5. Questions related to school libraries

We posed three combined questions altogether. The first of them served to find out the participants' views related to the differences between working in a public library and in a school library. 92 % of the informants gave a textual answer and the remaining 8% marked the answer *I do not know*. Altogether three participants cannot find any difference between the forms of work connected to the two types of libraries.

Here we quote only the sharpest reasoning: 'Whether or not the student and the adult come here to read and borrow books or to gain some information gladly always depends on the quality of the contact with the reader.' The cited informant conceptualized his point of view concentrating on one phase of the work of a librarian. Although, this momentum is undoubtedly the most obvious, this participant completely neglected a crucial part of the professional work practiced in public libraries, best described as the transmission of the local as well as the more widespread cultural values. At the same time, he identifies the work of a school librarian with the training of the users, in spite of the fact that – from a pedagogical point of view – significant differences exist between the two.

Reasoning of the yes answers clearly shows the basic differences as well as the overlaps between the practices of these two types of institutes. The views also draw our attention to the closed nature of them. For example, 'In the public libraries the needs of a wider range of people is to be satisfied. The primary aim of a school library is to help the work of teachers and students (teaching and learning) but my point of view is that they should be identical in many aspects, regarding that the tasks of a school library cannot be limited to the profession.'

In the next question, we asked participants to conceptualize what they consider to be *the functions of the school library and the role it has in the institute* where they work (Table 3). 15 persons (7, 9 %) did not give any answer to the question. Apart from this fact, we can read lots of detailed and exact definitions. For example, 'It is a resource centre the primary aim and role of which is to help the teaching and learning process in the institute, to satisfy the needs of teachers and students; to help development, to guide etc…' At the same time, we can also find examples of a much less precise description: 'It is used day by day'.

Striving to identify the participants of library interactions, we can set the categories shown in the table below:

Name of the category	Referred to in answers	%
Librarian	9	5,1
Librarian and users of the library are mentioned together	12	7,0
Teacher as a library user	15	8,6
Student as a library user	13	7,5
Teacher and student as library users are mentioned together	51	29,3
Maintainer	11	6,3
Outsider	6	3,4
No persons mentioned	57	32,8
Altogether	**174**	**100**

Table 3 Answers given to the questions connected to the functions of school library in a division related to groups of persons participating in library interactions

The number of those who take a stand without mentioning the subjects involved in library activities is high (57 persons). For example, 'Partly, it helps the teaching process and partly it is a form of entertainment. For the time being, it has a peripheral role at our place.' 29, 3 % of the informants gave an answer from the aspect of the users, treating their own – decisive – role superficially (21 persons mention the librarian). For example, 'Gaining information, broadening lesson material, spending free time, using the internet.'

Another aspect of our examination was to see whether the informants limit their answers to mere facts or they take a position freely as well. The types of the answers are listed in Table 4.

Type of the answer	Number of answers	%
Answer limited to mere facts	104	60,1
A point of view is included as well	36	20,7
Only a point of view is presented	28	16,0
The answer is not relevant	6	3,2
Altogether	**174**	**100**

Table 4 Answers given to the question applying to the function of school library related to the level of the reflection

A decisive majority of the participants (60, 1 %) belongs to the category of giving mere facts. Although, we cannot regard all of the answers to be exhaustive and exact definitions, they clearly show that participants are aware of the crucial functions of school libraries as well as their role within the internal world of schools. For example, 'A place for discussions, learning and teaching, resolving problems, an information centre, a storage of school documents necessary for school work. A site of orientation towards values and socialization that develops good taste as well as the ability for self-cultivation.' 36 participants add a personal point of view, which is usually based on work experience. For example, 'An intellectual base and information centre of education. However, in practice it is often assumed to be a store of books both in the minds of teachers (!) and students.' 16 % of the informants present only points of view that often contain critical statements related to the institute where the participants themselves work. For example, 'According to my own experience, it occupies the last place in the rank order. Its primary function is to cover the compulsory literature as well as the books needed for learning this or that. It is a place where you have the occasion to use the internet too.' We found the answers of six persons to be inadequate and unsuitable for evaluation, regarding that they did not relate to the posed question.

The third question of this set was the following: *Do you feel it necessary to change the developmental strategy of school libraries on an institutional level?* Table 5 summarizes the distribution of the given answers:

Answers	Number of answers	%
Yes, it is necessary to introduce modern technology.	130	69,1
Yes, uniting the stock and providing electronic documents should be emphasized.	42	22,1
The present strategies for library development are appropriate.	11	5,9
To handle this problem is not a duty of the librarian.	0	0
I do not know.	3	1,5
Textual answer.	3	1,4
Altogether	**189**	**100**

Table 5 Answers to the question Do you feel it necessary to change the developmental strategy of school libraries on an institutional level?

The answers prove that the participants are aware of how important it is to extend the use of modern technology in school libraries and this is why so many of them (130) marked the first answer. 42 of the informants find procuring electronic documents to be the most important factor. Only 11had the opinion that the current strategies for library development were satisfactory but nobody thought that handling the problem was not among the duties of a librarian. The number of the answers *I do not know* is very low.

3.6. Questions related to school librarians and librarian teachers

Two sentences were to be completed by the participants. The first one is *In your view, the school librarian is a person who* … Only four participants did not complete the sentence. Related to content, we grouped the answers into the following categories (Table 6).

Type of the answer related to content	Number of answers	%
A detailed, exhaustive definition	36	19,1
One or more tasks are in focus	70	36,6
Users are in focus	21	11,1
Individual answer	38	20,3
Answer is related to the librarian teacher as well	6	3,2
Inadequate answer	6	3,2
No answer	12	6,5
Altogether	**189**	**100**

Table 6 The groups of answers describing the school librarian

Only 19, 1 % of the participants gave a mature and thorough answer describing the tasks and duties of a school librarian. We had not expected definitions conceptualized on an academic level but we had hoped to meet with accurate descriptions highlighting the participants' and their librarian colleagues' duties. The small number of the exhaustive and accurate answers might be explained by the fact that during the daily work of librarians, only few occasions are given for an overall discussion of the duties. Their job description containing the scope of activities may concern the tasks of a school librarian only in a brief form. A good example for a detailed and exhaustive description: '[The school librarian is a person who] is well-qualified in his or her profession and has good communicative skills. His duty is to augment, process the stock that he or she gives free run of, to help teaching and learning, to share information.'

36,6 % of the informants focus on one or more activities, which is a majority of the answers. These provide lots of information related to school librarians and their tasks. Participants listed the activities that had quickly come to their minds. For example, '[The school librarian is a person who] is patient, open-minded, especially emphatic, well-informed in matters that are the interest of children too. He or she has an ability to motivate others, strives to direct children's attention to important values and provides them with positive models.'

20, 3 % gave individual answers. To this group we ordered those descriptions in which the informants define the school librarian by regarding themselves as models. The following answer is a typical example of a completely subjective approach: 'He or she keeps in touch with teachers and students caring about and fulfilling the wishes of both. He or she has different duties, such as laying in books, gaining them from other libraries, looking for information, collecting and editing material from the internet, copying and printing. He or she is *a trouble-shooter in any kind of tasks, expected to be a magician each year*: supposed to process thousands of books in a moment, to register and give them out to students free of charge.

They are qualified as librarians but not as teachers. 'This seems problematic because those participating in teacher training courses were supposed to learn pedagogy, history of education, didactics and psychology just like those majoring in teaching. I remember that we had to construct lesson plans as well.'

11, 1 % of the informants focus on users. Although, we found thought-provoking ideas, the participants seemed to view the problem from one aspect exclusively. For example, 'As exemplary adults, they turn to those who visit the library with a helpful and patient attitude. They try to shepherd the taste of children to the right path without aggression. In addition to giving them a hand, they help them acquire the techniques of accessing to knowledge by themselves.'

The answers of 3, 2 % of the participants are also related to librarian teachers. This is not a surprise, regarding that an exact separation of the two professions has not taken place yet. Many school librarians are not at all aware of the extra knowledge that a librarian teacher must have. For example, 'My point is that ideally these concepts cannot be separated, the librarian of the school is a librarian teacher as well uniting the two functions: Librarian and educator at the same time. 3,2 % did not complete the sentence in the expected form. For example, 'Ready to develop.'

As a first tryout, we attempted to classify the answers given as a completion to the open-ended question *The librarian teacher is a person who…* according to the types of answers applied in the case of school librarians. Our efforts were not crowned by success, regarding that they just refer back to the descriptions of school librarians or elsewhere the emphasis is put only on the pedagogical role of librarian teachers etc. Thus, we categorized the answers (Table 7) applying some new answer-types, keeping in mind that only those activities that are specifically related to librarian teachers are to be highlighted. If required, we adopted some categories from those listed above.

Type of the answer related to content	Number of answers	%
A detailed, exhaustive definition	46	23,7
Answer relates to the duties of library pedagogy	49	25,2
Answer relates to moral characteristics of a librarian teacher	20	10,8
Individual answer	9	4,8
Answer partly or completely relates to the school librarian	18	9,2
Answer refers back to the previous one	8	4,3
Answer is not adequate	14	7,5
No answer	25	14,5
Altogether	**189**	**100**

Table 7 Groups of answers describing the librarian teacher

A relatively high number of the informants (15 persons) did not answer this question. We may suppose that instead of refusing to answer, they did not possess the relevant information. In the previous answer they detailed all of their thoughts related to the librarian, thus they may have failed to define the concept of librarian teacher separately. Evidence for this is that eight answers refer back to the previous answer. For example, 'My previously presented thoughts cover this question too, I cannot make a difference in this respect.'

The answers of a great majority of the participants (49 persons altogether) included the activities of the librarian teacher from the point of view of library pedagogy. The ideas are interesting and accurately described. For example, 'The duty of whom is to apply the methods of library pedagogy so as to help students and the staff of the institute be ideal users of the library.' The number of those who gave a description that counts as complete is only a bit fewer. For example, 'Who provides an atmosphere and a professional support that makes education, the preparation for teaching and an access to knowledge possible by fulfilling his duties as a librarian. So as to develop the necessary competences of students (and colleagues), he or she teaches the readers how to gain the relevant information.' An important finding is that nearly half of the informants are aware what it means to be a librarian teacher and what library pedagogy consists of. The relevant duties connected to them also turned out to be well known.

20 persons gave answers applying to the moral characteristics of the librarian teacher. In spite of the fact that this is not a focal point of our experiment, these views have their own illuminating force. For example, 'Who has the personal traits (open, patient, polite, good communicative skills) that are the themselves the manifestations of the educational work and the librarian profession.' From

these answers the most important qualities that librarian teachers are expected to have can be collected. (For example, good communicative skills, openness, politeness, helpfulness, patience, etc.) The number of the answers related partly or completely to the school librarian is 18. To this category, we ordered answers that obviously treat a school librarian and a librarian teacher to be identical or that focus on the librarian only. For example, 'Who is in an everyday contact with colleagues and students, who can always be addressed on the corridor, who helps anyone find the necessary information, who strives to organize trainings for library usage on a regular basis, considering the needs of people.' Or 'Who has the personal traits of a school librarian and who takes the opportunity to practise his other profession as well. During this process a new kind of teacher-student relationship and a much more effective way of communicating with the colleagues can be realized.

We found 14 answers to be inappropriate. The most part of them might as well be acceptable if they were not some kinds of reflection related to other questions of the world of education. For example, 'Who has also been qualified as a teacher of other fields besides being a librarian utilizing his qualification in the lessons.'

Nine participants gave individual answers that are not free of irony and wit. For example, 'Who is hopefully not the person on duty to stand in for others, not a superfluously employed assistant, not the one who is incapable of teaching while making a *fairly* good school librarian.'

Eight of them referred back to the previous answer and they usually explained why they had done so. 'My previously presented thoughts cover this question too, I cannot make a difference in this respect. (Due to his educational background, a librarian teacher is more prepared to carry out the activities mentioned above.)'

Two highly effective descriptions are worth highlighting here. They are so brief and substantive that they might as well be the counter-examples of redundant reasoning as well as the explanations ignorant of the background knowledge of the readership. These are serious communicative mistakes spreading in the world of education too. (One can also perceive this within the librarian profession).

[The librarian teacher is a person who] '*can help the work going on in the school less spectacularly but the more effectively*.'

[The librarian teacher is a person who] '*is the real mediator between the educational and the library work process*.'

In the following question, we asked participants *to make a rank order of the most important personal traits of a librarian teacher*. In alphabetic order, we presented 12 characteristic features. The task of the informants was to rank them according to their significance in the practice of the profession.

The 12 personal traits we listed are the following:

- being painstaking;
- being emphatic;
- being able to react quickly;
- being prepared for flawless communication and having a tactful, tolerant communicative attitude;
- being initiative;
- being open to new phenomena: in science, in art, in literature etc.;
- having competences and being ready to share his opinion as well as to discuss and harmonize different views;
- being helpful;
- having widespread interest;
- being compliant;
- being inventive;
- being patient.

The answers of 12 informants were considered inadequate regarding that the rankings had not been completed according to our expectations. Some of the participants had rated the items on a scale ranging from 1 to 3, others had marked only the most important items with number 1 etc. Consequently, we included the data of only 177 persons.

Our major interest was to detect those personal traits the dominant presence of which had been considered to be the sources of successful conflict management and task solution. Compared with our expectations, we received much more diverse results. In spite of this fact, we can declare that most of the informants, 29, 4 % (57 persons) posited *helpfulness* to the first place which is in accordance with our expectations. The second quality at the first place of the rank order is *being prepared for flawless communication and having a tactful, tolerant communicative attitude* that was ranked this way by 26, 3 % of the informants (47 persons). To the third place *compliance* was ordered with 25,7 % (45 persons). *Patience* occupies the fourth place with 22, 4 % (41 persons).

Among the personal traits considered to be the least important we can find *having competences and being ready to share his opinion as well as to discuss and harmonize different views* that was posited to the last place by 15,7 % of the informants (28 persons). Somewhat fewer subjects, 13, 9 % (25 persons) had the opinion that *being emphatic* is the least important factor which was followed by *being initiative*. 21 (11, 9 %) informants regarded this personal trait as the most negligible.

The answers presented above are of major importance in the light of our research topic. What we can outline from them is an outdated picture of the librarian, which may be generated by our society as well as librarian training itself. We suppose that the underestimation of the importance of *having competences and being ready to share his opinion as well as to discuss and harmonize different views* also derives from the role the librarians have in the institutes of public education. Although no evidence is gained from relevant data, experience mirrors that existential considerations, including the motivation for keeping one's job are such dominant factors that librarian teachers restrain from taking the risks of getting into a conflict with the school leadership. However, viewing the problem from a professional aspect, we cannot realize how the experts of the profession – which is a major mediator of science and culture – can fulfil their duties (within the frame of public education) without being ready to share opinion.

Furthermore, the low representation of *being emphatic* endangers the social function of libraries, which is also important from the aspect of public education. It might be problematic for readers and users of the library to trust the librarian if they cannot turn to him or her. In giving a hand to children, adolescents and elderly people empathy is of especially great importance.

Being compliant and helpful and having the appropriate communicative preparedness are fundamental personal qualities to practise the profession successfully. Regarding that initiation is treated as a peripheral factor, it is questionable whether the professional pedagogical work teaching us how to be ideal readers and how to use books or the library itself can be realized. These requirements do not at all involve that the librarian forces users to act on his or her will. Instead, it is implied that librarians control *the training of the* users, utilizing all the methods of library pedagogy that can help resolve the given or emerging problems of searching for information.

Regarding the list we had constructed, the participants missed some further personal traits of the librarian: care and interest for the readers; cheerfulness, humour; fondness for children and work in the library; a special fondness for people in general; cooperativeness, readiness for conflict-management, fairness, having the attitudes of a manager, having the skills for evaluation, organizing things and handling problems.

A list of *the most significant elements of professional knowledge* had also been included into the questionnaire. Participants were supposed to make a rank order in this case as well. In alphabetic order, we had given 15 spheres of knowledge altogether connected to work in the library. The participants were asked to rank them taking into consideration how important these factors are from the aspect of the successful practice of the profession. The following fields of knowledge had been included in the list:

- knowledge for making bibliography,
- biblio-therapy,
- history of writing and communication,
- expertise in the questions of public life,
- thorough knowledge of the laws,
- knowledge of making catalogues,
- history of the book and the library,
- knowledge of library-building and library-furnishing,
- knowledge of processing work in the library,
- grammatical knowledge,
- online searching methods,
- computer-based word-processing,
- socio-psychological knowledge,
- knowledge of text-formulation,
- knowledge of science-taxonomy.

The answers of the 12 participants whom we referred to above proved to be inadequate for evaluation in this case as well. The way they made their rank order did not fulfil our expectations. Most of the informants, 37,7 % (68 persons) regard *the knowledge of processing work in the library* to be the most important. In the second place of the first level *knowledge of science-taxonomy* can be found (with the choice of 32 persons). *Socio-psychological knowledge* occupies the third place chosen by 22 persons (13,1 %).

The fields of knowledge in the first place of the rank order are the three highlighted spheres of librarian praxis. A library cannot exist without the knowledge and application of processing work. In this case, we would not be able to make head or tail of the library, we would face only a mass of books. The processing work of the librarian has its operational factors and strict rules, by the consistent observation of which the appropriately structured collection is developed. The claim for this is absolutely rightful in case of all practising librarians. Therefore, the extremely high rate of marking this field is not an accident. The *knowledge of science-taxonomy* standing in the second place of the order was chosen by half of the participants marking the previous category (17, 3 %). The relatively high presence of this field may bear optimism. An explanation of the high rate may be that the stock of school libraries is also categorized by the UDC system worked out to enable people to systematize the whole of science. Although it has 'gone through' several modifications, it still has a prominent place among the taxonomies of science after more than a hundred years following its occurrence. An overriding importance is attributed to this system both in the daily work of school libraries and in teaching library-usage. The high rate of the choices for socio-psychological knowledge contradicts the low rate of the choices for the emphatic attitude occurring in the previous set of questions. It is difficult to decide whether this is a consequence of a conceptual confusion and the fact that the usage of the psychological term *empathy* has been more popular among the participants. It has become obvious by the ranking discussed above that socio-psychological knowledge is regarded to be important by school librarians and librarian teachers even if making library usage easy and a fast information-transmission are not strictly dependent on this particular field of knowledge. Creating an adequate contact with teachers and students of the school is crucial for them.

In the last place, which is most negligible, *history of writing and communication* (13 persons), *history of the book and the library* (13 persons) and *biblio-therapy* (12 persons) can be found. The rate of each of them is under 10 %, which indicates the diverse nature of the ranking. We may suppose that practising school librarians and librarian teachers do not recognize that for their everyday activities a great deal of useful knowledge might be derived from the historical disciplines of library science. The lack of this recognition is a consequence of the shortcomings of the training, including the deficiencies of postgraduate courses. In case of these fields, ability development as well as a due absorption seem to be neglected. Instead of an inclusion of these factors, teachers of the courses impart their knowledge falling back on mere data and facts. However, biblio-therapy counts as a new discipline and the first postgraduate courses for librarians were launched a little time ago. Therefore, the lack of relevant knowledge might be the reason for the fact that it was placed at the end of the rank order.

