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THE USE OF THE COLON IN THE STUDENTS' WRITTEN EXPRESSION IN THE REPUBLIC OF MACEDONIA

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Abstract

The reforms in the higher education in the Republic of Macedonia point out the students' written expression. As members of the academic community and bearer of the society progress, students should beware of their written expression, primarily because they cultivate their language expression and contribute for protecting and strengthening the stability of the language norm. The punctual and orthographic marks have treatment as something secondary and they do not have the prominence they deserve. Yet they have relevant role in forming the text according to the orthographic norm. Thus, the paper examines the use of the punctual and orthographic mark colon. The research has qualitative paradigm (analysis of content) and descriptive design. The sample consist of written texts that refer to the colon in the Curriculum and the Textbooks for teaching the Macedonian language from first to ninth grade of the primary school and texts from first to fourth year of the secondary vocational and gymnasium education. The sample also comprises 100 written texts from students from first to fourth year that are studying on the Faculty of Education in Bitola. The data are excerpt from the materials that present the sample. The methods for processing the data are analysis, synthesis and comparison. The results of the research indicate that there is a need of revision of the Curriculum and the Textbooks, and a need for actualization of the correct use of this mark among the students in order to improve their written expression in accordance with the language norm.

***Key words**: correct use of the colon*

INTRODUCTION

The punctual and orthographic marks have an important role in the correct forming of the written text as well as for its coherence. Besides, they help the flow of the thoughts, clarity of the expression, and separation of the paragraphs that text consists of. This, on the other side, guarantees that the text will follow the standard language norm that will lead to its nourishment and affirmation. These marks have treatment as something that is not relevant and they do not get the prominence they deserve. Therefore, the paper examines the use of the colon as punctual and orthographic mark and increases the students' consciousness for the need of cultivating their own expression and protecting and firming the stability of the standard language norm. This need is more relevant, when one knows that the Orthography of the Macedonian language clearly regulates the use of this mark as punctual and orthographic one and that the orthographic rules for its use are explicit without the possibility for dual interpretation.

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BACKGROUND RESEARCH

In the Macedonian linguistics, the number of the papers, which concern various aspects of the correct orthographic formation of the written text, is large. In continuance, there is a review of some newest research. The negative practice of deviation of the norm is seen by Ristovski in Davkova-Gjorgjieva (2011, p. 236). He indicates this apparent process of decomposition of the Macedonian language and states that as users of the language we cannot and may not reconcile with some deviant language and orthographic phenomena in the society, that have taken roots in the public speech. Ristovski suggests the need of new activation of the professional community, i.e. the need of forming one official state Orthographic commission, which would permanently follow the development of the standard, notice the deviation and propose new solutions. Taseska (2012), in her master thesis shows that the type and the number of the orthographic mistakes in the students' written expression are determined from their age and the overall success. She concludes that the students from primary school do not know to implement the double quotation marks and they omit them in text given in a direct speech. Janusheva and Jurukovska (2015, pp. 267–282), show that there are many dilemmas regarding the orthography of the capital and small letter in terms for the area of education and suggest some possible solutions. Janusheva and Jurukovska (2016, p. 236–244), stress out the differentiation between the punctual and orthographic marks and show that the Macedonian language Curriculum and Textbooks in the primary education are full of wrong information regarding this differentiation. Jurukovska (2016), examines written material from the four functional styles in the Macedonian language and points out the wrong usage of the dash and the hyphen. She interferes that the incorrect models may contribute for adoption of their wrong orthography in the written practice. Janusheva and Pejchinovska (2016, pp. 112–119) highlight numerous weaknesses in the students' written practice regarding an essay and promote the role of teaching on how the essay should be written. Janusheva and Jurukovska (2017a, pp. 1–21) elaborate the orthographic rules regarding the compound nouns and indicate the implication in the teaching process as a result of their unclearness and possibility for double interpretation. Janusheva and Jurukovska (2017b, pp. 1–16) interpret the written practice in the journalistic sub-style regarding the orthography of the hyphenated compound nouns and notice many deviations from the Orthography, primarily due to using same explanations for various rules. Janusheva (2017, pp. 15–28) explores the presence of the double quotation marks in the Macedonian language Curriculum and Textbooks in the primary and secondary education. She shows that there are countless wrong examples regarding the use of this mark that primarily refer to the content of the orthographic rules and especially to the influence of the English language. This review shows that in the Macedonian language many deviations from the standard norm are present and that this is a serious question. The research indicates that the colon does not get the needed attention, thus it increases the relevance and the actuality of the chosen topic. The topic contributes the increasing of the Macedonian speakers' consciousness to respect and keep the standard language norm.

METHODOLOGY OF THE RESEARCH

The research has qualitative paradigm (analysis of content) and descriptive design. The sample comprises of the Macedonian language Curriculum and Textbooks in the primary and secondary school, as well as written material from 100 students that are studying at the Faculty of Education in Bitola. The data for the usage of the colon are excerpts from the sample. The students belong to different dialectological areas, i.e. this means that their written material reflects the written practice in the Republic of Macedonia. The students'

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written material represents, in fact, a short text prepared by the teacher and it contains five orthographic rules from the Orthography of the Macedonian language (2015, p. 115–116, 137). The students have to put the colon on 9 places. The teacher reads the text to the students and asks them to write it. In the same time, he stresses out that the students have to bear in mind the use of the punctual and orthographic rules, without naming the marks, which they have to use. Then, besides the analysis of the Macedonian language Curriculum and Textbook, the teacher analyses the use of the colon in the text regarding whether the students identify the places where the colon should be. This means that the teacher examines the students' knowledge for the orthographic rules that refer to this mark. In processing the data, we exploit also synthesis and comparison. What follows is the text prepared by the teacher:

Djenova go pobedi Inter so 3 **:** 2 [Genoa has won Inter 3 : 2]; Manifestacijata kje pochne vo 9**:**00 chasot [The manifestation will start at 9:00]; Manifestacijata e poddrzhana od**:** Ministerstvoto za kultura na R Makedonija, Sovetot na Evropa i UNESKO [The manifestation is supported by the Ministry of culture, the Council of Europe and UNESCO]; Idejnoto reshenie na manifestacijata e na avtorite**:** Petar Trajkovski, Milosh Kalajdziev i Elena Josifovska [The conceptual solution of the manifestation is from the authors Petar Trajkovski, Milosh Kalajdziev and Elena Josifovska]; Tie baraat rokovi do koi bi se donele nekoi zakoni, na primer**:** za jazicite, balansirano vladeenje i otvoranje na temata za redefiniranje na drzhavata [They ask for deadlines for some new laws, for example, the law for the languages, balanced governing and opening the topic for redefining of the state]; Poedinci kako**:** Sokrat, Leonardo da Vinchi, Isak Njutn i Albert Ajnshtajn imale revolucionerni idei [Individuals like Socrates, Leonardo da Vinci, Isaac Newton and Albert Einstein have revolutionary ideas]; Andreevski e eden od najpoznatite makedonski pisateli. Negovi poznachajni dela se**:** "Pirej", "Poslednite selani", Nebeska Timjanovna" i dr. [Andreevski is one of the famous Macedonian writer. His most known novels are …]; Vo prvite pet zemji spored ovoj indeks se naogjaat**:** Island, Shvedska, Singapur i Avstralija [The first five countries, according to this index are Island, Sweden, Singapore and Australia]; Tie mozhe da smetaat na tri ministerski mesta, i toa**:** vo ministerstvoto za finansii, vnatreshni raboti i obrazovanie [They can count on three ministry places, like in the ministry for finance, internal affair and education].

RESULTS AND DISSCUSION

In continuance the results and the discussion are given.

The Macedonian language Curriculum for the first, second and third grade in the primary school, consist of insignificant small number of content dedicated to the colon. The students introduce the colon as an orthographic mark in the third grade of the primary education. The Curriculum proposes exercises for recognition and implementation of this mark (Curriculum, 2007 a, b, c). Taking into account that the students in the first developmental period often forms short sentences which comprise the use of the colon, it is a surprise why the colon as punctual mark used for enumerating (Orthography, 2015, p. 115, p. 266) is not introduced in second grade. In the Curriculum for fourth, fifth and sixth grade in the primary education, the colon are present in the sixth grade (Curriculum, 2009 a; Curriculum, V and Curriculum VI, p. 10). The use of this mark as punctual or orthographic is not précised. Yet, the part of the Curriculum that refers to the use of the marks for direct speech indicates the use of the colon as punctual mark, when it is about a direct speech. Bearing in mind that in this developmental period students use sentences, which comprise enumeration, again, it is a surprise why the fourth and the fifth grade do not have content for the colon when the Curriculum for sixth grade refers to its more complex usage. In the Curriculum for the third developmental period (the seventh, eighth and ninth grade) content dedicated to the use of the colon are not present.

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The ninth grade promotes the difference between the punctual and orthographic marks, but there is no further information (Curriculum, 2008 a, pp. 5–9; 2008 b, pp. 4–8; 2009 b, pp. 5–8). The Macedonian language Curriculum for the secondary vocational education with three and four year, should in fact follow the previously learned content, to deepened and extend them. In this sense, the Curriculum for first year of the three-year education stresses out the difference between punctual and orthographic marks and the colon are present among other marks. The Curriculum suggests exercises for implementation of the already learned orthographic rules for punctual and orthographic marks and written texts for illustration of their correct and incorrect use (Curriculum, 2013 a; 2013 b; 2013 c). In the Curriculum for second, third and the fourth year of the secondary three-year education there are no content dedicated to this mark. The Curriculum for the four-year education is identical with the one for the three-year education (Curriculum, 2005, p. 10; 2006, pp. 5–12; 2007, pp. 4–9; 2008 c, pp. 7–10). According to this, the Curriculum for the three and four-year of the secondary education follows the Curriculum in the primary school with only one rule, which is not enough for the students to adopt the correct use of this mark. It is odd that the other three years of education do not contain contents dedicated to the colon. The Curriculum for gymnasium education is identical with the Curriculum for the four-year vocational education. It shows the same rule only in the first grade, and other grades do not contain any rules for the use of the colon (Curriculum, 2001, pp. 4–9; 2002 a, pp. 4–10; 2002 b, pp. 4–12; 2002 c, pp. 4–15). Therefore, the conclusion from this part is that the Curriculum for primary and secondary education proposes a small number of content for the use of the colon and it refers only to two rules for their usage.

The Macedonian language textbook usually follows the direction given in the Curriculum. Therefore, one expects the Textbooks to follow these directions and to elaborate the proposed content. The textbooks for the first developmental period are not available on the web site of the portal e-textbooks, because they protect themselves with copyright, so they are not part of the elaboration. In accordance with the Curriculum, the content for the colon should appear in the third grade. The Textbooks for the second developmental period are in accordance to the Curriculum. In the fourth grade, within the rules for the double quotation marks, there is a rule, which explains their use when citing thoughts and words. The example shows that in front of the quotation marks, there is a colon and this is in accordance with the rule for using the colon before the words that present the direct speech (Orthography, 2015, p. 117, pt. 272). However, the textbook does not mention this use of the colon (Sevdinska, Nastoska, 2009 a, p. 145). The textbook by Krtolica, Mitovska and Gavrilovska-Avramovska (p. 47) provides the same explanation as the previous textbook, but there is a lack of examples. Yet, within the rules for the orthography of the double quotation marks, there is an example. This example clearly indicates the use of the colon when students enumerate journals appropriate to their age and this is in accordance with the Orthography (2015, p. 115, pt. 226). In the textbook by Atanasova (2009, p. 164) again there are content for the use of the quotation marks without an example. Thus, in the textbooks for the fourth grade there is a use of the colon in the examples within the use of the double quotation marks, yet, they do not mention the colon explicitly. It is most important to stress out that the basic rule for using the colon for enumeration is not present in these textbooks, though they provide examples for it. The textbook for fifth grade, within the content for the use of the quotation marks in direct and indirect speech, asks the students to be aware of the use of the colon in the direct speech. However, the textbook does not provide the basic rule that regulates this use of the colon (Sevdinska, Nastoska, 2010, pp. 116–117). Accordingly, the question about what would the students be aware of when there is not an explanation that in direct speech in front of the quotation marks they should use the colon, arises. The textbook for sixth grade for the first time mentions three concrete rules for the use of the colon. The first rule regulates the use of

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the colon when enumerating. The second rule concerns the use of the colon when citing words that are not ours. These rules are in accordance with the Macedonian orthography. Appropriate examples accompany the rules (Velkovska, Jovanovska, 2011, p. 36). The third rule regulates the use of the colon after sentence after which another sentence or sentences follow in order to explain the first sentence. This rule is neither clear nor precise. Yet, it is obvious that the textbook for sixth grade for the first time mentions the use of the colon explicitly, though the textbooks for the fourth and fifth grade pay attention to the more complex use of the colon. Therefore, it is unclear why the textbooks introduce the basic rule for the use of the colon in sixth grade. As for the situation in seventh grade, the textbook by Velkova, Jovanovska (2009, pp. 122–124) does not mention the colon at all. There is only one assignment and the students should use all of the learned marks, and one can only assume that this assignment should cover the use of the colon. The second textbook for the seventh grade does not mention the use of the colon. The textbooks for eighth grade also do not mention the use of the colon (Velkova, Jovanovska, VII; Bojkovska, Aleksova, Pandev, Gochkova, 2009; Bogdanovski, VII). The textbook for ninth grade again does not mention the use of the colon (Velkova, Jovanovska, 2010). From this review, it is clear that the textbooks for the third developmental period of the primary education do not contain content regarding the use of the colon and they mostly do not deviate from the Curriculum. Some of them contain clear rules for the use of the colon, but though it is obvious for the linguists that they refer to the use of the colon as punctual mark, this information lacks in all of the analyzed textbooks. Accordingly, though the Curriculum and the textbooks stress out the relevance of the difference between the punctual and the orthographic marks, the students will not gain knowledge for this relevant issue. None of the textbook mentions the use of colon as orthographic marks. The textbooks for secondary vocation education (three- and four-year) reflect the previous textbooks, especially the one for sixth grade. Instead of deepen the content for the use of the colon and to extend it with new rules, the notion of colon is present only in the textbook for first year. There is certain extension because this textbook mentions the use of the colon as punctual mark. This textbook for the first time notes the use of the colon as punctual mark to denote a relation between numbers (Tocinovski, Mladenoski, 2010 a, pp. 78–81). This rule and the examples are in accordance with the Orthography (2015, p. 137, pt. 316 b). The textbooks for second, third and fourth year of the secondary vocation education do not contain information about the use of the colon (Tocinovski, Mladenoski, 2010 a; Ilievska, Boshkovikj, 2011 a; Ilievska, Boshkovikj, 2011 b). The textbooks for the gymnasium education are not under analysis because on the official site they are not available. Therefore, taken into account the Curriculum for the gymnasium education we can conclude that they are identical with the ones for the vocational education.

As for the written assignment of the students, the results are more than overthrowing. 100 students are asked to write down the text that the teacher provides. These students study at the Faculty of Education in Bitola. The students have to put the colon on 9 places. The teacher stresses out that the students have to bear in mind the use of the punctual and orthographic rules, without naming the marks, which they have to use. Then, the teacher analyses the use of the colon in the text regarding whether the students identify the places where the colon should be. This means that the teacher examines the students' knowledge for the orthographic rules that refer to this mark. The text refers to two basic rules for the use of the colon as punctual mark, and to two basic rules for the use of the colon as orthographic marks. The written text of the students indicate the following: Regarding the orthography rule that regulates the use of the colon to divide hours form minutes and minutes from seconds (Orthography, 2015, p. 137, pt. 316 a) none of the students implement the colon. The second rule for the use of the colon as orthographic mark regulates the use of the colon to denote a result expressed with number. All of the students use the colon in this example. However, the

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Orthography regulates that there should be an empty space between the colon and the numbers, but none of the students respect this. It is clear that this is a result of the lack of attention to the colon in the Curriculum and textbooks, as well as in the teaching practice. The use of the colon as punctual mark comprises of two rules in the Orthography. Regarding the first basic rule that regulates the use of the colon for enumerating, the results suggest the unsatisfactory students' competencies (Orthography, 2015, p. 115, pt. 266). None of the students respects the language norm that refers to this use. The second rule regulates the use of the colon in front of the words *na primer* [*for example*], *i toa* [*like*], *kako* [as] which introduce the enumeration (Orthography, 2015, p. 115, pt. 267). Again, none of the students uses the colon in these examples. The students have implemented the period and the comma, but it seems that they do not care about the colon at all.

CONCLUSION

From the analysis above, the inferences are more than clear and precise. Neither the Curriculum nor the textbooks provide gaining knowledge for these basic rules and this, of course, influence the student written expression regarding their use. It is obvious that the Curriculum and the textbooks for primary education introduce the use of the colon as punctual marks in sixth grade and bearing in mind that students in this age constantly use sentences, which encounter enumerating, the lack of the one basic rule for the use colon in the previous grades is a negative surprise. Moreover, this refers to the Curriculum and textbook for secondary education, which introduce also one basic rule for the implementation of the colon as orthographic mark. Taken this in account, it is obvious why the students lack competencies for the use of the colon. The only suggestion is that the authorities should give the colon the prominence it deserve in the Curriculum as well as in the textbooks and this leads to improvement of the teaching practice and the students' written expression. The students should be more aware of the implementation of the colon and interested in cultivating and promoting their own written expression.

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LEARNING ABOUT THE SCIENTIFIC METHODS IN THE INSTRUCTION IN SUBJECTS RELATED TO SCIENCE

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Abstract
Training students to learn and solve problem situations on their own is one of the basic goals of the educational process. The successful realization of this complex task, among other things, implies that the students continuously learn about the scientific methods. This knowledge is essential for learning about the natural and social phenomena. This is why it is necessary to continuously learn about the scientific methods in the process of realization of specific instructional content. The content from mathematics and science can serve this goal. In this paper, we are going to analyze the most commonly used scientific methods and present examples how the students can learn them from the youngest age.

1. INTRODUCTION

The scientific methods are the basic tools used by people to learn about the natural and social phenomena, relations and processes in an adequate way. The basic fact supporting this opinion is that each scientific method is a way of observation of such facts that will enable the observer, i.e. the researcher to discover general laws for analyzing objects, phenomena and processes. When learning about the natural and social phenomena, relations and processes the students are in a similar position as the scientists, because for the first time they "discover" the scientific truths on their own or with the help of their teachers. For this reason, the scientific methods that are part of the natural and social sciences are also used as instructional methods.

Having in mind the previously said, it is very important for the students to learn scientific methods from the earliest age, because their proper use contributes for:

- Development of the thinking properties
- Learning the methods for drawing conclusions (inductive conclusions, deductive conclusions and analogous conclusions) and their proper use.

We should bear in mind that the development of the properties of thinking, the instruction about the scientific methods and the introduction of the methods for drawing conclusion need to be adjusted to the individual abilities of each student. It goes without saying that this adjustment should be done by the teachers, however, the basics for the fulfillment of this important task need to be provided by the syllabi and textbooks, which is not always the case.

In order to see the extent to which the syllabi and existing textbooks for science serve this purpose we need a thorough analysis. Nonetheless, even without such an analysis, from the results of the PISA project we can see that there are serious weaknesses that hinder the

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accomplishment of the goals. Furthermore, by an individual research it is impossible to give an answer to the question what and how needs to be changed in the educational system in order for the students to learn the scientific methods and get trained to use them. This should be a task of the competent institutions for high education and the expert bodies in the Ministry of Education and Science.

Having in mind the previously said, especially the volume of the necessary researches, further on in the paper we are going to scrutinize only the scientific methods. We are going to present examples, which we tested in practice and were proven to help the students from the earliest age to learn about the scientific methods and their proper use.

2. THE SCIENTIFIC METHODS AND THE SCIENCE INSTRUCTION

In the most general sense, a method implies a way in which we acquire information about a subject that is studied by science. This is why, we can say that a scientific method is an analysis of facts that enables the researcher to discover general laws referring to the subjects, processes of phenomena that are studied.

Observation is a scientific method that is carried out according to a previously devised plan in order to discover, determine or study specific properties of particular objects and phenomena or their connection with other objects and phenomena. The objects and phenomena are most commonly observed in their natural environment.

The scientific observation is *holistic* and it implies a complete description of the object, phenomenon or the process in their spatial and time context. The observed phenomenon (object, process) needs to be analyzed in the context of all phenomena (objects, processes) that occur at the same time and that can influence it. A complete description allows us to properly understand the observed phenomenon.



