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**SOCIĀLĀ PEDAGOĢIJA**  
**INOVĀCIJAS VALODU IZGLĪTĪBĀ**

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**SATURS  
CONTENTS**

**SPECIĀLĀ PEDAGOĢIJA  
SPECIAL PEDAGOGY**

<b>Andziule Vita, Aleksiene Vilmante, Lesinskiene Sigita</b> MUSIC THERAPY IN RETT SYNDROME CASES	17
<b>Banasiak Anna</b> THE SENSE OF EMPOWERMENT AMONG PARENTS OF CHILDREN WITH AUTISM	27
<b>Baslerova Pavlina, Ruzicka Michal, Michalik Jan</b> THE ATTITUDES AND OPINIONS OF THE TEACHING STAFF CONCERNING INCLUSION IN THE CZECH REPUBLIC: READINESS FOR CHILDREN WITH VARIOUS TYPES OF IMPAIRMENT	37
<b>Burzawa Katarzyna Renata</b> DIFFICULTIES IN VERBAL AND NON-VERBAL COMMUNICATION IN AUTISM	45
<b>Czerw Monika</b> HIPPO THERAPY OF CHILDREN WITH DOWN SYNDROME: DIFFICULTIES, RECOMMENDATIONS FOR WORK	54
<b>Červinková Helena</b> АКАЛЬКУЛИЯ У ПАЦИЕНТКИ С АФАЗИЕЙ БРОКА И ЛЕГКИМИ КОГНИТИВНЫМИ РАССТРОЙСТВАМИ - РАЗБОР КЛИНИЧЕСКОГО СЛУЧАЯ <i>Acalculia in Patient with Broca Aphasia and Mild Cognitive Impairment - a Case Study</i>	65
<b>Gudonis Vytautas</b> THE IMAGE OF A PERSON WITH DISABILITY IN FAIRY TALES AND FINE ART AS A REFLECTION OF THE ATTITUDE OF THE SOCIETY	76
<b>Kaffemaniene Irena, Meliene Rita, Milteniene Lina, Geleziniene Renata, Kairiene Daiva, Tomeniene Laima</b> EDUCATION AND ASSESSMENT OF LEARNING OUTCOMES IN LITHUANIAN SPECIAL SCHOOLS	91

<b>Kulačkovska Judīte</b> THE LEGAL SITUATION OF PEOPLE WITH DISABILITIES IN LATVIA	107
<b>Mosler Dariusz</b> APPLICATION OF TAEKWONDO PARALYMPIC RULES FOR SPARRING COMPETITION IN TERMS OF SPECIAL NEEDS PHYSICAL EDUCATION FOR REDUCTION OF CHALLENGING BEHAVIOUR	117
<b>Prudņikova Ilga</b> PEDAGOGU PROFESIONĀLĀS KOMPETENCES PILNVEIDES NODROŠINĀŠANA IEKĻAUJOŠĀ IZGLĪTĪBĀ <i>Provision of the Development of the Professional Competence of Teachers in Inclusive Education</i>	127
<b>Rozenfelde Marīte</b> AKTUĀLAS SKOLOTĀJU DARBA TEHNOLOĢIJAS SKOLĒNU AR GARĪGĀS ATTĪSTĪBAS TRAUCĒJUMIEM IZGLĪTOŠANAS PROCESĀ <i>Topical Teachers' Work Techniques in Education Process of Pupils with Mental Disorders</i>	137
<b>Schwarzová Lucie</b> POSSIBILITIES OF SUPPORT OF SPECIAL NEEDS STUDENTS AT THE GRADUATION EXAM - CASE STUDY OF A STUDENT WITH ASPERGER SYNDROME FOCUSING ON THE MODIFICATION OF GRADUATION EXAM CONDITIONS	147
<b>Shtefan Liudmyla, Rudnieva Iryna, Kurnitska Natalya, Lysenko Natalya</b> ПОНЯТИЕ ТОЛЕРАНТНОСТИ В СИСТЕМЕ СОЦИАЛЬНОЙ АДАПТАЦИИ МИГРАНТОВ - КОМПОНЕНТ НЕФОРМАЛЬНОГО ОБРАЗОВАНИЯ (НА ПРИМЕРЕ КАНАДСКОЙ ПРОВИНЦИИ КВЕБЕК И ФРАНЦИИ) <i>Concept of Tolerance in the System of Social Adaptation of Migrants as a Component of Non-Formal Education (Illustrated in the Model of Canadian Province of Quebec and France)</i>	158

**Trinite Baiba**  
THE INVESTIGATION OF VOICE HANDICAP INDEX IN  
TEACHERS WITH AND WITHOUT SELF-RATED VOICE  
DISORDERS 169

**Virbaliene Rita, Baranauskienė Ingrida**  
PECULARITIES OF TRANSITION OF YOUNG PEOPLE WITH  
DISABILITIES TO ADULT LIFE 179

**Voitkāne Vita**  
IEKĻAUJOŠĀS IZGLĪTĪBAS KVALITĀTE, ŠĶĒRŠĻI UN  
NEPIECIEŠAMIE PEDAGOGISKIE RISINĀJUMI DARBĀ AR  
SKOLĒNIEM AR AUTISMU ITĀLIJĀ  
*Quality of Inclusive Education, Obstacles and Necessary  
Pedagogical Solutions in Working with Pupils with Autism in Italy* 190

**SOCIĀLĀ PEDAGOĢIJA**  
**SOCIAL PEDAGOGY**

**Alifanoviene Daiva, Sapelyte Odeta, Rudytė Kristina, Orska Rita**  
THE ANALYSIS OF CONTEXTS OF STRESS EXPERIENCED  
BY SOCIAL WELFARE PROFESSIONALS: EXPERIENCE OF  
LITHUANIA, LATVIA AND GREAT BRITAIN 203

**Barkane Evita, Truskovska Zenija**  
EKSPERIMENTĀLAIS PĒTĪJUMS PAR PUSAUDŽU  
SASKARSMES PRASMJU ATTĪSTĪŠANU SOCIĀLAJĀ  
GLEZNOŠANĀ  
*Experimental Study on Development of Adolescents' Interaction Skills  
in Social Painting* 214

**Bereznaja-Demidenko Valentina, Štuopytė Edita**  
THE ROLE OF EDUCATION IN THE INTEGRATION PROCESS  
OF FORCED MIGRANTS 225

**Ciuladiene Grazina, Kairiene Brigita**  
THE RESOLUTION OF CONFLICT BETWEEN TEACHER AND  
STUDENT: TEACHERS' NARRATIVES 235



<b>Kalashnyk Lyubov, Burtseva Yulia, Naumenko Stanislav, Wu Yanlin</b> INFORMAL COMPONENT IN THE EDUCATIONAL WORK WITH GIFTED CHILDREN IN CHINA	246
<b>Karpuszenko Elena</b> РЕБЁНОК, КАК ЖЕРТВА НАСИЛИЯ В СЕМЬЕ <i>Child as a Victim of Domestic Violence</i>	255
<b>Kolesnikova Natalia, Makarkina Oksana, Dvoretzky Dmitry, Manoylova Marina</b> СОЦИАЛЬНО-ПСИХОЛОГИЧЕСКИЕ ХАРАКТЕРИСТИКИ ВЕРУЮЩИХ И НЕВЕРУЮЩИХ ГРАЖДАН, ОТБЫВАЮЩИХ НАКАЗАНИЕ (НА ПРИМЕРЕ ХРИСТИАНСКОГО ВЕРОИСПОВЕДАНИЯ) <i>Socio-Psychological Characteristics of Believers and Non-Believers, Serving Their Sentences (as Illustrated by Christianity)</i>	265
<b>Kozhemyakina Elena, Senchenkov Nikolay</b> ОРГАНИЗАЦИЯ РАБОТЫ СТОРОЖИЩЕНСКОЙ ИСПРАВИТЕЛЬ-НОЙ КОЛОНИИ-ПРИЮТА СМОЛЕНСКОЙ ГУБЕРНИИ В КОНТЕКСТЕ ИДЕЙ И.Ф. ГЕРБАРТА <i>The organization of work of Storozhishchensky corrective colony shelter of the Smolensk province in the context of I.F. Gerbart's ideas</i>	275
<b>Krage Gunta, Ivanova Ilze</b> PRIEKŠLAICĪGAS MĀCĪBU PĀRTRAUKŠANAS NOVĒRŠANAS ATBALSTA SISTĒMAS VEIDOŠANA UN VADĪBA <i>Development and Management of Support System for Early School Leavers</i>	290
<b>Kromerova Enrika, Šukys Saulius</b> DOES INTERNALISATION OF MORAL VALUES PREDICT ADOLESCENTS' PROSOCIAL BEHAVIOUR AND LESS TOLERANCE TOWARDS ANTISOCIAL BEHAVIOUR?	305
<b>Kurapova Irina, Lezhnina Larisa</b> MACHIAVELLIANISM AND PERSONAL TRAITS IN YOUNG AGE	316

<b>Lezhnina Larisa, Morova Natalia, Domracheva Svetlana</b> «УНИВЕРСИТЕТ ТРЕТЬЕГОВОЗРАСТА» КАК ФОРМА НЕПРЕ-РЫВНОГО ОБРАЗОВАНИЯ ПОЖИЛЫХ ЛЮДЕЙ <i>“University of the Third Age” as a Form of Senior Citizens’ Lifelong Education</i>	324
<b>Lipinski Stanislaw</b> FEAR SYNDROME AND ATTITUDES TOWARDS DEATH IN YOUNGER AND OLDER FEMALES	333
<b>Merfeldaite Odeta, Penkauskiene Daiva, Pivorienė Jolanta, Raiiene Asta</b> REDUCING SOCIAL EXCLUSION IN EDUCATION: A CONCEPTION OF ALL DAY SCHOOLING	345
<b>Ratkevičienė Milda</b> “ME – YOU”: SOCIAL PEDAGOGUE’S HELP FOR SOCIAL RISK CHILDREN IN TERMS OF INTERRELATIONSHIP	357
<b>Raudeliunaite Rita, Gudžinskienė Vida</b> THE DEVELOPMENT OF SOCIAL SKILLS OF YOUNG PEOPLE LIVING IN COMMUNITY CARE HOMES	368
<b>Ruszkowska Marzena Urszula, Wołosiuk Beata, Sobczuk Sebastian, Zdunkiewicz Piotr</b> COMPENSATION OF EDUCATIONAL DEFICIENCIES IN CHIL- DREN STAYING IN FOSTER CARE IN BIALAPODLASKAPOVIAT	378
<b>Ruszkowska Marzena Urszula</b> EDUCATIONAL AND PROFESSIONAL PLANS AND ASPIRATIONS OF THOSE IN CHARGE OF CARE AND EDUCATIONAL CENTRES AND FAMILY-RUN CHILDREN’S HOME (ON THE EXAMPLE OF BIAŁA PODLASKA POWIAT)	388
<b>Siedlaczek-Szwed Aleksandra, Jałowiecka-Frania Agata</b> SOCIAL WORK IN SCHOOL EDUCATION	397
<b>Skarbaliene Aelita, Skarbalius Egidijus</b> THE ASPECTS OF SHARED LEADERSHIP IN HEALTH CARE	406

**Skarbalius Egidijus, Marcinowicz Ludmila, Skarbalienė Aelita**  
PROFESSIONAL IDENTITY OF NURSING STUDENTS IN  
LITHUANIA AND POLAND 415

**Startek Ewelina, Węc Klaudia**  
LEARNING A PARENTAL ROLE DURING THE PROCESS OF  
REHABILITATION AND FAMILY INTEGRATION, WITHIN  
PRISON SETTINGS 423

**Zajęcka Beata**  
THE PSYCHOSOCIAL FUNCTIONING OF WOMEN AND MEN  
ADDICTED TO ALCOHOL 432

**Žukauskienė Lilia, Skališienė Rasa**  
FACTORS DETERMINING VULNERABILITY ON ONLINE  
SOCIAL NETWORKS AMONG TEENAGE GIRLS ATTENDING  
A CHILD DAY CARE CENTRE 442

**Žukauskienė Lilia, Virsilas Vaidas, Farbring Carl Ake**  
PRECONDITIONS FOR ENHANCING SOCIO-EDUCATIONAL  
ASSISTANCE TO INDIVIDUALS SERVING NON-CUSTODIAL  
SENTENCES 459

**INOVĀCIJAS VALODU IZGLĪTĪBĀ**  
**INNOVATION IN LANGUAGE EDUCATION**

**Avdienko Irina, Zhukova Kateryna, Kotova Anna,**  
**Rudaya Nataliya, Kholodniak Elena**  
ОСОБЕННОСТИ ПРЕПОДАВАНИЯ ГРАММАТИКИ  
ВТОРОГО ИНОСТРАННОГО ЯЗЫКА НА НАЧАЛЬНОМ  
ЭТАПЕ ОБУЧЕНИЯ  
*Special Aspects of the Second Foreign Language Teaching at the  
Basic Course* 479

**Gaitniece Lāsma**  
LATVIEŠU VALODAS KĀ SVEŠVALODAS DOCĒŠANA  
MULTILINGVĀLĀ KLASĒ: UNGĀRIJAS PIEREDZE  
*Teaching Latvian as a Foreign Language in the Multilingual  
Classroom: Experience of Hungary* 490

<b>Glushenko Olga, Korenetskaya Irina, Kuznetsova Ekaterina</b> INNOVATIVE APPROACHES IN DEVELOPING COMMUNICATIVE COMPETENCE	501
<b>Gromov Yevhen, Kolomiets Alla, Lazarenko Natalia, Zhovnych Olesia, Biretska Liliia</b> ИНОЯЗЫЧНАЯ КОМПЕТЕНТНОСТЬ НАСЕЛЕНИЯ ПОЛЬШИ И ЧЕХИИ В КОНТЕКСТЕ СОВРЕМЕННЫХ ОБЩЕЕВРОПЕЙСКИХ ЛИНГВИСТИЧЕСКИХ ПРОЦЕССОВ <i>Foreign Language Competence of the Citizens of Poland and Czech Republic within the Context of Current All-European Linguistic Processes</i>	512
<b>Grzegorzewska Maria, Noga Henryk, Migo Piotr, Małodobry Zbigniew</b> TEACHING CONTENT OF TECHNOLOGY IN POLISH PRIMARY SCHOOL	524
<b>Klets Tatyana, Malysheva Oksana, Presnyakova Nadezhda</b> ДИФФЕРЕНЦИРОВАННЫЙ ПОДХОД К ОБУЧЕНИЮ ИНОСТРАННОМУ ЯЗЫКУ В НЕЯЗЫКОВОМ ВУЗЕ <i>Differentiated Approach to Foreign Language Training in Non- Linguistic Higher Educational Institution</i>	534
<b>Kosarassawadee Nithiwadee, Sukweses Aungkana, Tantarangsee Chaiwat</b> THE INTEGRATION OF “HOME, MONASTERY AND SCHOOL” LEARNING ORGANIZATION IN THE STUDY OF LOCAL TOURIST ATTRACTIONS AND CULTURE	545
<b>Lepellere Maria Antonietta, Piccinini Livio Clemente, Taverna Mario</b> FROM LINGUISTIC REPRESENTATION TO FUZZY MATHEMATICS IN GROWN UP PEOPLE	555
<b>Pielmus Cristina Georgeta</b> INNOVATION IN TEACHING ENGLISH FOR LAW ENFORCEMENT: A TECHNOLOGY-INTEGRATED APPROACH	566
<b>Žegunienė Vaida, Karczewska Małgorzata</b> GLOBAL AND INNOVATIVE TOOLS IN ENGLISH LANGUAGE LEARNING: STRENGTHS OR THREATS?	580

**Žegunienė Vaida, Kupriene Laima**

**A SECOND LANGUAGE ACQUISITION. PRACTICING THE  
METHOD OF VIRTUAL CROSS-CULTURAL INTERACTION:  
INNOVATION OR ROUTINE?**

594



**SPECIĀLĀ PEDAGOĢIJA**  
*SPECIAL PEDAGOGY*





## MUSIC THERAPY IN RETT SYNDROME CASES

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**Abstract.** *Rett syndrome is a rare (0,01 %) genetic disorder affecting girls' development. Individuals with Rett syndrome experience a full range of health problems that severely influence and complicate their mobility, intellect, communication, learning, and entire lifestyle. The treatment of Rett's syndrome is still aimed at investigating new pathways to ensure the best possible patient's development and quality of life. The distinctive feature of Rett syndrome is the two main sensations with little damage: hearing and vision. Therefore, music therapy plays an exceptional role in the treatment and special education of children with Rett syndrome. The goal of this study is to find the most effective music therapy techniques and their specific indications whilst working with individuals with Rett syndrome. Research method used: music therapists' online survey conducted internationally. The research suggests that the most effective methods in Rett syndrome cases are structured musical games that promote targeted hands-on movements, as well as listening to the songs and choice of favourite songs using pictures or other symbols. Music therapy can be applied for various health needs of individuals with Rett syndrome, especially to enhance hand functions as well as to improve non-verbal communication and to help individuals experience togetherness and joy.*

**Keywords:** *Rett syndrome, music therapy methods / techniques.*

### Introduction

Rett syndrome is a rare (0.01 %) girl-specific genetic developmental disorder severely affecting physical and mental abilities. At the time when this disorder was described for the first time by Andreas Rett in 1966 (as cited in Chahrour & Zoghbi, 2007: 422) gene mutations causing it were not yet known, and therefore, based on similar clinical symptoms such as limited eye contact and poor social interaction, Rett syndrome was classified as one of the autism spectrum disorders (DSM-3). Recent studies have revealed that Rett syndrome has genetic origin - mutations in the gene *MECP2* which is located on the X chromosome and is responsible for the production of protein necessary to maintain normal brain functions are found in 95 % of cases (Chahrour & Zoghbi, 2007; Percy, 2011; Bhandari, 2015).

Diagnostic criteria for Rett syndrome have also been revised (Perry, 1991; Hunter, 2007; Scruggs, 2009; Percy 2011; Lotan & Merrick, 2011). Overlapping features have been identified in the variety of scientific findings, first of all, the fact that psychomotor developmental disorders become apparent after normal prenatal and perinatal periods, between 6 and 18 months of age (Scruggs, 2009). Secondly, girls who have this disorder grow slower than other children in their early childhood, they often have a smaller head (microcephaly), their abilities to move (walk) and purposefully use their hands regress, and stereotypic hand movements such as clapping, wringing, tapping occur instead. Other emerging symptoms include disorders in cognitive functions and speech, sensory system disorders (except for vision and hearing), respiratory abnormalities (periods of apnoea or hyperventilation during wakefulness), seizures, scoliosis, sleep disorders (Hunter, 2007; Lotan & Merrick, 2011; Percy, 2011).

Studies show that the survival of girls with this disorder until the adult age – although accompanied by sickness, complications, loss of motor, cognitive, social abilities – is probable (Hunter, 2007). It has also been proven that girls with Rett syndrome are capable of learning new skills, provided that appropriate conditions are created for their education (Wesecky, 1986; Merker, Bergstroem-Isacsson, & Engerstroem 2001; Elefant & Wigram, 2005; Hunter, 2007). These recent data change the understanding of Rett syndrome and challenge professionals. Along with regular medical studies conducted around the world and aimed at controlling mutations in the gene causing Rett syndrome, there is a strong need for studies on ways to control and/or reduce symptoms. The strategy for helping people with Rett syndrome, aimed at applying effective forms and methods of therapy, nursing and education, is still being developed.

Rett syndrome cannot be cured, and some symptoms of the syndrome (e.g. epileptic seizures, severe respiratory, sleep disorders, osteoporosis) can only be controlled by medication. However, the disorder is complex, with each case being unique, therefore it requires interdisciplinary client-oriented work, while complementing therapeutic medical interventions with alternative therapies, focusing on specific abilities and strengths of an individual – especially on the least affected hearing and vision functions. Patients are usually recommended kinesitherapy, massages, occupational therapy, music therapy, hydrotherapy and hippotherapy. Neither of them can be perceived as the main one, but at the same time each one is both important and complementary, aimed at improving the functionality of individuals with Rett syndrome, their ability to communicate, and move (Hunter, 2007; Didden et al., 2010; Lotan & Merrick, 2011).

Music therapy nonetheless has an exclusive role in the list of therapies for individuals with Rett syndrome. It was recommended by Andreas Rett himself as a useful intervention for reducing stereotypic hand movements, shortening response time, muscle tension, arousing interest and stimulating the sensory

system. Girls with Rett syndrome are sensitive, receptive to musical sounds, able to recognise and associate them with events, so music therapy can be particularly successful in promoting and motivating communication with the environment (Lotan & Elefant, 2004). Individuals with Rett syndrome are particularly fond of music, therefore, by using music as their strong side, one can contribute to smoother development and education of these patients because learning new things is easier when the learning content is presented in an interesting way, and the process is engaging (Hunter, 2007). Andreas Rett noticed that music could break the barrier of difficulties, and at the same time revealed the hidden capabilities of patients with Rett syndrome (Chahrour & Zoghbi, 2007). Parents, therapists, physicians, in describing girls with Rett syndrome, mention that their connection with people and the world is created through music, and it is music that helps them understand and interpret themselves in the first place, as well as their surrounding environment and relationships with people (Merker et al., 2001; Trevarthen & Burford, 2001). In addition, it is very important that girls with Rett syndrome have an experience of normal development in the first year of their life until about 18 months. It should be noted that there is an intact period of early musical communication (Trevarthen & Malloch, 2000), and this is one of the strongest internal resources. A music therapist can use this form of musical interaction which is known to a child from the early days and gives a child a feeling of safety to stimulate the development of general abilities of later stages.

However, experience of applying music therapy with this rare group of patients is still severely under-studied, and there has been only patchy analysis of the music therapy technique for work with individuals who have Rett syndrome.

**Research questions:** What methods / techniques do music therapists use on their practice with Rett syndrome clients?

**The goal** is to reveal the most effective music therapy techniques and their specific indications whilst working with individuals with Rett syndrome.

The hypothesis is that music therapy improvisation techniques are the most suitable for reducing stereotypic hand movements and increasing targeted movements.

### **Research methodology**

The combined quantitative - qualitative study was carried out. Research methods: 1) music therapists' online survey conducted internationally; 2) video microanalysis and descriptive case study. In this article we present only a quantitative part of the study.

Music therapists' online questionnaire-based survey "Music Therapy for the Development of Individuals with Rett Syndrome: Interventions, Methods in Practice" was conducted in the first stage of the research (January – April 2017).

The survey was meant for foreign music therapists, since there were no music therapists in Lithuania working on Rett syndrome cases at that time. The questionnaire was originally developed and the questions were based on studies of literature and on theoretical assumptions. Requests to complete the questionnaire were sent to music therapy centres in 27 countries, and to Rett syndrome centres in the United States (Texas, California), Sweden, Austria, and Spain. The questionnaire was submitted and the statistical data were processed using qualtrics.com software. The data analysis was performed in May 2017.

### **Questionnaire survey results**

A professional music therapist either working or having worked with the Rett syndrome cases is the key criterion enabling participation in the survey. All in all 38 responses have been received with just 11 of them meeting the stipulated criterion. Demographic distribution of respondents is as follows: 8 individuals from the USA, 1 from Sweden and Austria, while receipt of 1 survey reply has been failed.

The age of respondents having participated in the survey varied from 24 to 59 years old and work experience as music therapists has also been versatile enough, ranging from less than 1 year to even 37 years.

Non-representativeness of the survey sample prevents making a more general summarisation. Nevertheless, considering the rarity of Rett syndrome, the survey results reveal general tendencies, when music therapy is applied to individuals with Rett syndrome.

The immediate attempt has been made to clarify the type and frequency of music therapy methods applied or recommended by the professionals in order respective health care needs of girls with Rett syndrome are met. The derived data are presented in Figure 1.

The most applicable and recommendable music therapy methods are playing the songs which are familiar to patients and alternating them with pauses intended for the patients to respond (to press a button in order to complete a musical phrase etc.) and the very moment of choosing the songs (by a head tilt or finger movement), and playing musical games with instruments when their direction is changed or a single instrument is shared. The ability of individuals with Rett syndrome to choose by demonstrating their musical predilections or preferences was described by C. Elefant, music therapist. In her dissertation she has communicated an important message about the ability of the patients to express their wishes and emotions, since these appear to be among the critical factors of the quality of life (Elefant, 2002). Music therapy methods applied the least include improvisations directed towards synchronization with the child's movements or breathing, or directive teaching tasks (timely inhaling, fulfilling a task, etc.), or

abrupt dynamic changes. Notwithstanding positive response to music of the patients suffering from dysfunctional breathing or great communication and social disorders, it may evoke overstimulation, hyperventilation or overreaction (Wesecky, 1986; Merker, et al., 2001). Moreover, vibroacoustic music therapy, as another effective music therapy method, has been discovered. This method as being effective for reduction of the risk caused by breathing anomalies has been indicated by even 2 respondents.

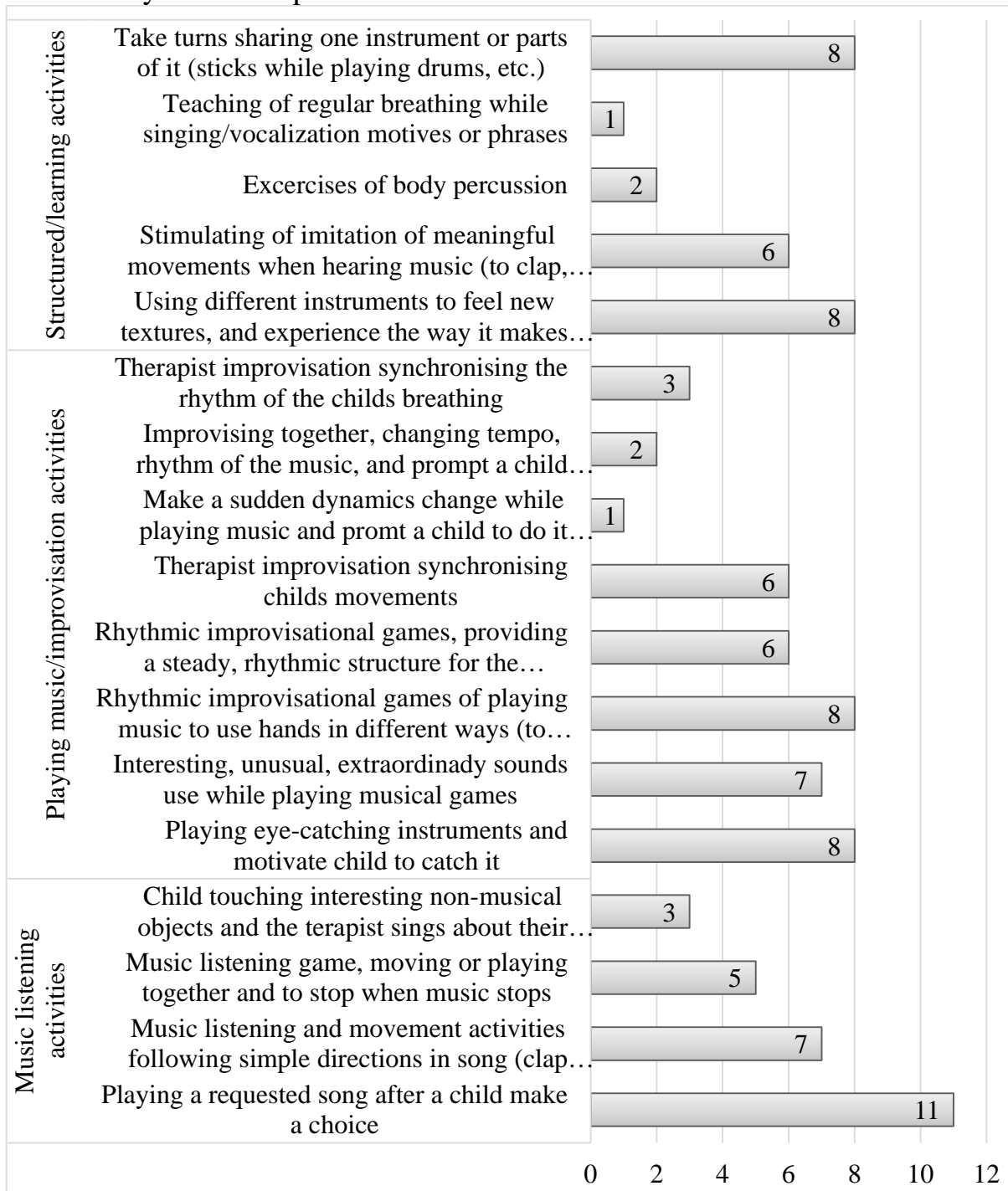


Figure 1. Applied music therapy methods

The respondents have been asked to assess the degree of applicability of music therapy to meet different health care needs of individuals with Rett syndrome, where replies ‘definitely non-recommendable’ accounted for 1 score, ‘rather no than yes’ – 2, ‘rather yes than no’ – 3, and ‘highly recommendable’ – 4. Thus, 44 being the biggest possible sum of the collected scores. The results are illustrated in Figure 2.

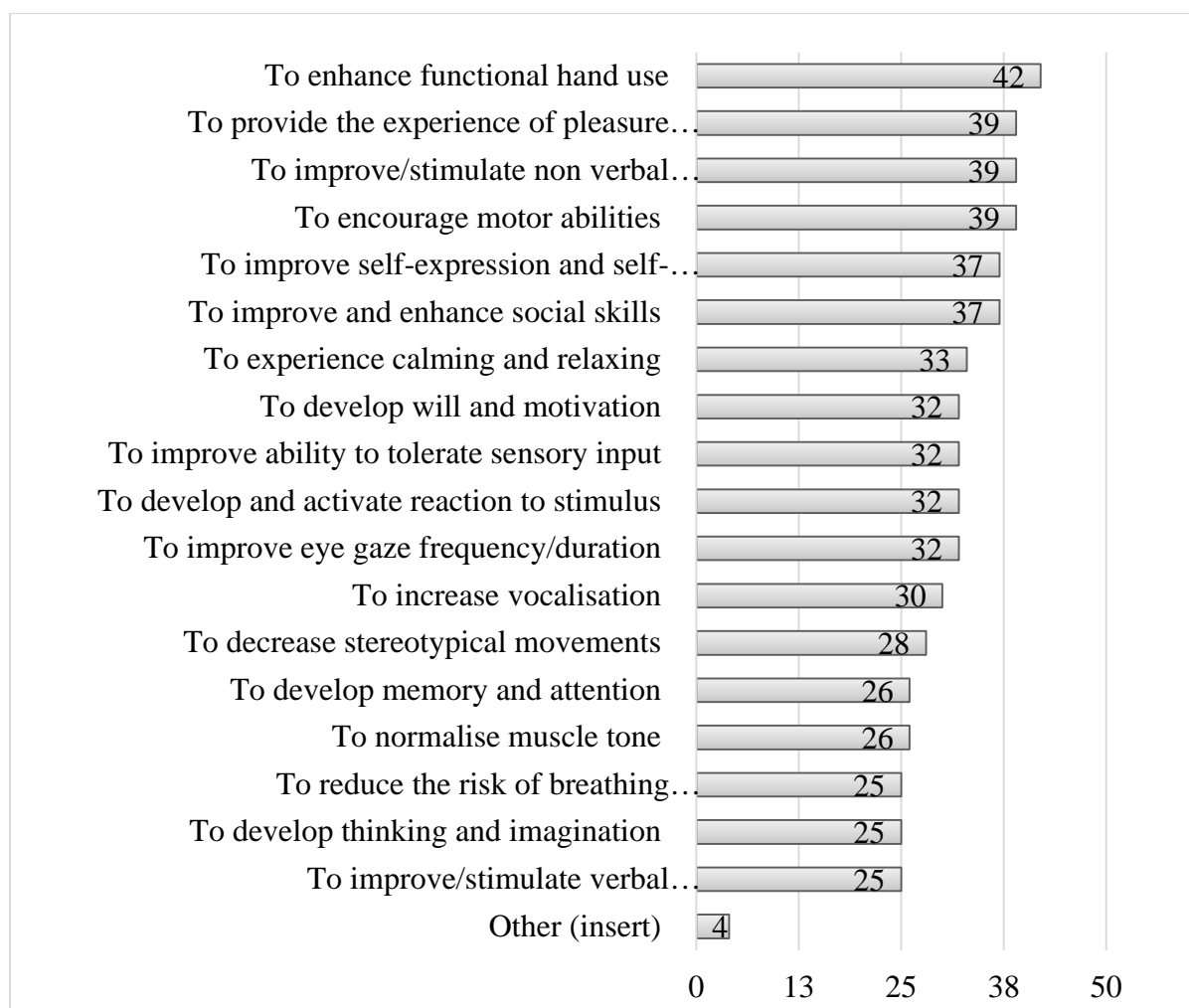


Figure 2. Indications for music therapy

To the opinion of the questionnaire survey respondents, music therapy is the most indicated for the development of functional use of hands for girls with Rett syndrome (42). Interventions of music therapy indicated for other health care needs include: maintaining or strengthening of the body motor or movement functions (39), improvement of non-verbal communication (39), experiencing joy and pleasure (39). Also, though to a slightly smaller extent, this kind of therapy is recommendable for the improvement of integration of self-concept and self-expression (37), social skills (37) and tactile sensations (36). Thus, music therapy

is applied both as the medical intervention and the key motivator and mediator assisting in communication with patients with Rett syndrome. Versatile music therapy methods are applied, however, priority of the interviewed music therapists has been given to listening of the chosen songs and the very moment of choosing the songs, as well as the structured musical games relying on creative use of different timbre and texture instruments.

It has been revealed by our study that music therapy interventions are less successful, i.e. less recommendable for the development of verbal communication of children with Rett syndrome (25). The results of this study are supported by previous studies which indicate that female patients with Rett syndrome mostly communicate and express themselves by mimics and body language with just negligible vocalisations. Their vocal signals are hard to grasp and read due to excessively large or small tone of their facial and body muscles (Lotan & Elefant, 2004; Hunter, 2007). Again, smaller potential of music therapy is reported for the development of thinking and imagination (25), memory and attention (26), and normalisation of muscles tone (26), and minimisation of risks caused by breathing abnormalities (25). Music therapists select and try music therapy intervention methods in an exceptionally responsible manner. Primarily, creation of the surroundings acceptable and comprehensible to the patient is ensured aiming at successful participation of the patient. Strengthening of a positive attitude of the patient is attempted in order to enable the development of physical, emotional and cognitive capacities of the patient (Yasuhara & Sugiyama, 2001; Lotan & Elefant, 2004; Wigram & Lawrence, 2005).

Varied frequency of sessions involving music therapy for the patients with Rett syndrome is reported in the practice of music therapists having participated in the survey: 6 respondents conduct music therapy sessions 1 time a week, 4 respondents have such sessions 2-3 times a week and a reply of 1 respondent reads 'in periods 3-5 per week'. The most popular duration of the music therapy session is 30 minutes – such a reply has been chosen by 7 respondents.

Also, the first improvement signals have been noticed in the course of the first weeks of therapy by 7 respondents while other respondents have indicated a slightly later time span, but not later than half a year. Besides a reply given by 1 respondent about noticing an improvement read 'almost at once'. These results suggest about the positive effect of music therapy.

## **Conclusions**

1. The results of internationally-conducted questionnaire survey indicate that the most often applied the most effective music therapy methods for the patients with Rett syndrome include: structured musical games using musical instruments of interesting texture, different timbre and varying touch pattern;

selection of songs and instrumental music pieces using pictures or other symbols; listening to songs or short instrumental pieces and motivating a child to purposefully fill in a pause with a musical instrument or to clap hands when a basic beat is heard, or the like. These music therapy methods are indicative aiming at functional use of hands and strengthening of other motor skills; also at improvement of non-verbal communication and experiencing joy and pleasure.

2. The music therapists' survey did not prove the hypothesis on the applicability/suitability of improvisational music therapy methods for the reduction of stereotypic hand movements. Besides, music therapy if applied for the purposes of development of verbal communication, thinking and imagination, and for normalisation of muscles tone or minimisation of breathing abnormalities is considered ineffective. However proof about its non-applicability/unsuitability is insufficient due to non-representativeness of the survey sample and a particularly small degree of the problem investigation in scientific literature.

## **Discussion**

Along with continuous researches pursued on the global scope, music therapy researches are necessary indeed to control and/or minimise manifestation of symptoms with due attention drawn to distinctive abilities and strengths and to the least adversely affected hearing and vision functions in particular of the individuals with Rett syndrome. The main tasks for the girls are to learn non-verbal communication, express their wishes and emotions, whereas individuals who surround the patients need learning how to understand them and motivate their interaction relying on different communication means, say, communication boards, pictures or other symbols. In general, communication is considered to be the fundamental demand of humans and the lack of it leads to dissatisfaction, frustration and social segregation, that is why it is of utmost importance that the emphasis is made on learning to express ones wishes and emotions in interaction with others, as the ability to communicate alone is not enough. For this purpose the music communication which is particularly suitable for and mostly liked by the individuals with Rett syndrome is available. Furthermore, it enables them to keep connection with another person and to be understood.

The questionnaire survey results reveal the specifics and complexity of the application of music therapy for the Rett syndrome cases. The specific applicability of music therapy for the individuals with Rett syndrome proves the emergence of the first communication improvement signals already in the course of the first sessions.



Development of technologies introduces new means of therapy, e.g. Vibroacoustic therapy, and communication, e.g. Assistive Augmentative Communication. The latter tool enables computer management by the patients with just a single movement of a finger, a released sound or even a glance. Music communication technologies are also taking a rapid pace of development and their successful application in the processes of therapy and teaching of the Rett syndrome patients is highly probable in the future.

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## THE SENSE OF EMPOWERMENT AMONG PARENTS OF CHILDREN WITH AUTISM

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**Abstract.** *The aim of this study was to examine the level of a sense of empowerment among mothers and fathers of children with autism. The relationship between a sense of empowerment and socio-demographic variables characterising the respondents including the parents was also analysed. Among the participants, there were 74 parents of autistic children (39 mothers, 35 fathers), 77 parents of children with Down syndrome (40 mothers, 37 fathers) as well as 80 parents of typically developing children (40 mothers, 40 fathers). Two statistical tools, namely the non-parametric Mann-Whitney U test and Kruskal-Wallis test, were employed in this study. The results show a higher level of a sense of empowerment when it comes to the evaluation of own knowledge and competences in mothers of autistic children than in mothers of children with Down syndrome, contrary to fathers of autistic children whose level of a sense of empowerment is lower within the said scope compared with fathers of children with Down syndrome.*

**Keywords:** *autism, Down syndrome, parents, sense of empowerment.*

### Introduction

Autism spectrum disorders (ASD) are a group of neurodevelopmental disorders characterized by deficits in social communication and repetitive, restrictive patterns of behaviour and interests (APA, 2013; WHO, 2002). The prevalence of ASD is estimated to be 1 per 1000 (Christiansen et al., 2016; Fombonne et al., 2016).

A review of source literature reveals that families of children with autism have to struggle with numerous issues and constant challenges that autism presents. In most cases, these difficulties include caring for, raising and supporting children's development (i.a. Pisula, 2009; Sakaguchi & Bepp, 2007). The different level of experienced difficulties is associated with the psychophysical state and social functioning (i.a. Benson, 2006, Błaszczuk, 2008; Tobing & Glenwick, 2006; Weiss, 2000). According to the study results, (i.a. Benson, 2006; Tobing et al., 2006), mothers of children with autism tend to have a decreased level of parenting competences, feel unsure when making their own decision and suffer from strong doubts about their right attitudes towards their own children. It is well known that insufficient knowledge and a general lack of

necessary skills to manage the behaviour of children with autism are the most common problems parents encounter on a daily basis (Pisula, 2009; Tobing et al., 2006). A dearth of well qualified and trained services that could efficiently support parents seems to aggravate an already difficult situation (Bishop et al., 2007; Ignasiak et al., 2005 Pisula, 2010; Sakaguchi & Beppu, 2007). Therefore, the parents remain involved in children's treatment. They take responsibility for the effort in the therapeutic process necessary to reach the treatment goal. Moreover, the parents take a great role in establishing centres and other facilities providing development for autistic children (Wachtel & Carter, 2008).

It should be emphasised that the functioning of parents caring for their offspring with autism depends to a large extent on their quality and quantity of resources as well as the effective use of them when confronting stress. Thus, a new research trend focuses, to a lesser extent, on identifying the source of stressor. Instead, research concentrates primarily on the activities undertaken by individuals in difficult and overwhelming situations (i.a. Carr, 2005; Gray, 2006; Pisula & Kossakowska, 2010; Pottie et al., 2008). It turns out that the change of interest in the research may have been influenced by the fact that the effects of stress confrontation have been more influenced by the ability to deal with stress than the objective nature of a stressor.

Despite little knowledge of a sense of empowerment among parents of children diagnosed with autism, it appears to be an important aspect of adjusting to new challenges faced by families caring for children with developmental disorders. Empowerment means acquiring a number of desirable competences enabling individuals to gain greater control over their own life (Koren et al., 1992). A. Smokowska-Reichmann (1999) defines the term "empowerment" as a process of regaining a sense of personal power or control over one's life as well as resources of energy and competences that affect one's life. The phenomenon of empowerment can be understood as both the process (that empowers and strengthens competences, control, power and skills) and the outcome of a process (means, strategy and method) of the widely understood educational and therapeutic activities. It is worth emphasising that even though the sense of empowerment has been an increasingly recognised concept for more 40 years and has been used promiscuously to refer to a wide range of practices, it must be conceded that it is less developed from many psychological and pedagogical points of view. There are many different ways that the sense of empowerment has been applied and defined. For these studies, the concept is primarily defined as "the capacity of individuals or groups to act on their own authority and to achieve a greater measure of control over their lives and destiny" (Koren et al., 1992: p. 308). Hence, the term is understood as the process which enables

individuals to act effectively to gain greater power and control over their lives and their environment.

The key questions asked by researchers relate to what individuals think about their social environment; what they know about social institutions and organisations; whether they are aware of what changes should be made and how to make them. Furthermore, the questions also focus on whether they are willing to act in order to make changes in their lives. Nowadays, there are many social institutions and the increasing complexity of social life, therefore it seems important to figure out the mechanisms of human consciousness shared by individuals within society and to find out about possible changes in social environment in order to be able to influence various decisions.

The concept of the sense of empowerment enables one to analyse both a situation of people with disabilities and their family members who can also receive specialist services. Four factors of the process of empowerment can be described regarding the families of children with developmental disorders (Koren et al., 1992):

- the ability to protect children's interests, including parents' thoughts, beliefs and behaviour interacting with the health care system;
- knowledge, that is, the gathered information on the system and services available to them as well as the abilities to apply the acquired knowledge;
- competences including one's own abilities and parenting skills;
- self-efficacy understood as perceptions of one's own efficacy to influence the actions that can affect the health care system in favour of the children's needs and interests.

The above-mentioned factors of the sense of empowerment will be analysed in detail in this study.

### **Own research**

This study aimed to answer the question – Are there any differences between the sense of empowerment experienced by mothers and fathers of children with autism, Down syndrome and typically developing children?

The women have already answered this question, whereas the question has not been asked to the men yet.

### **Respondents**

The research covered a group of 231 persons, including 74 parents of children with autism ('A' group) (39 mothers and 35 fathers), 77 parents of

children with Down syndrome ('D' group) (40 mothers and 37 fathers) and 80 parents of typically developed children ('N' group) (40 mothers and 40 fathers).

The average age of mothers of children with autism was ca. 40 years (mean 39,54; standard deviation 7,54), and when it comes to fathers it was 43 years (mean 43,14; standard deviation 8,32). Majority of parents had a university degree (29 persons, 39,2 %) and came from big urban environments – over 100 thousand citizens (48 persons, 65 %). Apart from that, majority of parents with autism was professionally active (50 persons, 68 %).

The comparison, made with the use of a nonparametric test by Kolmogorov-Smirnov with respect to demographic distributions, revealed that there were not differences between groups of parents of autistic children and parents of children with Down syndrome with regard to the level of education, a parent's age, living environment, professional activity and a child's age.

There was a difference with respect to the child's age between groups of parents of autistic children and parents of typically developed children – in the group of neurotypical children there were more children aged 12-17 ( $p < 0,025^*$ , mean A: 1,55, N: 1,30, standard deviation A 0,50, standard deviation N 0,46). Distribution of demographic variables in the groups of parents with Down syndrome and typically developed children was also comparable. There were significant differences only when it comes to a parent's age ( $p < 0,001^*$ ; mean D 2,27; mean N 2,62; standard deviation D 0,55; standard deviation N 0,56) and a child's age ( $p < 0,001^*$ ; mean D 1,30; mean N 1,66; standard deviation D 0,46; standard deviation N 0,47). In the group of parents of children with Down syndrome there were more persons aged over 40 and more children aged 12-17.

A group of parents of autistic children was selected with respect to some criteria such as a child's diagnosis (psychiatric diagnosis, children's autism), a child's age – from 7 to 17 years old; a lack of other disorders (e.g., children's cerebral palsy, Down syndrome, other diagnosed disorders).

The groups being compared with a group of parents of autistic children were selected on the basis of a modified random sampling.

### **Research instruments**

For the purpose of measuring family empowerment there has been used FES scale, created by Paul E. Koren, Neal DeChillo and Barbara J. Friesen from Portland State University (1992). Good psychometric features of this scale have been confirmed (Singh et al., 1995). The scale measures family empowerment experienced by an individual with regard to its family, service system for children and a community/political environment. It also allows to define the way the family empowerment is expressed. It consists of 34 items which are assessed

by respondents on a 5-level scale from 1- totally untrue to 5- absolutely true. Sample answers are as follows: (7) I do know what to do when problems with my child arise. (19) I tell specialists what I think about the services that my child gets. The total scores are the sum of the positions on the following levels (family- 12 position, services-12 position, social and political environment – 10 position). This scale measures 4 elements of family empowerment: system support, knowledge, competences and self-effectiveness.

A Polish version of this instrument in translation by Ewa Pisula has been used in the research. A factor analysis of scores in the Polish research sample of 113 mothers of children with developmental disabilities confirmed the existence of factors differentiated in the original version (Pisula, 2005).

### Results of own research

In order to compare the family empowerment in mothers from the research groups there has been carried out an analysis with the use of Mann-Whitney U test. The scores are presented in table 1.

**Table 1 The level of empowerment in mothers of children with autism spectrum disability, mothers of children with Down syndrome and mothers of typically developed children – descriptive statistics and scores of the Mann-Whitney U test**

Indicator of empowerment	Mothers of children with autism		Mothers of children with Down syndrome		Mothers of typically developed children		Mothers of children with autism/ Mothers of children with Down syndrome		Mothers of children with autism/ Mothers of typically developed children		Mothers of children with Down syndrome / Mothers of typically developed children	
	M	SD	M	SD	M	SD	U <sub>(39;40)</sub>	p	U <sub>(39;40)</sub>	p	U <sub>(40;40)</sub>	p
System support	30,2	5,745	27,1	5,756	29,8	6,869	607,0	0,091	737,0	0,677	606,0	0,063
Knowledge	33,7	4,979	29,8	5,721	33,4	7,046	<b>538,0</b>	<b>0,018*</b>	768,0	0,910	604,0	0,060
Competences	34,6	3,417	31,4	5,055	33,6	4,477	<b>271,0</b>	<b>0,000*</b>	729,0	0,620	690,0	0,292
Self-effectiveness	16,0	3,190	13,7	3,358	15,7	2,452	745,0	0,735	672,0	0,292	656,0	0,167

\* - a significant difference on the significance level  $\alpha < 0,05$ ; M – arithmetic mean; SD – standard deviation; U – test value; p – significance level

Analysing table 1 with regard to two indicators of empowerment, mothers of children with autism scored higher than mothers of children with Down

syndrome. It referred to knowledge and competences. The other differences between groups were not statistically significant.

Results of analysis carried out in three groups of fathers are presented in table 2.

**Table 2 The level of empowerment in fathers of children with autism, fathers of children with Down syndrome, and fathers of typically developed children – descriptive statistics and scores of the Mann-Whitney U test**

Indicator of empowerment	Fathers of children with autism		Fathers of children with Down syndrome		Fathers of typically developed children		Fathers of children with autism / Fathers of children with Down syndrome		Fathers of children with autism / Fathers of typically developed children		Fathers of children with Down syndrome / Fathers of typically developed children	
	M	SD	M	SD	M	SD	U <sub>(35;37)</sub>	p	U <sub>(N35;40)</sub>	p	U <sub>(37;40)</sub>	p
System support	27,0	6,148	32,4	5,286	29,0	4,857	557,5	0,313	678,0	0,819	606,0	0,173
Knowledge	30,4	4,385	36,6	4,810	32,9	4,555	<b>466,5</b>	<b>0,042*</b>	690,0	0,920	<b>503,0</b>	<b>0,016*</b>
Competences	35,8	4,048	39,3	3,480	35,5	4,005	<b>347,5</b>	<b>0,001*</b>	652,0	0,852	650,0	0,362
Self-effectiveness	13,8	2,731	16,3	2,648	13,9	2,580	642,5	0,960	688,0	0,903	725,0	0,882

\* - a significant difference on the significance level  $\alpha < 0,05$ ; M – arithmetic mean; SD – standard deviation; U – test value; p – significance level

The Mann-Whitney U test identified that in the two spheres differentiated on the FES scale, fathers of children with autism scored lower than fathers of children with Down syndrome. The differences were observed with regard to knowledge and competences. In all cases, fathers of children with autism scored lower than fathers of children with Down syndrome. When it comes to the assessment of knowledge indicator, there has been a difference between fathers of children with Down syndrome and fathers of typically developed children. Fathers of children with Down syndrome scored higher than fathers of abled children.

### Discussion of results

This research paper referred to differences between parents (mothers and fathers) of children with autism and parents of children with Down syndrome, and parents of typically developed children with respect to family



empowerment. Four indicators of family empowerment calculated on the basis of scores according to FES scale have been analysed. These indicators are: system service, knowledge, competences and self-effectiveness.

The analysis presented therein revealed little significant differences with regard to indicators of family empowerment among mothers in groups under research. Significant differences have been observed only among mothers of children with developmental disorders. Mothers of children with autism scored higher with regard to knowledge and competences than mothers of children with Down syndrome.

Some different scores were achieved in case of fathers under research. It turned out that fathers of children with autism assessed their own knowledge lower than fathers of children with Down syndrome. The result seems to be compatible with accessible information regarding the way this group of persons functions. A number of research reveals that the level of competence is lower in those taking care of a child with autism (i.a. Benson, 200; Tobing et al., 2006). Moreover, it has been emphasized that because of a lack of adequate support and access to information concerning possible services for a child and parents, they experience the feeling of guilt, helplessness and being burdened with difficulties (Pisula, 2009; Sakaguchi & Beppu, 2007). It is also well known that the source of difficulties related to taking care of children with autism is a lack of appropriate knowledge and competences essential in looking after a child (cf. Gałkowski, 1995; Pisula, 1998). In the context of such information it might be expected that parents of children with autism would present a lower level of empowerment than parents of children in other groups. It also seems that the assessment of one's own situation is not without significance when it comes to empowerment experienced by parents. Those parents who are less burdened with taking care of a child, have more resources which can be used for an active approach to difficult situations later on. They have more time during which they can search for support, some help for a child and themselves. I will get back to that issue while presenting an analysis of a correlation between empowerment and a level of stress.

However, there was a possibility of achieving a totally opposite result than the one scored by fathers. It is observable in the scores of mothers. An assumption of such a way of thinking is a fact that parents (mainly mothers) of children with autism are actively engaged in activities towards foundation of therapeutic centres and schools (Kwaśniewska, 2010; Perzanowska, 1997; Vasileva, 2010). This is somehow a forced activity, because their children have a very limited access to both social and educational services. Many newly established educational facilities for children with autism have been a result of efforts taken by parents, affiliated in social organizations and associations (e.g., The National Autism Association). The described activity forces to acquire

knowledge regarding functioning system care and services (health services, educational services) and skills that would enable a parent to provide a child with an adequate support, that might have had an impact on the results of this research.

The result is compatible with results of other studies in which the Family Empowerment Scale was used. E. Pisula (2005) revealed that the level of empowerment with regard to competences and knowledge is higher in mothers of children with autism than in mothers of children with other developmental disorders. In another research paper (Pisula & Mazur, 2006) describing the same research instrument as it was referred to in this study, it was stated that mothers of children with autism, in comparison with mothers of children with Down syndrome, assessed their effectiveness, a possibility of securing the interests of a child and one's own knowledge higher.

On the other hand, A. Fleischmann (2004), making an analysis of autistic children's parents published in the internet, states that over time their faith in own possibilities and skills increases as well as the acceptance of a child. Similar results were revealed by D. E. Gray's (2002) research in which the same group of parents participated twice within the time interval of 10 years. Parents of older autistic children declared that their health condition and well-being were good. The relations between them and their relatives were recognized as correct too. Moreover, the perception of their own situation changed for better as well. Parents assessed it as an easier and less overwhelming one.

Taking into consideration a fact that the issues under analysis is very extensive, the presented research paper does not discuss it at length. However, all the conclusions give certain information regarding the situation of parents of children with autism, and can be helpful while planning programs of comprehensive support for parents and children. Family empowerment, thanks to giving parents a chance that reassures them about their own possibilities of handling problems, should become one of the key tasks for those working with parents of disabled children.

Family empowerment should be based on an active participation of parents in decision-making with respect to therapies and a child's rehabilitation (Koren et al., 1992). As the studies reveal (Pisula, 2005), such an aware participation in the processes shaping the situation and a possibility of taking part in decision-making, has a positive effect on a mental well-being, the feeling of control and independence of an individual.