The informants missed the following fields from the constructed list: foreign language knowledge; knowledge of techniques for information searching; knowledge of how to inform users; methodological knowledge of library pedagogy; knowledge of making tenders; financial and economic knowledge; psychological knowledge.

The next question is targeted on the *definition of library pedagogy*. The participants were asked to choose among some pre-constructed definitions[4] and they were allowed to give their own descriptions too. The answers gained are the following:

- A scope of practical pedagogical activities that a librarian teacher is supposed to pursue.
- A field of science focusing on the bases and ways of educational effects of the library.
- An applied science focusing on specific (educational) questions of individual development emerging during the activities that are pursued in the library.
- The preparation of teachers and librarians for using the library and for teaching the skills necessary for library usage both from a professional and a methodological aspect.
- I do not know what library pedagogy means.

The definitions approach library pedagogy from different aspects. The first interpretation is a narrow, descriptive explanation of the concept concentrating only on the librarian teacher, thereby connecting the pedagogical work to one particular librarian profession. The next approach views librarian activity in a broad sense and can be accepted generally. It is, however, a deficiency of it that it focuses only on educational effects not on pedagogy as a whole. Another flaw of this view is that it does not contain any statement referring to the theoretical questions of library pedagogy. The third position treats library pedagogy as an applied science connecting it to the problem of individual development and its pedagogical projection. The following view discusses the problem from the aspect of the preparation of librarians. Teaching how to use the library occurs here as well but it contains no reference to the applied nature of the science. Furthermore, the place of the users themselves is uncertain. None of the definitions can be regarded to be complete. It is no accident. Our aim was to make the participants realize this incompleteness. As a result, we expected them to compose their own answers based on their own lines of thinking related to the meaning of the term. Only a few answers met our expectations.

4 The offered answers were constructed on the basis of the definitional attempts provided by the literature of Hungarian library pedagogy. We developed them by notably considering the descriptions given in the following works: Zsolnai, József: *A könyvtárpedagógia körvonalai* and Dömsödy, Andrea*: Könyvtárpedagógia*. [Zsolnai, József: *The outlines of library pedagogy* and Dömsödy, Andrea: *Library pedagogy.*]

The 3rd definition was marked by the majority of the participants, 73 persons (38,6 %). The least of them, 19 persons (10%) chose the second answer. The option 'I do not know' was marked by none of the informants.

21 persons (11 , 4 %) gave their own definitions that can be categorized into two groups:

(1) Answers, in which participants refer back to some of the previously listed options completing them with their own definitions. Regarding the total number of the participants, this includes 7, 6 % of the answers.

a. 'A pedagogical activity using the materials of the library so the first two descriptions together.'

b. 'The 1st and 3rd options together, i. e. a (mostly pedagogical) activity pursued in the library, by which students are trained to be active and conscious users of the library. In addition, their personality is developed (by all this as well as by our daily work.)'

(2) Answers of participants who attempted to give partly or completely self-contained descriptions. Definitions of this type were provided by 3, 8 % of the participants, i. e. seven persons, which is a very low number. From this result, we might draw the conclusion that participants are inclined to select from pre-given options those that they like the most instead of summarizing their own thoughts related to the questions. This assumption of us is rather thought provoking, mainly if we focus on a precise definition of a concept that fundamentally defines the working methods of the profession in question. The following example falsifies the fact that school librarians and librarian teachers lack the strive to conceptualize their opinion and the relevant knowledge or experience:

a. 'Library pedagogy: pedagogy, psychology, sociology of the youth, bibliotherapy + supporting education based on the internet and more than one book…?

Library pedagogy or pedagogy of computer engineering or pedagogy of information-transmission?

In my view its aim and content is going through a steady change (or modification) due to the spreading of more and more modern data carriers. (We often has to learn things from students so as to be able to keep up with the development and impart our knowledge to students (and colleagues) who are in need.

The purpose of library pedagogy: to help students acquire the critical and self-supporting modes of acquiring knowledge falling back on more than one resource.

To find and apply those means and methods that urge students to read, research and work in a team (by „brainstorming”).”

b. Another definition conceptualized by an adequate briefness: ‘Training for library usage: cultivation of the self based on library, making people acquire techniques for obtaining information. Imparting practical and theoretical knowledge about books.’

The last pair of questions was the following: *According to your experience*

a. what is the attitude of the agents of librarian profession toward the work of librarian teachers like?

b. what is the attitude of the society of teachers toward the work of librarian teachers like?

We intended to gain information about the participants' judgements of those two professions, on the borderline of which librarian teachers are poising. Their views and experience constituted our major interest. We are planning to extend our experiments in the near future including the two other significant groups, the society of librarians and educators. We obtained the following results related to the attitude of librarians (Table 8):

Type of the answer according to content	Number of answers	%
Obviously positive attitude	56	29,7
Partially positive attitude	9	4,6
Obviously negative attitude	35	18,8
Partially negative attitude	39	20,4
Indifferent attitude	9	4,6
Inadequate answer	29	15,7
No answer	12	6,2
Altogether	**189**	**100**

Table 8 The attitude of librarians toward librarian teachers in the opinion of school librarians and librarian teachers

The distribution of the answers is the following: 34, 3 % refer to some kind of positive attitude, the statements of 39, 2 % have a negative implication. The percentage of indifferent and inadequate answers is rather high (26, 5 %). The largest part of the answers is based on personal experience and the statements are not at all free of emotions. It pretty well mirrors the limits into which school librarians and librarian teachers have got. Lacking any definitive, implementable guidelines, everybody is forced to organize his work and experience things according to his own knowledge, relation-system and temperament. Reading the answers, the precipitation of all this can be felt.

A continued analysis of the answers made it clear that in case of answers reflecting positive attitude, the entirely accepting approach proves to have a much higher rate (29, 7 %). We can read answers like 'The librarian profession is aware of the importance of librarian teachers going to any length to have their key role acknowledged in training people to be able to reason, to cultivate the self, to develop personality.' Another example: 'It acknowledges them and regards them to be important because it is our duty to train children to be the users of the library, who go to there gladly after they have grown up.' (4, 6 %). Their arguments are usually composed conditionally i. e. they consider the acceptance to be tied to certain conditions. For example, 'If he does well, keeps in touch and cooperates with colleagues working in other libraries, he becomes acknowledged.'

Answers demonstrating negative attitude outline a different picture: The number of those who have experienced a flat refusal is approximately the same as the number of those who recall a partial rejection (18, 8 and 20, 4 %). The fundamental reasons for the high contrasts might be detectable through some deep interviews focusing on this problem exclusively.

The examples telling about an entirely negative attitude perfectly mirror the views of those who perceive the rejection: 'Librarians regard him to be a teacher, teachers treat him as a librarian so he belongs to nowhere. And they are right, actually.'

The second example highlights another problem: how school librarians and librarian teachers are related to each other, how they judge the work of each other, what they consider to be the role of the other in the world of public education etc.: 'They think of us as a separate group. I live it through exactly because I also worked as a school librarian and now I am *only* a librarian teacher in the same institute.' [italics by the author].

In the examples, reporting a partially negative attitude a protective approach together with a high esteem of the informants toward their profession stand out: 'In my view, the work of a librarian teacher is more interesting and more manifold. In spite of this fact, the profession regards it to be peripheral.'

The inappropriate answers were rather incomplete or the informants confessed that they cannot reflect on the problem. For example, 'There is still a lot that needs recovering!'

In the other set of questions we aimed at detecting the views the society of educators have about the work of school librarians and librarian teachers focusing on the opinion of the latter groups. The distribution of the answers is shown in Table 9.

Type of the answer according to content	Number of answers	%
Entirely positive attitude	40	21,4
Partially positive attitude	46	24,4
Entirely negative attitude	50	26,3
Partially negative attitude	34	18,1
Indifferent attitude	13	6,6
Inadequate answer	6	3,2
No answer	0	0
Altogether	**189**	**100**

Table 9 The attitude of educators toward librarian teachers in the opinion of school librarians and librarian teachers

Analysing the data, the first thing to catch the eye is the low number of the inadequate answers (3, 2 %). In addition, all of the participants answered the question. Since the place for work in case of school librarians is an institute for public education, we can find teachers among the potential users. Consequently, the two groups contact on a regular basis. As opposed to this, the contact with librarians working in other libraries is only accidental. Although, belonging to the same institute has both its advantages and disadvantages, it has proved to be the other reason for a more thorough and detailed conceptualization of the views.

The number of the answers telling about positive attitude was nearly equal to the answers telling about the opposite. (45, 8 % gave a positive, 44, 4 % gave a negative answer). The remaining 9, 8 % refer to an indifferent stance and contains answers found to be inadequate. A continued analysis of the data made it clear that the distribution of the positive answers in case of a partially and entirely negative attitude demonstrates a low difference. (It is 3 % for the partially positive attitude). This rate turns round in the case of negative attitude where it is higher as well (8, 2 % for the totally negative attitude).

Answers referring to the entirely positive attitude are more thorough and detailed compared with the previous question. For example, 'Educators respect the work of librarian teachers on condition that they are adequately trained, qualified both as teachers and librarians, speak different languages and can considered to be an equal partner of the colleagues. They also have to be well-informed helping the pedagogical work of teachers and taking part in the activities of the faculty. They are supposed to be open-minded and cooperative, expected to create a unified and valuable collection, help teachers fulfil their needs for literature and information.'

Most of the answers ordered to the category of the partially positive attitude list the conditions of acceptance: 'If he or she takes part in the activities of the school organically and works appropriately in the meantime, he becomes respected, others build on his work and cooperate with him or her.'

Those participants whose answers reflect an entirely negative attitude compose their views plain-spoken in several cases: 'Unfortunately! – as this is the case in some other fields – a system of hierarchy can be perceived here too. The place of the librarian teacher is at the bottom of the pyramid → the step-brother.' Or: 'They are looked down on, considered to be bad but needed'. Or: 'They do not at all regard the work of a librarian teacher to be important due to the fact that they do not use the library, thus the facilities provided by the library or the librarian are unknown to them.'

Answers in the category of partially negative attitude also contain illuminating descriptions: 'He is an odd bird too: from the point of view of teachers he is rather a librarian than a teacher. To some extent, we are outsiders everywhere. Being a school librarian means [belonging to] your own caste.'

Indifferent answer: 'Those who have some experimental knowledge of the work of a librarian teacher evaluate it positively and the opinion of those who are not interested in it is not at all significant.'

Inadequate answers that are incomplete or meaningless. For example, 'They cannot see into it.'

A longer answer is also worth quoting in full. Although its content seems to reveal more than the estimation of the work of librarian teachers, it illuminates the roots of the hostile relationship between teachers and librarians: 'Regarding that teachers are supposed to have the same teaching material acquired in the frame of a declining number of lessons, teaching based on more than one book becomes a difficult question. And what they think of students' fondness for computers is that it helps them learn how to gain information (in reality it is only a game for a decisive majority!). So it may occur that a colleague cannot orientate himself in books and libraries successfully. In addition, he or she might just be learning how to do it on computer. Although some kind of methodological reform can be observed, books are only used as a tool in the classroom, lessons are not held in the library. Therefore, they view the librarian as a local representative of public library service. *It is not the judgement of colleagues that is offending but the indifferent attitude public education demonstrates toward school libraries.* What it sets as a target is always fulfilled, *what it makes float as cross-curricular is lost* (training in the forests, training for a healthy way of life, knowledge of the homeland).' [italics by the author]

Almost all of the problems within public education appear in this short line of thinking.

4. Summary

Summarizing our results, we can make the following observations: (1) School librarians as well as librarian teachers decide to specialize in library because they are interested in the profession. (2) Among the practical tasks in the library, guidance is considered to be the most important. (3) Librarians working at school also perceive the whole range of problems related to the librarian profession. They anticipate that it will not cease to exist, however it will go through significant changes. (4) They regard *helpfulness* as *the most important personal trait* to pursue their work successfully. This is followed by *being prepared for flawless communication and having a tactful, tolerant communicative attitude*. The next element of the rank order is *compliance* and the *least important* attributes are *having competences and being ready to share his opinion as well as to discuss and harmonize different views, being emphatic* and *being initiative*. (5) In their opinion, the most important fields of knowledge needed for a librarian to work successfully are the *knowledge of processing work in the library* and *knowledge of science taxonomy* directly following the former in the rank order, in which we can find *socio-psychological knowledge* in the third place. *History of writing and communication*, *history of the book and the library* as well as *bibliotherapy* are regarded to be the least significant.

Continuing our research and based on its results the professional protocol of librarian teachers and school librarians have to be worked out as a prior step by which the independent existence of the profession itself might be promoted. A thorough elaboration followed by application can make it possible to protect the profession from the danger of losing the majority of its specialities in the crowd of the different computer engineering professions.

We plan to process the following topics in the near future: (1) Making a survey focusing on the views of those teachers who work in the field of higher education involved in training librarians. It is expected to reveal how the participants feel about the librarian profession and library pedagogy. (2) Revealing how the leadership and the maintainer of the institute are related to school librarians and librarian teachers and vice versa; (3) Surveying the level of scientific, specialized literary knowledge school librarians and librarian teachers have.

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Notes

Short definitions of key concepts of the paper:

- *computer engineer librarian:* a person who has been involved in this specialization in Hungary and obtained his or her librarian qualification at an institute of higher education.
- *librarian teacher*: a person working in the field of public education qualified as a pedagogue (school teacher, teacher of handicapped children, teacher of primary or secondary education etc.) and as a librarian at least at the secondary level (currently the higher level qualification is more widespread). His or her prior duty is to hold lessons in the library and to train users.
- *library pedagogy*: all the methods and procedures applied in interactions going on in the library.
- *reader*: a user of the library in the broadest sense of the word.
- *school librarian:* a person who works at an institute of public education, qualified only as a librarian. His or her duties are to catalogue, to procure, to manage borrowings, to inform, to train people for being readers. In many of the school libraries, it is the librarian teacher, who is responsible for these activities.
- *user*: an expression used as a synonym for *reader.*
- *visitor*: a potential reader arriving at the school library (as an attendant without a definite purpose).

A Comparative Study of Mental Health Indicators of Officer and Teacher Members of the Hungarian Customs and Finance Guard

Péter Hidvégi / Katalin Barabás / Csaba Csíkos

1. Introduction

The European Network for Workplace Health Promotion (ENWHP 1997) has formulated a definition for workplace health promotion in the following way: 'Workplace health promotion is the combined efforts of employers, employees and the society to improve the health and well-being of people at work. This can be achieved through a combination of three tool systems: improving the work organization, assuring and promoting active participation of the employees, and encouraging personal competence.

Workplace health promotion involves

- a national program to be accomplished,
- employers with appropriate information and motivation,
- cooperative employees, who recognize their own needs.' (ENWHP 1997)

In order to establish an appropriate health promoting program, we have to know the health state of the employees, and only on the basis of the risk factors can we create an effective intervention.

Working environment is the most dangerous human environment; its damaging risk is 1-3 times higher, compared to other environments. The risk factors include psychic and social factors.

An intensively studied form of the negative correlation between job and health status is the diseases caused by job stress. There are several models analyzing the effect of job stress on the health status. One of these models is Karasek's (1979) Demand-Control-Support Model. This model hypothesizes that the greatest job stress occurs to workers facing high psychological workload demands/ pressures combined with low control or decision latitude in meeting those demands (Karasek 1979). Another important model is Siegrist's Effort-Reward-Imbalance Model, which states that if the proportion of effort and reward at work is not appropriate, it leads to stress, and may subsequently damage health (Siegrist 1996).

There are several studies supporting that high job stress is a major risk factor for physical and mental diseases. Several studies confirm that job stress is related to cardiovascular diseases (Belkic, Landsbergis, Schnall, Baker 2004; Kristensen 1996, Landsbergis, Schnall, Belkic, Baker, Scwartz, Pickering 2001; Schnall, Belkic, Landsbergis, Baker 2000; Schnall, Landsbergis, Baker 1994; Theorell, Karasek 1996; Kopp, Skrabski, Szántó, Siegrist in press) and the deterioration of mental health (Norbeck 1985; Browner 1987; Boyle, Grap, Younger, Thorrnby 1991; Tsutsumi, Kawakami 2004; Salavecz, Neculai, Jakab 2006).

The workplace and all scopes of work have their own stressors. Characterizing and knowing the stressful factors in the complex network of human relations in the workplace is essential for the given organization, as it makes the prevention or the appropriate treatment of the almost inevitable stressors possible. Job stress unfavorably influences the health of the employees. 50-80% of psychosomatic diseases are caused by stress (Dollar, Winefield 1996; Jamal, Badawi 1995; Jette, Theorell, De Faire, Ahlbom, Hallqvist 2005). In addition, job stress leads to organizational problems, the employees become dissatisfied with their workplace, burn out, high absence rate, and low organizational commitment occur, and the workers' performance deteriorates (Jamal 1984; Jamal 1985; Jamal, Baba 1997; Jamal, Badawi1993; Westman, Eden 1996).

Job is an important factor in life, as it influences the existence beyond work. Thus, it is important to create the conditions of appropriate, harmonic, and effective working, meeting the interest and the aim of the organization. Work contentment is important for the organization for several reasons. One of the reasons is of moral nature. Most people spend a major part of their lives at work, and therefore, it is the moral responsibility of the companies to create circumstances in which it is worth working. The other reason is the company's own interest. Contented workers can bring reputation to the company, thus increasing the possibility of obtaining and keeping well-qualified employees. In addition, work dissatisfaction increases the number of absent and resigning employees, and the frequency of conflicts (Gyökér 2001).

A group of theories about work contentment focuses on individual needs, values, previous work experience, and expectations in defining work contentment. Another group of theories, Herzberg's two-factor theory (Perczel 1992) and Warr's vitamin model (Landy 1985) differentiates between the characteristics of work on the basis of their effect on work contentment. Hackman's and Oldham's model concentrate on working conditions determining motivated working. The model differentiates critical psychological states that have crucial role in the motivation and contentment of the individual. The three psychological states are experienced meaningfulness of the work, experienced responsibility, and knowledge of the actual results of the work activities. The deeper a person empathizes with these psychological states, the greater the satisfaction is with a well performed job, and the more motivated the employee is to work (Schleicher 1992).

Motivation and satisfaction theories tie together in Maslow's and Herzberg's models, the subsequent behaviorist approaches emphasize external factors in the development of motivation and satisfaction. These external factors can be confirmation and punishment. McClelland's theory of needs, which was introduced in the 1960's, is one of the earliest works in the field of work motivation and individual differences. McClelland did not build his motivation theory around the inheritable but the learnt needs, which are different in various societies or in various phases of social development (McClelland 1985). Herzberg's two-factor theory differentiates between the characteristics of work: satisfaction arises from intrinsic (motivating) factors, such as responsibility, promotion, possibility to develop, recognition, the content and the significance of the task (Herzberg 1971, Herzberg, Mausner, Snyderman 2005). The extrinsic (hygienic) factors, which have no direct connection with the work, are: company policies and administration, supervisory practices, working conditions, personal relationship with the leader, the coworkers and the employees, status, job security, salary, and rewarding system (Herzberg 1971; Herzberg, Mausner, Snyderman 2005; Tietjen, Myers 1998). According to Herzberg, dissatisfaction results from the absence of these factors.