The pencial and the notebook are the first and the most important tools for observation of the nature

Further on, the observation can be:

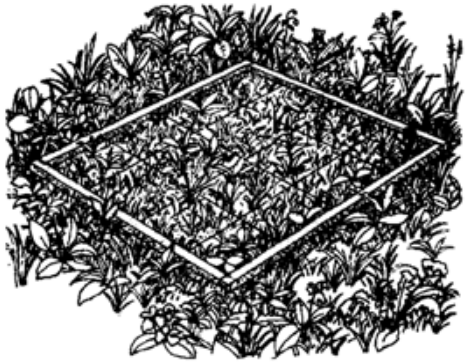
- *Natural*, in which the object, occurrence and process are observed without the use of technical means and with *the help of technical means.*
- *Observation without participation of an observer*, in which the observer does not take part in the events. He observes them from a distance. Also, there is *observation with participation of an observer*, in which the observer, at the same time, is also a participant in the event.
- *Unstructured*, which implies that the observer has not previously determined what he will observe exactly. Contrary to this, *a structured observation* is carefully planned in terms of the aspects that are going to be observed, and for this reason the observer has previously prepared a protocol of observation and a system of categories (modalities) in which he only records the frequency of occurrence of an element of the observed phenomenon (process). The structured observation is the most precise and objective method of observation and is very similar to the experimental researches, however the shortcomings arise due to the rigidness in the planning, which does not allow registering the unexpected elements, which can be very important.

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The greatest shortcoming of the method of observation is that it is limited only to the visible. Very often there are hidden elements that are unnoticeable through external observation, which can be crucial for the understanding of objects, phenomena and processes. On the other hand, an advantage of the method of observation is that by using it we can research what people do in fact, not just the things that are in their awareness.

The learning of this method can be accomplished through several observations of objects and phenomena, as presented in the example below. During the process, the students will make different mistakes, and this is why it is important for the teachers to monitor their activities and simultaneously correct any possible mistakes.

Example. *Recording the vegetation of randomly chosen areas.* This is done by using a construction in the form of a square with a wooden frame covering an area of $1m^2$ and a rope which divides the square into smaller squares with equal areas. We set the square on a randomly chosen area (this is best if we throw the frame behind us without looking). Afterwards, we make a list of all the plants and their number in the square. In order to acquire representative data, the recording procedure is repeated at least five times on different locations.



Square prepared for recording

Clearly, there needs to be difference between observation and plain perception. The perception is just a direct reflection of a given object or phenomenon in the moments they are perceived by our senses, whereas observation is a planned, organized and guided perception of a specific object or phenomenon with the goal to accomplish a particular goal.

An experiment is a method of studying objects, phenomena and processes, in which the researcher intervenes in their natural state and development, by creating artificial conditions, deconstructing them, or by combining them with other objects, phenomena and processes.

During the experiment, each object, phenomenon and process is observed, and because of this we can say that the experiment and observation are two closely related methods. To conclude, *an experiment* is a method of studying objects, phenomena and processes, in which a parameter is generated and measured in strictly controlled conditions, all with the purpose of determining and measuring its influence, while all other parameters are kept under control.

The instruction in the subjects related to science is especially suitable for learning about the experiment as a scientific method. Further on, we are going to analyze two examples from biology.

Example. *Studying the growth conditions of the plants.*

Light. *Experiment tools:* two pots with wet soil and a cardboard pipe closed on one side.

Activities: In each of the pots place several grains of peas that were soaked in water overnight. Place the pots on the windowsill and cover one of the pots with the cardboard pipe to prevent the light from reaching inside (Image 1). Make several holes on the pipe so the air can circulate. Some light will penetrate through the holes as well. Because of this, you need to position this pot in a place by the window where there is shade, thus minimizing the influence of the light. Pour water onto the two pots each day and provide sufficient warmth, water and air, the only difference being that one of the pots will receive very little light. Record the results.

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Humidity. *Experiment tools:* two pots, wet and dry soil.

Object of the experiment: peas.

Activities: Fill one of the pots with wet soil, and the other with dry soil, which you have previously placed into a furnace. In each of the pots put several grains of peas, which soaked into water overnight. Place the pots on a windowsill, where there is sufficient warmth and light. In one of the pots pour wet soil each day (Image 2). In the other pot do not do this. Record the results.

Warmth. *Experiment tools:* two pots with wet soil.

Object of experiment: peas.

Activities (the experiment is carried out when it is very cold, preferably when there is ice): Fill the pots will wet soil and pour water regularly. In each of the pots put several grains of peas, which soaked into water overnight. Place one of the pots on a windowsill in a warm room. Place the other pot outside of the same window. (Image 3). Record the results.

Oxygen. *Experiment tools:* two pots with wet soil, transparent plastic bag and a clip.

Object of experiment: peas.

Activities: Fill the pots with wet soil and regularly pour water. In each of the pots put several grains of peas, which were soaked into water overnight. Place the pots by the window and wrap one of the pots with the plastic bag and close it by using the clip (Image 4). Record the results.

The experiment and observation are two closely related methods. In the next example we are going to show how the students can use them to acquire practical knowledge about the earthworms.

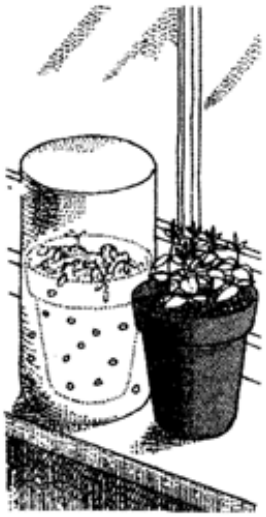


Image 1



Image 2

Example. *Study the life of an earthworm.*

Experiment tools: two transparent plastic panels, three wooden rods, screws, two types of soil, leafs and opaque cloth.

Object of experiment: earthworm.

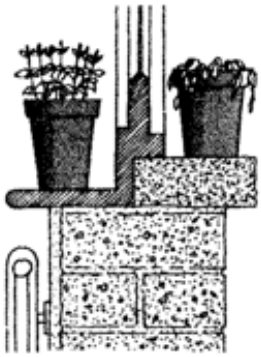


Image 3

Activities: The two plastic panels are fixed with the screws on the wooden frames (see the image). Then, we pour different layers of soil (sand and peat) and pour water. Afterwards, we place ten to twelve earthworms and wilted leafs and grass, which the earthworms are going to feed on.

This *lombricario* is covered by opaque cloth, thus stimulating the darkness underneath the soil. A few days later, the earthworms will dig tunnels through the soil and mix the different layers of soil, which will merge in the course of time. The earthworms take the leafs and the grass into the soil. Since they do not eat them completely, they enrich the soil with nutritious ingredients. Not only that, but their tunnels also provide air circulation to the root.

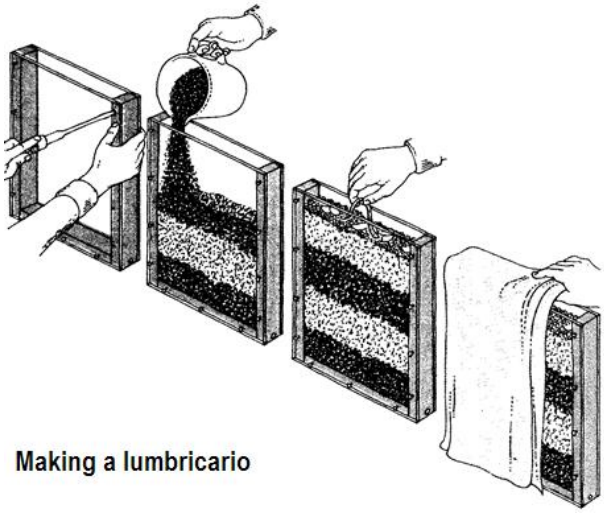


Image 4

The observation and experiment are characteristic for the experimental sciences. Mathematics is not an experimental science,

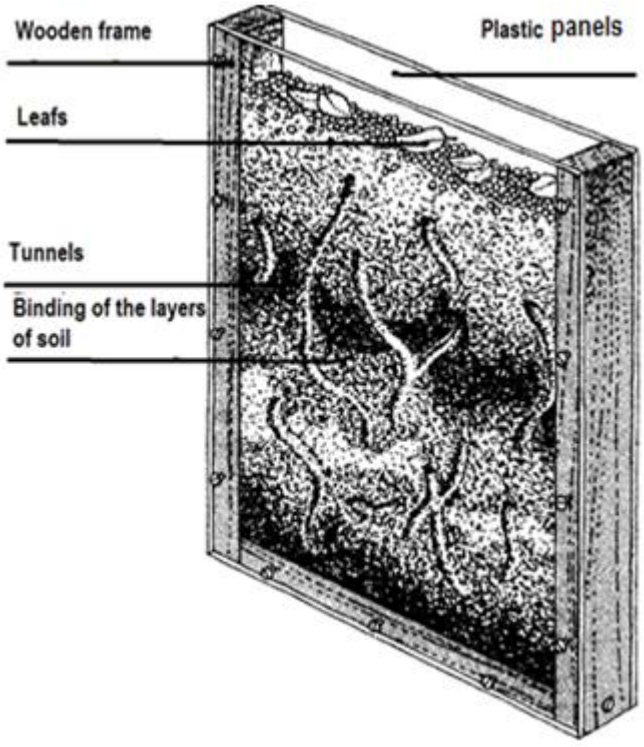
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but these methods are important in the mathematics instruction, especially in primary education. These methods are closely related to the laboratory work in mathematics, especially in geometry instruction, in which they are used for creating conditions that help the students to notice the obvious laws, the facts in geometry or the ideas that can be used as proofs for some claims. It is desirable that they are set as a separate goal in the mathematics instruction in order to become efficient means in it. This means that the teachers need to train the students to observe and experiment.



Making a lumbricario

Although observations and experiments are important for instructio n, we should emphasize that these methods are not the main in a research. This is why, the teachers need to explain adequately to the students that the results of the observations and experiments should not be considered as a proof referring to a property and that they should only be used as tools for discovering a property.



Comparison is an intellectual operation, which results in the discovery of similarities and differences between the objects and phenomena under study. When using this method, it is necessary to follow these rules, known as principles of comparison:

1) The comparison should make sense, i.e. we need to compare objects that have a connection.

2) The comparison needs to be carried out in a planned way, i.e. there is a need to separate the means that are being compared.

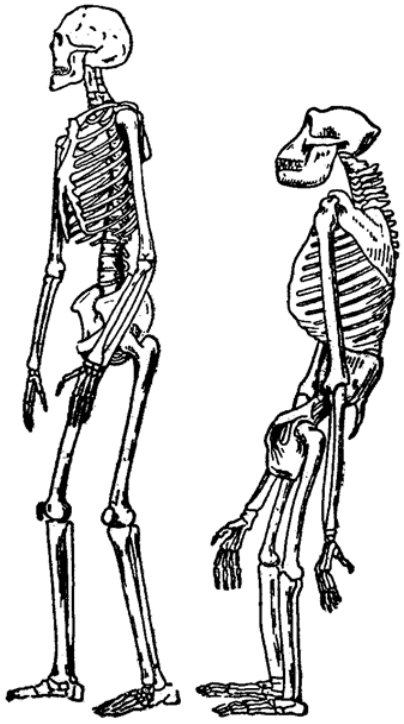
3) The comparison needs to be complete, i.e. carried out completely.

The method of comparison can be found everywhere. For example, in the discovery of the theorem of the sum of the interior angles of a triangle, after the experiment and observation are finished, we perform parallel comparison of the results that the student has previously calculated or have been calculated by other students. Almost each use of the methods of experiment and observation is accompanied by the method of comparison.

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The learning of the method of comparison can be best done by using examples from science, such as the following.

Example. *Presenting the similarities and differences between humans and apes.* At first glance we can notice the similarity between the human and the ape. They do not have a tail or cheek bags. However, we can reach a valid conclusion for their shared origin by comparing the similarity of the overall internal built of the body, especially in the skeletal composition (see the Image on the right) and the muscles.



Skeleton of a human being on the left anf of an ape (on the right)

Although, there are noticeable similarities between humans and apes in their constitution and the way of acting, still there are important differences that highlight their different evolution.

To be more specific, apes do not walk erect. Their bodies are built so they can climb trees, whereas humans have bodies that are adjusted for walking erect. This is why humans have longer legs and monkeys have significantly longer arms.

The legs of the apes are built as arms, i.e. as an organ for grabbing things, and this is why they have long toes and movable thumbs, whereas humans have feet that are more flat, the heel is more prominent and the toes have very limited movability (see the Image above).



Legs of apes (1, 2, 3 and 4) and of humans (5)

The analysis and synthesis, as scientific methods, are very important for the progress of all sciences. They are present in the instruction process in different ways: as methods for solving problems, as methods for introducing terms and study of their property, as methods for proving claims, etc.

An analysis denotes the deconstruction of a specific object or a phenomenon into consisting elements. The goal is to provide individual study of these elements, bearing into mind that they are parts of a whole. The analysis, as an intellectual operation, begins with the consequences and moves towards the reasons that have lead to the consequences. *A synthesis* denotes the composition of the parts or properties of the objects and phenomena into a whole. The synthesis begins with the reasons and moves towards the consequences, resulting from the reasons.

The analysis and synthesis are the most important psychological characteristics of thinking, because in the thinking process first we analyze, then we do a synthesis of the results from the analysis and finally we generalize, systemize or abstract, which are the result of the analysis and synthesis. We should bear in mind that in the intellectual processes, the analysis continuously transforms into synthesis and vice versa. Therefore, we can say that the process of cognition consists of two parts, analysis and synthesis. The analysis and synthesis as methods are mutually connected and practically they form a unified *analytical-synthetic* method.

The analysis separates the solution of a given problem into several parts, which are unified into a solution of the problem through synthesis. This is especially prominent in the

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solving of constructive tasks in geometry, as well as in the solving of problem tasks. The constructive tasks in geometry are most commonly solved according to this pattern: *analysis, construction, proof, and discussion.* The analysis and the construction itself have crucial roles in the proof of the validity of the construction. This is also true for the discussion.

It is very important that the students learn the analytical-synthetic method. This is why the teachers need to take advantage of each occasion and use this method in the instruction process. We can say that the subjects related to science offer endless possibilities for proper learning of this method. The following example confirms this.

Example. *Creating the notions food chain, food web and food pyramid.*

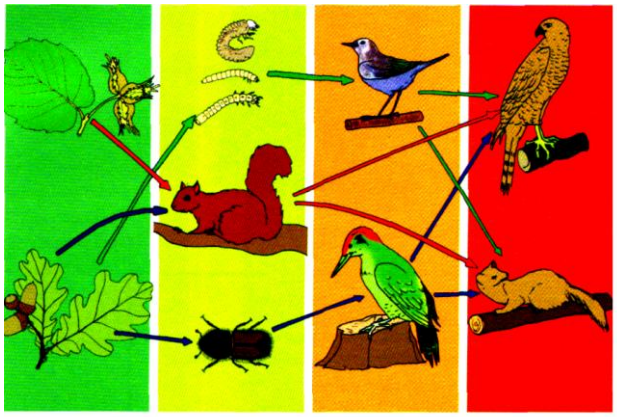
Analysis. When studying the living organisms we come to the conclusion that they are either autotroph or heterotroph. When analyzing the way of nourishment we can see that there is cause and effect relationship between plants and some animals, as well as among the animals. For example, in the forest we have:

leaf – caterpillar – passerine – bird of prey

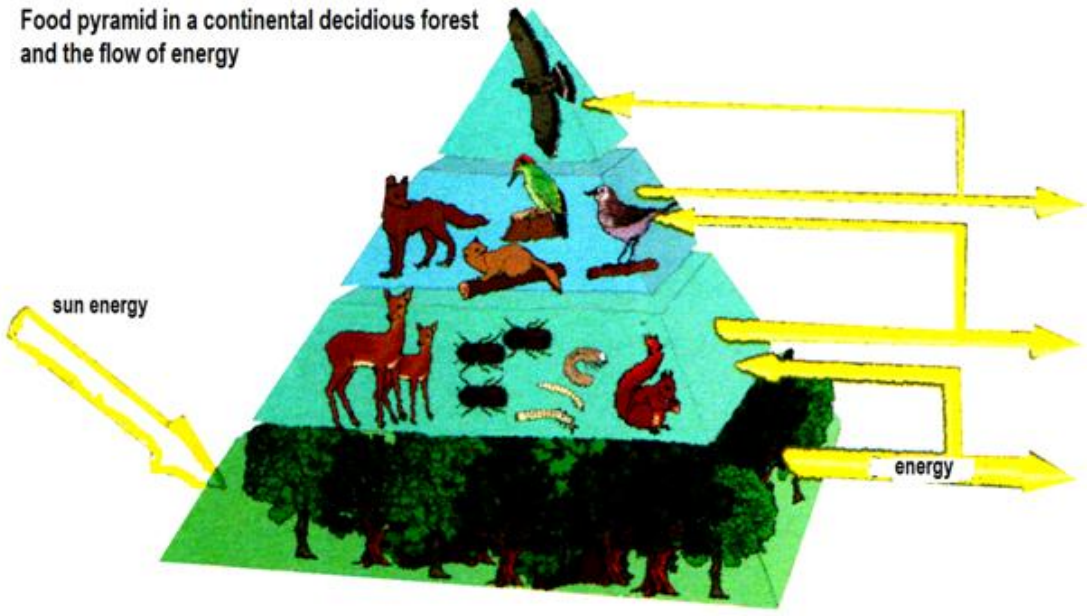
and

leaf – caterpillar – passerine – weasel

(see the Image). We can notice that in both cases the leaf, caterpillar and bird are present. As far as their numbers are concerned, we know that there are much more caterpillars than passerines, and that there are much more passerines than birds of prey. This fact is confirmed in the second example (see the Image).



Organisms that are connected in a food chain



Synthesis. From the analysis we came to the conclusion that nourishment in nature is carried out according to a strictly determined cause – effect relationship and that each living organism has a determined position in a given chain that is called the *food chain.* Some food chains are connected by shared members and these food chains form a so-called *food web.* Finally, the relations in terms of number of members in a habitat are presented through *a food pyramid,* in which we can see that at each higher level of the food chain there are significantly

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less organisms: there are significantly less caterpillars than leafs, there are significantly less passerines than caterpillars and there are significantly less birds of pray than passerines.

Generalization is a result of the intellectual unification of separate general properties, which are essential for a given class of objects and phenomena. We can say that a generalization is moving from the observation of a given set of objects *A* towards the observation of a greater set of objects *B*, which may contain the primary set of objects *A*.

For example, we do a generalization when we:

1) Move from observation of triangles towards observation of polygons.
2) Move from observation of exponents with natural exponents towards observation of exponents with integers, or later towards observation of exponents with rational exponents, which can finally be followed by real number exponents.
3) Replace a constant with a variable
4) Move from observation of linear motion towards the observation of uniform linear motion towards the observation of non-uniform linear motion, etc.

We can see that in some cases we can generalize from objects towards a complete class that encompasses these objects, and in other cases we can generalize from the given set towards the more general set. The learning of the method of generalization is very important because its use contributes for the development of the thinking qualities. In biology instruction, this method can be learned through many examples like the following:

Example. When learning about frogs we notice that they have the following characteristics:

- They live on land, however, they are dependent on water, especially in the period of reproduction.
- Their skin is constantly wet.
- They breathe with lungs and with the help of their skin.
- Their heart consists of one ventricle and two antechambers. The mixing of the oxidized and reduced blood takes place in the ventricle.
- Their breeding is sexual. Fertilization is done in the outside water environment, and the young ones develop through the process of metamorphosis.

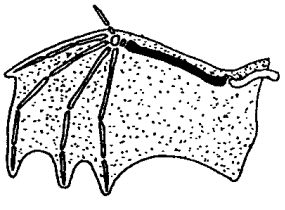
We can notice that these characteristics are shared by the salamanders, and for this reason we group them in the same class of animals called *amphibians,* thus making an intellectual unification of separate general properties which are fundamental for the particular animals, i.e. we make *generalization.*

The process that is opposite to generalization is called *specialization.* In this process, we separate a property from the set of properties of the subject, phenomenon or process that is studied. We can say that specialization is moving from a given set *M* towards its subset *N*. For example, we make a specialization when we move from analyzing polygons towards the set of regular polygons. The specialization can continue with an analysis of regular polygons with specific number of sides: regular pentagons, squares, equilateral triangles, etc.

Generally, we make a specialization when in a given set we move into one of its subsets (from the set of integers towards the set of prime numbers), and we make a replacement of a variable with a constant and introduce a limitation (triangle → isosceles triangle → equilateral triangle).