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# THE ATTITUDES AND OPINIONS OF THE TEACHING STAFF CONCERNING INCLUSION IN THE CZECH REPUBLIC: READINESS FOR CHILDREN WITH VARIOUS TYPES OF IMPAIRMENT

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**Abstract.** *The paper focuses on a part of an extensive research study of the attitudes of teachers in kindergartens, elementary and secondary schools in the Czech Republic to the amendment to the Education Act effective from 1 September 2016, which introduced a new model of assessment of special educational needs.*

*According to the amendment, children with SEN are no longer assessed by the type of disability (health, social), but rather by the impact of the disability on their educational needs. These are newly classified into five degrees of ‘support measures’.*

*The amendment and related regulations also significantly limited the activities of schools specially designed for children with mild intellectual disability. By means of a measure issued by the Minister of Education, the curriculum specially formulated for these schools, which forms an annex to the Framework educational programme, was cancelled.*

*These measures caused an unprecedented social discussion, which was often marked by strong anti-inclusion attitudes of the general public. Therefore, in May 2017 the research team of the Faculty of Education, Palacký University in Olomouc carried out an extensive measurement (2xxx respondents), which brought a real picture of teachers’ attitudes to the ongoing changes. The paper presents the attitudes of two groups of respondents: teachers in mainstream schools and teachers in special schools. The results showed statistically significant differences in the attitudes and assessments between these two groups of concerning the issue of inclusive or joint education.*

**Keywords:** *teachers, inclusive education, attitudes, quantitative research.*

## Introduction

The current understanding of the term inclusion varies. Basically, inclusion can be defined in three different ways. The first definition equals integration,

which is the very opposite of segregation. According to the second definition, inclusion is improved integration or a new quality approach that differs from integration. The best understanding of inclusion is captured by the third definition. According to Lechta (2010), inclusion is considered a state when a disabled person is born into a society, which accepts the person's difference; according to this understanding, it is normal to be different. Such person is born into a society, which is not surprised by the person's difference. Inclusion is based on acceptance of diversity in terms of gender, race, nationality, social background, or health disability. Therefore, everybody is equal in their dignity and rights, and the existence of otherness (diversity) is understood as enrichment and contribution for the society.

In terms of the educational process, inclusion represents the right of all persons to full participation in education, not only partial or conditional as in the case of integration. Inclusive education is understood as an arrangement of a mainstream school that provides adequate education to all participants regardless of their individual differences, type of their special needs, or learning performance. According to Gary (2004), an emphasis is placed on the quality of education and benefit for both parties – individuals with specific needs on the one hand, and intact students, teachers and other staff on the other hand.

On 1 September 2016 an amendment to the Education Act (Act No. 82/2015 Coll.) entered into force, which introduces substantial changes in the system of education. The most important change relates especially to Section 16, which defines a new concept of supporting children with special educational needs. According to the new concept, children, pupils and students with special educational needs (also referred to as SEN) are those whose education requires the application of support measures as a result of their special educational needs. Before the amendment to the Education Act entered into force, these categories had included children with health disability, health disadvantage or social disadvantage. The amendment states the following: for educational purposes children are not classified by the original diagnostic categories, but according to the required adjustment to the conditions of their education.

Attitudes to inclusive education are regularly researched, see for example: M. Schmidt, K. Vrhovnik (2015), I. Zeenat, I. Basheer, K. Ismat; Khan, (2015), V. Sharmila et al. (2015) [3-5].

The implementation of the amendment to the Education Act caused a very heated social debate in the Czech Republic on the role and position of special schools. Especially the position of schools for children with mild mental retardation. By means of a Decree of the Ministry of Education, the educational programme designed especially for these schools (see above) was cancelled. According to many opinions (and according to one interpretation of legal norms), children with mild mental retardation should be primarily educated in mainstream

schools. In this context, it was desirable (and interesting) to analyse the opinions of teachers in the schools concerned.

The present research reacts to the changes in the education of children with SEN in the context of education-related legislative norms in the Czech Republic in 2016.

## **Methodology**

The data were obtained by means of a questionnaire designed by the authors comprising 8 key items; each item had 5 to 15 sub-items. The questionnaire was distributed electronically via educational departments of regional authorities. In this way, the questionnaire allowed quick and economical data collection from a large number of participants (N = 2,467). The questionnaire was designed in May 2017 by 6 members of the project team who ensured internal validity of the questionnaire by making independent comments on the design of the questionnaire and the content of the items. The data collection was performed from June 2017. The items of the questionnaire were primarily designed as semi-closed, multiple-choice with a polytomous choice of answers. In sorting the items the authors preferred the logical perspective to the psychological perspective; regarding the purpose of the study, neither control items nor functional-psychological items were included. The initial 6 items of the questionnaire focused on demographic data (respondents' age, length of teaching experience, highest education, working position, region, and type of educational institution). The remaining items of the questionnaire focused on the experience and needs of teachers in working with children with special educational needs. The data obtained by means of the questionnaire were statistically processed in a special statistical programme SPSS and MS Excel. Regarding the practical purpose of the research, tests of statistical significance were not carried out.

## **Description of respondents**

The sample of respondents was dominated by teachers, class teachers and headteachers older than 30 years with a master university degree with over 10 years of teaching experience. In terms of demographic distribution, the sample included **2,467** respondents with the indicated age, occupational and educational distribution from all regions in the Czech Republic. The sample included respondents from elementary schools (**55.2 %**), secondary schools (**32.5 %**), and kindergartens (**12.3 %**).

## **Mainstream schools and special schools**

The objective of the paper is to monitor the differences in the responses to the items described below between respondents from mainstream schools and special schools – those established in compliance with Section 16, Sub-section 9. Of the total sample comprising 2,467 respondents, 1,694 (**68.7 %**) were from mainstream schools and 773 (**31.3 %**) were from special schools.

For clarity reasons, the answers yes and rather yes were grouped under yes, and no and rather no under no. The answer I don't know was left out. In terms of the statistical method used, this methodological change had no effect on the results.

## **Objective of the research study**

This paper presents one segment of the questionnaire – readiness of schools for joint education in the context of the legislative changes. The respondents assessed the following items (yes, rather yes, rather no, no, I don't know). The objective of the paper is to analyse the following questionnaire item:

*Considering the conditions in our school this year, we are ready to educate children with:*

*Intellectual disability – mild, Intellectual disability – moderate, severe, Physical disability, Severe (long-term) disease, Hearing impairment, Visual impairment, Disrupted communication ability, Autism spectrum disorders, Specific developmental learning disorders, Psychiatric diseases, Insufficient knowledge of the language of instruction, Absence of educational support in the home environment, Socially excluded localities, Extraordinary talent, Child of a different ethnicity.*

### **Research question**

- Is there a statistically significant difference in the assessment of educational readiness for children with various types of impairment between respondents from mainstream schools and special schools?

## **Results**

For the purposes of this conference, the presentation includes the above described attitudes of teachers to the changes in the education of children with SEN in the context of legislative changes in 2016. For the purposes of the presentation the answers Yes and Rather yes, and No and Rather no were grouped. Detailed results are specified in Table 1.



**Table 1 Attitudes of teachers**

<b>Considering the conditions in our school this year, we are ready to educate:</b>	<b>Mainstream school</b>				<b>Special school</b>			
	<b>YES</b>		<b>NO</b>		<b>YES</b>		<b>NO</b>	
	Abs. No.	Rel. No. %	Abs. No.	Rel. No. %	Abs. No.	Rel. No. %	Abs. No.	Rel. No. %
Intellectual disability – mild	1,251	<b>58.8</b>	875	<b>41.2</b>	228	<b>93.1</b>	17	<b>6.9</b>
Intellectual disability – moderate, severe	296	<b>14</b>	1,817	<b>86</b>	215	<b>87.8</b>	30	<b>12.2</b>
Physical disability	1,303	<b>60.9</b>	836	<b>39.1</b>	221	<b>90.6</b>	23	<b>9.4</b>
Severe (long-term) disease	1,485	<b>71.9</b>	581	<b>28.1</b>	196	<b>83.1</b>	40	<b>16.9</b>
Hearing impairment	890	<b>43.3</b>	1,167	<b>56.7</b>	164	<b>68</b>	77	<b>32</b>
Visual impairment	756	<b>36.8</b>	1,300	<b>63.2</b>	159	<b>66.2</b>	81	<b>33.8</b>
Disrupted communication ability	1,310	<b>63.2</b>	763	<b>36.8</b>	223	<b>91.8</b>	20	<b>8.2</b>
Autism spectrum disorders	1,279	<b>61.4</b>	805	<b>38.6</b>	228	<b>93.1</b>	17	<b>6.9</b>
Specific developmental learning disorders	1,946	<b>90.1</b>	213	<b>9.9</b>	225	<b>92.6</b>	18	<b>7.4</b>
Specific developmental behaviour disorders	1,522	<b>72</b>	593	<b>28</b>	215	<b>88.1</b>	29	<b>11.9</b>
Psychiatric diseases	607	<b>31.3</b>	1,332	<b>68.7</b>	150	<b>63.8</b>	85	<b>36.2</b>
Insufficient knowledge of the language of instruction	1,241	<b>60.2</b>	821	<b>39.8</b>	159	<b>72.6</b>	60	<b>27.4</b>
Lack of educational support in the home environment	1,558	<b>77.1</b>	464	<b>22.9</b>	198	<b>88.8</b>	25	<b>11.2</b>
Socially excluded localities	1,244	<b>64.7</b>	679	<b>35.3</b>	191	<b>86</b>	31	<b>14</b>
Extraordinary talent	1,856	<b>86.6</b>	287	<b>13.4</b>	72	<b>32.1</b>	152	<b>67.9</b>
Child of a different ethnicity	1,859	<b>88.9</b>	233	<b>11.1</b>	217	<b>92.7</b>	17	<b>7.3</b>

### **Results and discussion**

It was expected that in most categories of children, teachers in special schools (established in compliance with Section 16, Sub-section 9 of the Education Act) would confirm their readiness to educate children with SEN. This hypothesis was confirmed. Only in one item the respondents in both groups suggest a similar degree of readiness. These were children with specific developmental learning disorders. The answer Yes was indicated by 90.1 % of teachers in mainstream schools and 92.6 % of teachers in special schools. This result is a typical reflection of the situation in the Czech Republic. A majority of these children with SEN used to be educated in mainstream schools in the past. Special schools educated only few of them (only those with the most severe forms

of the disorder). The results suggest that the degree of readiness also depends on teachers' long-term experience with educating groups of children with specific problems.

In the context of the objectives of the proposed legal amendments, it is interesting to watch the attitudes of teachers in mainstream schools (their 'self-confidence') to the education of children with SEN. The highest degree of readiness was indicated in relation to children with specific learning disorders (yes 90.1 %), children of a different ethnicity (yes 88.9 %) and children with lack of educational support in the home environment (yes 77.1 %). Although this is a high degree of declared readiness, the authors consider the latter percentage (children with lack of support in the home environment) insufficient. These children, who are de facto without any major SEN, should be considered by teachers as 'usual clientele'. It is surprising that one-fourth of teachers consider their school insufficiently ready for this group of children.

On the contrary, the smallest degree of readiness for children with SEN was indicated for children with intellectual disability – moderate, severe (yes, rather yes 14 %), children with psychiatric diseases (yes, rather yes 31.3 %) and children with visual impairment (yes, rather yes 36.8 %). The group of children with visual impairment confirms the 'theory of fear of the unknown': despite the low declared readiness for this group of children it is confirmed by practice that the education of a child with visual impairment in an inclusive environment is one of the least problematic. The low proportion of these children and the lack of knowledge of the education of these children results in a low confidence of the school about educating these children. Regarding the educational tradition in the Czech Republic and its consequences, the authors consider the low level of declared readiness for children with severe intellectual disability or psychiatric disease to be natural. In the past, working with children with these SEN was exclusively in the competence of special schools. Teachers without proper special education qualification were not and most of them are still not ready to meet these children's SEN.

Teachers in special school indicate a higher degree of readiness to provide education to those groups of children who represent the largest group of schoolchildren or traditional groups of children in special schools: children with mild intellectual disability (yes, rather yes 93.1 %), children with autism spectrum disorders (yes, rather yes 93.1 %) and children of a different ethnicity (yes, rather yes 92.7 %). Similarly to their colleagues from mainstream schools, teachers in special schools indicate a low level of readiness for children with psychiatric diseases (yes, rather yes 63.8 %), visual impairment (yes, rather yes 66.2 %) and hearing impairment (yes, rather yes 68 %). Considering the proportion of schools (classes) especially established for children with sensory impairment within

Czech special education, this result can also be explained by 'fear of the unknown'.

In the assessment of schools' readiness for educating children with extraordinary talent it is clearly shown that this area is dominated by mainstream schools: readiness is positively assessed by 86.6 % of teachers in mainstream schools as opposed to 32.1 % of teachers in schools specially established for children with SEN.

The authors were surprised by the statements of teachers in mainstream schools concerning their readiness for children with physical disability. Only 60.9 % of them indicated YES to confirm their school's readiness for this group of children with SEN. Compared with children with intellectual disability, where the values were considered normal, here (again facing the conditions of the Czech system of education) the degree of willingness and readiness concerning this group of children is regarded insufficient. For over 20 years, children with physical disability have been educated in mainstream schools and not in special schools as was the case before 1989. A further study is desirable (perhaps of a qualitative nature) that would analyse the internal causes of this phenomenon. Finally, in relation to the issue of migration in European countries, over a half of Czech teachers in mainstream schools (60.2 %) and over two-thirds of teachers from special schools (72.6 %) confirm their readiness for children's SEN also for this reason.

## Conclusions

The answer to the research question mentioned above is affirmative. The value of statistical significance of the responses in both samples was measured by means of the *Pearson's chi-squared test at a level of statistical significance of 0.01 for each monitored item.*

There is a statistically significant difference in the assessment of educational readiness for children with various types of impairment between respondents from mainstream schools and special schools. The confirmation of the statistical significance of the differences in the responses of the two significant groups of teachers in the Czech Republic (mainstream and special schools) in all monitored items highlights significant differences between the opinions of the two groups. Experts, officials, and all those who prepare the new normative and methodological documents within the system of Czech education need to take these results into consideration. Different qualification, different educational experience, working in different types of schools – all this results in different attitudes to the ongoing inclusive reform in the Czech Republic.

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## **DIFFICULTIES IN VERBAL AND NON-VERBAL COMMUNICATION IN AUTISM**

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***Abstract.** The ability to establish contact with other people and communicate with them influences the child's further development. Having the ability to communicate verbally and non-verbally plays an important role in life of every person and is decisive in the process of building social relationships with other people.*

*Disorders in the field of communication, speech development and the formation of the language system are one of the main symptoms of autism. In children with autistic disorders speech development is very diverse, even if they can speak, they have huge problems with understanding of the meaning of communication and establishing relationships.*

*The aim of this article is to present the difficulties in verbal and non-verbal communication in autism, which are based on so-called triad of autistic disorders.*

***Keywords:** autism, communication, triad of autistic disorders.*

### **Introduction**

The ability to communicate with other people plays a huge role in the life of every human being. In social relations, the individual satisfies many needs, which are focused on the communication process. This is the basic plane of interpersonal interaction, without which no social activity can occur (Różalska et al., 2001).

### **Factors determining the development of communication skills**

Everyone develops at their own individual pace. One of the basic tools for communicating with the environment is speech. Its development depends on various factors occurring at a given moment and it lasts for years, from the first moments of life. According to Leon Kaczmarek, four stages can be distinguished in the child's speech development:

- the period of the melody - 0 - 1 year old.
- the period of expression - 1 - 2 years of age.
- the period of sentence - 2 - 3 years old.
- the period of specific child's speech (specific linguistic forms) - 3-7 years of age.

During the melody stage, the child establishes the first contact - psychological and social with the environment, during which he uses shouting, crying and articulating voices. It is accompanied by vivid gestures and facial expressions. The modulation of voice, that is, the use of different tones (melody) is characteristic for this period. In the period between the first and the second year of life, the development of speech in a child goes from the stage of the melody to the more complex form - the period of expression. The signals spoken by the child consist of a part of the word, the whole word or many words without the use of grammatical structures. During the next period grammatical categories appear and the child's dictionary is enriched. However, between 3 and 7 years of age, the child can speak freely, uses extended sentences, but the speech develops and is fixed all the time. A child up to the age of seven should master the technique of speaking in terms of grammar, phonetic and articulation, while maintaining the appropriate melody and rhythm (Kaczmarek, 1977).

Language features can be considered in four areas, concerning the ability to use speech sounds (phonology), grammatical skills (syntax), ability to understand and create meanings (semantics) and the ability to communicate (pragmatic language function) (Frith, 2008).

An important factor in the development of communication is not only the use of speech, but also its understanding and understanding of the meaning of speech. Speech is understood as a process of communication between people using a communication system that is built of two components: words and rules defining how to use them. Speech development is related to the preceding non-verbal stages of communication with the environment, which affect the readiness to communicate. Thus, communication with the environment is carried out first using non-verbal behaviors and then words (Matczak, 1988).

In addition to the development of speech, there are genetic features that determine the ability of the child to acquire communication skills. The basis of them is the ability to create emotional ties with people from the environment and to exchange information. This wordless exchange emphasizes the child's satisfaction and striving for further contacts with him. Thanks to it, the first symbolic patterns are formed and perpetuated, the expression of the voice develops, while finding the meaning of the spoken words (Gałkowski, 2014).

Children who develop well, can use different forms of communication during the first year of their life, using behaviors that are the manifestation of the so-called tied attention. It is expressed, *inter alia*, by pointing out items, or showing them to others. In addition, in the proper development of communication one can observe the use of gestures used to express emotions, facial expressions and eye contact (Baron – Cohen & Bolten, 1999).

### **Triad of disorders in autism**

Symptoms of autism can be divided into three basic areas in which characteristic irregularities manifest themselves. These areas are called the autistic triad and concern problems in the sphere of:

- social interaction,
- behavioral disorders,
- difficulties in communicating (Pisula, 2010).

Irregularities in terms of social development and social interactions are one of the most characteristic symptoms in the triad of autistic disorders. Their symptoms may be observed in early childhood. The child does not seem to be interested in dealing with loved ones, he prefers long hours of solitary confinement. The baby does not seek contact with his mother and does not show dissatisfaction when mother moves away. It can also be noticed in some cases that the child not only avoids making contacts but also defends himself against them; he does not like to be taken into arms, hugged and touched (Bobrowicz-Lenartowska, 2010).

One of the main problems that are present in the lives of people with autism is the inability to adapt to others. The severity of this phenomenon varies depending on the level of development or age. Pre-school children may, for example, be among other people and not notice them, or even fall into them. They do not respond to the call and their name. Often, they also avoid looking at people who are trying to make contact with them. Lack of social skills may in the future become an obstacle in adaptation to adulthood (Winczura, 2016).

The ability to make contact and create close relationships is a process that is considered to be continuous and dynamic. It is now noted that there is a large diversity of social and emotional relationships in children with autism. A large part of children participate in social life in various forms, while the profile of their shortages remains diversified. The ability to enter into relationships with other people has a significant impact on the ability to cope with social situations (Winczura, 2017). The quality of making contacts by autistic children stems from the fact that it is often instrumentally involved in this process. It means that the child gets involved when he wants something and is more interested in what he wants to get rather than who he wants the thing from. (Winczura, 2016).

Some children are able to initiate contact or respond to other people's attempts to establish relations, but they avoid eye contact and do not associate with other people's activities. There are also situations that children with autism cannot keep distance from other people (Pisula, 2010).

In the behavior of children with autism, one can notice the reluctance to change, attachment to patterns and rituals. An expression of this can be strict adherence to the plan of the day or the manner of performing specific activities,

adherence to strict order of conduct in specific situations or motor stereotypes. Template ability in functioning may also reveal itself through unusual interests, often with a very narrow scope. These interests are extremely absorbing and intense for people with autism (Pisula, 2010). These behaviors significantly impede the proper functioning in society, and reduce the child's adaptation skills necessary to act in specific situations.

Repeated interests significantly limit ingenuity and experiments in the field of play, which is an important element shaping the proper development of the child. Fun stimulates learning processes, develops imagination, the ability to empathize with other people, which in children with autistic disorders is a huge problem. In children with autism, the lack of presence or very rare occurrence of the so-called pretend play may be observed (eg. pretending that the bucket is a cap and putting it on the head) (Baron – Cohen & Bolten, 1999).

Cognitive development of people with autism is not harmonious. There are cases of children who cannot cope with simple tasks, but are able to solve complex problems (Pisula, 2010). It is worth noting that in autism, apart from limited interests, there may also be interests in the so-called rash (unidirectional), which are characterized by a very high level of knowledge on a given topic (Błeszyński, 2011). Often, the ability of rash in children with autism is greater than their properly developing peers. Among the examples of such islands of abilities one can include drawing, music, calculating the calendar. Other skills described by scientists are also mechanical memory, finding shapes in patterns or prematurely developed reading skills, so-called hyperlexia (Baron - Cohen & Bolten, 1999).

In proper development of a child and the dynamics of the process of fun in his life, the ability to establish interpersonal contacts and maintain them is very important. Research on the play activity of children with autism, indicate the importance of the child's ability to interact socially, which is reflected in the lack of spontaneous fun with the partner and sharing a common sphere with him (Minczakiewicz, 2001).

Human communication development and speech are closely related to human social development. It is not enough, however, for the child to be able to speak, but it is important to understand the meaning of the individual spoken words.

The development of communication skills, both verbal and non-verbal, on the one hand influences later functioning in the child's social life, on the other hand, it depends on social skills shaped at the beginning of life. The proper development of communication skills requires holistic strengthening during social exercises. Researchers are looking for an answer to the question which of these two areas - social development, or the development of communication skills - is distorted initially and consequently causes autistic disorders. Different theories



arise on this subject and disputes regarding the causes of these disorders are still ongoing (Winczura, 2016).

Difficulties in the communication of people with autism are very extensive. In people with autism, there are difficulties in understanding what communication and lack of it or limited competence in terms of skills needed to communicate with other people is. Obstacles in proper communication are also manifested in non-verbal communication. These people rarely use gestures or vocalization, they do not communicate with the help of glances or facial expressions. The problem in communication may also be caused by difficulty in understanding facial expressions or reading emotions (Pisula, 2010). Limitations of the ability to participate in interaction with another person may be manifested in the inability to establish friendly relationships with peers. In children with autism, you can often perceive the objective treatment of other people. In some people with autism it can be observed that despite understanding the question posed by another person, they are not able to conduct a dialog, but they answer laconically, briefly cutting the conversation. This condition is related to the inability to read and understand the emotions of other people (Winczura, 2016).

The autistic triad shows how many common features have disruptions in different spheres, how they affect each other and how they are dependent on each other. The table below presents the main symptoms of autism in the field of social interaction disorders, behavioral problems and difficulties in verbal and non-verbal communication that contribute to the triad of disorders.

### **How do children with autistic disorders communicate?**

Disorders in the field of communication, speech development and the formation of the language system are one of the main symptoms of autism. By communicating with another person, one becomes a member of a social group and interacts with others. In children with autistic disorders speech development is very diverse, even if they can speak, they have huge problems with understanding of the meaning of communication and establishing relationships. Lack of social communication with the environment often causes exclusion from the community (Cieszyńska, 2010).

In behaviors of people with autism, one can see limitations in establishing interpersonal relations already at the earliest stage of development. In studies on autism, it was found that in children affected by autistic disorders, there is a significantly reduced ability to read the moods or intentions. Sharing a common field with other person is necessary in the child's ability to communicate. The lack or limited ability to empathize with the emotions and intentions of other people makes it much harder to establish and maintain relationships (Gałkowski, 2014). Even with the correct development of speech, these children do not attempt to

communicate with other people, and they cannot use the speech according to the social situation (Bobkowicz-Lewartowska, 2010). Children with autism-related disorders also have problems with reading facial expressions. It is known that already three-month-old babies react to various emotional states visible on the faces of relatives, while their peers with autism do not understand the meaning of emotional signals and pay little attention to them. This condition causes consequences in their further development (Pisula, 2010).

Speech development in children concerns such areas as speech understanding, vocabulary, the grammatical structures of sentences, and the rhythm and melody of speech. Among the views related to the study of speech development in people with autism, two approaches can be distinguished. The first approach maintains that speech disorders are of primary character and the symptoms of autism are their consequences (Jaklewicz, 1993). Proponents of this concept believe that disorder in the scope of verbal and non-verbal communication is the main manifestation of autism that disrupts and impairs the establishment of social contacts, which results in gradual social and emotional isolation of the child (Winczura, 2016).

The second view emphasizes the existence of disorders and regression as a consequence in the proper development of speech. Researchers believe that the development of speech in people with autism initially occurs in a correct manner, and then there is regression in this area (Jaklewicz, 1993).

The disturbed process of verbal and non-verbal communication includes both the understanding of speech and expression. Children who have not developed the ability to use speech, or their speech is disturbed, show considerable problems in expressing emotions, while those who have developed speech abilities have problems with conducting dialogues, and the situations they understand do not include recognizing feelings. (Winczura, 2017).

Speech development in people with autism occurs with considerable delay. Developmental deficits in communication can be noticed before the age of 12 months. Reflex babbling and vocalization are very poorly expressed or absent (Bobkowicz-Lewartowska, 2017). The first forms of verbal communication, which are spoken with understanding, appear around 4-5 years of age, whereas simple sentences of two words are pronounced at the age of 6-7. However, these spoken messages are not used for interpersonal communication, because these children have limited ability to initiate and maintain contacts with other people (Pisula, 2010).

The speech of an autistic child is characterized by monotony and lack of fluidity. Its form is sometimes impersonal and quite complicated in the syntax; Strangely used words are used with colloquial formulations. You can also observe abnormal accent use, uneven pace, inhibited expansion of the breath as well as unstable voice scale. Melody and intonation seem to be artificial. There is also a

distorted grammatical structure, confusion grammatical forms, neologisms and word clusters. The scope of practical vocabulary is poor and the construction of sentences is at a low level. Children with autistic disorders ask few questions and practically do not express spontaneous comments (Wilczura, 2017).

A characteristic feature of speech disorders is the tendency to reverse pronouns, which consists in the fact that children say about themselves: you, he, or use their name instead of using the pronoun "I" (Bobkowicz - Lenartowska, 2010). Other phenomena that characterize the speech of a child with autism is the occurrence of linguistic stereotypes (repeated patterns of words or phrases or questions) and echolalia, consisting in repeating words or sentences spoken by another person immediately, or in the so-called postponement (Pisula, 2010). This repetition is involuntary and meaningless, it consists in copying the pattern - a replica, where there is no preserved thought process. Echolalia can be divided into three categories due to time and conditions of occurrence:

- immediate echolalia (repeating the phrase heard directly, words or questions, keeping the grammatical structure),
- delayed echolalia (quoting statements, opinions or advertisements that were heard much earlier, even a few days or even months, without the ability to apply them in a proper way)
- mild echolalia (words related to the child's situations or interests that occur in speech) (Winczura, 2016).

However, it should be remembered that in correctly developing children there are also some symptoms described in autism. J. Błeszyński says after Piaget that the occurrence of echolalia at some stage in the development of children is a phenomenon that does not cause anxiety, because over time their number decreases and disappears completely (Błeszyński, 2011). In children with autism, this is often the main way of speaking, because they cannot build statements themselves. It is not known what communication function is performed by echolalia, and their interpretation is extremely difficult (Pisula, 2010).

Non-verbal communication, which consists of expression and understanding of the message expressed through body language, gestures and facial expressions, in people with autism proceeds incorrectly. We can observe the lack of gestures, and those that occur are simple and instrumental. Children with autistic disorders often display behaviors associated with unusual movements; shaking your head, moving their jaws, gnashing their teeth whining or moaning. Often, unnatural shoulder movements and increased muscle tone are also observed. Facial expressions are the manifestations of negative emotions, while states of pleasure are revealed in increased physical activity or behaviors such as clapping or swinging (Bobkowicz - Lenartowska, 2010).

Non-verbal communication is an important element of communication, it gives context in which the analysis and interpretation of the message is made. Without its understanding, the exchange of information between two people cannot take place fully. People who have a non-verbal communication disorder are not aware of the meaning of language as something more than just words (Winczura, 2016).

The ability to establish contact with other people and communicate with them influences the child's further development. Having the ability to communicate verbally and non-verbally plays an important role in the life of every person and is decisive in the process of building social relationships with other people.

### **Conclusions**

The degree of development of communication skills in children with autistic disorders is dependent on many factors, including the level of cognitive development of the child. One of the main goals of supporting autistic people is to strengthen them in acquiring verbal and non-verbal communication skills. This is possible only by holistic treatment of a given person through stimulation of disturbed areas in which difficulties arise. It is impossible to separate individual elements of the autism spectrum triad, because they have many common features, influence each other and are dependent on each other. Support for people with autism in communication is closely related to stimulating the development of the social interaction sphere and supporting activity on cognitive popping (Pisula, 2010).

The manifestations of autism are of a broad nature, therefore the support of each person must be appropriately adapted to individual disorders. Difficulties for individual people are varied and may be accompanied by various problems, which makes autism different in every person. Therefore, individual programs are created for each child and work methods are applied that best suit their needs. The basis for developing such a program is to determine the skills of a given child. Working with a person with autistic disorders should include supporting verbal and non-verbal communication, social skills and support in the field of modification and shaping in the field of behavior. Therefore, the therapy should cover all elements of the autistic disorders triad occurring in a given child.

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# HIPPOTHERAPY OF CHILDREN WITH DOWN SYNDROME: DIFFICULTIES, RECOMMENDATIONS FOR WORK

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**Abstract.** *There are many forms of therapy for children with Down syndrome. Among them, hippotherapy is gaining more and more scientific recognition in Poland. Hippotherapy represents an alternative form of rehabilitation, with a key link being an adequately trained horse. The major benefit of hippotherapy is a broad spectrum of effect. It is important for the rehabilitation of people with Down syndrome that hippotherapy offers great opportunities to stimulate physical, cognitive, sensory and verbal areas. Its effect on social functioning of the individual is also substantial. Attractive forms of the therapeutic sessions, positive results of hippotherapeutic effects and the increasing popularity represent the motivation for both practitioners and scholars for organization of knowledge and limitation of scepticism about this field of science.*

*This paper presents author's observations collected over many years of work as a hippotherapist with people with disabilities. It is aimed to bring closer the aspect of using hippotherapy in the work with children with Down syndrome. The paper also stresses the difficulties and methods to overcome them. It identifies the risks and the observed successes.*

**Keywords:** *hippotherapy, rehabilitation, Down syndrome.*

## Introduction

Patients with various dysfunctions, including those with Down syndrome, and their families, often have to choose one of the rehabilitation methods. The determinants of this choice may vary, from access to the resources of modern rehabilitation and financial status through to personal interests of the person. Among the currently popularized forms of rehabilitation, hippotherapy is gradually gaining popularity, with the main therapeutic link being an animal (horse).

A positive dimension of the relation between human and horse was already found in ancient times. These animals were used for pulling carts. They were also used for land cultivation or transportation (Faiure & Swift, 2007). The therapeutic values of the relations with horses were already emphasized in ancient times. In the 5th century BC, Hippocrates indicated the relationships between horse riding and treatment of certain diseases (Ustjan & Jeziorska, 2008). Later, the list of

benefits was extended to cognitive, social and emotional areas of human development.

### **Hippotherapy as an alternative form of rehabilitation**

The development of hippotherapy observed in Poland was the inspiration for systematization of the knowledge in this field. The Polish Hippotherapeutic Society (PTHip) established in 1992, which associates experts from various domains, developed the fundamentals for Polish hippotherapy. It should be emphasized that presentation of all aspects which are of key importance to the understanding of the idea of hippotherapy is impossible in this study, since the scope of knowledge in this area is extensive. Therefore, the focus of this text was on the fundamentals of selected aspects of hippotherapeutic effects with consideration for the idea of disability resulting from Down syndrome.

It seems significant to indicate the definition of the term hippotherapy which has been widely used in Poland. It says that hippotherapy should be understood as an "oriented therapeutic activity that should be aimed at the improvement in human functioning in physical, emotional, cognitive and/or social areas, with a specifically trained horse representing an integral part of the therapeutic process" (Strumińska, 2007). It should be noted that this concept in Poland is understood slightly wider than in other countries, where the aspect of physical rehabilitation seems to be somehow more accentuated (see Heipertz-Hengst, 1997). PTHip considers the hippotherapy effects on other areas of human functioning as equally important. This results not only from the above presented definition, adopted canons of Polish hippotherapy and the training curricula for future hippotherapists.

While discussing the problem of hippotherapy at least shortly, one should list the forms distinguished in its area. Analysis of the literature indicates their several classifications. Attempting to find a classification with the highest accuracy would be futile. Regardless of the studies in this area, the hippotherapy distinguishes between: (1) *equine physiotherapy*, focused on the improvement of motor function. Two models of therapeutic effects are used in equine physiotherapy: (a) neurophysiological, with the key factor being proper sitting position and correctly performed movements and (b) functional, used in children older than 5 years, where improved function is what matters the most; (2) *therapy through contact with horse*, based on the contact of the patients with the horse. It also happens that the participants of the therapy do not ride a horse at all. In this case, the attempts are made to start and maintain positive relations with the horse and hippotherapist in order to convey it to the further environment and (3) *the psychopedagogical horse riding*. This form of hippotherapy requires specific physical fitness from participants such that the person is able to sit in the saddle

and control the horse's movement. The therapeutic sessions also include elements of horse grooming and working in a stable (Strumińska, 2007; Ustjan & Jeziorska, 2008; Gasińska et al., 2004).

There are also other types of therapy: (4) *therapy by horse movement*, when the participant is subjected only to horse movements (Kazimierczuk, 2015). In this therapy, the important factor is to transfer the stimuli from the horse to the rider's body and to establish a correct gait patterns in the human brain; (5) *horse riding for the disabled*. This type often represents a continuation of the previous therapeutic effects. The aim of such a therapy is to instil a habit of active lifestyles, with the most spectacular effects being participation in equine competitions (Strumińska, 2007).

These forms of therapies are interrelated. This improves the efficiency and attractiveness of hippotherapy. All these types can be successfully used in people with Down syndrome. In many cases (if there are no medical contraindications) the hippotherapeutic effects are used in combination with psychopedagogical horse riding. However, it occurs that as a result of the dysfunctions, the use of this form of classes is possible only after several years. Such situations are well demonstrated by the case of 13-year-old Magda. The girl was born with Down syndrome and mild intellectual disability. An additional problem was disturbances in visual-motor coordination and orientation in the child's own body schema. This led to the difficulties with the posting trot (riders' lifting in the saddle during the horse's trot). Magda learnt this ability after 3 years.

It should be emphasized that depending on the needs of a patient, one forms of hippotherapy will dominate over others. This means merely the tendency rather than total elimination (unless health status of the patient suggests the elimination) of some of these forms.

The correctness of the choice is one of the factors that determines the efficiency of hippotherapy. Other factors include a properly trained and chosen horse (in general, the principle of „small human = small horse” is used), properly adjusted equipment (e.g. conventional saddle, hippotherapeutic saddle, which is rarely used in the case of people with Down syndrome, vaulting belts). Furthermore, it is important to use didactic resources and ensure regular participation in the sessions and engagement of both the hippotherapist and the participant.

Hippotherapy is recommended in rehabilitation of many disturbances. Their list, accepted by PTHip, is very long. Three groups of indications were mentioned by the organization, including Down syndrome. This disability (similar to autism, behaviour disturbances, intellectual disability, depressions etc.), is numbered among the group of recommendations, *termed other development disturbances*. There are two other groups of disturbances where hippotherapy can be recommended: *neurological syndromes* (e.g. cerebral palsy, brain microdamages,



muscle diseases etc.) and *orthopaedic syndromes* e.g. postural disorders, scoliosis, conditions following amputations, congenital limb defects, muscle contractures (Ustjan & Jeziorska, 2008).

One should emphasize a broad range of contraindications for participation in this form of therapeutic sessions. Among them are those which entirely disqualify from using hippotherapy and those which need additional expert consultations (so-called relative contraindications). The first group includes e.g. being allergic to horse hair coat and sweat, lack of acceptance of this form of treatment, detachment of the eye retina, lack of control of the head in the motor development or unhealed wounds. Furthermore, the relative contraindications include e.g. frequent epileptic seizures, profound intellectual disability or some vision problems (Ibidem).

In the case of relative indications, the decision on the participation in the therapy depends on the hippotherapist. One example is the aforementioned epileptic seizures. As demonstrated by the examinations among children with Down syndrome, prevalence of the seizures is ca. 1-10 % (Bhalla et al., 2011). Types of seizures and their frequency may impact on the decisions made by the hippotherapist. It happens that the only form is the therapy through contact with horse. This is not always satisfactory for both participants and their guardians. This was the case with Ania, a 14-year-old girl with Down syndrome, who was substantially overweight and suffered from frequent convulsive seizures. Lack of acceptance of the recommended form of therapy (therapy through contact with horse) determined the refusal to admit the child to hippotherapy. Ania's parents considered hippotherapy as only horse riding.

The specific nature of the therapy (the horse is only an animal, which can be startled, jump to the side, which can lead to the fall) determines the limitations of safety. The likelihood of convulsive seizures additionally increases the risk of dangerous situations. The hippotherapist with small body build is exposed at higher risk of catching the falling rider in case of emergency or if the rider has to dismount the horse (in such situations, the hippotherapist's body acts as a tumbling mat to cushion the fall).

Hippotherapy has a positive effect on many aspects of human life (Ustjan & Jeziorska, 2008; Strumińska, 2007). From the standpoint of the function of patients with Down syndrome, in addition to the physiological benefits, the most significant advantages include normalization of the muscular contraction, improvement in balance and correcting body posture, returning the disturbed symmetry of body trunk muscles, developing locomotor abilities, stimulation of senses, stimulation of superficial and deep sensation, activation and supporting the work of internal organs. It should also be noted that the general improvement in physical fitness of the individual is also conducive to optimization of social functioning.

Accordingly, correctly adjusted and designed hippotherapeutic sessions stimulate the development of non-verbal communication, stimulate development of emotional ties, help the patient get used to physical contact and develop subjectivity and responsibility. They positively affect the development of the abilities to start and maintain contacts (Ibidem). In the case of people with Down syndrome, the use of potential of the hippotherapy allows for additional gradual elimination of oppositional and destructive behaviours, tenacity or difficulties in controlling moods. Furthermore, sessions with the horse which does not always obey the instructions develop patience and persistence. The successes are the opportunity to being proud and improve the self-esteem.

Hippotherapy has also benefits in terms of psychological effects. These include in particular stimulation/motivation for action, ensuring emotional security (horse accepts us unconditionally), opportunities of relaxing, providing the feeling of empowerment and practising attention and concentration (Ibidem).

The above mentioned list of benefits is incomplete. Creation of this type of list seems to be disputable. It is worth emphasizing that each participant of hippotherapeutic classes derives specific benefits. Multifaceted nature of the above effects does not make the hippotherapy as superior to other rehabilitation methods. Hippotherapy should be approached as an additional method that supports classical forms of rehabilitation.

### **Hippotherapy in working with children with Down syndrome: difficulties, recommendations for work**

The below description of the difficulties and suggested solutions, which represents the supplementation of the first part of this study is incomplete. It would be difficult to present all the possible obstacles, guidelines and dilemmas. The author did not intend to develop a comprehensive compendium of knowledge in this area but only to emphasize the complexity of the problem discussed.

Most of the problems encountered during hippotherapy of people with Down syndrome results from their health problems. Among them are e.g. asymptomatic or symptomatic (atlantoaxial) instability of the cervical vertebra, respiratory difficulties, muscle flaccidity, joint hypermobility, postural disorders, or overweight (Cunningham, 1994). However, this does not mean that all of them relate to each patient with Down syndrome.

These medical problems often require additional expert consultation (as mentioned before). Accordingly, due to the instability of the cervical vertebra often observed in people with Down syndrome, it is necessary to take X-ray images of the cervical spine and provide the hippotherapist with the opinion from the orthopaedist. Working with patients with diagnosed asymptomatic instability requires a particular carefulness during the therapeutic sessions. This forces

adequate organization and adjustment of the exercise/tasks to individual participants.

In an 11-year-old Adam with such a diagnosis, it was necessary to eliminate trot due to the lack of full control of postural muscles. In order to avoid sudden jumping off the horse's back, dismounting the horse was supported by a specially designed landing. In the case of Adam, it was difficult to explain the boy why he could not start learning to trot. The refusal often led to bursts of anger and the boy had difficulties in controlling them. It was necessary to introduce other exercises or forms of therapy which would be equally attractive and provide the child with sense of satisfaction. One of the proposed solutions was to organize, from time to time, the trip on a horse's back outside the area of the stud farm.

The symptomatic instability allows for participation not only in the therapy through contact with horse. Non-meeting the guidelines can impact on the patient's health and, in extreme cases, can lead even to death. In the case of the lack of medical documentation, the hippotherapist should refuse to accept the child for therapy. The comment of one of the mothers was both unpleasant and dangerous for the child. When asked for providing the medical documents, she ignored the request by saying „*I don't have it and don't know when I will... If you don't like it, we will go anywhere else... Stop making issues out of such stupid things!*”.

People with Down syndrome have tendencies for breathing with their mouth. This is the consequence of the specific build of the skull, substantial palatine tonsils, clogged sinuses or flaccidity of the tongue and mandible muscles (Cunningham, 1994). This increases susceptibility to infections, especially if the weather is worse. The conditions typical of therapeutic sessions i.e. open space or a hall, can additionally increase the incidence of illnesses.

Cancelling therapeutic sessions caused by bad weather or illness limits the opportunities for obtaining positive effects. It is important to ensure the continuity and regularity of the sessions. In this light, one should care for proper clothes. It is worth to have an additional pair of gloves, cap or balm for chapped lips in the autumn and winter periods. Indoors, the difficulties can be caused by dust and dry air. It is worth to remember that before the session (if it is necessary), the hall should be prepared by e.g. watering, which limits the amount of the dust. Unfortunately, some stud farms that offer hippotherapeutic classes fail to offer indoor halls. This is due to limited financial resources.

Hippotherapy is conducive to elimination of postural problems, which in patients with Down syndrome occur quite often due to their overweight and muscle flaccidity. It is critical to ensure proper position on the horseback, with the key importance from the rider's pelvis positions. During the horse's walk (the slowest horse's motion), three-dimensional impulses from the horse's back are transferred to the child's body. The rhythmical gait of the animal helps establish

proper postural patterns and is conducive to normalization of muscular tension. The hippotherapist determines which muscle group should be trained. Changes in the direction of riding, stopping and starting, changes in the pace and walk or riding a horse on a turn are conducive to the development of the above abilities.

In children with Down syndrome who are able to sit firmly on the horseback, the proper posture is often practised by various climbs or overcoming the obstacles put on the ground. In the initial phase of a climb, body trunk is bent and it returns to its upright position after the downwards movement. In order to stimulate maintaining the body trunk symmetry, one should limit riding to straight lines. Lateral postural control can be developed by riding a slalom along the cones arranged in the indoor manege or around the vehicle tyres arranged in an outdoor obstacle course.

It should also be noted that proper exercises represent merely one aspect of working on proper body posture of the child. Various techniques of correcting and stimulating of the demanded posture are used during the therapeutic sessions. Hand pressure to the spine is used to stimulate the extension, with the hand moved along the spine in the upward direction. Manual correction can be also used, with pressure to the sacral region or the abdomen of the rider. After some time, correction of the rider's position requires only a verbal instruction e.g. „*Krzysiu, straight back!*”. An attractive activity for children is playing with the rag bag filled with rice and located on the top of the head so that it does not falls off during riding (this exercise should be performed with due care in the case of asymptomatic atlantoaxial instability so that the hyperextension of the cervical region of the spine is prevented).

The aforementioned muscle flaccidity and joint hypermobility (so-called loose joints) make it difficult to ensure proper orientation in the body scheme. The animal movement and additional exercises are of great help. During the horse's movement, impulses from the animal's back are moved to human body. Individual body parts of a rider are moved with respect to each other in space, which has a stimulatory effect on the disturbed functions. Horse's back represents an additional source of stimulants, not only for superficial but also for deep sensation. This is essential for proper development of orientation in person's own body scheme. Furthermore, various stud farm facilities and equipment can be used as therapeutic resources. The only limitations include safety and imagination.

For example, playing with oats can be used to stimulate superficial sensation and senses of the child with Down system. Wading in the shallow pool filled with oats represents a perfect method to ensure multifaceted stimulation. Grains have their specific smell. It is also possible to taste them. Children can bury their hands or feet in the grains. The grains can be tipped from one hand to the other.

Lower physical fitness results from muscle and joint dysfunction and disturbed body height-to-weight ratio. Light or moderate obesity is observed in

many people with Down syndrome. Therefore, any activity taken in the stud and activities performed with the horse or near the horse are recommended as they can improve general physical capacity of the individual. Cleaning the horse and simple stud chores are approached as a form of playing while encouraging the patient to move. The likelihood of cardiovascular problems should be taken into consideration in children with Down syndrome. However, in the many-year practice of the author, it has never happened that a child, after the cardiological consultation, had to abandon hippotherapy. A hippotherapist should however remember that the exercise should be adjusted to the child's abilities.

Hippotherapy also develops the sense of responsibility and conscientiousness. It improves self-esteem and self-confidence. It helps people be proud of performing the tasks. Furthermore, the stud is a place which forces adjustment to concrete principles, at least for the safety reasons. For example, it is forbidden to move directly behind the horse's rear as the horse can kick the person. Shouting is also forbidden. The box stall can be entered only with hippotherapist and if the horse is facing forward the person. This helps develop the ability to be subordinate. Hippotherapy also provides good conditions to developing the ability to control emotions and eliminate malicious behaviours, which is important to social function of people with Down syndrome (and other diseases).

Furthermore, the abilities to cooperate and compete with others are also developed. Group classes are a perfect solution to develop such competencies. An attractive alternative for the winter season are sleigh rides. During such classes, the group prepares the horse team. The therapist distributes the duties. Individual tasks are assigned to each child. Such activities are often joined by parents. This is conducive to making friends and exchanging views and experiences.

Apart from health problems, another group of difficulties is defensive mechanisms. Therefore, hippotherapist should pay more attention to the emotional status of the participants. Difficult behaviours of the patients are often aimed at the hippotherapist. They represent the result of accumulated emotions. It is necessary that the hippotherapists ensures the atmosphere of acceptance and verbalizes difficult experiences of the patients. The communication such as *I understand that you can be afraid, I guess you are offended* help work on defensive mechanisms. They also help move to a more constructive work (Jeziorska & Ustjan, 2009).

Below is an example of the denial mechanism used by 9-year-old Wojtek. The boy was admitted to hippotherapy because of Down syndrome. Wojtek liked one horse very much. Unfortunately, for health reasons, the animal had to be excluded from classes for a certain time. It seemed that the boy accepted the situation. He greeted his favourite horse and started classes on the other. Asked if he was sad, the boy answered in the negative. During several next meetings the

boy incessantly compared the new horse to his favourite. After some time, when he could participate again in therapeutic sessions on his favourite horse, a noticeable change in his behaviour was observed. He was less diligent during cleaning the horse, tore the horse's mane or reins. When he was angry if the horse did not follow his instruction, Wojtek hit the animal. Asked if he does not like the horse any more, the boy denied. Unfortunately, the behaviour did not change. This changed after the conversation that depicted a fictional situation that referred to the previous events. This was the beginning for further conversations with Wojtek about his anger at the animal.

Hippotherapists can also face other difficulties (due to the type of disability or dysfunction) to be overcome, including fear. The best case is if the participant communicates the fear. This reflects proper relations and mutual trust. The hippotherapists should be able to see such forms of communication as non-verbal signals (crying, escape, hiding hands from the horse). This suggests proper relations, lack of trust and feeling of security. Unfortunately, it happens that instead of accepting the child's fear, rewarding the child verbally and support any attempts to start contact with the animal, the therapist reinforces negative emotions. Therefore, one should avoid punishing (*If you don't back the horse, we will have to finish the classes*) and such statements as: *You shouldn't be afraid, big boys are not afraid; make up your mind – do you back the horse or not?* etc. It is worth to use verbal encouragement and show the method of performing specific activities or gradually help child get used to being near the horse (Jeziorska & Ustjan, 2008).

An example of stages in accustoming the child to the presence of the horse is seven-year-old Majka with Down syndrome. The girl was very happy to see the horse. She waved to the animal, brought various treats and was willing to observe the horse and was willing to draw. Asked whether she wanted to stroke the horse, the girl nodded. However, when she was to approach the animal in order to do this, she hid behind her mother's back and responded with crying. Unfortunately, mother's reactions were negative, which made the situation even worse. The problem could be solved by individual steps: playing and talking using the toy horses, soft rocking horse, observation of other children who cleaned horses and mother on the horse's back to become the model to be followed.

The scope of the difficulties and proposed solutions demonstrates how extensive is this problem. Vast knowledge and skills required from hippotherapists are likely to have initiated the tendency for their specialization in the field of a specific disorder. Addressing hippotherapeutic activities to a concrete group of patients allows for the development of the therapist's own methodologies, collecting necessary resources and equipment and starting a close cooperation with the environment of specialists in the specific field. This is useful from the standpoint of participants as the effectiveness of the therapy can be

increased. It is worth modifying the training programs for future hippotherapists so that concrete groups of recipients of the classes offered are chosen at specific stages of education.

It should also be emphasized that there are no guidelines in Polish scientific sources concerning methodologies of therapies for people with Down syndrome or other disabled children. One exception is the study by A. Strumińska focused on the people with intellectual disability (Strumińska, 2007). This can be due to the financial limitations that make it difficult to perform multifaceted examinations in this field.

Financial limitations are also emphasized by hippotherapeutic centres and stud farms that offer hippotherapeutic sessions and families, for whom costs of child's participation in such activities are often excessively high. Unfortunately, financial support of the state is insufficient, whereas the necessity of caring for the disabled child often forces one parent (usually mother) to give up his or her job. (Czerw-Bajer & Karpuszenko, 2013).

## Conclusions

Hippotherapy represents the form of therapy that attracts more and more interest and popularity. It is usually treated by the participants as a form of playing. It is more often considered a pleasure rather than coercion. However, it represents an alternative form of therapeutic effects which are supposed to support conventional rehabilitation methodologies. The hippotherapists are required to have in-depth knowledge and individual approach to the patient.

There is still much to be done by researchers in Poland to popularize this type of therapy. Performing the examinations based on the methodological principles should be the starting point for coherent studies that can represent the guidelines for working in this area of therapy.

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# АКАЛЬКУЛИЯ У ПАЦИЕНТКИ С АФАЗИЕЙ БРОКА И ЛЕГКИМИ КОГНИТИВНЫМИ РАССТРОЙСТВАМИ - РАЗБОР КЛИНИЧЕСКОГО СЛУЧАЯ

## *Acalculia in Patient with Broca Aphasia and Mild Cognitive Impairment - a Case Study*

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**Abstract.** *Acalculia is an acquired disorder of calculating which occurs isolated or with association with aphasia and mild cognitive impairment. We described a case study of 37-year-old Ms. R. after hemorrhage and ischemia with Broca aphasia and acalculia in the article. Ms. R. was assessed by own diagnostic test for acalculia, by test for aphasia and cognitive functions. The aim of the study was to investigate the link between Ms R. 's acalculia, Broca aphasia and mild cognitive impairment. Assessment revealed Broca aphasia, verbal apraxia, alexia, agraphia, poor attention, weak working memory and poor later recall of remembered words. Assessment of acalculia showed transcoding impairments, disorders of arithmetic fact retrieval and disorders of calculation procedures. Poor working memory and alexia influenced transcoding of numbers. Alexia is also manifested in comprehension of word problems. Counting backward and counting dots were complicated by poor concentration of attention and weak working memory. Symptoms of aphasia, acalculia and mild cognitive impairment affected each other.*

**Keywords:** *acalculia, Broca aphasia, calculating, mild cognitive impairment, stroke.*

### **Введение Introduction**

Статья описывает разбор клинического случая пациентки, перенесшей геморрагический и, впоследствии, ишемический инсульты, страдающей афазией Брока, акалькулией и когнитивными расстройствами. Для обследования пациентки на акалькулию был использован собственный диагностический материал, батарея тестов на афазию и тест когнитивных функций с целью обозначить взаимосвязь между афазией, акалькулией и когнитивными расстройствами пациентки.

Вопросы исследования были поставлены следующим образом:

- Какие симптомы акалькулии проявляются у пациентки?

- Какие симптомы афазии проявляются у пациентки?
- Какие нарушения когнитивных функций наблюдаются у пациентки?
- Как воздействует нарушения когнитивных функций на способность пациентки к счету?
- Как действуют нарушения речевых функций на способность пациентки к счету?

### **Теоретические основания** *Theoretical basis*

Акалькулия является приобретенным нарушением обработки чисел и счетных навыков, которое проявляется после повреждения мозга (van Harskamp & Cipolotti, 2003). Акалькулия может существовать либо изолированно, либо параллельно с афазией (Bradshaw & Mattingley, 2013). Процентная доля пациентов с акалькулией при повреждениях в левом полушарии составляет от 16 % до 28 % (Carlomagno et al., 1999). Акалькулия является частью синдрома Гертсмана наряду с право-левой дезориентацией, аграфией и пальцевой агнозией.

Способность к счету понимается как многофакторный навык, включающий в себя вербальные и пространственные способности, память, внимание и исполнительные функции (Ardila & Rosselli, 2002; McCloskey, Alimónosa & Macaruso, 1991). Нейронные сети, поддерживающие языковые функции, также частично опосредуют нелингвистические функции, такие как рабочая память (Cahana-Amitay & Albert, 2015).

Лурия (Lurija, 1983) утверждает, что психические процессы у человека (включая память, мышление, чтение, письмо и т.п.) являются сложными функциональными системами, которые не локализируются в ограниченных частях мозга, но реализуются при сотрудничестве взаимовлияющих структур мозга. Осуществление счетных операций производится при систематической активации теменной, префронтальной и поясной областей (Dehaene et al., 2004). Математическое мышление активирует внутритеменные регионы обоих полушарий и вентральные височные зоны, включенные в восприятие чисел, а не перисильвиарные области височной доли, которые связаны с речью (Amalric & Dehaene, 2018).