The employee's health largely depends on motivation. Work motivation means the emergence of reasons that urge to perform value-creating, productive work. General motivating factors of work motivation are, for example, the interest of the community, material dimensions, moral factors, needs of supporting the family, and individual ambitions. Englander, Harsányi and Kovács (1975) – following Maslow's theory – describe the forms of motivation in the following way:

- Salary, financial needs;
- Employment, feeling of security;
- Belonging to a work collective;
- Acknowledgement (need for appreciation);
- Emergence (need for developing abilities and talent (Englander, Harsányi, Kovács 1975).

Studies of work motivation performed in the last 30 years have resulted in significant progress (Latham, Pinder 2005). Lifelong work motivation studies have been performed by Kanfer and Ackerman (Kanfer, Ackerman 2004).

It has been revealed that contentment can be influenced positively or negatively by the workplace climate. Campbell et al. have identified four dimensions that seemed to be common to studies of organizational climate:

- Individual autonomy: the individual's opportunity to take responsibility, to be independent, and to be initiative;
- Degree of structure of scope of work: the degree to which objectives and methods for job are established and communicated by the individual to the supervisor;
- Reward orientation: how the organization rewards the efforts and high performance of employees;
- Consideration, warmth and support: support and motivation by supervisors (Cambell, Dunette, Lawler, Weick 1970).

The organizational climate is believed to exert influence on performance and job satisfaction. High commitment is equal to staying in the organization, which is favorable for the organizations. Organizational socialization and acquiring special abilities are long procedures, thus keeping the employees already fitted in and experienced is always cheaper and more effective, than training new members. Organizational commitment can be described by the acceptance and the internalization of values of work, as well as by the psychological mechanisms of identification with these values. Active participation in the organization and good performance are the most important indicators of commitment (O'Reilly, Chatman 1986).

Several studies provide evidence that salary predicts the commitment and the intention to leave. (Buchko, Weinzimmer, & Sergeyev 1997; Lum, Kervin, Clark, Reid, & Sirola, 1998) It seems that the carrier opportunities are able to predict the organizational commitment (Wallace, 1995); and it refers to the stimulating atmosphere to identify with work (Barling, Wade, & Fullagar, 1990; DeCotiis, & Summers, 1987). Some previously mentioned studies have found positive correlation between special circumstances and the contentment, but the relation with the commitment is usually stronger.

The present study focuses on different health indicators of the officer and the teacher members of the Hungarian Customs and Finance Guard (HCFG). The main aim of the study is to analyze different health indicators of members of a law enforcement institution, and to reveal differences between non-teaching officer members and teacher members.

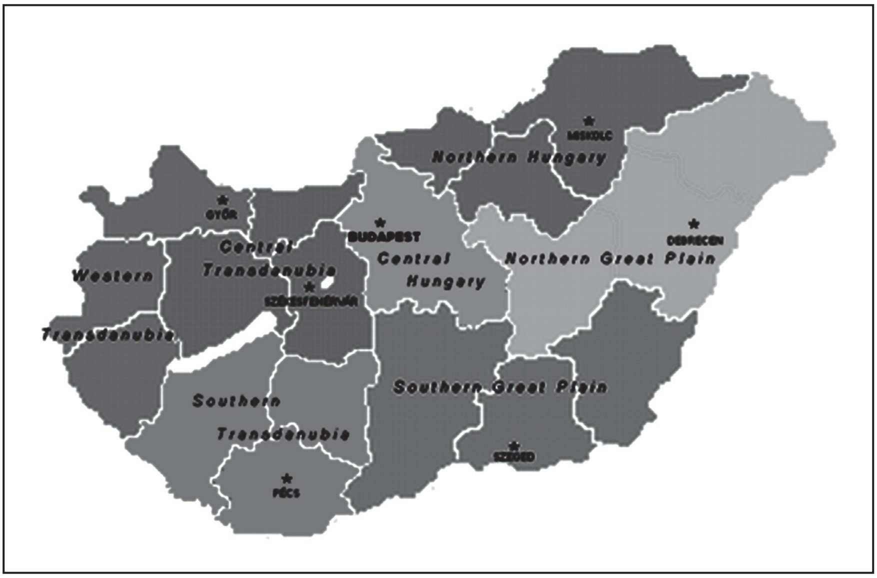
2. Methods

2.1. Sample

The sample consisted of 715 employees of law enforcement authorities. The sample was composed of two parts: 112 teachers (90% of them were officers as well, and 10% of them were civil servants) of law enforcement vocational secondary schools, and 603 non-teaching officers of the Hungarian Customs and Finance Guard (HCFG).

There are six law enforcement vocational secondary schools in Hungary, and five of them volunteered to participate. Teachers of this type of vocational secondary schools are educators having a university master's degree, whereas (as mentioned above) most of them are officers as well, having the same promotion and order of ranking system as their non-teaching colleagues.

Non-teaching officers belonged to different organizations of HCFG. 537 officers (89%) belonged to one of the five regional mid-level organizations (see Appendix 2 for the location of the regions), the other 66 officers belonged to either the Directorate General of HCFG (central headquarters) or other mid-level institutions.



Regions of Hungary[1]

1 http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/List_of_regions_of_Hungary

There were 448 male and 267 female participants. The proportion of teachers and non-teachers were similar in both groups ($\chi^2 = 1.54$, $p = 0.24$).

The questionnaires were posted to the participants, and the return rate was rather high. From the distributed 900 questionnaires, 763 questionnaires were sent back, but only 715 could be evaluated.

2.2. Tests

In this study, a paper-and-pencil questionnaire was used. The questionnaire consisted of six parts, and contained 99 items altogether (for sample items see Appendix).

(1) Demographical and background data (10 items for office members and 9 items for teachers)

(2) Stress (23 items)
The questions referred to being pressed for time, interruptions, responsibilities, overtimes, disturbing factors during work, and to the increasing requirements, expectations, and personal characteristics in work situations. There were questions about the appreciation for work, the possibility for promotion, the existence of a secure workplace, and the unfavorable changes that may occur in the workplace.

(3) Motivation (6 items)
There were questions about the process of work, as well as about the feedback from the leaders.

(4) Workplace climate (9 items)
Questions concerned the given organization, the relationship with the supervisors, and the availability of information.

(5) Workplace contentment (8 items)
There were questions about how contented the worker is with his/her job, and with his/her salary.

(6) Organizational commitment and carrier opportunities (10 items)
The questions referred to work commitment and carrier opportunities at work.

Demographical and background data referred to the subjects' gender, study qualifications, marital status, workplace assignment (leader or subordinate), and the length of employment at HCFG. For officers, an additional question concerning their place of occupation was asked, whereas teachers were asked about the number of lessons they held a week.

As for measuring stress Siegrist's (1996) - see also Tsutsumi and Kawakami, 2004 - effort-reward imbalance questionnaire was administered.

Variables (3) to (6) were measured by 33 items altogether, published by Roe, Zinovieva, Dienes and Ten Horn (2000). In their study, this measurement tool enabled cross-country comparisons among three European countries, namely, The Netherlands, Hungary and Bulgaria.

2.3. Study questions and hypotheses

The main hypotheses of this study were the following:

(1) The paper-and-pencil questionnaire administered to non-teaching officers of HCFG and to teachers of law enforcement vocational secondary schools proves to be a reliable measurement tool.

(2) There are significant differences between the two groups with respect to all measured subscales.

Further hypotheses concerned the connections between demographical data and the subscales of the questionnaire.

3. Results

First, we present the results of the reliability analysis, followed by the descriptive statistics of the four main subscales having summative score. We tested the hypotheses, and finally correlational and other multivariate methods were used to reveal the internal structure of the questionnaire.

3.1. Reliability

Reliability measures were performed in case of four parts of the questionnaire. Table 1 contains the Cronbach's alpha coefficients of the two subsamples. The reliability of demographical data cannot be measured *per definitionem*, and there were both open-ended and closed questions in case of the workplace commitment subscale, therefore Cronbach's reliability coefficient could not be used.

	Non-teaching officers	Teachers
Siegrist's questionnaire (23 items)	0.87	0.85
Motivation (6 items)	0.76	0.80
Workplace climate (9 items)	0.72	0.78
Organizational commitment and carrier opportunities (10 items)	0.65	0.81

Table 1 Cronbach's alpha reliability coefficients of the four subscales in the two groups

The reliability coefficients proved to be appropriate for further use in case of the summative scores of these four subscales. Compared to reliability coefficients yielded from previous studies, the current alpha coefficients could be considered to be on a similar level and being similarly appropriate.

3.2. Descriptive statistics

Descriptive statistics of the four main subscales are summarized in Table 2.

	Non-teaching officers	Teachers
Siegrist's questionnaire (possible range: from 23 to 111)	43.58 (12.34)	38.02 (10.65)
Motivation (possible range: from 6 to 30)	16.16 (3.44)	17.45 (3.53)
Workplace climate (possible range: from 9 to 36)	23.37 (3.70)	24.70 (3.76)
Organizational commitment and carrier opportunities (possible range: from 10 to 50)	29.84 (5.00)	33.03 (5.94)

Table 2 Mean values and standard deviations (in parentheses) of the four main subscale scores

3.3. Comparisons

We found significant differences between non-teacher and teacher samples in case of all four main subscales. On Siegrist's effort-reward imbalance questionnaire ($F\ (1, 713) = 19.98$, $p < 0.001$, $\eta^2 = 0.03$) non-teaching officers' stress level was significantly higher. On the motivation subscale, the mean values of the teachers were significantly higher ($F\ (1, 713) = 13.00$, $p < 0.001$, $\eta^2 = 0.02$). The least (but still significant) difference between the two groups occurred on the workplace climate subtest ($F\ (1, 713) = 12.06$, $p = 0.001$, $\eta^2 = 0.02$). Teachers judged their organizational commitment and carrier opportunities to be significantly higher ($F\ (1, 173) = 36.05$, $\eta^2 = 0.05$).

As for the fifth part of the questionnaire (workplace contentment), the total score was not computed, but item-level comparisons were performed. All eight items of this section showed significant differences between the two subsamples with η^2 values ranging from 0.01 to 0.06.

Comparisons can also be performed on the basis of sex differences. No significant differences were found in case of the four main subscales with $F(1, 713)$ values ranging from 0.05 to 2.81.

A third way of comparison analysis can be performed using regional differences. On Siegrist's effort-reward imbalance questionnaire ($F(4, 536) = 3.54$, $p = .007$, $\eta^2 = 0.03$), there were regional differences in the participants' stress level, although Tukey post-hoc analysis did not show any significant pair-wise comparisons. On the motivation subscale, no significant differences were found among the regions. However, there were substantial differences regarding the workplace climate ($F(4, 536) = 5.53$, $p < .001$, $\eta^2 = 0.04$). Tukey's post-hoc analysis showed two homogeneous subsets that enables for geographical interpretations. The workplace climate was worse in two regions: Southern Great Plain and Northern Great Plain. The workplace climate was significantly better in the Southern Transdanubia region. No significant differences were found among regions in case of organizational commitment and carrier opportunities subscale ($F (4, 536) = 8.40$, $p < 0.001$, $\eta^2 = 0.06$). Tukey's analysis revealed two homogeneous subsets. The mean values were significantly decreased in three regions: Western and Southern Transdanubia, and Central Hungary, and the mean value was significantly higher in the Northern Great Plain region.

3.4. Correlational analyses

(1) *Workplace contentment and stress.* Previous research has revealed strong negative correlations regarding workplace contentment. In the current study, the fifth part of the questionnaire contained explicit questions concerning contentment. These items were correlated with Siegrist's stress score. All correlation coefficients were significant in both groups reproducing Roe et al.'s (2000) findings.

(2) *Ranking order and workplace commitment*. Spearman-correlations between ranks and scores of the sixth part of the questionnaire showed non-significant correlation (Spearman's rho = -0.08, $p > 0.05$) in the non-teaching subsample, and the correlation was significant (Spearman's rho = -0.20, $p = 0.03$) among teachers. These results are contrary to previous expectations.

(3) *Workplace climate and workplace commitment*. Strong significant correlations were found in both subsamples. However, negative correlations between commitment and the judged competitiveness of salary (as part of the workplace climate subscale) are contrary to previous expectations. Nevertheless, Pearson's r was -0.138 in the non-teaching group and -0.378 in the teachers' group, the difference proved to be significant with $Z^* = 2.49$.

(4) *Promotion opportunities and motivation*. There were significant correlations between the scores of the third subscale and between two questions concerning promotion from the sixth part of the questionnaire, ranging from 0.28 to 0.51.

3.5. Regression-analysis

In order to identify the factors that have significant impact on the participants' stress level, regression-analysis was conducted using Siegrist's questionnaire score as the dependent variable, and using independent variables that may have significant impact on stress from previous analyses. Table 3 contains the data of the non-teaching subsample, and Table 4 those in the teaching subsample.

Dependent variable: Stress	r	b	r x b (%)
Motivation	-0.255	-0.075	1.91
Workplace climate	-0.405	-0.306	12.39
Commitment and carrier opportunities	-0.402	-0.310	12.46
Sex	-0.007	-0.008	<0.01
			SUM = 26.77

Table 3 Results of regression-analysis of stress in the non-teaching subsample

Dependent variable: Stress	r	b	r x b (%)
Motivation	-0.390	-0.073	2.85
Workplace climate	-0.581	-0.427	24.81
Commitment and carrier opportunities	-0.508	-0.217	11.02
Sex	0.069	0.007	0.04
			SUM = 38.73

Table 4 Results of regression-analysis of stress in the teaching subsample

Tables 3 and 4 suggest that a relevant part of the variance of stress can be explained by the other subscales of the questionnaire. Furthermore, there is a large difference between the two subsamples with respect to the role of workplace climate. The results suggest that albeit the teachers' stress level is significantly lower than that of non-teaching officers, a much greater part of the teachers' stress level can be explained by workplace climate.

4. Discussion and summary

This study examined the health indicators of law enforcement employees. The sample comprised two parts: non-teaching officers and teachers of law enforcement vocational secondary schools. The questionnaire used in this study consisted of several subscales including stress, motivation, workplace climate and commitment.

Our results suggest that although there were no significant differences between male and female employees, there were significant and relevant differences between teachers and non-teaching employees. Teaching employees had lower stress level, and they presumed to have higher motivation, and better workplace climate and carrier opportunities. Regression-analysis suggests that although teaching employees had lower stress level and better workplace climate, there is a strong connection between these variables. A causal relation may be that school (as a workplace) climate has a strong effect on the teachers' stress level.

Another relevant difference between the two subsamples was found in the strength of correlations that were measured between workplace commitment and the judged competitiveness of the salary. There were negative correlations in case of both groups, but the correlation was significantly stronger in the teachers' subsample.

Differences among geographical regions had an interesting pattern. While there were no between-region differences in the level of stress, two subscales showed significant differences. Both the level of workplace climate and the level of organizational commitment subscales proved to be significant indicators of stress with regression-analysis, the regions where the workplace climate proved to be significantly higher had a tendency to possess a lower level of organizational commitment, and vice versa. It means that there may be regional differences in how employees' health indicators can and should be improved.

Annex

The following statements refer to your current or last job. Please indicate, in each one, which statement you agree with related to your work situation. (Circle the appropriate number!)

3. I am pressed for time because of a big load of work.

1. Not applicable
2. Typical, but it did not bother
3. Typical, but it is only slightly disturbed
4. Typical, and it bothers
5. Typical, and this is very annoying

Motivation

29. How much your mangers and colleagues let you know how well you carry ut your work? *(Circle the appropriate number!)*

1. Very little
2. Slightly
3. Moderately
4. Largely
5. Very largely

Work atmosphere

The following questions relate to the features of the organization where you work

35. How do the leaders treat the employees? *(Circle the appropriate number!)*

1	2	3	4
Hostile	raw, rough	politely	friendly

Job satisfaction

Some questions about how satisfied yor are with your job and work place

44. *What is your current work compared to the kind you want? (If you could choose), circle the appropriate number!*

1. does not match;
2. does not match;
3. match;
4. largely the same;
5. full match.

Commitment to the organization and the opportunity for advance

This part of our questionnaire concerns the commitment for your company and the possibilities of a career in your job
Circle the appropriate number in the table!

Forward responses:

1. Not true at all
2. It is not true
3. Partly true
4. True
5. Absolutely true

52. I am proud to work in this workplace.	1	2	3	4	5

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How Pedagogy and Architecture Meet in Pedagogical Spaces

Mária Hercz – Kálmán Sántha

Introduction

This research concentrates on an important, however, barely examined question of pedagogy, the question of how schools' inner spaces comply with the European Union's idea of „the school of the future", what spaces it should have to actualize pedagogical functions and to enable the optimal development of children. The research is based on English and German studies. The first step of our long-term, complex research is a micro research, in which a qualitative method, namely the reflective diary writing was used. The numerous terminologies made it necessary to revise the concepts and precisely define pedagogical space and pedagogical architecture. In the reflective diaries, an idealized picture of the school is seen, showing all those needs that students today find necessary for a school with a developing role. As a result of the research, the students' harmonic development of personality is shown, as well as the world of pedagogical spaces that helps to adopt the modern methods of learning and teaching. It is also aimed to introduce the relationship between pedagogical architecture and pedagogical functions of the school.

'The most significant characteristics of the historically evolved school are the building, the classrooms and the desks. The school, set in concrete, bricks and traditional building structure would not let any change happen, even if the people within would want to do different things in different ways' (AKG 2009). Those who follow the changes of educational policies, hope that there will be more and more people committing themselves to a reform.

One of the main elements of the multi-factored system of reform is location, which prepares and socializes children for the culture of knowledge. Schools of all-time should reflect the child-image and expectations of society both in content and architecture as well. Pedagogical spaces determined in such way should occupy numerous functions, to enable a consonant student development. The content of these functions have to be determined by pedagogy and its offside sciences, while the form of the functions need to be appointed by architecture, all in close co-operation. Therefore, pedagogical space in our study is interpreted as a concept within the collective systems of architecture and pedagogy.

The concept of pedagogical space in pedagogy

The concept of pedagogical space is rarely present in the available pedagogical publications in such approach. Upon interpreting the dichotomies of training and educating and teaching and learning, we encounter contents referring to pedagogical spaces in both explicit and implicit ways, nevertheless, their interpretation and content differ to a great extension.

Some antecedents of the concept of pedagogical space

If we look back in time, we can always find atmospheres thought to be developing for children. These „children's spaces" are spaces formed differently in various parts of the world, but buildings designed and built for children, with pedagogical aims, only started to appear from the 19th century.