Example. The students are introduced with the following characteristics of the land mammals:

- Their body is covered with hair.
- They have a constant body temperature.
- They have mammary glands.
- They give birth to young ones who feed on the milk from the mother to a particular age.



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The students are told that bats meet the mentioned traits, i.e. that they are mammals. However, bats have a membrane between the toes (see the Image above) that allows them to fly. This implies that bats are different than the other mammals on the grounds of an additional property, meaning that in this case we make *a specialization* of the set of mammals.

Systematization is an intellectual activity which organizes studied objects in a system on the grounds of a chosen principle (property). Systematization is preceded by: analysis, synthesis, generalization and comparison, whose results are used and realized by systematization. As a result of systematization we construct systems of notions, which are a part of some deductive theory. The most important part of systematization is *classification,* which is distribution of the objects in groups on the grounds of constant similarities and differences among them. We should mention that systematization is not equal to classification, but that classification is part of systematization. Bearing this in mind, we can say that the proper acquisition of the method of systematization by the students is especially important for their further development and that this goal can be best achieved through science and biology instruction.

Example. A classic example of *systematization* is the separation of the living world into five kingdoms on the grounds of their characteristics: the kingdom of bacteria, the kingdom of protozoans and algae, the kingdom of fungi, the kingdom of plants and the kingdom of animals. The specialization continues further on. The kingdom of animals is divided into: invertebrate animals and vertebrate animals. The further specialization of the vertebrate animals results in the following division: fish, amphibians, reptiles, birds and mammals.

In the cognitive process of the real world, the objects and phenomena reflect in people in two ways: as sensatory reflections and in the form of notions which represent an image of the real objects. The notions are created in the awareness of people by neglecting the inessential properties of the studied object or phenomenon and by generalization, which makes easier the study of the objects or processes that have different forms in the real world.

The intellectual operation with which we neglect the inessential properties and with which we emphasize the essential properties of a given object or phenomenon is called *abstraction*.

Abstraction can be *sensory* and *intellectual.* Intellectual abstraction that is the result of generalization creates a new ideal object, called a *notion.* All notions are formed with the help of intellectual abstraction. We should stress that the intellectual separation of the essential and inessential properties is done through generalization, and because of this, the abstraction cannot be done without generalization. Accordingly, the abstraction and generalization are key intellectual operations in the creation of the notions.

The method of abstraction is very important for learning new content. For this reason the teachers need to highlight it as much as possible in particular cases.

We are going to present one example of abstraction.

Example. An oil pipeline needs to be built between two places *A* and *B*. The pipeline is a real object characterized by the following properties: length, capacity, form of pipes, inner coating, the metal quality of pipes, etc.

When starting the design, the engineer is first interested in the length of the oil pipeline and its trace, without considering the other properties of the object. Thus, *the first abstract model of the oil pipeline* is created: the curve from point *A* to point *B*. Then, the engineer studies the capacity, which depends on the cross section of the pipes, the form of the pipes, as well as the internal coating, which are crucial for the friction. If the engineer takes into account the trace of the oil pipeline, *the second abstract model of the oil pipeline* is created, which is a geometric figure. At a given moment, the engineer will take into account the metal quality of the pipes, as well as the external coating, which will provide protection of the metal

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from corrosion, meaning that there is a *third abstract model of the oil pipeline*, which is a geometric area.

Specification is an intellectual process that is opposite to abstraction. It discovers the content of the scientific abstractions by using facts or relations.

The specification can be done by *illustration, confirmation of an abstract situation or by using a property in specific conditions.*

3. CONCLUSION

In instruction, the previously analyzed scientific methods intertwine and therefore their separate analysis only makes sense in the process of study, but not in practice. As we have said, the learning of the scientific methods in instruction is one of the primary goals. The teachers should aim for these methods to be permanently learned by all of the students, however special attention should be paid in the work with the gifted students.

This is very important, especially if we know that:

- The future science staff will be formed by the gifted students.
- The learning of practical knowledge, skills, and abilities, which are necessary for the students, does not mean thorough learning of the scientific methods.

In the history of science there have been attempts for finding a universal scientific method, and through this to discover a universal procedure for training the young population to do scientific-research work. However, as we can see from the division of the scientific methods, that is not possible. Therefore, starting from the end of the previous century, in most of the educational systems the partial learning of the scientific methods was emphasized. Having this in mind, the teachers need to use them properly in each occasion, without underlining the scientific method, acting in an analogue manner as in the previously presented examples, which would result in greater number of students who will learn these methods.

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MODIFYING REQUESTS AS FACE-THREATENING SPEECH ACTS

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Abstract

Requests are face-threatening speech acts, so whenever speakers decide to make one, they need to be aware of its illocutionary force and the effect it has on the hearers. In order to lower the requests' imposing force, speakers tend to modify them. Thus, they hope that hearers will accept them without feeling threatened.
This paper aims to investigate the linguistic means used by speakers to modify their requests both in English and Macedonian, in order to make them more acceptable for the hearers. More precisely, it examines their internal modification with the use of syntactic downgraders and lexical and phrasal upgraders, as well as the external modification with the use of mitigating and aggravating supportive moves.
The corpus was collected by using a DCT (discourse-completion test). Three groups of respondents were asked to make requests given some specific situations – Macedonian native speakers (in Macedonian), English native speakers (in English) and learners of English (in English). The research showed that all respondents use both types of modification, but the internal modification seems to be more frequently used than the external. The use of the external modification is optional and depends mostly on the speaker's judgment of the imposing force of the request based on social and cultural factors.

***Key words**: requests, internal modification, external modification, downgraders, upgraders*

1. INTRODUCTION: DEFINING REQUESTS

Requests are speech acts which speakers use to ask people to do something for them. They are face-threatening speech acts and belong to the group of directives (Searle 1969). Whenever a person decides to make a request, the interlocutor's face is being threatened (Brown and Levinson 1978, 1987), so the speaker must employ certain strategies in order to be more polite, more indirect and more acceptable for the interlocutor. Here are some examples which show the levels of politeness, from less polite and more direct to more polite and indirect:

- *Answer the phone.* **Direct/ less polite**
- *I want you to answer the phone.*
- *Will you answer the phone?*
- *Would you mind answering the phone?*
- *Could you answer the phone, please?* **Indirect/ polite**

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According to Blum-Kulka, House and Kasper (1989) there are 3 types of requests:

1. **Direct requests** (mostly imperatives; e.g. *Finish that file for next week.*),

2. **Conventionally indirect requests** (clear linguistic indicators can be detected which link the form of the utterance with its requestive force. It is associated with ambiguity at the utterance level: e.g. *Could you possibly have that file done for next week?* (Blum-Kulka, 1989: 40)).

3. **Unconventionally indirect requests** (associated with ambiguity at a speaker's meaning level; display a multiplicity of meanings and tend to be nonspecific (pragmatic vagueness): e.g. *You know, the manager will probably ask for the file next week.*)

1.1 MODIFIERS

Each request consists of a Head act. However, in order to make the request more acceptable for the hearer, the speaker can modify the Head act internally and externally. The request can be internally modified with lexical and syntactic downgraders and upgraders, which can mitigate or intensify the illocutionary force of the request. External modification, on the other hand is done with so called supportive moves, which can be used either before or after the Head act and have mitigating and intensifying function as well.

Let us analyse the example below:

E.g. *Mike, I am sorry I couldn't come to the meeting yesterday. Do you think you could update me on the things you discussed? I promise to stand in for you next meeting.*

The utterance consists of the following parts: a) an alerter: *Mike (attracting attention),* then b) External modification- supportive move: *I am sorry I couldn't come to the meeting yesterday,* then c) Internal modification – syntactic downgrader: *Do you think,* then follows d) the Head act: *Could you update me on the things you discussed?,* and finally e) External modification - Supportive moves which follow the Head act: *I promise to stand in for you next meeting.*

2. CORPUS AND RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

In order to investigate the use of modifiers of the speech act of request in speech, both in Macedonian and English, a DCT (discourse completion test)[1] was created. It consisted of 12 situations given as open-ended questions, created depending on the social distance and dominance between the interlocutors. Three groups of respondents took part in the research:

1. English native speakers (42 students, University of Virginia, USA);
2. Macedonian native speakers (42 students, Ss. Cyril and Methodius University, Skopje);
3. Macedonian learners of English (42 students, Ss. Cyril and Methodius University, Skopje).

So, the first two groups of respondents filled in the questionnaire in their native language (English and Macedonian correspondingly), while the third group of respondents filled in the questionnaire in English, the language they learn as their foreign language. The aim of the research was to see:

a) which modifiers are used most frequently by the three groups of respondents;

b) how contextual factors, such as the rights and obligations of the interlocutors, influence the choice of internal and external modification;

c) if there is some systematic relationship between the use of the two types of modification (internal and external).

[1] DCT was used as an instrument because it offers the easiest way to gather information which is closest to spoken language.

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3. RESEARCH RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

The results of the analysis, showed that the most frequently used strategy for making requests was the conventionally indirect one. The examples below feature three situations where this strategy was used most frequently. The situations were the following:

S2: *You are a University professor. You cooperate closely with a colleague in London. You find out that a student of yours travels to London tomorrow to do an internship. You need to send your colleague a very important book. To save time, instead of posting it, you decide to ask your student to take the book to him. You say: …*

(In this situation, there is no social distance between the interlocutors and the speaker is more dominant than the hearer, x > y)

S8: *You are in a café. You feel like having a cigarette but you do not have a lighter. There is someone smoking at the next table. You turn to him and say: …*

(In this situation, there is social distance between the interlocutors and the speaker is equally dominant with the hearer, x = y)

S11: *You are a university student. You were absent from class last week. The lecturer distributed some very useful handouts which you would like to have. After the class today, you approach him and say: …*

(In this situation, there is no social distance between the interlocutors and the speaker is less dominant than the hearer, x < y)

Table 1 below presents the distribution of conventionally indirect requests in the three situations.

Table1. Distribution of conventionally indirect requests in three situations

	S2 (book)		S8 (lighter)		S11 (copies)	
	N	%	n	%	N	%
Maced. language	31	74	36	86	40	95
English language	38	90	31	74	40	95
English as a FL	37	88	40	95	38	90

As it can be seen from the table above, this strategy was used in more than 70% of the requests made in all the three situations by all the three groups of respondents. In the sections that follow, the linguistic means used to modify the conventionally indirect requests, both internally and externally, are analysed.

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3.1 INTERNAL MODIFICATION

The internal modification is optional. It is not essential and one can decide to drop any of the modifiers. The modifiers used can be multifunctional in two distinct ways: a) *indicating devices*, which signal the pragmatic force, and b) *sociopragmatic devices*, meant to affect the social impact the utterance is likely to have (Blum-Kulka et al., 1989). They can be: *downgraders*, devices which mitigate the act, and *upgraders*, devices which emphasize the degree of coerciveness. In the corpora, the use of upgraders was minimal so only the use of downgraders is presented.

There are two types of downgraders that were investigated in the corpora: syntactic and lexical (phrasal) downgraders.

3.1.1 SYNTACTIC DOWNGRADERS

In table 2, the most frequently used syntactic downgraders are presented.

Table 2. Syntactic downgraders

Interrogative form	*Can you/ Could you…;* with the conventionally indirect strategy (preparatory strategy)
Negation of a preparatory condition	There are two most frequent conditions that need to be fulfilled so that someone responds to the request are their ability and willingness to help; E.g. *Can't you* go there instead of me?/ *You couldn't* give me a lift, could you?/ *Shouldn't* you perhaps tidy up the kitchen?
Conditional phrase	Reduced conditional clause (conditional marker + verb) – refers to the ability and willingness of the hearer to respond to the request; E.g. Would you like to take this book to London, *if it's not difficult for you*, of course.
Aspect	English: imperfective verbs have a mitigating function; E.g. *I'm wondering* if I could …? (only if *I'm wondering*… can be replaced with *I wonder*…)/ Macedonian: 'da'-construction has a mitigating function E.g. Да ми *донесеше* една чаша вода?
Tense	Past tense forms have a mitigating function only if they refer to the present i.e. can be replaced with a present tense form; E.g. *I wanted* to ask you…(I want to ask you….) / *Сакав* да те замолам.... (Сакам да те замолам…)
Conditional clause	Conditional (depending) clause can have a mitigating function; E.g. *It would be great if you could take this book to him./ Би било одлично ако можеш да му ја однесеш книгава*
Combinations	Interrogative form + negation or other combinations; E.g. *I was wondering if you couldn't get this book to him.*

The analysis showed that the most frequently used syntactic downgrader was the interrogative form, then the conditional clause and phrase, and then some combinations as well. It can also be seen from table 3 below that the learners used a little bit more conditional clauses and less interrogative forms compared to the other two groups of respondents. English speakers did not use conditional phrases as downgraders, except in S2 (book). On the contrary, both Macedonian native speakers and learners used the conditional phrase as a syntactic downgrader.

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Table 3. Syntactic downgraders used in the corpora (percentages %)

Syntactic downgraders	S2 (book)			S8 (lighter)			S11 (copies)		
	M	E	MLE	M	E	MLE	M	E	MLE
	n=31	n=38	n=37	n=36	n=31	n=40	n=40	n=40	n=38
Interrogative form	87	97	76	100	100	97.5	97.5	85	84
Conditional clause	13	3	24	0	0	2.5	2.5	15	16
Conditional phrase	13	8	3	0	0	0	7.5	0	8
Combinations	6	3	0	0	0	2.5	2.5	17.5	8

Faerch & Kasper (1989) consider the conditional phrase an internal downgrader. However, what is important to note down is that in the corpus analysed, the conditional phrase was used as an internal downgrader only by the native English speakers, while both Macedonian native speakers and Macedonian learners of English used it as an external downgrader. For instance, Macedonians used: (S1) Тато, *ај ако сакаш*, ќе ми почне филмот, пушти на А1./ Daddy, *if you are willing to*, please turn on the TV on A1, my favourite film is about to begin. (Macedonian language), and Macedonian learners of English use the exact same form of the phrase, in an exact same position in the sentence: (S11) I was absent last week and I missed classes. I would like, *if you are willing*, to give me the handout from last week and explain some things to me (MLE).

3.1.2 LEXICAL AND PHRASAL DOWNGRADERS

Besides syntactic downgraders, the respondents used lexical and phrasal downgraders as well to modify the Head act of the request. Table 4 below presents a list of the most frequently used downgraders:

Table 4. Lexical and phrasal downgraders

Politeness marker	Optional element: signals cooperative behaviour e.g. Open your luggage, *please*.
Consultative device	Phrases used to consult with the hearer: *Do you mind/think…; Is it all right….* e.g. *Do you think* you can help me?
Understater	Adverbial modifiers: a bit, a little e.g. Could you turn down the music *a bit.*
Hedge	Adverbs, adverbial phrases: Express tentativeness and avoid precision e.g. I'd *kind of* like to change the pants for a pair in another colour.
Subjectivizer	The speaker expresses his/ her subjective opinion e.g. *I think/suppose* it won't be difficult for you to give this book to him.
Downtoner	Sentence or propositional modifiers: e.g. Could I *possibly/perhaps* not dance tonight?
Cajoler	Establishing and keeping the harmony between the interlocutors e.g. *You know*, I would love to but I really cannot dance tonight.
Appealer	Appealing for kindness e.g. You will change the channel, *okay/won't you*?
Combinations	Combinations of the above

The analysis of the use of lexical and phrasal downgraders in the corpora (see Table 5 below), showed that their usage varied depending on the situation.

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Table 5. Use of lexical and phrasal downgraders in the corpora (percentages %)

Lexical downgraders	S2 (book)			S8 (lighter)			S11 (copies)		
	M	E	MLE	M	E	MLE	M	E	MLE
	n =31	n =38	n =37	n =36	n =31	n =40	n =40	n =40	n =38
Not used at all	69	76	64	75	75	44	90	65	89
Politeness marker	6	16	30	6	19	43	5	15	11
Consultative device	19	5	3	0	6	3	0	20	0
Combinations	6	3	3	19	0	10	5	0	0

As it can be seen from the table above, about 64-76% of the respondents decided not to use mitigators in S2 (book). Similar was the case with 44-75% of the respondents in S8 (lighter), and 65-90% of the respondents in S11(copies). The analysis also shows that the politeness marker was used most frequently by all the three groups of respondents. It can also be seen that it was mostly used by the learners and the least by the Macedonian native speakers. It is assumed that this is the case because the politeness marker is the least marked lexical marker and therefore, the easiest to use. The frequent use of the marker by the learners could also be as a result of their need to sound polite, based on the perception they probably have of the speech of the native English speakers as 'very polite'. As for the use of consultative devices, native English speakers used them the most, while Macedonian native speakers, and especially the learners did not use them often. Since the politeness marker *please* was the most frequently used one, we decided to conduct further analysis concerning its usage and function.

3.1.2.1 USE AND FUNCTION OF THE POLITENESS MARKER *PLEASE*

The adverbial *please* is the most frequently used mitigator, especially in explicit requests. It is used as a sentence adverbial and an independent item. It can take different positions in the sentence, initial, medial or final. It is most frequently used in imperative sentences: *Please bring the towel./ Bring the towel please* (Leech, 1983: 88-89). It cannot be used in pseudoimperatives: *One more step, please, and I will shoot. It is also used in questions*: *Could you, please, move the car? and* in sentences which are not questions: *One coke, please.*

As mentioned before, since the research showed that this marker was used very often, we decided to make an aditional analysis of its use in 18 responses by female and 18 by male respondents in the three corpora. We selected an equal number of responses in order to get more precise results. Three hypotheses were set before the analysis.

Hypothesis 1: Females will use *please* more frequently than males.

Since women are generally considered to be the more polite gender, we set the first hypothesis to see whether this would be true for both societies. The results of the analysis showed that female respondents used *please* more frequently than male respondents in the Macedonian corpus (native speakers and learners). In the English corpus, on the other hand, male respondents used *please* more frequently in most of the situations. What could be the reason for such results cannot be known for sure but it might be connected to some cultural differences based on gender differences.

Hypothesis 2: Native Macedonian speakers will use *please* less frequently than English native speakers.

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We posed this hypothesis based on the general opinion in Macedonia concerning English speakers. It is believed that they are very polite (using *please* and *thank you* very often). The results of the analysis showed that Macedonian respondents used *please* more frequently than English speakers in only 2 situations. In all the other situations, (10), English speakers used *please* more frequently. This confirms our hypothesis.

Hypothesis 3: The learners of English will use *please* less frequently than the native English speakers.
This hypothesis stems from the previous one. However, the results showed that in 4 situations, native English speakers used *please* more frequently than the learners. In all the other situations (8), the learners used *please* more frequently 2.5-33%. These results proved the third hypothesis wrong. The resons for such results might lie in the perception that Macedonian learners have of the English speakers, considering them very polite. So, they probably believe that in order to sound "more English" they need to use this marker more frequently. In addition, as it was previously mentioned, *please* is the least marked marker and it is the easiest to use. This might be another reason for such results.

3.2 EXTERNAL MODIFICATION OF REQUESTS: MITIGATING AND AGGRAVATING SUPPORTIVE MOVES

The Head act, as already mentioned, can be modified externally with so called mitigating and aggravating supportive moves. In addition, both these types of external modification will be analysed.

3.2.1 MITIGATING SUPPORTIVE MOVES

In table 6 below, the most frequently used mitigating supportive moves are presented (Blum Kulka et al., 1989). They prepare the hearer for the request that follows. For instance, with the preparatory, this is what exactly the speaker states "I am going to ask you something". With the grounder, for instance, the speaker gives an explanation before making the request. With the disarmer, the speaker states that they are aware they are imposing on the hearer but they would still ask them for a favour etc.

Table 6. Mitigating supportive moves

Preparator	E.g. *I'd like to ask you something.../ May I ask you something?*
Getting a precommitment	E.g. *Could you do me a favour?*
Grounder	E.g. *Professor, I missed class last week. Could I get a hand-out?*
Disarmer	E.g. *I know you have already planned your day*, but this is an exceptionally important meeting.
Promise of reward	E.g. Could you sit in for me at the meeting today? *You can take a day off tomorrow.*
Imposition minimizer	E.g. Would you take my place on this meeting, *but only if you haven't got any urgent plans.*

Table 7 presents the results from the analysis.