Витаскова (Vitásková, 2013) склоняется к классификации Кошча, делящего акалькулию на практогностическую, вербальную, лексическую, графическую, операциональную и идеогностическую. Исследователи (Van Harskamp & Cipolotti, 2003; Cappelletti & Cipolotti 2012) придерживаются деления акалькулии на нарушения обработки чисел (нарушение

воспроизводства и понимания) и на нарушения счета, причем пациент может иметь как лишь одно нарушение, так оба нарушения одновременно. Нарушения воспроизводства чисел могут воздействовать либо на лексическую, либо на синтаксическую обработку чисел. Понятие “воспроизводство чисел” обозначает процесс, когда преобразуется семантическое числовое представление в формат вывода числа. Форматом вывода чисел может быть запись арабской цифры „15”, запись числительного „пятнадцать” или сказанное слово „пятнадцать”. Синтаксический процесс включает в себя спецификацию отношений между числовыми рядами. Ошибка в синтаксическом процессе при воспроизводстве чисел проявляется, например, когда пациент читает „15” вместо „5”. Лексический процесс включает спецификацию элементов в числе. Ошибка в лексическом процессе при воспроизводстве чисел проявляется, например, когда пациент читает „26” как „46” (Cappelletti & Cipolotti, 2012). Нарушения понимания чисел делятся на нарушения понимания количественного значения или нарушение понимания порядкового значения числа. Понимание числа означает способность создать семантическое представление числа, т. е. понять количество, связанное с числом (количественное значение) или понять, что число может обозначать порядковый номер в ряду (порядковое значение) (там же). Нарушения счета включают в себя расстройство обработки арифметических символов, неспособность вспомнить арифметические факты, нарушение знаний в области счетных операций и нарушение базового знания счета. Нарушения обработки арифметических символов проявляются, когда пациент не может работать с символами +, -, \* и /, например, он не в состоянии добавить символ в примере „6 ? 1 = 7”. Способность вспомнить арифметические факты определяется как ориентация в „словаре числовых комбинаций”. В расстройстве обработки арифметических символов входит счет в рамках таблицы умножения, а также решение простых примеров до 10. Знания счетных операций включают знание о соблюдении определенных процедур, которые необходимы при письменном сложении, вычитании, умножении и делении „в столбик”. Базовое знание счета означает знание правил арифметики, например, подсчета с 0 (там же).

### **Методология исследования**

#### ***Research methods***

Для получения данных был выбран метод качественного исследования – метод разбора клинического случая. В разборе клинического случая мы сосредоточились на обработке истории болезни пациентки, далее на диагностике когнитивных, речевых и счетных

способностей пациентки. Для диагностики когнитивных функций был использован Монреальский когнитивный тест (MoCA) (Nasreddine et al., 2005), оценивающий все когнитивные компоненты, необходимые для диагностики акалькулии. MoCA тест диагностирует пространственную ориентацию, память, внимание, способность к абстракции, названия животных и речь. Для оценки речевых функций было выбрано “Обследование речевых (фатических) функций” (Cséfalvay, Košťálová, & Klimešová, 2002), которое опирается на когнитивно-нейропсихологический подход к афазии. Для диагностики счетных способностей мы применили недавно созданный нами тест на акалькулию, который опирается на результаты исследования Червинковой (Červinková, 2015) среди логопедов, работающих в секторе здравоохранения в Чешской Республике (см. ниже). По результатам пациентки в вышеупомянутых тестах были получены ответы на вопросы исследования.

### **Обследование счета** *Assessment of calculation*

Тест состоит из 15 частей. Первая часть тестирует способность счета от 1 до 20 и обратно. Части теста всегда состоят из нескольких заданий. Третье задание первой части определяет способность счета десятками от 10 до 90. Вторая часть оценивает способность пациента показать цифру от 1 до 10. Целью третьей части является проверка знаний чисел, связанных с личностью пациента, например, номера телефона, даты рождения. Четвертая часть определяет способность обследуемого преобразовывать числа между 3 формами: арабскими цифрами, числительными и устно выраженными числами. Пятая часть направлена на способность устно решать простые арифметические примеры на сложение, вычитание, умножение и деление. Шестая часть тестирует способность быстрого определения количества элементов в группе без их подсчета. Эту способность можно использовать только при определении групп до 5 элементов. В англоязычной литературе данная способность называется „subitizing”. Седьмая часть включает в себя знание арифметических символов. Восьмая часть проверяет способность сосчитать количество элементов в множестве. Девятая часть ставит задачу выяснить возможность сравнения чисел. Десятая часть касается общих математических знаний, например, количества дней в неделе, году. Одиннадцатая часть проверяет навыки письменного сложения, вычитания, умножения и деления. Двенадцатая часть оценивает способность составить различные суммы из предложенных банкнот. Тринадцатая часть проверяет способность добавить число в числовой ряд. В англоязычной литературе этому типу заданий

дается название „number bisection task”. Четырнадцатая часть проверяет знание арифметических правил, применяемых при решении четырех основных математических операций. Одним из навыков является, например, знание правила коммутативности<sup>1</sup>. Пятнадцатая часть проверяет способность решать текстовые задачи.

## Результаты *Results*

### **Анамнез**

Пациентка Р., возраст 37 лет, правша. Вместе с мужем воспитывает дочь и сына от предыдущего брака мужа. По профессии референт, в настоящее время домохозяйка. Преморбидно Р. не страдала расстройствами чтения, письма или счета или другими нарушениями коммуникативных функций. 9. 3. 2012 Р. была доставлена в больницу каретой скорой помощи. Компьютерная томография выявила правосторонний стволочный инсульт. После тромбозиса Р. впала в кому. Далее компьютерная томография выявила экспансивную внутримозговую гематому фронтально слева, субарахноидальное кровоизлияние слева и новую ишемию в теменной доле.

### **Обследование афазии**

Спонтанная речь пациентки небеглая, напоминает телеграфную. Присутствует аномия, парафразирование. Парафазия в речи не отмечена. С автоматическими рядами справляется самостоятельно. При разговоре придерживается темы, уважает говорящего. Пациентка Р. успешно исправляет неправильно произнесенные слова. Информационная ценность разговора выше среднего. При речи пациентка ищет начальную артикуляционную позицию первого звука слова. Пациентка способна повторить только отдельные слова и короткие фразы. Называние в рамках тестирования нарушено очень незначительно.

Понимает устную речь – правильно отвечает на альтернативные вопросы, понимает многоходовые инструкции, может подобрать правильное название к картинке, правильно оценить, существует на самом деле слово или нет. Фонологический анализ полностью в норме.

Р. может прочесть отдельные значимые слова, понять их, но псевдослова и слоги прочесть неспособна. Пациентка читает некоторые звуки, может отличить, реально ли существует слово. Способна прочесть и понять короткий текст.

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<sup>1</sup> свойство коммутативности означает то, что порядок отдельных операндов не имеет значения, например, при сложении ( $a + b$ ) и умножении ( $a \times b$ )

Автоматизированные формы письма воспроизводимы. Может переписать графемы, слоги, слова и псевдослова. Может написать словарный диктант на короткие слова, длинные слова написать не способна. Если Р. вспоминает звуковую форму слова, она может в назвать рисунок письменно. Письменное описание изображения соответствует устному. С точки зрения когнитивно-нейропсихологического подхода нарушаются фонемно-графемные соответствия, орфографический и фонологический выходной лексикон, далее определяется тяжелая алексия и аграфия при нарушении орфографического выходного лексикона.

### **Обследование познавательных функций**

Пространственная ориентация (5/5 баллов) без затруднений: пациентка правильно и быстро связала точки в соответствии с заданием, перерисовала куб, без ошибок нарисовала часы с требуемым временем. Р. затруднялась назвать животных (1/3 баллов), правильно назвала только льва, остальных животных не вспомнила. При запоминании слов Р. смогла повторить только 4/5 слов, позднее, вспоминая эти слова, Р. назвала только 2 слова (2/5 баллов). Пациентка не смогла повторить пятерку цифр по порядку, как и три цифры в обратном порядке. При постепенном вычитании числа 7 от 100 Р. правильно сделала только первые два расчета; при чтении ряда букв пациентка всегда правильно определила звук „а” среди других (за внимание 1/6 баллов). В субтесте речи Р. не смогла повторить ни одного сложного предложения; называя слова на звук „к”, Р. вспомнила только 1 слово (0/3 баллов). В тесте на абстракцию Р. объяснила сходство только между одной парой слов (1/2 баллов). Р. правильно ориентировалась в пространстве и времени (6/6 баллов). В целом Р. в тесте МоСА получила 18/30 баллов.

### **Обследование счета**

Результаты обследования счета представлены в Таблице 1.

Пациентка правильно решила все примеры в части 2 – узнавание цифр, 3 – знание личных чисел, 6 – subitizing, 9 – сравнение чисел, 10 – тест на знание количества, 12 – обращение с деньгами и 14 – знание арифметических правил. Другие субтесты были решены с ошибками:

В 1 части – счете – Р. смогла правильно считать от 1 только до 15. Затем Р. затруднялась вспомнить числа 16, 18 и 20. С обратным счетом от 20 Р. совершенно не справилась. Р. не смогла начать называть числа, после фонемической подсказки „20” назвала число 19, но далее не продолжала. При счете десятками от 10 до 90 пациентка остановилась у числа 40, число 50 сказала после подсказки первых слогов, и затем Р. правильно назвала следующие десятки.

Таблица 1. Таблица результатов обследования счета у Р.  
 Table 1 Table of Results of Assessment of Calculation in Mrs. R.

1. Счет	
а) от 1 до 20	17/20
б) от 20 до 1	1/20
с) десятками от 10 до 90	7/9
2. Узнавание чисел	10/10
3. Знание личных чисел	5/5
4. Перевод чисел	
а) Чтение арабских цифр	3/7
б) Написание арабских цифр	7/7
с) Перевод числительных в арабские цифры	4/7
д) Чтение числительных	1/7
е) Указание на числительные в форме диктанта	6/7
ф) Указание на числительные по арабским цифрам	6/7
5. Простая арифметика в устной форме	
а) +, -, *, / до 10	3/8
б) +, -, *, / до 100	4/8
с) +, -, *, / до 1 000	1/16
6. „Subitizing” (мгновенная оценка количества)	5/5
7. Знание арифметических символов	
а) Распознавание арифметического символа	4/4
б) Добавление символа в пример	3/4
8. Подсчет точек	2/3
9. Сравнение чисел	10/10
10. Знание общих математических фактов	8/8
11. Простая арифметика в письменной форме	
а) +, -, *, / до 50	5/8
б) +, -, *, / до 1 000	2/8
с) Счет про себя	0/8
12. Манипуляции с деньгами	7/7
13. „Number bisection task”	
а) Определения чисел, которые находятся „посередине”	2/3
б) Принятие решения об истинности утверждения	3/3
14. Знание арифметических правил	
а) Счет с 0	8/8
б) +, -	4/4
с) *, /	4/4
15. Текстовые задачи	3/7

В 4 части теста при преобразовании чисел Р. написала цифры под диктовку без трудностей, но число 2 046 потребовалось продиктовать 3 раза, после чего она его записала правильно. Р. прочитала только первые 3 цифры, следующие цифры ей прочитать не удалось. Добавляя арабские цифры к числительным, Р. добавила первые 4 цифры, т. е. максимум двузначные цифры. При чтении числительных Р. прочитала только числительное „четыре”. При определении правильной письменной формы высказанного числительного Р. сделала ошибку в числе 3 043, обозначив его как 3034; остальные были обозначены правильно. При преобразовании арабских цифр в числительные Р. перевела все цифры, кроме последней.

В 5 части – простых арифметических примерах – Р. допустила мелкие ошибки во всех арифметических операциях до 10. Пример требовалось прочитать несколько раз: счет в уме для Р. труден. Р. ошиблась на 1 в примерах  $9 - 7$ ,  $6 + 3$ . Р. не смогла решить пример  $6 / 2$ , но правильно определила, что  $10 / 5 = 2$ . В умножении Р. делала ошибки в обоих примерах. Р. смогла решить один пример на сложение и один пример на вычитание. При счете до 20 Р. смогла решить оба примера на сложение, наоборот, примеры на деление не были решены правильно. При умножении и делении Р. во всех заданиях сделала ошибку в одном примере, второй решила правильно. При вычитании была допущена ошибка на 1.

В самых сложных устных примерах Р. смогла решить только 1 пример – а именно  $100 / 4$ , остальные для нее были сложными.

В 7 части Р. правильно указала все 4 продиктованных символа. Тем не менее, при практическом добавлении символов в примеры Р. допускала ошибки, когда следовало добавить знак минус.

В 8 части – подсчете точек – Р. правильно посчитала группу из 6 и 9 точек, в группе с 11 точками назвала только 10.

В 11 части – письменном – счете Р. преуспела в сложении однозначных и двузначных чисел. Р. еще смогла решить оба примера на вычитание до 20, другие примеры уже для нее были трудными. Следующие примеры на сложение и вычитание Р. решить не смогла. Из примеров на умножение Р. смогла решить только один, а именно  $4 * 7$ , с другими уже не справилась. Р. не решила ни одного примера на деление. В 13 части – понимании чисел – Р. безошибочно решила 2 примера из 3. Решая, на самом ли деле дополненное число расположено между двумя определенными числами, Р. всегда определяла правильный ответ безошибочно.

В 15 части – текстовых задачах – с первой задачей Р. не справилась, не смогла правильно понять значение задачи. Р. правильно поняла следующие 4 задачи, во всех применяла соответствующие математические операции, но при делении ошиблась в расчете. Последние 2 текстовые задачи представляли для Р. значительные трудности.



### **Обсуждение и выводы** *Discussion and conclusion*

Обследование речевых функций указало на то, что Р. страдает афазией Брока и речевой апраксией, тяжелой алексией и аграфией с нарушением орфографического выходного лексикона. Напротив, Р. прекрасно понимает речь и относительно хорошо называет слова.

MoSA тест показал нарушения памяти у Р. в области нарушения вспоминания слов. Трудности в субтесте на внимание указывают на нарушения внимания, а также на нехватку рабочей памяти. Р. имеет хорошее пространственное воображение и ориентацию.

На основе логического анализа правильно и неправильно решенных задач можно заключить, что у Р. нет затруднений в понимании чисел (количества), что было проверено при правильном решении задач на сравнение. Воспроизведение чисел оценивается, скорее, как нарушенное, в целом, здесь проявляются проблемы с недостаточной рабочей памятью. На трудностях с переводом числительных на арабские цифры и на устную речь сказывается влияние алексии. Р. успешно писала арабские цифры под диктовку, но число 2 046 было продиктовано 3 раза, прежде чем было написано. Р. не испытывала существенных трудностей в решении заданий на знание арифметических символов. Знание арифметических фактов представляется удовлетворительным при сложении и вычитании. Р. способна решить минимум примеров на умножение и деление, но большинство примеров представляет для нее значительные трудности, на основании чего определяется расстройство знания арифметических фактов при умножении и делении. У пациентки нарушено знание счетных операций, о чем свидетельствуют проблемы с решением примеров как в устной, так и в письменной форме. При письменном счете в столбик Р. не способна решить даже примеры на сложение, в котором чувствовала себя наиболее уверенно, не говоря уже о вычитании, умножении и делении. Наибольшие затруднения вызвало деление. В наименьшей степени нарушения затронули сложение, поскольку Р. правильно решила письменные примеры на сложение двузначных и трехзначных чисел. Базовые знания счета не нарушены. В первой и в последних двух текстовых задачах проявились проблемы с пониманием текста (влияние алексии) и с планированием арифметических расчетов. Р. правильно решила текстовые задачи, требующие одной простой арифметической операции. В текстовых задачах, требовавших применения арифметических операций деления, пациентка допускала ошибки в расчете. Дефицит внимания и недостаточная рабочая память проявились при подсчете точек, при обратном счете от 20 и в одном случае при неправильном дополнении средней цифры в числовом

ряду. Р. совершенно правильно решила тест на количество, прошла проверку знаний личного номера и „subitizing”. По классификации Капеллетти и Чиполотти (Cappelletti & Cipolotti, 2012) в случае Р. речь идет о следующих видах акалькулии: нарушении воспроизводства чисел и счета – способности вспомнить арифметические факты и знания математических операций.

### Summary

Acalculia is an acquired disorder of number processing and calculating which manifests after brain damage. Acalculia exists isolated or with association with aphasia. This contribution based on case study is about a link between acalculia, aphasia and mild cognitive impairment. Assessment revealed Broca aphasia, verbal apraxia, alexia, agraphia, poor attention, weak working memory and poor later recall of remembered words. Assessment of acalculia showed transcoding impairments, disorders of arithmetic fact retrieval and disorders of calculation procedures. Poor working memory and alexia influenced transcoding of numbers. Alexia is also manifested in comprehension of word problems. Counting backward and counting dots were complicated by poor concentration of attention and weak working memory. Symptoms of aphasia, acalculia and mild cognitive impairment affected each other.

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## THE IMAGE OF A PERSON WITH DISABILITY IN FAIRY TALES AND FINE ART AS A REFLECTION OF THE ATTITUDE OF THE SOCIETY

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**Abstract.** *The article, referring to the analysis of 36 fairy tales and fine art reproductions, attempts to decode the attitude of the society towards people with disabilities, their social status and potential opportunities. This topic has not been analysed from this aspect neither by philologists nor by the authors of special psychology. In fairy tales and examples of fine art the variety of attitudes towards people with disabilities has been encountered. A wide range of attitudes – from empathy to undisguised negative attitude – has been encountered.*

**Keywords:** *people with disabilities, attitude, fairy tales, fine art.*

### Introduction

From the psychological point of view a fairy tale, according to G. Gudaitė, is a symbolic expression of personal search. Fairy tales help to understand one's negative emotions and positively solve psychological problems, evoke human's ability to act, activate his/her inner powers, stimulate new experiences and creative impulses, evoke subconsciousness, help to form a sense of independence, give purposefulness to one's life. Fairy tale is one of the most important forms of symbolic expression that, according to the analysts, has a typical structure reflecting a certain psychical process. The analysis of fairy tale leads to the distinction, identification and analysis of archetypal motives. These archetypal motives are the basis for individuation, thus while analysing fairy tales we analyse the process of individuation (Gudaitė, 2001). According to N. Bražienė, fairy tale is perceived as the expression of the unity of the development of spirit, soul and body forming human's understanding that only together with spiritual education thinking stimulates harmonious development of personality, helps a personality to appropriately orient in the world of one's feelings and thoughts and feel spiritually safe. By symbolical language every fairy tale teaches a person how to deal with his/her desires, fears and attractions. Fairy tale is a reflection of physical processes: the stories of this kind help both a child and an adult unconsciously perceive their negative emotions and their origins, help positively solve psychological problems, give hope, let them feel

safe, because fairy tale images lift from unconsciousness what one usually does not succeed to perceive consciously (Bražienė, 2004). However, apart from the reflection of the expression of personality transformation fairy tales, like other forms of folklore, have another impact as well. Both a child and an adult would feel sympathy or antipathy to a character of a fairy tale. If a fairy tale character is little familiar or completely unfamiliar, its image and psychological characteristics are forming. It is especially relevant when people that are less frequently seen, for example, people with disabilities, are depicted in fairy tales. If a child had not seen a person with one or another disability, a fairy tale would be a primary source of his/her knowledge. Depending on how this person is depicted in a fairy tale, it is possible for a respective attitude to be formed. Therefore, educating children with and without developmental disorders together, when a child has a possibility to directly communicate with different peers, is positively evaluated. If there is no such possibility, a child and an adult get information about people with disabilities from other sources, including fairy tales and works of fine art. In case of the lack of knowledge in human consciousness often negative and incorrect stereotypes are formed, that in one or another way can be corrected by works of art as well, for example, by fairy tales or works of fine art.

**The object of the research** – moral aspect of evaluation of human disability recorded in fairy tales and works of fine art revealing the attitudes of the author.

**The aim of the research** – to reveal the attitude towards disability and people with disabilities in fairy tales and works of fine art.

**The methods of the research:** content analysis, historical narrative, interpretation.

Folklore is a specific reflection of the attitudes of society towards people with disabilities. It conveys knowledge about the situation of people with disabilities in the society, about their activity, abilities, opportunities. Fairy tales, as one of the genres of folklore, may have influence on the formation of the attitudes of the society towards people with disabilities.

Having analysed 31 fairy tales of various nations and 5 fairy tales by particular authors, the characters of which are people with disabilities, according to predominant attitudes towards people with disabilities, fairy tales have been relatively divided into the following groups:

- a) fairy tales revealing a positive attitude towards disability and people with disabilities;
- b) fairy tales revealing a negative attitude;
- c) fairy tales reflecting a neutral attitude;

- d) fairy tales reflecting both negative and positive attitude towards disability and people with disabilities.

In seventeen fairy tales (**47,2 per cent**) a **positive attitude** towards disability and people with disabilities has been expressed. In these fairy tales it is attempted to positively depict a blind person, his/her abilities and a wish to prove them.

Namely this attitude is reflected in the fairy tale “The Blind Man and the Lame Man”, “The Tale on How a Lame Barang (European) and a Blind Khmer Frightened a Yak” (Cambodian fairy tales); “The Blind Strong Man”, “The Legless Hero and the Blind Hero”, “Matyusha Ashy” (Russian fairy tales); “The Blind Man, the Deaf Man and the Legless Man” (Tatar fairy tale); “The Blind Man and the Hunter” (fairy tale of West African countries); “The Blind Crow” (Turkmenian fairy tale), where a crow to thank for his life awards a shepherd, in the fairy tale of the Brothers Grimm “The King’s Son Who Did Not Fear Anything”, etc.

Positive attitude towards a person with disabilities and his/her skills is usually reflected in fairy tales, the character of which is a blind musician, for example, the Irish fairy tale “The Piper’s Song” (the lady of the sea and the blind piper Paddy Connor), “The Merchant’s Son” – the Bashkir tale about how music heals a blind man.

In some fairy tales a person with disability is presented if not as a full member of the society but at least as a person who needs other people’s empathy and help. In fairy tales revealing positive attitude towards people with disabilities sympathy and willingness to give them help is expressed, for example, the Russian fairy tale “The Blind Old Man”: *A blind old man was sitting on the stairs of the theatre and begging... The sum gathered in the hat during the day was very small, it was hardly enough for a piece of bread for the blind man... One day a middle-aged man was passing by. He came up to the old man, put some coins, listened to his thanks and stepped aside. But then he returned, took a cardboard and wrote something on it. In the evening the blind man’s hat was full of money. A new note on the cardboard was like this: It is spring on the street and I cannot see it.*

In eleven (**30,5 per cent**) fairy tales **negative attitude** towards a person with disabilities was revealed. Negativity is conditioned by insufficient knowledge or complete ignorance of this person’s abilities.

The implication of these texts is clear: blindness is a synonym of stupidity, foolishness, ignorance. In the Russian fairy tale “Blind Puppy” a blind man is compared with a blind puppy that does not know or understand anything, does not have any aim; the sighted people do not trust such blind puppies. In the Latvian fairy tale “The Blind Ash Tree” the one with disabilities is treated like a fool, becomes the object of mockery and bullying. In the Russian fairy tale “The

Blind Man” a blind man is depicted as a cheater. In the Bulgarian fairy tale “The Blind Snake” he is identified with a human eating snake. In the Cambodian fairy tale “The Blind Man and the Lame Man” people with disabilities are being cheated on: *Well, this man who was scooping honey cheated on us. He gave us some manure instead of honey.* In the Indian fairy tale “The Shrewd Shingpo” the blind man and the deaf man are depicted as cowards: *The blind man having heard the noise got enormously scared and ran away. When the deaf man saw that his fellow was running, he also fled away having left the purse with money.*

Negative attitude towards people with disabilities is reflected by comparing blindness to other complaints in the tales of lies. Thus in the Austrian tale of lies “The Blind Man, the Lame Man and the Naked Man” that does not have a plot and is meant to amuse and puzzle the listeners, the statements evidently contradicting each other are presented: *I was climbing up the hill, I met a shoemaker and a man. When I was going farther I came to a big village, there three small huts were standing. In the first one they were splitting wood blocks, in the second one they were splitting firewood, and out of the third one, completely empty, the three men came out: one was blind, the second one was lame, and the third one was naked. The blind man saw a hare in my hands. The lame man caught him up, and the naked man slipped him into under his bosom.*

In some fairy tales negative attitude towards blind people highlights the stereotype that when people lose their sight human physiology changes: *And she wanted to get married although she was blind* (the Russian tale “The Blind Bride”). In this fairy tale a blind girl is depicted as rather stupid and it is rather because of this reason and not because of her blindness she becomes a victim of deception – the assumed bridegroom robs her: *<...> they came into the house – it was empty everywhere.* A blind girl who is easy to be misled is even more foolish because she does not even recognize her home: *Well now, – he said, – dress up. I am going to take you for a ride. They were going round and round the village and he brought her back. “Go, I will unharness the horses”. She came in and said: “Everything is like in our house”. She locked herself up and sat down.* How insightful the creators of the texts of the Bible were who announced the curses in the Book of Deuteronomy, one of which said: *Cursed be he that maketh the blind to wander out of the way* (De 27, 18; English translation from the King James Bible). Many people cannot imagine the marriage between a blind woman and a sighted man. This presupposition is illustrated by the picture by M. Beringov “The Wedding of the Blind People”, where the blind bridegroom of the blind bride is shown, the musicians and the guests all are blind (see Fig. 1).



Figure 1. M. Beringov. The Wedding of the Blind People

The picture illustrates the isolation of this group of people. In the Indian fairy tale “The Wise Men and the Elephant” it is being tried to impose the idea that blind people are not able to form the images of the surrounding world: *An elephant was brought to a small town of India. The blind wise men wanted to see it. But how ? “I know”, – one wise man said, – we will touch it.* “Good idea”, – the others said, – then we will find out what the elephant is like.” So, the six men went to see the elephant. The first one touched a big flat ear. It was slowly moving forward and back. “The elephant is like a fan!” – the wise man shouted. The second wise man touched the elephant’s legs. “It is like a tree!” – he shouted. “Both of you are wrong – it is like a rope.” This man touched the elephant’s tail. “The elephant is like a spear!” – the fourth one shouted. “No, no! – the fifth one shouted, – the elephant is like a high wall”, – he said touching the side of the elephant. The sixth wise man touched the trunk of the elephant. “You are all wrong, – he said, – the elephant is like a snake.” “No, like a rope!” – “Like a snake!” – “Like a wall!” – “You are wrong!” – “I am right!” The six blind men were shouting at each other for an hour. They never found out what the elephant was like. This topic was especially liked by artists. The aforementioned plot of the fairy tale was depicted in the works by the artists I. Hanabusa, K. Hokusai, R. J. Daae, etc. In some countries it is possible to see sculptures depicting the blind men examining the elephant (see Fig. 2 - 6).





**Figure 2. I. Hanabusa. Blind people and elephant**



**Figure 3. K. Hokusai. Blind people and elephant**



**Figure 4. Blind people and elephant. Sculpture - Fountain, Germany**



**Figure 5. Blind people and elephant. Sculpture, Haiti**



**Figure 6. Blind people and elephant. Sculpture, China**

In the Lithuanian fairy tale “The Blind Maid” the girl’s poor eyesight is hidden from the matchmakers and the bridegroom because such a girl will not be able to neither weave nor look after cattle.

Negative attitude towards blindness can be determined historically because earlier blinding was applied as a punishment for crimes. One of the first known remaining documents that prove such physical punishment are the laws of Hammurabi (Latin *Codex Hammurabi* – Code of Hammurabi) – the code of law of the Babylonian king Hammurabi (18<sup>th</sup> century BC), that is one of the oldest codes in the world and at the same time one of the best preserved written monuments of the culture of Mesopotamia. The laws are written on the stone; the text consists of approximately three thousand verses. The code regulated many fields of the life of the Babylonians. In the paragraph 196 of the chapter “Taking away one’s life and injuring one’s body” of this law it is written “If a man put out the eye of another man, his eye shall be put out” (Tamošaitis & Kairys, 1938; English translation by L. W. King). The historical development confirms that blinding as a punishment was used while solving dynastic quarrels for the throne, during the war in order to threaten or weaken the enemy’s army, it was applied for disobeying God’s will, immorality, money counterfeiting (Gudonis, 1985). The plot of blinding for unpaid debts is encountered in the Lithuanian fairy tale “The Poor Shoemaker”: *The rich man is demanding his money and this poor man does not even know what to do. One day on his way home he met the rich man in the forest. He started demanding his money again, and the shoemaker does not have a penny. He is begging him to wait for some more time, but the rich man got angry and destroyed the shoemaker’s eyes in anger.*

Ignorance of blind people’s abilities creates favourable conditions for the formation of the stereotypical attitude about their inferiority: if you are blind you are destined to live a poor life. The idea is imposed that blind people are not neat and clean: *Soon the boy started meeting people with torn clothes, with snarled hair, with dirty faces, hands and feet ... <...> reached his native town that appeared to be a heap of shabby huts without windows, with dirty walls and leaking roofs ... <...> the blind people could not build anything better* (M. Romanov, “Tale about the Town of Blind People”). A completely helpless blind man is depicted in the Brothers Grimm fairy tale “Rapunzel”: *he was wandering <...> in the woods eating only berries and roots and was not doing anything but moaning and crying.*

In the fairy tale by Neringa Dangvydė “On the King’s Son’s Search for Wisdom”, essentially reflecting positive attitude towards blind people, the eldest brother’s turn to swamps symbolizes the meeting with one of the groups that suffer from social exclusion – blind people. A blind girl whom the king’s son meets in the swamps and fog thinks that she is not needed by anyone and she

brightens her loneliness by songs, hearing which travellers sometimes would come to her. The situation of the fairy tale presupposes that the previous passers-by did not care about the girl's fate, therefore, they trying to come back to their world would get lost forever in swamps. In other words, if there is no confidence, there is no communication. The idea is suggested that a blind person is destined to loneliness because the sighted people do not trust him/her.

Often a blind character of a fairy tale is compared with drunkards, liars, fools. Not people themselves are compared but only their abilities. In the Cambodian fairy tale "The Blind Man and the Lame Man", as in other fairy tales where people with sensory and physical disability are depicted, mutual help between people with disabilities is shown: *The blind man got the lame man on his shoulders and they went on a trip*. People with disabilities also help each other in another Cambodian tale on how a lame Barang (European) and a blind Khmer frightened a yak, in the Russian fairy tales "The Legless Hero and the Blind Hero", "Matyusha Ashy", in the Tatar fairy tale "The Blind Man, the Deaf Man and the Legless Man". Painters and sculptors liked to depict the plot of the mutual help of people with disabilities (see Fig. 7-13).

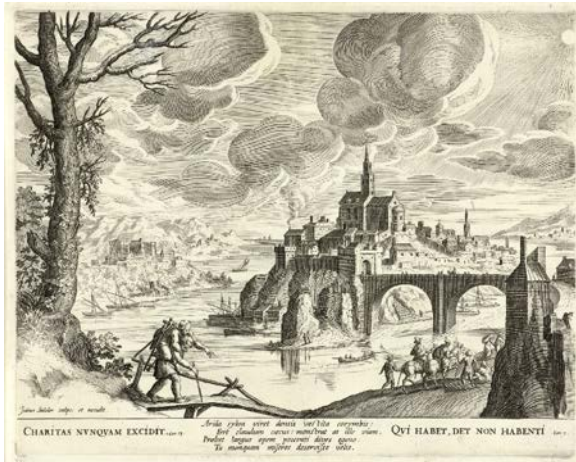


Figure 7. J. Sadeler. Landscape with a lame that is carried by the blind man



Figure 8. J. T. de Bry. The blind man and the lame



Figure 9. **A. Van de Venne. Every gift helps**



Figure 10. **E. Hadreyth. The blind man and the lame**



Figure 11. **J. Buys. The blind man and the lame**



Figure 12. **E. Berlach. The blind man and the lame**



Figure 13. J. Turcan. The blind man and the lame

In several fairy tales analysed **both negative and positive attitude** towards a person with disability has been encountered. The aforementioned author's tale by M. Romanov "Tale about the Town of Blind People", where both negative aspect (blind people are not neat and clean) and negative aspect (desire to help blind people) can serve as an example.

In five fairy tales (14 per cent) a **neutral attitude towards a blind person** is shown, i. e. just a fact of blindness is stated. In several fairy tales both a neutral and positive attitude is expressed: in the Indian fairy tale "The Blind Rajah" the blind person's wish to have a full family is reflected: *Gods decided to send a child to a blind rajah and a blind ranee*. Thus the dreams of a childless family came true.

More than a half of the analysed fairy tales express person's with disability **belief in a miracle** that reflects **the biggest wish of people with disabilities – to regain their health**. Belief in miraculous recovery is encountered in the Armenian fairy tale "The Son of the Blind Czar", the Macedonian fairy tale "Three Mermaids, the Blind Old Man and the Pauper", the Russian fairy tales "Storm, the Cow's Strong Son", "Ivan the Czar's Son in the Kingdom of Underground", "Tale about the Brave Young Man, Rejuvenating Apples and Life Water", in the Bashkir fairy tale "The Merchant's Son": *Malaiko found some hole and went along this hole. He saw: an old man was sitting there, he was blind and holding a violin in his hands. Malaiko took the violin and started*

to play; as soon as he started to play the old man started to see and his eyes got healthy. An atypical way of miraculous recovery is depicted in the Cambodian fairy tale "The Blind Man and the Lame Man": *The blind man thought that the lame man hit him and shouted in a loud voice:*

*– So you are like this! You want to fight!*

*And he jumped on his feet and started to kick the lame man. He was kicking and hitting him until the lame man's legs got straight. The lame man jumped up completely straight and started to hit the blind man's face and eyes. He was beating and hitting so strongly that the blind man regained his sight. In the Russian fairy tale "Matyusha Ashy" traditional search for life water characteristic to fairy tales of many nations is shown: *The blind man put Matyusha Ashy into his basket: "I have heard from the old people that there is life water somewhere. If only we can find it! You would heal your legs with this water and I would anoint my eyes and see the light."* – *"I know where the healing potion is. Carry me, I will show you the way."* In the legend of Moa Island "Seven Blind Brothers" the disability is treated with the turtle's eggs: *At night the youngest brother waited until the other brothers fell asleep, got up, took their dead father's skull, which they were preserving with care, rubbed it with fragrant leaves and asked to send him a prophetic dream.**

*– Tell me, father, if you can, why can't we with the brothers see like all the other people? Every day we fill the boat with fish, and when we come back home, the boat seems to be empty. What is happening?*

*At night he saw his father in a dream.*

*– Don't sail tomorrow to the reef, – he said. – Let your brothers go to the sea and you will be guided by the magic feather to a sandy path, by which turtles go on the shore to lay eggs. Go along this path and you will find a nest with turtles' eggs. Set a fire and cook a couple of eggs, then smash them, rub your eyes and you will see. The youngest brother did everything what his father had told and indeed he regained his eyesight. It is curious that in this fairy tale the dream of yet undiscovered instruments that help blind people to orient in the surrounding space is expressed: *Before sailing to the sea they would put bonds on their heads and they had magic feathers in their bonds. The feathers would take the brothers to the boat and show the direction to them. If the brothers were going the right way, the feathers were fluttering to the wind, if they went wrong, the feathers would unexpectedly get stiffened. The feathers would indicate when to drop the sail and take up the poles, when to keep a spear prepared, when and where to throw the spear.* In the Lithuanian fairy tale "The Poor Shoemaker" forest animals know the ways of miraculous healing: *– It is so, – the hare continued, – but nobody who lost the eyesight can regain it. He will stay blind forever.**

– *Don't tell nonsense! – the bear held him back. – If he washed his eyes with dew before the sunrise he would regain his eyesight... The shoemaker climbed down from the tree, touched where the grass was thicker, gathered the dew into his hand and rubbed his eyes until he regained the eyesight...*

The miraculous recovery is described in another Lithuanian folk tale “The Hero King”, in the Austrian fairy tale “The Songbird Healer”, in the Brazilian fairy tale “The Queen and Her Sisters”, in the Russian fairy tale “The Legless Hero and the Blind Hero”, in the Brothers Grimm fairy tales “Rapunzel”, “The King's Son Who Did Not Fear Anything”, in the fairy tale of West African countries “The Blind Man and the Hunter”, in the Tatar fairy tale “The Blind Man, the Deaf Man and the Legless Man”, in the Armenian fairy tale “The Son of the Blind Czar”: *Some time passed. The czar got ill and got blind. Then he invited all the wise men and astrologists, but they were only shaking their heads. And one very clever and old wise man said:*

– *Wash your eyes with the blood of the king of fish, then you will regain your eyesight...* The czar's son got the miraculous blood, anointed his father's eyes with it and the czar regained his eyesight. The medicine to heal the blindness made of fish is also mentioned in the Azerbaijani fairy tale “The Golden Candlestick”.

It is likely that the origins of these fairy tales can be related with similar healing of blindness in the Book of Tobit (Tob 11, 9-16). The topic of miraculous recovery is also discussed in the Macedonian fairy tale “Three Mermaids, the Blind Old Man and the Pauper”: *The three hags who tore my eyes out live on this mountain... <...> The princess brought some elephant's milk, put its drop to her father's both eyes, and the king regained his eyesight.*

The ideas of miraculous recovery find their origin in the stories about Jesus Christ's miraculous healing of people with sensory and physical disability (Mt 8, 9). The life water overcoming all the disabilities is associated with the Biblical Siloam Pool.

In the tale “The Blind Horse” by K. Ushinsky the sympathy for an animal with disability is emphasized: *People got very surprised to see a poor horse in the middle of the square – blind, hungry, shivering from cold. When the people found out that the rich man chased away a blind horse that had saved his life unanimously decided that Chase the Wind had a right to ring the bell. They called the ungrateful merchant to the square and ordered him to keep the horse and feed him until his death. A man appointed for this purpose had to look after the execution of the punishment, and the sentence itself was chiseled in the stone erected to remember this event in the square of the veche...* The sympathy for a person with disability is also expressed in the Russian fairy tale “The Blind Strong Man”; in the fairy tale of Moa Island “Seven Blind Brothers” where the

pity for a blind man, the victim of deception, is expressed. The episode of regaining the eyesight is also encountered in the Russian fairy tale “The Blind Man’s Wife”, but it is also interesting that an unjustified stereotype is encountered here: it is supposed that if a person does not see, he/she is worse in hearing and smelling as well, and this allows an unfaithful wife to fondle with her lover in the presence of her blind husband. Analogous episode was depicted by the French painter Jean Baptiste Greuze in the picture “The Deceived Blind Man” (see Fig.14).

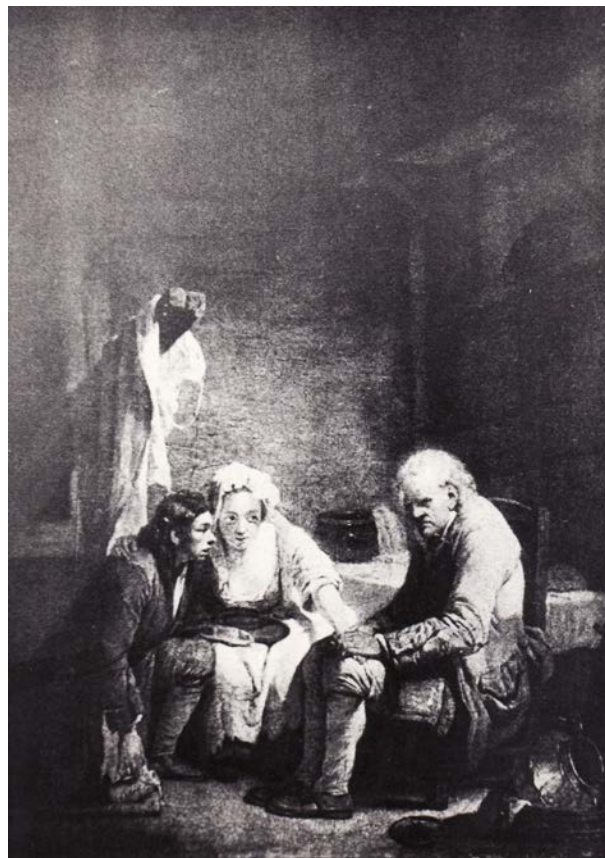


Figure 14. **J. B. Greuze. The Deceived Blind Man**

The employed methods of content analysis and historical narrative established the opportunities to reveal in fairy tales and works of fine art a multifaceted spectrum of the attitude of society towards disabilities and people with disabilities.

### **Conclusions**

Folk fairy tales of various nations and authors’ fairy tales analysed (36), the characters of which are people with disabilities, show a wide scope of predominant attitudes: in 44,4 per cent of the fairy tales a positive attitude



towards people with disabilities is predominant; in 33,3 per cent of the fairy tales – a negative attitude; in 19,4 per cent – a neutral attitude; in 2,8 per cent of the fairy tales – both negative and positive attitude towards people with disabilities.

In the fairy tales where a positive attitude is predominant it is attempted to positively depict a person with disability, show his/her abilities and a wish to demonstrate them. In the fairy tales where a negative attitude towards people with disabilities is predominant insufficient knowledge or complete ignorance of their abilities and mistrust in people with disabilities is reflected.

In a half of the fairy tales analysed the belief in miraculous recovery that reflects the biggest desire of people with disabilities – to get rid of their disability – is encountered. In some fairy tales people with disabilities are presented if not as full members of the society but at least as people who need other people's empathy and help.

Fairy tales and works of fine art depending on the attitude towards people with disabilities they express may reinforce or reduce negative stereotypes in human consciousness related to people with disabilities.

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## EDUCATION AND ASSESSMENT OF LEARNING OUTCOMES IN LITHUANIAN SPECIAL SCHOOLS

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**Abstract.** *The strategic aims of Lithuanian education orientate towards the development of inclusive education. However, in addition to mainstream schools, special schools still exist as well. In this context, future perspectives of special schools and their role in the inclusive education system has become a particularly relevant problem; therefore, it is important to analyse experiences of education in special schools.*

*The aim of the study presented in the article is to analyse teachers' opinion regarding special education and assessment of outcomes. The study was conducted in special schools of Lithuania, using a questionnaire method. Based on the data of the analysis of scientific literature sources, the ranking scale of variables (statements describing various dimensions of education and assessment of outcomes) was drawn up (respondents marked answers from 1 – strongly disagree to 5 – strongly agree).*

*The results of the study show that teachers of special schools understand priorities of contemporary education. This is demonstrated by strong approval of statements about fostering of self-esteem, development of communication and problem-solving abilities of special school students; search for non-traditional forms of education; involvement of school community in education. Nevertheless, in the opinion of a considerable share of special school teachers, individual teaching and a traditional lesson are more effective compared with the variety of learning methods. In the opinion of many special school teachers, the purpose of special education is to cope with students' disorders, and only specialized educational institutions can ensure quality individualised education. Respondents also noted certain shortcomings of education at special schools.*

**Keywords:** *assessment, learning outcomes, special education, special schools.*

### Introduction

**Significance of the problem.** Legal documents regulating Lithuanian system of education distinctly orientate towards striving for inclusive education

development, and this corresponds to the international educational policy. The system of meeting special educational needs and educational assistance in mainstream schools has been developed and is legally regulated in the country. Nevertheless, in the national education system, in addition to mainstream schools, special schools, which can accept children with considerable and very considerable special educational needs, still exist. Education of students with special educational needs in special schools does not cohere with the provision stipulated in international documents stating that only inclusive education can ensure the non-discriminatory right to learning. Education of children with special educational needs in special schools is incompatible with objectives of inclusive education. Therefore, in recent years, it is sought to restructure the country's educational system so that all students learn in mainstream schools and that the number of special schools and the number of learners in them are reduced. These objectives are reflected both in the strategic plans of Lithuanian education of recent years and in national research, the topics of the majority of which are related to the development of inclusive education and the analysis of its problems.

The main objective of the inclusive school is to meet the needs of all students and also those with special educational needs; education grounded on students' cognition, education based on interaction, partnership, assistance to the student; created possibilities for individualised and group learning, participation in various school activities; relevant education, developing various competencies necessary for contemporary life, preparing for solution of actual problems, etc. It is likely that interaction and coherence of these constituents of school activities should promote quality of the whole system of education.

Much scientific research of Lithuania and other countries seek to prove the advantages of inclusion. In recent decades, the number of studies on experience of education accumulated by teachers of Lithuanian special schools considerably reduced. Although there were solitary studies (Ališauskas & Vaičienė, 2005; Gevorgianienė & Zaikauskas, 2007) which compared learning outcomes of learners of mainstream and special schools, there were no systematic studies of Lithuanian special schools at all.

In this context, when inclusive education ideas are being developed and the best model of *the school for all* students is being sought for, it has become particularly relevant to outline future perspectives of special schools, their role in the inclusive education system, acknowledging good practice of education in special schools and considering problematic aspects of education of students with special educational needs. This research aimed to answer the problem questions: *What practice of education and assessment of learning outcomes is inherent to the special school? What experiences of education in special schools could be useful for application in mainstream schools? What are the strengths and weaknesses of education in special schools?*

**The research subject** is teachers' attitude towards education and assessment of learning outcomes in special schools.

**The research aim** is to analyse teachers' opinion on education and assessment of learning outcomes in special schools.

The objectives of the research are to analyse special school teachers' opinions about 1) priorities of educational objectives; 2) organization of learning; 3) individualisation of learning; 4) assessment of learning outcomes; 5) quality factors of education in special school.

**Research methods:** theoretical analysis, questionnaire survey, quantitative (descriptive statistics) data analysis methods.

### **The Overview of Previous Research**

In the 21<sup>st</sup> century, it is still discussed which form of education (mainstream education or the special school) is best for students with special educational needs. Today, in Lithuania, like in some European countries, part of students are still learning in special schools, although both the number of special schools and the number of learners in special schools reduced.

The overview of scientific literature shows that there are many supporters of inclusion but support for special schools is also evident.

Some scientific research of previous years shows that there is little difference even between learning outcomes of students with complicated disabilities in mainstream and in special schools. The study by Rea, McLaughlin and Walther-Thomas (2002) clearly demonstrated that disabled students in inclusive classes achieved better learning outcomes in language and mathematics than their peers in special schools, while academic outcomes in other subjects among students of both schools were similar. Similar findings were obtained in studies conducted in Lithuania. It has been identified that social intelligence of students with mild intellectual disabilities educated in mainstream schools is statistically significantly higher than the one of students who learn in special schools (Ališauskas & Vaičienė, 2005). Comparative analysis of students' abilities revealed that special school student's academic outcomes in the Lithuanian language significantly differed from the ones of their peers in ordinary schools, but there were practically no differences in mathematical skills (Gevorgianienė & Zaikauskas, 2007). However, Kauffman, Anastasiou, Badar, Travers and Wiley (2016) state that the fact that inclusive education for some or for many students allows to achieve similar outcomes is not convincing evidence proving that everyone achieves the same. In the authors' opinion, more scientific research is needed to find out which types of schools are more effective for students with special educational needs. According to Kauffman & Badar (2014), it is wrong to state that education for disabled students does not differ from education for

students who do not have disabilities or that special education does not require teachers' specific competencies.

Florian (2013), Blanton, Pugach and Florian (2011) and other authors note that many teachers feel unprepared to educate students with special educational needs and do not want these students in their classes.

According to Florian (2013), the teachers' attitude that the diversity of students' learning peculiarities requires specific knowledge of disabilities and disorders is still popular, although there is a lack of evidence proving this position. The study on mainstream schools teachers' competencies conducted in Lithuania (Milteniene & Daniute, 2014) demonstrates that having compared with previous studies, respondents highly assessed their professional readiness to educate students with special educational needs (on a 5 point rating scale -  $M=4,84$ ) and their abilities to differentiate learning and assessment methods ( $M=4,82$ ).

Florian (2013) notes that learning as a collaborative activity, where students with different experiences meet, encourages thinking about such education that would provide the majority of learners with rich learning possibilities, would be accessible for all so that all students could take part in classroom learning activities. In the author's opinion, combining students' collaborative and individualised learning, teachers need to better reflect on the ways in which they respond to individual differences while teaching the whole class, organizing work of the group and seeking everyone's meaningful involvement in learning.

Kauffman et al. (2016, p. 155) agree that more students than in the past could and should participate in social and academic life of the mainstream school, but only if such participation provides benefit that equals or is bigger than the one obtained in special schools. According to Kauffman, Anastasiou, Maag (2017), not the school but efficient education is most important; students should not be separated from their peers; the priority should be given not to the type of school but to the scientific evidence on efficient teaching practice.

The research results of Rea et al. (2002) demonstrate that adequate individualization of curricula according to students' abilities and support for disabled students provide them with opportunities to achieve academic and social success in mainstream classes.

Thus, the development of inclusive education ideas raises many questions about the survival of special schools and their role in the modern education system. In the opinion of Cera (2015), special schools should be a support for the inclusive system rather than an alternative to it. According to Florian (2013), the transition from special education as a response to specificities of learning towards *learning for all*, recognizing differences, will have consequences for special education practice; this can change the role of special education, better tuning it to the values of equal opportunities and respect for human dignity. In the opinion of Hedegaard-Soerensen and Tetler (2016), promotion of special schools and their

empowerment to participate in the inclusive education system should be implemented not by closing special schools but, on the contrary, by increasing educational standards for special schools; besides, the new role of special schools will require teachers' professional development, the ability to cooperate with mainstream schools.

Currently, in Lithuania, like in other countries, studies on quality of meeting students' special educational needs in mainstream schools prevail. However, there is a lack of scientific data on the features of the shift of special schools and the current educational practice in special schools.

**Research methodology.** The methodological basis of the research is the modern conception of meeting students' special educational needs, recognizing students' differences and focusing on general indicators of quality of education: students' learning and participation in school activities; education that supports learning; personalized education considering students' powers and special educational needs; assessment and self-assessment of students' learning outcomes, dialogic environment of education, etc.

The study was conducted employing the quantitative research methodology and applying the questionnaire method. The main part of the questionnaire consisted of closed-ended questions with possible variants of answers on 11 topics<sup>1</sup>. According to the data of the analysis of scientific literature sources (constructivist conception of education, meeting students' special educational needs considering the diversity of abilities, etc.), the rating scale of variables describing various educational dimensions was developed. Respondents had to indicate their approval or disapproval to each statement on the 5-point rating scale: 1 - strongly disagree, 2 - disagree, 3 - neutral, 4 - agree, 5 - strongly agree.

An electronic version of this questionnaire was published on the portal [www.apklausa.lt](http://www.apklausa.lt); the invitation to answer the questionnaire questions was sent to all special schools, special education centres, multifunctional education centres of Lithuania<sup>2</sup>. The questions had to be answered in two weeks.

**Data analysis methods.** Quantitative research (questionnaire survey) data were processed using descriptive statistics methods: the mean of answers  $M$ ,

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<sup>1</sup> This study aimed to evaluate future perspectives of special schools in the context of educational policy developing inclusive education ideas. To this end, a complex study on quality of education in special schools was conducted, combining quantitative (questionnaire survey) and qualitative (case studies) research methods. The questionnaire consisted of the following topics: 1) education of students with special educational needs (SEN) in the modern system of education; 2) assistance and services provided for students in the special school; 3) adaptation of the curriculum and organization of education; 4) assessment of educational outcomes; 5) students' self-feeling and educational environment; 6) adjustment of the physical environment; etc. *The article presents only a small part of the results of this study: the analysis of answers to two scales (organization of education and assessment of learning outcomes)*

<sup>2</sup> There are 3 types of schools for students with special educational needs in Lithuania: special schools, special education centres and special schools-multifunctional centres. At present, most students of special schools have disabilities: almost half of them have intellectual disabilities, more than one-third of them have complex disabilities; a small share consists of students with learning disorders and learning difficulties.

standard deviation *SD* were calculated. Intergroup differences of the results of the research on school types were identified employing non-parametric criteria (Kruskal-Wallis test, calculating *H* (chi-square), mean rank *MR* and statistical significance *p* indicators); the article presents only statistically significant ( $p < 0,05$ ) differences of answers given by teachers representing different schools.

**Principles of research ethics.** *The general principles of research ethics* related to reliability of presentation of theoretical and empirical data; respondents' informing about research aims, data collection methods, the strategy of publicising the research results and assurance of confidentiality of personal information are respected. Following the principle of anonymity, school names are not indicated in the article.

**The research sample.** Targeted selection of respondents' sample was applied. The quantitative study involved 317 teachers and educational assistance specialists working in special schools of various cities and regions of Lithuania for children with various disabilities. The total sample of respondents is sufficient for the statistical analysis of data and almost corresponds to the requirement of reliability of the sample (a representative sample would be 362 teachers). However, the proportion of teachers representing various schools who participated in the study is not equal; therefore, generalising the results of the sample, a systematic error slightly larger than 0,5 % is possible.

*Distribution of respondents by schools and positions occupied.* The survey was attended by 189 special school teachers (59,6 % of the research sample); 95 (30 % of the research sample) teachers of special education centres and 31 (9,8 %) teachers working in multifunctional education centres. The largest share of the respondents who participated in the survey consists of educational assistance specialists (91), teachers of special, educational and social skills classes (77), pre-primary, primary education and subject teachers (64); the survey was also attended by 50 administrative employees of special schools (directors, deputy directors) and 35 other employees of special schools (educators, teacher assistants).

*Respondents' answers about students of special schools.* According to the respondents, the schools they represent, are attended by students with various disabilities: with intellectual disabilities (77,6 % of answers), complex disabilities (73,8 %); speech and language disorders (53,3 %), behavioural and emotional disorders (48,6 %), speech, language and movement disorders (46,4 % of answers), hearing (25,2 %), visual (18 %) and other disorders. This means that although special schools in Lithuania are specialized by the disability, they still have students with different disabilities and different levels of special educational needs.



## Research Results

**Priorities of educational objectives in special school.** Table 1 presents research data (M - mean, SD - standard deviation) on the priorities of education in special schools.