Milestones of scholar space arrangement are found in the basic philosophical background of streams of reform pedagogy, however, the alignment of these reform models took ideas from the pedagogical traditions of earlier eras. School architecture and space arrangement are further detailed in the article of Sanda (2008), seeing through the basic influential concepts of space constitution at schools of Montessori, Waldorf, Dalton, Winnetka, Jena and Freinet. In Table 1 below, peculiarities of space arrangement of some of the most important concepts of reform are illustrated, based upon Sanda (2008) and Németh – Skiera (1999).

Reform Concept	Space Arrangement
Pedagogy of Montessori	– Atmosphere designed for children: furniture of different sizes, shelves, numerous and convenient tools – Appropriate atmosphere for development
Pedagogy of Waldorf	– Harmony between the building and nature by unusual shapes and special colors – Deep insight into character, based on anthroposophy with adequate furnishment in classrooms
Dalton-plan	– Subdivision of scholar space according to individual paste of study
Jena-plan	– 'Scholar living-room', where different aged students can work together – Spaces for frontal, individual and teamwork with numerous tools
Pedagogy of Freinet	– Reform of classrooms, individual or teamwork for students
Alternative schools	– Combination of various concepts of reform, custom made to individual needs.

Table 1 Peculiarities of space arrangement in some school models of reform pedagogy

The work of Rittelmeyer (1986) is surpassingly interesting out of the researches on school architecture of the century. Starting from the conclusions of the arguments on school architecture in the 1960s, schools built in the 1970s and 1980s were examined by teachers, architects and journalists. The results revealed suggestive and instructive metaphors, such as school as a soulless factory, brutal trunk, and inhuman city of concrete. With this reasearch, not only the aspects of school architecture and pedagogy were approximated, but also the methodology of pedagogical research was enriched by the examination of school metaphors.

Emphasized attention is given to Perlich's book 'Architecture in pedagogy's service' (1969) when examining the antecedents of the concept of pedagogical space. The book was published when Europe debated over the aims and possible materialization ways of a „new school". Perlich acquired an architect degree, but during his multi-faceted studies he attended pedagogy too. Among others, this binary qualification distinguished him from his contemporary architects and teachers, as he had more interest in school architecture and could concentrate on his dual mission. His designs of school buildings were made consciously to suit both architectural and pedagogical expectations.

However, this dual characteristic of school architecture disappeared after the war. Gerold Becker's (1966) critical words on schools were 'pedagogy in concrete', as the traditionally square classrooms were only capable of frontal work, and lacked esthetic criteria as well. Becker's thought became a well-quoted expression, and he wanted to utilize the help of architecture for introducing modern pedagogical methods to schools. When *Becker* returned to the theme of school architecture in 1991, he modified his original thought. He was even more critical and depressing for the main characters of the world of schools, as his leading idea of *'pedagogy in concrete'* changed to *'concrete in pedagogy'* (Becker, 1991). This terminology reflects the „development" of school in the sense of pedagogy and architecture for over the last 40 years. Today's society should face this heritage and reshape it according to the demand of modern times.

Many, for example Schmittmann (1985) accompanied the previous stream, namely to expand the relationship between architecture and schools' teaching and learning. Fisher (2007) also conceived things similarly, emphasizing that architects should be adept in pedagogy, and it is reasonable to collaborate with teachers upon designing a school and its appropriate spaces. In his opinion, schools should be designed and built according to pedagogical pursuit, usable methods and the spatial needs of developmental processes.

Upon examining the international scientific literature of pedagogy, we experienced a growth in interest towards spatial design and scholar architecture. All this is also proven by the conferences organized in this topic. Researchers of EARLI handled the matter of learning and educational space in the late 1990s, which were presented in the Hungarian magazine Iskolakultúra (Géczi 2006: 46). On international grounds of pedagogical architecture and space organization, the early 2000s were a landmark; it was referred to as an 'explosion, turning point' (Jelich and Kemnitz 2003; Kemnitz 2003).

Various aspects of interpreting pedagogical space in our days

The concepts of space and scolastic space were found under the definition of classroom in pedagogical dictionaries before the 1990s (Kemnitz, 2001). In later interpretations, the *content of the concept* appeared in its narrower or wider sense. In the following, we will make an attempt to introduce these interpretations.

One of the streams of the *narrower sense* of pedagogical space says that pedagogical space as a pedagogical architecture only refers to the built atmosphere. The majority of researches however, define pedagogical space as a definite system of pedagogical architecture (the built physical atmosphere) and the paradigm and methodology of teaching and learning defined by it.

According to the first interpretation, pedagogical space can be used as a synonym for 'school space'. Studies adopting to this phenomenon examine the atmosphere surrounding the school: the type and where within a settlement (residential district, suburbs, etc.) the school is, how it can be accessed, what the level of noise surrounding it is, what sort of commercial, cultural, entertaining and sport possibilities are near, etc.

First, the inner space of built atmosphere and the spatial *arrangements of a classroom* were handled in pedagogical scientific literature. The Hungarian study on the story of a classroom and its furnishment by Németh (2002) also sees the development through from the house of boards to the modern European classroom. In this work, upon analyzing the inner space arrangement we can observe the reflection of societal needs of a given era.

Numerous international publications focus on spaces designed for children or on formal characteristics of schools and classes, but a thorough examination of this question would go beyond this current research. However, we would like to say some words about the furnishment of schools. *School furniture* evolved from long or integral rows of desks with small spaces for children to comfortable desks and chairs over centuries. It was not the health, comfort or communicational potential of children that mattered, but thrift. The small, movable furniture only came in in the 20th century. Creative and progressive schools started to use individual desks with chairs after the world wars in order to provide space for new pedagogical possibilities. The aspect of hygiene was very important too, so the material of furniture became easily cleanable and sterilizable. Even the size of the bathrooms was adjusted to children (Bollivant, 1997; Kirsten Hegner, no reference year). This thought still lives in our days: the aspect of hygiene and mental hygiene deals with high importance, regarding the school as a whole, the inner and outer atmospheres, but especially the classrooms, as material surroundings can affect the process of teaching and learning, teachers' pursuit and the students' development and effectiveness.

According to the second interpretation, a possible way of defining a pedagogical space resides in the term „arrangement of scholar space". There are various strings of ideas behind this expression. *The architecture of the school as a building* has to be defined (architectural style, building material, shape of building). After having entered the school, we should attend to the *architectural solutions and pedagogical functions* of the *corridor* or of the *central hall*, if there is one. (Where the classrooms open to, how the hall is divided, if there are any study corners, etc.) Then, the *inner arrangement of classrooms* should be examined (how is it furnished, what tools are there, what visibility is like). In all three cases, esthetic aspects, such as colors, various shapes and decorations also play and important role. Rittelmeyer (1994) also states that aesthetics (colors, shapes) need to be emphasized when creating pedagogical spaces. He stressed that in order to reach an effective teaching – learning process, adults should realize what colors and shapes are needed for the different age students, and the organization of scholar space should be made upon these.

Pedagogical space is the mutually coherent system of *pedagogical architecture and pedagogical content*. Such apprehension is strongly seen at the Alternativ Kozgazdasagi Gimnazium's (Alternative Economic High School) pedagogical program (AKG 2009). They point out that a school building, defined by law „seems to be independent of the children and teachers living there, in the mind of the legal experts", it could hardly suit the contextual and methodological requirements of progressive pedagogy. They write that „atmosphere is a tough barrier for pedagogy, hence, even a slow transition is an illusion", however, the adequate atmosphere designed and attained by them can be seen as an example. Upon phrasing the requirements related to atmosphere, the expectations of individuals and communities are considered. One of their principles is: „an ambitious atmosphere raises an ambitious person". (AKG 2009).

Defining and analyzing the *teaching method and the ideal, sufficient and needed pedagogical space* is very frequent in international research. The concepts of knowledge and learning transformed side by side at the end of the century, furthermore, this process reacts to the world's changes sensitively. Up to now, the aim of studying was to acquire a greater knowledge, however, these days it is the development of skills and thinking (Csapó, 2003).

In a wider sense, various meanings attach to the concept of pedagogical space. From the aspects of psychology, sociology and educational economics, the umbrella term of pedagogical space is a complex societal (personal, material or conceptual, open or latent) system of effects and conditions, affecting the development and socialization of children. The relationship might seem distant, but regarding the conceptual essence of the examination of the collaboration of community, it is space and time appearing in cultural anthropology in the 1970s, which approach still lives in studies of our days too (Géczi, 2008).

These days, the most commonly used definitions elucidate the physical space and atmosphere, in which the teaching and learning takes place, in unity with the changed role of knowledge (Csapó, 2002) and with the necessity of change in paradigms, evolved from the effects of the challenges of life-long learning. The reason for the diversification of the traditional learning atmosphere is a communicational revolution and the process started by the global societal and economical changes based on the revolution (Mayer, 2009). Other pedagogical interpretations - with prevailing educational economic and educational politic backgrounds – consider the learning atmosphere as a unity of *material and personal atmosphere*. This way, the scholar space, the classroom and the teacher are all parts of the pedagogical space. In an even wider sense, those societal and socio-economical factors can form part of the pedagogical space that affect the education of children. For example, society and its latent effects from laws to the media, the actual societal atmosphere in which the child lives, the surroundings, the friends and their values, norms and morals (Hercz – Sántha, 2009).

When interpreting the learning atmosphere, OECD considers those indicators which affect the process of teaching directly, namely the teachers (workload, salary, qualifications, demographic features of the group), the time spent on teaching and learning, and the level of computerization (Imre, 2003). Learning atmosphere therefore refers to the (1) outer, statute conditions of teaching, (2) the system of personal atmosphere set by society (the term societal appreciation could also be used), and (3) the decisive element (computerization) of material atmosphere.

The newest theoretical and practical researches present the numerous sides of pedagogical spaces, with the help of various authors in the concise volume of Jelich and Kemnitz (2003), projecting the possible themes of future researches on pedagogical architecture and space arrangement.

Reflective diary on the examination of pedagogical spaces

The conformation of the methodological apparatus is made according to the qualitative catalogue of criteria (Sántha, 2007). In the following, the catalogue's essential concepts are presented in the light of the current research.

(1) *Documentation of the researcher's point of view*: 55 first and second year andragogy and pedagogy major students were asked to participate in the research. Convenience sampling was used, in order to utilize the open work-relationship with previously or currently taught students.

(2) *Documentation of the process of data collection*: eventually, 25 people participated in the research. The possible reason for the incomplete participation can be the use of the *informal reflective diary* technique, which bears a time-consuming preparation, therefore many receded from participating. The students were asked to write down their ideas about a school that would fit the modern times' societal needs and expectations, under the heading of *'I'm building a school'*.

(3) *Source of information*: A decision from two possibilities had to be made regarding the ways of conducting the diaries. The students could either write their essays before, after or between their classes, or finish them at home, giving them more time to deepen their thoughts. Eventually, students prepared their diaries at home, so time, as a restrictive factor, could be minimized in order to be able to explore a greater range of data.

(4) *Empirical restrictions*: instead of setting a hypothesis, the research was conducted upon open questions and problems, enabling us to accommodate better to the qualitative profile. This decision determined the logic of the research, since the solutions for school architecture drawn from the results were further improved by systematic data analysis. The diaries were subjected to qualitative data analysis. The texts were coded manually and the retrieved main and sub-categories were arranged by colors. Coding was based upon open, axial and selective coding mechanisms. During open coding, main contextual categories were searched, and then assigned with codes. With axial coding, subcategories were composed within the main contextual nodes, namely, the previously fractured text was further broken down. With the help of selective coding, the results were reached through the causalities between the main nodes and their subcategories and consequences were drawn from them.

(5) In order to secure the validity of the qualitative research, the method of *triangulation* was used. Fulfilling the idea of *personal triangulation*, in order to minimize the subjective effects, both the preparation and the conduction of the research were made by two of us. Since the importance of feedback on the research was pointed out by the participants too, the results were discussed together. In order to fulfill *theoretical triangulation*, various theoretical concepts were used (please see the theoretical background of the research for these). According to *methodological triangulation*, it is advised to use various methods; however, we decided to use only the method of reflective diaries, as this method reveals inner thoughts and overcomes technical and time barriers. Upon *data triangulation*, data were gathered from various educational locations and class years, then the elaboration and the analysis of these data was done separately by both of us and the results were compared at the end.

(6) *Indication of the methodological decisions and the analysis*: data collecting and analyzing methods suit each other; the research was in harmony with the sources, information and aims.

(7) The *question of the research* is relevant, as it reveals a possible way to introduce a field of Hungarian pedagogy, which has barely been examined.

Traditional and recent solutions in space arrangement

Upon planning an ideal school, the main elements of imagery are the sizing and arranging of spaces, materials, colors, shapes and fixtures. The built atmosphere and its climate are closely connected in the diaries. While some people would want to convert the climate of learning spaces by transforming the traditional elements to natural materials, or by coloring them, or making them softer, clearer and simpler, others imagine the new school in a more abstract, somewhat futuristic way.

A characteristic of the first method is the almost exclusive use of natural materials, colored walls and planning of a color tone. The usage of natural materials and the presence of plants is a need all over the school. The material and the naturalness of the revetment is not only important because of the climate, but because of health and educational reasons too.

The writers of the reflective diaries visualize the psychological effects of colors and lights in various ways. They have chosen different ways from the big, clear windows to glass walls and ceilings. They aimed to attain the best natural lighting. Examples for futuristic features are controllable shading of glass ceiling, open classroom with a playground and a garden.

Sizes usually act upon functions, however, simplicity and variability are general requirements. Closed spaces often open up, glass walls, wider or open doors, or co-adjacent classrooms help the conformation of the school community. The architectural characteristics of inner school spaces can create relations between individuals and the community, but can also isolate them. Regarding the decoration of the classrooms and hallways, a solid aspect appears, namely that it should constitute of children's works, should be colorful and aesthetic. However, two approaches are present regarding the content: the main element within one approach is to use decorations democratically and to make the spaces feel like home (the contextual features of decoration are not defined, but not only the good works should be displayed, but works from all students), the other approach places the emphasis on the learning atmosphere, where decoration actually acts as an exhibition for project and other type of works. In this latter case, not only the walls could be used, but the specially made door surfaces of lockers, the exhibition places of the communal areas, shelves and display cabinets as well.

The accessibility for disabled children, parents and visitors is also taken into account. An inner sitting elevator would be a great help in any institution, as in emergencies (accident, sickness) it might be needed even in schools with no disabled students.

The description of the rooms and their climates within the building is based on previous experience and imagination. According to the writings, the climate of classrooms and rooms for specific subjects has a strong link between their layout and furnishing. Their sizes and shapes remain the traditional rectangle shape in many cases, but some visualize an ideal classroom differently, with a shape of a polygon or a not even shape. The separated parts would obtain various functions, such as tool storage, exhibition or talking space. We meet such ideas, in which the polygon shaped classrooms have rotatable desks, giving the various walls a lead, and also a chance for different learning methods such as co-operative learning and project learning. The size of the space is also important for the fulfillment of the various activities and interactions.

The concept of classroom is many times replaced by the term learning room in the diaries, to symbolize domesticity, comfortable atmosphere and neutrality. The need of an own classroom for a child is emphasized, instead of the currently commonly used system with fixed classrooms for various subjects. Not only does the classroom give a personal security, but it appears as a stimulating atmosphere for children's learning. The most typical characteristics are aesthetics, comfort and the presence of tools helping the work.

Communication in classrooms is affected by space arrangement too. The spaces created by the desks follow the traditional forms, the U-shape or the island-like arrangement. The forms around the desks help interpersonal communication and co-operation, especially if the desks are not aligned orderly next to each other, but are in a shape that helps the communication between groups. Sitting arrangements can also create security in case of the pairs sitting next to each other, however, they highlight the possible shapes of interpersonal communication and communal interaction, which bear with instant meta-communicational reflexes, such as eye-contact and prompt reactions.

The relation with nature is an interesting element of a classroom's arrangement. Some would resolve the question by a direct link between the courtyard and the classroom, others would bring nature into the classes with plants and animals. There have been many professional debates on whether it is appropriate or not to keep animals in classrooms. This idea – even if pedagogically correct – does not consider weekends, holidays or the currently common allergic illnesses caused by pets.

Staff rooms also appeared in the diaries. Basically, students would either place teachers in classrooms or in separate staff rooms. The question of the relationship between teachers and students was raised from a pedagogical and a space organizational point of view. Facilitation of physical availability, open staff rooms and availability itself would naturally generate the communicational intent of students. The visualized space could be two close-by but separate spaces made up of desks for teachers and of a more private space, appropriate for conversations.

In the other part of the diaries, the work circumstances of teachers were in focus, visualizing a staff room in which there are appropriate systems of spaces and tools for teachers to prepare for work, container spaces for equipment and demonstrative tools needed for teaching and for students' works. A natural requirement was the computer with internet access. However, none of the students questioned mentioned the use of laptops or wifi connections, which would make preparation and classes much more flexible.

Upon describing the special classrooms for various subjects, tradition and fantasy are mixed, wide range of pedagogical functions appeared in these spaces. Aesthetics was mixed with convenience, a main feature was a room's variability and various applicability.

Materialization of pedagogical functions in schools' inner spaces

By discussing the school's pedagogical functions, we aim to systematize those functions that are essential to a child's, student's harmonic and healthy personality development (Hercz - Sántha, 2009). In order to accomplish the aims set in the pedagogical programs of institutions, adequate space arrangement is also needed. When we talk about a school's functional spaces, we examine two dimensions: (1) the materializing pedagogical contents and (2) the individual (defined in the communal relationship system) taking part in the materialization.

In the first (contextual) dimension, five main functions were distinguished upon examining the diaries. For each of these, a „functional space" – a space appropriate to occupy these functions – was ordered: (a) personal development, individualization: personal space; (b) learning: learning space; (c) educating: space of pedagogical interactions; (d) communication and building relationships: communicational space; (e) recreation: recreational space.

Those spaces are called personal spaces, in which a student can satisfy its psycho-physiological and other needs for a healthy development. There was a minimal requirement was towards the space needed for changing, keeping things, eating and washing. In an ideal way, these places are properly sized and cleaned and furnished aesthetically and practicably.

By learning space we understand the space where planned learning takes place, while the spaces of pedagogical interactions are the spaces that serve educational functions, and that are capable of creating co-operation between the participants in pedagogical communication. A well equipped place inspires individual or team work and active acquirement. Upon determining the position within the building, great ideas were shown besides the traditional classrooms, such as hallways, attics or even those outside the school building. Basic requirements were the audiovisual and IKT (information technology communication) tools, and mobile furniture, with which the space can easily be changed according to the form of educational organization.

With the results from space organization, the space of pedagogical interactions gives place to frequent and diversely formed common activities, and enables to utilize the wide repertoire of indirect educational methods. In our interpretation, school - as a communicational space – gives place to informal communication, and enables interpersonal and group communications. Recreational space from the individual spaces helps to relax and recharge with energy. Within the school's building, we face two diverse approaches, which are distinguished by the individual or communal appearance and by the quiet or loud activity.