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Table 7. Distribution of the mitigating supportive moves in the corpora (percentages %)

Supportive Moves	**S2 (book)**			**S8 (lighter)**			**S11 (copies)**		
	M	E	EFL	M	E	EFL	M	E	EFL
	n=31	n =38	n=37	n =36	n =31	n =40	n =40	n =40	n =38
Overall use	87	66	70	14	3	13	88	76	84
Grounder	3	21	24	11	3	10	80	73	84
Combinations	39	13	19	0	0	0	5	2	0
Others	45	21	27	3	0	3	0	0	0

As it can be seen from the table, the grounder was the most frequently used supportive move. It surely helps the speaker to explain their motives for making the request and thus helps the hearer to better understand the speaker. It can be seen that the grounder was rarely used by the Macedonian speakers in S2. They probably did not feel the need to explain themselves as much, given that the speaker was more dominant than the hearer, so they used other combinations there to pose the request like getting a precommittment or a preparatory. In S8, all the three groups of respondents used supportive moves very rarely because the situation itself does not really require any preparation or justification by the speaker. In the last situation, S11, all the three groups of respondents used the grounder very often. Native English speakers use justifications a little bit less frequently, probably as a result of cultural and social differences. It might be that they don't really feel they need to explain themselves that much before they ask someone to help them or respond to their request. The learners, on the other hand, used generally much longer explanations (see the use of grounders) before making the request. The reason for this might be their insecurity as non-native speakers of the English language so they probably feel the need to explain themselves well before they ask the hearer to do something for them. They also might feel the need to show their linguistic competence. Anyway, these results are in accordance with Olshtain & Weinbach's (1993) statement that it is expected that learners should use more words and longer explanations than native speakers.

3.2.2 AGGRAVATING SUPPORTIVE MOVES

As for the aggravating supportive moves, we investgated the use of three most frequently used ones according to Blum Kulka et al. (1989).

Table 8. Aggravating supportive moves

Insults	E.g. *You dirty pig*, shut up!
Threat	E.g. Turn down the music *if you don't want me to indict you for this*!
Moralizing	E.g. You know, when a man has got children he sacrifices everything for them, so could you please go to that meeting instead of me.

The analysis showed that this type of external modification was not used frequently in the three situation we focused on in this analysis but mostly in situations where the interlocutors were in a very close relationship ((S6) roommates: one of the roommates was very loud, and the other requests for some peace), or when the speaker has some authority over the hearer ((S7) when an authority (policeman) used a threat to make people lower the loud music).

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3.3 THE LINK BETWEEN THE USE OF INTERNAL AND EXTERNAL MODIFICATION

If a closer look is given at the connection between the internal and external modification in the three situations which were the focus of analysis in this paper, it can be concluded that the requests made for S8 (lighter) were not externally and internally very much modified. The requests here were just modified with the politeness marker and some understaters like: for a while, a bit, etc.

In contrast, in S2 (book) and S11 (copies), all the three groups used both external and internal modification, but no systematic connection could be deduced between the two. The requests made in these two situations were frequently internally modified, even when there was no external modification used. In other words, the external modification was used independently of the internal contextual characteristics of the Head act. So, its usage obviously depended on the judgment that the requester made of the imposing force of the request based on the social and cultural factors.

The internal modifiers are easier to use because they are shorter and more economical and their usage is in accordance with the conversational principles of Grice (1969) and his maxim of manner: Be brief and avoid obscurity of expression!

Compared to the internal modifiers, the external ones are longer and more explicit, because they have their own propositional content and illocution (justification, imposition minimisation etc.). The politeness is not expressed implicitly and subtly, but explicitely and transparently.

4. CONCLUSION

This paper aimed to investigate the use of internal and external modification of the speech act of request, its dependence on the contextual factors and the connection between the two types of modification (internal and external). Three groups of respondents were used for that purpose: EL learners, Macedonian and English native speakers. The results showed that the internal modification is used independently from the external and is much more frequent because it is shorter and more economical, which is in accordance with the conversational principles of Grice (1969) and the maxim: Be short and concise! The external modification, on the other hand, is used independently from the contextual characteristics of the Head act. Its use depends on the assessment of the speaker of the imposing force of the request. It is longer and more explicit with its own propositional content and illocution.

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ROLE OF EXCURSION IN GEOGRAPHY SUBJECT

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Abstract
The subject of Geography occupies an important place in the curriculum of secondary and lower education and not just this. It enables students to know about physical-geographic and human phenomena at a local and global level. It makes them to recognize the geographic environment where they live and interact but also competent to protect it.
Physical-geographic and human occurrences cannot be understood and evaluated without direct observation on the ground. In 9-year education schools it is important to recognizing the understanding of these occurrences also takes place and the geography excursion.
Through this work will be reflected the way it is organized in theory and how it develops in practice and excursion in the geography subject in secondary and lower schools. The example is taken from the subject of geography at VII with specificization in visits and recognition of natural values and cultural center of the city of Elbasan with focus on Egnatia road (Via Egnatia).
The main goal is to concretize on the ground what the students study theoretically in the school environments. Specific knowledge of physical-geographic occurrences, human and the interaction of natural and human factors on the environment makes students more active in environmental protection and encouraging them to become an active part of his protection.
Key words: *Educational excursion, Geography, Via Egnatia, physic-geographic occurrences*

1. HOW TO ORGANIZE THE LESSON FROM THE TEACHER PRIOR TO THE EXCURSION DEVELOPMENT

The development of the excursion in the subject of Geography is important. Excursion is a journey organized by a group of people, which is usually done in leisure time, for education purpose, or for physical activity, visit of a country or place, sometimes for work and other purposes. With an educational excursion. It is understood to be the development or retention of learning outside the teaching institution (school). The purpose of the excursion is realization of concrete recognition of occurrences or geographic objects which cannot be demonstrated in the educational institution (school). In most cases, excursions in the subject of geography may be:

1. Thematic- For the processing of different geographic contents, economic, climatological, demographic, historical etc.

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2. Regional- For recognizing the complexity of a territory (The interaction of physical and human occurrences).

The excursion can be organized in order to meet learning outcomes in acquiring new knowledge; for their reinforcement from theory to practice as well as for concrete applications in the country. Their duration varies from 1-3 lessons time, one day and several days.

1.a. Excursion "Getting to know the geographic life environments around our town / village"

Time: 2 hours
Place: Local Place Elbasan
Purpose: Extension, implementation, reinforcement and deepening of geographic competences.
Objectives learning outcomes:
Study the features of geographic environments;
Discovering real problems;
Awareness for intervention and environmental protection.
Educational purpose: Love for the country, cultured behavior, discipline, etc.

First Phase: Preparation

- ✓ Observation of the excursion site / facility by the teacher.
- ✓ Draft excursion plan and approval by the directorate.
- ✓ Familiarize the class with the excursion plan.
- ✓ Approval of each student's participation by parents.
- ✓ Determining the number of volunteer companion parents.

Second Phase: Excursion plan

- ✓ Time of departure, arrival and return.
- ✓ types of transport (by foot or by vehicle).
- ✓ Student involvement (by two teachers).
- ✓ Assign tasks and activities to all participants.
- ✓ Sources, equipment, outfits and meals by season and place of excursion.

Third Phase: Activities anticipated during the excursion

- ✓ Individual and group activities consistent with the learning outcomes to be achieved.

Expected results

- ✓ Recognizing real problems and providing possible solutions.
- ✓ Forcing environmental, community competencies, etc.
- ✓ Deepening respect for the profession of geographer, etc.

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2. DEVELOP EXCURSION ON THE TRAIL OF VIA EGNATIAS IN THE ELBASAN REGION

Given the fact that the favorable geographic position of the Albanian territories has for centuries left impressive traces that come to the present day as the road (via) Egnatia. The educational excursion will take place in the footsteps of this road, in certain segments of this road within the geographical area of Elbasan, as our local environment.

Necessary information for the development of the excursion: The Albanian Treves are considered as favorable geographical locations in Europe, in the western and partly central parts of the Balkan peninsula, lying on the eastern coasts of the Adriatic Sea, namely Mediterranean lands.

- They are the most suitable to live and develop the productive activities of human society due to the warm climate.
- Situated at the intersection of major international trade routes, with the possibility of exploitation at any time.

Throughout the valleys of these areas have passed important international routes such as Egnatia Road connecting Rome with Constantinople (today's Istanbul) and has had a great impact on the economic and cultural development of these areas since the antiquity and on. From Elbasan has passed one of the most important routes of antiquity.

VIA EGNATIA is thought to have been built after the founding of the Roman province of Macedonia sometime between 148 and 120 BC (II century), by a Roman functionary Cnaeus Egnatius. It crossed the old road of Kandavia, which started from Dyrrahu and Apollonia, passing through Thessaloniki to Byzantium (later Constantinople). VIA EGNATIA was the extension of another `` highway '', VIA APPIA, which started from Rome and ended in Bari. According to Strabon, the Egnatia road has been 533 miles long over 830 km. It was the shortest and safest route between southern Italy, northern Greece, Macedonia and Asia Minor.

VIA EGNATIA was a road with military and economic strategies where the Roma would connect to Constantinople, where Skampius crossed two roads: that came from Dyrrahu and Apollonia.

In Bradashesh there is the Ad Quintum station and the distance between the Hiscampis and Ad Quintum mansion (mutatio) should be 5 Roman miles. From the Roman terms of Ad Quintum (at Bradashesh) at Genscher Square in the center of Elbasan (for the Romans Hiscampis) we have exactly 7,540 m , This is equivalent to about a thousand Roman miles.Along this street there is a hammam, in the village of Bradashesh. In this environment there were still dressing rooms, low setting, hot surroundings and cold water surroundings. This station is a cultural monument.

After classroom discussion with the students of this theoretical material, the students are assigned the tasks they will prepare for the concrete material of the field.

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Group 1: The features of the Egnatia Road Trail near Bradashesh. Characteristics of the spa bath Ad Qunitum, the need for intervention and maintenance by the inhabitants of the area.

Group 2: The features and traces of the Egnatia road in other parts of the city of Elbasan, features and interventions for maintenance.

During the excursion, the students by the groups determine in the field the features of this road, become acquainted with its traces and the importance of its time. Observing on the ground, they are aware of the importance of the geographical position of the region where they live and become accountable for the interventions needed for its revitalization. This re-enactment will favor the development of tourism by enabling income to the local community.

CONCLUSIONS

To achieve the learning outcomes and the successful completion of the curriculum in the subject of Geography, it is important that the development of the excursion be more frequent.

Through it the students, the school and the community:

1. Develop practical skills
2. Acquire attitudes and values for the environment
3. Participate in environmental protection
4. Develop entrepreneurial skills
5. Increase school-family collaboration and community

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ENGLISH SECOND LANGUAGE STUDENTS' CRITICAL THINKING ABILITY

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Abstract

Critical thinking is the mastery of a set of skills such as knowledge, comprehension, application, analysis, synthesis, evaluation and applying the best when faced with a novel situation; furthermore, the three higher levels, i.e. analysis, synthesis, and evaluation, are frequently reported to reflect CT**.** It is a cognitive skill which influences the way of our thinking. It includes the ability to think clearly and rationally, to engage in reflective and independent thinking; the ability to decide what to do or what to believe. Nowadays, critical thinking is one of the major concepts under consideration in education. Its role in second and foreign language learning and teaching is of great importance. It has a significant role in higher education and the professions and can be considered as a core of higher education and as a fundamental goal of learning. If critical thinking is clearly expressed in higher education, then students who are achieving those levels of qualification will be critical thinkers. The aim of the paper is to examine university teachers` perceptions related to the development of critical thinking skills and students' critical thinking abilities in teaching English language in their classes. The paper aims to answer such questions as: How do ESL university teachers promote critical thinking in their classes? What are ESL university teachers' perceptions towards students' critical thinking abilities? Are students critical thinker? (Bloom's Taxonomy).

***Key words**: critical thinking, critical thinker, English teaching, EFL learners*

INTRODUCTION

Critical thinking is a cognitive skill which influences the way of our thinking. According to Ennis (2011) critical thinking is the ability to think clearly and rationally. It includes the ability to engage in reflective and independent thinking; the ability to decide what to do or what to believe. Nowadays, critical thinking is one of the major concepts under consideration in education. Its role in second and foreign language learning and teaching is of great importance (Atkinson, 1997). Moon (2008) asserts that critical thinking has a significant role in higher education and the professions. It can be considered as a core of higher education and as a fundamental goal of learning. She believes that if critical thinking is clearly expressed in higher education, then students who are achieving those levels of qualification will be critical thinkers. Concerning the importance of critical thinking in education, Gelder (2005) and Willingham (2007) agree that a primary goal of education is to enable the students to think critically. They believe that the aim of higher education is to teach students critical thinking skills. According to Halpern, (1999) critical thinking is the kind of thinking involved in solving problems, calculating likelihoods, formulating inferences and making decision. Researchers (e.g. Halpern, 1999; Gelder, 2005; Willingham, 2007) believe that critical thinking should receive more attention and all of its possible effects on language learning should be investigated. They indicate that learners who think more critically are more successful in language learning.

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LITERATURE REVIEW

Critical thinking is the mastery of a set of skills such as knowledge, comprehension, application, analysis, synthesis, evaluation and applying the best when faced with a novel situation; furthermore, the three higher levels, i.e. analysis, synthesis, and evaluation, are frequently reported to reflect CT.(Bloom,1956). According to Ennis (1989) critical thinking involves a practical process in which a sequence of critical thinking skills will be implemented. In accordance, he developed many critical skills. Bartlett (1985) defined critical thinking as "the extension of belief, practice or evidence into new regions so as to make more widely available and fill up gaps in the belief or evidence". Lipman (1988) indicated that skillful and reflective thinking can make one wise in judgment for it highlights self-evaluation and regulation based on certain standards and understanding of context. Later Richard Paul (1990), an internationally-recognized authority in critical thinking expanded the conception of critical thinking, and introduced the metacognition model into the critical research, and considered that critical thinking is a kind of individual thinking model in which thinkers stipulate the inner structure of thinking and apply knowledge to assess them so as to improve their thinking. Paul (1992) further explained that as people get accustomed to thinking critically, dispositions of mind will be formed such as "intellectual humility, intellectual courage, intellectual perseverance, intellectual integrity, and confidence in reason". Ruggiero (2012) defined thinking as "a conscious mental process performed to solve a problem, make a decision, or gain understanding" and critical thinking as "the process by which we test claims and arguments and determine which have merit and which do not", with its essence being evaluation. Accordingly, critical thinking ability is concerned with the ability to analyze and evaluate things and then make due judgments about them. These abilities were also emphasized by Cambridge Assessment which defined critical thinking as analytical thinking with its explicit focuses on the processes of " analyzing arguments, judging the relevance and significance of information, evaluating claims, inferences, arguments and explanations, constructing clear and coherent arguments, and forming well-reasoned judgments and decisions" (Black, 2012).In a second language context, ways in which critical thinking might be interpreted and taught have become highly debated concerns for L2 learning scholars and practitioners in recent years (Thompson, 2008). Convergent and divergent teaching methods are from these ways of education. Divergent thinking is the process to create several unique solutions intending to solve a problem. Convergent thinking is systematic and logical while the process of divergent thinking is spontaneous and free-flowing. When using convergent thinking, we use logical steps in order to choose the single best solution. By using divergent thinking, we search for new options. Convergent thinking stands firmly on logic and less on creativity, while divergent thinking is mostly based on creativity. We use divergent thinking mostly in open-ended problems that creativity is a fundamental part. (Williams, 2003).

Teaching of higher-order thinking skills should be an integral part of an L2 curriculum. Empirical evidence supports the effectiveness of teaching critical thinking skills along with the foreign language (Chapple & Curtis, 2000; Davidson, 1994, 1995). The promotion of critical thinking into the FLT classrooms is of high significance for several reasons. Firstly, if language learners can take charge of their own thinking, they can monitor and evaluate their own ways of learning more successfully. Second, critical thinking expands the learning experience of the learners and makes the language more meaningful for them. Thirdly, critical thinking has a high degree of correlation with the learners' achievements (Rafi, n.d.). Language learners with critical thinking ability are capable of thinking creatively and in order to achieve the goals of the curriculum; capable of solving problems and making decisions; capable of using their thinking skills, and of understanding language or its contents; capable of treating thinking skills as lifelong learning; and finally physically, intellectually,

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emotionally and spiritually well-balanced.(Brookfield,2012). Pica (2000) suggests that for learners to be proficient in a language, they need to be able to think creatively and critically when using the target language. Brown (2004) asserts, in an ideal academic language program, the objectives of the curriculum should go beyond linguistic factors to develop critical thinking among learners. In fact, the effectiveness of language teaching will depend upon what is being taught, in addition to language, which learners can consider as a purposeful and relevant extension of their horizons (Widdowson, 1990). Language teachers should help learners develop critical thinking abilities. Maybe even more than L1 teachers, L2 teachers have reasons to introduce their students to aspects of critical thinking (Davidson, 1998). As Lipman (2003) says, teachers are responsible for promoting critical thinking in the learners other than helping them to go from one educational level to the next. The responsibility of foreign language teachers is to help their learners acquire critical thinking skills while learning the language.

In all, critical thinking is an active logical process, it involves a set of skills, it is a kind of attitude and has an effective role on the processes of foreign language and learners who are more critical are more successful in language learning.

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

It is used a descriptive research method. The study will try to examine university teachers` perceptions related to the development of critical thinking skills and students' critical thinking abilities in teaching English language in their classes. The participants in this study are 15 teachers from different faculties. The questionnaire consisted of 17 questions is used as an instrument in order to get feedback related to teachers' perceptions regarding the following questions as:

1. How do ESL university teachers promote critical thinking in their classes?
2. What are ESL university teachers' perceptions towards students' critical thinking abilities?
3. Are students critical thinker?(Bloom's Taxonomy)

The questionnaire was divided into two parts: General questions about critical thinking skills in English language teaching and questions based on the revised Bloom's Taxonomy, which classifies thinking as containing six cognitive levels of complexity: (Anderson & Krathwohl, 2001):

- Remembering: Retrieving, recognizing, and recalling relevant knowledge from long-term memory
- Understanding: Constructing meaning from oral, written, and graphic messages through interpreting, exemplifying, classifying, summarizing, inferring, comparing, and explaining.
- Applying: Carrying out or using a procedure through executing, or implementing.
- Analyzing: Breaking material into constituent parts, determining how the parts relate to one another and to an overall structure or purpose through differentiating, organizing, and at attributing
- Evaluating: Making judgments based on criteria and standards through checking and critiquing.

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- Creating: Putting elements together to form a coherent or functional whole; reorganizing elements into a new pattern or structure through generating, planning, or producing

RESULTS

In connection with teachers' training in fostering critical thinking skills in language class, most of the teachers stated that they were not involved in any training which valued the importance of critical thinking in language class. A large number of participants also agreed that critical thinking in the class can improve English language learning. In general, the results show that ESL university teachers make much effort to foster critical thinking in their teaching practices which means that English classes are not teacher-centered, teachers do not spend most of their time lecturing, and the class provide students with necessary opportunities to develop their critical thinking. More than 65% of the teachers most of the time involve students in problem-solving tasks, use different styles of learning or use open-ended questions. The majority of the teachers (80%) often incorporate activities that stimulate students' imagination and more than 70% of them encourage students to evaluate what they read or allow for debating views and ideas. More than half of teachers (80%) encourage students to express their views and differences. According to the results obtained from the questions based on the revised Bloom's Taxonomy teachers pointed out that most of the students use only the first two levels (creating and evaluating) which means they are only capable of absorbing pre-planned amount of knowledge which is transferred to them and could not be focused on enhancing their higher-level cognitive abilities. Although teachers integrate critical thinking skills in classes, students' cognitive abilities are not developed enough to be critical thinkers. Given the fact that critical thinking is a long-term process, teachers have to work very hard to lead students to be active learners.

CONCLUSION

Critical thinking has a significant role in developing effective language learning and it needs to be enhanced among language learners. Critical thinking skills are cultivated through training and practice and developing them involves a process of intellectual and cognitive practice. English teachers should involve courses with specific focus on critical thinking that will result in educating intellectual students with analytical abilities that are precise, clear, helpful and well reasoned. Critical thinking skill must be taught, teachers has to lead students from the most important skill of thinking to the most complex form of cognitive skills.