Table 1 **Priorities of Special Education**

Priorities of special education	M	SD
It is most important that students should learn to be with others, socialise, solve problems.	4,53	0,54
It is most important that students should feel needed, be able to work, not become recipients of benefits.	4,39	0,64
The most important thing is fostering of the student's self-confidence, self-esteem.	4,38	0,58
It is most important to gain at least elementary knowledge of each subject.	4,10	0,74
Educating SEN students, it is most important to cope with existing disorders.	3,91	0,95
Educating SEN children, it is most important to form basic literacy abilities.	3,53	0,93

According to Kauffman & Badar (2014), special needs teachers must focus on the efficient development of specific academic and social abilities.

According to the respondents, the main goals of education of disabled students are to prepare them for their self-sufficient life in the society, to help them acquire abilities *to be with others, socialize, solve problems* (M=4,53; SD=0,54); *so that students feel they are needed, could work, do not become recipients of benefits* (M=4,9; SD=0,64); *fostering of the student's self-confidence, self-esteem* (M=4,38; SD=0,58).

Nevertheless, in the opinion of a quite significant share of respondents, *it is essential to acquire at least elementary knowledge of each subject* (M=4,10; SD=0,74); *to develop basic literacy abilities* (M=3,53; SD=0,93) and *to cope with <...> disorders* (M=3,91; SD=0,95). The latter statements show not high expectations regarding students' learning outcomes, orientation to the disability as to the individual's problem.

Comparing the responses of respondents of special education centres (sec), multifunctional centres of special education (mc) and special schools (ssch) by the types of schools they represented (Kruskal-Wallis test), statistically significant were special school teachers' approaches to prepare students for self-sufficient life (*It is most important that students should feel that they are needed, be able to work, not become recipients of benefits*: H(2)=8,35, p=0,015; MR ssch=168,8; MRsec=142,6; MRmc=139,5). As to other parameters of priorities of education,

the opinions of teachers of all special education institutions are similar, no statistically significant differences were identified.

**Organization of learning in special education institutions.** Data of teachers' survey on the organization of learning in special schools are presented in Table 2.

Table 2 **Organization of Learning**

<b>Organization of learning</b>	<b>M</b>	<b>SD</b>
The teacher's duty is to involve all children in activities, considering everyone's needs.	4,50	0,53
The school is looking for more innovative forms of education than the traditional lesson or educational activity.	4,41	0,57
Our children often learn not only in the classroom or school but also in other settings.	4,31	0,66
Students in the classroom are so different that in the lesson you just have to work with each of them.	4,30	0,70
Teachers are well aware of the goals raised by other teachers and specialists working with their students and how they work.	4,29	0,65
Teachers often give integrated lessons, educational activities.	4,26	0,59
The most effective methods are the ones where students can do something practical individually (construct, draw, etc.).	4,22	0,68
The most effective methods are the ones where students can learn together with others and from each other.	4,15	0,66
Students need safe and familiar environment; therefore, it is best if the structure of the lesson changes little.	3,51	0,93
However, the traditional lesson is the best way to achieve the intended results.	3,07	0,84
During the lessons, students have to work individually on their own a lot because the teacher cannot "be torn".	2,81	1,07

Most respondents approved of statements about all students' involvement in educational activities (*The teacher's duty is to involve all children in activities considering everyone's needs*: M=4,50, SD=0,53), innovation of teaching (*The school is looking for more innovative forms of education than the traditional lesson or educational activity*: M=4,41, SD=0,57), the diversity of educational settings (*Our children often learn not only in the classroom or school but also in other settings*: M=4,31; SD=0,66; *Teachers often give integrated lessons, educational activities*: M=4,26, SD=0,59). These respondents' answers are in line with the ideas of education grounded on the constructivist paradigm, orienting modern schools to promotion of students' self-sufficiency, active learning,

collaborative teaching and learning, learning by exploring and problem solving (Akpan & Beard, 2016; Bada, 2015 et al.).

However, the respondents slightly more approve of individual teaching (*Students in the classroom are so different that in the lesson you just have to work with each of them*: M=4,30; SD=0,70; *The most effective methods are the ones where students can do something practical individually*: M=4,22; SD=0,68). There are slightly less approvals of statements about application of collaborative learning methods (*The most effective methods are the ones where students can learn together with others and from each other*: M=4,15; SD=0,66). In the opinion of quite a considerable share of respondents, *students need safe and familiar environment; therefore, it is best if the structure of the lesson changes little* (M=3,51; SD=0,93); *however, the traditional lesson is the best way to achieve the intended results* (M=3,07; SD=0,84). However, Akpan & Beard (2016) believe that it is important to combine students' individualized and collaborative learning. According to the authors, teachers should abandon the traditional teacher-centered model; they must accept the fact that knowledge is built through learning in action, combining individual experience and newly discovered knowledge, promoting students' interpersonal interaction, exploring, discovering and solving real-life problems (Akpan & Beard, 2016). The authors state that student-oriented learning is a useful for all learners, including students with special educational needs too.

It should be noted that opinions of teachers of various types of special schools about the learning is differed. Teachers of special schools and multifunctional centres mostly distinguish themselves by:

- student-oriented learning promotes students' activeness and collaborative learning (*The most effective methods are the ones where students can learn together with others and from each other*: H(2)=7,33; p=0,004; MRssch=167,9; MRmc=167,5; MRsec=135,2; *The teacher's duty is to involve all children in activities, considering everyone's needs*: H(2)=6,186; p=0,045; MRssch=167,1; MRmc=146,8; MRsec=143,7);
- the diversity of learning settings (*Our children often learn not only in the classroom or school but also in other settings*: H(2)=8,56; p=0,014; MRmc=169,4; MRssch=166,3; MRsec=137,8)
- and the objectives of innovative teaching (*Teachers often give integrated lessons, educational activities*: H(2)=7,836; p=0,020; MRmc=169,9; MRssch=165,2; MRsec=139,8).

The research data demonstrate the statistical significance of the attitude of special school teachers to the innovativeness of the lesson (*The school is looking for more innovative forms of education than the traditional lesson or educational activity*: H(2)=6,767; p=0,034; MRssch=167,3; MRsec=146,4; MRmc=136,9).

Teachers of special education centres differently from teachers of other types of special education institutions tend to:

- less care about support for the student (*During the lessons, students have to work individually on their own a lot because the teacher cannot “be torn”*:  $H(2)=20,246$ ;  $p=0,000$ ;  $MR_{sec}=182,6$ ;  $MR_{ssch}=154,8$ ;  $MR_{mc}=102,2$ )
- and organize teaching in traditional, unchanging ways (*Students need safe and familiar environment; therefore, it is best if the structure of the lesson changes little*:  $H(2)=7,333$ ;  $MR_{sec}=178,0$ ;  $MR_{ssch}=149,6$ ;  $MR_{mc}=148,1$ ).

**Individualised education.** Individualized education is one of the peculiarities of special education. The results of the survey of special school teachers disclose their opinions about individualisation of education, considering students’ special educational needs (see Table 3)

Table 3 **Individualisation of Education**

<b>Individualisation of education</b>	<b>M</b>	<b>SD</b>
Teachers prepare individualised adapted curricula for each child, considering the student’s abilities.	4,66	0,59
Individualising education, it is most important to know students’ strengths.	4,55	0,55
Seeking quality individualisation, education must be organized in more diverse ways (projects, didactical games, etc.).	4,39	0,58
All teachers and specialists educating the child are involved in the preparation of the individualised curriculum.	4,38	0,78
Individualising learning, it is most important to prepare an appropriate curriculum.	4,38	0,61
Only specialized educational institutions can ensure high-quality individualised education.	4,33	0,78
At school, the curriculum is revised according to the student’s needs: students learn more such subjects that are necessary for them.	4,27	0,81
If we want to ensure individualisation of education, we need more teacher assistants in the classroom.	3,81	0,90
It is difficult to ensure individualized education, as there is a significant shortage of teaching aids adapted for SEN students (textbooks, workbooks).	3,61	1,00

Teachers quite unanimously stated that *they prepared individualised adapted curricula for each child, considering every student’s abilities* ( $M=4,66$ ;  $SD=0,59$ ). One of the most important things of individualising education is *knowledge of the student’s strengths* ( $M=4,55$ ;  $SD=0,55$ ). Other important aspects in order to individualized education in a quality manner are the diversity of ways

of organizing education (...education must be organized in more diverse ways:  $M=4,39$ ;  $SD=0,58$ ); involvement of all participants of education (*All teachers and specialists educating the child are involved in the preparation of the individualised curriculum*:  $M=4,38$ ;  $SD=0,78$ ); preparation of the curriculum corresponding to students' competencies (*Individualising learning, it is most important to prepare an appropriate curriculum*:  $M=4,38$ ;  $SD=0,68$ ).

In the opinion of quite a large share of respondents, *only specialized educational institutions can ensure high-quality individualised education* ( $M=4,33$ ;  $SD=0,78$ ), but *more teacher assistants are needed in the classroom* ( $M=3,81$ ;  $SD=0,90$ ) and there is a significant shortage of teaching aids for SEN students ( $M=3,61$ ;  $SD=1,00$ ).

Similar results were also demonstrated in studies earlier conducted in Lithuania. For example, according to the data Ališauskas et al. (2011), teachers of the majority of mainstream and special schools believe that the special school meets students' individual special educational needs best and is best suited for students with severe and profound special educational needs.

According to our research data, the statement that only specialized institutions can ensure high-quality individualised education was more approved by teachers of special schools and special multifunctional centres ( $H(2)=16,362$ ;  $p=0,000$ ;  $MR_{ssch}=172,6$ ;  $MR_{mc}=153,6$ ;  $MR_{sec}=130,5$ ).

**Assessment of learning outcomes.** An important part of education is the assessment of students' learning outcomes. Table 4 illustrates data on practice of assessing outcomes at special schools.

In the opinion of the majority of respondents, it is best to assess outcomes by *thank-you letters and awards* ( $M=4,44$ ;  $SD=0,54$ ), sometimes to encourage by *small gifts: a sweet, sticker, etc.* ( $M=4,26$ ;  $SD=0,70$ ). A large proportion of teachers stated that *assessment criteria for students' outcomes were individual* ( $M=4,30$ ;  $SD=0,67$ ).

Although respondents stated that one of the priorities of education was the development of students' social competencies and self-esteem (*It is most important that students should learn to socialise, solve problems, that their self-esteem should be fostered*, see Table 1), however, a quite significant proportion of teachers oriented to students' academic outcomes: *outcomes are assessed after completion of the topic, part of the course* ( $M=3,85$ ;  $SD=0,94$ ); *outcomes are assessed every lesson* ( $M=3,75$ ;  $SD=0,99$ ).

The following statements are less approved of: *the most effective assessment system is the one that is based on the description of progress* ( $M=3,70$ ;  $SD=0,76$ ); in the opinion of certain teachers, *for senior children the mark is more important than verbal assessment* ( $M=3,50$ ;  $SD=1,00$ ).

Table 4 **Assessment of Learning Outcomes**

<b>Assessment of learning outcomes</b>	<b>M</b>	<b>SD</b>
Thank-you letters, awards during events are excellent assessment of children's work.	4,44	0,54
Assessment criteria of outcomes are individual.	4,30	0,67
It is sometimes worth encouraging by a small gift (for example, a sweet, a sticker or the like) for a well-done job.	4,26	0,70
The school operates an effective system for discussing with parents the progress of the child's learning.	4,20	0,75
Students perceive learning outcomes according to their abilities and get involved in the assessment of outcomes.	3,99	0,76
It is very difficult for students to self-evaluate their progress.	3,93	0,79
Outcomes are assessed after completion of the topic, part of the course.	3,85	0,94
Outcomes are assessed every lesson.	3,75	0,99
The most effective assessment system is the one that is based on the description of progress.	3,70	0,76
It is important to evaluate as often as possible.	3,64	0,85
For senior children the mark is more important than verbal assessment.	3,50	1,00
Most often parents are interested in the child's outcomes.	3,49	0,95
Parents' expectations regarding children's progress are realistic.	3,05	0,89

According to teachers, *their schools operated an effective system for discussing the child's progress with parents* (M=4,20; SD=0,75), but research data show less approval of statements: *parents are interested in the child's achievements* (M=3,49; SD=0,89) and *their expectations regarding children's progress are realistic* (M=3,05; SD=0,89). In the teachers' opinion, *students perceive learning outcomes according to their abilities and get involved in the assessment of outcomes* (M=3,99; SD=0,7), but *it is very difficult for them to self-evaluate their progress* (M=3,93; SD=0,79).

The study disclosed differences in the opinions on assessment among teachers working in different type schools. Special school teachers more approved of formal assessment by marks (*For senior children the mark is more important than verbal assessment*:  $H(2)=17,161$ ;  $p=0,000$ ;  $MR_{ssch}=174,51$ ;  $MR_{mc}=137,82$ ;  $MR_{sec}=131,73$ ).

Teachers of special education centres and special schools tend to assess students' outcomes as often as possible (*Outcomes are assessed every lesson*:  $H(2)=13,355$ ;  $p=0,001$ ;  $MR_{sec}=176,5$ ;  $MR_{ssch}=160,4$ ;  $MR_{mc}=113,9$ ; *It is important to assess as often as possible*:  $H(2)=7,768$ ;  $p=0,021$ ;  $MR_{sec}=174,8$ ;  $MR_{ssch}=154,4$ ;  $MR_{mc}=128,7$ ).

Teachers of special education and multifunctional centres more than special school teachers agreed that *parents were interested in the child's outcomes*: (H(2)=10,586; p=0,005; MRsec=179,1; MRmc=170,8; MRssch=145,3). At educational centres teachers tend to use non-formal assessment, grounded on the description of progress (*The most effective system of assessment is the one that is based on the description of progress*: H(2)=9,428; p=0,009; MRmc=175,5; MRsec=175,2; MRssch=146,5).

**Factors of quality of education in special education institutions.** Teachers' opinions on the quality of education in special schools is shown in Table 5.

Table 5 **Factors of Quality of Education**

Quality of education	M	SD
Seeking quality education, it is important to arrange appropriate provision with teaching aids.	4,59	0,57
The competent teacher is most important for quality of education.	4,57	0,51
The quality of education can only be ensured by involvement and participation of the whole community.	4,51	0,61
It is most important for quality of education to ensure specialists' (speech therapist's, psychologist's, etc.) help.	4,34	0,64
It is most important that the teacher should be a good, sincere and ordinary person.	4,33	0,73
Learning outcomes are mostly determined by responsibility assumed by the family.	3,76	0,92
At school, too much attention is paid to "paper" curricula, which nevertheless do not reflect reality.	3,38	1,13

According to respondents, teaching aids (M=4,59; SD=0,57) are an important factor of quality of education; teachers' competencies (M=4,57; SD=0,51) as well as their personal qualities (*It is most important that the teacher should be a good, sincere and ordinary person*: M=4,33; SD=0,73), activeness of school community, involvement and participation of the whole community (*Quality of education can only be ensured by involvement and participation of the whole community*: M=4,51; SD=0,61) and specialists'(speech therapist's, psychologist's, etc.) help: M=4,34; SD=0,64) are important. There was less approval of statements about the importance of family participation in the child's education (*Learning outcomes are mostly determined by responsibility assumed by the family*: M=3,76; SD=0,92).

Teachers of special education institutions in general quite adversely assess, in their opinion, too much focus on preparation of individualized curricula

(At school, too much attention is paid to “paper” curricula, which nevertheless do not reflect reality:  $M=3,38$ ;  $SD=1,13$ ).

Special school teachers slightly more than teachers of other types of schools approved that *assurance of specialists’ (speech therapist’s, psychologist’s, etc.) help is most important for quality of education*:  $H(2)=7,899$ ;  $p=0,019$ ;  $MR_{ssch}=168,4$ ;  $MR_{mc}=145,3$ ;  $MR_{sec}=141,4$ .

## Conclusions

The results of the study disclosed teachers’ opinion about the priorities of special school students’ educational goals, peculiarities of organization and individualisation of teaching, factors of quality of education.

1. Teachers of special education institutions who took part in the survey understand the priorities of contemporary education and support the ideas of education grounded on the constructivist paradigm: this demonstrates strong approval of statements about fostering of self-esteem, communication and problem-solving abilities of the child with special educational needs.  
However, the majority of teachers who participated in the survey, irrespective of the type of the school, maintain that one of the most important goals of special education is coping with disorders. Teachers of special education and multifunctional centres approve of education of disabled students in special education institutions and distinguish themselves by the focus on the disability as the individual’s problem.
2. Teachers of special schools and multifunctional centres more often apply student-oriented learning, promoting students’ activeness and collaborative learning; teachers of these schools seek the diversity of teaching settings and innovativeness of teaching more. Teachers of special education centres, unlike teachers of other types of special education institutions, tend to care about student support less and distinguish themselves by supporting the traditional teacher-centred teaching paradigm; they support the diversity of learning methods and educational settings less. According to the teachers of these schools, it is better for students when the structure of the lesson changes less; in their opinion, students in the classroom are too different to effectively provide support to each student. Quite a large number of teachers believe that the most important thing educating disabled children is at least elementary knowledge of the subject.
3. The majority of respondents state that individualized curricula are prepared for students, considering the student’s strengths and needs. The individualised curriculum is prepared by all teachers and



specialists. According to special school teachers, only specialized educational institutions can ensure quality individualized education but special schools lack teacher assistants and teaching aids (textbooks, etc.) adapted for students with considerable special educational needs.

4. Most respondents state that assessment of students' outcomes in their schools is individualized, most often non-formal assessment is applied. A significant proportion of special school teachers apply object-based stimuli of students' learning (encouragement by a sweet, sticker). The learning progress is discussed with students' parents. Special school teachers give lower ratings to students' possibilities to self-evaluate their learning outcomes.

Comparing by the types of schools, it was noticed that special school teachers approved of formal assessment by marks more. Teachers of special education centres and special schools tend to assess students' outcomes as often as possible and apply non-formal assessment grounded on progress description.

5. According to teachers, seeking quality education, provision of schools with teaching aids, teachers' competencies and their cooperation are important. Specialists' (special educator's, speech therapist's, etc.) assistance to the student as one of the most important factors of quality of education is slightly more supported by special school teachers. Evaluating communality of the school and cooperation between the participants of education, teachers stated that parents of students learning at special education and multifunctional centres were more interested in the child's outcomes than parents of special school learners.

Summarizing the research results, it can be stated that there is more positive practice orientated to the paradigm of contemporary education in special schools; however, certain negative aspects of the attitude to the disability and disabled persons as well as difficulties of cooperation with parents show up. Positive changes ensuring the rights of the disabled to quality education are hindered by special school teachers' approach to the disability as the individual's problem (striving to eliminate disorders), low expectations regarding disabled students' learning outcomes, poor involvement of parents, striving to keep SEN students in segregated educational institutions without discussing possible contribution of special schools to the development of inclusive education.

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## THE LEGAL SITUATION OF PEOPLE WITH DISABILITIES IN LATVIA

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**Abstract.** *Each year the number of people with disabilities in Latvia increases. More and more children are born with congenital problems. Many opportunities are not used to integrate disabled people in the society. The study aims to evaluate the legal situation in Latvia of both children and adults with disabilities. People with functional disorders are an integral part of society and the legislative framework should prevent their discrimination. While carrying out the analysis of legal framework defining documents, as well as the reflection of personal experience, it was found that the actual situation in the country does not entirely meet with the legal framework. People with special needs in both Latvian statutes and everyday life are still denoted with a term 'invalid'. In assessing the dynamics of the number of disabled children, it was found that the number of such children is increasing.*

**Keywords:** *invalid, people with special needs, children, legal protection.*

### Introduction

People are facing by giving them a possibility to become independent and reducing the need for an assistance. In recent years governments have sought to identify and understand the needs and challenges of people with special needs. These problems are being addressed as much as possible through the development of services for disabled people, such as home care services, government funded transport services, specially adapted apartments in social houses, as well as by addressing environmental accessibility issues where the concerned person resides.

During the Soviet era after a year or two it was possible to recognize whether developmental problems are insignificant to children which belonged to a risk group at the time of birth (Gabors, 2004), but parents had already abandoned them and they were forced to remain in care facilities. However, there were also 'counter-streams'. Ideas of equality and modern pedagogy were represented by A. Persons with disabilities are one of the population's socially most vulnerable groups whose participation in various processes of the society is not always possible. It is important to eliminate obstacles that disabled A. Makarenko and L. Vigotsky but advanced rehabilitation techniques by V. Vojta and A. Peto. The foundations of the Soviet system consisted of the moral code which introduced with a "New

Man” ideology, mechanical behaviour modifications and medical-based rehabilitation. Before 1990, Latvia had a characteristic isolation from international discussions regarding issues related to functional disorders such as equalization of opportunities and effective measures.

Until 1991. People with special needs or so-called disabled were segregated from the community and placed in care facilities (Gabors, 2004). When a child with disabilities was born, parents were encouraged or persuaded to abandon the child. Treatment and care was provided. Although the number of physicians and caretakers was great, the ending result was still segregation. Because of prejudices in society, sign language is used very little when working with deaf–mute people. People who have had severe developmental disorders were considered unable to acquire knowledge; their rehabilitation was limited and were placed in care facilities–homes for the disabled.

When thinking about integration of mentally handicapped people it is acknowledged that there are two main obstacles to the process (Brian, s.a.):

- mentally handicapped are dependent on specific economic and biological conditions;
- Isolation caused by the State policy at the stagnation period which shaped the public attitude.

As shown by statistics (Invalids ir cilvēks, 2010), there are approximately 80 million people throughout the EU with mild or severe disabilities whose daily lives are encumbered by physical obstacles that interfere with their ability to integrate into society. Since labour and educational opportunities are limited the average poverty rate of such persons excess 70 %. In order to facilitate the change of situation the EU has adopted a new strategy in this field to relieve the lives of disabled people making sure that their lives are the same as any other humans and does not restrict the ability to realize their rights as EU citizens.

The study aims to evaluate the legal situation in Latvia of both children and adults with disabilities.

## **Materials and Methods**

In order to assess the legal situation in Latvia of persons with disabilities (including children) following documents were analysed and identified.

The United Nations Convention on the Rights of Persons with Disabilities implementation guidelines (2013).

Optional Protocol to the Convention on the Rights of Persons with Disabilities (Convention on the Rights..., 2006). Declaration on the Rights of Mentally Retarded Persons (1971). Declaration on the Rights of Disabled Persons (Declaration on the Rights..., 1975). The Standard Rules on the Equalization of Opportunities for Persons with Disabilities (Standard Rules..., 1993). The World Report

on Disability (World Report..., 2011). Law On Social Services and Social Assistance (Sociālo pakalpojumuun sociālās palīdzības likums, 2002). Social Security (Par sociālo drošību, 1995). On 7 September 1995 the Saeima adopted the Law on Social Security. Disability Law (Invaliditātes likums, 2011). The law came into force on 1 January 2011. Labour Law (Darba likums, 2012). The law came into force on 1 June 2002. Education Law (Izglītības likums, 1998). The law adopted by the Saeima on 29 October 1998.

Carried out an assessment of compliance with the formulated requirements in individual documents.

Carried out a statistical analysis of data in Latvia which is related with adults and children within the specific target group.

Carried out a reflection on personal experience which was obtained by working as a community worker for six years in the orphanage as a teacher and currently leading a group apartment for people with intellectual disabilities.

## Results and Discussion

Disability (Invaliditātes likums, 2011) is a long-term, chronic, very severe, severe or moderate functional limitation which affects the person's mental and physical capabilities, work capacity, self-care and social integration.

People with special needs—people who have objective demands for implementation of specific need, and those that have difficulty to function in society and require additional medical and social assistance. They are divided into (Anča, Dukure, & Kalniņa, 1996):

- people with hearing or visual impairment;
- people with impaired hearing or deaf;
- people with language disorders;
- people with emotional disorders and learning difficulties, with psycho-neurological and somatic diseases;
- people with physical development disorders, those who are temporarily injured and with chronic physical disabilities (including those who use prostheses, wheelchairs, elderly people with conditions such as difficulty walking and people with heart and vascular disease, cerebral palsy, acquired immune deficiency syndrome, chronic Arthritis).

In the west, the usage of this word is being avoided in both science and everyday life, because the term "invalid" (Sociālā darba terminoloģijas vārdnīca, 2000.) is disrespectful against such people and characterizes them as unworthy (Latin *invalidu*—incapable).

Classification developed by the World Health Organisation can be represented in the following figure which clearly illustrates the term.

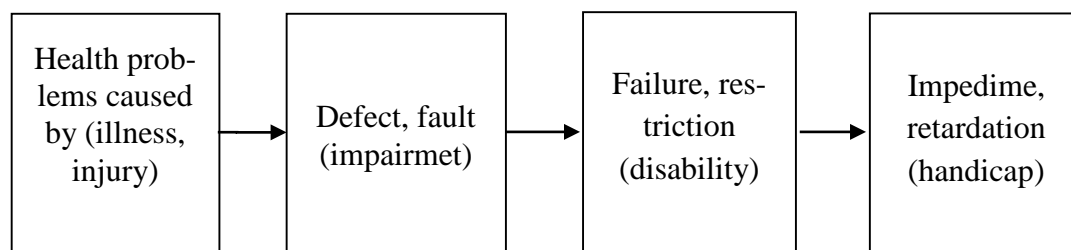


Figure 1. **Three – level diagram of disability concept** (Anča, Dukure, & Kalniņa, 1996)

E. Helenders (Anča, Dukure, & Kalniņa, 1996) offers to understand the concept "Invalid" as a person which in society is recognized or observed by different appearance or behaviour combined with functional disabilities or movement disorders.

The number of people with disabilities found in a report named World Report Disability (2011), which results has been summarized by Latvian professor A. Vētra from the National Council on Disability Affairs reports, that in 2011. The actual number of people with disabilities is 1 billion or approximately 15 % of the total population.

Table 1 **The prevalence of disability, %** (after World Health Organization, 2011)

	<b>Together</b>	<b>Women</b>	<b>Men</b>
The world	15.6	19.2	12
In countries with high income	11.8	14.4	9.1
In countries with low-income	18	22.1	13

According to the (2016.gada publiskais pārskats, 2017) Invalidity Information System data, on January 25, 2017. There are 182048 disabled people in the country:

Table 2 **Disability dynamics by groups in 2016 and 2017 in Latvia**

<b>Disabled category</b>	<b>2015.</b>	<b>2016.</b>	<b>n</b>
Disabled children	8260	8 296	+36
Disabled from the age of 18 years, including:	110144	173 752	+63608
1 group	23584	24 951	+1367
2 group	80316	82 902	+2586
3 group	62444	65 899	+3455
In Total	118404	17865	+63644

In 2016, the regional commissions of the State Commission first and repeatedly together the invalidity is set at 57 043 persons, including:

- first time 17865;
- repeatedly 39178.

Each year the State Commission in Latvia grants disability to approximately 57 043 people, of whom 17 865 are diagnosed for the first time. Conversely, among a person which has been diagnosed with disability for the first time 54,5 % are women and 45,5 % of them are men.

The National Minimum Wage is 4300.00 euros (Valsts sociālā nodrošinājuma pabalsts, 2018), as opposed to invalidity pension which is:

- *Group I* minimal amount of 83.24 EUR, if disabled since childhood – 138.74 EUR
- *Group II* minimal amount of 76.84 EUR, if disabled since childhood – 128.06 EUR
- *Group III* minimal amount 64.03 EUR, if disabled since childhood – 106.72 EUR

In total, 175 million euros a year are allocated to disability benefits.

Latvia has no separate statistics on persons with intellectual disabilities, as neither the Ministry of Welfare nor social services, nor the medical commission which evaluates the state of health and ability to work, does not distinguish persons with various types of disability.

The law On Medical and Social Protection of People with Disabilities (2010) was adopted on 1992 which determines the rights of disabled persons and obligations of state and self-governments towards the people with disabilities in Latvian Republic.

The UN General Assembly on 13 December 2006 adopted a resolution which was approved by the General Convention on the Rights of Persons with Disabilities and the Optional Protocol to the Convention (Convention on the Rights..., 2006.). While Latvia was entering into new international commitments it acted rather reservedly considering the necessary financial and material resources. Until 6 May 2008, cooperation Organization for people with disabilities in Latvia” SUSTENTO” (2006) found that Latvia is the only European Union Member State which has not signed the Convention. They also urged members of the Saeima to sign and ratify the Convention.

On behalf of the Latvian Republic the UN Convention was signed on 18 July 2008. It determines a gradual implementation of social and cultural rights for people with disabilities and usage of all available resources for this purpose.

Social integration in general is explained as objects internal condition or as an approach and integration in a wider social system. Integration is an independent and dynamic mutual adaptation process in which on one side is a person with disabilities who lives in accordance with his capabilities, desires and preferences, but on the other side, there is a society, which should provide support and ensure equal opportunities. It is a two-way road to a compromise for both society and humans with special needs.

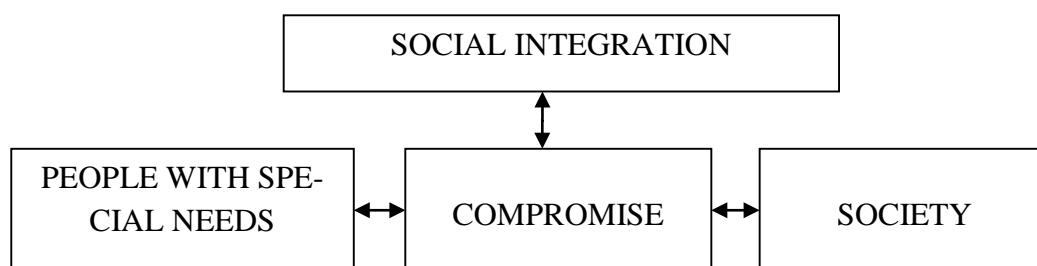


Figure 2. **Schematic representation of Social Integration** (Anča, Dukure, & Kalniņa, 1996.)

The European Council Press release (Paziņojums preseī, 2012) reports that around 45 million EU citizens of working age have a disability and 15 million children have special educational needs. The report shows that in some cases, they are deprived of educational and employment opportunities altogether. Children with special educational needs frequently leave school with few or no qualifications, before moving into specialist training which can - in some cases - impair rather than increase their job prospects. The report also indicates that people with disabilities or special educational needs are much more likely to be unemployed or economically inactive, and even those who are relatively successful in the job market often earn less than their non-disabled counterparts.

The author of this paper concludes that the situation in 2016, regarding the work with people who have various functional disorders, has not changed. When submitting the *curriculum vitae* to an employer which shows a completion of a special school, there tends to be an immediate negative attitude towards a person, showing intolerance and hostility.

Special Social rehabilitation program has been adopted for children with special needs (Sociālās rehabilitācijas, 2009). Our country has adopted several laws that regulate their rights to education, adequate medical assistance, social and other fields. Further details of these laws, provision and receipt of social service realization are regulated by Latvian Republic Cabinet. Conversely, local governments have the right to issue their own rules, regulations and instructions in which ways these services could be realized according to laws and in Cabinet of Ministers Regulations in respective municipalities, which also includes children with physical and mental disabilities.

According to (Statistika, 2017) the data of the Ministry of Education, there are 783 running comprehensive day schools in Latvia. In 2017 there were 57 comprehensive schools (including sanatoriums and boarding schools). Children with disabilities need to receive an appropriate support and rehabilitation measures which allows students with congenital and acquired disabilities to participate in the process of education and to meet requirements of National Educational Standards.



**Table 3 Main special education indicators at the beginning of 2013./2014. un 2014./2015. academic year** (According to the Ministry of Education public report data, 2015)

Main indicators	Academic Year		Changes	
	2013./2014.	2014./2015.	n	%
Students with special needs	10865	11366	+501	+4.61
incl special education institutions	5805	5857	+52	+0.90
Incl special classes at day or evening shifts and part-time schools	1283	1356	+730	+5.69
Incl integrated into regular comprehensive school classes	3777	4153	+376	+9.95

According to the provided data with the increase of children with special needs demand for special education also increases.

**Table 4 The total structure of primary and secondary disability for leading illnesses in 2016** (Kopējā pirmreizējās un atkārtotās..., 2016)

Place	Health problems	Absolute number 2016		%		Intensity rate per 10,000 children in 2016
		first time	repeatedly	first time	repeatedly	
1.	Mental and behavioral disorders	256	582	27,0	31.2	6,8
2.	Inherited malformations, deformities and chromosomal abnormalities	191	401	20,1	21.5	5.1
3.	Nervous system diseases	115	203	12,1	10.9	3.1
4.	Muscle, skeletal and connective tissue diseases	84	183	8,9	9.8	2.3

Children who study and who do not study, as in 2015, are in the first place by disability due to mental and behavioral disorders: 33.7 % and 29.1 %.

Rezekne Academy of Technologies scientist M. Rozenfelde (2016) believes that, in general, the integration process of students with special needs in Latvian comprehensive schools goes differently, because there still exist serious national and governmental problems that hinder the process of integration: when a student with special needs is integrated into general education institution, the student most likely will not receive all the necessary support, including methodological and material support, which he would receive in a special educational institution. Due to the decrease in the number of pupils and territorial reform, small educational institutions has started integration process of pupils with special needs without sufficient resources, understanding and knowledge on how to provide and put into

practise a supportive learning process. Most commonly it is a "mechanical integration" – pupils with special needs that studies in general education institution classes only relatively participates in learning process, because, as shown by the evidence, in special education institutions some pupils that previously have studied in general educational institutions start their studies from 4<sup>th</sup> to 7<sup>th</sup> grade, being unable to read, write and sometimes even speak.

The author of this paper has to conclude that the Educational Law (Izglītības likums, 1998) Article 3, which defines prohibition of a different attitude. It establishes the right to obtain education regardless of property, social status, race, nationality, ethnicity, gender, religious and political belief policy confidence, health status, employment, place of living, does not correspond to the real situation in the country. Special schools are located far from children's residences, often children are residing in boarding schools for several weeks, without seeing familiar people around them, which may lead to various health aggravations, and create a protest threat to the learning system by stopping the learning process or even leaving the school.

The author of this paper believes that the most appropriate pedagogical system for these children is humanitarian pedagogy. Humanitarian Pedagogy (Kā skolas īsteno humānās pedagoģijas principus, 2012) puts strong demands on pupils themselves. It is devious to think that this approach is like petting someone's head. On the contrary – students and teachers have set a strong value system, children have to learn and improve themselves and the teacher is there to direct them in the right way. The preconditions of Humanitarian pedagogical classes are cooperation with a child, collegial relationships, teamwork, praising and small surprises that motivate. Teacher particularly pays attention to the pupils desire to progress, to become mature and free. It allows the pupil to live through the lecture again, think, judge, express their views, to become a co-author, thinker etc.

O. Rode (2007) highlights three of the following teacher's principles of action:

- 1) spiritualization of the environment around the child;
- 2) strengthening child's personality;
- 3) expressing creative patience by helping the child to cognize himself.

By providing humanitarian access to children with special needs, it is possible to create an environment for them in which these children would be able to develop their abilities, to feel useful to society.

## **Conclusion**

1. By evaluating the legal situation in Latvia of both - children and adults - with disabilities it was found that legal support for people with disabilities is incorporated in several laws.

2. In carrying out the research of the actual state as well as based on the reflection of personal experience it was found that people with special needs only partially receives statutory support: a) there is no comprehensive material support when equalling disability pensions with the national minimum salary amount, thereby putting these people at the risk of poverty and making them to be dependent on various non-governmental organizations, social services, institutions and other people's compassion; b) there is no appropriate infrastructure in all educational institutions.
3. Further studies are recommended on: a) changes in laws and regulations to prevent or significantly reduce the use of the term "invalid"; b) Establishment of counselling services whose task would be to help those with the status of human with special needs, help to go through the initial shock as well as to inform these people about the labour market and educational opportunities; c) teacher and higher education institution preparation for work with people with disabilities by including in their study programs corresponding courses about people with disabilities; d) Improvement of lifelong learning services for people with disabilities.

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# APPLICATION OF TAEKWONDO PARALYMPIC RULES FOR SPARRING COMPETITION IN TERMS OF SPECIAL NEEDS PHYSICAL EDUCATION FOR REDUCTION OF CHALLENGING BEHAVIOUR

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**Abstract.** *Aim of the study: Para Taekwondo is divided into competition of sparring (kyorugi) and patterns of defense-and-attack motions (poomse). The first one is limited to orthopedic-like disabilities, while the other also include intellectual and visual impairments. The aim of this study is to analyze rules of sparring competitions to propose a pattern of sparring-like exercises for people with intellectual disability for the purpose of reducing aggressive like behaviors that often occurs in this group. Methods: Analysis of the competition rules were compared with existing intervention and knowledge about reducing aggressive behaviors in a group of intellectually disabled people. Results: Limited area of striking, which exclude head and punishment for disobeying rules serve as similar intervention as in behavioral therapy for reducing aggressiveness. Conclusions: Limiting striking zone during practice may induce subconscious restriction in aggressive behavior, improving social adjustment for people with intellectual disability.*

**Keywords:** *martial arts, intellectual disability, cognitive-behavioral therapy, Paralympic.*

## Introduction

In recent years para taekwondo were introduced to Paralympic Games. In the same time, Para Taekwondo rules were introduced and have to be implemented worldwide in order to call held competition with a name of para taekwondo. Strict rules were presented with exact classification of participant as well as rules of sparring competition. For now, for sparring competition there are only games for those with orthoepic like impairments, which limits participants mostly to upper limbs impairments or neurological impairments which affects ability to defend trunk from being targeted by opponent. For now, there is no sparring competition held specially for people with intellectual disability, only poomse competition which is composed of assessing one's performance in sequences of techniques presented without any opponent (World Taekwondo Federation Event Operations Rules, 2017). Among people with intellectual disabilities there are many subtypes and origins of this assessment. Most common is assessment of IQ score, which

value below 75 is considered as intellectual impairment (<http://www.worldtaekwondo.org/para/>). This is normal psychological evaluation and it is used for evaluation for participants, but causes of this scores may vary, as some people with disabilities like those form group of autism spectrum disorders may not be able to submit to normal criteria of assessment as incompatibility of their intellectual will with motor execution of desired behaviour. But the common part of this assessment is inability to perform normal (standard), logical reasoning, understandable for other people. But this category include also people with normally diagnosed intellectual impairment in childhood or with restricted reasoning due to genetic disorders such as Down's syndrome or many other disorders which is hard to describe fully here. Other reason for intellectual impairment may be also mental disorder or mental illness which occur because of some events in lifetime of a person and trigger mental illness (Cooper et al., 2007).

All those causes may be a factor to develop aggressive and inadequate behaviour in terms of normal social functioning. Aggressive behaviour includes both verbal and physical violence, understand as action, which cause suffering to a subject of this oppression. There could be many reasons of such behaviour, but common factor is lack of empathy and understanding of social norms of behaving, which may not be cleared by simply verbal explanation what is right and wrong (Matson et al., 2005).

For the purpose of regulating behaviour in many mental disorders, both behavioural and cognitive behavioural therapy were developed (Cob et al., 2006). It works pretty well in terms of disorders such as anxiety and depression, but there are a few proof of effectiveness and long-term lasting changes in aggressive behaviours (Taylor, 2002).

Polish scientist, Roman Maciej Kalina, proposed type of behavioural therapy by using fun forms of martial arts (Kalina, 1996). It is about using playful forms mixed with martial arts exercises in order to diagnose aggressive behaviours for certain individuals. In the same time, the same intervention was proposed as therapy for reducing such behaviour (Kalina & Jagiełło, 2000). Later, this component started to become part of innovative agonology as a science about struggle (Kalina, 2015). Reducing aggressiveness by a means of fun forms of martial arts became part of it (Kalina, 2016).

In cognitive-behavioural therapy it is limited possibility for people with intellectual disability to understand its cognitive part by simply verbal explanation of rules or trying to refer to their empathy towards others. But reward-punishment system, implemented during normal activity of a person should reach their subconscious level to do not cross certain borders and regulates behaviour to be more socially acceptable. This kind of therapy is proven to be effective, therefore there is assumption, that correctly directed playful forms is proper intervention

for people (especially children) with challenging behaviours (Brosnan & Healy, 2011).

Among many skill-related physical activities, which beneficial effects for health have been proven (Jeng et al., 2017), martial arts is prominent topic of scientific conferences (Ortenburger et al., 2015) are more and more frequently use as a form of kinesiotherapy with different goals (Fong et al., 2013) and psychological therapy (Lakes & Hoyt, 2004). This attractive form of physical activity is associated with psychological development, as almost every martial art have their own philosophy of and way of behaving in life, mostly composed of respect, being gentle, proper behaviour and self-development for both mental and physical sphere (King & Williams, 1997; Burke et al., 2007; Wąsik & Wójcik, 2017).

Among all martial arts, both judo and taekwon-do, which are included in Olympic games are used as a form of therapy for disabled children (Fong et al., 2013; Ion-Erne et al., 2014). As all martial arts, taekwondo is promising martial arts in terms of regulating mental sphere of human (Leite, 2014; Wąsik, 2014). Self-esteem (Ortenburger et al., 2016), social skills (Ortenburger et al., 2017), control over emotions (Wąsik et al., 2015), physical performance and overall perception of one's health is reported as aspects (Szerla et al., 2017; Tsos et al., 2017), which may be improved by practicing this martial art, which is continuously develop and brings more application value to knowledge about training methods (Wąsik, 2016; Wąsik & Ortenburger, 2016).

While rules are not yet implemented for formal competition for mentally disabled, there is no reason why to not perform sparring competition for willing participants with the exact rules that are for people without intellectual disorders and only orthopaedic one. During training session, there is lower pressure, winner gains nothing and everyone can talk about the performance of both sides afterwards. Taekwondo were proven to be effective intervention for dealing with anger for healthy individuals (Wąsik et al., 2015).

Starting with these assumptions, there was formulated hypothesis, that exercises such as spring for people with mental disorder, who eventually will only participate in poomse completion during championships, may be beneficial in terms of reducing socially challenging behaviours such as aggressiveness.

The aim of this study is to justify this hypothesis by comparative analysis of components of fun forms of martial arts in a context of behavioural therapy with official rules of Para Taekwon-do competition.

### **Comparative analysis methodology**

From the methodology of fun form of martial arts proposed in innovative agonology (Jagiello et al., 2015) following components were extracted and

formulated in a context of behavioural therapy: safety of participants, restricted area of action, restricted striking zones and determined punishments for disobeying rules, presence of judge (therapist) to control over play (sparring).

Each of component will be firstly described and then specific rules will be described accordingly to each of component.

### **Safety of participants**

The first rule of every therapy is to do not harm. Therefore, every behavioural therapy, especially for people with mental disorders, should take special measures to do not allow patients to harm themselves or others (Heyvaert, 2014). For this purpose in Para taekwondo rules there is specific description of equipment in part 4.2.3:

*“The contestant is responsible for supplying their own WT approved protective equipment. The groin, forearm and shin guards shall be worn beneath the Taekwondo uniform. Sensor socks, hand protector and mouth piece shall also be supplied by the athlete.”*

Also in terms of safety, special material of the floor should be provided, by rule 3.1, which states, that mat should be not-slippery and approved by competition supervisor. To sum up, most of vulnerable parts of the body is protected by equipment, so undesirable injuries is limited. Hand protectors are not only for providing safety of the striker, but also for opponent, reducing the impact of blow.

### **Restricted area of action**

In the behavioural therapy, there are limited area of action, where patients can move freely. This is to determine, that some areas are forbidden to go or in certain situations there is necessity to succumb to expectations of others and to do not act as one's please. It is especially significant with people form group of ADHD and autism spectrum disorder, where they tend to do not resist to their temptations to perform certain actions (Campbell, 2003). Following the rules of play, they are expected to remain in certain room or part of it in order to participate in such activity. Crossing this border is punished in a way determined by rules of play and executed by judge (therapist). In Para taekwondo this matter is regulated in point 3.1.1 and presented in figure 1:

*“The Competition Area is composed of a Contest Area and a Safety Area. The Competition Area shall be square shaped and the size shall be no smaller than 10mx10m and no larger than 12mx12m. At the centre of the Competition Area shall be the octagonal-shape Contest Area. The Contest Area shall measure approximately 8m in diameter, and each side of the octagon shall*



have a length of approximately 3.3m. Between the outer line of the Competition Area and the boundary line of the Contest Area is the Safety Area. The Contest Area and the Safety Area shall be different colours, as specified in the relevant competition's Technical Manual.”

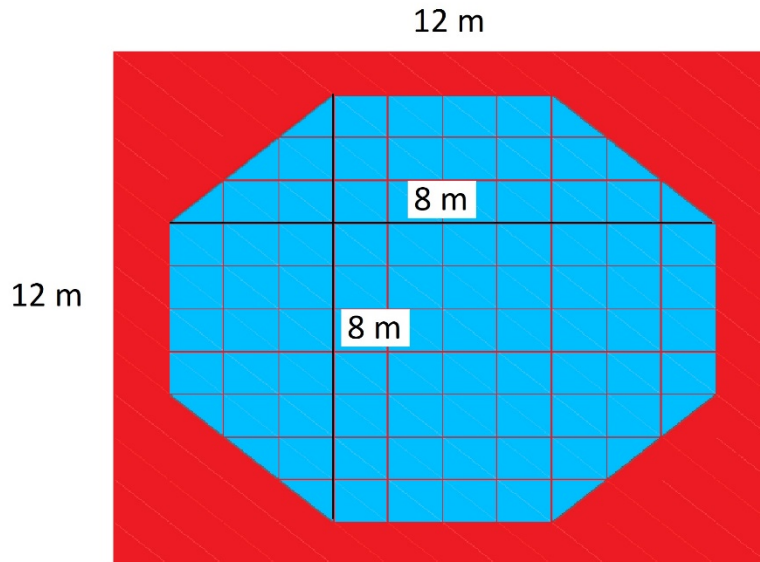


Figure 1. Scheme of area of competition according to Para Taekwondo rules

Such restriction as well as existence of safety area, where fighting is forbidden may play important role in regulating behaviour. As in certain places, people is expected to behave more proper (religious places, schools, governmental institutions), existence of area, where participant needs to stop their attack serve as an exercise of controlling themselves.

### **Restricted striking zones and determined punishments for disobeying rules**

Among aggressive behaviour, the most dangerous is physical violence, as it may leave permanent injuries for victim. During plays in behavioural therapy, certain action are permitted and may results in reward, and some others are forbidden (Taylor, 2005). In martial arts, also in a manner of fun form of martial arts proposed as innovative agonology, limited striking zones are described before play or sparring. This serves as most important behaviour regulating component from all of described in this paper. Is detailed description will be presented alongside with comments:

#### *“12.2 Permitted areas*

*12.2.1 Trunk: Attack by fist and foot techniques on the areas covered by the trunk protector are permitted. However, such attacks shall not be made on the spine.*

*12.3 Prohibited areas 12.3.1 Head: the area above the collar bone is a prohibited area.”*

*“13.1 Scoring Areas 13.1.1 Trunk: The blue or red coloured area of the trunk protector.*

*13.2 Criteria for valid point(s):*

*13.2.1 Point(s) shall be awarded when a scoring technique is delivered to the scoring areas of the trunk with power and accuracy.*

*13.3 The valid point(s) are as follows:*

*13.3.1 Two (2) points for a valid foot technique to the trunk protector*

*13.3.2 Three (3) points for a valid turning foot technique to the trunk protector 13.3.3 Four (4) points awarded for a valid spinning technique to the trunk protector*

*13.3.4 One (1) point awarded for every one Gam-jeom (-1 point punishment) (given to the opponent)”*

Only allowed body part for striking is the trunk. Moreover, there need to be properly executed foot technique. Hand strikes do not count for that, so randomly expressed anger will not be considered proper way of fighting. During practice, it is expected to serve as subconscious modulation of delivering blows, where especially head should stay beyond imagination of striking.

Moreover, there are set of foul play action or improper behaviour, which will be punished:

*“15.2 Prohibited acts which are described in article 15.4 shall be penalized with: 15.2.1 “Gam-jeom” (deduction penalty).*

*15.3 A “Gam-jeom” shall be counted as one (1) additional point for the opposing contestant. All “Gam-jeom” shall be counted in the total score of the contest.*

*15.4 Prohibited acts The following acts shall be classified as prohibited acts and “Gam-jeom” shall be declared;*

*15.4.1 Crossing the Boundary Line 15.4.2; Falling down; 15.4.3 Avoiding or delaying the contest; 15.4.4 Grabbing or pushing the opponent; 15.4.5 Lifting the leg; 15.4.6 Hitting below the waist 15.4.7; Attacking the opponent after “Kal-yeo” (stop); 15.4.8 Dangerous play; 15.4.6 Hitting below the waist 15.4.7 Attacking the opponent after “Kal-yeo”; 15.4.8 Dangerous play; 15.4.9; Unsafe play; 15.4.10 Butting or hitting with the knee; 15.4.11 Attacking the fallen opponent; 15.4.12 Misconduct of contestant or coach”*

Most of prohibited actions refers to using improper way of striking and use of forbidden parts of the body. The proper explanation should be cited for the dangerous play and unsafe play:

*“15.4.8 Dangerous play Dangerous play includes hitting the opponent's head with the hand (fist), arm, elbow or any part of the body including the permitted techniques listed in Article 12.1. Unintentional Dangerous play shall be penalized by “Gam-jeom”.*

*Dangerous play due to unsafe play from the opponent cannot be penalized by this article. In the case of a hit to the head the Referee shall immediately suspend the contest in accordance with article 21.*

*In the case an athlete intentionally commits Dangerous play resulting in a hit to the head a yellow card shall be given to the athlete who committed intentional Dangerous play.*

*15.4.9 Unsafe play Unsafe play occurs when an athlete intentionally or unintentionally takes a stance or plays with a game tactic where the head becomes a target and increases the risk for Dangerous play. When there is a hit to the head the Referee shall ask for IVR to determine if the situation concerns unsafe or dangerous play.”*

As this explanation of rules states, not only hitting to a head should be considered as dangerous, but also intentional behaviour of putting himself to a risk to get points by given penalty to opponent also will be recognized and punished.

### **Presence of referee (therapist) to control over play (sparring)**

Last key factor of behavioural therapy is active coordination of all play forms. He needs to control over situation, detect potential threats and act accordingly with proper reaction time, to do not allow expression of anger to reach dangerous level (Brosnan, 2011). Therapist serves the same role as referee, rewarding what is allowed and punishing what is wrong. He is responsible for effects of therapy by explanation of wrong deeds and acting without any exceptions, which might eventually emphasize negative behaviours. Following rules provide explanation for that statement:

*“11.4.3 The referee shall start the contest by commanding “Joon-bi (ready)” and “Shi-jak (start)”.*

*11.4.4 The contest in each round shall begin with the declaration of “Shi-jak (start)” by the referee and shall end with the declaration of “Keu-man (stop)” by the referee. Even if the referee has not declared “Keu-man”, the contest shall be regarded as having ended when the contest clock expires.*

*11.4.5 The referee shall declare the winner by raising his/her own hand to the winner’s side.”*

*“15.5 When a coach or contestant commits excessive misconduct and does not follow the referee’s command the referee may declare a sanction request by raising a yellow card. In this case the Competition Supervisory Board shall investigate the coach’s and/or athlete’s behaviour and determine whether a sanction is appropriate*

*15.6 If a contestant intentionally and repeatedly refuses to comply with the Competition Rules or the referee’s orders, the referee may end the contest and declare the opposing contestant the winner.*

*If the referee at the Inspection desk or officials in the Field of Play determines, in consultation with the PSS technician, that a contestant or coach has attempted to manipulate the sensitivity of PSS sensor(s) and/or inappropriately alter the PSS so as to effect its performance, the contestant shall be disqualified.*

*15.8 When a contestant receives ten (10) “Gam-jeom”, the referee shall declare the contestant loser by Referee's Punitive Declaration (PUN).”*

As the rules states, referee have complete control over scoring system and decision of winner. He decides when competition starts and ends. His decisions are final and he needs to be respected by contestants.

## **Conclusions**

Provided description with rules in the context of behavioural therapy proves its compatibility with all assumptions of behavioural therapy by a means of fun forms of martial arts. Expressing overload of emotion is not the proper way of regulating one's behaviour. In contrary, control over emotions and obedience to the rules is prime aim of behavioural therapy. In terms of reducing aggressive behaviour, it is reported that taekwondo may serve as a mean for coping with emotions. But it was not analysed in context of mentally challenged people with tendency to aggressive actions. There are none studies to be found through science databases (in English) that could confirm empirically correctness of assumptions, which were presented in this work. However, it is reported, that taekwon-do coaches are not prepared well enough for training practitioners with disabilities (Patatas et al., 2016). This theoretical concept should bring more insight to practical application of existing rules and help coaches to form proper training methodology, accordingly to cognitive-behavioural therapy directives. After this theoretical concept, there should be series of experimental studies, which will verify its usability in training/therapy process. It may seem counterintuitive to teach aggressive person how to fight. But without that knowledge, they still act dangerously on daily basis, only in wild way, when even eyes are the target of their actions, which is individual experience of author of this paper. Regulation of that behaviour through controlled action towards other person seems to be promising intervention, as strict rules and provided equipment for protections with experienced referee is safe way to conduct therapy. Induction of proper behaviour by repeated sparring session and strict punishing system may lead to subconscious patterns of behaving during confrontation with others. In this case it is only a kick to a chest, which is much less severe than other possible action that one's can perform during rampage.

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# PEDAGOGU PROFESIONĀLĀS KOMPETENCES PILNVEIDES NODROŠINĀŠANA IEKĻAUJOŠĀ IZGLĪTĪBĀ

## *Provision of the Development of the Professional Competence of Teachers in Inclusive Education*

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**Abstract.** Many educational researchers explain and appreciate the special importance of improving the professional competence of teachers in this era of change in Latvia when the Ministry of Education and Science has envisaged one of the most comprehensive reforms by implementing competency based education. Inclusive education implies that teachers have to master appropriate general skills which will help them to grasp topicalities, to be the leaders of changes and to adequately innovate the learning process where all different needs of learners are met by increasing participation opportunities of each and everybody in learning, culture and different communities and by reducing exclusion within and from educational process. The aim of the study was to clarify the point of view of teachers about the quality of content of the provided professional development. The set of questionnaires was developed by teachers of general education institution where learners with special needs were included. The survey studied the motivation of teachers to participate in professional development courses/seminars/projects; the opinion of respondents about the organization, form and content of continuing professional development in line with their needs. Conclusions: The development of professional competence of teachers in Latvia on national level is implemented according to the pedagogical needs modelling method which supports autonomy and which is self-guided by free self-education initiative of teachers. The survey is based on the fact that teachers lack knowledge and skills to appropriately assess and formulate their continuous professional development needs.