The second dimension of the examination of a school's pedagogical functions is the dimension of individual and community: school has to be feasible to actualize students' personal and social needs too. From this point of view, individual and communal spaces were differentiated. By individual spaces, we mean those spaces in a school that explicitly serve to satisfy a student's individual needs. The inner arrangement of a school is good if it makes it possible for the students to think of it as their own living space. According to this view, personal living space, personal learning space and personal recreational space are distinguished.

Implicitly, communal spaces make place to those functions of the school which base on the joint activities and interactions of students and teachers. Spaces are also needed that provide for the essential activities of students' and their communities' healthy development, and for the natural development of personal and social competencies. From this aspect, four types of spaces are separated; spaces of pedagogical interactions, communication, learning and recreation. The latter two are interpreted within the individual spaces as well, but with a different content.

Experiences and possible further thoughts

Upon systematically analyzing the diaries, we concentrated on the inner space arrangement of schools and on the functions of spaces. The architecture of the school, the teaching work inside it and the life quality of the school communities (groups of students and teachers) are in mutual relationship. The size, aesthetic intensity, furnishing of the material atmosphere, the adequate ergonomic features, the quality of tools helping to teach can promote or obstruct the co-operation, interaction and communication, all-in-all the harmonic personality development of those living there.

The scholar space arrangement and the functions of the spaces appeared in two approaches in the diaries: (1) the interrelation of pedagogy and climate with architecture; (2) pedagogical functions and space arrangement. Upon expanding on the first approach, healthy and aesthetic realization of the material atmosphere, specifically, the materials, colors, lights, furnishing, inner space arrangement and decoration was in the center. We have to highlight the appearance of the matter of accessibility for the disabled in the responses. Analysis according to the second approach was derived from the composition of the relationship between the pedagogical architecture and teaching. Based on the analysis of the pedagogical spaces and functions, we wanted to visualize the important connections.

The system of opinions and thinking affecting the shaping of the school pictures in the diaries can be traced back to previous years of experiences in desks. The need for change is unambiguous, as from the symbol of a static school, to the constantly changing school capable of suiting all-time requirements are all present in the diaries.

The 'school of the future' needs to build on the joint activities of teachers and students, but this not only requires contextual changes but spaces that are indispensable for the change in approach. As any truly important improvement these days, the transformation of schools' architecture and inner spaces also requires co-operation of various professions and professionals. How the students of today will act as the adults of the future is our common responsibility.

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Identity and Ethnicity at the Slovak-Hungarian Border

Muriel Blaive

What is the significance of a state border which keeps apart people who have ambivalent feelings about its legitimacy? Which keeps apart people who used to belong to the same nation and massively think that they still do? Which keeps apart people who speak the same language? What is the significance of a state border which, on the other hand, forces two nations who had an antagonistic history to share a common destiny on the same side? What was the significance of a border between two socialist countries in these conditions and how is the situation now that the border has, for all intents and purposes, dissolved into Schengen?

On the basis of 30 oral history interviews led in Komárno (10 with Slovaks, 20 with Hungarians, so as to roughly answer to the town's ethnic composition), my aim is to question the complicated relations between the two communities and their respective way to build their own identity under communism and today.

The case of Komárno: the main issues at stake

Before 1918, Komárno, then called by its Hungarian name Komárom, was spreading on both sides of the Danube. Komárom was separated into two different towns only following the dismantling of the Austro-Hungarian empire and the 1920 Trianon treaty, which established the Danube as the border between Hungary and the newly established Czechoslovakia. These borders were sometimes drawn in defiance of the ethnic map but they were meant to favour the economic development of the new Slavic state. The Danube plain was given to Slovakia because of its agricultural potential, while Komárno itself also hosted a big naval factory. Komárno's historical center found itself on what is today the Slovak side.

Barnabás Vajda, lecturer at the History Department of the Pedagogical Faculty at Selye J. University in Komárno, has led the study in Komárom and presented its fascinating results in his own report. His main findings regarding crossborder connections include the following statements: 'There is a phenomenon in the thirty interviews which can be described as a symptom of a triad influence on peoples' memory. This symptom is a complex and organic combination of three tendencies, making the Komárom case unique: there is an almost complete absence of external sources when remembering; there is a phenomenon of suppressed memory; and there is a clear influence of Communism or Socialism as a system on their way of remembering.'[1] In the present essay, it is in Komárno that I will try to sort out the perception of the « other » – may he/she come from the same town but from a different nationality, or from across the border. This report is not a microhistorical study in the full sense – archive material has not been used, local media has not been analyzed –, it is at this stage only an oral history endeavour.

At the time it took place in 2008, this study was inscribed into the Ludwig Boltzmann Institute for European History and Public Spheres' Cold War program, originally designed by Berthold Molden.[2] I also took part in the pilot study of this program, which was at the Czech border to Austria (České Velenice[3]), the border had a key importance in the town's life since it was almost hermetically closed and tightly defended. But the border in Komárno was between two countries of the Eastern bloc, i.e. was a « simple », internal border not worth trespassing (it was of course forbidden to pass it without visa but this visa was easy to get and smuggling was widely practiced, i.e. did not require to try and force the border by illegal means). Although there were some differences between the Czechoslovak and Hungarian communist regimes, there was no significant difference in standard of living between the two sides and it was not an ideological border between two systems and two ways of life. The population was not mobilized to take part in the border guarding the way it was at the border to capitalist countries.

Hence, where the relationship to the communist regime was traumatic in České Velenice, people were neither obsessed nor even very interested in the communist past in the case at hand. « Dealing with the past » appeared even less of an issue to Hungarians, since they had no serious complaint towards a communist regime which guaranteed and respected their minority rights. The most striking trait in the Komárno interviews is, on the contrary, the absence of interest for socio-political and ideological issues. Pell-mell, communism, democracy, Hungarian fascism, listening to Radio Free Europe, belonging to the communist party, the differences between the Hungarian and the Czechoslovak

1 The 'Long European Post War Period' in Communicative Memories and (Trans)National Public Spheres. Manuscript report on Komárom (Hungary) by Barnabás Vajda, János Selye University (Komárno, Slovakia) 2008. Partially published in Barnabás Vajda: Remembering the Cold War in Komárom. *Eruditio – Educatio 4* (2009), 2., p. 22.

2 See the description of this project under http://ehp.lbg.ac.at.

3 See Muriel Blaive, Berthold Molden, *Grenzfälle. Österreichische und tschechische Erfahrungen am Eisenen Vorhang,* Weitra, Bibliothek der Provinz, 2009, also published in Czech under the title *Hranice probíhají vodním tokem. Odrazy historie ve vnímání obyvatel Gmündu a Českých Velenic,* Brno, Barrister & Principal, 2010.

communist regimes, settling accounts with the old communist system, 1956, 1968, 1989, even 1993 (the establishment of the new Slovak state), Slovak politics, are all items which prompted indifferent and absent-minded responses from the interviewees.[4] Religion did not appear to be a salient issue either, so I will leave this factor aside in this study.

The essentialist and metaphysical question in Komárno revolves much rather around both communities' identity. What does it mean to belong to the Hungarian minority in Slovakia, what does it mean to belong to the Slovak minority in Komárno: these are major issues preoccupying the town's inhabitants and they had much to say on these topics. I thus questioned them in detail on how they conceive of their cohabitation with the other community, on language questions, parents and children, school and education, loyalty, and on their relationship to Hungarians from Hungary.

In this essay, I will reflect on the ambiguous « advantages » of communism, and then deconstruct how the language problem tends to confine the Hungarians into a territorial prison and finally will ponder on what the future holds for Southern Slovakia. First, however, I will briefly describe the questionnaire I used.

Questionnaire

Barnabás Vajda and I led 30 interviews each in Komárno and Komárom in the course of the year 2008. In order to find interview partners, we proceeded by « snowball effect », i.e. we asked each interviewee who agreed to speak to us to provide us with a few potential contacts, leading to more interviews. These interviews cannot be considered as biographies or life narratives. Because the project as a whole involves some 600 interviews led in 20 different towns, we had to deal with a number of contingencies. We settled on a semi-open interview technique, posing definite questions which would be as similar and comparable as possible in every different context and every different country.

My oldest interviewee was born in 1923, my youngest in 1992 and the rest is spread more or less evenly in between. The questions I asked them can be stapled into seven main groups, focussing on:

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4 Although Komárno had its fair share of economic problems : « Unemployment rose to 25% in Komárno with the decline of the town's port and the bankruptcy of the SLK shipyard in 2000. The yard was eventually rescued by the government and rebranded SLKB; however, the number of workers was reduced from 3 000 in 1996 to 1 100 in 2005 (of which around 700 work in production and of which 10% are sub-contractors) », see Edgar Martin, « The impact upon employment of the decline in Danube transport », *South East Europe Review for Labour and Social Affairs,* 1/2006, p. 81-88, accessed via www.ceeol.com, p. 4.

- Their life at the edge of the country;
- Their relationship to the other side, past and present;
- Their relationship with the other community inside their own town;
- Their relationship to capitalism and socialism;
- Their view on local history;
- Their view on Hungarian minority rights under communism and today;
- Their view on the EU accession of Slovakia, as well as that of Romania, Bulgaria and other prospective states like Turkey and Ukraine.

In addition, I took down some factual information: sex, place and year of birth, how long the interviewee has lived in Komárno, mother tongue and nationality, education level, occupation of parents, family status and religion. In this article and for reasons of space I have chosen a few of my interviewees as "representatives" of all the others. We have here an 85-year old Hungarian worker, Gábor Czár, a 47-year old Slovak woman, Božena Ebertová, a 36-year old Hungarian high-school teacher, János Erdei, a 21-year old Hungarian student, Lajos Bártok, and a 16-year Hungarian high-school student, Tünde Belai. As is customary in such studies and as most of my interviewees asked for it anyway, the names have been changed so that the people are not recognizable.

The «advantages» of communism

This Komárno study shows that communism had its advantages in terms of dealing with national minorities, at least in this particular Central European context (dealing with minorities in the Soviet Union under stalinism is of course an entirely different issue). In fact, one might provocatively wonder if it was not at least as good as the European Union in this respect. Communist propaganda in Czechoslovakia always claimed to support national minorites and their rights, apart from a short interlude during and after the Second World War. Thus in Slovakia as elsewhere, Hungarians were relatively well treated, they had schools, high schools, theatres, cinemas, newspapers and bookstores. In short, they had access to culture in their own language and they had the right to use their language in the administration (post office, townhall) if they were in sufficient percentage in a town.

This is of course true of the European Union as well, which guarantees fair treatment of minorities. But the difference resides in the authoritarian and paternalistic nature of the communist regime: integration was not an option but an order. Hungarians were generally compelled to know the Slovak language, if only in order to find a (compulsory) job and they were generally strongly "expected" (if not openly forced) to take part in the public, bilingual and binational, life of the town.

Of course, communism benefited at a general level from the image of a regime which was established for the benefit of workers – Komárno was after all an industrial town, where the communists were getting 30% of the votes already before the Second World War. But the communist regime imposed integration to the Hungarian minority. Božena Ebertová (a 47-year old Slovak woman) told me for instance:

> B.E. Our Hungarians have the possibility to learn Slovak but they don't want to communicate. Before 1989, one can say that 80% of the Hungarians spoke Slovak perfectly, because they had to study in Slovak schools. Slovak was more used in shops, etc. But there was a turn-about after 1989, and where there is a majority of Hungarians, they stick to themselves. They stopped, in my opinion, I see it on them, they don't want to, they don't have any practice, and they don't have any urge to communicate in Slovak.

In my sample, both Slovak and Hungarian interviewees who were formerly members or at least sympathizers of the KSČ were less nationalistic and more tolerant towards the cohabitation of these two communities than others. Among the Hungarians, the former communists were those who were the least opposed to their children marrying into Slovak families and sending their own children to Slovak-speaking schools. Our 85-year old Hungarian worker Gábor Czár, for instance, has a Slovak daughter and Slovak grandchildren.

Even when these older Hungarians never truly learned to master Slovak, their loyalty to the Slovak state is higher than that of the younger generation. This relative abating of nationalism in Komárno shows that the communist regimes were quite capable of adapting, ideologically speaking, to their environment and capable of positive or negative discrimination in their national policies.

The ability of the communist regimes to exploit or downsize the national problem according to the circumstances becomes clear when Komárno is compared to České Velenice, where the communist regime clearly used and instrumentalized nationalist feelings against the Austrians – who were on the other side of a highly political border: the Iron Curtain. In this case, fear and its instrumentalization played a major role in local politics. The alleged threat posed by the capitalist «foreigner» (from Gmünd) justified for the regime the need to control everybody.

The «external threat» coming from the outside of the country found its counterpart in the «internal threat» posed by the candidates to emigration who came into town from all over the country while looking for a way to escape west. The regime largely convinced/forced the local population to surveil itself and to «voluntarily» entertain a terror climate turned against its own self in the name of the fight against the «internal» and «external» enemies.

None of this was known or even thinkable in Komárno, where the two national communities were much too solidary among themselves to consider massively turning in their own members to the authorities – while turning the communities onto one another was the last thing even the communist regime knew would have been wise.

On the other hand, it is interesting to notice in the interviews that the respect of their national rights mattered to the Slovak Hungarians so much that they sometimes denied attention even to the ideological and authoritarian nature of the communist regime, as if it were secondary. As an example of this relativization, the old people were frequently asking questions such as «Which regime was it in [1939, 1945, the 1950s, 1968, 1989…]» when I asked them questions relating to the past. Older people in Komárno have indeed experienced the First Republic, the Hungarian fascist state, the renewed Czechoslovak democracy, the communist regime, the renewed Czechoslovak democracy again and the Slovak independent state and seem to have kept an even and flattening memory from all those opposing regimes, as if fascism, democracy and communism were not clearly distinguishable. Such a politico-historical confusion is really unthinkable for a Czech: even a thoroughly uneducated citizen could never possibly mix up nazism, communism and democracy – but he/she would probably be totally ignorant about the fate of minorities in his country, whereas it is a central issue for all Slovak Hungarians.

Depolitization: 1989

As incredible as it may seem, for instance, a number of the Hungarian interviewees could not clearly remember what had happened in 1989. This indifference is certainly due also to the fact that the population didn't see much of a change in their social and economic conditions immediately after the revolution, as the reforms were implemented rather slowly in Slovakia.

The reduction of the entire postwar period to the « Beneš decrees » question, i.e. to the expropriation, followed by the forced resettlement of many Slovak Hungarians in the Czech Republic until the beginning of the 1950s, while an attempted « exchange of population » took place with Hungary, sending Slovak Hungarians to Hungary and receiving in return members of the Hungarian Slovak minority, seems to me typical of a vision of history where the ideology question (communism or democracy) is reduced to its national dimension. The question is not to know whether communism was better as a regime than democracy, but of how the Hungarians were treated as a national minority. In this respect, communism got the advantage in the interviewees' view. I had an amusing dialogue with Gábor Czár, during which I had a hard time to figure out who he meant as being « the democratic president ». To see Klement Gottwald, known as the architect of the stalinization of the Czechoslovak Communist Party in the 1920s and as Stalin's most faithful Czech pupil in the 1950s, the person who bore the biggest responsibility for the show trials and for the policy of everyday terror, depicted as « the true democrat » among the past few Czechoslovak presidents can indeed happen only either to a fanatical communist… or to a Hungarian from Slovakia. But it is true that the communist regime, after having supported the Beneš decrees and enjoyed all the benefits it could enjoy from the redistribution of the German and sometimes Hungarian properties, after supporting the expulsion of the Sudeten Germans and the deportation of the Hungarian minority to the Czech lands, went back at the beginning of the 1950s to its traditional defense policy of the minorities. The Hungarians forcibly deported to the Sudetenland were allowed to come home and they recovered their citizenship and all their rights in the course of the 1950s.[5]

This « unpoliticized » or peculiarly politicized view of history contributes to relativizing the importance of the 1989 revolution: Tünde Belai (age 16) for instance doesn't know if her parents listened to Radio Free Europe, she doesn't have the impression her parents' life has changed in any way after 1989 as opposed to before, she doesn't know if they were members of the communist party – and more importantly perhaps, she doesn't care about any of this.

The 1989 changes, which took place in Prague and Bratislava, are perceived as being far away. The two Slovak interviewees who were not half-Hungarian had at least a relatively clear vision of the symbolical value of « 1989 » and of what it meant (fall of communism, reestablishment of democracy) but most Hungarian interviewees had a much more foggy vision of this recent past. Where the České Velenice interviewees understood my references to 1989 without second thought (for instance « How has your life changed since 1989 from a social and economic point of view? ») and simultaneously decripted my assumption that their lifestyle must have changed significantly, the Slovaks understood it in a political sense but didn't have many changes to report on the economic and social side, while the Hungarians sometimes had a hard time to figure out what I was even referring to.

In other words, the Komárno Hungarians have lived in a national sphere, not in the sphere of the official ideology. Their own ideology is their personal, national identity, and their rights as a minority are what really counts. On the other hand and as opposed to České Velenice, both Hungarians and Slovaks

5 See Muriel Blaive, *1956 Une déstalinisation manquée,* Brussels, Complexe, 2005.

spontaneously quoted 2004 (the entry into the EU) and even 2007 (the entry into Schengen) as important dates for their country and for their border regions. Their view on European integration is much more positive than in the Czech border region. Although Slovakia had not yet entered the Eurozone at the time of the interviews (it happened on 1 January 2009), people anticipated it with a mixture of pride and apprehension. Clearly, and again this is a big difference with České Velenice, Slovakia as a young state is now coming to a much appreciated international recognition and appreciation and its inhabitants, both Hungarian and Slovak, are somewhat proud of it. Their view on integrating Turkey and Ukraine into the Union, although often also negative, were nevertheless much more positive than in České Velenice, where nearly no one approved of the idea.

But to summarize this first part, if communism might retrospectively be seen as at least as « successful » as the European Union on the minority question, it is only because its authoritarian component allowed it quite naturally to demand integration from the Hungarian minority. The rights and benefits the latter were getting were balanced by an obligation of loyalty to the Czechoslovak state, which, as the interviews with elder people show, was dutifully respected. Nowadays on the contrary, as I found out from the interviews, young Hungarians barely master the Slovak language if at all, make little or no efforts to integrate themselves to Slovak society and live a parallel life of their own. The result is that integration is going rather backwards. I will now dwell on this point.

A questionable Hungarian integration in Slovakia, and the question of the Hungarian loyalty

The older people, both Slovak and Hungarian, knew and know the "other" community well; the older Hungarians often speak Slovak, and really many of the old Slovaks who live in the border region speak Hungarian; they often had friends in the other community and there were some mixed marriages, with a certain degree of tolerance concerning the education, language and national identity of the children. Yet and despite this, there was a general expression of hostility toward the other community in my interviews. So I could summarize it by saying that they knew each other well, but they didn't like each other much.