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COUNSELING ON GIFTED AND TALENTED

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Abstract

Students with specific needs like gifted are not seen as primary candidates for the course of counseling in our primary schools, since greater emphasis is put on counseling for troubled students. This means that gifted students who have behavioral difficulties are not advised.
Most of the educational work with gifted students should focus on their differentiated characteristics and needs. The affective differences as well as the cognitive focus focus on creating special advisory interventions in three specific areas: Psycho-social, educational and career / life planning. Gifted children as a group possess more positive social characteristics than their unassuming peers. However, on an individual plan, gifted students suffer in different ways without proper advisory intervention. The nature of gifted people is such that it requires a set of more special counseling extending far beyond those intended for the average student. In the psycho-social domain, teachers are in a great position to provide counseling to students by means of counseling techniques that are an integral part of other teaching and learning activities in the classroom.
Because the pedagogical - psychological service, regular classroom teachers, and parents are often not available or not trained in relevant counseling problems for this population, an alternative to providing a gifted counseling system is the teacher who has acquired a special education for the gifted.

Keywords*: counseling, gifted, elementary school, teachers,*

It is common practice in primary schools to advise students who have difficulty in behaving or acquiring knowledge, and students with specific needs like gifted are not seen as primary candidates for the course of counseling. This means that gifted students are not advised if they have behavioral difficulties.

Most of the educational work with gifted students should focus on their differentiated characteristics and needs. The affective differences as well as the cognitive focus focus on creating special advisory interventions in three specific areas: Psycho-social, educational and career / life planning.

Gifted children as a group possess more positive social characteristics than their unassuming peers. However, on an individual plan, gifted students suffer in different ways without proper advisory intervention. The nature of such suffering in them can be manifested in:

1. Social isolation, self-imposed or caused by cynicism of peers and some teachers;

2. Social affiliation, by creating a reversal or homogenization of the characteristics of talent;

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3. Social acceptance, with a request to deny the existence of giftedness and to find ways to reduce its impact.

Any of these conditions may result in a harmful situation for the gifted student, respecting him and his talent. The nature of gifted people is such that it requires a set of more special counseling extending far beyond those intended for the average student. In the psycho-social domain, teachers are in a great position to provide counseling to students by means of counseling techniques that are an integral part of other teaching and learning activities in the classroom. They can be used effectively both by regular classroom teachers and by teachers who specialize in gifted education.

Table 1. Characteristics of gifted students and their counseling needs (Feldhusen, VanTassel-Baska, & Seeley, 1989)

Characteristics	Providing advice
○ Ability to manipulate abstract symbols O Learning speed	An educational program designed to meet cognitive needs
○ Ability to do a lot of things (multipotential) ○ Various and varied interests ○ Internal self-control (Independence)	Life / career planning with the assumption of atypical models
○ Hypersensitivity ○ Feeling for the truth ○ perfectionism	Psychosocial counseling focused on the prevention of various affective conditions

The following table presents the synthesized five key socio-emotional needs of gifted people that are phenomenologically different from most average students. Strategies targeted at gifted include parents and teachers to consider and appropriately set up for their successful implementation.

Socio-emotional needs	The strategies they need
To understand the roads that make them different and the roads that make them similar with other children	• Use biblioterapy techniques • To form groups for discussion seminars • To have individual conversation meetings
To evaluate and preserve their own individual characteristics and individual differences with others	• Promote a biographical study • Honoring different talents through rewards, special seminars and symposia • Encourage participation in competitions and dealing with competition

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For understanding and developing social skills that follow and successfully deal with relationships in relationships	• Creative problem solving in couples and small groups • Creative role play in scenario • Participation in planned simulations
To develop appreciation for their high level of sensitivity that they manifest through humor, artistic endeavors and intense emotional expression	• Encourage positive and expressive sensitive areas such as: tutoring, volunteer work, art, music and drama • Promote journalistic writing that captures feelings about key experiences
• To get a realistic assessment of their abilities and talents and how to nurture themДа се развие способност за правење дистинкција помеѓу • „ Achieving Great "and" Achieving Perfectly "	• Providing a regular evaluation procedure • Providing opportunities for grouping with other different capacities and interests • Creating a baby environment for trying out weaknesses • Taking risk behavior
To learn compromises in art and science	• Providing "Cooperative Games" • Determining the target Encourage the development of life philosophy

Who should advise the gifted?

There are many problems associated with gifted teachers in the school environment. It would be realistic to expect school counselors (expert services) to provide counseling to the gifted. But it would be highly desirable for regular teachers to be able to provide complete counseling for the special thinking and socio - emotional needs of gifted children in their classrooms. Through appropriate trainings, teachers should be able to master the methods and techniques for counseling. It is also necessary to establish an educational service for parents aimed at the socio-emotional needs of their children.

A gifted child may be frustrated by the fact that he has less achievement than the perfectly expected, another gifted child, disappointed by his lack of enthusiasm for equality for a project he shared, and the feeling of rejection of another gifted child when he was not chosen for " Best "student. These problems can often be quickly diagnosed by gifted teachers and given them a solution in the same environment.

Because the pedagogical - psychological service, regular classroom teachers, and parents are often not available or not trained in relevant counseling problems for this population, an alternative to providing a gifted counseling system is the teacher who has acquired a special education for the gifted.

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What are the aspects of the school environment when counseling should apply?

One aspect of the advisory work is to influence the resolution of socio-emotional problems that are caused by the personality of the gifted student, his peers or the inadequate behavior of some teachers. For, sadly in elementary schools, there is a phenomenon when all students require above average achievements, although each student has no gift or interest in that subject. Thus, a student who is gifted for fine work, or playing the piano, is asked to continually write poetry, to receive five on the tests in mathematics, physics, chemistry, and if that does not happen to that student, the teacher behaves arrogantly, with degradation and often with threats. Conversely, a talented pupil of a logical and mathematical area with poor achievements in the artistic field is given low grades, even negative ones. In this way, the students create negative impressions and form a defect in the character and the ego or deepen the existing ones, so there is a danger, instead of expressing the talent and specific talent of the student to remain gifted - unrealized.
They need to be advised in the direction of creating positive values, such as: Gaining self-confidence, kindness, honesty, sincerity, respect for diversity, humanity and gratitude! What methods and techniques would be advisable for achieving these goals? Bibliotherapy, Art Therapy, Biography, and Writing a Personal Diary.

The second aspect is counseling when choosing a future profession or career development. Realizing that many important individuals in different fields have not made career decisions until the end of their student experience can be important information for students struggling to make a previous decision on choosing a future occupation. The following activities can be used by teachers to help such students deal with problems:

1. Read the biographies of several important people in the fields they are interested in and track the development of their careers.

2. Interview with someone in areas of interest.

3. "Tracking" a professional in the field of interest. Analyze the most important skills that he has and link the educational biography he has acquired. Find the correlation.

4. A review of a group of recent graduates.

Everyone in his own environment needs to be welcomed with joy and love of all, so it would be good to think that the goal of counseling gifted students in primary schools is to free them from worries, to express the most valuable of them - the specific talent And when properly directed to benefit both themselves and the social environment. If the effect we have on others is the greatest currency that exists, then with all our heart and strength we can dedicate ourselves and succeed in encouraging the student to begin to dream of a good, happy and joyful life in the area for which he is gifted.

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INDIVIDUAL LEARNING IN MUSIC TEACHING AND IN TEACHING OF SCIENCE AND SOCAL STUDIES

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Abstract
This paper considers the subject matter of individual learning that has a positive impact on the development of students' individual abilities and capacities. New demands of the world we are living in – a considerable need for innovative, expert opinion, complex communication abilities and skills as well as active involvement in all social events – demonstrate the need for individual learning as a dominant form of learning in the contemporary conception of teaching work. Teaching contents of the subjects Science and Social Studies and Music Education in the first stage of primary education are suitable for implementing this form of learning.
***Key words**: individual learning, contemporary teaching, teacher's role, music teaching, science and social studies teaching .*

INTRODUCTION

Learning process starts at an early stage of human life and continues till death. During their lives people learn different things, get to know the world they live in and events surrounding it. In the process of learning people change themselves due in part to their own activity, and in part to the influence of other factors.

The first serious step in learning and education is primary school where children encounter new environment and surroundings, socialize and get used to the presence of other people who are not part of their family, learn to work together, fulfill certain tasks and meet demands they are faced with.

It is clear that not all children are the same, but they differ from one another in their intellectual development, in their abilities, capacities, motivation, ambition and social status. Therefore, more and more attention is being devoted to individual learning as a form of learning that affects not only students in a positive way but also the development of their abilities and capacities, their higher motivation and achieving major goals and better results due to the fact that this form of learning provides more space for students and greater freedom in learning and studying, thus enabling them to make progress and become independent in their specific way.

TEACHING STUDENTS TO LEARN INDEPENDENTLY

Independent learning originated as a new, powerful theory that can encourage knowledge and abilities transfer in realistic situations, and enable students to become independent from their teachers in the process of improving and broadening their knowledge.

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The primary aspect of individual learning is its orientation towards objectives. Other characteristics that contribute to this learning are: the feeling of efficiency, willingness to exercise, commitment, time management, the efficient use of strategies.

Many researchers and practitioners (Sprinthal, Sprinthal & Oja, 1994; Slavin, 1997; Gage & Berliner, 1998) agree that it is possible to talk about individual learning when students are both in cognitive and motivational way aware of what needs to be done in order to reach established goals successfully.

Zimmerman (1998) defines independent learning as an individual process by means of which students transform their mental capacities and learning skills. It is a periodic process taking place in three main stages: before learning, during learning and after learning.

In the stage before learning, necessary learning conditions are created. A student establishes goals, plans strategies that are going to be used and specifies his/her expectations. The learning stage involves processes that take place during the learning, such as keeping attention, self-teaching and self-supervision. In the stage after learning, processes that represent students' reaction to learning and learning results take place – self-evaluation, own reactions and adaptation.

Independent learning represents an approach to learning that fits students' individual needs, enabling them not only to accept greater responsibility for their work but also to be fully engaged in that process.

Although this is an approach that allows a high level of autonomy in learning, it is important to provide necessary support in that process.

Support and guidance are the most important factors for the success of independent learning, and that support is going to be demonstrated through the use of appropriate materials for independent learning and properly devised interaction between teachers and students. The success of independent learning depends on the willingness and support of educational institutions' administration since this forms of educational work imply considerable fund and time investments.

Schools and teachers – educators play a great role in teaching students to learn on their own. It is common knowledge that the traditional form of learning prevails in schools, where the teacher is active and he/she is the only source of knowledge, that is he/she is a lecturer, while students are passive spectators and listeners and their only task is to acquire the presented contents and reproduce them.

Recently, schools have been increasingly striving for different forms of learning where students are more motivated to engage and participate in teaching, but, at the same time, more attention is being devoted to defining and encouraging them to study on their own.

The fact is that education reforms insist upon active methods, involvement and research, in order to make learning livelier, more spontaneous and natural and, thus increase the motivation for learning. In order to make this possible, teachers – educators should know their students very well. This, above all, refers to being familiar with their intellectual capacities, abilities, motivation, previous achievements as it is the only way to guide them properly and encourage them to learn and work on their own.

The teacher's role in independent learning is different from the usual lesson presentation teaching. The important difference is that instead of having the role of a lecturer, the teacher becomes an adviser about the ways of obtaining information. "The teacher's role in independent learning is reflected through the guidance of independent learning, where students are, to a smaller extent, able to guide their work or be self-disciplined in learning (in this case the teacher should spend some time helping them); through co-operative planning, where students can direct their activities but they need their teacher's help to a smaller extent,

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and through individual aspirations, where students can define subject-matters, have discussions, identify sources and stick to the time limit" (Gage & Berliner, 1998: 435).

TEACHING CONTENTS OH THE SUBJECT MUSIC EDUCATION FOR THE PURPOSE OF INDEPENDENT LEARNING

Music classes offer the unique aesthetic experience, which is the inherent part of Music teaching and makes music lessons specific in relation to other subjects in the curriculum. And this is precisely why Music teaching in primary schools should be highlighted. Although there is a regular teaching curriculum, with Music teaching having its place within it, teachers with their activities are the ones who have a crucial influence on their students. It is up to teachers to develop interest and love for music in their students through careful work and strong incentives for independent learning within curricular and extra-curricular activities. The students' involvement in independent learning is closely related to the confidence they have in their own abilities and beliefs that music contents are interesting and worth learning.

The subject of Music Education is suitable for individual learning since it is based on interesting, authentic and current contents that are appropriate for students' age. Considering the fact that the teaching contents are determined by legal document – the school curriculum, the teacher can make a selection of teaching contents on his/her own starting from the children's experiences and the experiences of the environment he is working in. The child's experience includes all that a child has (ideas, feelings, impulses) and acquires spontaneously outside school, as well as all the contents the child learns at school in the organized process of education. Within the strategy of planning individual learning, there must be a connection between the child's experience, music contents that are determined by law and the teacher. Music contents are conceived in such a way that, in the long run, they encourage, develop and guide students' music abilities through regular singing, playing, listening and creation of music (Stojanović, 1996).

Among numerous and various contents of Music teaching, which are suitable for individual learning, we separate the following: singing songs of different content and mood or spirit and songs of traditional and artistic music that match students' vocal capacities and age (it is advisable that in the process of individual learning students connect the songs' contents to the contents of other subjects: seasons, holidays, customs, homeland, nature and environment, animals…); singing and performing music dances (students should identify, based on tune characteristics, the way in which dancing along with singing is an integral part of life, customs, holidays…); making children's instruments and playing them as well as auditory distinction of the children's instruments according to their timbre (when performing music it is important to recognize sounds produced by voice, volume level, different tempos and duration); listening to vocal-instrumental, instrumental and vocal compositions of different content and mood, folk songs and dances, music stories (while listening, students should distinguish among specific sounds in the surroundings, human voices, music instruments, volume level, different tempos and duration); imitating sounds from immediate surroundings by improvising spontaneously (sounds in a house, city sounds, sounds in nature…); devising and performing small rhythmic units from different sound sources (voice, pronunciation of sound groups, objects, children's instruments), etc.

The development of individual learning plan should contain the sequence of activities accompanied by music content identification (everything that students will be doing within a certain teaching unit), the purpose of particular activity (the teacher should explain students why they are doing a particular activity), encouragement (as a preparation for corresponding individual activities of students) and connections with other areas (establishing connections

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with the contents from other areas creates the possibility for integrative approach to setting and fulfilling specific objectives and tasks, and that is a postulate of contemporary school).

Nowadays, since music perception is possible nearly everywhere owing to the technology development and rich music production (internet, CDs, television, concerts and theatres), students should be encouraged to learn on their own with the view to see the unknown and different as challenges helping them to reveal and enrich their cognitive senses.

The advantage of individual music learning in education is that we have the student interested in making effort and focused on knowledge and learning, because everything that the student masters or experiences within the music world, where he/she is motivated and provoked to explore, can be applied not only in other subjects but also in everyday life, which is, in fact, the aim of the process of education (Ivanović, 2007).

TEACHING CONTENTS OF SCIENCE AND SOCIAL STUDIES FOR THE PURPOSE OF INDEPENDENT LEARNING

Teaching contents of the subject Science and Social Studies are established in accordance with current curriculum for the subjects the World Around Us in the first and second grade and Science and Social Studies in the third and fourth grade of primary school.

Teaching contents of this subject are based on elementary scientific knowledge from natural and social sciences – Biology, Geography, History, Physics, Chemistry, Sociology, Environmental Science, engineering, technology, traffic, working culture and other areas (Lazarević & Banđur, 2001). None of the subjects in the first stage of primary education covers so many diverse contents from natural and social sciences as the subject of Science and Social Studies does. Taking into account the interdisciplinary nature of this subject, it requires extra effort on the part of the teacher to plan, prepare, organize, present and evaluate the results of teaching.

It is important to emphasize that the complex nature of Science and Social Studies teaching contents is of special significance that is visible in their motivating power, their topicality that incites students to discover and learn. Another reason why the teaching contents of this subject are important is the possibility to choose from and use various didactic teaching systems, sociological forms of work, sources of information, teaching methods and procedures.

Teaching of the subjects the World Around Us and Science and Social Studies is suitable for independent learning implementation since it is based on interesting, original, actual, obvious contents accessible to students' age. Among the numerous and diverse contents of these subjects, which are suitable for independent learning implementation, we mention the following: living and non-living things – plants and animals with different habitats (the appearance of plants and animals, their habitats, taking care, significance, mutual relations and influence), water, air, soil, sunlight and heat (basic characteristics and significance for the living world); materials and their properties; natural phenomena and their impact on living things (characteristics of seasons, weather conditions and their impact on plants, animals, people and their activities); contents on the culture of living(housing, food, clothes, health care and environment protection); contents on human activity (professions, manufacturing and non-manufacturing activities and their interdependence, children's rights, the rights of groups, behavior in traffic, mutual impacts of the man and environment); contents on heritage and the past (traces of the family past and the area the particular student is living in, customs, tradition, religious holidays, the past of homeland, famous people of the region, the past of Serbian people) etc.

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For this form of work and learning it is advisable and recommended that students observe and follow phenomena and processes in their immediate social and natural environment, work on textual and other materials, do experiments, make tables, herbaria, different collections and groups, applications, keep nature's calendar, etc.

Considering the fact that in contemporary teaching students are active in the process of learning and acquiring knowledge, it is necessary that, within the teaching of Science and Social Studies, teachers start from non-systematized empirical knowledge of children and guide the process of gaining knowledge towards common, scientifically-based systematized knowledge in the area of nature, society and culture. Thy dynamics of contents realization depends on the variety of learning situations created by teachers, keeping in mind the aims and results of programmes, development potentials, previous experience and knowledge of students. The best results are obtained if the students explore on their own and gain knowledge based on their experience with their teachers directing them in an unobtrusive way.

In order to provide appropriate support and help with learning that students need, so as to be able to achieve goals, teachers, in specific teaching circumstances, "ask questions, direct students' attention towards the information they missed, towards inconsistencies and anomalies, model the strategies for learning, research and problem solving, give useful advice, while, at the same time, they interfere as little as possible" (Anderson, 2013: 24).

CONCLUSION

Independent learning to a great extent depends on how able and motivated students are for this type of learning, where a major role is performed by teachers - educators who have to know their students very well in order to properly guide and encourage their independence in learning and work.

In order to accomplish the purpose of independent learning in teaching process, it is of vital importance to introduce students gradually to independent learning strategies, control students' work regularly and prepare students for self-control of their own work and for self-education.

Although there are many learning rules, we are still far from organizing successful learning for each individual student easily and for certain.

Individual differences are great, so the most practical way is to respect those differences and adjust them to individual abilities. However, it is not possible to foresee single situations, so it is necessary that teachers, when they organize and perform teaching, are familiar with general learning rules in order to help students organize their independent learning. Similarly, with the knowledge of some general learning rules, students will more easily identify their own abilities.

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POVERTY AS A SOCIAL GLOBAL PHENOMENON
(Sociological aspect)

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Abstract

Poverty is a very complex social occurrence and multidimensional phenomenon with a long history. It dates back to the very beginning of the human society formation. Poverty is diverse and in constant change. Bearing in mind all the scientific – technical achievements in the new millennium, this new knowledge shows us a constant increase of the number of poor people. For example, 2.8 billion people of six billion world population live on less than 2USD a day, while 1.2 billion live on less than 1 USD per day. (Rakic, 2005:71)

Also, we should have in mind that poverty affects younger population through unsatisfactory income which cannot meet basic needs, (un) employment opportunities, adequate access to health and social protection and access to education. It should be pointed out that the majority of young educated generations have been put in unenviable position in the labour market while they are losing the best years of their lives. Long-term unemployment discourages young people. It is not possible to reduce poverty only through programs and strategies, but it demands changes on the economic basis. Fighting against poverty is long term process and requires a lot of money.

***Key words**: poverty, needs, younger population, unemployment, strategy.*

INTRODUCTION

Poverty is a very complex social occurrence and multidimensional phenomenon. Historically, it is diversified and tends to change constantly. As a social phenomenon, poverty is quite widespread and includes a broad worldwide population, from the children to the elderly, also not excluding members of ethnic minorities. These facts suggest us to think that poverty is one of the biggest problems nowadays, not only for the so-called underdeveloped countries, the so called – Third World (Asia, Africa, Central and South America) or South-Eastern and Eastern Europe, but also for wealthier societies. Of special concern is the fact that at the beginning of this century, almost more than one billion people in the world lived on the edge of existence. The poor people have always existed, and they exist today, not only in our country but also everywhere around the world.

For the sake of integral comprehension of certain reasons that cause poverty, it is necessary to determine the concept and causes of poverty. Bearing in mind the fact that the fight against poverty is a long lasting process, which is difficult and requires a lot of money, it is necessary to take certain measures which would lead to the reduction of poverty.