**Keywords:** inclusive education, professional competence of teachers, professional development, quality of education.

### **Ievads**

#### **Introduction**

Mācīšanas un mācīšanās paradigmā, kas raksturīga 21. gadsimtam, Latvijas izglītības sistēmas funkcija ir veidot plašu zināšanu pamatu, sniegt visu, kas nepieciešams, lai izglītojamais aptvertu lietu būtību, spētu saprast un radīt. Izglītības attīstības pamatnostādņēs 2014. – 2020. gadam kā galvenais uzdevums

tiek noteikta kvalitatīva un iekļaujošā izglītība personības attīstībai, cilvēku labklājībai un ilgtspējīgai valsts izaugsmei (Izglītības attīstības pamatnostādnes 2014.–2020. gadam, 2013). Laikā, kad notiek pāreja uz jaunu mācību saturu un pieeju mācībām, katrai izglītības iestādei tai skaitā, kur iekļauti izglītojamie ar speciālām vajadzībām, ir nepieciešamas nozīmīgas pārmaiņas mācību saturā, mācīšanas pieejā un vērtēšanā, lai attīstītu izglītojamo kompetenci jeb lietpratību (Skola 2030, 2017). Pārmaiņu īstenošanā būtiska loma tiek piešķirta pedagoga darba kvalitātei, kā rezultātā tiek izvirzītas jaunas prasības pedagogu profesionālās kompetences pilnveidei (Fadels et al., 2017). Savukārt, pedagoga darba kvalitāte ir atkarīga no vairākiem faktoriem, tai skaitā no viņa motivācijas, spējām, attieksmes pret skolēnu, attieksmes pret savu profesionālo pilnveidi (Koķe, 1999).

Latvijā pedagogi profesionālo kompetenci pilnveido gan pašizglītības un tālākizglītības procesā, gan piedaloties dažādos projektos. To daudzums un apjoms nodrošina iespēju ikvienam pedagogam pilnveidot savu profesionālo kompetenci, tomēr jāņem vērā arī faktori, kas pozitīvi vai negatīvi ietekmē viņu profesionālās kompetences veidošanos (Andersons, 2009). Prakse rāda, ka pedagogu izglītībai netiek veltīta pietiekoša uzmanība, jo biežāk tiek piedāvātas lekcijas, semināri, bet mazāk – iespēja praktiski līdzdarboties, diskutēt, izteikt viedokli.

Izglītības likuma 14. panta 13. punkts apstiprina prasības pedagogiem nepieciešamajai izglītībai un profesionālajai kvalifikācijai, un 32. punkts nosaka pedagogu profesionālās kompetences pilnveides kārtību (Izglītības likums, 1999). Atbilstoši 2014. gada 28. oktobra Ministru Kabineta noteikumiem Nr. 662 “Noteikumi par pedagogiem nepieciešamo izglītību un profesionālo kvalifikāciju un pedagogu profesionālās kompetences pilnveides kārtību”, kas precizē Izglītības likuma prasības, vispārējās izglītības pedagogam ir tiesības savu profesionālo kompetenci pilnveidot dažādās A vai B programmās. Pedagoģis var apgūt A programmu, ko izstrādā un īsteno izglītības iestādes vai pedagogu profesionālās nevalstiskās organizācijas un kas saskaņota ar pašvaldību, kuras administratīvajā teritorijā programma tiek īstenota vai ministriju padotības iestādes, kuru nolikumos paredzēta izglītojošas darbības veikšana. Savukārt augstākās izglītības iestādes un ministriju padotības iestādes, kuru nolikumos paredzēta izglītojošas darbības veikšana, A programmas īsteno bez saskaņošanas. Pedagoģis var apgūt arī B programmu, kuru izstrādā un īsteno augstākās izglītības iestādes, kas īsteno pedagoģijas studiju programmas. B izglītības programmu saskaņo ar Izglītības un zinātnes ministriju (MK noteikumi Nr. 662, 2014).

Atbilstoši iepriekš minētajiem Ministru Kabineta noteikumiem, ir noteikts, ka vispārējās izglītības pedagoģis ir atbildīgs par savas profesionālās kompetences pilnveidi, kuru veic triju gadu laikā ne mazāk par 36 stundām un plāno to



sadarbībā ar tās izglītības iestādes vadītāju, kurā pedagogs veic pedagoģisko darbību (MK noteikumi Nr. 662, 2014).

Tas ļauj secināt, ka Latvijā pedagogu profesionālo kompetenču pilnveide valsts līmenī tiek īstenota pēc brīvas pedagogu pašizglītošanās iniciatīvas. Pētījuma problēmu šajā pārmaiņu laikmetā Latvijā nosaka vērojamas pretrunas mērķtiecīgas pieaugušo izglītības koordinācijā, kas ļautu noteikt prioritātes un nodrošināt kvalitatīvu pedagogu profesionālās kompetences īstenošanu. Prakse rāda, ka pedagogiem pietrūkst zināšanas un prasmes, lai spētu atbilstoši precīzi izvērtēt un formulēt savas tālākizglītības vajadzības. Tikai dažas Eiropas valstis sasniedz to, ka izglītības sistēmā tiek piesaistīti cilvēki ar pareizām vērtībām, attieksmēm, kompetenci un zināšanām no vislabākajiem augstskolu absolventiem, lai viņi spētu reaģēt uz daudz sarežģītākajām dažu izglītojamo vajadzībām, un kuru darbā tiek nodrošināts līdzsvars starp augstajām prasībām un pievilcīgajiem darba apstākļiem (Auguste et al., 2010). Kā daļa no nozīmīgajām sistēmiskajām pārmaiņām Latvijā varētu būt pedagogu zināšanu un kompetences izaugsme, kas ļautu virzīties no tradicionālās pedagoģijas un pieņemt vairāk uz izglītojamo centrētas pieejas, kas atzīst, ka katram izglītojamajam ir spēja mācīties un katram ir specifisks mācīšanās veids (WHO, 2011).

Pētījuma mērķis: izpētīt pedagogu profesionālās kompetences pilnveides nodrošināšanu un noskaidrot pedagogu motivāciju piedalīties tālākizglītībasursos, semināros, projektos, apzinot respondentu viedokli par tālākizglītības darba organizācijas, formu un satura atbilstību viņu profesionālās pilnveides vajadzībām.

### **Problēmas teorētiskais pamatojums** *Theoretical background of the problem*

Izglītība ir svarīgs pasaules valstu attīstības faktors, kur galvenā stratēģija ir taisnīguma principa īstenošana visos izglītības sistēmas līmeņos (OECD, 2007). Nozīmīgs izaicinājums Latvijas izglītības sistēmai ir nodrošināt kvalitatīvu izglītību visiem izglītojamiem. Latvijā Izglītības likums nosaka, ka izglītības sistēma tiek veidota un vadīta ar mērķi nodrošināt iespējas katra cilvēka iekšējā potenciāla un talantu attīstīšanai un nepārtrauktai personības pilnveidei (Izglītības likums, 1999).

Vispārīzglītojošās izglītības iestādes, kas orientētas uz iekļaujošu izglītību, ir visefektīvākais veids, kā cīnīties pret diskriminējošu attieksmi, veidot pretimnākošu un iekļaujošu sabiedrību un panākt izglītību visiem, turklāt tās nodrošinātu efektīvu izglītību bērnu vairākumam, kā arī uzlabotu visas izglītības sistēmas efektivitāti un rentabilitāti (UNESCO, 2005). Pedagoģa uzdevums un misija ir profesionāli veidot tādu mācību vidi, kas katram izglītojamajam dotu iespēju attīstīt visas savas spējas un potenciālu, atklāt savu individualitāti un

radošumu, lai veidotu pilnvērtīgu personisko dzīvi un profesionālo karjeru. Ir svarīgi, lai ikviens pedagogs izglītības iestādē saņemtu šīs iestādes administrācijas atbalstu, savukārt iestāde saņemtu pašvaldības atbalstu, bet pašvaldībai būtu pieejams valsts institūciju atbalsts (Fullan, 2001; Cohen & Hill, 2005).

Izglītības pētnieki gan Latvijā, gan Eiropā skaidro un novērtē pedagogu profesionālās pilnveides svarīgo nozīmi 21. gadsimtā (Žogla, 2006; Koķe, 2001; Andersone, 2009; Fullan, 2001; Auguste et al., 2010; O'Donnell, et al., 2009; Kelly & John, 2005 u.c.). Pedagogu darba kvalitāte ir vissvarīgākais faktors, kas izglītības iestādē ietekmē izglītojamā sasniegumus (Komisijas ziņojums, 2008). Pedagoģa profesionālās kompetences saturs ietver mācību priekšmetu pārzināšanu, zināšanas par izglītojamā attīstību, pedagoģiskās prasmes. Iekļaujošā izglītībā pedagogam ir jāspēj uzņemties atbildību par visiem izglītojamiem klasē, risināt ar mācību procesu un uzvedību saistītos jautājumus. Pedagogam viņa profesionālajā darbībā nepieciešamas:

- zināšanas par personības attīstību, mācību organizēšanu, savu mācību priekšmetu, saskarsmi un sadarbību;
- prasmes mācīties un mācīt, motivēt, sadarboties un vadīt, risināt problēmas, kontrolēt un vērtēt;
- attieksmes pret profesiju, skolēniem, vērtībām un problēmām (Andersone, 2009).

Pedagoģa profesionālo kompetenci Jansma (2011) salīdzina ar aisbergu, kura virsotne simbolizē pedagoģa darbību, bet pamatus veido pedagoģa personiskās īpašības, profesionālās attieksmes, pārliecība un profesionālie paņēmieni.

Iekļaujošā izglītībā profesionāliem, izglītotiem pedagoģiem ir jāstrādā vienoti, lai izzinātu un mācētu nodrošināt katra izglītojamā izglītošanās vajadzības un attīstību. Vairākās Eiropas valstīs strādā, lai visos piedāvātajos studijuursos nodrošinātu satura apguvi, kas atbilst iekļaujošai izglītībai (UNESCO, 2009).

Starptautiskie pētījumi sniedz informāciju par to, ka koncepcijas trūkums pedagogu tālākizglītībā būtiski ietekmē mācību – mācīšanās procesu un pedagogu aiziešanu no profesijas (Harford, 2010; Collinson et al., 2009; Thurston et al., 2008; Latham & Vogt, 2007). Lai virzītos uz iekļaujošo izglītību, pedagoģiem ir jāsaprot vispirms pašiem sevi, savas vērtības, bet attiecībā uz izglītojamiem, jābūt izpratnei par viņu vispārīgajām, specifiskajām un individuālajām vajadzībām (Rodriguez, 2010).

Pedagoģiem nepieciešams pilnveidot profesionālo kompetenci, lai uztvertu aktualitātes, būtu pārmaiņu vadītāji un adekvāti inovatīvi īstenotu mācību procesu (Ornstein & Hunkins, 1998; Kelly & John, 2005; O'Donnell et al., 2009).

## **Pētījuma rezultāti** *The research results*

### **Skolotāju aptaujas datu analīze.**

Aptaujas ģenerālo kopu veidoja Latvijas vispārīzglītojošo iestāžu pedagogi (n=72) vecumā no 26 – 64 gadiem Izglītības un attīstības centra “Ego” tālākizglītībasursos, kas jau desmit gadus nodarbojas ar pieaugušo mūzikizglītības pilnveidošanu, realizējot pieaugušo tālākizglītības, profesionālās pilnveides, personības attīstības un interešu izglītības programmas.

Aptaujas mērķis: noskaidrot, kāda ir pedagogu motivācija piedalīties tālākizglītībasursos, semināros, projektos; kuras kompetences tika pilnveidotas; kuras tālākizglītības formas ir visefektīvākās; kāds ir respondentu viedoklis par tālākizglītības darba organizācijas, formu un satura atbilstību viņu profesionālās pilnveides vajadzībām.

Pedagogiem tika piedāvāta strukturētā anketa, kurā ir slēgtie un daļēji slēgtie jautājumi. Izmantojot anketēšanu, pētījumā tika savākti kvantitatīvi dati.

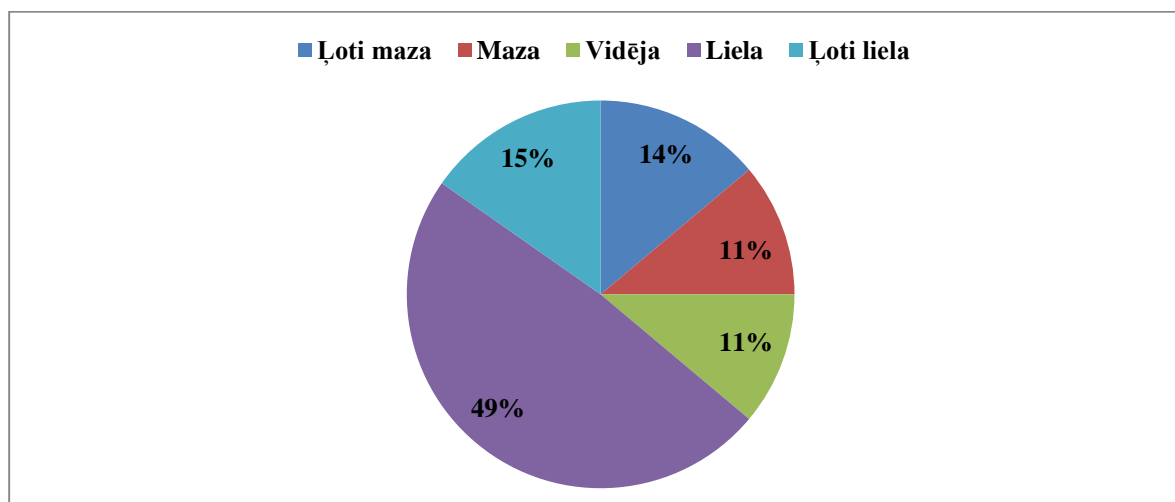
Visas aptaujātās pedagoģes ir sievietes, kuru darba pieredze attēlota 1.tabulā.

1. tab. **Informāciju par respondentu darba pieredzi**  
*Table 1 Information about the respondent's experience*

<b>Darba stāžs skolā</b>	<b>Skolotāju skaits</b>
0 – 5	3
6 – 10	7
11 – 15	13
16 – 20	12
21 un vairāk	37

Aptaujas rezultātā tiek secināts, ka 21 un vairāk gadu darba pieredze izglītības iestādē ir 51 % pedagogu. Kopējais pedagogu skaits, kuriem ir liela pieredze pedagoģiskajā darbā (izglītības iestādē nostrādājuši 16–20 un vairāk gadus), ir 68 % respondentu, kas parāda, ka tālākizglītībai viņu profesionālajā izaugsmē izglītības reformu kontekstā ir būtiska nozīme.

Sniegtās atbildes uz jautājumu par pēdējos trīs gados iegūtās tālākizglītības nozīmi var skatīt 1. attēlā, kur 49 % pedagogu to vērtē, kā lielu (35 pedagogi) un 15 % pedagogu, kā ļoti lielu (11 pedagogi), bet 11 % – 8 pedagogi to novērtē kā vidēji noderīgu. Tomēr gandrīz 14 % – 10 pedagogi to neuzskata par nozīmīgu.



1. att. Tālākizglītības nozīme praktiskajā darbā  
Fig. 1. *Meaning of effective professional development*

Uz jautājumu: kas tiek vērtēts tālākizglītībā, kopumā visaugstāk tiek vērtēts labs lektoru darbs – 78 %, aizraujošas praktiskās nodarbības – 68 %, lietderīgi metodiskie materiāli – 57 %.

Uz jautājumu, kam ir būtiska loma tālākizglītības izvēlē, 58 % pedagogu norāda izglītības iestādes lomu. Savukārt 48 % pedagogu atzīmē, ka dažreiz nav apmierināti ar apmeklētajiem tālākizglītības pasākumiem, jo nav attaisnojušās gaidītās cerības, kas ir norāde uz ievērojamu kursu, semināru satura neatbilstību dalībnieku gaidām, 52 % pedagogu uzskata, ka profesionālā pilnveide palīdz labāk, radošāk strādāt, 48 % pedagogu norāda, ka profesionālās kompetenču pilnveidesursos nav sabalansēts tālākizglītības pasākumu piedāvājums un reālās pedagogu vajadzības. Aptaujā iekļautie pedagogi norāda, ka visvairāk tālākizglītībā pilnveidotas ir kompetences, kas saistās ar metodiku un mācību priekšmeta saturu – 36 % (daudz) un 30 % (ļoti daudz).

Respondentu izvēle starp 12 (7 %) stundu, 24 stundu (45 %) un 36 (48 %) stundu kursiem norāda, ka tālākizglītība ir efektīva, ja tā ilgst vismaz vairākas dienas.

Respondenti augstu novērtē praktiskās nodarbības, pieredzes apmaiņas aktivitātes ar kolēģiem – 56 %, savukārt ir maza interese par citu valstu pieredzi – 13 %, jo pedagogi uzskata, ka tas viņus kursu programmā neinteresē.

## Secinājumi *Conclusions*

Secinājumi pēc pētījuma:

- visaugstāk iegūto tālākizglītību vērtē pedagogi, kuriem ir lielāks darba stāžs skolā;

- pēc pedagogu uzskatiem izglītības iestādei ir būtiska ietekme tālākizglītības izvēlē;
- bieži kursu saturs neatbilst profesionālo kompetenču pilnveidei darbam skolā;
- profesionālās kompetenču pilnveides kursos atklājas nesabalansēts piedāvājums un pedagogu reālās vajadzības;
- augstu tiek vērtētas iespējas mācīties no kolēģiem pedagogiem;
- par maznozīmīgu tiek uzskatīta ārzemju pieredzes apgūšana.

Tādējādi pedagogu profesionālās kompetences veidotāju un organizētāju uzdevums ir izprast skolotāju vajadzības, saskaņot mūsdienu izglītības pieprasījumus ar piedāvājumiem.

### Summary

In the paradigm of teaching and learning which is characteristic for the 21st century the concept of competencies has become generally recognized measuring instrument. The effective development of professional competence is an integral part of this process. Global tendencies, research in education and surveys completed by the heads of schools show that significant changes in academic content, teaching and assessment approaches are needed (Skola 2030, 2017). The changes should be introduced both: in academic content – what and how to teach, and in school environment where learners are involved in learning. The changes are also needed to promote learners' interest in acquiring knowledge, to incite thinking and looking for answers to their questions. These are skills and abilities which are essential resources of development in the society of the 21st century. In educational policy the teacher professionalism is considered as means of achieving educational goals of the society. The quality of teacher's work depends on his/her motivation, abilities and attitude towards learners and his/her professional activity as well as towards professional development (Koçe, 1999: 87).

Educational researchers highlight the significance of support that should be provided to every teacher by school administrators, of care that every school should receive from local and regional educational authorities, but for local government it is very important to receive support from public institutions as well as from citizens in the implementation of reforms in education (Žogla, 2006; Koçe, 2001; Andersone, 2009; Fullan, 2001; Auguste et al., 2010; O'Donnell et al., 2009; Kelly & John, 2005).

International research provides information how the lack of conception about teacher professional development influences teaching and learning process and teachers leaving the profession (Harford, 2010; Collinson et al., 2009; Thurston et al, 2008; Latham & Vogt, 2007).

In relation to inclusive education three issues are underlined, namely, inclusion and quality are reciprocal, access and quality are linked and are mutually reinforcing; quality and equity are main aspects in provision of inclusive education (UNESCO, 2009).

Taking into account policy objectives which are defined as the system of laws, regulations, action programmes and financing priorities the challenge for educational system in Latvia is to provide quality education for all learners. The general education schools which work towards developing inclusive education are the most effective way of combating discriminatory attitudes, building a cohesive and inclusive society and achieving education for

all, providing effective education for the majority of children and improving the efficiency and cost-effectiveness of the whole education system (UNESCO, 2005).

To ensure implementation of inclusive education it is not enough to enrol all learners in the local general education institution – this institution should have appropriate infrastructure, support (on different levels – policy, legislation, finances, methodology) as well as professional and educated teachers who know and are able to meet the educational needs and development of each learner.

In inclusive education teachers have to master appropriate general skills which will help them to grasp topicalities, to be the leaders of changes and to adequately innovate the learning process where all different needs of learners are met by increasing participation opportunities of each and everybody in learning, culture and different communities and by reducing exclusion within and from educational process.

By using survey the research gathered quantitative data to study the motivation of teachers to participate in professional development courses/seminars/projects, the opinion of respondents about the organization, form and content of continuing professional development in line with their professional needs. The set of questionnaires was developed by teachers of general education schools where learners with special needs were included.

The majority of respondents were teachers who have 21 or more years of work experience in school (51 %). When adding the number of teachers who have worked at school for 16-20 years, it can be argued that 68 % of respondents have extensive experience in pedagogical work, which shows that further education for their professional development in the context of educational reforms plays a key role. When answering the question about the effectiveness of professional development in the last three years – the usefulness for work in school, the majority of teachers on the scale 0–5 (none, very small, average, important, very important) rate it as important (49 %) and very important (15 %) but 11 % rate it as of average usefulness. However, almost 14 % of respondents consider it to be unimportant.

Conclusions after the research:

- The teachers with longest length of service in school rate professional development the highest;
- According to the views of teachers the educational institution has the essential impact on the choice of professional development;
- The content of courses often does not correspond to development of professional competence for work in school;
- Unbalanced offer and real needs in the courses of the development of professional competence;
- The opportunities to learn from colleagues is highly valued;
- Foreign experience is considered as insignificant.

It should be concluded that the development of professional competence of teachers in Latvia on national level is implemented according to the pedagogical needs modelling method which supports autonomy and which is self-guided by free self-education initiative of teachers. The survey is based on the fact that teachers lack knowledge and skills to appropriately assess and formulate their continuous professional development needs.

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# AKTUĀLAS SKOLOTĀJU DARBA TEHNOLOĢIJAS SKOLĒNU AR GARĪGĀS ATTĪSTĪBAS TRAUCĒJUMIEM IZGLĪTOŠANAS PROCESĀ

## *Topical Teachers' Work Techniques in Education Process of Pupils with Mental Disorders*

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**Abstract.** *The paper describes the study on efficient and less effective teachers' work techniques in lessons, working with pupils with mental disorders and implementing the inclusive educational process that is governed by Latvian national and educational policies. The summary of the answers of comprehensive and special schools' teachers involved in research also indicates a number of additional factors that are significant in the learning process of pupils with mental disorders and can contribute to or reduce pupils' learning achievements.*

**Keywords:** *pupils with mental disorders, efficient teachers' work techniques, factors contributing to or reducing learning achievements.*

### **Ievads**

#### ***Introduction***

21. gadsimtu raksturo globalizācija, vērtību daudzveidība, “informācijas sabiedrības veidošanās, jo šodien ikvienu sabiedrības locekli katru mirkli apņem milzīgs informācijas apjoms, nebijuši zinātnes attīstības tempi un informācijas un komunikāciju tehnoloģiju attīstības tendences” (Lūsēna–Ezera & Bārdule, 2013), tā kā “mūsdienu bērniem ir jāiemācās dzīvot pasaulē, kas nepārtraukti mainās, un nākotnē jābūt gataviem radīt līdz tam nepieredzētu ekonomisko, politisko, sociālo un kultūras vidi” (Skola2030, 2017: 5). Arī izglītības attīstības pamatnostādnes 2014. – 2020. gadam kvalitatīva un iekļaujošā izglītība personības attīstībai, cilvēku labklājībai un ilgtspējīgai valsts izaugsmei, nominēta kā galvenais uzdevums (Izglītības attīstības pamatnostādnes 2014.–2020. gadam, 2013). Tāpat vēl vienā valsts līmeņa dokumentā - Latvijas Nacionālā attīstības plānā 2014.–2020. gadam, kā prioritātes minētas: mācību sasniegumu paaugstināšana (Latvijas NAP 2014 -2020, 2012), “kvalitatīva un iekļaujošā izglītība personības attīstībai un cilvēku labklājībai, un ilgtspējīgai valsts izaugsmei.

Skolotāji ir tie, “kas palīdz sasniegt skolēnu mērķus un veido viņu priekšstatus. Šī iemesla dēļ Eiropas stratēģijā „Izglītība un apmācība 2020”

skolotāju loma ir īpaši uzsvērta – sākot no skolotāju atlases, sākotnējās izglītības un pastāvīgas profesionālās pilnveides līdz tālākām karjeras iespējām” (Eurydice, 2015). Visi šie valstiski nominētie uzdevumi nesaraujami saistīti arī ar skolēnu ar garīgās attīstības traucējumiem izglītošanu. Tādēļ, ir svarīgi darīt visu iespējamo iekļaušanas procesu sakārtošanai valstī, atbalstot vispārējās izglītības iestāžu skolotājus, kuri, valstī notiekošo procesu rezultātā, strādās klasēs, kurās būs jāīsteno jaunās, lietpratību apguves tehnoloģijas, skolotājam no informācijas nesēja būs jāpārņem par informācijas apguves organizatoru (Rubana, 2004: 69), kā arī vienlaikus jāpanāk skolēnu ar garīgās attīstības traucējumiem attīstība, izaugsme un socializācija. Tas nosaka arī tēmas aktualitāti: iekļaujoši strādājošam skolotājam jābūt skaidrībā par efektīvākajām darba tehnoloģijām, papildfaktoriem, kas ietekmē skolēnu ar garīgās attīstības traucējumiem darba rezultātu.

Pētījuma mērķis: noskaidrot, pēc strādājošo skolotāju domām, efektīvākās skolotāju darba tehnoloģijas un sasniegumus veicinošus faktorus stundu darbā ar skolēniem, kuriem ir garīgās attīstības traucējumi. Pētījuma metodes: aptauja (Ievads pētniecībā: stratēģijas, dizaini, metodes, 2011: 157–163; Geske & Grīnfelds, 2001: 113–121), datu statistiska apstrāde, kontentanalīze (kvalitatīvo datu apstrādei) (Kroplis & Rašcevska, 2004: 121).

### **Problēmas teorētiskais pamatojums** *Theoretical background of the problem*

Viena no mūsdienu izglītības procesa aktualitātēm ir kvalitatīvs, jēgpilns, socializējošs un ilgtspējīgs skolēnu ar speciālām vajadzībām izglītošanas process, ko īsteno vai nu speciālās vai vispārējās izglītības iestādes, kuras integrē /iekļauj skolēnus ar speciālām vajadzībām.

“Beļģu pētnieks F. Trembejs (Ph. Trembay) uzskata, ka iekļaujošās izglītības galvenie principi ir: tiesības, līdzdalība, process, vērtības, dažādība, vienlīdzība, izmaiņas” (Trembay, 2007; Rozenfelde, 2016). “F. Trembejs iekļaujošās izglītības būtību raksturo kā mācību procesu, kurā visi bērni, cik vien iespējams, mācību procesā ir kopā, tiek īstenoti augstas kvalitātes mācību plāni, ir organizatoriski pasākumi, notiek mācību stratēģiju, resursu izmantošana, pastāv partnerība ar pašvaldībām, nevalstiskām organizācijām, izglītības iestāde koncentrējas uz vienaudžu iesaisti bērnu ar speciālajām vajadzībām mācību procesā. (Trembay, 2007; Rozenfelde, 2016). Vislielākais risks iekļaujot skolēnu ar traucējumiem vispārējā izglītības iestādē, ir tas, ka neprasmīgi organizējot darbu, skolēns tikai fiziski atrodas kopā ar citiem klasē, bet neko neiemācās (Lebeer, 2005: 16). Pedagogu pētījumi liecina, ka skolēnu prieks par sasniegumiem nav atkarīgs no skolu tipa, kurā viņi mācās, bet no atbalsta un radītās mācību vides (Lebeer, 2005; Buckley & Bird, 2001).

Vecāki un skolotāji maldīgi domā, ka iespējams radīt iekļaujošu skolas vidi, kurā bērni vienmēr var gūt panākumus (Rimma, 2000: 25). Skolēni būtu jā māca saprast, ka uzvara un zaudējums vienmēr ir īslaicīgs. Skolotāja loma un pienākums veidot drošu, atbalstošu vidi klasē un mācību stundās, kā rezultātā skolēni ar attīstības traucējumiem var sākt nebaidīties no zaudējuma, tiem var veidoties piederības klasei sajūta. Piederības vajadzības izpaužas cilvēka tieksmē būt piederīgam kādai grupai, sazināties un sadraudzēties ar citiem cilvēkiem (Maļicka, 2004: 24). Piederības klasei sajūta var motivēt skolēnus ar speciālām vajadzībām apmeklēt skolu, kas atbalsta katra indivīda izaugsmi (Fišers, 2005: 168), kaut arī bez ievērojamiem mācību rezultātiem (Lanka, 1999). Rezumējot: ikvienā klasē iekļautajam skolēnam jānodrošina trīs galvenās iespējas: iepazīstināšana ar sevi (intereses, vēlmes, pieredze, u.c.), pašizpauze (dalība aktivitātēs un norisēs), atzinība (apliecinājums, ka skolēns ir sadzirdēts, atzīts, novērtēts). Tātad, ļoti svarīgas ir skolotāju darba tehnoloģijas strādājot klasēs, ja tajās ir iekļauti skolēni ar speciālām vajadzībām, īpaši svarīgas, ja tie ir skolēni ar garīgās attīstības traucējumiem.

Mācīšanas jēdziens, mūsdienīgā mācīšanas procesā, ietver atbildi uz četriem svarīgiem jautājumiem: kam jā māca skolēns ar speciālajām vajadzībām; kas viņam jā māca; kāpēc jā māca un kā jā māca (Burceva, Kalniņa, Lanka, & Pavītola, 2013: 144). Mūsdienu mācību procesam raksturīgs tehnoloģiju un mediju pielietojuma progress, kas ietekmē skolotāju, arī to skolotāju darbu, kuriem ikdienā jāstrādā ar skolēniem, ar speciālām vajadzībām. Skolotāju darba tehnoloģijas ir “mācību un ētikas prakse, veicinot mācīšanos un uzlabojot sniegumu, radot, izmantojot un pārvaldot atbilstošus tehnoloģiskos procesus un resursus” (Robinson, Molenda, & Rezabek, 2016). Skolotāju darba tehnoloģijas, attiecībā uz skolēnu ar speciālām mācīšanas vajadzībām izglītības procesu, jāsaprot kā skolotāja un skolēna teorētiskās un praktiskās pieejas, metodes, darba paņēmieni, darba sistēma, ar kuras palīdzību skolēns ar speciālām vajadzībām skolotāja vadībā mācās, iegūst prasmes, zināšanas, iemaņas, t.i., apgūst mācību vielu (Freimanis, 2007: 126). Skolotāju darba tehnoloģiju izvēli nosaka, galvenokārt, mācību mērķis, uzdevumi un saturs, bet ne mazāk nozīmīgi ir skolotāja attieksme attiecībā uz skolēnu ar speciālām vajadzībām, tai skaitā skolēna ar garīgās attīstības traucējumiem klātbūtni mācību procesā un iekšējo gatavību strādāt ar šo skolēnu; skolas un konkrētās klases vide; skolēna mācību motivācijas līmenis; satura un prasību, ko skolēnam jāapgūst, apjoms; skolēna aktīva dalība izglītošanas procesā; skolas materiāli tehniskās iespējas; informācijas tehnoloģiju pielietojuma stundā iespējas; skolēnu skaits klasē; skolas telpu sniegtās iespējas kopumā; pedagoga palīga vai asistenta klātesamība stundā.

Bērnam, lai viņš varētu veiksmīgi un aktīvi iekļauties stundas darbībā, jā jūtas drošam, aizsargātam, patstāvīgam un mīlētam (Freimanis, 2008: 124), skolotājam jāizvēlas un jāpielieto efektīvākās darba tehnoloģijas, lai panāktu

jēgpilnu un rezultatīvu skolēna ar speciālām vajadzībām darbu stundā; jāzina un jāievēro faktori, kas pozitīvi iespaido skolēnu ar speciālām vajadzībām darbību stundā, kā arī jāzina sasniegumus mazinošie faktori, lai stundu darbā tos nepieļautu.

### **Pētījuma rezultāti** *The research results*

Pētījumā tika iesaistīti abu dzimumu vispārējo un speciālo skolu skolotāji (n=210) vecumā no 25 – 62 gadiem, kuri piedalījās RTA rīkotajos skolotāju profesionālās pilnveidesursos un, kuru klasēs mācību procesā iekļauti skolēni ar speciālām vajadzībām.

**1. tab. Efektīvākās skolotāju darba tehnoloģijas strādājot ar mācību procesā iekļautiem skolēniem ar speciālajām vajadzībām**

*Table 1 The most efficient teachers' work techniques in educating pupils with special needs, who are included in the learning process*

<b>Skolotāja darba tehnoloģijas</b>	<b>Atbilžu skaits</b>
Uzskates, izdales, demonstrējuma pielietojums	208
Individuāla un diferencēta pieeja: skolēnu pieredzes, spēju, prasmju, interešu ievērošana	193
Praktiska darbošanās; mācību ekskursijas; eksperimenti; pētījumi klasē, apkārtnē; u .c.	195
Rotaļu, spēļu, krustvārdu mīklu, konkursu, radošu darbu, mūzikas, kustību, izstāžu, u.c. pielietojums	149
Dažāda veida regulāra, sistemātiska atkārtošana	102
Kooperatīvās darba metodes:	102
- prāta vētra	20
- grupu darbs	36
- pāru darbs	34
- projekts	10
IT pielietojums, video, filmu, sižetu analīze	73
Dažādas sensorās pieredzes pielietojums	47
Vārdisko metožu (saruna/pārruna/diskusija/jautājumi un atbildes) pielietojums	39
Situāciju analīze, citu cilvēku problēmu analīze	20
Integrētās mācības	18
Pārsteiguma momenta pielietojums	16
Klasesbiedru palīdzība/ skaidrojums	14
Atskaites par padarīto sniegšana, pašnovērtējums	13

Anketā bija jautājumi: personas, kā mērķa grupas pārstāvja, identifikācijai, tā darbības raksturojumam; jautājumi, kas nosaka respondenta attieksmi un uzskatus iekļaušanas procesu norisē; jautājumi, kas noskaidro skolotāju viedokli par pētāmo problēmu: skolotāja darba tehnoloģijas, kas veicina skolēnu ar speciālām vajadzībām izglītošanu, sasniegumus veicinošie faktori, un faktori, kas nedod labu rezultātu vai nav pielietojami masveidā. Skolotāju aptaujas atbilžu apkopojumu par efektīvākajām skolotāja darba tehnoloģijām strādājot ar skolēniem, kuriem ir garīgās attīstības traucējumi, skatīt 1. tabulā.

Analizējot skolotāju atbildes, varam secināt, ka lielākā daļa respondentu ir informēta un pielieto speciālās pedagogijas ieteikumus skolotāju darbam ar skolēniem, kuriem ir garīgās attīstības traucējumi. Skolotāji izprot uzskates, izdales, demonstrējuma pielietojuma stundās nozīmi, īsteno individuālo un diferencēto pieeju, organizē praktisku darbošanos stundu laikā, izmantojot arī spēles, rotaļas, mūziku, u.c.

Par cik, autores personīgā darba pieredze un nozīmīgu pedagogu pētījumi (Freimanis, 2007; Liepiņa, 2008; Aleksejeva & Bluša, 2002; Apeirons, 2007; Šūmane, 2012; Корсакова, Микадзе, & Балашова, 2002; Кузнецова, 2002; Назарова, 2000; Пузанов, Коняева, & Горский, 2001; u.c.) pierāda, ka bez skolotāju pielietotajām darba tehnoloģijām mācību stundās, ir vesela virkne skolēnu ar garīgās attīstības traucējumiem mācību sasniegumus veicinošu un mazinošu faktoru, autorei svarīgi bija noskaidrot: kādus mācību sasniegumus veicinošus un mazinošus faktorus saskata skolotāji praktiķi. Skolotāju nosaukto mācību sasniegumus veicinošo faktoru apkopojumu var skatīt 2. tabulā.

2. tab. Skolotāju nosaukto mācību sasniegumus veicinošo faktoru apkopojums  
 Table 2 The summary of the factors contributing to the learning achievements  
 (named by teachers)

Mācību sasniegumus veicinoši faktori	Atbilžu skaits
Skolotāja vieglā valoda, skaidri formulējumi, tiešas norādes	183
Starppriekšmetu saikne	161
Emocionāli pozitīva vide	144
Skolotāja klātbūtne, personiskais piemērs	120
Tēmas saistība ar reālo dzīvi	112
Pakāpeniskums (no vienkāršā uz sarežģīto)	112
Skolotāju kā komandas darbs un savstarpēja pieredzes apmaiņa	102
Noteikta darba (arī dienas) kārtība	102
Motivācija ar apbalvojumiem: uzlīmes, uzslava, ekskursija, konfektes, pasākums, samīlošana, u.c.	85
Fiziskas aktivitātes, kustības stundas gaitā	75
Darbības veidu maiņa (ne vairāk kā 3)	74
Vecāku kā skolotāja palīgu iesaiste	23

Kā nozīmīgu skolotāji minēja arī: vienotu skolotāju prasību, stingru un labvēlīgu noteikumu visiem nepieciešamību; komunikācijas, kas vērsta uz sadarbību, nepieciešamību; skolotāja prasmju būt vienlaicīgi scenāristam, scenogrāfam, režisoram, aktierim nepieciešamību; pārdomātas stundas sākuma organizācijas nepieciešamību un nepieciešamo milzu pacietību darbā ar šiem skolēniem, jo ātru rezultātu un nozīmīgu sasniegumu nebūs, viss tiks apgūts lēnām un pamazām. Skolotāji norāda uz nepieciešamību runāt tieši, saukt lietas īstos vārdos, nelietot pārnestas nozīmes, zemtekstus, mājienus, humoru, u.c. Analizējot skolotāju atbildes, jāatzīmē, ka kopumā tās saskan ar speciālajā pedagoģijā, attiecībā uz skolēnu ar garīgās attīstības traucējumiem izglītošanas organizācijas, plānošanas, stundu darba norisi, norādīto: ļoti svarīga ir emocionālā vide, vienkārša skolotāja valoda un personiskais piemērs, starppriekšmetu saikne, tēmas saistība ar reālo dzīvi un virzīšanās no vienkāršā uz sarežģīto, kā arī vienotas skolotāju prasības (Freimanis, 2007; Liepiņa, 2008; Корсакова, Микадзе, & Балашова, 2002; Кузнецова, 2002; Назарова, 2000; Пузанов, Коняева, & Горский, 2001; u.c.)

Runājot par iemesliem, kas mazina skolotāja stundas darba ar iekļautiem skolēniem ar garīgās attīstības traucējumiem efektivitāti, par faktoriem, kas mazina mācību sasniegumus, skolotāji nosauc:

- tieša norādīšana uz kļūdu, šī vārda lietošana vispār,
- darbošanās visiem kopā, lielā grupā, reizēm arī grupu darbs, ja tas nav ikdienā ierastā stundas darba metode,
- neatbilstoši uzdevumi, uzdevumi ar vairākiem nosacījumiem,
- vienmuļa darbība, bez redzama/taustāma rezultāta,
- izmaiņas dienas kārtībā,
- trokšņi klasē, koridorā, ārā,
- materiāli īstenībai neatbilstošās krāsās,
- pārblīvētas, ar daudziem uzdevumiem darba lapas,
- neprasme strādāt ar grāmatu (konspektu veidošana, teksta analīze, būtiskā izdalīšana, analogiju meklēšana, u.c.),
- neprasme strādāt ar izziņas/informācijas avotiem,
- diskusijas, dialogs,
- asociāciju meklēšana.

Aptaujā iekļauto skolotāju pieredze darbā ar skolēniem, kuriem ir garīgās attīstības traucējumi, ir dažāda, skolēnu īpatnību izpratne arī dažāda, tāpat kā dažāds ir skolotāju darba tehnoloģiju pielietojums. Skolotāji piezīmēs izsakās par to, ka skolēni ar garīgās attīstības traucējumiem paši, tāpat kā runājam par jaunās paaudzes bērniem kopumā, salīdzinoši ir mainījušies, tāpat kā jāmainās ir skolotāju darbam. Vēl viena skolotāju atziņa – var valstī izstrādāt jaunus metodiskos un darba līdzekļus, prasīt skolotājam strādāt ar vismodernākajām

pedagoģiskajām, IT tehnoloģijām un lietpratības pieejām, bet, ja tam visam skolā, pagastā, ģimenēs nav finansiāla nodrošinājuma, ir pamatotas šaubas par reālo rezultātu: lai kaut ko paņemt, vispirms ir kaut kas jāieliek, nevis jāapelē pie skolotāju godaprāta un atbildības sajūtas.

### **Secinājumi** **Conclusions**

1. Viens no skolotāju, kas strādā ar vispārējās izglītības iestādēs iekļautiem skolēniem ar garīgās attīstības traucējumiem, galvenajiem uzdevumiem: radīt skolēnam ar garīgās attīstības traucējumiem piederības klasei sajūtu: esmu ieraudzīts, sadzirdēts, pieņemts, novērtēts.
2. Skolotājiem, kas strādā ar vispārējās izglītības iestādēs iekļautiem skolēniem ar garīgās attīstības traucējumiem, darba tehnoloģiju izvēlei pamatā jābāzējas uz skolēna garīgās attīstības traucējumu noteiktās prāta, domāšanas, uztveres, sajūtu, atmiņas, valodas īpatnību sapratni, ņemot vērā tos faktorus un skolotāja darba noteikumus, kas var radīt un pastiprināt skolēna sasniegumus.

### **Summary**

Today's children, including the ones with mental disorders, have to learn living in a constantly changing world and be prepared to create an unprecedented economic, political, social and cultural environment in the future (*Skola 2030, 2017: 5*). Therefore, it is important to make every effort for the adjustment of the inclusion processes in the country by supporting teachers of general education institutions who, as a result of the processes, are going to work in classes that will have to implement the new competence acquisition techniques in the future. A teacher will have to turn from the information carrier to the organizer of the information acquisition (*Rubana, 2004: 69*), as well as the development, growth and socialization of pupils with mental disorders must be achieved at the same time. The role and responsibility of a teacher are to create a safe, supportive environment in a class and lessons, so pupils with mental disorders are not going to be afraid of loss, and they may develop a sense of belonging to a class. The sense of belonging to a class can motivate pupils with special needs to attend a school that supports the growth of each individual (*Fišers, 2005: 168*), although without significant learning achievements (*Lanka, 1999*). Each pupil, included in a class, has three main opportunities: self-presentation (interests, desires, experiences, etc.), self-expression (participation in activities and events), and recognition (confirmation that a pupil is heard, recognized, appreciated). So, the techniques of teachers working in classes are very significant if they include pupils with special needs. The techniques are especially important if they are pupils with mental disorders.

A child should feel safe, protected, independent and loved, so he/she would be able to participate in lessons successfully and actively (*Freimanis, 2008: 124*); a teacher must choose and apply the most efficient work techniques in order to reach a meaningful and effective pupil's with special needs performance during a lesson. The factors having a positive effect on the

activities of pupils with special needs during a lesson should be known and considered, and the factors reducing the achievements have to be known in order to prevent them in lessons.

The topicality determined the objective of research: *to find out the most efficient teachers' work techniques and factors contributing to the achievements within lessons with pupils with mental disorders*. Research methods: survey (*Ievads pētniecībā: stratēģijas, dizaini, metodes, 2011: 157–163; Geske & Grīnfelds, 2001: 113–121*), processing of statistical data, content analysis (for processing of qualitative data) (*Kropļijs & Riekščevska, 2004: 121*). The study involved teachers of both genders working in comprehensive and special schools (n=210), aged 25-62, who took part in teachers' professional development courses organized by RTA and have pupils with special needs, who are included in the educational process in their classes.

The analysis of the teachers' answers shows that the majority of respondents are aware and apply the special pedagogy recommendations for work with pupils with mental disorders. Teachers understand the importance of usage of teaching aids, handouts, demonstration in lessons (n=208), implement the individual and differentiated approach (n=193), and organize practical work in lessons (n=195), using games, playful activities, music, crossword puzzles (n=149), cooperative working methods (n=102), etc. In addition to the techniques employed by teachers in lessons, there is a whole range of factors contributing to and reducing learning achievements for pupils with mental disorders. Teachers mention the following as the main contributing factors: emotional environment (n=144), simple language of a teacher (n=183) and personal example (n = 120), interdisciplinary relation (n=161), relevance of a topic to real life (n=112) and moving from the simple to the complex (n=112), necessity for unified teachers' requirements and strict and favourable rules for all; need for communication aimed at cooperation; teacher's ability to be a scriptwriter, stage designer, director, and actor simultaneously; need for a thought-out organization of the beginning of a lesson, and necessity for a great deal of patience in work with these pupils, because there will be no quick results and no significant achievements - everything is going to be obtained slowly and gradually. Teachers point to the need to speak directly, name things in real words, not to use transferred meanings, subtitles, hints, humour, etc. Analyzing the teachers' answers, it should be noted that they are in line with special pedagogy in general, as regards the organization of pupils' with mental disorders education, the planning process, and the progress in lessons.

In the notes, teachers state that pupils with mental disorders themselves, as well as talking about children of new generation as a whole, have changed relatively, so the teachers' work has to change. Another teacher's conclusion is that there can be developed new methods and tools in the country, a teacher can be asked to work with the most advanced pedagogical, IT technologies and competence approaches, but if there is no financial provision for all of that in a school, parish, and families, there are reasonable doubts about the real result. In order to receive something, there should be added something in the first place and not made an appeal to teachers' ethics, honesty, and responsibility.

### **Conclusions**

1. One of the main tasks of teachers, working with pupils with mental disorders included in general education institutions, is to create a sense of belonging: I have been seen, heard, accepted, appreciated.
2. Teachers, working with pupils with mental disorders included in general education institutions, should choose the techniques based on the understanding of the mind, thinking, perception, sense, memory, and language defined by the pupil's mental development disorder, taking into account the factors and the teacher's work rules that can create and reinforce the pupil's achievements.



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# POSSIBILITIES OF SUPPORT OF SPECIAL NEEDS STUDENTS AT THE GRADUATION EXAM - CASE STUDY OF A STUDENT WITH ASPERGER SYNDROME FOCUSING ON THE MODIFICATION OF GRADUATION EXAM CONDITIONS

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**Abstract.** *The aim of the paper is the theoretical anchoring of the autism spectrum disorder focusing mainly on the Asperger syndrome, as well as the classification of disorders according to the International Statistical Classification of Diseases (ICD-10) and the Diagnostic and Statistical Manual (DSM-V). The paper contains an overview of the legal regulations related to the possible modifications of the common part of the graduation exam. The research part is based on qualitative methodology, it includes a case study. Based on an intentional selection (age and diagnosis), a student with Asperger syndrome was chosen for the case study, who applied at the educational support center for the modification of the graduation exam conditions. Regarding the data collection, the research methods included a semi-structured interview with the legal representatives (with the consent of the student of age), and a class teacher, and the study of the documents kept in the educational support center. The research part contains information on the personal and schooling history, as well as on the symptoms reflecting the diagnostic dyad. The conclusion offers an overview of the specific support measures provided to the student for the common part of the national graduation exam. The aim of the study is to explore whether the symptoms of the Asperger syndrome diagnosis reflected in the deficiencies at school may be fully compensated through the modification of the graduation exam conditions.*

**Keywords:** *autism spectrum disorder, Asperger syndrome, modification of graduation exam conditions, supportive measures.*

## Introduction

Despite the fact that the first mention of autism of Kanner's concept appeared more than 70 years ago, even now autism causes widespread discussions. The reason is that due to its increasing occurrence in the population, autism is viewed as an acute health and social problem (Čadilová, Thorová, & Žampachová, 2012). According to the statistical data of the Centers for Disease Control and Prevention (CDC) from 2016, there is 1.5 % of children with autism in the U.S., (Čadilová & Žampachová, 2016). The authors also state that almost 60 % of students with the

autism spectrum disorder are educated within the main stream educational system. During the school year of 2015/2016, there were 837 students with autism in high schools. The students of the high school majors ending with the graduation exam may apply at the educational support center (special education center) for a recommendation modifying the conditions of the common part of the graduation exam. According to the legal regulations in effect, the students with Asperger syndrome are categorized in a group together with individuals with specific learning disabilities. Based on the examination, to which the student of age or the legal representative gives a written consent, the trained expert of the center writes an assessment where according to the deficiencies of the student the expert chooses from a set of possible supportive measures. The main research question is whether the supportive measures stated in the legal regulation fully compensate for the difficulties of the students resulting from the basic diagnosis of Asperger syndrome. The research part of the paper includes a case study of a grammar school student with Asperger's reflecting the deficiencies of the diagnostic dyad affecting in particular the study outcomes.

### **Autism Spectrum Disorder**

The autism spectrum disorder is rated among the children's mental developmental disorders since such a child develops differently right from the early stages. "This category includes serious developmental disorders whose beginning can be traced to early childhood and which are characterized by quantitative malfunction of social interaction, communication, and a tendency towards stereotypical and ritual behavior. Therefore, it is regarded as a pervasive developmental disorder where the term pervasive is interpreted as all-encompassing and it reflects the fact that the child's development has deficiencies that are manifested in many aspects" (Říhová & Vitásková, 2012: 7).

According to Thorová (2012), the autism spectrum disorder represents a grave neurodevelopmental disorder which manifests itself during the first years of the person's life. Cottini and Vivanti (2017: 21) provide the definition of autism as follows: "Autism is an organic disorder caused by genetic predisposition, which together with the risk factors in the environment result in modified development of the brain that manifests itself later on in disturbed cognitive development of various levels and consequently abnormal behavior."

Today, there are two respected and widely used diagnostic systems. According to Thorová (2012), Europe uses the diagnostic criteria published by the World Health Organization, while in the U.S. they employ the criteria published by the American Psychiatric Association. The World Health Organization categorizes the autism spectrum disorder in the 10th revision of the International Statistical Classification of Diseases and Related Health Problems

(ICD-10) under the umbrella of pervasive developmental disorders, which belong to the category of disorders of psychological development. The following pervasive developmental disorders can be found in this classification: Childhood autism, Atypical autism, Rett's syndrome, Other childhood disintegrative disorder, Overactive disorder associated with mental retardation and stereotyped movements, Asperger syndrome, Other disorders of psychological development, Unspecified disorder of psychological development.

The above stated classification systems highly corresponded with each other up until 2013. The current Diagnostic and Statistical Manual of Mental Disorders, Fifth edition (DSM-V; Czech edition: Raboch, Hrdlička, Mohr, Pavlovský, & Ptáček, 2015) introduces a range of changes regarding not only the terminological concept, but also the classification of this group of disorders. Unlike ICD, this system establishes the term of the autism spectrum disorder to label these types of disorders. The category further distinguishes the disorders: With or without accompanying intellectual impairment; With or without accompanying language impairment; Associated with a known medical or genetic condition or environmental factor; Associated with other neurodevelopmental, mental, or behavioral disorder; With catatonia.

Some individuals with the autism spectrum disorder, including children, teenagers, and adults with good cognitive abilities would lose the diagnosis based on DSM-V. Therefore, people diagnosed according to the criteria of DSM-IV can keep the diagnosis. The new classification criteria will be applied only to the newly diagnosed individuals. Also, DSM-V defines a new diagnosis – social communication disorder – for people with deficiencies mainly in the pragmatic aspects of language (Volkmar & Wiesner, 2017).

Autism spectrum disorder describes a diverse group of disorders. The individual disorders differ from one another by the severity and frequency of the symptoms. It is possible to state that the typical feature of the autism spectrum disorder is an unbalanced development. The autism symptoms may vary, however, they tend to be permanent. In cases of appropriate educational intervention it is possible to observe some reduction of the symptoms in several areas of development (Cottini & Vivanti 2017; Čadilová et al., 2012).

As mentioned above, the child's development is severely impaired in many aspects; the crucial areas of deficiencies are referred to as the triad of symptoms. The term triad of impairments was first used by a British psychiatrist Lorna Wing who defined the problematic aspects that are essential for the diagnosis of the autism spectrum disorder. Despite the progress of science with respect to our knowledge about the biology of development and psychology, currently there is no diagnostic methodology or biological test based on which it would be possible to determine the autism disorders. Therefore the diagnosis of autism is always determined based on the child's behavior with respect to the major problem areas

(Bogdashina, 2017; Říhová, 2011; Thorová, 2012). When we analyze the child's behavior, we should be able, according to Cottini and Vivanti (2017), to register the impairment both in social communication and interaction with others, as well as in the abilities to organize one's conduct – flexibly, not stereotypically.

The specific symptoms, the so called diagnostic triad, include an impairment of imagination, social interaction, and communication. The concept of symptomatologic triad was redefined under DSM-V resulting in a symptomatologic dyad, see Figure 1. Thus the deficiencies in social interaction and communication were united in one common category since the impairment in these two areas do not reflect two different deficiencies but only one. Social communication includes both the deficiencies in verbal and non-verbal communication and the defects in social area including limited ability to start any social interaction and the ability to react to other person's initiative. The deficiencies in imagination manifest themselves in the form of limited repertoire of activities and interests, and stereotypical, repeating behavior (Cottini & Vivanti 2017).

Based on the assessment of functionality, there is also a classification of autism spectrum disorder of high-functioning and low-functioning autistic individuals. However, this categorization is not a widely recognized classification system. The low-functioning autism refers to children whose intellectual abilities and communication skills are below average. The high-functioning autism includes children whose cognitive and communication abilities are average. Asperger syndrome comes under this category (Cottini & Vivanti, 2017).