Nowadays, I found with the younger people that it is almost the opposite: although it is theoretically still compulsory to learn Slovak, the young Hungarians seemed to me in average, at least in Komárno, to be doing quite badly in Slovak; they couldn't understand even basic sentences; they had almost no Slovak friends and if they had any, they spoke together rather Hungarian.

Seen from a Slovak point of view and even when it is couched in polite terms, Hungarians are simply seen as strong nationalists. Božena Ebertová (47-year old Slovak woman) expanded on this theme:

> M.B. Do you see a difference between Slovaks and Hungarians in Komárno?
>
> B.E. Yes, of course, there are differences. As I said the differences are that the Hungarian mentality is very fixated on nationality, they dance to this tune, that they are Hungarians living here, so... [...] We rarely celebrate the fact that we are Slovak. This patriotism, this pride to be Hungarian, is more visible with them.

According to her testimony, this national pressure is sometimes hard to bear for the Slovaks in Komárno and amounts to a real cultural domination. For instance, she claims, the Jókai theatre was created for both Hungarians and Slovaks but ended up presenting almost exclusively Hungarian culture. According to her, things had gotten better only recently, since a new director who had studied in Bratislava and spoke also Slovak came into function. She regretted not having access to enough books, enough culture in Slovak: « The fact that we live here in a place where there is a Hungarian majority means that we don't have the possibility to teach our children everything which they should learn. » The language border seemed to her a major barrier: « When my family comes here to visit us, they feel as if they were in Hungary because you can hear Hungarian everywhere. It's enough to go to Levice, there in the street you hear Slovak even though there is a Hungarian minority there as well. The atmosphere there is not Hungarian but here in Komárno there is a Hungarian atmosphere. »

Historical perceptions are also useful in mapping out local and national identities and there the surprise for me was the extent of the Komárno Hungarians' lack of loyalty for Slovakia and the level of their loyalty for Hungary**.** Admiral Horthy, the Hungarian fascist leader[6] who reconquered the lost territories in 1938 and reintered Komárno on his white horse amidst massive enthusiasm, is still seen as a hero among the Hungarians, including among young Hungarians; his fall and the defeat of fascism and nazism in 1945, is seen largely still as a tragedy insofar as the region went back to Slovakia and was lost to Hungary forever. The Soviet arrival in 1945 is seen as a liberation by the Slovaks, but as an occupation by the Hungarians – apart from the former communists.

6 Author's remarks about 'Admiral Horthy as a Hungarian fascist leader' are considered by lectors/consultants as highly disputable.

But on the other hand, one cannot claim so simply that the Hungarians from Slovakia are totally loyal to the Hungarian state either. Also, if we switch to perceptions in terms of national image, even among the Hungarians of Komárno, Hungarians of Hungary do not necessarily have a very good image. The result is that the Slovak Hungarians' loyalty is more than anything rooted in their own land, in their territory. It's a territorial identity – where the Hungarian town of Komárom still largely belongs but not the rest of Hungary.

The Komárno Slovaks also take pride in their local identity, albeit in a different way. They praise their own open-mindedness, their own tolerance. Here is what Božena Ebertová (47) told me:

> B.E. There is a difference [here as opposed to the rest of the country.] There has to be more tolerance here since we live right at the border and we are used to encountering other nations and we have to solve this communication problem, especially me since I don't speak good Hungarian. This means that we always find a way to say what we want to say or to answer them if they ask something. When I know that they speak some Slovak, I try to help them and to tell them or show it to them, and they are very sweet and thankful when we manage to understand each other. So here there is more tolerance. [. . .] These border towns are, I don't know if you could say cosmopolitan because they are small, but there is more open-mindedness.

The major inconvenience of this rooted-in-the-ground identity is that these Komárno Hungarians cannot move at all: even the rest of Slovakia is foreign country for them because people don't speak Hungarian there, while they don't speak Slovak; so they could not possibly live there.

Unsurprisingly, the Slovak Hungarian interviewees were not at ease when asked to define the « real », symbolical border, as opposed to the state border. Since it is nowadays truly unthinkable and completely taboo that Southern Slovakia should go back to Hungary, the ideal situation for them would be if there was no border. With Schengen, the state border is much less present, which is psychologically pleasing to the Slovak Hungarians (even though most of them, as they told me, in fact hardly ever go to Hungary.) That is no doubt why they are so pro-European.

Conclusion

Overall, what this oral history study shows is that the consequential nationality affirmation policy of the communist regime has had lasting, mildy positive but also negative, effects. The « advantages » of communism I referred to point to the « democratic » respect of Hungarian identity, as in this interview where Gottwald was described as an emblematic « democratic president », and to a minimal integration. On the other hand, the communist regime did not offer any alternative or improvement to the nationality policy as it was practiced in the democratic interwar period under the influence of US President Woodrow Wilson's 1918 Fourteen Points on democracy and self-determination, policy whose utter failure largely led to the dismantlement of Czechoslovakia in 1938-1939.

Under the pretence of pursuing a « democratic » policy and thus of ensuing a reassuring continuity, the communist policy towards Slovak Hungarians captured the « hidden transcripts »[7] of Slovak Hungarians and of Czechoslovaks in general through the Slovak Hungarian issue, insofar as it was accomplished in the name of a historical, core value of the country.[8] Czechoslovak communism appropriated for itself, reshaped and instrumentalized nationalism or nationalist feelings in a radically different way in Komárno as opposed to České Velenice – where it had simply encouraged xenophobia towards Germans/Austrians. This pacification of the Hungarian question in Slovakia before 1989 thus historically points us to yet another source of ideological success of the communist regime in the national sphere and to yet another key to its decades-long stability.

But the consequences today of this instrumentalization are not necessarily amusing : this policy based on imposing seclusion and self-affirming isolation, leading to parochialism and social fragmentation, both through « hard » (physical violence) and « soft » (self-appropriation of the rule) power also led to the construction of a « nationality prison », to a situation in which an individual core « Hungarian » identity in Slovakia can prove to be a tenacious and one-dimensional mental fixation – which is a much more dubious heritage. The mental/cultural/linguistic barrier constructed by the Slovak Hungarian minority around itself is all the harder to shake that it is now self-inflicted in good faith (we live in democracy) and thus unackowledged and unreflected.

It is of course true that the Slovak state is often behaving in an unacceptable way towards the Hungarian minority.[9] Slovaks in general certainly tend to overlook the fact that Slovak Hungarians are not Hungarians from Hungary and that fully integrating them would be to the whole state's advantage. Instead, the public debate tends to be dominated by nationalist Slovak political elites (from Bratislava) who often resort to cheap and useless provocations, while nationalist

7 See James Scott, *Domination and the Arts of Resistance. Hidden Transcripts*, New Haven, Yale University Press, 1992.

8 See Muriel Blaive, « La démocratie pour les Tchèques: une légitimité politique et une composante identitaire », *Revue d'études comparatives Est-Ouest*, 1/2003, p. 59-82.

9 See Tomáš Strážay, « Nationalist Populism and Foreign Policy: Focus on Slovak-Hungarian Relations », *Slovak Foreign Policy Affairs*, I/2005, p. 47-60, accessed via www.ceeol.com.

Hungarian politicians (from Budapest) contribute to degrading the situation.[10] Komárno Hungarians and Komárno Slovaks are in a way hostage of nationalist and political issues in Slovak-Hungarian relations which have nothing to do with their local situation and which could give the false impression that daily cohabitation is difficult and tense – whereas it is not.[11]

But the language question does come out of this study as the major problem and the knot symbolizing all the difficulty to deal with the integration of the Hungarian minority in Slovakia. Judging from the development in the past twenty years and from the interviews quoted here, one cannot be but pessimistic or at least sceptical concerning the future : it certainly doesn't look as if younger Hungarian generations are going to master Slovak increasingly better. It cannot be denied that both Slovak and Hungarian are complicated languages, too, rendering cross-learning difficult. But as long as Slovak Hungarians don't know Slovak properly, they will continue being prisoners of their own territory (they cannot move anywhere else in Slovakia) and they will continue living withdrawn from the majority Slovak society.

What can be done? Supposing English should be made a second official language in Slovakia, the interviews show that communication would greatly improve between the two communities. If the symbolic linguistic rivalry could be bypassed and neutralized in this way, a priori mistrust and suspicion would be more easily overcome and more friendships could be concluded – as happens when Slovak and Slovak Hungarians meet abroad. Such a « solution » is probably not realistic ; but it might provide food for thought and help pointing to the fact that the open confrontation (« learn Slovak or be condemned to live outside Slovak society ») is a good solution neither for Slovaks nor for Slovak Hungarians.

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10 Sociologist Tomáš Strážay analyzed the nationalist-populist features in both the Slovak and Hungarian political discourses at the beginning of the 2000s, showing that populism and populist techniques of communication with the electorate are by no means limited to so-called extreme parties but are widely shared by parties members of the governmental coalition. The author shows, among others in the case of the failed attempt by Slovak Hungarian politicians to create a « Komárno County », that symbols connected with national/ethnic identity have been instrumentalized by the Slovak and Hungarian political elites to impact the bilateral relations between Slovakia and Hungary and to influence domestic politics. He points out to the ambivalence between « nation state » (defined either by the citizens in one particular state or by one ethnic group that dominates the state) and « national interest » (defined either as interests of the state defined by citizenship or by the interests of the dominant ethnic community.) Bilateral relations involving ethnically mixed states can thus become very tricky. See Tomáš Strážay, « Nationalist Populism and Foreign Policy: Focus on Slovak-Hungarian Relations », *Slovak Foreign Policy Affairs*, I/2005, p. 47-60, accessed via www.ceeol.com.

11 Slovak historian Elena Mannová has pointed out in the Komárno case already for the prewar period the discrepancy between the grassroot population, who was experiencing the interethnicity without major problem, and the political elite in terms of nationalistic language. See Elena Mannová, « 'Ale teraz je dobrý Slovák.' Vplyv novej štátnej hranice na etnické vzťahy v Lučenci a Komárne (1918-1938) », in Ivan Kamenec, Elena Mannová, Eva Kowalská (eds), *Historik v čase a priestore : laudatio Ľubomírovi Liptákovi*, Bratislava, Historický ústav Slovenskej akadémie vied, 2000, p. 53-62.

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Theoretical Approaches to Sustainable Development

Maria Patocskai

Introduction

The Earth is afflicted by a series of environmental, economic and social crises interconnected and strengthening one another. We must accept the fact that we are living in a global crisis, the solution to which can not be found in merely the elimination of environmental destruction.

There seems to be several alternatives for dealing with the serious problems of our planet, but it is the notion of sustainable development that is the sole ethical and feasible option both for us and our children. The implementation of sustainable development is thought to be a great challenge for humankind, so some people consider it utopian, impossible to be reached.

This publication seeks to address the problem of sustainable development. By the help of the holistic approach the interconnected constituent parts and elements are scrutinised. The author tries to draw attention to the interrelated causes leading to the global crisis of today, and as a policy for solving the problem suggests returning to conventional values and way of life.

The holistic approach

The ecosystem that is all the living things in an area and the way they affect one another and the environment is a delicately balanced system. Its constituent parts have always been developing in connection with one another. Although society economy and the environment are separate units their inter-independence has become so intense that we consider them an indivisible entity.

The ecosystem, being an indivisible entity can be dealt with and got to know only by a holistic approach.

The constituent parts of the ecosystem depend on one another in a different way. Society and economy rely on the environment, without which they can not exist. That is why the prosperity of economy and well-being of society are closely related to the state of the environment.

In the course of human history until the great geographical discoveries and the industrial revolution, societies and their economies were subordinated to the environment. People used the environment in a sustainable way, not depleting its natural resources or damaging it accepting the fact that they depend on it. After the industrial revolution economy took precedence over nature. The arising local environmental problems gradually became widespread resulting in the global crises of today.

As the connection between social, economic and environmental constituent parts became more complex the problems arising were getting more complicated.

Because of the magnitude and complexity of the crisis the formerly appropriate analytic approach has been unsuccessful, a new way of thinking has to be resorted to the holistic approach.

In the era of Newton and Descartes the analytic method, considering phenomena in detail, ignoring the parts as a whole was a proper tool in understanding the world and its relatively small - scale problems in comparison with those of today.

The analytic attitude meant that having understood the laws of nature, people endeavoured to subjugate it mercilessly, subordinating everything to their needs. This way of thinking unsettled the balance among the constituent parts and resulted in severe damage to the ecosystem.

This perspective was unwilling to make a statement in the light of new findings in order to form public thinking on important issues.

In the course of history a great deal of scientific knowledge has been accumulated, people are well informed, well -versed in a lot of fields, but they are less wise than they used to be. Although advanced technology has made our lives easier, we are unable to take advantage of it prudently, environment consciously. We do take pride in calling ourselves Homo sapiens - wise man. However, considering the present social, economic and environmental difficulties of the Earth I am not convinced that sapiens is the appropriate adjective.

The analytic approach - drawing conclusions by examining parts of a whole system separately - is outdated nowadays in relation to the ecosystem. It has turned out that the whole is more than the sum of the parts. If we apply the analytic approach to environmental, social and economic spheres we will draw false, misleading conclusions.

There have developed such systems that do not function as parts independent of one another. The ecosystem is such a one. Its elements form an integrity and we can not remove any single part of it. In case we do so, the system is not the same as it was before. For example, if species become extinct a more narrow genetic diversity causes impaired resilience in ecosystems and sooner or later they will be unable to respond to disturbances or damage.

The education system has responsibility in forming the holistic view in the young generation. The United Nations World Commission on Environment and Development has suggested that the holistic perspective be included in the methodical requirements.

The present Hungarian educational system fails to meet this requirement. The natural environment is not included in the curriculum as an individual subject but it is taught in connection with various science subjects, such as Chemistry, Biology, Physics, Geography. This education policy does not help students perceive the surrounding world as a whole understanding its complexity what is more, know on sustainability is not at all or hardly included in the curriculum.

The analytic educational view is closely related to the discipline oriented teaching of the subjects. Each subject is taught as if the aim of education were to train would be scientists on that particular field.

Because of the analytic educational method and for age consideration, students do not understand relevant correlations, they are lost in details. As the proverb says, 'Because of the trees they are unable to see the forest'. Those who fail to grasp the main points, the gist can not make prudent, responsible decisions for the sake of present and future generation.

The development of connection among systems

Great inventions have had a powerful influence on human development. The advancement of technology enabled man to change his way of life. In the course of human history there were eras of quick progress followed by periods of stagnation or slow development. The present level of technology and the standard of living have been reached as a result of alternate succession of those periods.

Man, the evolution of whom is thought to have started 3.2 million years ago, is primarily a natural being. At the beginning of his history he lived in harmony with nature sustaining his life with primitive tools and by the use of fire. In spite of taking advantage of natural resources, he did not do lasting damage to nature due to the facts that (1) rather few people lived at that time on the Earth, (2) his needs were on a low level and (3) his technology was environmentally friendly.

It was agriculture that irrevocably changed the relationship between man and nature. For the sake of more efficient use of land man gave up his roaming, collecting way of life about 10 thousand years ago. He grew crops, raised livestock and tilled the land with the help of his domesticated animals. An increase in food production resulted in population growth.

The formation of the first cities about 6 thousand years ago was a real milestone in human history. These settlements not only rendered greater security to their inhabitants but also made it possible for division of labour to come into existence. Superfluous food was sold on market, various trades developed.

Agriculture and the formation of cities had a greater impact on the environment but not to the extent that they unsettled its balance. These societies were sustainable systems as their members lived in harmony with nature.

People living close to nature were deeply religious. They accepted their inferiority to nature and strived to meet the requirements of the supernatural. Their daily activities were carried out with reverence for the Earth.

An expand in population and higher consumption levels due to increasing production as synergy factors resulted in greater impacts on the environment.

The history of the uninhabited Easter Islands is a good example what happens when people deplete natural resources causing irreversible ecological damage.

By the advent of the intellectual development of Renaissance and due to the great historical discoveries modern Europe was evolved from the Middle Ages. There was a golden age in the development of natural sciences.

It was more than two hundred years ago that the industrial revolution started with the invention of the steam engine. Since that time technology has been developing in great leaps, in a non-linear way.

Industry became the driving force of economy. Mass production made a lot of clever machines available for an increasingly growing number of people. Although our life has become easier, we enjoy the benefits technological advancement can offer, our view on natural environment has changed for the worse.

Despite being well-informed, having acquired a great deal of knowledge we lost our wisdom towards nature. We do not respect it any longer we want to exploit, subjugate it. Obsessed with economic growth, ever increasing production, luxurious consumption patterns, we deplete finite natural recourses causing irreversible ecological damage.

In our materialistic world money became the centre of life. For most people spiritual things have no value. Many of us in developed countries are children of a new age, the era of consumer society, in which the sole aim of human life is consumption, a superfluous one well over people's staple needs. We are in a vicious circle. We work hard so that we can earn more money and spend more. Spending more, we have to work even harder. The treadmill keeps revolving, and the result is not increased happiness but more stress and less free time.

Instead of self-actualisation and personal development a lot of people resort to senseless hoarding of material goods or even worse, become alcoholics, dug addicts, workaholics or shopaholics.

Human consciousness has not developed in parallel with technology. According to László E. (1998), today´s man sill has consciousness of the Stone Age.

It has not become evident for most people that the Earth has limited natural resources. We are living our wasteful life under the illusion of having unlimited resources and opportunities. For most of us convenience given by advanced technology has priority over environmentally friendly consumption patterns.

There have been major changes and revolutions of different kinds in human history. The next one should be the revolution of consciousness. Unless this paradigm shift takes place, we will not be able to address the global crises of the Earth.

The concept of sustainable development

The unprecedented economic boost following the Second World War caused more and more frequent and far-reaching environmental damage not only on regional but also on global level. It soon became evident that economic, social and ecological problems seem closely entwined.

Civil movements, like The Green, hippies emerged to alleviate the crisis.

International organisations, such as World Commission on Environment and Development addressed the problems over space and time as international effort was needed because of its global nature.

The foundation of the Roman Club in 1968 was a milestone in this struggle. Progressive thinking scientists committed to saving the Earth published their first report in 1972. It included serious environmental pollution, the depletion of natural resources, difficulties in supplying the ever increasing world s population with food and water. They had a rather pessimistic view on our future realising that economic growth and higher consumption levels would result in irreversible environmental damage. They draw attention to the fact that our natural resources are limited. According to them the only solution to the problem is a restriction in economic growth. This view has not been shared by the world s politicians.

Mankind and Biosphere Programme launched by UNESCO scrutinised the connection between human activity and natural environment. It was accepted in 1970.

At the United Nations Conference on Mankind and Environment, held in Stockholm in 1972, besides the problems of natural and man-made environment other issues like the widening gap between developing and developed countries, the arm- race, and the consequences of local wars were also raised.

In 1984 the World Commission on Environment and Development was formed.

Harlem Brundtland, the Norwegian prime minister became its president.