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POVERTY – DETERMINATION

In order to achieve better view of poverty, it is necessary to identify and define the concept of poverty. In our and foreign literature, there are numerous definitions which define poverty in various ways. According to Dr. Petret Georgievski, in Anglo-Saxon countries, especially in the USA, there is an official definition of poverty: "Poor people are those who do not have necessary means, defined as goods and services" (Georgievski, 1989).

"Consumer basket" consists of food product and it enables us to define poverty in the USA. Poverty threshold is determined as there times the value of the consumer basket. This is the sum of money which is legally estimated and which enables the satisfactory level of normal life. A reputable British sociologist Peter Tonsend defines poverty "as the state of an individual or family who lacks money in order to provide for necessary food, or participation in activities and enjoying the life conditions in the society they live in" (Aceski, 2001: 66). The question mostly asked by the majority of scientific ministers in countries which are in transition in Europe, is related to the increased poverty. There are many reasons for the increased poverty, but definitely the basic are structural changes in economy and unequal distribution of income.

In the 19th century, when this problem began to be seriously examined in England, the question of measurement according to which real poverty definition can be given appeared. When we speak about absolute poverty, we have to take into consideration the minimum life standard which is applicable to all societies and individuals, better to say, about physical survival. Those are physical needs: food, hygiene, basic cultural needs such as education, security, free time, etc.

There is a real poverty which involve life standard of one society, or in other words, how wealthy that society is. As an example, we can take the usage of hot and cold water, home appliances possession, healthy services etc.

The question "What is life standard? "can be asked from the above mentioned. Besides different definitions of life standard, we can include material conditions of life and work as basic elements. Bigger contribution in determining life standard is given by the UN which shows the basic elements that are included in the definition. And they are: health, food, education, employment and working conditions, footwear and clothes, recreation, social security and freedom of men.

POVERTY IN SERBIA

The fall in economic activity during the last decade of the twentieth century caused the rise of poverty in Serbia and the fall of life standard. According to the empirical data on poverty in Serbia, which were obtained through the survey on the living standards of the population, conducted in the period May – June 2002, the information obtained is that 10.6% of population in Serbia is poor, or about (800 000), which should be accepted only as a starting point because the slight movement of the poverty line increases the poverty rate to 20% (or about 1600000 inhabitants). About 480000 refugees and internally displaced people, Roma, and about 25,000 people living in collective accommodation centres, refugees whose living, standard is at the lowest level on a daily basis, should be added to this number, considering the that they were not covered by the above-mentioned survey (Rakic, 2005: 72).

According to the EU standards, the number of the poorest in Serbia in year 2008 was about 13.2% but according to our methodology, it was 7.9%. The government`s team for implementation of Poverty Reduction Strategy for the above mentioned year claimed that

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about 700000 people were living below the poverty line (9.2% of the population). These are people who spent under 8360 dinars per month. This sum includes the cost of food (about 2000 calories per individual), clothing, services, utilities and housing. The thing to be highlighted for that period is that in comparison to 2006, when it was 8.8 % of the poor, in 2007 there was 7.7% in 2008 7.9%, and in 2009 9.2% of population, which means that the number of poor people in Serbia over the previous year increased by about 107000 people. According to the official data, during the mentioned period in Serbia, about 150000 children were malnourished, while 45000 children were affected by poverty. The most vulnerable were children under 14 years of age. (Apostolovski, 2005,:12). However, there are different opinions. The director of the centre for the Study of Alternatives Milan Nikolic - sociologist claims that poverty is a relative category. According to his data, 60% of the population in Serbia lived below the poverty. If criteria of the centre for Policy Studies are taken into consideration, poverty was defined differently from the methodology used by the government in this period, the IMF and the World Bank. For them, there are no such criteria as cultural and education spending. According to Nikolic`s research, family of four needed between 1200 and 1300 euros per month and only for basic needs. There is the difference in basic needs – for the country, basic needs were flour, oil, sugar, etc., while the costs of education, hygiene, clothing, footwear, nightlife, entertainment and others were not included. The consumer basket does not involve daily stay in primary school (The same, page 13). In order to get holistic approach to the problems of poverty, here is the example of the average salary in Serbia by year: in 1989 it was 570 USD, 60 DEM in 1999, in year 2009 352 EUR, in 2012 42000 dinars, in December 2014 it was 49970 dinars, in June 2015 44583, and the average net salary in July 2016 46280 dinars. (Source: Republic Statistical Office of Serbia).

UNEMPLOYMENT AND POVERTY

One of the hardest problems that society has to face is the unemployment, which strongly affects poverty. Special concerns are new layoffs in public companies, and local self-governments. There is a danger that the limits if poverty can move downwards, or that it can lead to misery.

According to official data of European Office for statistics, the number of unemployed people in Eurozone in August 2012 reached 18.2 million people or 11.4% of the whole number of working age population. Eurostat`s sources show the unemployment in Eurozone among the adults: Spain 25.1%, Greece 24.4%, Portugal 15.9%, Ireland 15%, Italy 10.7%, France 10.6%, Germany 5.5%, Netherlands 5.3% and Austria 4.5%. From the above mentioned data, we can conclude that, in the certain period, Spain had the most unemployed people 25.1%, and the next one is Greece with 24.4%.

The latest Eurostat`s data show that the number of unemployed people in the EU falls, but at the same time, there is twice higher unemployment of foreigners than inhabitants of the EU. The number of unemployed people in June 2014 shows the first signs of economic recovery which is slightly notices in comparison to the previous year. However, according to European Commissioner for work and social questions, Laslo Andor "Although the process of closing work places seems to be stopped, decrease in number of unemployed people is relatively modest."

Among the countries which are in the EU, the lowest level of unemployed people is still in Austria with 5% and Germany with 5.1%. The most unemployed people are in Greece and Spain – 27.3% and 24.5%. From May 2013 to May 2014, the unemployment rate fell in 20 countries of the EU according to Eurostat; it is in Portugal 14.1%, Hungary 8.1% in Ireland 11.8%, and in Spain 24.5%. The highest increase in number of unemployed is noticed in

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Finland 8.8%, Luxembourg 6.3% and in Austria 5%. Where the number of unemployed young people in Eurozone is concerned, is reduced for 3.32%, in other countries of wider Balkan regions, the lowest level of unemployment is in Romania and according to the latest official data it is 7.5%, the next one is Hungary with 9%, Turkey 10%, Slovenia 11.2%, Bulgaria 12.7% and Slovakia 14.3%

The above mentioned sources give us data about unemployed people younger than 25 years of age, and it is also worrying. Greece has most unemployed young people, even 55.4%, the next one is Spain with 52.9%. When Eurozone is concerned, there are even 22.8% the number of layoffs in Eurozone during that period is also worrying, since there were 34000 people that got sacked only in August. The mentioned data forced the European Commission to release warning about the level of unemployment in Eurozone which becomes critical, and if so, it will represent the danger for social stability unless certain measures are taken. Data for 2014 also shows the increase of number of unemployed young people. The highest rate is 64.8% in Greece, then Bosnia and Herzegovina and Spain, while there is Macedonia in the seventh place, Croatia in the tenth. France is in unbelievable 45th place with 25.3%. Slovenia is in the 44th with 25.7%.The next one is Hungary with 26.1%, Ireland with 27.7%, Poland with 28.4%, Albania 32.3% and Slovakia with 33.8%. In order to compare them, here are the unemployment rates in European countries in 2012 according to the same sources: Austria 4.1%, Germany 5.6%, Romania 7.7%, Slovenia 8.2%, Hungary 10.9%, Bulgaria 12.2%, Montenegro 12.65% , Croatia 18%, Greece 21.9% (in March), Spain 24.6%, Serbia 25.5%, Bosnia and Herzegovina 27.2% and Macedonia 31.8% (Source: Eurostat, 2012).Serbia and other countries of South-Eastern Europe were in the similar situation. During the period of transition, Serbia faced and is still facing the problem of sacking certain number of employed people in public companies and local self-governments. We must have in mind the fact and data that in the last 20 years, 98% of industrial centers, where more than million employees used to work, were closed. Statistical data from April 2009 shows that there were 16.4% unemployed people in Serbia, while in 2008, there were 14.8%, which means that 100000 people got sacked during that period of time.

Unemployment rate in 2012 in Serbia was 25.5%m which means that every fourth person of working age did not work in that period. Further predictions for the next year were that the unemployment rate will be raised to 27%. According to the National Employment Service data, there were 754967 unemployed people in Serbia in 2012. The unemployed people included younger population, up to 30 years of age. The majorities are educated young unemployed people:

- 808 masters
- 52 PhD`s
- 7688 Bachelors of Economics for general economics, baking and finances
- 4886 Bachelors of Laws
- 2165 teachers
- 1907 medical doctors
- 1137 architects
- 1123 dentists
- 1110 professors of physical education

During the last years, when college- educated young people are concerned, the number of unemployed does not fall, but grows. According to National Employment Service data,

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statstics show that there are 87 PhD`s, 792 masters (there is a minimal decrease), 8000 Bachelors of Economics, 7000 Bachelors of Law, which also include those with Master degree, 2520 medical doctors, 1370 dentists, 1200 architects, the same problem exists with teachers and graduates in tourism. It should be added that according to the sources, the unemployment rate in Serbia in 2015 was 19.2% in the first quarter of the year (for the population aged 15 and older) which represents the decrease of 1.6% in relation to the first quarter of 2014. The level of unemployment in July 2016 in Serbia is 16% according to official data. However, it should be noticed that the newest monthly reports from the National Employment Service shows that 60% of signed contracts are temporary and only 20% are permanent, while 20% people work on temporary and occasional jobs and contracts of work. There is no doubt that unemployment in Serbia is very serious problem. The fact which also worries is that education system is not adjusted to the market demands, which already exists in the EU, and in the same way, the process of solving the unemployment will be more difficult. Various scientific analyses in this field show that a decade is necessary to, at least, half the current unemployment. All this leads us to think that Serbia will come out of this vicious circle of poverty only if there is a strategy of competitiveness on job market, and the increase of employment, which is already happening in the USA and Germany. It is necessary to add the fact that in these occasions, the state not only makes efforts to reduce poverty and unemployment to a normal level, but also that a lot of time, effort and money is required.

HOW TO REDUCE POVERTY

Taking into consideration the fact that poverty is a mufti-dimensional problem, it is impossible to find a simple solution. Poverty is connected to the lack of resource control, knowledge, and social relations. It is not possible to reduce poverty only through programs and strategies, but it demands democratic participation and changes on the economic basis. Fighting against poverty is a long term process and requires a lot of money. It is necessary to include human resource development, education of the younger generations and other types, of education into the fight against poverty in order to increase educational level and follow modern technological trends.

Strategies for poverty reduction should include the following principles:

1. To coordinate equitable regional development through intercity and inter municipalities cooperation.
2. To improve and raise to a higher level the partnership among local self- governments
3. To coordinate regional strategies with macro- economic development policies.
4. To enable local communities to take part into financing various projects of vital importance.
5. To provide equal living conditions and development of all people, that is minimal living standard.
6. To provide appropriate economic and social protection in the case of unemployment, disability and old age.
7. To provide educational process on all the levels.
8. To provide special measures and activities for the improvement of economic, social and living conditions in rural environment and to prevent rural exodus.
9. To provide public and private investment in order to improve global human environment and infrastructure (water system, sewerage system, housing and transport)

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INSTEAD OF CONCLUSION

When considering poverty as a social phenomenon, political and scientific authorities should be involved in solving the above problems, and therefore they should encourage the development of underdeveloped regions and affect policies to combat poverty. In this context, the state has a crucial role in ensuring equal conditions for life and development of the entire population. The local community also has a great obligation and responsibility to create the conditions for the inclusion of the working age population in work processes, and thus fight against poverty.

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FREQUENCY OF VIOLENT BEHAVIOR IN PRIMARY SCHOOLS

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Abstract
This paper investigates the frequency of violent behavior among elementary school students. Olweus Bullying Questionnaire was used for this purpose. The study included a total of 468 primary school students from 2nd to 8th grade. Students were shown eleven items which represented the various types of violent behavior, and they conducted an assessment of the frequency of these from the perspective of "victim" and "bully". It was also investigated where violence occurs most often. Moreover, students were asked how much they can rely on the help of teachers and their peers if they suffered violence. The results show that violence is more prominent when observed from the perspective of the victim – it ranges from 3.4% ("almost every day" – "often") to 17.1% ("rarely"), while the result from the perspective of the bully ranged from 0.2% ("almost every day" – "often") to 4.9% ("rarely"), for the same types of violence. From the perspective of both self-report positions ("victim/ bully"), none of the students were in the first category of violence, while only 11 students (2.4%) were the "victim" and the "bully" at the same time, in the case of direct verbal abuse. Certain types of violence significantly correlate with age, gender and academic achievement of students. Furthermore, violence usually happens in places in and out of school, where there is no direct control of teachers and adults. Finally, students least expect help from their friends when they are exposed to violence at school.

Key words: *school violence, bullies, victims, correlates of violence.*

THEORETICAL OBSERVATIONS AND RESEARCH OF SCHOOL VIOLENCE

School violence has been one of the key issues to preoccupy research efforts of various scientific disciplines, institutions and organizations in the last few decades. In the process of design and implementation of these surveys certain differences can be observed, primarily concerning the conceptual definition of school violence in general, which includes certain methodological implications that are reflected in the definition, measurement and quantification of school violence. In this regard, it is firstly necessary to emphasize the basic terminological distinctions and similarities in the analysis of various types of threats to the integrity of personality of young people in institutional education environment. In pedagogy, psychology, sociology and other related disciplines, when the aforementioned problem is discussed, the most frequently used terms are as follows: *school violence, peer violence, aggression, the use of force, abuse, bullying, deviant behavior, socially unacceptable behavior.* The abandonment of national and regional frameworks in considering this issue, and the influence of relevant scientific achievements of other linguistic backgrounds, caused that terms *victimization* and *mobbing* are more and more frequently used.

Scientific papers dealing with the problem of violence among young people and students usually start with the definition by Daniel Olweus. By this definition, "A student is being bullied or victimized when he or she is exposed, repeatedly and over time, to negative actions on the part of one or more other students" (Olweus, 1993: 9). The author emphasizes as

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relevant determinants of this definition that the victim is repeatedly exposed to violence, and that there is power disparity. It should be noted that the author uses the term *bullying* to describe school violence; in domestic scientific and professional literature the term used is *abuse (siledzijstvo in Serbian)* which assumes inequality of power between the bully and the victim, but not necessarily the recurrence of violence (Popadić, 2009: 27). In another approach, bullying is defined as "Long-standing violence, mental or physical, conducted by an individual or a group against an individual who is not able to defend himself or herself in that actual situation" (Roland 1989:143). In some studies of bullying, another synonym of this word is used which is *abuse*, and it says that "a student is abused when another student or a group of students say or do something bad and uncomfortable to him or her. It is also considered bullying when a student is teased repeatedly in a way he or she does not like (Nansel et all, 2001:2095). The expression *victimization* is used to indicate exposure to violence, while the term *victimized* describes the person who is subjected to violence. Certain authors make a distinction between violence and aggression, the latter having no significant practical and manifested implications. During the act of violence, unjustified harm is caused, and that is the main goal, while the intention is not necessary, while, conversely, with aggression, the intention is the main goal while the harm does not necessarily happen. However, the above source prefers the term *school violence* which is defined as *deliberate action with a view to causing someone harm, which cannot be justified*. The following are recognized as significant determinants of school violence: causing harm, inexcusable and intentional behavior which shows that this violence differs from the children's pranks, competition or a squabble. It is also significant for this study that school violence is mostly categorized based on the participants in the violent interaction, in terms of the roles they have within school structure, than on the basis of the place where violence takes place (Ibid, 15).

In addition to the abovementioned, it is necessary to single out certain theoretical approaches which, based on the systematization of relevant standpoints, conceptually define school violence, and allocate to it the most important features and basic forms in which it is manifested. Thus, school violence is defined as "a specific type of violence that is identified by various negative intentions, acts, and events which want to disturb, humiliate, exclude or attack another student (or students) in order to cause physical, psychological and social harm" (Brankovic, 2010: 31). Based on this definition, the author states the most important features of school violence: *school violence differs from other types of social violence; it is recognized by its negative intentions; violence is used to threaten other students; violence has many negative consequences;* and *violence is used to humiliate other students, to exclude them from the social environment, and they are caused physical and psychological pain*. Regarding the criterion "types of manifestations of violence", the same author recognizes *formal* and *informal* violence. Formal violence is manifested by a direct contact between the victim and the bully, while informal violence involves the victim and the abuser not to be in direct contact. Other authors use the types of violence manifestations to classify it as *physical* and *verbal*, then, they use the expression mode and based on it classify it as *formal* and *informal*, and with regard to its causes, they classify it as *instrumental* and *impulsive* violence. In this age of developed and widely available information technology, there is also *electronic violence* (Ilić, 2010: 49). The classification of actual manifestations of school violence is also significant and they are as follows: verbal, physical, emotional, social, sexual, cultural, and economic violence. Verbal violence is manifested by vulgar and derogatory words, labeling, emphasizing physical disabilities, threats of physical violence, etc. Physical violence is reflected in the use of physical force in order to inflict pain or injury to another person. Emotional violence is reflected in the insults, humiliation, manipulation of victim's feelings, etc. Social violence is recognized by the isolation of certain students from different social events at school, spreading rumors, ignoring, and by encouraging violence, etc. Sexual

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violence is reflected in the unwanted, rude and uncomfortable physical contact. Cultural violence refers to insults on account of racial, national or religious affiliation. Economic violence can be manifested by the extortion of money, the destruction or taking other people's belongings, etc. (Branković, 2010: 33). By analyzing the abovementioned definitions, it can be concluded that violence, including also school violence, represents, from the viewpoint of logic, a higher generic term as compared to the aforementioned terms such as aggression, bullying, mobbing, abuse, etc.

Based on the formerly mentioned statements, this paper defines violence as a *repeatable, intentional act, undertaken by an individual or a group, with the aim to disrupt physical, psychological and social integrity of another person who is unable to defend from that act.* This definition may be deemed sufficiently precise, since it encompasses all forms and types of violence and its two most important features, which are *intent* and *harm*.

Starting from the previous definition of violence, this paper mentions relevant methodological approaches to measuring violence, as well as the results of some similar studies.

When measuring violence, different approaches were used, starting from qualitative ones such as in-depth interviews (Osterman et al, 1994), observation and monitoring, which are used relatively rarely (Craig, Pepler, Atlas, & Hawkins, 2000), social psychological experimental design (Dodge 1980) and the use of various scales (peer nomination of bullies, rating scales and self-report surveys to identify victims and bullies at school). When we talk about quantitative studies, the most common ones are self-reports by students using most frequently, as a starting point, Olweus' questionnaire which was used in this study as well, with minor modifications. The questionnaire states actual types of violence with different occurrence ("almost every day", "rarely", and "never") which the students then use in self-reports from the standpoint (perspective) of the "victim" and "bully".

In addition to these survey techniques, we should also mention the issue of results quantification. With regard to the self-report surveys, researchers take into account only the answers such as *almost every day*, *frequently* or *2 or 3 times a week*. Another approach is to calculate composite scores (the summary score of individual items), where those students whose scores were one standard deviation above the average are classified as bullies (Popadić, 2009: 67). At the beginning of the paper, it was pointed out that school violence has been the subject of numerous studies of international organizations, scientific institutions, groups and individuals over the last few decades. The first, more extensive study was conducted by Dan Olweus in Norway as part of the national campaign against bullying. The results showed that 7.6% of students were only victims, 6.6% were only bullies, and 1.6% were both victims and bullies. Moreover, the results of this study showed that violence decreased in older children (Olweus, 1993). Based on the modified Olweus questionnaire, a survey was conducted in the UK, and it showed that 27% of primary school students reported they had been bullied "sometimes or more often", 12% of respondents admitted that they were bullies "sometimes or more often", with 4% reporting being bullied "at least once a week" (Smith and Sharp, 1994). With regard to the gender differences in the manifestation of violence, certain surveys show higher levels of aggression in boys (Craig, 1993). The extensive survey conducted in Serbia within the "School without Violence" initiative has shown that boys participate more in physical violence (27% of boys hit someone at least "once") than girls (the same answer "at least once" was given by 12% of girls) (Popadić, 2009). The same survey found no correlation between the frequency of violence and academic achievement.