### **Asperger Syndrome**

In 1944, Hans Asperger, a psychiatrist from Vienna, published an article based on his dissertation about young boys who had serious social problems but also decent language and all-encompassing bizarre interests. He described the Asperger syndrome which he considered a personality disorder at that time (Volkmar & Wiesner, 2017; Thorová, 2012). Currently, Attwood (2005) comments that it is the most discussed autism spectrum disorder, which is characterized by disharmonious personality development with predominant deficiencies in communication and social interaction. Thorová (2012) states that the prevalence of the syndrome is 8:1; it is diagnosed more often for boys. The category of Asperger syndrome was officially recognized in DSM-IV in 1994; in DSM-V, however, this nosological unit is dropped altogether. DSM-V also defines a new category – social communication disorder – for people with difficulties mainly with respect to the pragmatic use of language (Volkmar & Wiesner, 2017). The specifics of the pragmatic aspect among people with the autism spectrum disorder are the focus of e.g. Vitásková and Kytnarová (2017).

As Čadilová et al. (2012) explains, Asperger syndrome represents qualitative deficiencies in the diagnostic triad like in autism, but without the cognitive impairment since intelligence of people with Asperger's ranges from average to high average. Vosmik and Bělohávková (in Pastieriková, 2013: 45) specify how the Asperger syndrome is manifested. "Mental development is impaired similarly to childhood autism in the area of social interaction, communication, and imagination. Social skills are substantially limited and accompanied by delayed emotional maturity. What is characteristic of this syndrome is the unbalanced arrangement of the person's abilities."

Lorna Wing (in Říhová, 2011) specifies the clinical symptoms of the Asperger syndrome as follows: lack of empathy, difficulties with adaptation to the social context, pedantically precise language, inability or limited ability to make friends and maintain relationships, deficiencies in non-verbal communication, motor clumsiness, inadequate motor positions, atypical interests in specific phenomena or objects.

The deficiencies associated with the Asperger syndrome manifest themselves in practice by the difficulties when forming new relationships with others, as well as when integrating oneself in the group of peers. People with Asperger's form strong friendly bonds only very rarely. They have difficulties understanding the social rules. Similarly, grasping the meaning of non-verbal communication is also usually quite complicated. Facial expressions and hand gestures are only limited for individuals with the Asperger syndrome; they engage in unusual interests, they may react negatively to any changes. Typically, they employ quite a specific way of thinking and logic. Furthermore, these people more often suffer from anxiety, depression, behavioral disorder – aggression, destructivity, self-injury. The problem behavior may be accompanied by impulsivity, attention deficit hyperactivity disorder, and compulsive behavior (Thorová, 2008). A study from 2007 cited by Čadilová, Jůn and Thorová (2007) pointed out that Asperger syndrome occurs in the population more often than the childhood autism.

### **Educating the Special Needs Students**

An important change in the possibilities of support that can be provided to children, pupils, and students with health disabilities came with the amendment of the education law no. 561/2004 of the Code and the regulation no. 27/2017 of the Code on educating students with special educational needs and gifted students. The term "child, pupil, and student with special educational needs" replaced the previously used term "child, pupil, and student with health disability". The phrase describes a person "who needs to be provided various supportive measures to fulfill his/her educational possibilities or to employ or use his/her rights of equal

nature with other people.” The aforementioned legal regulations did not modify only the terminology, but also the range of possible support for the children, pupils, and students with special needs. The supportive measures of 1<sup>st</sup> to 5<sup>th</sup> level were introduced which represent an assistance to the teacher who works with a child whose education requires certain modification of the educational process. The supportive measures represent a modification of the teaching methods, content, and output of the schooling process, alteration of the education organization, individual education plan, providing personal support, adjustment of the child’s evaluation, providing intervention, modification of conditions for the enrolment in a school and for ending the school, expanding the length of education, use of teaching aids and special textbooks.

The level of the provided support is assigned to the children, pupils, and students with special needs by the educational support center, i.e. the pedagogical-psychological center and the special education center. According to the article 2 par. 1-3 of the regulation no. 27/2017 of the Code, the supportive measures of the 1<sup>st</sup> level represent minimal modification of the methods, organization, and evaluation of the educational process. These supportive measures do not have assigned any standardized financial costs, i.e. they are not paid from the state budget. On the other hand, the supportive measures of the second to fifth levels are provided based on the educational support center’s recommendation and with the informed consent of the student of age, or his/her legal representative. These measures are financed by the government.

Counselling services and care for special needs students, in our case children, pupils, and students with the autism spectrum disorder, are provided by the special education center with the consent of the legal representative or the student of age. Based on the written, personal, or phone request the client gets an appointment where his/her educational needs are assessed. Underage student needs to come with his/her legal representative who provides the special education center with reports from doctors and clinical experts. To assess the client’s special needs comprehensively, information from the school needs to be obtained through an educational report form filled out by the client’s teacher. On the basis of all the acquired information and the results of the examination, the specialized staff writes the Recommendation for Education, which is sent to school afterwards through the data box. The headmaster of the school is then obliged to discuss the recommended supportive measures with the legal representatives who confirm their consent with their signature. After that, the supportive measures are applied immediately. In the Recommendation for Education the educational support center states the exact period during which the supportive measures need to be provided, while the period cannot exceed two years.

One of the supportive measures that may be recommended is the modification of graduation exam conditions. For the purpose of the graduation



exam of special needs students there has been introduced the term – student with acknowledged modification of the graduation exam conditions. Any changes of the graduation exam are possible only based on the request submitted to the educational support center by the student of age, when the trained staff releases a Recommendation based on which the student’s graduation exam takes place in a way corresponding to his/her educational needs. For the purpose of the modification of graduation exam conditions, students with autism spectrum disorder get included in the category of students with specific learning disabilities and other, referred to by an abbreviation SPUO.

The modification of graduation exam conditions for students with acknowledged changes of the exam is possible according to the reg. 177/2009 of the Code in the following ways – modification of the environment, prolonging the time limit, changes to the test documents, use of compensation aids, and assistance. Specific options of modifications for students with Asperger syndrome are depicted in Table 1. According to the level of support, these students fall either in Group 2 or Group 3. The target group of students that fall in the Group 1 based on the level of the provided support are children with specific learning disabilities.

Table 1 **An overview of the modifications of the common part of the graduation exam**

Category of students	Modifications acc. to 177/2009 Code
Group 2	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• prolonging the time limit by 50 %</li> <li>• formal and content modification of the test documents</li> <li>• option of writing the results directly to the test booklet</li> <li>• compensation aids</li> </ul>
Group 3	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• prolonging the time limit by 100 %</li> <li>• same modifications like for Group 2</li> <li>• assistance</li> </ul>

### **Research Study – Methodology**

The main research method was a case study within a purposely selected sample. The research sample was chosen based on age, type of high school, and diagnosis. The research study focuses on a young man with the diagnosis of Asperger syndrome who is in the fourth year at a grammar school.

The principal methods of the research used to collect the information about the student with Asperger’s was a semi structured interview with the legal representatives (with the consent of the student of age) and with the student’s class teacher, as well as a study of the documents.

## **Case Study**

Young man from the first pregnancy of the mother, spontaneous birth at full term, for a short period the boy was placed in an incubator. Breastfed up to 18 months of age. Both parents have college degrees. All family members are healthy; the boy has a younger sibling.

The early psychometric development was slightly delayed as regards the motor activity, independent walking commenced around 18 months of age. On the other hand, the speech development was on higher level, when at the age of two he used complex sentences and managed to listen to long texts that were read to him. In the infant period, he wept often and he had troubles with sleep. When reaching the toddler stage he seemed like a quiet child. Since early childhood, his parents observed bizarre interests and special way of thinking.

The boy started attending a kindergarten when he was three and he had no significant problems with the adaptation. Due to his difficulties with graphomotor activity as well as considerable psychomotor restlessness the boy was advised a postponement of the compulsory education. In the first grade, there were problems with fine and gross motor skills, slow working pace in mathematics, difficulties with reading and writing. There were obvious problems with integration in the peer group. The boy achieved excellent study results in the elementary school, however he needed individual approach of the teachers. After finishing the compulsory education, he continued studying at the multi-year grammar school. During the second year at the grammar school, there appeared some inappropriate reactions; during the breaks between lessons he had conflicts with his schoolmates which then resulted in depressive moods and self-harm behavior. It was possible to mitigate the symptoms only with medication. Especially due to the elimination of the problematic behavior and training of communication and social skills, the educational support center recommended the support of a teaching assistant who the student has had available until today.

Since he was 6, he has been under a regular psychological care. He has been monitored especially because of the difficulties in social contact but also the learning disabilities at school. Based on the examination in the pedagogical psychological center, a learning disability was diagnosed – dysgraphia. Repeated psychological examination revealed above average intellectual abilities of the boy. When he was 13, based on a psychiatric examination the boy received the diagnosis of Asperger syndrome (grave symptomatology, active in social contact but bizarre). After the diagnosis was determined, the boy became a client of the special education center.

When he was 15.5 years old, the boy underwent an examination by the clinical psychologist in an association supporting people with autism (APLA) where the diagnosis of Asperger syndrome was repeatedly confirmed; regarding

the adaptability he is highly functional with deficiencies in social skills, which is compensated by the above average intelligence. The boy was also diagnosed with attention deficit hyperactivity disorder (ADHD) on the basis of another examination.

Currently, the young man is in the last year at the grammar school. In the school, he studies with the support of a teaching assistant and his education follows the individual education plan which is based on the School Education Program. In the school he has no problems with managing the curriculum, he achieves excellent study results. Currently, the symptomatology of the autism spectrum disorder prevails in the area of social behavior, communication, and interests. There are obvious limits in social pragmatic skills, markedness in social-communication contact, reduced spontaneity, rigid attitudes, limited ability of social reciprocity.

Symptoms manifested in the area of verbal expression are as follows – the intonation of a sentence is abnormal, he tends to interpret all information literally, he chooses inadequate words for the given communication situation, has troubles with the understanding of abstract terms, irony, and exaggeration. In specific communication situations he uses unusual or inadequate ways of formulating his thoughts, he has difficulties when describing his emotions and experiences, in the reciprocity of communication; he is afraid of speaking to or in front of strangers. His verbal expression does not always correspond to the social context of the given situation. He has difficulties with establishing and maintaining eye contact. His social communication is unusual. He applies the social rules that he has learnt without any regard to the actual social situation; he has deficiencies in noticing the non-verbal signals of the communication partner and comprehending their meaning. His control of emotions is weak, adaptability is lower, he has hard time coping with changes in the usual order and routine. Hypersensitivity or excessive fear, even anxious reactions to various impulses can be also observed. When modifying his graduation exam conditions, the student was included in the SPUO-3 category.

For the final state exam, under the recommended supportive measures, the young man was provided a support in the form of the time limit prolonged by 100 %, formal adjustment of the didactic test, content modification of the didactic test, assistance, being tested in a separate room, written part of the test was done on PC, and the diagnosed symptoms were tolerated in his writing.

### **Conclusion**

The first part of the paper focuses on the theoretical introduction of the autism spectrum disorder, mainly the Asperger syndrome which represents a separate nosologic unit in the 10<sup>th</sup> revision of ICD. It is characterized by

qualitative impairment of the reciprocal social interaction and repeated, limited, and stereotypical set of interests and activities (Vitásková et al., 2016; Thorová, 2012). The research part of the paper was performed in the form of a case study and offers a closer look at the possibilities of supportive measures recommended by the educational support center with respect to the modification of the graduation exam conditions.

As a part of a specific grant research titled “The research on impairment and deviations of communication ability and orofacial system in a speech and language therapy perspective“ (IGA\_PdF\_2017\_026), this paper was compiled under the title *The Possibilities of Support of Special Needs Students at the Graduation Exam*.

The presented paper offers a theoretical introduction to the issue of the autism spectrum disorder, especially focusing on the Asperger syndrome, its anchoring in the classification systems, discussing the symptoms of the diagnosis, as well as an overview of possible modifications of the graduation exam conditions in accordance with the legal regulations of the Czech Republic. The topic of educating the individuals with Asperger syndrome in high schools of the main education stream, and subsequent ending of the study is a current issue. It is the subject of a wide discussion of the lawmakers. The findings of the present study and similar researches might help adjust the legal regulations in such a way that they are more convenient to the special educational needs of the students.

The research part reveals that the symptoms of the basic diagnosis – Asperger syndrome – are not possible to fully compensate for by the educational support staff when modifying the graduation exam condition. The reason is that that legal regulations in effect offer only several specific areas that may be modified at the graduation exam. Contrary to that, the recommendation for education issued by the special education center during the schooling process to compensate for the special needs, makes it possible for the expert to individually specify the possibilities of support for each student. The case study within the research focuses on a student of the fourth grade at a grammar school, who will sit the graduation exam this school year, i.e. 2017/2018. Further research will be performed after passing the graduation exam when it is possible to assess whether the selected supportive measures were sufficient and the student passed the common part of the graduation exam.

To conclude, it is possible to state that the possibilities of the graduation exam modifications is an issue requiring further studies and research with the aim to achieve such legal regulations that would enable the educational support staff to provide individual support that would fully compensate for the deficiencies resulting from the basic diagnosis of the student.

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**ПОНЯТИЕ ТОЛЕРАНТНОСТИ В СИСТЕМЕ  
СОЦИАЛЬНОЙ АДАПТАЦИИ МИГРАНТОВ -  
КОМПОНЕНТ НЕФОРМАЛЬНОГО ОБРАЗОВАНИЯ  
(НА ПРИМЕРЕ КАНАДСКОЙ ПРОВИНЦИИ  
КВЕБЕК И ФРАНЦИИ)**

*Concept of Tolerance in the System of Social Adaptation of  
Migrants as a Component of Non-Formal Education (Illustrated in  
the Model of Canadian Province of Quebec and France)*

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**Abstract.** *The article deals with the notion of tolerance as one of the key values of modern democratic society, included in educational programs of universities, informal organizations, private foundations, religious communities promoting tolerance in the framework of non-formal education. The experience of Canada (classical approaches) and France (innovation) in the field of non-formal education is presented. Due to its flexibility, non-formal education plays a major role in the integration of migrants of different age, social and ethnic groups, determining the prospects for employment, social adaptation, personal development and participation in the state's democratic life. The issue of socio-cultural adaptation of migrants is of great importance in the contemporary world due to such global undesirable processes as religious and ethnic conflicts, cases of racial discrimination. Migration is a natural process in the era of globalization, which, however, necessitates the adaptation of migrants to the host country's cultural background. While European countries, recently experiencing an influx of migrants, are urgently searching for mechanisms for adapting the previous socio-cultural experience of migrants to the lifestyle, behavioral norms of the host country, Canadian province of Quebec has been efficiently using the tools of formal and non-formal education for over fifty years to build a more humane and tolerant attitude of citizens to each other, to eliminate conflicts and social aggression.*

**Keywords:** *Quebec, migrants, non-formal education, socio-cultural adaptation, tolerance, France.*

## **Введение** ***Introduction***

Одной из ключевых ценностей современного мира является толерантность. Вопросы толерантности занимают сегодня особое место в связи с такими глобальными нежелательными процессами как религиозные и межэтнические конфликты, случаи расовой дискриминации.

Наиболее полное и точное определения термина «толерантность» представлено в Декларации принципов толерантности от 16 ноября 1995 года, где он трактуется как «уважение, принятие и правильное понимание богатого многообразия культур нашего мира, наших форм самовыражения и способов проявлений человеческой индивидуальности» (ст. 1.1). В ст. 4 этой же Декларации подчеркивается важность правильной организации процесса воспитания для предотвращения проявлений нетерпимости. В частности, в тексте Декларации записано: «Политика и программы в области образования должны способствовать улучшению взаимопонимания, укреплению солидарности и терпимости в отношениях как между отдельными людьми, так и между этническими, социальными, культурными, религиозными и языковыми группами, а также нациями» (Организация Объединенных Наций, 1995). Современные французские ученые (Waterlot, 1998), (Guillot, 2009) также подчеркивают важность формирования толерантности, рассматривая толерантность как социальную ценность, моральную норму, принцип человеческих взаимоотношений, проявляющиеся в уважении к чужим идеям, обычаям, верованиям, политическим убеждениям, интересам, чувствам.

Необходимо обратить внимание на то, что для некоторых стран проблема толерантности особенно актуальна ввиду большого числа мигрантов, составляющих значительный процент населения. Например, целенаправленная социально-воспитательная работа позволяет использовать возможности и находить решение проблем, связанных с возрастающим числом мигрантов и беженцев в странах Северной Америки (Канада, США) и Европейского Союза (Франция, Германия); она помогает вновь прибывшим мигрантам узнать и принять демократические ценности и способствует межкультурному диалогу, взаимному пониманию между мигрантами и населением принимающей их страны. Таким образом, адаптация мигрантов происходит через их социализацию. Большинство ученых под социализацией личности понимают процесс усвоения и воспроизводства ею культурных ценностей и социальных норм, а также саморазвитие и самореализацию в том обществе, где она проживает (Галус О. М., 2010).

Одним из эффективных инструментов социализации личности является образование, в частности, неформальное. На основе анализа научной литературы можно выделить несколько определений неформального образования. Согласно Европейской Ассоциации Образования Взрослых *неформальное образование* – целенаправленная организованная деятельность, целью которой является способствование процессу, в рамках которого человек имеет возможность развивать самосознание и осознавать свое место в мире, а также воспользоваться возможностями, которые появляются в социальных связях и личной жизни благодаря повышению уровня знаний, соотношению собственных мыслей и чувств с мыслями и чувствами других людей (Federighi, 1999).

Европейский Центр Развития Профессионального Образования (Cedefop) дает следующее определение: *неформальное образование* – это образование, основанное на планируемой деятельности, которое явно не отмечено как обучение (с точки зрения задач, продолжительности или поддержки тех, кто учится), но которое содержит значительный образовательный элемент и обычно не заканчивается сертификацией (Bulgarelli & European Centre for the Development of Vocational Training, 2007).

Эффективность неформального образования обусловлена такими характеристиками как: *гибкость*, так как оно способно охватить все слои населения, независимо от возраста и социального статуса, рабочей или академической занятости; *практико-ориентированный подход*, поскольку направлено на решение конкретных задач по приобретению бытовых и социальных навыков, профессиональных компетенций; *личностная мотивированность* участников процесса неформального образования; *адекватное и актуальное обновление содержания* образовательных программ в зависимости от потребностей как обучающихся, так и общества в целом. Вопросам неформального образования посвящены работы таких исследователей как Д. Кирби и Э. Холетт (Kirby et al., 2009), М. Ясунага (Yasunaga, 2014), Каррон и Карр-Хилл (Carron & Carr-Hill, 1991) и некоторых других. Важность вопросов неформального образования обсуждается также в рамках Организации Экономического Развития и Сотрудничества (ОЭСД, 2007).

Целью данного исследования является изучение опыта Франции и канадской провинции Квебек по привитию толерантности мигрантам, а также определение роли неформального образования в решении данной задачи.

Методы исследования включают в себя исторический анализ, анализ литературы, анализ статистических данных, а также компаративный анализ.



## **Опыт Канады** *Canada's Experience*

Канадское общество традиционно построено на иммигрантах, а иммиграция рассматривается как явление, тесно связанное с образом Канады как самой мультикультурной, разнообразной и толерантной нации.

В наши дни количество мигрантов в Канаде неуклонно растет: к 2006 году в Канаде сформировалось тридцать четыре этнические группы, из которых одиннадцать имеют более 1 000 000 человек. Канада также принимает более двух из десяти беженцев в мире. На сегодняшний день достаточно обширную группу составляют студенты-иностранцы, число которых с каждым годом увеличивается в связи с растущей популярностью и доступностью канадского образования.

Первый законодательный акт, целью которого было признание культурной свободы всех лиц, проживающих на территории Канады, был введен в 1971 году. Он ознаменовал начало эпохи мультикультурализма (Burnet & Driedger, 2011).

Помимо внесения изменений в законодательную сферу, Канада, в частности провинция Квебек, одной из первых осознала необходимость создания специальных образовательных программ по изучению истории, культуры и языков иммигрантского и коренного населения, межкультурной коммуникации, воспитанию толерантности в рамках как формального, так и неформального образования. Программы, направленные на адаптацию иммигрантского населения и воспитание толерантности в рамках неформального образования, появившиеся в 70-х годах XX века, актуальны по сей день. Они существуют при университетах Квебека.

В частности, ведущий университет Канады, университет McGill предлагает программу International Buddy Program, осуществляющую культурную поддержку вновь прибывшим студентам по оказанию помощи в изучении или улучшении уровня владения языком (International Student Services. McGill, 2017). Известный университет Квебека, Университет Монреаля, предлагает курсы французского языка и культуры в неформальной обстановке (Improve Your French Program), а также занятия в рамках проекта «Обмен языками» (Language Exchange Program), во время которых студент-иностранец изучает французский язык и в то же время имеет возможность преподавать свой родной язык. Также университет приглашает студентов в разговорный клуб французского языка и культуры (Conversational French Workshop) (Université de Montréal, 2017).

Помимо университетских неформальных программ существуют также неформальные организации, клубы самоорганизации иммигрантов,

способствующие их успешной адаптации. Например, организация Catholic Social Services предлагает бесплатную образовательную и психологическую помощь для иммигрантов и беженцев на нескольких языках, а также организует домашние клубы для детей и подростков из семей мигрантов с целью подготовки и адаптации их к канадской школе (Catholic Social Services, 2017). Организация под названием Indo-Canadian Women's Organisation, функционирующая с 1984 года, проводит дискуссии, посвященные проблеме расизма и способам ее решения, организует летние школы лидерства для молодежи (Indo-Canadian Women's Organisation, 2017).

The Canadian Multicultural Education Foundation проводит дни культуры, фестивали различных этнических групп, населяющих Канаду, предоставляет ценную информацию о коренном населении страны. Следует отметить, что подобного рода инициативы являются прекрасным примером интеграции вновь прибывших в принимающее сообщество, снимают напряжение, способствуют принятию культуры и языка, вырабатывают толерантное отношение к реалиям канадского образа жизни (The Canadian Multicultural Education Foundation, 2017).

Таким образом, в Квебеке функционирует развитая система университетских и частных организаций, целью которых является распространение идей мультикультурализма и адаптация иммигрантов в рамках неформального образования.

### **Иновационный подход Франции** ***France's Innovative Approach***

В 1992 году в Маастрихтском договоре впервые упоминается понятие общих ценностей Европейского Союза, которые закреплены в статье 2 Договора о Европейском Союзе, где утверждается, что «Союз основан на ценностях уважения человеческого достоинства, свободы, демократии, равенства, правового государства и соблюдения прав человека, включая права лиц, принадлежащих к меньшинствам. Эти ценности являются общими для государств-членов в рамках общества, характеризующегося плюрализмом, отсутствием дискриминации, толерантностью, справедливостью, солидарностью и равенством женщин и мужчин» (Законодательство Украины, 2007).

Франция, как член Европейского Союза, разделяет эти ценности. При этом, говоря о гражданском воспитании, учитываются прежде всего так называемые ценности Республики, заложенные еще Декларацией прав человека и гражданина, принятой в 1789 году, где в ст. 10 и 11 изложены философские и правовые основы толерантности в широком понимании

этого термина. Сами ценности Республики отражены в ее девизе: «Свобода, Равенство, Братство». Развитие французской демократии обусловило появление и новых ценностей, таких, как, например, секуляризм (фр. *laïcité*) – отделение церкви от государства, исключаящее церковь из политической и административной власти, в частности, из сферы организации государственного образования.

В новой Программе нравственного и гражданского воспитания, принятой в 2015 году, перечислены следующие ценности Республики: «свобода, равенство, братство, секуляризм, солидарность, дух справедливости, уважение и отсутствие любых форм дискриминации» (*Le Bulletin officiel de l'éducation nationale*, 2015). При этом объясняется, что «ценности Республики связаны, прежде всего, с гуманистическими ценностями, которые определяют ее цивилизационный характер, такими, как этика истины, требования разума, общественное благо, дух закона, толерантность и стремление к миру» (*Ministère de l'Éducation nationale, de l'Enseignement supérieur et de la Recherche*, 2015).

17 марта 2015 года, вследствие терактов, потрясших Францию и другие страны Европы, министры образования стран Европейского Союза и европейский комиссар по образованию, культуре, молодежи и спорту Т. Наврачич приняли совместную Декларацию о продвижении гражданственности и общих ценностей свободы, толерантности и отсутствия дискриминации. К приоритетным мерам, направленным на продвижение основных ценностей, также отнесены «поощрение образования неблагополучной молодежи путем обеспечения систем образования и обучения, отвечающих их потребностям» и «поощрение межкультурного диалога посредством всех форм обучения, в соответствии с политикой других отраслей и в сотрудничестве с другими заинтересованными сторонами» (*European commission*, 2017).

По статистическим данным 2013 года во Франции проживало 5,8 млн. иммигрантов, что на тот момент составляло 8,9 % от общего населения страны. За последние несколько лет количество прибывающих мигрантов увеличивается каждый год примерно на 200 тыс. человек (*Insee*, 2017), что обуславливает возрастающую необходимость поиска механизмов их социальной адаптации для успешной интеграции во французское общество. В последние годы из-за неудачного предыдущего опыта политики ассимиляции и мультикультурализма во Франции было решено применять политику интеграции, учитывающую принципы ассимиляции и в тоже время не отрицающую возможность сохранения иммигрантами их исторической идентичности (*Kerzil*, 2002).

Следует заметить, что до начала 2000-х годов во Франции практически не существовало специального образования для вновь

прибывших мигрантов. Закон № 2005-32 от 18 января 2005 года впервые задекларировал для мигрантов добровольное обучение французскому языку, изучение курса гражданского воспитания, а также однодневный курс ознакомления с жизнью во Франции. С 2007 года такое обучение стало обязательным и сейчас является частью так называемого «договора об интеграции» (фр. *contrat d'intégration républicaine (CIR)*), который заключается между каждым мигрантом неевропейского происхождения старше 16 лет и государством. Выдача долгосрочного вида на жительство производится при соблюдении двух обязательных условий: иностранец не должен проявлять неприятие основных ценностей общества и ценностей Французской Республики, а также обязан пройти курс обучения, предусмотренный договором об интеграции (Karoutchi, 2017).

На сегодняшний день обязательным для мигрантов является курс гражданского воспитания, финансируемый Французской службой иммиграции и интеграции, который состоит из двух модулей: «Ценности и общественные институты Республики» и «Жизнь и трудоустройство во Франции». Однако данный курс подвергался и продолжает подвергаться активной критике, так как считается недостаточно эффективным по причине малой продолжительности, плохого обеспечения наглядными пособиями и материалами, языковой и социокультурной разнородности групп, слабой адаптированности материала к специфике аудитории (Karoutchi, 2017).

Изучение и обобщение научно-педагогической литературы свидетельствует о том, что в привитии толерантности посредством неформального обучения важную роль играют молодежные организации, в частности, Гражданская волонтерская служба (фр. *Le Service civil volontaire (SCV)*), которая в своей работе апеллирует к молодежи в возрасте от 16 до 25 лет, желающей участвовать в общественно-полезной деятельности. Один раз в месяц молодые волонтеры проходят так называемый учебный модуль, посвященный гражданским ценностям, который основывается на Пособии по гражданскому воспитанию (фр. *Livret de formation civique*). Участие в общественно-полезных мероприятиях способствует воспитанию ценностей в рамках школьного образования, помогает молодым людям получить опыт мобильности, возможность выйти из своей привычной среды, расширить кругозор. Государство с целью воспитания гражданских качеств и привития ценностей и идеалов Республики активно информирует молодых людей, бросивших школу (среди которых большой процент составляют дети из среды мигрантов), о существовании Гражданской волонтерской службы (Haut Conseil à l'intégration, 2009).

Для привития терпимости и уважения к другим культурам молодежные ассоциации активно используют методы и приемы

неформального образования. Например, организация Réseau Express Jeunes с центром в г. Страсбург постоянно проводит семинары, целью которых является содействие адаптации молодых мигрантов и беженцев. На таких семинарах молодые люди рассказывают свои истории жизни, обсуждаются проблемы, связанные с иммиграцией, приобретают навыки, необходимые для решения таких проблем. Широко используются и такие приемы неформального обучения как молодежный театр, обучение на открытом воздухе, обучение искусством, выездные семинары (Réseau Express Jeunes, 2017).

Межкультурной коммуникации, пониманию и принятию ценностей Франции также способствует обучение французскому языку как необходимая составляющая социальной адаптации. Образовательные центры (CEFIL; Langues Plurielles; L'Île aux Langues; Paroles Voyageuses) совместно с ассоциацией Tous Bénévoles разработали специальный интенсивный курс по изучению французского языка, социальной и профессиональной адаптации, предназначенный для лиц, имеющих статус беженцев. В рамках курса обучающимся предоставляется возможность посещать различные культурные мероприятия, участвовать в совместных акциях, способствующих созданию благоприятной, дружественной атмосферы (Langues Plurielles, 2017).

Для повышения эффективности социальной адаптации иммигрантов государство привлекает и частные предприятия. Например, компания «Афра», специализирующаяся на профессиональном образовании для взрослых, в 2015 году впервые разработала он-лайн курс – так называемый «МООС» (англ. Massive open online course) по изучению французского языка и ценностей Республики, предназначенный для мигрантов, беженцев и лиц, просящих убежище. Курс частично переведен на английский, арабский, пушту и дари (Афра, 2017).

В последние годы с целью оказания помощи мигрантам в социальной адаптации наблюдается повышенное внимание к возможностям он-лайн обучения. В частности, обучающая платформа «Вместе во Франции» (фр. Ensemble en France) помогает интеграции различных категорий иностранцев, проживающих на территории страны: мигрантов, беженцев, людей, просящих убежища (Ensemble en France: formation en ligne de France terre d'asile, 2017). Многие рубрики программы содержат элементы, прививающие толерантность. Например, в рубрике «Секуляризм» можно увидеть изображение карикатур из журнала «Charlie Hebdo», высмеивающих те или иные религии, с комментариями о том, что во Франции люди имеют право критиковать различные идеи, в том числе религиозные, но при этом запрещено преследование людей, а также разжигание ненависти на религиозной почве. В рубрике «Семья» эксперт

рассказывает о существовании во Франции различных видов семьи, помимо традиционной: семья, живущая без регистрации брака, однополая семья и т.д. В видеороликах люди различных национальностей, которые сами не так давно иммигрировали, делятся своим опытом и мнением о ценностях Франции. Возможности программы позволяют в удобном режиме и в непринужденной форме знакомиться с ценностями, обычаями и культурой страны.

### **Выводы** *Conclusions*

Таким образом, проблема толерантности в современном мире возрастает в связи с постоянно увеличивающимися потоками мигрантов из неевропейских государств.

На сегодняшний день не существует единственно правильного пути привития толерантности, при этом в каждой из принимающих стран данную проблему решают с учетом законодательства, традиций общества, а также особенностей иммиграционной политики. В частности, во Франции понятие толерантности тесно связано с политикой интеграции и ценностями Французской Республики, в то время как в канадской провинции Квебек толерантность ассоциируется с тенденцией мультикультурализма в обществе.

Пример Квебека и Франции демонстрирует, что применение неформального обучения иммигрантов с использованием курсов французского языка, а также внедрение системы он-лайн обучения являются перспективными и заслуживают дальнейшего применения и распространения в современном мире.

### **Summary**

One of the key values of the modern society is tolerance. Nowadays, the issue of tolerance occupies a special place due to such global undesirable processes as religious and ethnic conflicts, cases of racial discrimination, aggravating in recent decades. This study is aimed at taking into consideration the experience of France and Canadian province of Quebec in inculcating tolerance among migrants in the framework of non-formal education. Non-formal education is believed to be one of the most efficient tools of implementing integration policies due to its flexibility, as it is able to cover all segments of the population, regardless of their age, social status and work employment, as well as owing to practice-oriented approach, since it is aimed at solving specific problems such as acquiring domestic and social skills, professional competencies and personal motivation of participants, adequate and relevant update of the contents of non-formal educational programs in respect of the needs of both students and the society as a whole. Thus, non-formal educational programs, promoting European humane values such as tolerance, are realized through University and college

extracurricular classes as well as self-organized classes in the framework of non-formal education; private foundations and religious communities are also of great help. The system of adaptation of migrants in each of the above mentioned countries has its own peculiarities: as a result of France's unsuccessful policy of assimilation and multiculturalism, the integration policy, taking into account the principles of assimilation and enabling migrants to retain their historical identity, has been implemented whilst in Canada the policy of multiculturalism is encouraged and has been proved successful due to the fact that Canada, unlike France, is a historically immigrant country. Targeted social and educational work in the framework of non-formal education makes it possible to use opportunities and find solutions to the problems associated with the increasing number of migrants and refugees to the countries of North America and the European Union: they help newly arrived migrants to learn and adopt democratic values and promote intercultural dialogue and mutual understanding between migrants and the population of the host country. The example of Quebec and France demonstrates that the use of non-formal education (the introduction of French courses, the implementation of online learning platforms) deserves further application in the modern world.

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## THE INVESTIGATION OF VOICE HANDICAP INDEX IN TEACHERS WITH AND WITHOUT SELF-RATED VOICE DISORDERS

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**Abstract.** *Voice disorders restrict daily activity and impact the quality of life. The purpose of the study was to find out the impact of voice disorders on functional, physical and emotional condition of teachers with and without self-reported voice disorders. Two hundred thirty-five teachers with self-reported voice problems (Voice disorder group) and 174 teachers with no voice problems (Control group) in anamnesis completed Latvian version of Voice Handicap Index-30 (VHI-30). Teachers with voice disorders demonstrated higher median scores in VHI-30 total scale and functional, physical, and emotional subscales ( $P < 0.001$ ). In teachers, voice disorders have a more significant impact on their physical comfort and have a smaller impact on their emotional sphere. 76.4 % of the voice disorder group respondents acquired the total score within 12 to 33 points. In the control group, 75.3 % of teachers had the VHI score of up to 17 points. Conclusions: In teacher population of Latvia mild voice disorders are encountered more often. Activity and participation in everyday life situations are limited in teachers with voice disorders. Voice disorders mostly impact physical comfort in teachers*

**Keywords:** *Voice Handicap Index-30, teachers, voice disorders.*

### Introduction

Verbal communication is an essential part of daily life. Well functioning voice is a crucial factor in communication.

Voice disorders affect not only the voice quality but can also contribute to psychological and social problems, altering the patients quality of life (Xu et al., 2010). Any limitation or restricted participation in daily activities may result in deterioration in quality of life (Ma & Yiu, 2001). Individuals with voice disorders have more severe functional, physical and emotional restrictions than individuals without voice problems (Guimaraes & Abberton, 2004).

The teaching profession is vocally demanding, and consequently, teachers have a higher risk of voice disorders than other professionals. Teachers are considered occupational voice users, and therefore have the expected result of a heightened perception of handicap due to their voice use, which may make them more susceptible to voice disorders (Albustan et al., 2017).

There are several tools investigating voice related quality of life. One of the more widely used tools is Voice Handicap Index-30 (VHI-30). The VHI-30 is psychometrically validated tool for measuring the psycho-social handicapping effects of voice disorders. The VHI can be used to assess the patient's judgment about the relative impact of his or her voice disorder upon daily activities (Jacobson et al., 1997). The VHI-30 determines individual's handicap in three domains – functional, physical, and emotional. The Latvian version of the VHI-30 was validated in 2014 (Trinite & Sokolovs, 2014).

Teachers with voice disorders estimated their own voice problems as a moderate or severe disability. Results of the total VHI score and each of its subscales: functional, emotional and physical was significantly worse in teachers than in non-teachers (Niebudek-Bogusz et al., 2007). Teachers with voice complaints have a higher perception of voice handicap and lower quality of life than teachers without voice problems (Batista da Costa et al., 2013; Marie et al., 2014; Aparecida Cielo & Veis Ribeiro et al., 2015).

The purpose of the study was to find out the impact of voice disorders on functional, physical and emotional condition of teachers with and without self-reported voice disorders.

## **Material and methods**

The study had a cross-sectional survey design. The stratified sampling methodology was used, and teachers of 24 general education schools from all regions of Latvia were invited to participate in the study. Teachers from urban and rural schools, as well as teachers from primary and secondary schools, participated in the study.

Teachers were requested to complete a short questionnaire with the purpose to determine the presence of voice problems. Before filling in the questionnaires, the respondents were introduced to the concept of voice problems within the purpose of this study “we consider a voice problem to be any time your voice does not work, perform, or sound as you feel it normally should, so that it interferes with your communication” (Roy et al., 2004). Two questions were included in the survey: (1) “Have you ever had problems with your voice?” with possible responses – *yes/no*, (2) “Are you suffering from voice problems?” with possible response options – *at present, during the last nine months, during the teaching career*.

Two teachers groups were formed. The voice disorder group included teachers who had voice problems at the time of questionnaire completion and/or they had had voice problems during the last nine months (i.e., they had actual voice problems or problems during the preceding school year). 235 teachers with a mean age of 44 years, SD = 10 years, the mean number of 20 years teaching,

SD = 10 years, as well as 54 (23 %) smokers, were included in the voice disorder group.

The control group included teachers who had never had any voice problems. There were 174 teachers in this group with a mean age of 42 years; SD = 10 years, the mean number of 19 year teaching years, SD = 10 years, and 32 (18.4 %) were smokers.

Teachers were requested to complete the VHI-30 (Latvian language version). The Voice Handicap Index is made of 30 statements divided into three subscales characterizing functional, physical, and emotional aspects of voice disorders. Each subscale has 10 statements (30 statements in total). Respondents were asked to rate each statement with a score between 0 (never) and 4 (always). The minimum total acquired points – 0, maximum – 120 points. The more severe teacher perceived their voice handicap, the higher should be score on the VHI. Additionally, subjects were asked to self-evaluate the degree of voice problems according to the following scale – no problems, mild, moderate or severe problems. Allocated time for filling out the Voice Handicap Index is 5-10 minutes.

The descriptive statistics, as well as Kolmogorov-Smirnov test, Chi-square test, and Mann-Whitney test were used for data analysis. The SPSS 16.0 package (SPSS Inc., Chicago, IL) was used for statistical data processing.

## **Results**

The objective of the study was to find out to what extent voice disorders impact teacher's emotional and physical comfort, as well as their functionality, i.e., their ability to use their voice. The VHI-30 forms of 235 teachers with voice disorders (VD group) and 174 teachers without voice disorders (Control group) were analysed. The psycho-social handicapping effects of voice disorders in teachers were judged by the scores of Voice Handicap Index total scale and subscales. Since scores to be analysed were not normally distributed (Kolmogorov–Smirnov test,  $p < 0.001$ ), non-parametric statistical methods were used.

In order to evaluate the hypothesis that the VHI total scale and subscale score in the control group are lower than the VHI results in the voice disorder group, the Mann-Whitney test was used. Test results showed statistically significant ( $P < 0.001$ ) difference between the results acquired by both groups (Table 1).

The median value of the VHI total scale in the voice disorder group was 23 (12; 33). The range of VHI total scale score was from 0 to 77 in the voice disorder group. Median value in the VHI functional scale was 7 (4; 10), the physical scale was 10 (6; 15), the emotional scale median value was 5 (2; 10) in the voice disorder group.

Table 1 **Median values and minimal and maximal score values for the VHI total scale and subscales in the voice disorder and the control group (P<0.001)**

Scale	Group	N	Me(Q <sub>1</sub> ; Q <sub>3</sub> )	Min, Max
Functional	Control	174	4 (2; 7)	0; 20
	VD	235	7 (4; 10)	0; 24
Physical	Control	174	4 (2; 7)	0; 20
	VD	235	10 (6;15)	0; 30
Emotional	Control	174	2 (0; 4)	0; 20
	VD	235	5 (2;10)	0; 24
Total	Control	174	10 (5; 17)	0; 60
	VD	235	23 (12; 33)	0; 77

In the voice disorder group, 20 % of respondents acquired 0 to 10 points, 25 % of respondents acquired points between 11 to 20 and almost the same percentage – 24 % acquired points between 21 to 30 in the total score of VHI. 68.5 % of respondents in the voice disorder group acquired up to 30 points in the VHI total score (Figure 1).

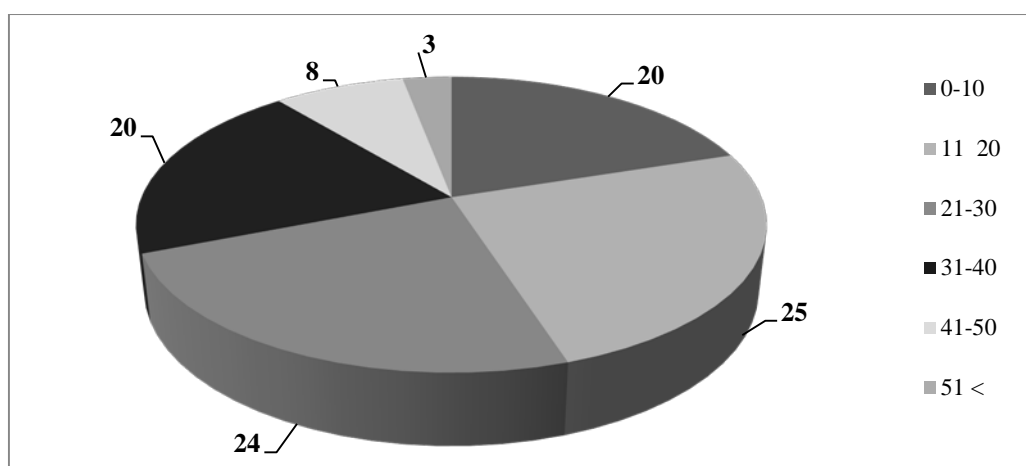


Figure 1. **Distribution of the VHI scores (%) in the voice disorder group**

Each of the three VHI subscales consisted of ten statements that characterise consequences of voice disorders on a specific area of life – functional, physical, and emotional. Respondents had to evaluate to what extent each statement refers to their experience. In order to check the correlation between each specific item and voice problems in the teacher group, the Chi-square test was used (Tables 2, 3, 4).

**Table 2 Distribution of the Functional scale answers (%) in the control group (N = 174) and the voice disorder group (N = 235)**

(0 = never, 1 = almost never, 2 = sometimes, 3 = almost always, 4 = always)

Statement	Group	0 (%)	1 (%)	2 (%)	3 (%)	4 (%)	$\chi^2$	<i>f</i>	<i>P</i>
F1. My voice makes it difficult for people to hear me	Control	44	35	21	1	0	8.77	3	0.032
	VD	31	39	29	2	0			
F3. People have difficulty understanding me in a noisy room	Control	30	35	31	3	1	3.71	4	0.447
	VD	25	32	38	6	0			
F5. My family has difficulty hearing me when I call them throughout the house	Control	44	36	16	3	1	11.74	4	0.019
	VD	32	38	28	3	0			
F6. I use the phones less often than I would like to	Control	55	24	19	2	0	10.68	4	0.03
	VD	42	34	19	3	2			
F8. I tend to avoid groups of people because of my voice	Control	81	14	5	0	0	7.33	2	0.026
	VD	70	24	6	0	0			
F11. I speak with friend, neighbours, or relatives less often because of my voice	Control	90	8	2	0	0	27.87	3	<0.001
	VD	68	27	6	0	0			
F12. People ask me to repeat myself when speaking face-to-face	Control	60	30	10	0	0	12.17	2	0.002
	VD	43	42	15	0	0			
F16. My voice difficulties restrict personal and social life	Control	84	14	2	1	0	42.12	3	<0.001
	VD	55	30	15	0	0			
F19. I feel left out of conversation because of my voice	Control	76	17	6	0	0	14.95	3	0.002
	VD	59	31	9	1	0			
F22. My voice problem causes me to lose income	Control	84	14	1	1	0	44.29	3	<0.001
	VD	55	27	17	0	0			

**Table 3 Distribution of the Physical scale answers (%) in the control group (N = 174) and the study group (N = 235)**

(0 = never, 1 = almost never, 2 = sometimes, 3 = almost always, 4 = always)

Statement	Group	0 (%)	1 (%)	2 (%)	3 (%)	4 (%)	$\chi^2$	<i>f</i>	<i>P</i>
P2. I run out of air when I talk	Control	69	23	8	1	0	32.43	3	<0.001
	VD	43	32	25	0	0			
P4. The sound of my voice varies throughout the day	Control	21	29	38	10	2	26.14	4	<0.001
	VD	7	23	48	19	4			
P10. People ask, "What's wrong with your voice?"	Control	70	25	5	1	0	87.01	4	<0.001
	VD	29	32	39	0	0			
P13. My voice sounds creaky and dry	Control	74	20	6	0	0	45.99	3	<0.001
	VD	43	28	28	1	0			
P14. I feel as though I have to strain to produce voice	Control	79	16	5	1	0	50.85	3	<0.001
	VD	46	26	26	2	0			
P17. The clarity of my voice is unpredictable	Control	70	23	7	0	0	32.32	3	<0.001
	VD	46	34	20	2	0			
P18. I try to change my voice to sound different	Control	62	25	14	0	0	10.88	3	0.012
	VD	48	27	24	1	0			
P20. I use a great deal of effort to speak	Control	81	16	4	0	0	46.73	3	<0.001
	VD	50	26	23	2	0			
P21. My voice is worse in the evening	Control	58	28	14	0	0	62.92	4	<0.001
	VD	26	26	40	7	2			
P26. My voice "gives out" on me in the middle of speaking	Control	67	28	5	0	0	82.10	3	<0.001
	VD	29	32	39	1	0			

**Table 4 Distribution of the Emotional scale answers (%) in the control group (N = 174) and the study group (N = 235)**

(0 = never, 1 = almost never, 2 = sometimes, 3 = almost always, 4 = always)

Statement	Group	0 (%)	1 (%)	2 (%)	3 (%)	4 (%)	$\chi^2$	<i>f</i>	<i>P</i>
E7. I am tense when talking to others because of my voice	Control	70	21	9	1	0	13.69	3	0.003
	VD	52	31	16	1	0			
E9. People seem irritated with my voice	Control	67	24	9	1	0	13.00	3	0.005
	VD	50	37	13	0	0			
E15. I find other people don't understand my voice problems	Control	86	10	4	0	0	36.96	3	<0.001
	VD	58	24	16	2	0			
E23. My voice problems upsets me	Control	77	17	6	0	1	31.11	4	<0.001
	VD	28	25	39	6	2			
E24. I am less outgoing because of my voice problem	Control	82	14	4	0	0	33.82	3	<0.001
	VD	56	27	16	1	0			
E25. My voice makes me feel handicapped	Control	87	10	3	0	0	16.49	4	0.002
	VD	70	21	7	1	0			
E27. I feel annoyed when people ask me to repeat	Control	65	25	9	1	0	13.45	4	0.009
	VD	49	31	15	3	2			
E28. I feel embarrassed when people ask me to repeat	Control	72	21	6	0	0	14.30	4	0.006
	VD	56	30	13	1	0			
E29. My voice makes me feel incompetent	Control	86	12	2	0	0	12.40	2	0.002
	VD	72	23	6	0	0			
E30. I am ashamed of my voice problem	Control	92	6	2	0	0	32.35	3	<0.001
	VD	69	26	5	0	0			

## Discussion

The study results established how and to what extent voice disorders impact teacher's physical and emotional comfort, as well as their functionality. The physical scale of the VHI represents subjective feelings caused by the larynx discomfort, the Emotional subscale characterises the affective reactions caused by voice disorders, and the Functional scale includes statements that describe voice disorder impact on performing everyday activities (Jacobson et al., 1997).

Activity and participation limitations caused by voice disorders correlate with the vocal symptom scale, i.e., the extent of voice disorders. Upon the increase

of vocal symptoms, the extent of voice disorders and activity and participation limitations caused by voice disorders increase; that is considered to be the direct consequences of voice disorders in physical, functional, and emotional domains.

It was established that the median score of the VHI total scale is higher in teachers with voice disorders than in teachers without voice disorders. There were considerably higher results also in the functional, physical, and emotional subscales in the voice disorder group when compared to the control group. It means that teachers with self-evaluated voice problems feel more limited in their daily activities, they suffer from affective reactions caused by voice disorders more often, and they feel voice discomfort more often. During the study, we established that voice disorders in teachers have a more significant impact on their physical comfort and have a smaller impact on their emotional sphere. Teachers more often relate their voice disorders to the acoustically detectable changes in their voice sound and unpleasant feelings in the larynx during speech. Teachers with voice disorders believe that they have fewer job opportunities because of the voice problems, that voice difficulty limits their personal and social life, as well as they, limit their communication with friends, neighbours, and relatives. Voice problems are noticeable to other people around us. Teachers with voice problems have more often heard a question addressed to them “What is wrong with your voice?” Physical handicapping of voice problems – cracking of voice in the middle of the speech, failing of voice in the evening, the necessity to strain to produce voice, and use of a great deal of effort to speak – have been marked by teachers in the voice disorder group more often than in the control group. Voice problems impact the psycho-emotional condition of teachers. Teachers in the voice disorder group believe that other people do not understand their voice problems more often, that they are less outgoing due to their voice problems. They are ashamed of their voice problems.

The VHI result provides indications about the degree of voice disorder. The VHI within 0 to 30 points corresponds to light or early voice problems and the resulting minimal participation limitations, 30 to 60 points indicate moderate voice problems and average participation limitations, and 61 to 120 points indicate severe voice problems and significant, severe participation limitations (Niebudek-Bogusz et al., 2007; Fairfield & Richards, 2007). The relation between the degree of voice problems and the VHI total scale results is relative. The closer the VHI score gets to 0, the less explicit the voice problem is (Jacobson et al., 1997). In the voice disorder group the VHI total scale score has concentrated within 12 to 33 points, i.e., 76.4 % of the voice disorder group respondents acquired the total number of points within 12 to 33 points, i.e., 76.4 % of the voice disorder group respondents had up to 33 points. In the control group, 75.3 % of teachers had the VHI score of up to 17 points. The acquired results allow a conclusion that the scores acquired in the control group are closer to zero marks



and can be interpreted as absence of the voice problems, whereas in the voice disorder group the VHI scores dispersion testify of mild voice disorder presence.

The study results show that mild voice disorders impacting physical comfort are more often present in teachers. Our study conclusion - that teachers with voice disorders have higher VHI values corresponds to study results by another author (Guimarães & Abberton, 2004; Kooijman et al., 2007; Thomas et al., 2007; Fairfield & Richards, 2007; Kuzanska et al., 2009).

The acquired results indicate higher activity and participation limitation in teachers with voice disorders when compared to the teachers without voice complaints.

Every daily activity limitation impacts the quality of life (Ma & Yiu, 2001). Changes in the quality of life impact the quality of work (Chen et al., 2010). Before filling out the VHI people often do not realise their voice problems. Upon understanding that voice problems impact their daily life people will start changing their habits and externals that impact their voice (Jacobson et al., 1997). Identification of consequences caused by voice problems could allow people to evaluate their attitude towards their voice health.

### **Conclusions**

1. A mild degree of voice disorders is encountered more often in teachers' population of Latvia.
2. Teachers with self-reported voice disorders have a higher median score of the VHI total scale than teachers without self-reported voice disorders.
3. Teachers with self-reported voice disorders have higher median score in each VHI subscale (physical, emotional, functional) to compared with teachers without self-reported voice disorders, which leads to conclusion that teachers with voice problems are more limited in their daily activities, they suffer from physical voice discomfort, as well as has adverse emotional reactions related to voice production.
4. Voice disorders mostly affect physical comfort in teachers with voice disorders.

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## PECULARITIES OF TRANSITION OF YOUNG PEOPLE WITH DISABILITIES TO ADULT LIFE

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***Abstract.** During globalization process and development of technology the labor market is changing significantly and the demand for unskilled labor is decreasing. The integration of people with disabilities into society through such processes is even more complicated. The peculiarities of and risk factors and barriers to transition of young people with disabilities to adult life with specific attention to their career education and preparation for professional career presented by different researcher groups including Lithuanian examples are analyzed in the article. The critical review method and analysis of scientific literature are used.*

***Keywords:** transition of young people to adulthood, career education, education of young people with disabilities.*

### Introduction

During globalization process and development of technology the labor market is changing significantly and the demand for unskilled labor is decreasing, as most people are replaced by robots, machines. The integration of people with disabilities into society through such processes is even more complicated. The main task of the school is to help pupils to know themselves, to find out their hobbies and disposal to one or another profession. At school students should find the activity appropriate to their needs and opportunities and develop their creative powers. Today it is especially important to teach a young person to solve their personal problems as well as problems of society independently and together with others, help them to acquire business and cultural literacy and knowledge and ability to live independently, prepare for further studies and activities.

One of the main tasks of basic education formulated in the concept of education in Lithuania is to consolidate and strengthen the motivation of students for the preparation for further studies and professional activities.

The main task of the school is to help the student to choose the most suitable educational path appropriate to his or her disposal, interests and abilities, and to make a reasoned opinion about the most appropriate for him or her further activities, i.e. career and career choices.

It is very important to develop general skills at the school. General skills are universal competences that ensure success in various fields, enable a person to successfully learn, work, communicate and collaborate, think critically, solve problems independently, etc. It is the set of skills suitable for many areas of professional activity that is necessary for a modern person to be advanced. Man's abilities, their proper education and development are the keys for professional career success and satisfaction.

Preparation for the profession takes place during school time. Therefore, school and specifically teachers play a special role in helping to reconcile the student's aspirations and opportunities and adapting them to the socio-economic needs of a constantly changing society. Pupils at school need assistance for better understanding of themselves, find out what they like, what they want, and for which activity they have a vocation. Successful professional career is determined not only by professional skills, but also by the fact that a person has disorders (disabilities) because of which they often require mediation or escort services to get a job. It is also very important properly evaluate the readiness and suitability of each young person for one or another profession. Vocational skills are necessary for the proper realization of work activity tasks of concrete person and defined as the physical and mental qualities necessary for carrying out certain activities.

The problem analyzed in the article is very important for all young people, and especially for those with disorders (disabilities) who graduate the school and want to choose properly their professional careers.

The purpose of the article is to analyse peculiarities of and risk factors and barriers to transition of young people with disabilities to adult life with specific attention to their career education and preparation for professional career including development of general skills presented by different researcher groups.