In 1987 the Brundtland Commission in ‘Our Common Future’ report formulated the most often- quoted definition of sustainable development as development that ‘meets the needs of the present without compromising the ability of future generations to meet their own needs.’

In 1992 the United Nations Environment and Development Conference held in Rio de Janerio focused on the reconciliation of economic and environmental interests.

Five years after the Rio conference it became evident that few of the goals set by the Rio conference were realised. That is why in 2002 a further United Nations World Conference on Sustainable Development was held in Johannesburg. The Rio principles were reinforced and in addition to the previously discussed environmental and economic aspects the Johannesburg conference approached the social component of sustainable development as well.

Out of the three "inter-independent and mutually reinforcing pillars" of sustainable development the environmental one in Stockholm the economic one in Rio de Janeiro and the social one in Johannesburg was accentuated.

The definition "sustainable development" seemingly consists of two contradictory words. Sustainability in the ecological perspective means preservation of the ecosystem. Development refers to the economy meeting the needs of the ever-increasing world population. From the aspect of the new paradigm development means qualitative not quantitative changes.

According to the present economic model and market mechanisms countries try to increase their production and consumption levels. This economic policy leads to over-exploitation of renewable resource systems and depletion. As a result of this policy economic, environmental and social crises irreversible ecological damage are bound to happen.

The main question is how sustainable systems can be reached. The present unsustainable economy is irreconcilable with environmental sustainability. 'Economic development can not be sustained on a finite planet, so we want to sustain something that can not be sustained' (Hajnal 2006: 116).

The solution to the problem is a new concept of development. Development should no longer mean economic growth or increasing consumption but an utter change of view, the evolution of human mind for the sake of saving our planet and the human civilisation on it. For this goal we have to restrain consumption, we should lead an environmentally-conscious way of life. It includes human activity that uses nature's resources at a rate at which they can be replenished naturally. On personal level we should save renewable and no renewable natural resources, and reduce environmental pollution by using renewable energy, recycling, and collecting rubbish selectively.

Sustainability by the conventional way of thinking

The concept of sustainable development is considered by a lot of people as a new paradigm. But if we scrutinise the possible journey towards sustainable development, we come to understand that we will have to return to our forefathers' view of life and worldly wisdom.

Our ancestors lived in harmony with nature. Their experience and knowledge were passed down from generation to generation. This holistic knowledge made it possible for them to live an environmentally-conscious life. Their societies sheltered their members, and people used natural resources only to the extent that they did not unsettle the balance of nature.

Because of the technological advancement commencing with the industrial revolution and the consumer society in its wake the conventional way of thinking, this environmentally-friendly mentality was shattered.

With the advent of globalization 'when available goods and services or social and cultural influences gradually become similar in all parts of the world' cultural diversity is declining.

Fewer and fewer people live in accordance with the conventional, holistic knowledge of nature. Indigenous people on remote islands in the South Pacific Ocean or in the Amazon rainforest and perhaps elderly rural population in the Carpathian Basin have such common knowledge. The disappearance of it is a great loss as this collective wisdom would help us solve serious ecological, economic and social problems.

Summary

It is the greatest challenge for humanity in the course of its history to achieve economic, ecological and social sustainability. If we fail to do so, the present crisis will be anterior. Our civilisation is at stake.

We have our attitude to nature. We have to strive for distributional equity, just provision of social services, gender equity all over the world in order to raise the quality of human life on our planet.

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Criteria for the Selection of Tasks Increasing the Motivation of Young Learners

Katarína Cádrová

1. Motivation

"Motivation is like food for the brain. You cannot get enough in one sitting. It needs continual and regular top ups."

(Peter Davies)

The term *motivation* in general means the movement, challenge or encouragement. An instinct of every one of us is to motivate or to be motivated and this moves us ahead. Motivation becomes an extremely important factor in education to achieve good results for students and teachers at the same time. However, without sufficient motivation not much learning is likely to be done. When we look for some ways how to motivate our students, we are often influenced by those who have motivated us or who are famous for motivating the others. In many cases we try to study some didactic books or manuals to help us find some tricks or techniques not to bore the students in our classrooms.

Motivation influences learners in complex ways. For example, in a single situation there may be numerous factors motivating learners to be fully involved and participate in the process and an even greater number of factors motivating them to avoid to be a participant of the process. Especially, in teaching foreign languages we need to pay a great amount of our time to motivate students to be involved and participate in the learning process during lessons.

There are many experts and writers dealing with motivation. Jeremy Harmer says, '*Motivation is some kind of internal drive that encourages somebody to pursue a course of action*' (Harmer 1991:3). According to him if we perceive a goal (that is something we wish to achieve) and if that goal is sufficiently attractive, we will be strongly motivated to do whatever is necessary to reach that goal. Goals can be different, for example if we would like to own a new compact disc player, a bike or a horse we may work overtime in order to earn the necessary money.

Douglas Brown also writes about motivation. He defines it like this: '*Motivation is commonly thought of an inner drive, impulse, emotion, or desire that moves one to a particular action*' (Brown 1987: 114). Another person who writes about students´ motivation is Haycraft John. His definition of motivation is: '*Motivation* *can be summed up, briefly, as the student´s desire and need to learn – the driving force that makes him work hard, pay attention, and so on'* (Haycraft 1978: 6). All these definitions have one thing in common that motivation is an inner power to achieve certain success. However, we can say that students have different types of motivation, but the highly motivated ones do better than those ones without any motivation.

In general, the source of motivation can be categorized as extrinsic motivation (where factors outside the task play a major part) and intrinsic motivation (willing to learn because the task is the personal interest). Both of these play an important part in classroom motivation and teacher influence.

1.1. Extrinsic motivation

Extrinsically motivated behaviours are carried out in anticipation of a reward from outside and beyond the self. Typical extrinsic rewards are money, prizes, grades, and even certain types of positive feedback. We also consider behaviours initially to avoid the punishment as extrinsically motivated (Brown 1987: 38). For example, a student who does his homework only because he is afraid of the parents´ punishment for not performing is extrinsically motivated. He does the work in order to avoid sanctions. Similarly, a student who does the work because she personally believes it is valuable for her chosen career is also extrinsically motivated because she also does it for its instrumental value rather than because she finds it interesting. Both examples involve instrumentalities, personal endorsement and a feeling of choice, and represent intentional behavior, but the two types of extrinsic motivation vary in their relative autonomy.

Extrinsic motivation drives us to do the things for tangible rewards or pressures rather than for the fun of it. We cannot reach many sources of extrinsic motivation to influence our students in classrooms e.g. their wishes and desires to be successful in external exams. According to Penny Ur there are some sources which are affected by teacher action. Success and its reward '*is the learners´ own awareness of successful performance*' (Ur 2004: 278), and the teacher makes sure that learners are aware of it. Failure and its penalties is a part of the teacher's job as well. We should let our students know when they are failing. For some ones it is a big motivation to start again and the others are disappointed by their personal failure. Authoritative demands are also a part of teachers' attitude. Often we need to use the commands and orders to push the students to work. Tests, competitions as well as group contests are highly motivating factors, especially when students want to do their best. If there is not too much stress put on learners, we can get the enjoyable result of it.

1.2. Intrinsic motivation

Intrinsically motivated activities are ones for which there is no apparent reward except the activity itself. People seem to engage in the activities for their own sake and not because they lead to an extrinsic reward. Intrinsically motivated behaviours are aimed at bringing about certain internally rewarding consequences, namely, feelings of competence and self-determination (Deci 1975: 23).

We can undoubtedly say that what happens in the classroom is very important for our students. The main target of the teacher is to create an environment in which students are willing to do their best or to reach their personal goals. There are many factors affecting intrinsic motivation of students. In this chapter we are going to write about the significant factors which promote intrinsic motivation.

1.2.1. Challenge

Challenge is one of the most powerful factors influencing intrinsic motivation. We consider this as an individual factor because students can be challenged without involving other people. They are challenged when they set their activities towards achieving personal goals in such a way that attainment of the goals is uncertain - when neither success nor failure is guaranteed. As students work towards these goals, they are motivated to receive feedback and feel that the eventual success will enhance their self-esteem.

1.2.2. Curiosity

Curiosity is the second factor influencing individual intrinsic motivation. There is something in the physical environment which attracts the student´s attention. Learners are more motivated by curiosity than by learning tasks which are just presented them as simple facts or knowledge. We distinguish two types of curiosity:

- *sensory curiosity*: physical factors such as changes in tone of voice, light, or sound disturb the learner, for example, the teacher changes her tone of voice to catch students' attention.
- *cognitive curiosity*: we make a student wonder about something, for example, history study books make students wonder what the life was like in a certain period in the past.

1.2.3. Control

In general we have the basic intuition to control what happens to us. Also it is an individual factor because we feel in control and responsible without other person's involment. Control to intrinsic motivation is influenced by *cause-and-effect relationship* in order to obtain something if certain steps have been taken before, by *powerful effects* (to feel in control), and *free choice* to allow students to choose the way how they will learn and also what they want to study. They will feel in control of their learning.

1.2.4. Fantasy

Another factor which influences our individual motivation is fantasy. Learners use mental images of things and situations which are not present to stimulate their behaviour. Every one of us has a great imagination and fantasy which we sometimes share with the others. Our fantasy is in connection with challenege, curiosity and our feeling in control. How to use fantasy in learning? The most important is to make a game out of learning. Building games around learning activities helps many students to go through difficult topics to study. For example, in many language classes the most difficult task for learners is vocabulary and using particular games makes vocabulary teaching easier. Secondly, we should encourage our students to imagine themselves using the learned knowledge in real life environment.

1.2.5. Interpersonal factors: competition, cooperation, recognition

Competition is one of the interpersonal factors. It occurs naturally and for some students is more important than for others. It is obvious that learners like comparing between each other and the feeling being the best of all or better than others gives them an incredible power to move themselves ahead and improve. On the other side some of them feel very disappointed in the case of losing and they suffer. However, losing the game is also motivation not to give up and carry on. For example a student graduates with a high mark to get to the university by his choice.

A second interpersonal factor in intrinsic motivation is cooperation. It occurs naturally as well as competition and for some students is more important than for others. Students feel satisfied by helping others achieve their goals. In classroom environment it is very useful to use pair work, group studies and team plays. Learners learn how to use their skills to work together which is a good predisposition for real life. For example, 'If we all work on this project, we might win.'

The last of interpersonal factors is recognition. Learners feel satisfaction when others recognize and appreciate their accomplishments. To achieve this accomplishment the process or the result must be visible and recognizable to others. There are some differences between recognition and competition. Recognition does not involve a comparison to someone else's performance and competition does not require the approval of others. For example, a list of students who did an outstanding work for their school appears in the local newspaper.

2. Factors affecting the motivation of young learners

Children learn the foreign language in a natural way which is similar to their mother tongue acquisition. If we want them to learn something they must be motivated. This mainly depends on the teacher's role and style. Of course all teachers try hard to create the conditions in which students do significantly better but on the other side we know that students sometimes succeed in the least favourable conditions. Students bring a lot of their motivation into the classrooms, but successful or unsuccessful language learning is influenced by a number of other different factors. Such factors are divided into subjective and objective ones influencing the teaching process.

2.1. Subjective factors

Subjective factors include the teacher/lecturer/educator and the learner/student/pupil. In the case of the teacher there are several facts which play an important role in the teaching process such as his/her educational background, personality, socio-economic level, mastery of English, theoretical level and interests. On the other side we consider the learner's age, native language, education, socio-economic level, intellectual capabilities, previous experience in foreign language learning, personality and language needs.

2.1.1. The role of the teacher

At first we are going to deal with the teacher as a *controller*, where the teacher controls not only what students do, but also when they speak and what language forms they use. The teacher must create the climate in which students feel comfortable, do not hesitate to speak and use the foreign language and react spontaneously. It means that students should use as much as possible the language they are learning, because they are the people who need the practice, not the teacher. Harmer comments on this problem by the words: '*In general terms, therefore, a good teacher maximises Student Talking Time and minimises Teacher Talking Time*'(Harmer 1984: 4).

Good teachers should also talk about interesting things or tell stories which will attract students' interest, wish and desire to learn harder. It is the best way how to attract and simultaneously to motivate students.

Besides the controller role the teacher has also the role of a *director*. In this case it is the teacher's job to keep the teaching and learning process flowing smoothly and efficiently. The teacher should lead the students into the real-life of improvisation, using everyday social communicative English; and these events bring the reward of successful learning.

Another important teacher's role is being a *manager*. We can say that this role of the teacher is one of the most difficult and important. It is worth saying that the success of a particular activity depends on a good organisation and the students' familiarity with what their task is. The success of a good lesson has its roots in the precise lesson planning and organisation. The main aim of the teacher is to give clear instructions to the students what they are going to read, write and talk about, then to tell them how to do certain activities and at the end to get the feedback when they finish.

A less directive or managing role is the role of a *facilitator.* It is a process of making learning for students easier, helping them to get rid of readblocks, to find shortcuts and their own pathways to successful learning. Someimes it is better when teachers just watch and listen to what is happening in their class. However the teacher´s help is essential, especially when activity is not going smoothly. Harmer comments this by the following words : '*If someone in a roleplay cannot think of what to say, or if a discussion begins to dry up, the teacher will have to decide if the activity should be stopped-because the topic has run out of steam or if careful prompting can get it going again*' (Harmer 1998: 95). Facilitating is very, as with correction, teachers should do it sensitively and effectively.

The teacher´s role as *resource* is also significant. His function here is to offer help when it is needed. The teacher plays a part of an adviser or counsellor. We can say that there are different situations when students need and expect help from the teacher e.g. a student was ill and he needs a consultation, or students have a writing task, they work individually and a teacher should support them only when they need the help.

2.1.2. The young learner

Some children learn more than one language from birth or from a very young age. These children can be said to have two mother tongues: neither language is foreign to that child. Children should, if possible start learning foreign language as early as possible. The older they get the more difficult it is for them to learn and produce the specific sounds every language has. However, most experts agree that the earlier a child is introduced to a second language, the greater the chances are that the child will become truly proficient in the language.

We are convinced that the more years a child can devote to learning a language, the more competent he or she will become. Regardless, introducing children to alternative ways of expressing themselves and to different cultures generally broadens their outlook and gives them the opportunity to communicate with many more people. Definitelly, there are some teaching differences between certain learning levels. Especially young learners´ teachers use various methods and ways and it is easier to interest and motivate young learners than adults. Children can learn much about English by learning the structure of their mother tongue or other languages. Common vocabulary also helps children learn the meaning of new words in English. Basically they learn mainly the names and titles of objects and people.

2.2. Objective factors

In this part we will closely specify different objective factors. The most important ones such as goals, methods, conditions and the content might also have an impact on the teaching and learning process.

2.2.1. Objectives

People learn English for many and extremely varied reasons. Taking these reasons into consideration as well as language acquisition needs is crucial for a successful learning experience when planning a lesson or individual instruction. This is probably as important for the student as for the teacher. When a student understands his/her reasons for learning English well, he/she can better plan his/her learning strategy. In the classroom, he/she can help the teacher identify needs and desires. If the student is learning alone, he/she can find learning materials based on a better knowledge of what his/her objectives are. '*Objectives as a didactic category are an expression of the social needs and general abilities of the learner. They are an intersection of social and personal needs – they reify them*' (Repka – Halušková 2005: 13).

According to English language teaching we use three types of objectives: communicative, cognitive and formative. *Communicative objectives* have their main function in the communicativeness of the language. The aim is to achieve the learner's profeciency level in speaking. *Cognitive objectives* such as a set of cognitive skills (analogy, induction, deduction, comparison, contrast, evaluation, etc.) should be developed by the teacher through the teaching and learning process. *Formative objectives* are connected with the education of good citizens. The teacher should always remember that they also develop social, ethical, moral, cultural and personal qualities of learners.

2.2.2. Contents

The content of a language course should harmonize with objectives, structure and quantity. The structure of the content (Repka – Halušková 2005: 14). consists of

(1) Communicative skills (listening, speaking, reading, writing)

(2) Language means, or language exponents – linguistic forms of realisation, phonology, vocabulary, grammar, together with linguistic rules and terminology.

(3) Situations of language use, or communicative situations, which constitute the platform for interaction processes.

(4) Information on culture (spiritual and material values, social behaviour, way of life, literature) and realia.

It is very important for teachers to choose the right contents of the language lessons for different age levels. On the other side it is also very difficult, complicated and it contains a certain amount of subjectivity. The overal programme of what is to be taught and learned is set in the syllabus, and each course is equipped with materials e.g. textbooks, audio cassettes or computer programmes.

According to Brown (1987) we use a term *input* in this case which means the language that learner hears and reads

- roughly-tuned input = slightly above the students´ level, students can more or less understand it
- finely-tuned input = language is precisely selected to be at exactly the students´ level, selected for conscious learning.

2.2.3. Methods

Choosing the right language learning method is essential to success in learning a new language. The decision to learn a new language is very exciting, but all too often we lose our focus or get discouraged while looking around for the right method, or even worse, waste time or money working with the wrong method. Understanding how we learn and how a program will be teaching can make a big difference in how much success we have in this new endeavour.

Everyone is different. Everyone has different resources, strengths and needs. The teacher should be aware of whether the chosen method is appropriate to the content or interesting for the students. Besides all the classroom didactic methods there are also many different ways how students learn a foreign language, e.g. doing all these activities in a foreign language: talking to friends, listening to music, writing to penfriends, being a member of language club, watching films, memorizing texts, reading magazines, teaching classmates, etc.

Young children in learning their first language do a lot of listening before they speak and listening is accompanied by physical responses e.g. reading, grabbing, moving, etc. A lot of teachers associate language with physical activity. The teacher plays the role of the instructor/director of a stage play and students pretend to be actors. This method utilized the imperative mood e.g. Stand up! Close the window! Come here! Sit down!

2.2.4. Conditions

This part of our work is all about the physical environment of the classroom and conditions in which a teacher and students work e.g. lightness/ brightness, the temperature and fresh air, the acoustics, the lines of vision and the layout of the desks or tables.

It is well known that the light in the classroom is a very important factor because too dark classrooms will make gloomy lessons as well as gloomy students. Teachers should move all the pictures that are on the windows and move the furniture to make the best use of the light. On the other hand if the room is too bright, it makes everyone hot and uncomfortable. In this case teachers might ask for blinds, or let students sit out of the direct sunlight. In order to improve the temperature and the freshness of the air we should keep the air in our room circulating. Fresh and pleasant air in the classroom is very significant, because it improves the whole atmosphere and makes learning as well as teaching more comfortable and easier.

It is worth pointing out that the reality when students can clearly see and hear their teachers is very important. Obviously teachers do not want their students to look at the board during the whole lesson, but it is important for them to be able to see brightly and hear clearly without having to strain to do so. The teacher should see everyone's face and speak on the level of voice not to make echos in the classroom.

We know very well that moving people around is much easier than moving desks. Indeed, the informality which results from having to form pairs and groups without shifting desks and tables can be a positive advantage in motivating students and getting them to communicate with each other. We are convinced that convenient and perfect physical conditions enable a pleasant classroom environment both for teaching and learning.