A study by the World Health Organization (2005/2006) in 33 countries (Curie et all, 2008) showed that 33% of the total number of surveyed students were at least once exposed to

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violence, while 13% of them were exposed to violence at least two or three times a month. Moreover, gender, age and country the respondents were coming from were mentioned as important correlates of violence. In some countries, violence was four times more prominent than in others. Turkey (54%) was in the first place on the list of countries with the highest percent of school violence, while Lithuania, Greece, and Greenland followed; the least violence was recorded in Sweden (14%). A large percentage of students in almost all countries (from 60% to 13%) were exposed to violence at least once.

Already mentioned research conducted in the Republic of Serbia within the project "School without Violence" showed a different percentage of students' exposure to school violence: from 8% ("multiple times") to 74% ("at least once"). Based on the results by the World Health Organization, violence in Serbian schools is below average (22% in Serbia compared to 33% global average of those who were exposed to violence at least once). Serbia also has a lower percentage of students (22%) who were bullies "at least once", compared to the global average of 34%, and of those who were bullies "multiple times" – 3.4% compared to 11%. These results were obtained based on the global self-reports of exposure and involvement in violence (Popadić, 2009).

In a study carried out by Popadić & Plut (2007), the results of the self-report surveys done to check exposure to violence in the range of three months, the following answers were obtained: 78.9% said they were never exposed to violence, 16.0% once or twice, 3.9% multiple times, and 1.2 % often. Conversely, 41% of respondents said that they acted like bullies at least once in the last 3 months, and that the number of bullies increased with age.

Our study was conducted based on similar methodological and theoretical staring points.

METHOD

The main objective of this study was to examine the frequency of violence in primary schools on the basis of students' self-reports from the perspective of "victims" and "bullies". This objective was put into practice using the following survey tasks:

1. Investigate the frequency of different types of school violence from the perspective of "victims", "bullies", and in relation to gender, academic achievement and students' age.
2. Investigate where and when at school and in the immediate vicinity of school various types of violence happen most often
3. Investigate if students can count on the help of their teachers and friends when exposed to violence.

Results were collected using Olweus' questionnaire (Source: Suzić, 2010) where students stated their exposure to various forms of violence. At the same time, and using the same scale, students stated how often they acted as "bullies". It should be noted that the students of the first cycle of primary education (3rd and 4th grade of primary school) were not asked the question which referred to sexual violence. The study covered 468 primary school students from 2nd to 8th grade in Vranje and the surrounding area (223 boys and 245 girls). The following tables show the survey sample based on students' grade and academic achievement.

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Table 1. Survey sample based on students' grade

	grade						Σ
	3rd	4th	5th	6th	7th	8th	
f	74	70	79	47	136	62	468
%	15,8	15,0	16,9	10,0	29,1	3,2	100

Table 2. Survey sample based on academic achievement

	satisfactory	good	very good	excellent	Σ
f	35	64	126	243	468
%	7,5	13,7	27,0	51,9	100

SURVEY RESULTS

This paper firstly presents the answers to the survey question about the frequency of various types of school violence, separately – that is, from the standpoint of the victim and the bully. In addition to this, the percentage of students who are both "victims" and "bullies" was also shown. For the first and the second item, the frequency of responses in all three categories was shown. When singling out those students who are at the same time the "victims" and "bullies", the highest frequency level was used which involves the following answer: "almost every day" or "often".

Table 3. Exposure of students to school violence

Violence types	Almost every day (often)		Rarely		Never	
	f	%	f	%	f	%
Someone insulted you in a very bad way	56	**12**	245	**52,4**	167	**35,7**
Someone was telling you bad words	80	**17,1**	256	**54,8**	131	**28,1**
Someone threatened to do something bad to you	25	**5,4**	99	**21,3**	341	**73,3**
Someone hit you or pushed you	68	**14,6**	223	**47,9**	175	**37,6**
Someone beat you very badly	13	**1,4**	39	**8,4**	411	**88,8**
Someone intentionally lost or destroyed your belongings	19	**4,1**	118	**25,5**	326	**70,4**
Someone asked for your money using force	12	**2,6**	32	**3,4**	420	**90,5**
Someone hurt you	23	**5,0**	143	**30,9**	297	**31,7**
They excluded you from the game or did not pay attention to you	42	**9,1**	141	**30,7**	277	**60,2**
Someone was saying bad things about you	63	**13,5**	206	**44,3**	196	**42,2**
Someone touched your body in an unpleasant way [1]	11	**3,4**	36	**11,1**	276	**85,4**

[1] This question was not answered by the students of the first cycle of primary education (3rd and 4th grade of primary school)

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If the criterion of exposure to violence is the frequency within the category of "almost every day", then the highest percentage of students are exposed to verbal violence in the form of being told bad words (12%), while the lowest percentage relates to physical violence that can be labeled as aggression or bullying. However, if the measurement of violence uses the criterion "rarely" as well, which is used to explain that a student has at least once been a victim of some type of violence, then the percentage increases from 9.8% to 71.9% in the above categories.

When it comes to the link between gender and exposure to violence, a statistically significant difference was found for the question "someone threatened you", $\chi 2 = 9.44$, $p < 0.01$, more in boys than in girls, as well as for the answers to the question "someone hit you or pushed you", $\chi 2 = 5.94$, $p < 0.05$, the difference in favor of boys.

Significant correlation among multiple groups of responses was found when it comes to the age of students, based on the following types of violence: *"someone pushed you or hit you"* (χ^2 =33.46, p<0,01, more frequently in junior grades), *Someone beat you very badly* (χ^2 =22,34, p<0,01), *Someone intentionally lost or destroyed your belongings* (χ^2 =27,25, p<0,01), *Someone asked for your money using force* (χ^2 =34.57, p<0,01), *someone hurt you* (χ^2 =40.32, p<0,01), *They excluded you from the game* (χ^2 =58,79, p<0,01), *Someone was saying bad things about you to others* (χ^2 =26.11, p<0,01). All these types of violence are more common in lower (junior) grades of primary school, especially as part of social and physical violence.

When it comes to academic achievement, significant differences exist for the following types of violence: *someone threatened you* (χ^2 =20,64, p<0,01, 17.14% of students with satisfactory achievement who claim they have been exposed to this type of violence almost daily), *Someone beat you very badly* (χ^2 =19,39, p<0,01, 8,57% of students with satisfactory achievement), *Someone was saying bad things about you to others* (χ^2 =13,03 , p<0,05, 31,43% of students with satisfactory achievement), and *Someone touched your body in an unpleasant way* (χ^2 =15,94 , p<0,01, 11,43% of students with satisfactory achievement).

The first question in this study also needs to be answered as to what percentage of students was in the role of a bully based on different types of violence. The following results were obtained from their self-report.

Table 5. The frequency of violence from the perspective of "bullies"

Types of violence	Almost every day (often)		Rarely		Never	
	f	%	f	%	f	%
You insult other children in a derogative way	9	**1,9**	100	**21,4**	359	**76,7**
You say bad words to others	23	**4,9**	144	**30,8**	300	**64,2**
You threaten others	7	**1,5**	54	**5,8**	406	**86,9**
You hit or push others	14	**3,0**	123	**26,5**	328	**70,5**
You beat others hard	11	**2,4**	27	**5,8**	429	**91,9**
You lose or destroy other students' belongings	2	**0,4**	35	**7,5**	428	**92,0**
You ask for other students' money using force	3	**0,6**	11	**2,4**	454	**97,0**
You hurt others	7	**1,5**	76	**16,3**	384	**82,2**
You exclude others from the game or do not pay attention to them	18	**3,9**	80	**17,1**	369	**79,0**
You say bad things about others	7	**1,5**	106	**22,6**	355	**75,9**
You touch someone else's body in an unpleasant way	2	**0,2**	16	**4,9**	306	**94,4**

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We can here observe a significantly smaller percentage of students who reported themselves as "bullies", usually in the context of verbal violence (4.9%), as well as those who reported themselves as "victims", while the lowest percentage was obtained for the question relating to sexual violence (*You touch someone else's body in an unpleasant way*, 0.2% of respondents).

If the criterion of participation in violence is the answer "rarely" (which means at least once), then the percentage of students who act as bullies ranges from 4.9% for physical violence (which has connotations of sexual harassment), to 30.8% for verbal violence and "victim" (*You say bad words to others).*

Correlation between gender and the role of bully was found in the following answers: *you threaten others* (χ^2 =11.73, p<0,01, more in boys), *You hit or push others* (χ^2 =8,84, p<0,01, more frequent in boys), *You beat others hard* (χ^2 =9,51, p<0,01, more frequently in boys), *You exclude others from the game* (χ^2 =5,97, p<0,05, more in boys) and *You touch someone else's body in an unpleasant way* (χ^2 =14.99, p<0,01, where only the boys answered with "almost every day").

When it comes to school age in the case of admittance of violence towards others, no significant difference was found only for the following answers: *You touch someone else's body in an unpleasant way* (as a type of sexual harassment), *You say bad things about others* and *you threaten others.* For all other types of violence the difference was statistically significant. The highest percentage of respondents who participate in other types of violence "almost every day" were from the 3rd and 4th, as well as from 7th and 8th grade. Correlation between bullying and academic achievement shows that there is a significant difference only in the case of insults against others (χ^2 =14.86, p<0.05). This type of violence is most common in students with satisfactory achievement (23.44%) and in students with excellent achievement (21.13%).

In order to show the role of "victim / bully", frequency, criterion "almost every day" or "often" was used.

Table 7. Frequency of school violence: "victim / bully"

Types of violence	Almost every day (**often**) "victim / bully"	
	f	%
Insults	3	**0.6**
Saying rude words	11	**2.4**
Threatening	1	**0.2**
Hitting or pushing	7	**1.5**
Fights	1	**0.2**
Destruction of other people's belongings	2	**0,4**
Asking for money by force	0	**0**
Injuries	1	**0.1**
Excluding others from the game	2	**0,4**
Gossiping	2	**0,4**
Touching someone else's body in an unpleasant way	0	**0**

The results show that there is no single student who is a "victim" and a "bully" at the same time regarding the criterion sexual harassment. Based on the results in the previous two cases,

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the largest percentage is of those students who are both exposed to and participate in verbal violence (2.4%, *saying rude words to others*).

Another research task was to investigate the places in school and school vicinity where violence happens most often.

The results are shown in the table below.

Table 8. The places in school and school vicinity where violence happens most often

Where does violence usually happen?	f	%
At recess	105	24,4
In locker rooms	88	20,4
In classes	34	7,9
After school	107	24,8
During breaks between classes	97	22.5
Total	431	100

The result of χ^2 test (χ^2=42,121, df=4, p<0,01) shows that the difference in the frequency of replies is statistically very significant, which means that school violence mostly happens in the areas and places where there is no immediate control of students by teachers.

In addition to the already mentioned survey questions, this paper investigated to what extent students can count on the help of teachers, professional staff at school and their peers. This question was answered by students in higher grades of primary school.

Table 9. In the case of violence, how can students count on help by these groups of people?

	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
Help from the classroom teacher	318	1	5	4,08	1,242
Help from the principal	310	1	5	3,84	1,275
Help from the school staff	311	1	5	3,77	1,273
Help from other teachers	454	1	5	3,70	1,182
Help from other classroom peers	313	1	5	3,68	1,323
Valid N (listwise)	302				

Students have the highest level of confidence in their classroom teachers, while they have the least confidence in their classmates, which is understandable given that we are talking about peer violence.

DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSIONS

In order to provide a successful discussion, the obtained results should be analysed and compared with similar studies which were mentioned in the theoretical part of this paper. It could be helpful as well to use the classification of violence into formal (manifested by a direct contact between the victim and the bully) and informal (where the victim and the bully are not in direct contact) (Branković, 2010). This classification can help overcome some contradictions and intermingling of the other already mentioned criteria.

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First and foremost, this study has shown that direct or formal violence is the most prominent one, and by its features, it falls into the groups of both verbal and physical violence. Moreover, there are also very frequent acts that involve social isolation. These types of violence are more pronounced when it comes to the self-report of students from the perspective of the victim and the bully. Regardless of the abovementioned roles, the results show that school violence does exist in Serbian schools. Comparing these results with the results of extensive research under the project "School without Violence" in Serbia (Popadić, 2009), a level of violence is revealed. In this paper, we compared the results relating to the specific violence manifestations, where the percentage of exposure to violence ranged from 8% to 29% (frequent violence), and from 33% to 74% (violence that occurred at least once). In our study, the lowest percentage of exposure to violence ranged from 3.4% to 17.1% (frequent violence) and from 11.1% to 54.5% (violence that occurs rarely).

In this paper, as well as in the previously mentioned one, similar results were obtained because the largest number of students was exposed to the direct and indirect verbal violence (insults from 17.1% to 54.8%, humiliation from 12% to 52.4 %, gossiping from 13.5% to 44.3%). Physical violence, from the viewpoint of the "victims" is present in the range from 1.4% to 47.9%. Presence of indirect violence aimed at social isolation was also noticed during this study. From 9.1% to 40.7% of students were exposed to such type of violence often or at least once.

When we looked at the percentage of students who commit violence, our study has shown a smaller percentage of such students compared to the research mentioned earlier, but including the same methods or types of violence. With regard to verbal abuse (direct or indirect violent, the percentage goes between 1.9% and 30.8%), to physical violence, percentage ranges from 2.4% to 26.5%, and regarding the so-called social violence (*Excluding someone from the game or not paying attention to them),* the percentage is between 3.9% and 17.1%).

In the case of students who are at the same time the "victim" and the "bully" concerning specific types of violence, the results of this study show a higher percentage of such students (2.4% in terms of direct verbal abuse) compared to the research by Olweus (1993) where 1, 5% of students were at the same time the "victim" and the "bully".

Not only this study, but also the studies by Craig (1993) and Popadić (2009), found the link between the frequency of violence and gender of students. Namely, the results showed that boys are more prone to violence than girls. In our study there was a significant difference in favour of boys regarding physical and verbal violence, as well as regarding isolation or ignoring of other students. Similarly, when it comes to the situations where physical violence may have the so-called "sexual connotation" (Touching someone else's body in an unpleasant way), the following answers were given by boys - "almost every day" (1.34%) and "rarely" (9.39% compared to 1.14% in girls).

Contrary to the research by Popadić, our paper found the link between academic achievement and specific manifestations of violence. Mostly weaker students who are exposed to verbal and physical violence almost every day recognize themselves as victims.

When it comes to self-reports of violent acts, the results of this study show that the best (students with excellent achievement) and students with satisfactory achievement admit to have participated in direct verbal violence.

Regarding the link between students' age and the frequency of violence, the results that emerged from this paper partially confirm the research by Dan Olweus in Norway (1993) and O'Moore and associates in England (1997). Moreover, the results of these studies showed a trend of violence decrease in older children. Self-reports of exposure to violence, which were

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a part of this research, show that more students in the lower grades are exposed to violence. However, when we talk about violent behaviour, more second, fourth, seventh and eighth grade students act violently, than the third, fifth and sixth graders of primary school.

This paper has shown that violence usually happens in those places without any direct control by teachers and other school staff, mostly *at recess, after school, on the way home from school.*

The third answer offered in the questionnaire has been put on the list of questions (as explained in the theoretical section of the paper) because of the general opinion that school violence goes beyond the school itself and its immediate vicinity, emphasizing that conflicts among peers happen and are affected by the feelings of students in a given moment. These results indicate an insufficient developed responsibility of students to resolve their conflicts in a non-violent way and without the presence of teachers and other adults.

Moreover, the surveyed students identified classroom teacher as the person they could count on should they be exposed to violence. However, the rest of school staff (pedagogues and psychologists) had very low ratings, which indicates their lack of direct involvement with students on the issue of violence prevention. Students have the least confidence in their friends and peers at school, which shows very low level of positive personality traits of students. These results can be easily explained by the fact that this survey examined the frequency of violence among peers in schools.

The results of this study suggest the need for more extensive engagement of all school staff and other social institutions, the need for active involvement of parents in prevention and elimination of violence primarily during every day educational activities, and not only during separate, specific initiatives in schools, which are often very formal.

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THE ESSENTIALS OF HATE SPEECH

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Abstract
In times of huge political, social, economic and religious turmoil, the world increasingly witnesses a rise in language usage for the purposes of humiliating, dehumanizing and defaming non-likeminded individuals or groups of individuals. The distinguishing feature of this inflammatory rhetoric, also widely known as *hate speech*, seems to be its ability to spread with the speed of light, infecting societies with intolerance, hatred and aggressive behavior, which, in turn, very often translates into personal tragedies and mass atrocities.
Social media like Twitter, Facebook, YouTube, and many others, definitely play a critical role in disseminating hate speech. The platforms that they provide for their users worldwide are utilized by various parties ranging from high-ranking individuals (e.g. politicians, government officials, journalists, distinguished public figures), to ordinary people from all walks of life, who in their urge to voice their dissent, resort to launching vicious, "virtual" attacks at their opponents.
Given the "power" of hate speech and its potentially far-reaching repercussions, the aim of this paper is to approach and shed light on some of the essentials at the core of this phenomenon. In fact, the aim of the paper is to provide insights into the scope of hate speech and its realizations; the context and participants in hate speech, then, the role of social media in disseminating hate speech, and the actual legislative which regulates hate speech. All these aspects are instantiated and looked at through the prism of the latest political and social developments in our own homeland, the Republic of Macedonia.

Key words: *hate speech, Macedonia, social media*

INTRODUCTION

One of the main caveats of modern democratic societies everywhere in the world is the right to free speech. This means that people are inherently entitled to expressing their opinions regarding all aspects of life. However, as the waves of hateful, demeaning and dehumanizing messages against particular individuals, or groups of individuals on the grounds of their political affiliation, religious conviction, ethnicity, sexual orientation, disability, etc. nowadays intensify and expand infecting an ever growing proportion of the human race, it becomes highly debatable whether hate speech should be considered simply as free speech.

A very brief glance at literature on hate speech and its nexus with free speech reveals that there is a wide spectrum of diametrically opposing standpoints. One school of thought blatantly refutes any segregation between these two, and thus, in fact, promotes the maxim

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that hate speech is free speech as it maximizes the opportunities for individual expression and cultural regeneration; Another school of thought goes to the other extreme, and recognizes hate speech as a separate and rather dangerous phenomenon which should be repressed through sanctions in the form of official and/or private reprimands as well as criminal prosecutions. The middle ground of this spectrum is occupied by the proponents of the claim that only targeted vilification of a person on the basis of race, gender, religion, ethnic origin, sexual orientation, or other protected characteristics should be classified as hate speech and proscribed (in Massaro, 1991).

Although hate speech undoubtedly traces its roots back to ancient times, it seems that nowadays it reemerges invigorated as never before. The intensity with which it spreads, unquestionably, can be attributed to a great extent to social media (e.g. Twitter, Facebook, YouTube, Instagram, etc.), as these provide channels through which hate speech is distributed unimpeded globally in a matter of seconds.

The fact that more and more people get free and unlimited access to these online platforms is the other crucial factor in the dissemination of hate speech. Many individuals or groups of people, embolden by the fact that they can assume fake identity, and in most cases, no one is going to hold them accountable, indulge in issuing aggressive rhetoric. Some even do not find it necessary to conceal their real identity. In any case, their hate messages range from rather offensive slurs and libels which are relatively harmless, to outright incitement to violence, terror attacks and even genocide.

Unfortunately, hate speech has not circumvented our own homeland – the Republic of Macedonia. To the contrary, given the fact that, with its 26-year independence, Macedonia is a relatively young democracy which still struggles to delineate its course regarding many vital, existential issues, its socio-political climate seems particularly conducive for breeding hate speech. Thus, the political situation in Macedonia, especially at the end of 2016 and in the first quarter of 2017, was rapidly spiraling out of control, with none of the major political players being willing to make a compromise and relinquish their position. Eventually, amidst this real boiling political cauldron, common sense prevailed and the country was lucky to have had a narrow escape from a large-scale catastrophe. Nevertheless, during this period of great uncertainty and tension Macedonia witnessed first–hand the "power" of hate speech and the devastating toll it could possibly take.

In light of the above, this paper tries to offer a holistic understanding of the phenomenon of hate speech by providing a snapshot analysis of some of its most salient aspects through the prism of the latest political and social developments in our immediate environment – the Republic of Macedonia.