### **Theoretical framework and methods**

The existential, humanistic philosophy and philosophy of normalization are to be considered as the background of methodological research. According to existential philosophers (Mickūnas & Stewart, 1974; Rudestam, 1982; Furman, 2001), each person is unique, valuable, and sees the world in his own way. In organization of a slightly mentally retarded young people career education process it is important to follow the idea of existential philosophy and actualize man "here and now". The only situation we can experience is present. Man can remember the past and plan the future. Therefore, the present situation is the only one that can be changed by career planning. Existentialism's pedagogical concept encourages educators and students interested in the issues of human existence, to overcome the satisfaction of life based on material well-being (Bitinas, 2000).

From the existentialist point of view man (as a child) is free to choose, and educator's duty is to take into account the child's worldview and to teach consciously choose, to help learner to understand their options and to orientate towards them.

Humanistic philosophy is related to the respect for the human right to freedom, equality, the natural abilities and character development, personal unfolding. Its main principle is the recognition of value of each person's and respect for it. If a young man "wants to learn, develop, to know more and to do better everything, desires to create" (Rogers, 1973), than there will be successfully organized pre-vocational training, which is inseparable from the formulation of personality development objectives in the career curriculum. The school must at first help everyone to understand themselves, to understand their identity, to find purpose in life. Education should be oriented to the person, should help him to express himself and become better. All these goals can be achieved by satisfying the basic needs of the child: child has to be respected, loved, to feel safe psychologically, valued by others, adequately assess himself and plan and build the future.

The purpose of normalization is at any situation to provide an alternative for a person with a disability, which would be as much normal as possible, but not specific, special or unusual (Bakk & Grunewald, 1997).

Methods. The method applied is critical review research method (Grant, 2009) and analysis scientific literature.

### **Risk Factors and Barriers to the Transition of Young People**

It has been observed that in the scientific literature (Baltodano et al., 2005; Community Living Research Project, 2006; Wallerstein & Duran, 2006). Learning Disabilities Association of Canada, 2007; Davis & Vander Stoep, (2000), there are many data about strong correlation between physical, mental, behavioral, sensory, developmental and learning disorders (disability) and school failure and other negative consequences of the transition. The type of disability, according to many researchers (Caton & Kagan, 2007; Van Naarden Braun, Yeargin-Allsopp & Lollar, 2006; Wells, Sandefur, & Hogan, 2003), affect the process and outcomes of the transition to adult life. Some articles (Community Living Research Project, 2006; Epp, M. A. (2006), Canadian National Institute for the Blind, 2006; Caton & Kagan, 2007) emphasize the increased risk of adverse transitions, depending on the severity and type of disability. Other authors, however, warn that disability is just one of many complex factors of the process (Burchardt, 2004). These data indicate that the available evidence is not sufficient to conclude on the influence of disability type (Dowet et al., 2010).

Aspirations of young people with disabilities are the same as those of healthy persons, but there are more obstacles to the transition to adult life. Often young people with disabilities have limited opportunities to participate in planning and evaluating services, especially in relation to education and career planning.

Many researchers from different countries have conducted research to reveal the most important and significant perspectives of young people, namely, the importance of participation in community life, of personal autonomy and of inclusion for the quality of life (Algozzine et al., 2001; Powers et al., 2007). Many works have been done to examine the populations of certain young people, the problems specific to certain groups associated with learning disorders (Cameron & Murphy, 2002, Learning Disabilities Association of Canada, 2007, Salmon & Kinnealey, 2007), health disorders (Anderson et al., 2004, 2006; Betz, 2004; Lotstein et al., 2005; Johnston, S. Cet et al., 2004; Ostlie et al., 2007; Saigal et al., 2006; Verlinde et al., 2004), development disorders (Betz & Redcay 2002; Van Naarden Braun et al., 2006; Rapanaro et al., 2008), mental health and behavior problems (Armstrong et al., 2003; Carter & Lunsford, 2005; Carter et al., 2006; Corbett et al., 2002; Feldman et al., 2004; Wagner & Davis, 2006), Deaf and Blind Youth (Nagle, 2001). According to the literature review, although individual groups are characterized by separate problems, they all share similar challenges and their negative effects, such as unemployment and social exclusion (Committee on Disability in America, 2007; Murray, 2003; Stewart et al., 2001).

Young people with disabilities need certain skills to become mature, such as personal autonomy (self-attitude/self-determination), problem solving and raising of goals (Connor, 2012, Madaus, 2005, Sitlington et al., 2010). The education of self-awareness gives young people the opportunity to assess individual strengths and challenges, albeit with collegiate aspirations. Development of skill to communicate his or her strengths and needs can be called personal autonomy (self-determination). E. M. Ankeny & J. P. Lehmann (2011) states that independent (self-determined) individuals can have some control over their lives, since they can set future goals, linked to their reality, their situation knowing their strengths and needs. Personal self-determination (decision-making) skills enable young people with disabilities to play a more adult role (Ankeny & Lehmann, 2010; Field, Sarver, & Shaw, 2003). By strengthening independence, interdependence, facing problems and conflicts directly, young people develop greater self-esteem and confidence with greater responsibility. Personal autonomy can strengthen many young people who could become adults even during the transition period. In addition, the development of a gradual learning about their disability and how it affects learning is important for young people seeking vocational education (Connor, 2012). Sitlington et al. (2010) also mentioned the critical skills that young people need to develop: organization; prioritization,

study habits, self-observation, self-defense, time management, relevant social, communication, reading and mathematical skills. The literature also highlights the need for young people with disabilities to have an understanding about the disciplines associated with vocational education and the need to apply them (Lan & Lanthier, 2003, Sitlington et al., 2010).

Early schooling can be better organized through collaboration between school and vocational education and training institutions (Connor, 2012). In general, if more students with disabilities understand about:

- a) themselves;
- b) their disability (special education laws, their rights, procedures);
- c) expectations for them,

Students will be better able to choose vocational education institutions later, and they will be better prepared for a successful transition to adult life. Skills include personal autonomy, self-defense, smart reading, science and math, problem solving, independence, communication, and more. All these skills can be fostered through early planning and dedicated teamwork.

Transition is part of a normal human development. Young people and adolescents with frequent disabilities experience greater stress and difficulties in post-secondary education (Carter, 2010; Field & Hoffman, 1994, Sitlington, Nuebert, & Clark, 2010).

They often experience problems with:

- a) adequate support;
- b) special education services;
- c) changes in state policy;
- d) time and behavior management;
- e) performance skills;
- f) personal autonomy.

All these problems later become a barrier to post-secondary education (Sitlington et al., 2010; Vander Stoep, Davis, & Collins, 2000). Therefore, better results for young people can be obtained by examining the academic, social and psychological factors that affect the transition of young people with frequent disabilities from secondary to further vocational education (Bullock, 2013).

Given the perspective of context and interfaces, the performance and responsibility of all job roles remain crucial to the development of the feeling of being of inseparable part of corporations, i. e. the sense of embeddedness which is “a sense of belonging to a particular social network and being included in it” (Schultheiss, 2007). Work is understood as being culturally indivisible, related to life experience when people seek to create relationships, support, assurance, association and care (Blustein, 2011; Collin & Young, 2000; Schultheiss, 2007). Deep interaction with family, partner, social networks and cultural factors affects all work-related solutions, transitions and experiences.

According to Guichard's (2004, 2009) terminology, each of these interactions corresponds to various forms of subjective identity. By defining them, individuals become better informed about the more central or more peripheral role of each of these subjective forms of identity in their lives during a certain period of their lives. They also become aware about the interfaces that each subjective identity forms with each other in their system, especially if they are perceived as resources or barriers that are independent of each other. According to Guichard's (2004, 2009), also cultural, well-known interfacing allegations allow us to justify some of the findings of the overview, in particular the fact that today young people prefer not only personal contact for work (Biggart et al., 2002; Parada, 2007; Stokes & Wyn, 2007), but also to balance work and non-work in their lives (Domene et al., 2012; Stokes & Wyn, 2007; Wray-Lake et al., 2011), which was equated to professional success in Bujold and Fournier's (2008) study. The lives of people according to these authors or theories not only evolve according to the variety of peculiarities and paths, but also due to the active participation of individuals in their environment. Thus, it is possible to assume that the individual construct of their life reflects to a certain degree their experience and trajectories. However, D. L. Blustein (2006, 2011) reiterated that not all individuals manage the “degree of choice of experience in their lives” (Blustein, 2011). Similarly, Schultheiss (2007) noticed that not everyone has opportunity to present themselves as “they would like”, and in this process construct chosen careers. The ongoing changes in modern life have led to “significant changes in the landscape of the working world” (Blustein, 2011). Even highly educated workers all over the world experience diminishing career choices and thus challenge the traditional concept of a good working life career.

Nevertheless, according to Blustein (2011), such persons remain a minority. Many others, especially those in a disadvantaged situation and whose reality of life leaves room only for less-than-optimal education or career-related choices, becomes “working people, who have to survive” (Blustein, 2001).

The career of young people and their expectations of work and working activity are in line with many pre-requisites for choosing a career. Their understanding of career can be as an attribute of personal life (Stokes & Wyn, 2007), the execution and enrichment of work (Bujold & Fournier, 2008), the means of fulfilling expectations and happiness (Valore & Viaro, 2007). However, these data exist along with others that are contradictory as the importance attached to material labor values (Wray-Lake et al., 2011), and consumption and socialization (Brooks, 2006). Maybe these data reveal the true regulation of the current working conditions and correspond to D. L. Blustein (2011) claims that this is the opposite to work, which many people around the world perform to survive. Today's world requires flexibility and adaptability. Personal life and



career paths can be adapted successfully if persons are able to manage a changing situation, perceive what they like to work, acquire the competencies they need to perform the work and trust themselves (Perry & Vanzandt, 1998).

There is a lack of vocational training and re-training services, and the disabled person who has acquired a profession has more opportunities to find work and become a full-fledged member of society. Currently, disabled people lack vocational rehabilitation services in Lithuania, training and retraining are organized in the areas not adapted to disabled people and therefore often available only to those with a mild disability (What should be known about the integration of people with disabilities, 2010).

Studies carried out in Lithuania show that vocational training for disabled people gives positive results: people with disabilities become more confident, their psychological status improves, they become aware that disability is not the main barrier to employment, they expand the circle of friends, the knowledge gained encourages further personal development, acquired qualification provides a greater sense of social security, they take a more courageous look at the future, and so on. (Moskvina, Okunevičiūtė-Neveauskienė, 2011)

## **Conclusions**

Often young people with disabilities experience more obstacles in their transition to adulthood and have limited opportunities to participate in planning and evaluating services, especially in relation to education and career planning.

Independent (self-determined) individuals can have some control over their lives, since they can set future goals, linked to their reality, their situation knowing their strengths and needs. Personal autonomy (self-determination) skills enable young people with disabilities to play a more adult role. Personal autonomy can strengthen many young people who could become adults even during the transition period.

Preparation for the profession takes place during school time. Therefore, school and specifically teachers play a special role in helping to reconcile the student's aspirations and opportunities and adapting them to the socio-economic needs of a constantly changing society. Pupils at school especially those with disabilities need assistance for better understanding of themselves, find out what they like, what they want, and for which activity they have a vocation.

Studies carried out in Lithuania show that vocational training for disabled people gives positive results. However, it is also very important to develop general skills at the school. General skills are universal competences that ensure success in various fields, enable a person including those with disabilities to successfully learn, work, communicate and collaborate, think critically, solve problems independently, etc. It is the set of skills suitable for many areas of professional

activity that is necessary for a modern person to be advanced. Man's abilities, their proper education and development are the keys for professional career success and satisfaction.

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What should be known about the integration of people with disabilities/  
[http://karjeroscentras.eu/wp-content/uploads/2015/04/Ka-verta-zinoti-apie-neigaliju-integracija\\_FIN.pdf](http://karjeroscentras.eu/wp-content/uploads/2015/04/Ka-verta-zinoti-apie-neigaliju-integracija_FIN.pdf)

# IEKĻAUJOŠĀS IZGLĪTĪBAS KVALITĀTE, ŠĶĒRŠĻI UN NEPIECIEŠAMIE PEDAGOGISKIE RISINĀJUMI DARBĀ AR SKOLĒNIEM AR AUTISMU ITĀLIJĀ

## *Quality of Inclusive Education, Obstacles and Necessary Pedagogical Solutions in Working with Pupils with Autism in Italy*

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**Abstract.** Nowadays are increasingly encountered children diagnosed with autism, but there are still serious problems of inclusion of these children in the comprehensive general education system. This is due to various factors. The author of this study many years is working in the schools of special education in Rome, so in the year 2010 started research on inclusion of pupils with autism into the Italian schools. The idea is to transmit the author's knowledge and experience further in Latvia, where inclusion of such pupils into general education schools is still at an early stage because of a lack of both human resources and financial resources, as well in regard of experience and clear understanding about organization and management of this inclusion process. Here in this article is described the purpose of the study to explore the experience of people linked with the special pedagogy in Italy, attitudes, thoughts on the inclusion process quality of pupils with autism in schools, obstacles and solutions needed by methodological instructions. It will complement the already existing knowledge and give the opportunity to learn from the gained experience.

The study is built on research activities and there are used both theoretical and empirical methods, such as scientific literature research, analysis and interview with 4 individuals who are in close contact with the pupils with autism. The qualitative data resulting from interview are processed with the software AQUAD Six. The results obtained from the interview indicate that there are serious difficulties of inclusion of the pupil x with autism in the school because the teachers and support staff are not professionally prepared for it.

**Keywords:** classmates resource; obstacles; organization; planning; pupils with autism special needs; quality of inclusive education; school; solutions; special didactics.

## **Ievads**

### **Introduction**

Pēdējos gados ir reģistrēts pastāvīgs autisma diagnozes pieaugums. Fombonne (2009) uzsver, ka to var ietekmēt dažādi faktori, piemēram, izmaiņas diagnozes kritērijos, kas ir reģistrētas laika gaitā; iespēja uzstādīt diagnozi agrākā vecumā; pieaugoša uzmanība šai problēmai.

Itāļu pētniece Venuti (2012: 15) uzsver, ka jau daudzus gadus tiek runāts par jēdzienu „autisms”, tiek veikti dažādi pētījumi par šo argumentu: pētījumi, lai atklātu tā iemeslus, neirobioloģiskos pamatus un, galvenokārt, lai noskaidrotu kā var iejaukties, apieties, ārstēt personas ar šo diagnozi. Neskatoties uz to, skaidro Rutter (2005), ka pētījumi, gan nacionālajā, gan starptautiskajā līmenī ir guvuši nozīmīgus rezultātus, tomēr tie vēl joprojām nav atrisinājuši daudzas neskaidrības attiecībā uz šīs patoloģijas iemesliem un apiešanos ar to. Šis ir viens no galvenajiem iemesliem, kādēļ skolēnu ar autismu kvalitatīva iekļaujoša izglītība ir apgrūtināta.

Pētījuma autore savā darba pieredzē Itālijas skolās ir cieši ar to saskārusies, tādēļ 2010. gadā uzsāk šīs tēmas teorētisko izpēti, kas laika gaitā tiek papildināta. Pētījuma mērķis ir izziņāt ar Itālijas speciālo pedagoģiju saistīto cilvēku pieredzi, attieksmi, domas par skolēnu ar autismu iekļaušanas procesa skolā kvalitāti, šķēršļiem un nepieciešamajiem risinājumiem, vadoties pēc metodoloģiskajiem norādījumiem. Autore ir pārliecināta, ka pētījumā iegūtā informācija var noderēt, gan Latvijā, gan arī citās valstīs, dodot iespēju mācīties vienam no otra, lai varētu uzlabot šo skolēnu iekļaušanu sabiedrībā, kas aizsākas skolā.

Pētījums balstās uz darbības pētīšanu un tajā tiek izmantotas gan teorētiskās metodes (zinātniskās literatūras izpēte un analīze), gan empīriskās metodes (intervija ar 4 personām, kas ir ciešā kontaktā ar pētāmo skolēnu ar autismu). Šīs visas ir strukturētās intervijas, kur iepriekš tiek noteikts jautājumu saraksts un to kārtība. Iegūtie kvalitatīvie dati tiek apstrādāti AQUAD Six programmā un interpretēti.

### **Pētījuma teorētiskā bāze** *The research theoretical base*

Itālijas Bērnu un Pusaudžu Neiropsihiatrijas Asociācija (SINPIA, 2011) savās izstrādātajās vadlīnijās atzīmē skolu kā autisma terapijas projekta privilēģēto telpu, kur ne tikai var apgūt lasīšanu, rakstīšanu un rēķināšanu, bet arī ļaut realizēt daļu no terapijas programmas, kuras mērķis ir uzlabot skolēnu ar autismu sociālo mijiedarbību, bagātināt funkcionālo komunikāciju, nodrošināt interešu un aktivitāšu diversifikāciju. Pie kam vienaudžu klātbūtne padara skolas vidi par dabīgu arēnu, kur skolēns ar autismu var vispārināt prasmju apgūšanu un kompetences, kas ir iecienītas terapijas veidā strukturētā vidē.

Cottini (2009) uzsver nepieciešamību skolotājiem un citām darbā iesaistītajām personām atbrīvoties no idejas, ka „par autismu neko vēl nezina” un savu uzmanību pievērš četru galveno atslēgvārdu aprakstam, kas ir jāievēro, strādājot ar šiem skolēniem:

- pirmais atslēgvārds: plānošana;
- otrais atslēgvārds: organizācija;

- trešais atslēgvārds: speciālā didaktika vai ko darīt un ko nedarīt;
- ceturtais atslēgvārds – klases biedri.

Turpmāk sīkāk tiks apskatīts, ko katrs atslēgvārds nozīmē.

- Integrācijas un iekļaušanas procesa plānošana: Lai nodrošinātu pēc iespējas kvalitatīvāku integrāciju ir jānosaka alianses un jānoskaidro, kas uzņemsies atbildību par šo skolēnu. Kvalitatīvas integrācijas iespējas nopietni samazinās, ja par skolēnu rūpējas tikai atbalsta skolotājs un asistents un, ja starp skolu, ģimeni, specializētajiem pakalpojumiem un vietējām iestādēm netiek nodrošināta efektīva sadarbība.

Kopējā izglītības projektā ir jābūt iekļautam individuālajam izglītības plānam un skolēna vecāku līdzdalībai. Šai sakarā vecākiem ir jābūt ne tikai informētiem par izvēlēto aktivitāšu saturu, bet arī iesaistītiem izglītības procesā.

Autors Farci (2005) uzsver, ka ir jāizveido sadarbība arī ar vietējiem specializēto pakalpojumu sniedzējiem un jāparedz periodiskas tikšanās, kurās ir iesaistīti arī vecāki. Šādās situācijās var pārrunāt pielietotās intervences dažādos skolēna dzīves kontekstos, lai izvērtētu izglītības mērķus, saturu, tā realizāciju un vērtēšanas modalitātes, lai virzītu kopējos mērķus un, lai apspriestu pamata projekta filozofiju.

Cottini (2009) norāda uz dažiem aspektiem, kas šajā gadījumā būtu jāņem vērā:

- nepieciešamība pēc kopīgas mācību plānošanas mācību programmu kontakta punktu meklējumos, kas iespējams kopīgi sadarbojoties gan klases, gan atbalsta skolotājiem;
- iespēja pietuvināt mācību saturus, sekojot individuālajiem mērķiem;
- iespēja veikt aktivitātes klasē vai ārpus tās.
- Integrācijas un iekļaušanas procesa organizācija: Cottini (2009) uzsver, ka skolēnam ar autismu, ņemot vērā komunikācijas deficītu un sociālā akluma iezīmi (Frith, 1989) jeb nespēju izprast un paredzēt ne savu, ne citu garīgo stāvokli un uzvedību, ir nepieciešama īpaša vides strukturēšana, lai skolēns spētu nomierināties, lai viņa bažas par nezināmo samazinātos. Tas ir iespējams, ja šis skolēns zina, ko tieši no viņa gaida noteiktā momentā un vietā un, kas notiks pēc tam – kā, kur un ar ko notiks aktivitāte.

Skolā ir izmantojamas trīs šāda veida iespējas:

- telpu organizēšana, kur ir paredzētas didaktiskās aktivitātes;
- vizuālās shēmas, lai būtu skaidri saredzamas paredzētās aktivitātes;
- uzdevumu organizēšana, lai informētu skolēnu par to, kas tiks darīts un cik ilgu laiku tas aizņems.
- Speciālā didaktika: Cottini (2009) izceļ visnozīmīgākos aspektus, kuriem būtu jāpievērš īpaša uzmanība, strādājot ar skolēnu ar autismu:
  - sistemātiskās vērtēšanas vadīšanas procedūras;



- intervences tehnikas, kas nāk no dažādām specifiskajām programmām;
- modalitātes, kas atvieglo pirmās sociālās attiecības un komunikatīvo potenciālu;
- vizuālās stratēģijas un dienasgrāmatu pielietošana;
- metodoloģijas, lai vadītu uzvedības problēmas;
- stratēģiju izmantošana darbā ar skolēniem ar augstām kognitīvām funkcijām, lai mācītos izprast kontekstus un pielietojamās sociālās normas.
- Klases biedru resurss:
  - veidot iekļaujošu gaisotni;
  - veidot skolēnos izpratnes par autismu;
  - veicināt prosocialitāti (prosociality – tās ir darbības, kuru mērķis ir veicināt citu labklājību, cienot katra individuālās iezīmes) un pozitivitāti;
  - lietot stratēģijas, kas uzsver palīdzību un sadarbību (tutoring un kooperatīvā mācīšanās).

Itāļu pētnieks Vivanet (2015) atzīmē, ka augoša pētnieku interese par autismu ir ļāvusi apkopot plašas zināšanas par dažādu intervenču efektivitāti darbā ar skolēniem ar autismu, izmantojot uz pierādījumiem balstītas izglītības pieejas. Šādā veidā ir identificētas visefektīvākās skolā izmantotās intervences, kas ir piemērotas šiem skolēniem. Tās ir:

- sistemātiska mācīšanās: ir jābūt skaidri definētiem mācīšanās mērķiem un ceļiem, kā tos sasniegt;
- atbalsts un individualizēti pakalpojumi: katrs skolēns ar autismu ir jāatbalsta, modulējot viņam individuāli piemērotas intervences;
- strukturēta un saprotama mācīšanās vide: mācību programmai un darbībai ir jābūt skaidrai visiem. Videi ir jābūt tā organizētai, lai palīdzētu skolēnam apgūt dažādas kompetences;
- individualizēta mācību programma: tai būtu jābūt vērstai uz visvairāk apdraudētajām autisma kompetencēm: vajag tiekties pēc iespējas labākā veidā atbalstīt valodas kompetenču un sociālās mijiedarbības prasmju attīstīšanu, ņemot vērā katra subjekta individuālās īpatnības;
- funkcionāla pieeja uzvedības problēmām: problemātiska uzvedība ir milzīgs šķērslis skolēnu ar autismu iekļaušanai, tādēļ to vajadzētu mazināt ar proaktīvām un pozitīvām pieejām;
- ģimenes iesaistīšana: no vecāku puses sniegtā atbalsta daudzums un kvalitāte ietekmē mācību procesa rezultātus.

## **Empīriskā pētījuma rezultāti** ***The results of empirical research***

Autore ir aizsākusi empīrisko pētījumu 2012. gadā Itālijā, lai izzinātu skolēnu ar autismu iekļaujošās izglītības pozitīvos un negatīvos aspektus. Par šo tēmu ir publicēti jau 2 raksti “Iekļaujošās izglītības sistēmas kvalitāte darbā ar skolēniem ar autisma dažādām vajadzībām Itālijā” (2014) un “Iekļaujošā izglītība Itālijā” (2017), kur tiek aprakstīti rezultāti, kas ir iegūti no vecāku un iekļaujošās izglītības darbinieku anketēšanas, apstrādājot kvantitatīvos datus SPSS Descriptive statistic programmā.

Šajā pētījumā Romā tiek veiktas 4 intervijas, lai varētu turpināt padziļināti analizēt un salīdzināt x skolēna ar autismu iekļaušanas procesu Romas vispārizglītojošā pamatskolā. Šīs visas ir strukturētās intervijas, kur iepriekš tiek noteikts jautājumu saraksts un to kārtība. Tiek intervēti:

- pētāmā skolēna ar autismu māte, lai sīkāk izzinātu skolēna vecāku apmierinātības pakāpi par pamatskolā sniegtajiem iekļaujošās izglītības pakalpojumiem un, pēc viņu domām, par nepieciešamajiem risinājumiem;
- psiholoģe, kas strādā ar pētāmo skolēnu rehabilitācijas centrā un sadarbojas ar pamatskolu, kur viņš mācās, kā arī piedalās skolas operatīvās darba grupas sapulcēs. Psiholoģei tiek uzdoti jautājumi saistībā ar viņas kompetencēm, darbu un pieredzi;
- atbalsta skolotājs, kas jau gandrīz 2 gadus strādā ar pētāmo skolēnu. Skolotājam tiek pielāgoti jautājumi saistībā ar viņa kompetencēm un pieredzi;
- audzināšanas asistents, kas ar šo skolēnu skolā strādā jau 8 gadus un viņam tiek uzdoti tādi paši jautājumi kā atbalsta skolotājam, jo abi strādā kopā.

Intervijās ievāktie dati, lai tos varētu apstrādāt AQUAD Six programmā, tiek kodēti sekojošā veidā:

- Iekļaujošās izglītības kvalitāte:  
Kvalitāte poz – Pozitīva iekļaujošās izglītības kvalitāte;  
Kvalitāte pretrunīga - Pretrunīga iekļaujošās izglītības kvalitāte;  
Kvalitāte neg – Negatīva iekļaujošās izglītības kvalitāte.
- Kvalitatīvas iekļaujošās izglītības šķēršļi tiek kodēti vadoties pēc iepriekšējā pētījuma posmā izveidotās anketas atzīmētajiem šķēršļiem, tādēļ intervijās iztrūkst vairāki anketā minētie šķēršļi (šķērslis 1; 3; 7):  
Šķērslis 2 - Atbalsta personāla un skolotāju zema profesionālā sagatavotība;  
Šķērslis 4 - Finansiālo resursu nepietiekamība (palīgierīces, specifiskie un augstas tehnoloģijas didaktiskie materiāli);

Šķērslis 5 - Nepietiekami strukturālie resursi (arhitektoniskie un uztveres šķēršļi);

Šķērslis 6 - Sadarbības tīkla nepietiekamība starp skolēnu ar speciālajām vajadzībām integrāciju un tai nepieciešamo pakalpojumu sniegšanu;

Šķērslis 8 - Plaisa starp teoriju un praksi;

Šķērslis 9 - Speciāli iekārtotu telpu trūkums, kur veikt specializētās aktivitātes skolēniem ar speciālajām vajadzībām;

Šķērslis 10 - Slikta skolas operatīvās darba grupas funkcionēšana;

Šķērslis 11 - Vecāku sadarbības ar skolu trūkums;

Šķērslis 12 - Skolēnu vecums, jo bērni ir jaunāki, jo atvērtāki un līdz ar to ir vieglāk realizēt iekļaujošo izglītību;

Šķērslis 13 - Autisma smaguma pakāpe;

Šķērslis 14 - Ģimenes noslēgtība.

• Pedagoģiskie risinājumi, lai veicinātu kvalitatīvu iekļaujošo izglītību:

Risinājums 1 - Vecāku izvēles iespēju nodrošināšana, izvēloties starp nošķirtu speciālo izglītību vai iekļaujošu izglītību;

Risinājums 2 - Atbilstoša skolotāju apmācība darbam iekļaujošās izglītības ietvaros ar dažādību;

Risinājums 3 - Dažādības pieņemšana;

Risinājums 4 - Vecāku sadarbības ar skolu veicināšana;

Risinājums 5 - Skolotāju darba nepārtrauktības nodrošināšana;

Risinājums 6 - Nošķirta speciālā izglītība;

Risinājums 7 - Iekļaujošajā izglītībā strādājošo cilvēkresursu nodrošināšana;

Risinājums 8 - Atbilstošu strukturālo resursu nodrošināšana;

Risinājums 9 - Skolotāju pozitīvas attieksmes veicināšana (vēlēšanās strādāt un dot);

Risinājums 10 - Dažāda veida izglītības modalitātes;

Risinājums 11 - Daļēja iekļaušana;

Risinājums 12 - Skolēnu ar īpašām vajadzībām uzturēšanās „normālā” vidē iespēju nodrošināšana, lai varētu ar to mijiedarboties un to imitēt;

Risinājums 13 - Vecāku atvērtība uz dialogu;

Risinājums 14 - Sadarbības gaisotnes veicināšana starp visām iekļaujošajā izglītībā iesaistītajām pusēm;

Risinājums 15 - Skolotāju radošuma veicināšana;

Risinājums 16 - Skaidras idejas par veicamajām aktivitātēm.

Apstrādājot intervijas rezultātus AQUAD Six programmā, visnozīmīgākās mījsakarības, kas tajā parādās, ir starp 3 aspektiem, proti, negatīva iekļaujošās izglītības kvalitāte; visa skolā strādājošā atbalsta personāla (skolotāju, asistentu) profesionalitātes trūkums kā šķērslis kvalitatīvai iekļaujošai izglītībai un no tā izrietošais pedagoģiskais risinājums ir nodrošināt skolotāju profesionalitāti. Šo

aspektu mijsakarības parādās 11 gadījumos intervijā ar pētāmā skolēna ar autismu māti.

Apstrādājot intervijas rezultātus AQUAD Six programmā, visnozīmīgākās mijsakarības, kas tajā parādās, ir starp 3 aspektiem, proti, negatīva iekļaujošās izglītības kvalitāte; visa skolā strādājošā atbalsta personāla (skolotāju, asistentu) profesionalitātes trūkums kā šķērslis kvalitatīvai iekļaujošai izglītībai un no tā izrietošais pedagoģiskais risinājums ir nodrošināt skolotāju profesionalitāti. Šo aspektu mijsakarības parādās 11 gadījumos intervijā ar pētāmā skolēna ar autismu māti.

- Autore dod ieskatu intervijas rezultātos, citējot dažus fragmentus no tās ar x skolēna māti, saistībā ar iepriekšminētiem aspektiem:

“Vai esat apmierināta ar Jūsu bērna skolā integrāciju un iekļaušanu?”

Nē, jo daudz kas nav tā, kā es to biju cerējusi, piemēram, mans dēls skolā ir integrēts tikai formāli, bet patiesībā īstas iekļaušanas nav, piemēram, pietrūkst skolotāju profesionalitātes.

Pēc Jūsu domām, klases gaisotne ir iekļaujoša?

Nē, domāju, ka iekļaujošā gaisotne pamatskolā nav laba. Klases skolotājiem būtu jāpiestrādā pie tā, lai mana dēla klasesbiedriem palīdzētu kļūt atbildīgākiem, vairāk viens otram palīdzēt (attīstīt tutoring prasmes).

Vai esat apmierināta ar klases skolotāju, tai skaitā atbalsta skolotāja un audzinošā asistenta profesionalitāti?

....nekādā gadījumā neesmu apmierināta ar klases skolotājiem, kas neliekas ne zinīs par manu dēlu.

Vai esat apmierināta ar Jūsu bērnam paredzēto aktivitāšu plānošanu, organizāciju un to saturu?

Nē, jo skolas atbalsta personāls nav profesionāli tam sagatavots.

Vai esat apmierināta ar Jūsu bērnu saistītās operatīvās darba grupas funkcionēšanu?

Nē, ..., nav izjūtams savstarpējais atbalsts problēmu risināšanā, tādēļ darba grupas sanāksmes uzskatu vienkārši par formalitāti, kas pēc normatīvajiem aktiem ir jāveic, bet reāla ieinteresētība šajā visā nav izjūtama.

Vai esat piedalījies Jūsu bērna funkcionālā dinamiskā profila un individuālā izglītības plāna formulēšanā un tā vērtēšanā?

Nē, mani neviens nav aicinājis tajos piedalīties.

Vai skola ir interesējusies par Jūsu apmierinātības līmeni saistībā ar Jūsu bērnam sniegto skolas pakalpojumu kvalitāti?

Nē, nekad neesmu izjutusi vai sastapusi no skolas vai skolotāju puses ieinteresētību uzzināt par manu apmierinātības līmeni saistībā ar skolas sniegtajiem pakalpojumiem.”

- Runājot par skolotāju profesionalitātes trūkumu un līdz ar to nepieciešamību to veicināt, skolēna mātes teiktais sakrīt ar atbalsta skolotāja, asistenta un zināmā mērā arī ar psiholoģes teikto:

Fragments no intervijas ar atbalsta skolotāju:

“Kas būtu jāmaina, lai uzlabotu skolēnu ar speciālajām mācību vajadzībām integrāciju un iekļaušanu? Kāpēc?”

...Labāk apmācīt skolotājus, tai skaitā arī atbalsta skolotāju un audzināšanas asistentu, lai nodrošinātu lielāku profesionalitāti.

Kādi, jūsuprāt, ir svarīgākie aspekti, lai kvalitatīvi vadītu skolēnu ar autismu integrāciju un iekļaušanu skolā?

Svarīgākie aspekti ir šī skolēna pieņemšana, jo viņi bieži vien klasē tiek uzskatīti kā traucēklis klases darbam.”

Fragments no intervijas ar asistentu:

“Manuprāt ar šiem skolēniem ir jāstrādā cilvēkiem, kam ir liels cilvēcīgums un liela vēlēšanās un spēja dot citiem, tikai tad seko profesionalitāte.”

“Skola izvirza nepieciešamību lietot tādu metodoloģiju, kuras centrā ir skolēns, kooperatīvā mācīšanās un ne otrādi – vecā metodoloģija, kur centrā ir skolotājs un individuālā mācīšanās. Ko Jūs domājat šai sakarā?”

Protams, ka jaunā metodoloģija, kur centrā ir skolēns, ir vislabākā, bet tās realizēšanā skolotājam ir nepieciešamas īpašas prasmes un zināšanas, kas bieži vien skolotājam vienkārši nav, tādēļ, šādos gadījumos labāk būtu izmantot veco metodoloģiju, kur skolotājs ir klases centrā, savādāk var rasties nopietnas problēmas klases vadībā.”

Fragments no intervijas ar audzināšanas asistentu:

“Es skolā neesmu redzējis jauno metodoloģiju, bet gan to, ka skolotājs klases priekšā runā, stāsta jauno vielu un skolēni lielākoties strādā individuāli pēc skolotāju norādījumiem. Lielākā daļa skolēnu nav ieinteresēti mācīties, viņiem to negribas darīt un līdz ar to pietrūkst uzmanības sekot līdz skolotāju norādījumiem. Skolēniem nepatīk mācīties, jo viņi nesaskata tajā jēgu un nozīmi. Ir dažādi veidi kā ieinteresēt skolēnus kaut ko apgūt, bet tas netiek izmantots.”

Visi šie intervētie atzīst skolotāju atbilstošas sagatavotības trūkumu gan, lai nodrošinātu iekļaujošu gaisotni klasē, gan, lai kopumā kvalitatīvi vadītu mācību procesu.

- Runājot par intervēto dažādām piedāvātajām izglītības modalitātēm skolēniem ar autismu, atbildes ir sekojošas:

Fragments no intervijas ar atbalsta skolotāju:

“Kāda, jūsuprāt, ir vispiemērotākā integrācijas un iekļaušanas skolā modalitāte skolēnam ar autismu?”

Domāju, ka vislabākā modalitāte būtu integrācija speciālā skolā, kur strādā profesionāļi, telpas ir speciāli iekārtotas, ir atbilstoši materiāli darbam un, kur klasē ir apmēram 5 tādi paši skolēni ar autismu.”

Fragments no intervijas ar audzināšanas asistentu:

“Modalitātes var būt visdažādākās, bet galvenais, kas ir nepieciešams, tie ir labi sagatavoti speciālisti, kas zina, ko dara un, kas grib darīt.”

Fragments no intervijas ar skolēna māti:

“Es uzskatu, ka atbilstošākais variants ir daļēja integrācija, kur blakus integrācijai parastajā klasē, dažreiz aktivitātes būtu jāveic arī atsevišķā klasē kopā ar citiem skolēniem ar speciālām izglītības vajadzībām vai individuāli ar atbalsta skolotāja un audzinošā asistenta palīdzību.”

Fragments no intervijas ar psiholoģi:

“Vispārizglītojošajās skolās un klasēs. Uzskatu, ka labs skolotājs ir tas, kurš saprot, kad ar šo skolēnu strādāt klasē un, kad ārpus klases, šeit ir nepieciešams elastīgums.”

Šeit var vērot atšķirības intervēto domās par viņuprāt vispiemērotākajiem skolēnu ar autismu iekļaušanas modeļiem izglītības sistēmā. Atbalsta skolotāja atbilde liecina par neticību šo skolēnu iekļaušanas nozīmīgumam vispārizglītojošajās skolās un klasēs, ko savukārt psiholoģe uzsver kā ļoti nozīmīgu.

Fragments no intervijas ar psiholoģi:

“Kādi ir x skolēna ar autismu skolā integrācijas pozitīvie aspekti?”

Tie ir daudzi, piemēram, tas, ka x jauniešs var uzturēties „normālā” vidē ar to mijiedarboties, to imitēt. Šis ir ļoti nozīmīgs aspekts.”

## **Secinājumi**

### **Conclusion**

Iepazīstoties ar jaunākajām teorētiskajām atziņām par piemērotākajām skolēnu ar autismu skolā iekļaušanas intervencēm un iegūstot rezultātus no intervijām par reālo situāciju skolā un tur pielietotajām metodoloģijām darbā ar x skolēnu ar autismu, var secināt, ka iekļaušanas process skolā ir apgrūtināts dažādu iemeslu dēļ. Visvairāk minētais iemesls ir skolotāju un atbalsta personāla profesionalitātes trūkums kvalitatīvi plānot, organizēt un vadīt skolēna ar autismu iekļaušanu klases kolektīvā. Vispilgtāk tas atklājas intervijā ar skolēna māti, kas atklāj, ka klasē viņa neizjūt iekļaujošu gaisotni; skolā trūkst atsevišķas telpas, kur veikt ārpusklases aktivitātes; nav sadarbības starp skolotājiem un citiem speciālistiem, kas strādā ar šo skolēnu ārpusklasē; darba grupas sapulces ir tikai formālas, tās nesniedz nekādu atbalstu problēmu risināšanā; vecāki nepiedalās individuālā mācību plāna formulēšanā, nav informēti par aktivitāšu saturu un skola un skolotāji neinteresējas par vecāku apmierinātības līmeni par skolā

sniegtajiem pakalpojumiem. Arī pārējās trīs intervētās personas atzīst, ka trūkst profesionāli sagatavotu speciālistu darbam skolā un, ka tas būtu jānodrošina, lai uzlabotu esošo situāciju.

Autore piekrīt asistenta domām: “Vispiemērotākā integrācija un iekļaušana var būt tad, ja strādā labi profesionāļi, kas saprot, ka katrs dažādības gadījums ir atšķirīgs, kas ir jāiepazīst un jāprot tam piemērot visatbilstošākās darba metodes. Šādā darbā svarīgs ir liels cilvēcīgums un liela vēlēšanās un spēja dot citiem, tikai tad, seko profesionalitāte.”

### **Summary**

Autism is a very complex and nowadays a growing nuisance, and still takes place research of its various aspects. Thanks to the knowledge acquired in the research there is a broader understanding of autism and applied interventions in the context of therapy and school environment are improved, which, it turns out, is the best for pupils with autism in learning of social skills. Therefore, the teachers and assistants working in schools should be professionally very well prepared to ensure properly possibilities for such pupils' growth and integration. Especially dedicated instructions are widely available in Italy for qualitative inclusive education, which should be taken into account. The author in the theoretical research addresses the special attention towards indications or keywords proposed by Cottini (2009) that should be used when working with these pupils. These are: the planning process of integration and inclusion; organization process of integration and inclusion; special didactics; classmates' resource. These 4 keywords are further explored and applied within the theoretical part when preparing the interview questions to obtain a vision of inclusion process of pupils with autism in the Italian primary school. In the theoretical part are also mentioned interventions elaborated in a perspective of evidence-based education in working with pupils with autism as noted by Vivanet (2015). Despite widely available methodological materials, it derives from the study that qualitative inclusion of the examined pupil with autism is difficult. The pupil's mother is speaking out completely negative in the interview, as the main obstacle mentioning the issue that teachers are not prepared for this work, which is the reason for the lack of an inclusive climate. The pupil's mother noted that the school lacks a separate space where to perform extra-curricular activities; no collaboration among teachers and other professionals who work with this pupil out-of-school; the meetings of the working group are the only formal, they do not provide any support for problem solving; parents are not involved in the formulation of individual learning plan; they are not aware of the content of the activities and the school and the teachers are not interested in the parents' level of satisfaction on services provided at school. These aspects are completely contrary to the keywords of qualitative inclusion of pupils with autism explored in this theoretical study.

When processing the results of the interview in the software AQUAD Six, the most important interrelations appear between 3 aspects, namely negative quality of inclusive education; the lack of professional expertise for all support personnel working in the school (teachers, assistants), as a barrier for qualitative inclusive education and the resulting pedagogical solution is to provide the teachers with a professional expertise. Interrelation of these aspects appears in 11 cases during the interview with mother of pupil x with autism.

During the interview, the assistant mentions that pupils are demotivated to attend school and learn, because mostly there is used an approach centered on the teachers, and this is due to

the insufficient training of teachers. The supporting teacher notes that diversity in such cases is considered as nuisance for the class work, and there is not a search of contact points between the curricula programs that might promote involvement of pupils with the special needs in the class work. So sometimes the teachers come to the conclusion that the most appropriate modality of education for pupils with severe disabilities is a separated special education.

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**SOCIĀLĀ PEDAGOĢIJA**  
*SOCIAL PEDAGOGY*



# THE ANALYSIS OF CONTEXTS OF STRESS EXPERIENCED BY SOCIAL WELFARE PROFESSIONALS: EXPERIENCE OF LITHUANIA, LATVIA AND GREAT BRITAIN

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**Abstract.** *The article deals with stress experienced by social welfare professionals in different sociocultural context. The comparison of inter-professional stressogenity shows that the greatest stress is experienced by the representatives of social sphere professions (as social workers, pedagogues). The main aim of the article is to disclose the contexts of stress experienced by social welfare professionals in Baltic countries (Lithuania and Latvia) and Great Britain. Professionals' experiences were analysed employing the qualitative approach (semi-structured written interview was used). Reconstructing the context of the stress experienced by specialists of social welfare professions of these countries, certain differences showed up.*

**Keywords:** *manifestation of stress, factors causing stress, social sphere specialists.*

## Introduction

Manifestation of stress and stress coping strategies are to be regarded as relevant areas of scientific research in both theoretical and praxeological aspects. Links of coping with stress with extrinsic and intrinsic resources of an individual and community are obvious and are an object of many scientific studies (Rout & Rout, 1993; Bubnys & Petrošiūtė, 2008; Bubeliene & Merkys, 2010, 2012; Lawren, 2016, and ect.).

Traditionally, stress as well as occupational stress are positioned as a lack of personalized response to psychosocial and psychophysical loads falling on an individual. Acknowledging that there is no overall unifying perception of manifestation of stress in different professions and its coping strategies,

attention is also paid to the importance of differentiation of the said phenomena in order to construct adequate preventive measures for the representatives of concrete professions (Kepalaitė, 2013). Although the number of such studies is increasing, there is still a lack of research focusing on specialists of social welfare professions (social pedagogues, social workers). More often research is conducted on the spread of stress in the communities of teachers (Bulotaitė & Lapeškieienė, 2006; Bubelienė & Merkys, 2012), officials (Bandzevičienė et al., 2010; Norkus et al., 2014), nurses (Galdikienė, 2007; Burgess et al., 2010; Istomina et al., 2011; Laranjeira, 2011) and other professions. Studies involving specialists of social welfare professions are more often oriented to the assessment of occupational aspects of their life quality (Bubnys & Petrošiūtė, 2008), peculiarities of experienced anxiety (Alifanovienė & Vaitkevičienė, 2007; Alifanovienė, Vaitkevičienė, & Lučinskaitė, 2012), causes of occupational fatigue (Leliūgienė, Rupšienė, & Baušytė, 2003), prerequisites for coping with the burnout syndrome and its prevention (Vaicekauskienė, 2014). There is a tendency to investigate stress experienced by social workers already in the context of the supervision perspective (Naujanienė, 2010; Dirgėlienė, 2010, 2013; Kiaunytė, 2012).

It should be noted that in the space of Europe, and especially of the Baltic States, clinical psychological quantitative research on stress manifestation and its coping prevail (Folkman & Maskovič, 2004; Kepalaitė, 2013; Lazarus & Folkman, 1984; Skaalvik & Skaalvik, 2015; Valickas, Grakauskas, & Želvienė, 2010).

The issue of social workers' safety came to the fore recently. Various incidents from other social work specialists' daily work experience show that in Latvia and Lithuania, professionals face safety-threatening risks in their practice. Social workers have referred to the topicality of safety issues, as 72 % of the surveyed professionals have heard of cases or they themselves have faced safety threats in their practice (Razgale, Dīķe, & Geiba 2015). When monitoring families and individuals, social workers have to deal with tuberculosis sufferers that directly pose a risk of contracting this dangerous disease, aggressive drug addicts or individuals under the influence of alcohol, people with mental disabilities whose behaviour is difficult to predict. The work of social caregivers who take care of elderly people is challenging both psychologically and physically, causing prolonged stress and occupational burnout. Reception of visitors is also emotionally gruelling: usually calming down a client requires more time than finding a solution for his problem, as people are under tension, emotional and irritable.

There is still a lack of the analysis of this problem using other qualitative research approaches, which are most likely to open up possibilities for a broader and deeper look at the occupational stress in social and cultural aspects. Social and cultural contexts become particularly important in the activities of specialists working in socially sensitive professions, who work in person-to-person interactions that often directly depend not only on the very person but also on the economic, social and cultural situation of the country.

This presupposes a relatively new problem space: *What contexts of manifestation of stress experienced by specialists of social welfare professions come to prominence in the Baltic States and Great Britain? What social meanings are constructed by these specialists' attitude, which possibly shapes social reality?*

**The research aim** is to disclose the contexts of manifestation of stress experienced by specialists of social welfare professions of Lithuania, Latvia and Great Britain.

**The research object** is the contexts of manifestation of stress experienced by specialists of social welfare professions of Lithuania, Latvia and Great Britain.

#### **Research Sample and Methodology**

Respondents (N=26) working in the field of social welfare and education and in the field of education in Lithuania, Latvia and Great Britain, who have university education and at least 2 years of work experience, are selected using the purposive convenience non-probability sampling.

Specialists' experience was analysed employing the qualitative method of data collection (the semi-structured *interview*), using open-ended questions according to assessment areas foreseen by the researchers, which were formulated having analysed scientific literature and authors' research that discloses the peculiarities of experienced stress and coping with it (Kriukova, 2010; Lazarus & Folkman, 1984).

The content of responses, which formed the basis of the study, was divided according to respective diagnostic areas, broken down into categories (diagnostic indicators), notional statements were selected. The rating for each category was identified by calculating the frequency of notional statements in the category. In the course of the research, the contexts of manifestation of stress experienced by specialists of social welfare professions, their experiences, the attitude to stress experienced in the professional activity unfolded. The research data were processed applying the content analysis method, using an open coding procedure (Corbin & Strauss, 2014; Guba & Lincoln). An expert method was used to validate qualitative research data. This allowed to seek a more exhaustive presentation of the study, a more precise analysis of the empirical data of the qualitative research and interpretation of results.

### The Analysis of Research Results

During the research, we analyzed manifestation of stress experienced by the specialists of social welfare professions in Lithuania, Latvia and Great Britain in the contexts of their subjective experiences. We analyzed social values constructed by the attitude of these specialists and social reality that is likely to be constructed on the basis of this attitude. Table 1 presents Lithuanian and Latvian specialists' opinion about factors causing stress in the professional activity.

Table 1 **Factors Causing Stress to Social Welfare Specialists in their Professional Activities in Lithuania and Latvia (N=21)**

Category	Subcategory	Examples of proving statements	N
<b>Broad field of professional activities in the institution</b>	The abundance of occupational roles, poor acknowledgement and reward.	<i>a universal employee who is responsible for everything, my work is not appreciated, the salary is too low</i>	27
	Broad content of activities	<i>the content of the activity is very broad, I have to do too much work</i>	26
	Permanent changes at work	<i>first they issue requirements and later they think how they should be implemented, there is a lack of information, we only get more work</i>	20
	Unsuitable working conditions	<i>when there is no separate room, it is problematic to work, it is necessary to ensure confidentiality; we used to go to an empty classroom or another place; security risks; customer aggression; emotional and physical violence</i>	15
	Lack of time	<i>I bring work home, I can't do everything at work</i>	11
	Abundance of documentation	<i>documentation takes very much time, you have to describe each step</i>	11
	Unexpected cases	<i>unplanned situations, cases that I have to solve "here and now"</i>	6
	Work checks	<i>commissions, audits that check my work</i>	5
		<b>Total:</b>	<b>121</b>
<b>Challenges of interpersonal relationships</b>	Lack of cooperation between specialists and the family	<i>more complicated communication with parents, there is no progress, they always know everything better than I</i>	12
	Inappropriate communication with children	<i>communication with problem children, I don't make myself understood</i>	8

	Lack of collegial and partner relationships with management and colleagues	<i>complicated with managers, I get only instructions from them and what I did wrong, co-workers do not acknowledge</i>	6
		<b>Total:</b>	<b>26</b>
<b>Importance of personality traits</b>	Critical self-assessment	<i>I am too demanding and critical to myself, dissatisfied with the results I have achieved, I am too sensitive</i>	19
	Reconciliation of the professional activity and family needs	<i>I am trying not to think about work after work, I don't always succeed, the family stays somewhere</i>	13
	Intrinsic contradictions	<i>sometimes to pretend because I don't like all parents, to pretend that I want to communicate with them</i>	6
	Occupational expectations	<i>I expect too much, I'm disappointed</i>	2
			<b>Total:</b>

The analysis of qualitative semi-structured interview data discloses factors of occupational stress experienced by social sphere specialists of Lithuania and Latvia. The meanings constructed on the basis of their opinion enable to disclose multilayered personal, social, cultural, and educational contexts, which potentially contain stressogenic factors. The generalized semantic units that rose to prominence in the course of the research demonstrate that specialists encounter stressful situations due to factors lying in the very **personality, the social-institutional environment** and **interpersonal relationships**. It was disclosed that the abundance of institutional and interpersonal stressogenic factors had significantly outweighed factors lying in the personality.

Having analyzed specialists' subjective experiences, the generalized semantic units highlight the most characteristic stressogenic factors of the **professional activity field** (N=121). This category is further broken down into several subcategories: **the abundance of occupational roles, poor acknowledgement and reward** (N=27) (*responsible for everything, co-workers do not acknowledge, too low salary*), **broad content of activities** (N=26) (*I have to do too much work*), **permanent changes at work** (N=20) (*first they issue requirements, and later they think how they should be implemented*), **inappropriate working conditions** (N=15) (*when there is no separate room, it is problematic to work, it is necessary to ensure confidentiality*), **lack of time** (N=11) (*I bring home*), **abundance of documentation** (N=11), **unexpected cases** (N=6) and **work checks** (N=5) (*documentation takes very much time, unplanned situations, commissions that check my work*).

Reconstruction of the context of generalized semantic units of **challenges of interpersonal relationships**, (N=26) results in several subcategories: **lack of**

**cooperation between specialists and the family** (N=12) (*there is no progress, they always know everything better than I*), **inappropriate communication with children** (N=8) (*I cannot make myself understood*), **lack of collegial and partner relationships with management and colleagues** (N=6) (*complicated with managers, I only get instructions from them and what I did wrong*).

The analysis of subjective experiences of factors causing social welfare specialists' stress enabled to distinguish the context of the category **personality traits** (N=40), which is revealed by several subcategories: **critical self-assessment** (N=19) (*dissatisfied with the results achieved*), **reconciliation of the professional activity and family needs** (N=13) (*I try not to think about work after work*), **intrinsic contradictions** (N=6) (*you pretend sometimes because I don't like all parents*), **occupational expectations** (N=2) (*I expect too much, disappoint*).

According to authors (Lazarus & Folkman, 1984; Folkman & Moskowitz, 2004), stress is perceived as a physical, emotional tension, a person's response to complex situations, where despite potentially improving social (economic, health, social, educational) conditions, stress is increasing. The analysis of the research data discloses that social sphere specialists of Lithuania and Latvia envisage most stressors in the social context, in the professional field and in the activities of the institution. These categories and the subcategories distinguished in them are characterized by the largest number of statements.

The analysis of researchers' (Bubelienė & Merkys, 2012; Pikūnas & Palujanskienė, 2005) studies on stress highlights the fact that stressogenic factors often lie at the macro social level, encompassing the country's welfare, social policy, cultural peculiarities, and that these factors come to prominence considerably less at the level of the organization and at the personal-intrapersonal level. On the other hand, it is paradoxical, but specialists who experience stressful situations try to cope with them at the individual-intrapersonal and interpersonal level. This area of research is waiting for further exhaustive studies.

In order to avoid putting social workers at risk and ensure that a social worker can protect himself when working with a client, special conditions must be created, which would provide the workers with the opportunity to recover from stress situations, effectively recuperate both physically and mentally. It is necessary to know, what needs to be addressed in practice – what additional knowledge and skills social workers must possess and which additional assisting means must be available for the professional's self-defence.

During the research, it was sought to find out factors causing stress to social welfare specialists in their professional activities in Great Britain by analyzing the contexts of their subjective experiences (Table 3).