3. Motivating classroom activities

One of the main aims in teaching very young learners is create an enjoyable and successful climate during the lessons for them. Skillful teachers at primary levels know that when children enjoy various learning activities and they are successful in most of them they become highly motivated. There are many language learning activities which are used for both young and adult learners e.g. games, quizes, crosswords, pair works, discussions, etc.According to Satchwell and De Silva (1995) there is a list of activities in Figure 1 that help motivate young learners.

• Opportunities to work in groups
• Pupils are given clear instructions
• A supportive atmosphere is provided, in which children are not affraid to try again and in which they feel to "fail in safety"
• A range of teaching strategies are used including music, role-play, drama, thereby encouraging active participation by pupils
• The pace is appropriate with plenty of opportunities for repetition and practice, but in as many different ways as possible to avoid any possibility of boredom
• The use of extensive stimuli such as objects to handle and make
• The provision of extensive support to aid pupil understanding, including the use of visuals, mime and gesture
• A variety of activities are provided involving the use of rhymes, poems, games and puzzles

Figure 1 Some aspects of ELT that help motivate very young learners (Satchwell and De Silva 1995)

3.1. Games

A game is a structured or semi-structured activity undertaken for enjoyment and also used as educational tools. In the case of language learning games play indirectly a significant role of practical language exercises. Learning through games is interesting, effective and easier. In general children learn well by playing various kinds of games so teachers should prepare productive and task-orientated activities. Children can practise all language skills and improve their vocabulary. It is also important to point out that games can be played by all levels of students. They may be used by beginners, intermediate and advanced learners. They are mainly played in pairs or groups.

In language teaching processes teachers use different kinds of games such as word or story games. Some games may involve comparing and contrasting pictures as well as finding similarities or differences. There are also games which require thinking and active participation. Many games are competitive which is highly motivating for students. It provokes their interest to study harder and be better than the others. The games are often used as warm up activities such as below:

A game – **Guess the person I am thinking of**

Aim of the activity: Students practice asking Yes/No questions to get the right information about an object that the teacher I thinking of.

Skills: Speaking

Controll: Free and guided

Level: All

Time: 10 minutes

Instructions: The teacher writes the name of a person on a piece of paper and keeps it in secret. A group of students use yes/no questions to get some information about the person, the teacher is thinking of. The teacher can answer only ´yes´ or ´no´. The group continues asking unless the teacher's answer is ´no´. Then another group takes turn and carries on asking questions. The team that calls out the right name is winning.

Beginning of the activity

Stage 1: The class is divided into three groups of five people. They are given instructions about the activity.

Stage 2: They are asked to think about some useful questions (2-3 minutes).

3.2. Quizzes

A quiz in language learning is of a great importance. It is a form of game (as individuals or in teams), attempt to answer questions correctly. We can say that quizzes are competitive which increases students´ motivation. Using quizzes during learning process helps students gain a lot of information and new knowledge. The most popular types among learners are General knowledge quizzes. The questions in the knowledge quiz can cover different topics e.g. science, biology, physics, geography, history, etc. Students should not know the questions before so then they discuss or speculate the answers in groups or pairs. We may also say that through various quizzes students can perfectly practise all skills. In conclusion, we would like to say that different types of games as well as quizzes are significant classroom activities, because of providing a challenge and what is more important they stimulate motivation of students.

A quiz – **General knowledge quiz** [1]

Aim of the activity: To answer any questions of facts, Wh-questions, agreeing, disagreeing

Skills: Reading and speaking

Controll: Free

Level: Intermediate

Time: 15 minutes

Materials: A list of questions

The wh-questions of the quiz:

Where does the word 'alphabet' come from? (Greek)

What kind of weather does the Beaufort Scale measure? (wind)

Wich European countries does the Danube flow through? (Germany, Austria, Slovakia, Hungary, Croatia, Serbia, Bulgaria, Romania, Ukraine)

Who was the first man in space? (Yuri Gagarin)

What does NASA stand for? (National Aeronautics and Space Administration)

Who did Adolph Hitler marry? (Eva Braun)

When did Margaret Thatcher become Prime Minister of Britain? (1979)

Which Latin American country did Montezuma II rule in the 16th century? (Mexico)

Who was the youngest American president? (Theodore Roosevelt)

Where is the town of Timbuktu? (Africa)

Instructions: Students read the quiz, make sure they understand all questions, help them with translation if it is needed and then they try to guess the answers. When they have completed the quiz, start the discussion in the whole group about the answers. The teacher should encourage the group to agree or disagree with individual answers, for instance using additional questions:
What do you think?
Do you agree?
Does anybody disagree?

Beginning of the activity

Stage 1: Students are given instructions about the activity. They do the quiz individually (5 minutes)

Stage 2: Students work in one group and give their answers.

Stage 3: Finally the teacher says the correct answers.

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1 SOARS, J.& L., New Headway English Course, Intermediate, Workbook, OUP 1996, p.66

3.3. Crosswords

A crossword is a word puzzle which is usually used as a warm up activity to practice or revise new vocabulary. The aim is to fill squares with letters, forming words (or word phrases) reading from left to right and from top to bottom, by solving clues which lead to the answers. There are topics which include a set of words and they are often connected with the theme of the lessons. Crosswords are useful at any age levels of teaching and learning process. Students practise reading skills, grammar and spelling mainly. This activity can be done individually or in pairs. If teachers like doing crosswords with their students they need to be careful and choose the one which is appropriate for the students' level of English. Otherwise students may lose their motivation for learning and studying becomes more difficult for them. We also know other types of crosswords e.g. crossword forms with vowells filled in, a wordsearch, spelling puzzles, etc. As an example we have chosen our own prepared a wordsearch:

A wordsearch – **School subjects**

Aim of the activity: To revise the vocabulary, practice spelling

Skills: Reading

Controll: Controlled

Level: Beginners

Time: 10 minutes

Materials: a copy of wordsearch

Instructions: The teacher hands out copies to students. They work individually and look for the words of school subjects in the wordsearch.

Beginning of the activity

Stage 1: Students are given copies. They do the wordsearch individually (7-8 minutes)

Stage 2: The teacher monitors.

Stage 3: At the end they check the answers with the partners and then with the teacher.

A WORDSEARCH

M	I	G	E	O	G	R	A	P	H	Y	R	O	J	A	J	O	X	V
B	D	R	A	W	I	N	G	P	U	R	P	L	L	Y	E	W	O	L
S	P	K	U	T	A	C	V	K	X	V	E	A	I	X	D	T	C	F
A	H	O	R	B	I	O	L	O	G	Y	C	I	T	V	V	P	E	R
Z	Y	P	F	Y	X	W	A	C	G	K	A	C	E	K	D	A	F	E
K	S	T	A	S	R	D	V	N	T	R	E	S	R	Y	V	D	P	N
L	I	W	H	I	J	F	I	R	S	E	G	R	A	M	M	A	R	C
E	C	V	T	C	D	G	A	J	Y	M	N	R	T	J	V	D	T	H
Y	S	I	A	P	N	A	H	B	E	T	A	E	U	A	M	S	P	R
A	N	N	Y	I	P	Y	B	I	G	E	L	O	R	A	A	B	F	C
G	A	S	C	H	O	O	L	S	S	U	B	J	E	C	T	S	M	N
Q	U	E	B	U	P	F	A	E	E	T	F	E	P	M	H	C	A	E
K	A	T	T	A	E	U	J	U	K	D	O	L	A	I	E	K	C	E
C	C	H	E	M	I	S	T	R	Y	S	S	R	P	S	M	I	G	N
O	B	Z	A	L	C	H	A	N	I	V	B	A	Y	D	A	O	N	G
I	G	R	C	I	V	I	C	S	H	Q	G	D	Q	K	T	B	I	L
X	A	A	A	X	I	H	L	U	E	O	Y	A	I	T	I	V	D	I
P	E	C	N	E	I	C	S	P	S	P	M	L	R	R	C	W	A	S
A	O	R	G	N	O	E	K	A	C	I	P	V	J	Z	S	C	E	H
K	S	L	O	V	A	K	L	A	N	G	U	A	G	E	F	G	R	E

Words: Physics, Biology, French, English, Slovak language, Gym, Civics, Chemistry, History, Art, Singing, PE, Literarute, Grammar, Mathematics, Science, Writing, Reading, Drawing

3.4. Role plays

Role plays are another type of highly motivating classroom activities. It is an activity when students take the part of a particular person. For instance, they can act as a customer, a doctor, a shop-assistant, a waiter, a member of family, etc.. The students take part in different situations such as at business meetings, shops, hotels, airports, even more; and acting out a conversation. It is not written activity so students try to imagine themselves in English spoken environment and solve the everyday life problems. In some cases they might prepare the questions or notes. Role plays give the students a chance to improve their fluency, through a wide range of language, in a variety of situations and with different speakers. They are used in pairs mainly and teachers monitor the process.

A role play – **In the family**

Aim of the activity: To practise everyday language

Skills: Speaking and listening

Controll: Controlled

Level: Pre-Intermediate

Time: 10 minutes

Materials: Student's sheet of role

Instructions: The teacher divides the classsroom into the pairs / Student A and Student B/ and hands out copies of roles. They work in pairs and practise the conversation.

Beginning of the activity

Stage 1: Students are given copies. They read their roles (2 minutes)

Stage 2: They practise the conversation according to their role and the teacher monitor.

Student A - sister/brother

Your parents promised to give you and your sister/brother pocket money if you share more housework – washing the dishes, shopping, vacuum cleaning, cleaning the stairs in your block of flats and helping with cooking. You would not mind shopping, vacuum cleaning, but you definitely don't want to wash the dishes and clean the stairs in your block of flats! You already do some things like watering the flowers and going out with your dog. You would like to take turns especially with the dog, because it is quite hard work.

You start!

Student A - sister/brother

Your parents promised to give you and your sister/brother pocket money if you share more housework – washing the dishes, shopping, vacuum cleaning, cleaning the stairs in your block of flats and helping with cooking. You do not mind washing the dishes if your sister/brother agrees with taking turns. You definitely do not want to clean the stairs outside and helping with cooking! You already do some housework like taking the rubbish out and helping mum with washing. But you definitely want more pocket money

………………

3.5. Discussions

Discussions belong to those classroom activities that also develop students´ motivation. Through them students can practise their speaking as well as express their own thoughts and opinions about certain matters. We may say that discussions with a class can often be successful. Students are interested in subjects and they like to express their own ideas even if they do not agree or dislike something. This kind of activity creates the need to speak and communicate.

Discussions can be led in individual groups in which students have better chance to speak. We can also communicate with the whole group but during a 45-minute lesson not all students might get a chance to speak. Discussions are good from pre-intermediate levels where students can put into practice already learned vocabulary, phrases and grammar structures. In the low classes beginners may have problems to express themselves. Such activities are fully recommended in intermediate and advanced classes.

A discussion – **Things you like and hate**[2]

Aim of the activity: To practise everyday language

Skills: Reading, speaking and listening

Controll: Controlled

Level: Pre-Intermediate

Time: 15 minutes

Materials: Worksheets

Instructions: The teacher divides the classsroom into the groups of four students and hands out the worksheets. They work in groups and discuss the situations. They should think about the activities in the box and divide them into fur groups: those they love, those they like, those they do not like and those they hate. Then they work with other three students, compare their answer and tell them why they like, hate or do not mind these things.

Beginning of the activity

Stage 1: Students are given instructions about the activity and are divided into groups

Stage 2: They read the worksheets (2 minutes)

Stage 3: They discuss and compare their answers in the groups.

WORKSHEET

- getting letters from very old friends
- people arriving to stay with you unexpectedly
- sending and receiving greetings cards
- children you don't know talking to you in public places
- phoning companies (airlines,hotels,etc.) to get information
- walking into a roomful of strangers at a party
- meeting your old school teachers
- receiving phone calls late at night
- having a party with all your family and relations
- making appointments with the doctor, dentist, etc.
- compalining about the meal in a restaurant
- standing next to strangers in a crowded train or lift

2 TRUE TO LIFE Pre-Intermediate, Cambridge University Press, 1995

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The 2nd International Scientific Conference on 'Social Phenomena and Changes' organized by J. Selye University

The J. Selye University in Komarno under the auspices of its Rector, doc. RNDr János Tóth, Ph.D. organized its second international scientific conference this year.

The conference was held on 6 and 7 September 2010 in the Conference center of the J. Selye University under the title '*Social Phenomena and Changes*'.

The main purpose of the event was to create an international scientific forum, where researchers from Slovakia, Hungary and other countries discussed scientific issues. It was also aimed at strengthening the position of J. Selye University in the scientific and cultural landscape of Slovakia and Central and Eastern Europe.

On the first day of the plenary sessions three renowned scientists gave their presentations:

Prof. Dr. Iván Falus, DSc., Honorary Professor of Eötvös Loránd University, gave a keynote address about competency based teacher training. He was followed by Prof. Dr. Vilmos Voigt, DSc., Professor of Eötvös Loránd University who held his presentation under the title Icon Animorum Joannis Barclaii (1614) and the national stereotypes. Prof. Dr. Gábor Vladár, PhD, a protestant pastor, the Rector of the Academy of the Reformed Theological Seminar in Pápa spoke about the synoptic tradition.

During the remaining part of that day and the second day the presentations were divided into six sections.

The Pedagogical Section led by Dr.h.c. doc. Ing. Sándor Albert, Ph.D. discussed teacher competences. The main aim of this section was to find those expectations and competencies that are inevitable for a teacher at the beginning of his/her career.

The First Interdisciplinary Section under the title 'Recognition of Stereotypes' discussed the question what kind of roles the created automatized stereotypes, constructions and patterns play within different scientific disciplines, whether there are any false ones among them and if their existence is necessary. The section was led by PaedDr. József Keserű, PhD.

The Second Interdisciplinary Section led by doc. PhDr. József Liszka, PhD with the title 'New-born and Dying Stereotypes' dealt with presenting the results of scientific research of sexual, occupational and other stereotypes. The presentations were followed by discussion and the outlines of further research were determined.

The Theological Section led by doc. PhDr. János Molnár investigated the interpretations of religious texts with collective origin in different religions. Papers were read about the origins of these sacred texts their meanings in religious and other media.

The literary studies section 'Literary Cultural Centres of Upper Hungary in the 16th and 17th Century' was led by prof. Dr. András Szabó, DSc. It investigated comprehensively the cultural centres, towns and aristocratic courts, taking into account the role of various community churches and publishing houses.

The linguistics section entitled 'Language Variation/Varieties' led by Mgr Szabolcs Simon, PhD, dealt with the examination of linguistic variability. The main questions of the section were the use of language in inter-language surroundings with a special regard to bilingualism, on different levels of the linguistic system and language use.

The 2nd International Scientific Conference on 'Social phenomena and changes' organized by J. Selye University

101 researchers registered to the conference for active participation, 71% of them represented other institutions – universities and research institutes. Among the participants there were a large number of colleagues from Hungary, but many universities from Slovakia, Czech Republic and Romania were also represented. The understanding of lectures in foreign languages was facilitated by the simultaneous translation of Pál Banai Tóth.

The 60 lectures were published in a volume of essays and studies arranged according to the sections of the conference. The registered participants of the conference were given this book at the scene of the conference.

The dinner guests could take pleasure in the impressive performance of Katalin Szvorák. The participants of the conference who arrived from other towns could visit the building of the Komárom Fortess accompanied by a travel guide.

PaedDr. Nagy Melinda, PhD.

Multiculturalism beyond Borders

International photo exhibition

The Centre for Agricultural and Applied Economic Sciences of the University of Debrecen, the J. Selye University, the Transcarpathian Ferenc Rákóczi II. Hungarian Institute and the Mendel University in Brno hereby invite you to the photo exhibition 'Multiculturalism beyond borders' organised with the support of the International Visegrád Fund. The aim of the photo exhibition is to illustrate the cultural diversity in our everyday lives.

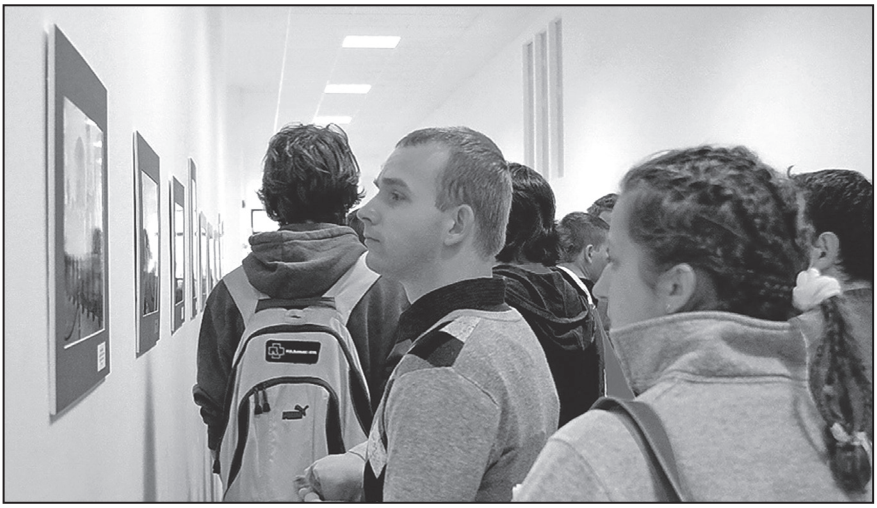
The competition had 43 registered candidates – including 15 from the University of Debrecen, 15 of János Selye University, 11 of the Mendel University in Brno and two from the Ferenc Rakóczi II. Hungarian Institute. Each person could send in up to three photos.

The three winners of the photo contest received the following prizes:

1st prize: *Jana Koplová*: Craziness, Brno
2nd prize: *Máté Koós*: Flight, Debrecen
3rd prize: *Livada Tudor*: Spring, Brno

A Special Jury Award went to:

- *András Makó:* Let's play as the kids do, Beregovo
- *Prof. Tamás Sikos T.:* Woman bringing brushwood, Komárno
- *Marie Sykorova:* Wheels of the past, Brno



The opening ceremony organized by J. Selye University

- *Ádám Czibula:* Fresh meat, Komárno
- *Ádám Czibula:* Waiting, Komárno
- *Mónika Török:* Before appearance, Komárno
- *Livada Tudor:* Solitude, Brno

The opening ceremony of the photo exhibition was organised at the Assembly Hall of the Centre for Agricultural and Applied Economic Sciences on 1 October 2010. The exhibition can now be visited at the J. Selye University between 10 November – 9 December 2010 (except Sundays) in the Conference Centre (Komárno, Hradná 2). Further exhibition venues will be at Mendel University in Brno (Brno, Zemedelská 1, Foyer of building Q) between 10 January – 9 February 2011 and at Transcarpathian Ferenc Rákóczi II. Hungarian Institute (Beregovo, Kossuth Square 6, Gross Arnold Hall) between 14 February – 13 March 2011.

PaedDr. Nagy Melinda, PhD.

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