THE SCOPE OF HATE SPEECH

The study of hate speech in the recent years has attracted the attention of a great number of scholars from different fields of knowledge (linguists, sociologists, philosophers, historians, psychologists, anthropologists, lawyers and political scientists, etc.)[1]. What has drown all these scholars to address this issue with such deliberation is in all likelihood the fact that, in these turbulent times we live in, societies worldwide are being deeply polarized along so many different lines – religion, politics, ethnicity, etc., and are in a constant state of flux, which, at the end of the day, renders them extremely susceptible to hate speech whose detrimental effects sometimes can be beyond belief. Moreover, hate speech lies in a complex nexus with freedom of expression, and it is vital to be able to distinguish between these two. People who produce it very often hide behind the mask of fighting for human rights and the

[1] Excerpted from Elvira Kaminskaya's paper titled: "Hate Speech: Theory and Issues" retrieved at http://iseees.berkeley.edu/sites/default/files/u4/iseees/caseproject_/KaminskayaFR.pdf.

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greater good. They present themselves as just and honorable, defending some vulnerable group of people treated unjustly. But it seems that they do not realize that while defending someone they fall into the same trap of doing wrong to somebody else with their hateful messages. What is even more alarming is the fact that being exposed to such rhetoric almost continuously, people in general nowadays start to accept it as something normal, and, unfortunately, to them the boundary between free speech and hate speech becomes completely obscure and irrelevant.

The key question that arises in discussing hate speech is what actually constitutes hate speech. An overview of the relevant literature reveals that hate speech is a complex and highly contested phenomenon, and that, to date, there is no single unanimously accepted definition of what hate speech actually is.

The simplest definition is that hate speech is any speech which causes some offense to others (Lewis, 2012). Another slightly broader definition presents hate speech as speech that is disparaging of certain gender, religion, race, and sexual orientation (in Lewis, 2012). One of the most frequently quoted definitions on hate speech is the one proposed by the Council of Europe. According to the Council of Europe "all forms of expressions which spread, incite, promote or justify racial hatred, xenophobia, anti-Semitism or other forms of hatred based on intolerance, including: intolerance expressed by aggressive nationalism and ethnocentrism, discrimination and hostility against minorities, migrants and people of immigrant origin" come under the umbrella of the term hate speech[2]. A slightly more far-ranging definition which covers more aspects of hate speech is the one proposed by Cohen-Almagor (2011) who defines it as "bias-motivated, hostile, malicious speech aimed at a person or a group of people because of their actual or perceived innate characteristics". He further states that hate speech expresses "discriminatory, intimidating, disapproving, antagonistic, and/or prejudicial attitudes towards those characteristics, which include gender, race, religion, ethnicity, color, national origin, disability or sexual orientation" and that hate speech is intended "to injure, dehumanize, harass, intimidate, debase, degrade and victimize the targeted groups, and to foment insensitivity and brutality against them" (in Gagliardone et al., 2014).

Another salient aspect that needs to be taken into consideration to fully understand hate speech is that it does not always come into the same 'packaging' and with the same degree of intensity. Depending on the levels of threat hate speech poses to individuals and society, research[3] has it that it can appear in three major forms: *harsh, moderate* and *soft forms* of hate speech. Whilst the *harsh forms* include explicit and implicit calls for violence and discrimination and the *soft forms* are statements used for creating negative image of an individual or a group, the *moderate forms* encompass justification of historical cases of violence and discrimination; statements casting doubt on admitted historical facts of violence and discrimination; statements on historical crimes of one or another ethnic or religious group; accusations of the negative impact of one or another ethnic or religious group; accusations of a group of attempted seizure of power or territorial expansion, denial of citizenship, etc.

[2] Data extracted from Liina Laanpere's essay titled "Online Hate Speech: Hate or Crime? Legal issues in the virtual world - Who is responsible for online hate speech and what legislation exists that can be applied to react, counter or punish forms of hate speech online?" submitted at ELSA International Online Hate Speech Competition.

[3] The data are extracted from Hate Speech in the Media and Internet Report prepared by *School of Peacemaking and Media Technology in Central Asia*, published in 2014.

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THE CONTEXT OF HATE SPEECH

Evidently, hate speech is bound to appear whenever someone feels the urge to demean and demonize those holding opposing views, as well as when one wishes to persuade or rather manipulate other people into accepting and endorsing a particular ideology in order to achieve certain political and social goals. Nevertheless, in order for one to understand not only what has triggered the articulation of a particular hateful message, but also the actual (implied) meaning of the hate message itself, they need to have a solid and adequate grasp of a wide array of factors stemming from "the historical, social and political context in which hate speech occurs" (Gagliardone et al., 2014).

If we consider the case of Macedonia, the historical and socio-political context of the Republic of Macedonia seems to be particularly conducive for hate speech to thrive and flourish. Although Macedonia is a country of only 2 million inhabitants, the majority of whom are ethnic Macedonians, the country is populated by a great variety of other ethnic groups. Among them the ethnic Albanians constitute the largest minority. There always has been some friction and tenseness in the relationship between the two biggest ethnicities, with the smaller ethnicity blaming the bigger one for not allowing it to exercise the same rights, and the bigger ethnicity accusing the smaller one of fomenting irredentist claims and forging plans with the neighboring countries against their own homeland. If one sets this aside, the greatest gap between these two ethnicities perhaps stems from the differences in their religious conviction with the Macedonians practicing the Orthodox Christianity and the Albanians the Islam.

Generally speaking, Macedonia in essence takes pride in its pluralism and diversity, and history has proved that ordinary people have mastered the art of being tolerant and appreciative of "the otherness" of those who are not members of their own ethnic and religious community. Nevertheless, every time when the political stakes are too high it becomes evident that this carefully crafted but still rather delicate balance is an easy target to hit in the battle for more political points. In other words, during election campaigns and especially in post-election periods, politicians and the other political stakeholders are particularly keen on putting these differences in the limelight in a rather negative way, so that they can achieve their set goals more easily. Thus, their deliberate and often times far from accurate political rhetoric, in conjunction with the relatively low living standard of the majority of the population, the high level of unemployment and poverty in Macedonia, serve as perfect triggers for displeasure and intolerance particularly towards the members of the "other" group, who are always for some reason, "better off".

In addition, Macedonia's turbulent history has also had a fair share in causing hate speech to sprout and spread among its population. Being positioned in the center of the Balkan Peninsula, Macedonia has an extremely favorable geo-strategic position, which has always made the country's territory particularly appealing to the neighboring countries. In the past, that resulted in long periods of occupation and submission. Nonetheless, Macedonia has persevered in its efforts to preserve its integrity, and in 1991, in the process of Former Yugoslavia's disintegration, it managed to win the status of an independent country, and finally gained its sovereignty. Today, however, due to a number of unresolved issues with its immediate neighbors, Macedonia seems still sadly haunted by the past, and legs behind in many respects. All this in turn, unfortunately, very frequently turns Macedonia into both a very fertile soil for sowing and cultivating hate speech towards all those who impede its progress and a target of hate speech from those whose requirements and ultimatums the country refutes to meet. Thus, for instance, its southern neighbor Greece 26 years after the country's independence still refuses to acknowledge the country's constitutional name, the Republic of Macedonia, and as a result of that vetoes the country's membership in the

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European Union and NATO. Consequently, that provokes a lot of anger and discontent on the part of the Macedonian people, which quite frequently is expressed in the form of hate speech.

PERPETRATORS AND VICTIMS OF HATE SPEECH

Given that very often hate speech serves as a propaganda intended to convince the masses into accepting a particular ideology, logically, preachers of hostility are usually influential people in the society who have a potentially significant impact on the shaping of the general public opinion. Thus, unfortunately, the role of perpetrators of hate speech is normally assumed by politicians, journalists, media columnists, political analysts, etc.

The perpetrators of hate speech and the wider community, i.e. the ordinary people who share their views and/or also partake in hate speech, in literature, are also known as *in-groups*. The groups of people who are the actual recipients or rather victims of hate speech are commonly referred to as *out-groups*.

The main task and preoccupation of the in-groups is to politicize particular social differences (e.g. race, ethnicity, religion, sexual orientation, gender), characterizing another group in negative and dehumanized terms. One plausible explanation as to what motivates them to act in that way is that they feel threatened and fearful, for instance, of losing their jobs, social status, position of power and authority, etc. In Whillock's (1995) terms the in-group members resort to hate messages as "hate appeals are used consciously to inflame the emotions of followers, denigrate out-group, inflict permanent and irreparable harm on the opposition, and, ultimately, to conquer"[4].

Despite the fact that hateful expressions are predominantly used by those who exert power, it is both conceptually possible and empirically evident that members of generally dominated groups, i.e. the out-groups, can also promote exclusions of nonmembers (in Kaminskaya). Their justification for succumbing to hate speech, of course, would be the urge to have their voices heard, and to discard the chains which make them feel less important, marginalized and unappreciated.

The fact that both the perpetrators and the victims of hate speech engage in hateful discourse can be confirmed by taking a quick glance at the current political situation in Macedonia. Contemporary Macedonia, unfortunately, can be characterized as a heavily politicized society, whose population appears to be particularly deeply divided along the lines of political affiliation into members and supporters of the two biggest political parties, the right-wing VMRO DPMNE and the left-wing SDSM, from the Macedonian bloc, and members and supporters of the two biggest political parties from the Albanian bloc, DUI and DPA.

The unpleasant reality is that during election campaigns, all the major political stakeholders inevitably try very hard to ensure that all the possible differences among people in society become as transparent as possible, so that they can be utilized for scoring political points with the electorate. Hence, inescapably, many ordinary people, for one reason or another – essentially in their efforts to boost their employability chances, are almost unwillingly forced not only to choose a political side – the ruling party or the opposition – but also to be active and vocal about it. For many of these people who find themselves in such a situation, the easiest path is to attack their non-likeminded adversaries by issuing and spreading harmful messages intended to mar their opponents' reputation beyond repair.

Of course, Macedonia with its way of handling political affairs is not tracing a brand new route in the realm of politics. But unlike many other countries in the world, if we take

[4] Excerpted from Elvira Kaminskaya's paper titled: "Hate Speech: Theory and Issues" retrieved at http://iseees.berkeley.edu/sites/default/files/u4/iseees/caseproject_/KaminskayaFR.pdf.

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into account its rather minuscule size in terms of population and territory, the fact remains that the divisive politics of hate speech in this context is particularly detrimental and renders the country extremely sensitive and vulnerable.

THE CONSEQUENCES OF HATE SPEECH

If the circumstances are right, hate speech without a doubt acts as "a slow-acting poison to society, spreading incrementally, which makes it difficult for the public good of inclusiveness to be fostered" (Gagliardone et al., 2014). Sometimes hate speech is directed at a particular individual, but sometimes at a group of people, or even an entire community. In consequence, the gravity of the repercussions of hate speech are in a direct correlation with and heavily depend on its respected target.

Thus, on an individual level, for instance, bearing in mind that people have this inherent need to be respected and treated with dignity, when they become a target of hate speech, the harm done invariably is in some form of immediate psychological injury, i.e. emotional distress (Matsuda, 1989 in Attias, 2001), with the possibility of physical attacks and bodily harm not being entirely excluded either. In the best case scenarios individuals who have been victims of hate speech might end up feeling galvanized to stand up to those who do them harm and defend their dignity, integrity and wellbeing. But in the worst case scenarios, the hurt can lead to various forms of psychosomatic states and disorders, one of them certainly being depression, which can completely shatter not only the victim's life but also the lives of those closest and dearest to them. Butler (1997: 4) puts this finding in very vivid terms: "to be injured through language is to suffer a loss of context, that is, not to know where you are, or, to experience utter disorientation".

A politically-motivated incident that took place in the midst of the recent political crisis in Macedonia can be used to illustrate this point very neatly. Namely, as the situation between the ruling party and the opposition was becoming extremely tense and heated, there emerged reports on an incident in which a school teacher who also happened to be a supporter of the-then ruling party, VMRO DPMNE, during one of their counter-protest marshes carried a real cross usually carried at funerals with the name and the surname of the leader of the opposition party designated on it. The political message she was trying to convey was quite clear to everyone – there is no room for this politician on the political stage as he is 'politically' dead, i.e. he lacks support from the electorate, but the moral side of the act stirred a lot of harsh reactions in the general public. Condemning severely the perpetrator, there was a real outburst of offensive comments posted principally on the social media demeaning and defaming the teacher who bore the cross and presenting her as a true disgrace to the teaching profession.

Although, this incident had no continuation in the form of legal proceedings, still, it is not difficult to assume that a serious psychological damage had been inflicted on both parties involved – the targeted politician (who was 'buried alive'), and the school teacher (who was a fiercely attacked and heavily criticized by the general public).

When hate speech is directed at a group of individuals or an entire community, it poses a far more serious threat as it can lead to an immediate breach of peace, and an escalation of violence and fatalities (Matsuda, 1989 in Attias, 2001). Unfortunately, the world so far, has seen many such bloody and devastating events initiated among the other things by hate speech. The Republic of Macedonia, evidently does not need to go back a long way in the past, to find an instance in which a serious political crisis, accompanied by intensive hateful rhetoric, primarily on the part of the political figures and their supporters – the opposition blaming the ruling party for being engaged in extensive criminal activities; and the ruling party accusing the opposition of selling the country's national interests by siding with

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foreign countries – has brought the country almost to the very verge of a yet another civil war at the beginning of 2017.

To sum it up, the potential destructive power of hate speech should not be underestimated, as in the right context, under the right circumstances, hate speech has already proven its potential to wreak a havoc in people's lives and societies in general with unconceivable consequences.

THE ROLE OF SOCIAL MEDIA IN DISSEMINATING HATE SPEECH

The dissemination of messages with hateful, threatening, and prejudicial content in the past used to be realized rather conventionally via radio, print media, SMS messages, and even song lyrics. Nowadays, social media such as Twitter, Facebook, YouTube, Instagram, and various Internet news portals are all used as platforms for disseminating hate speech in a brand new fashion.

The ever increasing popularity of these online platforms, i.e. the steady and constant increase in the number of internet users, unquestionably, consolidates further the prospects of hate speech to be distributed, in a matter of seconds, with no impediment whatsoever obstructing its dissemination.

On the other hand, social media have correctly recognized how salient their role in the distribution of hate messages is, and, in response to that they have agreed to lay out terms of agreement, hoping to regulate and restrict such potentially hazardous activities. Thus, for instance, Facebook in its terms of agreement specifies that "content that attacks people based on their actual or perceived race, ethnicity, national origin, religion, sex, gender, sexual orientation, disability or disease is not allowed" to be posted on their platform. Twitter also forbids to "publish or post direct, specific threats of violence against others". YouTube's policy is also strongly against permitting "any speech which attacks or demeans a group based on race or ethnic origin, religion, disability, gender, age, veteran status and sexual orientation/gender identity" to be disseminated via their website.

Evidently, social media, overall, seem to be in agreement when it comes to prohibiting hate speech. In that respect, it is important to mention that in May 31, 2016, many of them (Facebook, Google, Microsoft, and Twitter) jointly agreed to follow a European Union code of conduct which obligates them to review "[the] majority of valid notifications for removal of illegal hate speech posted on their services within 24 hours"[5].

The Republic of Macedonia has also been swept by this global trend of extensive usage of social media by people at all ages. Social media were heavily referred to for obtaining and spreading information especially during the unfolding of the events which marked the pre-election period in 2016 (e.g. the huge wire-tapping scandal, mass protests, and counter-protests), as well as the ones in the post-election period in early 2017 (e.g. the attempts to form a new government and the resultant incident in the Parliament when an angry mob forcefully stormed the Parliament building physically attacking and injuring MPs). Consequently, it comes as no surprise that many people amidst all those tumultuous events felt provoked and were tempted to vent their discontent and frustration via the social media. By unleashing numerous vicious comments and reactions, their aim was to criticize principally the direct participants in those events and all those who supported them. Many of these comments unfortunately, could be very easily and unequivocally classified as hate speech as they contain highly offensive, rude and obscene vocabulary.

[5] Information extracted from "Facebook, YouTube, Twitter and Microsoft sign EU hate speech code". *The Guardian*. Retrieved at *https://www.theguardian.com/technology/2016/may/31/facebook-youtube-twitter-microsoft-eu-hate-speech-code.*

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HATE SPEECH LAWS

The final aspect that is considered in this paper is concerned with the laws on hate speech and the legal implications which stem from committing hate speech crimes.

Hate speech is an issue that has been addressed both on an international and national level. Governments across the world have negotiated the balance between protecting freedom of expression which is necessary for the realization of a democratic society, as well as preventing harm to individuals or minority groups as a result of hateful speech. Given the tensions between hate speech and freedom of expression, as well as its intersection with other human rights issues such as equality and dignity, and laws governing the press, globally speaking, there are various disparate pieces of legislation (Gagliardone et al., 2014).

Thus for instance, in the European Union, the Council of Europe's efforts to achieve greater unity in its Member States legislation regarding hate crimes have paid off to a great extent. Nevertheless, if the national laws of the European countries are compared with the ones of the United States of America, many striking differences will be noted. The United States' approach is strongly influenced by the First Amendment of the federal Constitution, and hate speech, being considered close to political speech, falls under its protection most of the time. In contrast, this is not the case with the European countries. In Denmark, France, Britain and Germany people have been prosecuted for crimes involving hate speech on the Internet. In other parts of the world, there are some even more extreme examples of national laws, especially when it comes to hate speech directed at religious groups. For example, in Bangladesh, a person can face up to ten years in jail for defaming a religion.[6]

Macedonia has also adopted a Law on Civil Liability for Insult and Defamation which consists of 26 articles. Thus, the restrictions on freedom of expression and information are legally regulated and are in line with the European Convention for the Protection of Human Rights and Fundamental Freedoms and the practice of the European Court of Human Rights.

According to the Law on Civil Liability for Insult and Defamation a person can be charged with an insult, if it is found that they had an intention to disparage somebody by making a statement, or by their behavior, or publication, or if they have expressed something humiliating about another party, thus violating their honor and reputation, or invalidating the reputation of a legal entity, a group of people or a dead person (Article 6).

Moreover, the law stipulates that if the defendant is found guilty, they are obliged to publish an apology or public withdrawal of the statement in the same media or on the same website (Article 13). Reimbursement of non-pecuniary damages for insult is made only if the perpetrator of the offense has not apologized and publicly withdrawn the offending statement, or if he has repeated the offense. The amount of the compensation of damage should be proportional to the damage done to the reputation of the victim (Article 15).

In this respect, a report presented on the Macedonian TV Channel "24 Vesti" of July, 2017, disclosed that in the last three years, during which hate speech is actually on the rise as a result of the socio-political crisis in the country, the Macedonian judiciary system has not passed a single verdict against perpetrators of hate speech crimes. The report partly puts the blame on the Prosecution itself which for the most part is not interested in undertaking such cases. This implies that, on the one hand, the victims of hate speech in our country, for the time being, are left completely unprotected, and, on the other hand, the perpetrators are encouraged to carry on producing more of their obscene rhetoric. The research also showed

[6] Data extracted from Liina Laanpere's essay titled "Online Hate Speech: Hate or Crime? Legal issues in the virtual world - Who is responsible for online hate speech and what legislation exists that can be applied to react, counter or punish forms of hate speech online?" submitted at ELSA International Online Hate Speech Competition.

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that hate speech is most frequently present on social networks, and that it is mostly aimed to insult people based on their ethnicity as well as on their political and sexual orientation.

CONCLUSION

The practice of disseminating hate speech has imposed itself as one of the most burning issues of contemporary societies, and it is no exaggeration to state that it needs to be addressed with a very pronounced sense of exigency. As we are all witnessing nowadays, many of the world crises either directly stem from or are at least in part supported and invigorated by hate speech, it only follows that all governments and key political figures in the world should be united in their efforts to discourage and suppress it as much as possible.

While it is true that one of the greatest benefits of democratic societies is freedom of speech, still no one should be allowed under the disguise of exercising the right to free speech to offend, humiliate and demean another human being. Surely the language is a powerful means of communication that allows for expressing disapproval, discontent and criticism for the actions of non-likeminded individuals without actually stooping to a level of baseness, vulgarity, profanity and aggression. On the contrary, these pillars by which hate speech is mainly supported, should be traded for a battle of minds in which reasonable and logical arguments will be exchanged, which, in turn, would eventually move things forward towards a brighter future for all human kind.

In order to combat hate speech efficiently, people need to be familiarized as closely as possible with all its accompanying aspects. The research undertaken here was in partial fulfilment of that same requirement. Through the prism of the current socio-political situation in our motherland, the Republic of Macedonia, we attempted to present what actually constitutes hate speech, the context in which it normally appears, the perpetrators of hate speech crimes; the consequences it could possibly have on its victims, the role of social media in its dissemination and the laws on hate speech.

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