Table 2 **Factors Causing Stress to Social Welfare Specialists in their Professional Activities in Great Britain (N=5)**

<b>Category</b>	<b>Subcategory</b>	<b>Examples of proving statements</b>	<b>N</b>
<b>Broad field of professional activities in the institution</b>	Broad content of activities	<i>the amount of work is constantly increasing, work becomes much more complicated</i>	13
	Lack of time	<i>everything must be done and submitted on time</i>	11
	Lack of professionalism	<i>we notice problems too late, this causes stress</i>	10
	Abundance of documentation	<i>abundance of clerical work, to prepare papers, reports</i>	5
	Indefiniteness and abundance of occupational roles	<i>I encountered obstacles due to my vague role, many roles</i>	3
	Unexpected cases	<i>unplanned situations, cases that I have to solve "here and now"</i>	2
			<b>Total:</b>
<b>Challenges of interpersonal relationships</b>	Lack of cooperation between specialists and the family	<i>It is not always possible to establish constructive relations, don't have a need to solve problems</i>	9
	Inappropriate communication with children	<i>in their eyes I am seen as an enemy; don't trust</i>	5
	Lack of collegial and partner relationships with management and colleagues	<i>didn't want to cooperate with me, didn't report problems related to students</i>	3
			<b>Total:</b>
<b>Importance of personality traits</b>	Reconciliation of professional activities and family needs	<i>I return home as if to a new world, I have many other activities after work, I feel that I harm my family</i>	6
	Critical self-assessment	<i>It isn't easy to make the most appropriate decision</i>	4
	Occupational expectations	<i>I expect too much, to think that they are still children</i>	3
			<b>Total:</b>

Having analyzed subjective experiences of stress experienced by specialists of social welfare professions in their professional activities in Great Britain, several generalized notional units that can be used as a basis for constructing social reality of relevant stressogenic factors come to prominence. The distinguished generalised semantic units disclose the contexts of **personality traits (N=44)**, **challenges of interpersonal relationships (N=17)** and a **broad**

**field of professional activities** (N=13), where informants experience most stress.

The analysis of semi-structured interviews demonstrates that specialists envisage a large share of stressors in **the field of professional activities**, where a number of subcategories rise to prominence: **broad content of the activity** (N=13) (*the amount of work is constantly increasing, work becomes more complex*), **lack of time** (N=11) (*you have to do everything and submit on time*), **lack of professionalism** (N=10) (*we notice problems too late, this causes stress*), **abundance of documentation** (N=5) (*the abundance of clerical work, to prepare papers, reports*), **indefiniteness and abundance of occupational roles** (N=3) (*I encountered obstacles due to my vague role, many roles*), **unexpected cases** (N=2) (*unplanned situations, cases that I have to solve “here and now”*).

Subjective experiences of social welfare professionals enabled to generalize and distinguish the category of **challenges of interpersonal relationships**, which is characterized by several subcategories: **lack of cooperation between specialists and the family** (N=9) (*it is not always possible to establish constructive relations*), **inappropriate communication with children** (N=5) (*in their eyes I am seen as enemy, don't trust*), **lack of collegial and partner relations with management and colleagues** (N=3) (*didn't want to cooperate with me, didn't report problems related to students*).

The reconstruction of the context of generalised semantic units of **personality traits** (N=13) results in several subcategories: **reconciliation of professional activities and family needs** (N=6) (*I return home as if to a new world, have many other activities after work, I feel that I hurt my family*), **critical self-assessment** (N=4) (*it's not easy to make the most appropriate decision*), **occupational expectations** (N=3) (*I expect too much, to think that they are still children*).

Reconstruction of the context of factors causing stress to social sphere professionals of Great Britain resulted in the identified importance of social sphere, institutional factors, which has evidently moved the centre of gravity from the context of the personality and interpersonal relationships.

## Conclusions

1. The analysis of subjective experiences of social welfare specialists of Lithuania and Latvia enabled researchers to construct social reality in which the factors causing stress of different levels come to prominence. The research data demonstrate that these professionals provide the largest number and most concentrated statements not at the level of the personality, the intrapersonal level but at social and institutional levels,

- which encompass non-smoothness at the managerial, organizational level, due to the abundance of documents and changes; broadness of specialists' activities; indefiniteness; inappropriate working conditions and permanent activity checks.
2. Safety issues are topical for social work professionals. Safety threats cause high stress and application of stress management strategies is insufficient. These issues must be addressed both from a legal point of view and from the point of view of social workers' training. It is necessary to know what needs to be addressed in practice: what additional knowledge and skills social workers must possess and which additional assisting means must be available for the professional's self-defence.
  3. Reconstruction of the multilayered context of socio-cultural and educational diversity of social sphere specialists of Great Britain resulted in multiple semantics of stressogenic factors. Professionals of this country do not tend to relate factors that for the most part cause occupational stress to the space of a personality's, intrapersonal level. The centre of gravity of stressogenity is clearly concentrated at the social, institutional level, which highlights tensions of professional activities that are related to the wide scope of activities, document management, poor time management, lack of professionalism, solution of unexpected cases.

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# EKSPERIMENTĀLAIS PĒTĪJUMS PAR PUSAUDŽU SASKARSMES PRASMJU ATTĪSTĪŠANU SOCIĀLAJĀ GLEZNOŠANĀ

## *Experimental Study on Development of Adolescents' Interaction Skills in Social Painting*

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**Abstract.** *The paper provides an insight into the experimental study on the development of adolescents' interaction skills in social painting that was carried out at Rezekne Academy of Technologies (Latvia) in 2017. The study is part of a broader research conducted from 2015 to 2017. The effectiveness of social painting as a social game and method in development of adolescents' interaction skills in social-pedagogical teamwork is scientifically justified and experimentally validated in the research.*

**Keywords:** *adolescents, interaction, interaction skills, social painting.*

### **Ievads**

#### ***Introduction***

Pētījuma aktualitāti pamato autoru pārlicība, kas rasta praktiskajā sociāli pedagoģiskajā darbībā, ka saskarsmes veicināšanai pielietošanā diezgan vienkārša un efektīva sociālās gleznošanas metode praktiski reti tiek izmantota (Barkane, 2017). Latvijā trūkst zinātniski metodisku materiālu šīs metodes pielietošanai sociālā pedagoga darbā. Savukārt Rēzeknes Tehnoloģiju akadēmijas sociālo pedagogu programmas studentiem ir iespēja gan teorētiski, gan praktiski apgūt šo metodi, kā arī novērtēt tās nozīmīgumu topošo speciālistu profesionālajā darbībā tik būtisku saskarsmes prasmju attīstīšanai, socializācijas procesa sekmēšanai. Rakstā tiek piedāvāts ieskats 2015. – 2017. gadā RTA veiktajā pētījumā.

Eksperimentālā pētījuma mērķis bija noskaidrot, vai ir vērojama pusaudžiem saskarsmes prasmju attīstības dinamika sociālās gleznošanas programmas aprobācijas rezultātā.

## **Ieskats teorētiskā pētījuma zinātniskās nostādnes** *Insights in the theoretical framework of scientific research*

Piedāvātais pētījums balstīts uz vairākām zinātniskām atziņām par saskarsmi, saskarsmes prasmēm un sociālo gleznošanu kā vienu no efektīviem instrumentiem sociāli pedagoģiskās darbības ar pusaudžiem īstenošanai. Pamatojamies uz to, kasaskarsme ir kontaktēšanās process ar citiem cilvēkiem, kontakts var būt tiešs un netiešs, ar saskarsmes palīdzību tiek ietekmēta cilvēka vai cilvēku darbība, uzvedība, attieksme, uzskati, emocijas (Sociālā darba terminoloģijas vārdnīca, 2000). Daudzu zinātnieku (Pļaviniece & Škuškovnika, 2002; Dubkevičs, 1999; Smukā, 2011) skatījumā saskarsme ir sarežģītu procesu kopums, kurā cilvēki rīkojas un domā katrs sev tīkamā veidā, atbilstoši situācijas novērtējumam; saskarsmes struktūru veido 3 elementi: informācijas apmaiņa jeb komunikācija, saskarsmes partneru mijiedarbība jeb interakcija, saskarsmes partneru savstarpējā uztvere jeb percepcija.

Tiek uzskatīts, ka jebkuram cilvēkam, lai tas spētu iekļauties sabiedrībā, ir nepieciešamas saskarsmes prasmes, jo gan ikdienā, gan skolā, gan ārpus skolas, gan grupā, gan mājās ir vajadzība kontaktēties ar citiem cilvēkiem, - ja pusaudzīm veidosies pozitīva pieredze saskarsmē, attiecībās ar līdzcilvēkiem, tad viņš spēs veiksmīgāk socializēties (Engere, Gleške, u.c., 2014). Pēc R. Andersones (2001) atziņām pusaudžiem tieši savstarpējo attiecību sistēmā veidojas izpratne par sociālo normu nozīmību, kā arī sekmīga sadarbība ar citām personām pusaudžiem veicina personības attīstību. Pusaudži socializācijas procesā, kas norit dažādās socializācijas vidēs (piemēram, ģimenē, skolā, neformālās izglītības vidē utt.), apgūst daudzas attīstībai un patstāvīgai dzīvei nepieciešamās prasmes, tostarp prasmes efektīvi piedalīties starppersonu saskarsmē un grupu darbā (Andersone 2001; Vilcņa, u.c., 2011). Saskarsmes prasmes cilvēks spēj apgūt ne tikai dabiskā pieredzes procesā, bet arī, piemēram, vingrinoties pats vai speciālista vadībā grupās (Engere, Gleške, u.c., 2014). Psiholoģe S. Omārova (1996) uzskata, ka pusaudzis spēj kļūt par personību tikai tad, kad iekļaujas grupās, dzīvo un piedalās tajās. Indivīds visu laiku atrodies pozitīvā darbībā, kustībā spēj attīstīt savas prasmes.

Vairāki zinātnieki (Rudnicka, 2001; Damberga, Klints u.c., 2005) sociālo gleznošanu pieskaita sociālā pedagoga praktiskās darbības metodēm, uzsverot, ka tieši praktiskā darbībā (rotājoties, spēlējot, veicot praktiskus uzdevumus utt.) cilvēks apgūst nozīmīgu dzīves pieredzi. Sociālā gleznošana kā viena no inovatīvām praktiskās darbības metodēm, veicinot dalībnieku radošumu, atvērtību procesiem un aktivitāti tajos, tika īstenota pedagoģes, profesores Ainas Vilcņas izglītojošā darbībā Latvijas augstskolās 21.gs. sākumā. Zinātniece, raksturojot šo metodi, iekļauj to sociālo spēļu grupā, kas virzīta uz saskarsmes, sadarbības prasmju attīstīšanu, veicinot spēju uzticēties viens otram īpaši

organizētā un vadītā procesā. Pētījuma autores, balstoties savā praktiskajā pieredzē, uzskata, ka sociālā gleznošana, būtībā, ir metode, kuru var pielietot tikai grupā. Vienaudžu grupas, tās locekļu viedoklis pusaudžiem, atbilstoši vecumposma īpatnībām, ir ļoti nozīmīgs, tāpēc, organizējot preventīvā darba pasākumus un aktivitātes, sociālā pedagoga darbā šī specifika ir jāņem vērā un jāfokussējas uz grupu darba organizēšanu, lai socializācijas process noritētu veiksmīgāk.

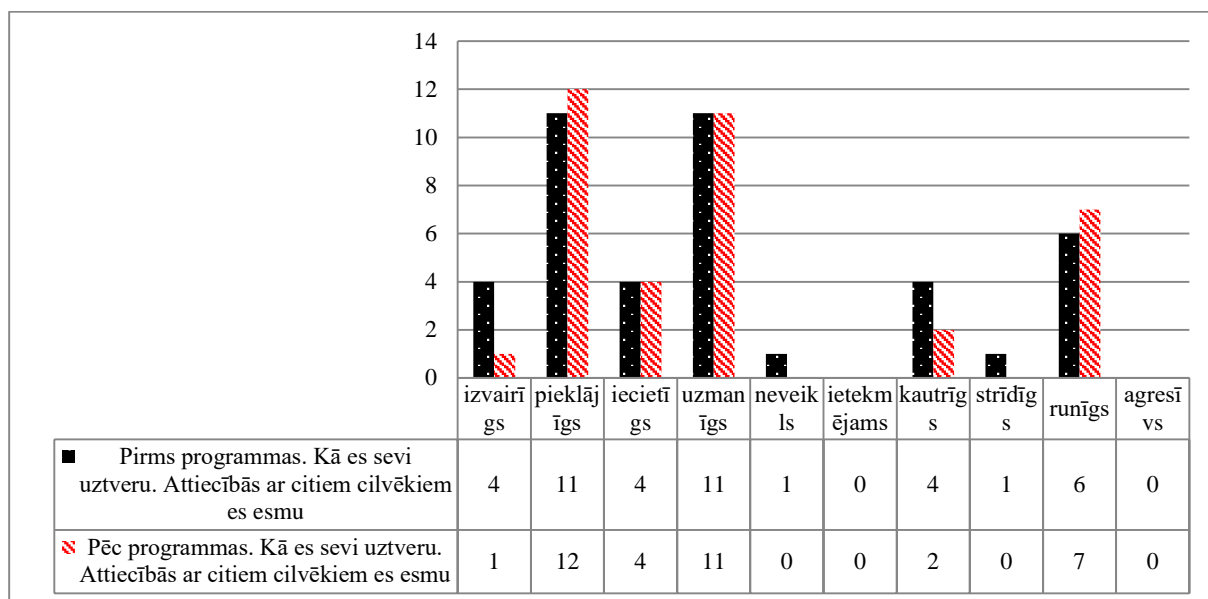
Sociālajai gleznošanai, kā jebkurai spēlei grupā, ir savi noteikumi un etapi (Truskovska, 2013). Sociālās gleznošanas process sastāv no trīs etapiem: 1) klusējot, nesarunājoties dalībnieki pludina krāsas (dzeltena, zila, sarkana), atbilstoši vadītāja noteiktajai (neverbālās komunikācijas process) tēmai; 2) katras grupas dalībnieki izrunā (verbāli) vienojas par savas gleznas nosaukumu, apskata visu grupu darbus; 3) izsaka savu viedokli par savas grupas darba rezultātu – gleznu; par to, ko jūta, domāja un darīja gleznojot (verbālās komunikācijas process). Sociālajā gleznošanā liels akcents tiek likts tieši uz neverbālo saskarsmi. Uzskatām, ja cilvēks savā darbībā un rīcībā rīkotos pēc modeļa: jūtu, domāju, rīkojos,- iespējams būtu mazāk pārpratumu, grūtību, ar kurām jāsaskaras ik uz soļa. Šādā praktiskā, aizraujošā un radošā darbības procesā tiek apgūtas dažādas saskarsmē būtiskas prasmes, tostarp trenēts jūtīgums, izkopta empātija. Zinātnieks (Эриксон, 2000) uzskata, ka pusaudži ar spēles palīdzību var modelēt, izmēģināt dažādus darbības veidus; spēlējoties indivīds spēj iegūt jaunu pieredzi sevis un pasaules izprašanā.

### **Ieskats praktiskajā pētījumā** *Insights in the practical research*

Pētījums veikts vienā no Rēzeknes pilsētas ADC (atvērtais dienas centrs): 1. posms – situācijas izpēte (2015. – 2016.) un 2. posms - eksperimentālais pētījums (2016. -2017.). Pētījumā piedalījās 41 respondents: 1. posms. – 22 pusaudži, 4 sociālie pedagogi un 2. posms. - 15 pusaudži. Eksperimenta posmā paredzēts 1) īstenot teorētiski izstrādātās preventīvās sociāli pedagoģiskās programmas darbam ar pusaudžiem aprobāciju (Barkane, 2017) un 2) veikt aprobācijā iegūto rezultātu analīzi pirms un pēc programmas īstenošanas. Eksperimentālais pētījums balstīts uz pašnovērtējumu kā mūsdienīgu pieeju rezultātu iegūšanai pētījumos sociālajā jomā. Pašnovērtējuma anketas jautājumi pusaudžiem sastādīti, balstoties uz teorētiskās izpētes atziņām, saskarsmes prasmju iedalījums grupās un apraksts veidots pēc D. Lieģenieces (1998).

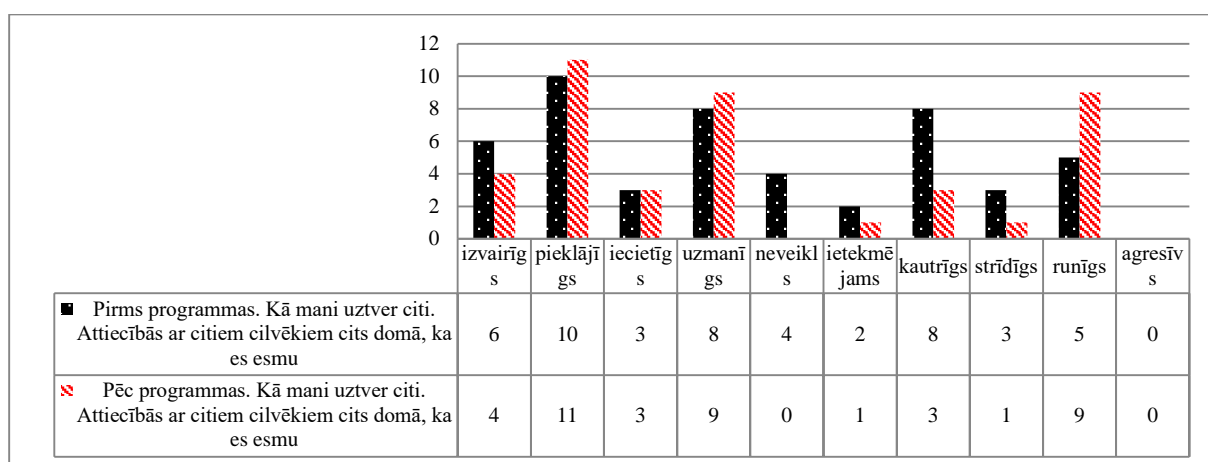
Lai noteikt, vai pusaudzī ir notikušas un kādas pārmaiņas notikušas, tika piedāvāts atzīmēt atbilstošo apgalvojumu. Respondentiem bija jāatzīmē apgalvojums pirms programmas un pēc programmas aprobācijas. Varēja atzīmēt vairākus variantus (skat. 1.att. un 2.att.).





1.att. Pusaudžu sevis uztvere pirms un pēc programmas  
 Fig.1. Adolescents' self-perception before and after the program

Attēlā (2.att.) redzam, kā pusaudzis sevi uztver attiecībā ar citiem cilvēkiem. Ir vērojamas, ka pozitīvas izmaiņas notikušas apgalvojumos: mazāk izvairīgs no 4 uz 1, mazāk kautrīgs no 4 uz 2, mazāk strīdīgs no 1 un 0, mazāk neveikls no 1 uz 0, runīgāks (atvērtāks) no 6 uz 7, pieklājīgāks no 11 uz 12. Lai arī ļoti nelielas, tomēr pozitīvas izmaiņas ir notikušas gandrīz visās pozīcijās. Atbilstoši teorētiskās izpētes nostādnēm pusaudži, piedaloties aprobācijas programmā, darbojoties grupā un vērojot pārējos darbībā, spēja tuvāk iepazīt sevi, saskatīt izmaiņas sevī. Iespējams, šī spēja un prasme palīdzēs veiksmīgāk būt sabiedrībā un sevi realizēt tajā.



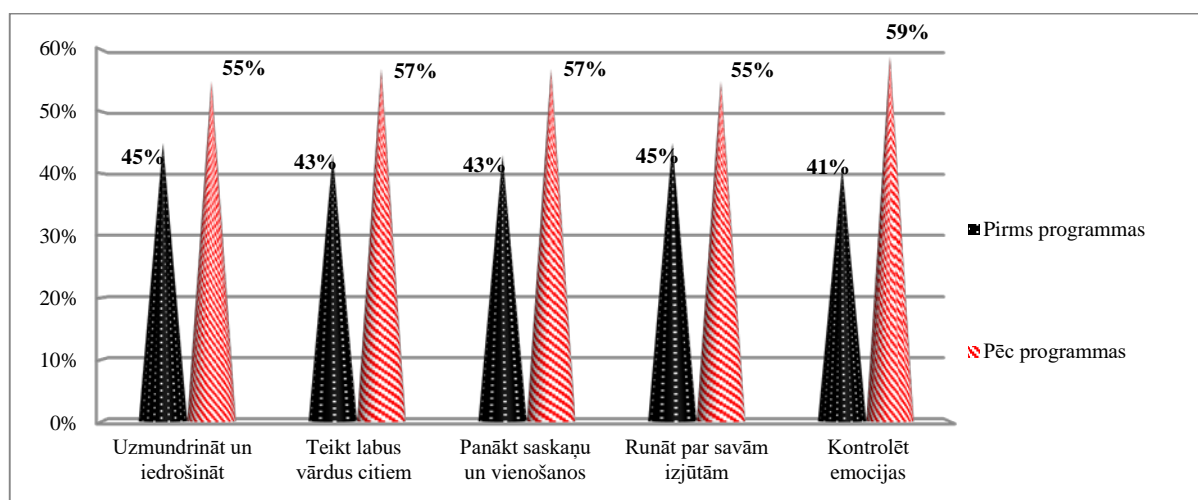
2.att. Pusaudžu viedoklis par to, kā viņus uztver citi cilvēki attiecībā ar citiem cilvēkiem, pirms un pēc programmas aprobācijas

Fig.2. Adolescents' opinion on how they are perceived by other people in relation to other people before and after approbation of the program

Noskaidrojām, kā apkārtējie uztver pusaudzi attiecībās ar citiem cilvēkiem pirms un pēc programmas aprobācijas. Iegūto rezultātu attēlojums arī uzrāda nelielu pozitīvo dinamiku: mazāk izvairīgs no 6 uz 4, mazāk strīdīgs no 3 uz 1, mazāk neveikls no 4 uz 0, mazāk kautrīgs (atvērtāks) no 8 uz 3, pieklājīgs no 10 uz 11, uzmanīgs no 8 uz 9, mazāk neietekmējams no 2 uz 1, runīgāks (atvērtāks) no 5 uz 9. Abos attēlojumos apgalvojums agresīvs palika nemainīgs. Daļība programmā vairākiem deva iespēju būt atvērtākiem, pašpārliecinātākiem, nekautrēties un runāt par nozīmīgām un svarīgām lietām.

Engere, Gleške, u.c., (2014) uzsver, ka jebkuram cilvēkam, lai tas spētu iekļauties sabiedrībā, ir nepieciešamas saskarsmes prasmes, jo gan ikdienā, gan skolā, gan ārpus skolas, gan grupā, gan mājās ir nepieciešamība kontaktēties ar citiem cilvēkiem. Tātad, jo pozitīvāka saskarsme pusaudzīm veidosies ar līdzcilvēkiem, jo veiksmīgāk noritēs viņa socializācijas process.

Pievērsīsimies rezultātiem, kas noskaidroti, veicot aptaujas analīzi, pa saskarsmes prasmju grupām. 3. att. redzams, ka pusaudži programmas laikā ir uzlabojuši, pilnveidojuši, attīstījuši *prasmes, kas veicina savstarpējo uzticēšanos grupā*. Visaugstākā dinamika no 41 % uz 59 % ir novērojama prasmē kontrolēt emocijas, ko pusaudži ir spējuši attīstīt spēcīgāk. Pēc programmas aprobācijas procentuāli zemāk ir novērtēta prasme runāt par savām izjūtām – 55 %.

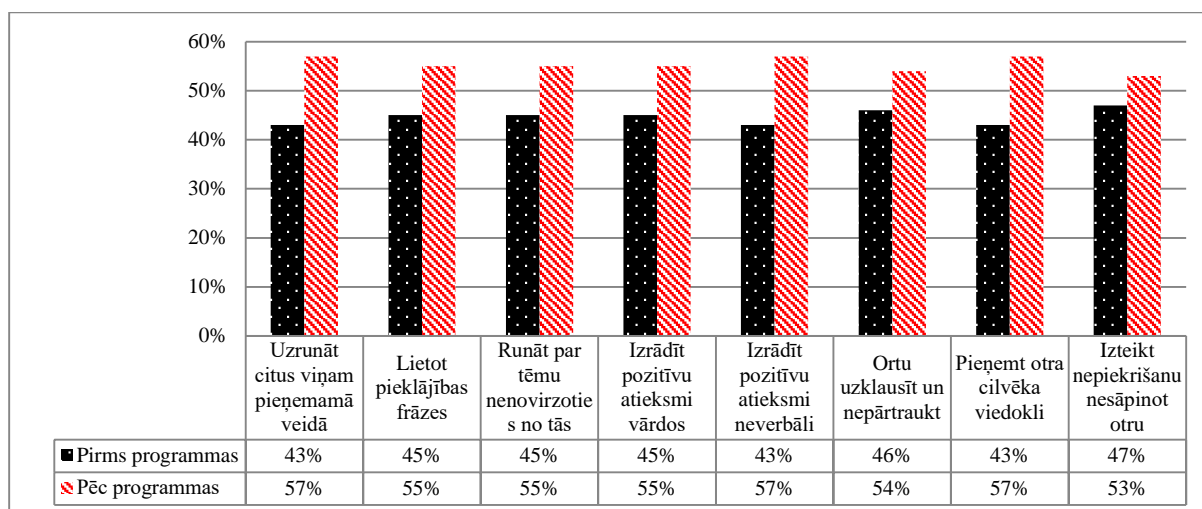


3.att. **Pusaudžu prasmes, kas veicina savstarpējo uzticēšanos grupā**

*Fig.3. Adolescents' skills that promote mutual trust in the group*

Glezošanas nodarbībā šī prasme tiek veicināta gan gleznojot nesarunājoties (neverbālā komunikācija), gan pēc tam verbālā sarunā, ko prasmīgi vada nodarbību vadītājs, piemēram, sociālais pedagogs. Šī prasme ļauj runāt ar citiem par savām vajadzībām, ļauj saprast citu vajadzības, kā arī veicina panākt saskaņu – vienaudžu grupā, ģimenē, skolas vidē. Pēc vadītāju novērojumiem nodarbībās, šo prasmi bija ļoti grūti veicināt šajā respondentu grupā, iespējams,

ietekmēja tādi faktori kā specifiskā internātpamatskolas vide, no kurienes nāk respondenti, kā arī iepriekšējā, bieži negatīvā, saskarsmes pieredze no bioloģiskās ģimenes (daudziem sociālā riska grupas ģimenes) vides. Iespējams tā paša iemesla dēļ respondentiem bija arī grūti uzmundrināt un iedrošināt citus vienaudžus (pirms – 45 %, pēc – 55 %). Teorētiskajā izpētē noskaidrojām, ka indivīdam svarīgi ir apgūt minētās prasmes, jo jebkura saskarsme sākas ar savstarpējo uzticēšanos, no tā lielā mērā atkarīgs, kā cilvēkam turpināsies tālākā saskarsme un kā viņš pilnveidos, apgūscitas veiksmīgai socializācijai nepieciešamās prasmes.



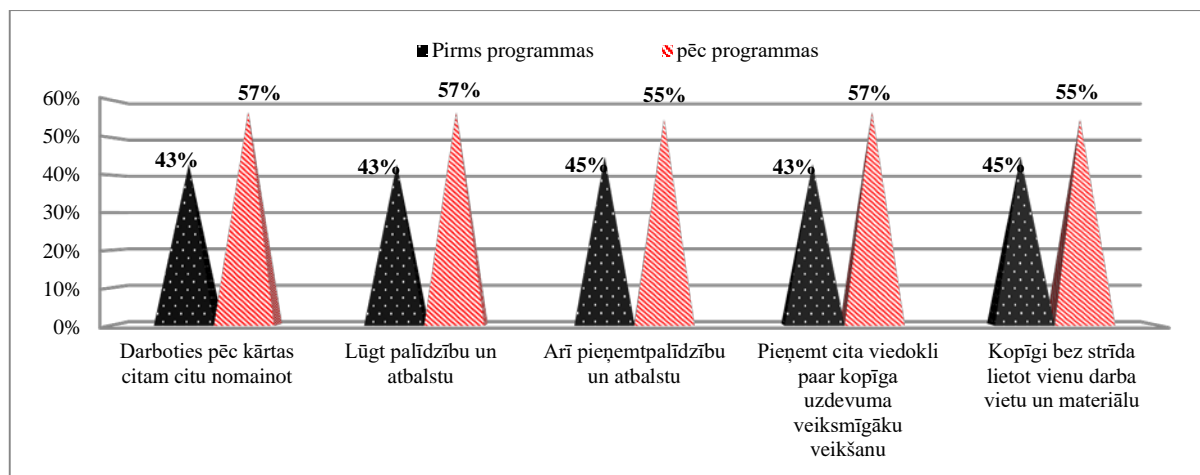
4.att. Pusaudžu prasmes, kas veicina komunikāciju ar citiem  
 Fig.4. Adolescents' skills that facilitate communication with others

Aplūkojot grafisko attēlojumu 4. att., redzam, ka arī šajā saskarsmes prasmju grupā – *prasmes, kas veicina komunikāciju ar citiem* - ir vērojami uzlabojumi. No 43 % uz 57 % ir pieaudzis vērtējums prasmēm: uzrunāt citus viņam pieņemamā veidā, pieņemt otra cilvēka viedokli un izrādīt pozitīvu attieksmi neverbāli. Tātad līdzdarbošanās interesantās nodarbēs vienaudžu grupās un refleksija par to, spēj ietekmēt pusaudžu emocijas, attieksmes un uzvedību. Procentuāli vismazāk no 47 % uz 53 % ir pieaudzis vērtējums prasmei izteikt nepiekrīšanu nesāpinot otru. Daudziem pusaudžiem ir sāpīga dzīves pieredze, kas noteikti ietekmē pusaudžu reakcijas un darbības.

Cilvēki informāciju viens otram var nodot dažādos veidos, piemēram, ar vārdiem, mutiski – verbālā komunikācijā, kā arī bez vārdiem, ar savu pozu, ķermeņa valodu, sejas mīmiku, žestiem – neverbālās komunikācijas veidā. Atbilstoši zinātniskajām nostādnēm informāciju var iemācīties nodot un saņemt, piedaloties īpaši organizētā gleznošanas procesā caur krāsām, caur mijiedarbību, strādājot grupā pie gleznas tapšanas, caur pašu gleznu un refleksiju par to un par

pašu gleznošanas procesu. Tieši sociālās gleznošanas procesā pusaudži izmanto visus šos nosauktos informācijas nodošanas un saņemšanas veidus, kas kopumā attīsta saskarsmes kultūru bez un ar vārdiem. Prasme sadzirdēt un saklausīt bez vārdiem ir īpaša prasme, ko ikdienā ne vienmēr var attīstīt, bet to izdodas attīstītšajā aizraujošā sociālā spēlē ar krāsām.

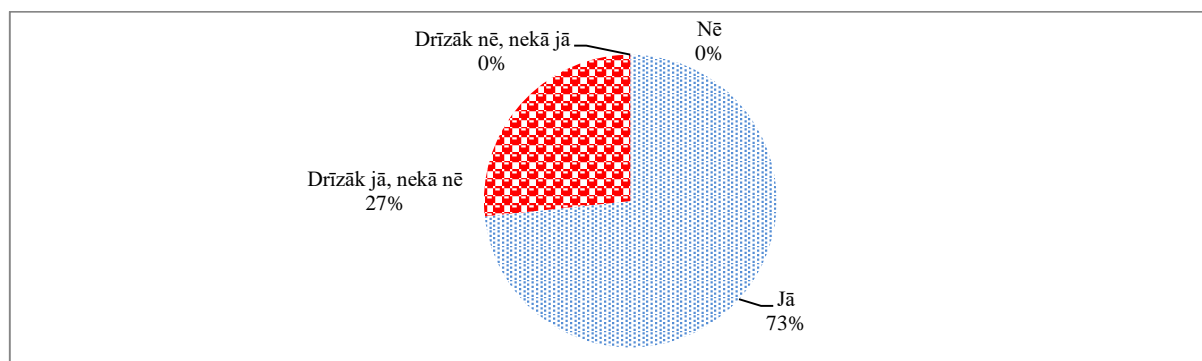
Tika noskaidrots respondentu pašvērtējums saskarsmes prasmju grupā: „prasmes, kas veicina efektīvu mijiedarbību grupas darbā ar citiem” (5. att.).



5.att. Pusaudžu prasmes, kas veicina efektīvu mijiedarbību grupas darbā ar citiem  
 Fig.5. Adolescents' skills that promote effective interaction with others in group work

Apkopojot un izanalizējot šos rezultātus, arī var novērot pozitīvu dinamiku. Vis straujāk, no 43 % uz 57 %, pašvērtējums pieauga prasmēm: darboties pēc kārtas cits citu nomainot, lūgt palīdzību un atbalstu, pieņemt cita viedokli par kopīga uzdevuma veiksmīgāku veikšanu. Apkopotajos rezultātos, ir novērojamas nelielas pozitīvas izmaiņas, bet tas jau ir labs rādītājs, jo dažādi cilvēki vienādos apstākļos var gūt dažādus panākumus. Pusaudžiem ir nepieciešams attīstīt prasmi, kas veicina efektīvu mijiedarbību, jo viņiem jāprot sadarboties ar citiem. Veiksmīga mijiedarbība pusaudžiem dod iespēju katru dienu būt kopā ar citiem cilvēkiem un socializēties; veicina piekāpšanos un dalīšanos, kompromisu, lūgt palīdzību un sniegt atbalstu. Pēc S. Omārovas (1996) atziņām pusaudzis spēj kļūt par personību tikai tad, kad veiksmīgi iekļaujas grupās, dzīvo un piedalās tajās.

Pēc programmas aprobācijas respondenti pauda savu viedokli, vai dalība sociālās gleznošanas grupu darbā ir sekmējusi saskarsmes prasmes kopumā (skat. 6. att.).



6.att. Saskarsmes prasmju pilnveide sociālās gleznošanas nodarbībās  
*Fig.6. Development of interaction skills in social painting lessons*

Respondentu izvēle bija par labu divām apstiprinošām atbildēm: 73 % atbildēja jā un 27 % - drīzāk jā, nekā nē. Pusaudži paši apzinās un jūt, ka ir uzlabojusies viņu saskarsme ar vienaudžiem, jo ir uzlabojušās komunikācijas prasmes, spēja uzticēties viens otram, spēja sadarboties. Pētījumā tika arī noskaidrots, ka visi respondenti ieteiktu citiem piedalīties sociālās gleznošanas nodarbībās un gūt līdzīgu pieredzi: 67 % - jā, 33 % - drīzāk jā, nekā nē, kā arī tika noskaidrots, ka tikai vienam respondentam ir bijusi iepriekš iespēja piedalīties līdzīgā nodarbē. Sociālās gleznošanas process dalībniekiem rosina pārdomāt par saskarsmi, par cilvēku savstarpējām attiecībām, par to uzlabošanas iespējām, būtībā sniedz impulsu tālākai darbībai, rīcībai, sevis pilnveidošanai.

Reflektējot par savu pieredzi un novērojumiem darbā ar šo pusaudžu grupu, pētījuma autores uzskata, ka darbošanās sociālās gleznošanas nodarbībās veicina pusaudžu saskarsmes attīstīšanu. Sociālās gleznošanas procesā notiek kontaktēšanās ar citiem cilvēkiem gan tieši (verbāli), gan netieši (ar krāsu palīdzību, ar ķermeņa valodu). Šādā saskarsmes procesā tiek izteikta cilvēku uzvedība, attieksmes, uzskati un emocijas. Sociālajā gleznošanā tiek īstenots viss daudzšķautņainais saskarsmes process kopumā – informācijas apmaiņa jeb komunikācija, saskarsmes partneru mijiedarbība jeb interakcija un saskarsmes partneru savstarpējā sapratne un uztvere jeb prepercepcija.

### Secinājumi *Conclusions*

Eksperimentālā pētījuma posma būtiskākie secinājumi:

1. Lielai daļai pusaudžu – 40 % nav bijusi pieredze grupu darbā ārpus skolas. Tikai daļai – 60 % respondentu, kuriem ir bijusi šāda pieredze iepriekš, tās nodarbes šķita neinteresantas, vai vispār nepatika piedāvājums, kā arī tika atzīmēts, ka nebija ar ko kontaktēties. Tātad ir bijusi negatīva pieredze. Ja ir interesanti, pusaudzīm patīk veicamā

- nodarbe, tad negatīvisms, opozīcija, nepakļaušanās bieži vien nav vērojama vai arī samazinās, tātad speciālistiem, veidojot nodarbības pusaudžiem, jāņem vērā šis fakts;
2. Pusaudžiem dalība programmas aktivitātēs, nodarbībās palīdzēja pilnveidoties: būt atvērtākiem, pašpārliecinātākiem, nekautrēties un runāt par nozīmīgām un svarīgām lietām, kas kopumā ietekmē personības izaugsmes procesu;
  3. Pusaudžu vecumā, lai viņi spētu veiksmīgāk iejusties un iekļauties sabiedrībā, ir nepieciešamas draudzīgas attiecības ar vienaudžiem; spēju būt draudzīgam saskarsmē ar citiem ir uzlabojuši daudzi programmas dalībnieki, ko uzrāda kaut arī neliela, bet pozitīva dinamika rādītājos;
  4. Pusaudži ir attīstījuši un pilnveidojuši programmas laikā *saskarsmes prasmes, kas veicina savstarpējo uzticēšanos grupā*: visaugstākā dinamika no 41 % uz 59 % ir novērojama prasmē kontrolēt emocijas, procentuāli zemāk ir novērtēta prasme runāt par savām izjūtām (55 %), lai arī sociālās gleznošanas nodarbībās tiek veicināta šī prasme gan gleznojot (neverbāli), gan pēc tam – verbāli, aicinot piedalīties sarunās, diskusijās; Šī prasme ļauj runāt ar citiem par savām vajadzībām, ļauj saprast citu vajadzības, kā arī veicina panākt saskaņu sabiedrībā – vienaudžu grupā, ģimenē, skolas vidē.
  5. *Saskarsmes prasmju grupā prasmes, kas veicina komunikāciju ar citiem* arī tika konstatēti uzlabojumi, no 43 % uz 57 % ir mainījusies prasme uzrunāt citus viņam pieņemamā veidā, pieņemt otra cilvēka viedokli un izrādīt pozitīvu attieksmi neverbāli, kas apliecina teorētiskās atziņas, ka līdzdarbošanās interesantās nodarbēs vienaudžu grupās, šajā gadījumā sociālās gleznošanas grupā un refleksija par to, spēj ietekmēt pusaudžu emocijas, attieksmes un uzvedību; procentuāli vismazāk no 47 % uz 53 % ir mainījusies prasme izteikt nepiekrišanu, nesāpinot otru. Iespējams, respondentu (pusaudžu) reakciju un darbību ietekmē arī sāpīgā iepriekšējā dzīves pieredze, ģimenes sociālā vide;
  6. *Pusaudžu saskarsmes prasmju grupā, kas veicina efektīvu mijiedarbību grupas darbā ar citiem* vērojama pozitīva dinamika (no 43 % uz 57 %) prasmēs: darboties pēc kārtas cits citu nomainot, lūgt palīdzību un atbalstu, pieņemt cita viedokli par kopīga uzdevuma veiksmīgāku veikšanu. Apkopotajos rezultātos, ir novērojamas nelielas pozitīvas izmaiņas, bet tas jau ir labs rādītājs, jo dažādi cilvēki, pusaudži vienādos apstākļos var gūt dažādus panākumus. Pusaudžiem ir nepieciešams attīstīt prasmi, kas veicina efektīvu mijiedarbību, jo viņiem jāprot sadarboties ar citiem vienaudžiem, cilvēkiem. Veiksmīga mijiedarbība

- pusaudžiem dod iespēju katru dienu būt kopā ar citiem cilvēkiem un socializēties;
7. Pusaudži pauž viedokli, ka viņiem ir uzlabojušās un pilnveidojušās kopumā saskarsmes prasmes: 73 % atbildēja jā, bet 27 % - drīzāk jā, nekā nē. Pusaudži paši apzinās un jūt, ka ir uzlabojusies viņu saskarsme ar vienaudžiem, jo ir attīstītas komunikācijas prasmes, spēja uzticēties viens otram, savstarpēji sadarboties;
  8. Eksperimentālā pētījuma datus sociālais pedagogs var izmantot individuālās programmas izveidei katram pusaudzim, kuram tas ir nepieciešams, kā arī, izmantojot atbilstošas darba formas un metodes, palīdzēt pusaudžiem pārvarēt socializācijas grūtības.

### Summary

The research carried out at RTA in 2017 gives an experimental confirmation on the effectiveness of social painting as a social game and method in the development of adolescents' interaction skills. In the social painting lessons, adolescents not only spend leisure time in an interesting and useful manner, but also gain a new and significant social experience in interaction with others. This is confirmed by the results of the experiment and the conclusions of the analytical overview. The scientific opinions of the theoretical research, results of the experimental study and approved preventive social pedagogue program are valuable scientific and methodological material for both students of the social work program and practitioners in social-pedagogical and social work not only with adolescents, but also in teamwork with people of different ages.

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## THE ROLE OF EDUCATION IN THE INTEGRATION PROCESS OF FORCED MIGRANTS

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**Abstract.** *The article deals with educational factors that involve the integration process of forced migrants. Non-formal training of multicultural communication skills is analysed as one of several educational factors of forced migrants' integration. Moreover there is analysed how non-formal training activities influence the emotional state and abilities of forced migrants' minors. These results are relevant for institutions and communities that face with the multicultural communication every day. The theoretical parts of article contain the analysis of the publications made on the integration of forced migrants and multicultural communication in the integration process of the review. The empirical part of the research presents how non-formal training activities influence on minors forced migrants emotional state and their preparation to the integration.*

**Keywords:** *educational factors, non-formal training, multicultural communication skills, integration, forced migrants.*

### Introduction

Global migration trends of our modern society adjust not only the socio-political and economic spheres, but also educational scope. These trends determine the need for a deeper understanding of the role of education in the process of integration of forced migrants. This is the subject of the paper, achieving it we are making an analysis of education during the integration process, revealing the influence of non-formal education of multicultural communication on the emotional intelligence of forced migrants, their multicultural communication skills and integration opportunities. Disclosing educational factors of forced migrants' integration first demands the definition of the target group - forced migrants - migrants who leave their own country and are looking for another because of asylum forced socio-political reasons. Forced migrants are not only refugees, but also granted asylum, additional or temporary protection immigrants. In this article, we are putting attention to the most vulnerable group – minors forced migrants – they, according to the EU directive (2003/3/EB) are declared as the most vulnerable group of migrants. Today, the vast majority of minors forced migrants in Lithuania came from the “hot spots” – areas of military

action. This fact often causes psychosocial, behavioural, educational and communication difficulties of refugee children (Pedersen D., 2002). Once they enter the unfamiliar environment of a foreign country, foreign minors that granted asylum, face the new integration into another society, intercultural communication challenges. Allowing for urgency of problem the objective is to reveal the multicultural communication skills training opportunities for integration of forced migrants and present the results, how the activities of non-formal education affect the minors forced migrants - their emotional well-being and skills of multicultural communication and preparation to integration. The integration process, in the article, is perceived as a complex, dynamic, two-way, multi-dimensional and long-term change process, that enables not only forced migrants to live in harmony with the host country and to become a part of it, but also enables dominant society to accept new members equally. (Bartkevičienė A., 2015; Marks J., 2014; Žydžiūnaitė V., 2012; Steward E., 2009; Ager A. & Strang A., 2008; Bowskill M., Lyons E., & Coyle A., 2007; Martikainen T., 2005; Korac M., 2003; Raicher S. & Hopkins N. 1996). For achieving successful integration of forced migrants, it is important to understand integration process as a difficult two-way process (newcomers and local communities) and to look at this process from educational perspective. In this way, during integration process both - forced migrants and local societies - face new, get atypical experience, endure changes and acquire new knowledge or skills. That's why it's very important to educate both parts of integration process.

### **Education and training during the integration process of forced migrants**

Education and training, in itself, as a phenomenon, is the necessary part of integration process. According to S. Jackson (2015), M. Tatar (2015), He, Y. et al. (2015); A. Bartkevičienė, (2015), H. Moser (2012), V. Žydžiūnaitė (2012), Merrice (2007), E. Štuopytė (2009), C.Salin and G. Muller (1999), R. Hek (2005) and others there is the importance of cooperation between forced migrants and local communities. Moreover, there is the importance of education in the integration process. During the learning process, forced migrants are achieving their educational needs, which are necessary for the integration into a local community and the local community is learning to accept new members. The integration process related to the change, change related to innovations, new experiences, and this, in turn, is an integral part of the education (training /learning).

Forced migrants' training can be analysed by different approaches. Traditional approach analyses forced migrants' possibilities to participate in the host society's educational systems, the availability of formal education and progress in study. In this area, there are a number of research revealing forced

migrants' difficulties integrating into the formal education system: the state language skills, low educational achievement, mobility, racism, lack of educational institutions readiness to accept forced migrants. (Spencer S., 2004; Stubbs S., 2008; Kahan-Strawczynski, Levi, & Konstantinov, 2010; Bereznaja N., 2010; Štuopytė E., Bereznaja-Demidenko V., & Bulotas R., 2014).

Modern approach to forced migrants' education (training or learning) is associated with the concept of lifelong learning. In this case, the integration process can be understood as learning from the new experience process. And in this process it's important to see phenomenological forced migrants' training (learning) point - to study the integration process means just be sustained, survive everything what is new (Hidegger M., 2010; Petrauskienė D., 2016.). Modern approach to forced migrants' integration include non-formal education, informal education and reflective education (learning through experience). According to many experts (S. Nicolai, 2003; Xue, 2007, Stub S., 2008; A. Bonfiglio, 2010; H. Moser, 2012; Jackson S., 2015) non-formal education has the special importance of forced migrants' integration. International Institute's for Educational planning (2015) study shows, that non-formal education is the most suitable and available form of forced migrants' education. According to Jackson, S. (2015) in education process of such target group the most important is non-academic achievement, but self-esteem building, multicultural communication, social skills, learning motivation and successful learning experiences.

### **Education of multicultural communication skills**

In analyzing the role of non-formal education in the integration of forced migrants, it is important to reveal the peculiarities of education of multicultural communication skills. Such skills, together with the linguistic and professional, are considered essential for successful integration. These abilities, according to Bennett (1993); Fantini (2000); Byram (2004); Virgailaite-Meckauskaite (2012) and the other, are not given phenomenon; they can be provided through lifelong learning and continuous development of thought as well as a result of development. The concept of multicultural communication skills is associated with the preparation and adoption of the differences including the social, cultural and educational aspects. At this article, culture is understood as an open, dynamic orientation system, which is changing during the interactions. It is not easy to define multicultural communication skills. First of all because of different understanding of terminology. In French the only possible adjective for this field is "intercultural", whereas in English we have „multicultural", "intercultural" and "cross-cultural" (Fries, 2009). Multicultural communication - is like a cultures salad. It's cultural diversity, acceptance and evaluation of a particular place, in the

level of organization, school, team or other community. Cross-cultural term applied in individual cultures by selected aspects in order to compare cultures. Intercultural communication more associated with the interaction between different cultures. According to Herbrand (2000), while it is not entirely clear what is multicultural communication and what factors help a person adapt to another cultures, it is hard to answer the question of what constitutes an multicultural competence (Pauriene, 2010). However, the multicultural communication should be understood as the ability to understand different cultures – their own and the others, and to adequately treat at a certain culture. Jiaquan (2009) believes that the ability to communicate with people from other cultural backgrounds are caused by three factors: by the formation of cultural awareness, understanding of cultural knowledge, intercultural communication skills and the ability to use them effectively in multicultural situations. Fiantini (2000) analyzed personal multicultural communication possibilities and gave five key dimensions: provision of knowledge, skills, cultural awareness and foreign language skills. Williams (2009) distinguishes three aspects: cognition (knowledge of the cultural norms, values, and behavior), emotional (motivation to act in intercultural situations, emotional stability, openness and flexibility to deal with new situations), behavior (critical thinking, teamwork and other skills and abilities that are necessary for multicultural situations). Norviliene, Zuzevičiute (2011) also talk about the set of skills components that consists of terms and personal qualities, knowledge, skills, and cultural awareness. This, in turn, operates the cognitive, emotional and behavioral processes and allows to operate effectively in multicultural situations.

Multicultural communication skills can and should be taught. The importance of capacity development is excreted not only in the scientific community (Pauriene G., 2010; Reingarde J., Vasiliauskaite N., & Erentaite R., 2010); but it is also regulated by the legal documents of the European Union: Council of Europe White Paper on Intercultural Dialogue (2008) states that multicultural education is one of the five most important areas. Research works (Lopez G., 2004; Delson, 2009; Paurienė G., 2010) showed that there are multicultural skills in a variety of educational programs. Experiential learning is excreted as a well-known method of multicultural skills, when a person is included into the simulation game, designed to artificially multicultural differences, and clashes on situations directly exposed to other cultures. Pauriene (2010) emphasizing the pedagogical strategies that support a culture of peaceful necessity of being together, offers a comprehensive educational strategy: cultural comparison, coexistence of cultures and areas of activities against racism and also defines a hypothetical basis for intercultural learning at the multicultural competence development model. Reingarde, Vasilaiuskaite, Erentaite (2010), speaking about multicultural understanding and multicultural factors, distinguish:

multicultural contact (direct interaction with the representatives of various cultural groups), sources of information (media, peers, family, school), educational environment (well-being during activities, the attitudes about school), content of education (formal and “hidden”). These factors determine the multicultural education, consisting of knowledge of cultural diversity and non-discriminatory terms.

### Methodology of the empirical research

At the empirical part of the article, we are analyzing the short-term program of non-formal education for multicultural communication skills and how the participant in this program involve forced migrants, their integration possibilities. For the methodology we have chosen the non-formal form of education, because such form may take place both within and outside education institutions, and can cater to persons of all ages. It’s important on the country context, cause by Lithuanian low formal education is compulsory for children until 16 years old. So many forced migrant’s minors over 16-teen are dropped out of the formal education system. Non-formal education provide basic education for out of school children, enhance life skills, work skills or improve cultural understanding. The program has structure, that’s why we cant’ call it as informal learning, which is defined as intentional but is less organised and less structured; it might include learning events that occur within the family, at the workplace or in the course of daily life of every person (Moser, 2012). So, the structure of the program that is analyzed is based on:

- multicultural contact (common multicultural group sessions for marginalized minors from Lithuanian problematic families, forced migrants minors from different countries, living in the Rukla Refugee reception center);
- experiential learning (simulation games of multicultural communication, when minors can play different roles, be “natives” and “migrants”, have “high” or “low” social statutes, be “pupil” or “teacher” and so on.)
- multicultural education (theoretical and practical lectures, discussions about different cultures, behavior roles in different societies, multicultural communication, stereotypes, tolerance and so on).

Participants of the empirical research - minors forced migrants - participated in several stages of the study:

The first stage	the assessment of emotional state of forced migrants before theirs participating in the program
The second stage	participation in the program of non-formal multicultural skills training.
The third stage	reassessment of the emotional state of forced migrants after participating in the program

## **Research design and methods**

The point of the presented empirical study – to set how education of multicultural communication skills influence the emotional state of forced migrants and their preparation to the integration process.

Characteristics of the participants – minors forced migrants (N=8) that involved in the intercultural skills activities were chosen to this investigation. Age of the participants: early and late adolescence (12-18 years old). The choice of the participants' age is not a coincidence. Adolescence, as a stage of the maturity process, results some psycho-social problems: identity crisis, communication difficulties, peculiarities of puberty, desire for autonomy and the need to belong to compatibility problems, psychotropic substances hazards and so on. The situation is complicated when still mentally immature teenager alone enters the unfamiliar environment. Mental condition of the minor forced migrants is complicated by the “refugee status”, that requires the emotionally confused teen to make independent decisions and take responsibility of them. Because of this minor migrants going through the several levels – emotional, behavioral, mental and psychosomatic – difficulties. They are characterized by the strong trend of insularity (Balazs N., 2006). Minors forced migrants are often become victims of marginalization (social exclusion).

The methods of analysis: a) observation under controlled conditions and in the presence of observation; b) psychodiagnostic technique to estimate the emotional state of a teen (Emotional lability test); projective Luscher color test (Luscher Forwahl Test), for determining the scope of emotional personality characteristics of self-esteem, self-confidence and other characteristics.

The process of analysis: research process was divided into several stages. The first stage was assessed foreigners granted asylum emotional state before the start of the activities. The second stage was for monitoring foreigners granted asylum emotional, behavioral and intercultural communication features during the group sessions. The third stage was to repeat emotional state and multicultural communication skills assessment. Also, this stage is for compare foreigners granted asylum intercultural communication skills, their emotional state (before and after the application of the group methods).

## **Results and discussion**

Let us consider the results of the research how multicultural communication skills influence the emotional state of forced migrants and their preparation to the integration process. First of all we should note, that we have identified different results at different stages, i.e. the results were due to the fact at which stage of the investigation they are identified.

*The first stage* was assessed minor foreigners granted asylum emotional state before the start of the activities. The analysis of the contact options and performance was observed during the test; communication and participation motivation were not enough. Emotional reactions are clear and spontaneous. There are conflict trends. The pace of operating is sufficient but lack motivation. Emotional state's and multicultural communication's characteristics: there is typical contradiction in personality (N=7); age does not meet the emotional maturity (N=5); self-centeredness and recognition depend on the others' opinions (N=8); sensitivity to the environment. It is difficult to endure the restrictions, inherent tendency to avoid responsibility. On ambient pressure usually responds with passive aggressiveness; there is the lack of constructive communication and multicultural communication skills (N=8). At the beginning of activities the emotional stability / lability of the test results - low neuropsychological level of stability (N=4), average neuropsychological level of stability (N=5), lack of emotional strong will, during the research process respondents' openness is 70 percent average.

*The second stage* - monitoring during the group sessions. The observation was highlighted on: foreigners granted asylum contact opportunities, emotional expression, behavior and communication (especially intercultural) features and efficiency working at groups. At the beginning of the study at the group of foreigners granted asylum was observed isolation, limited communication (only with representatives of their people) trend. On ambient pressure usually responds with passive aggressiveness (N=7). Some kind of intercultural conflicts were captured at the beginning of the sessions (N=4). They were used as a motivational training material (analyzed and reproduced in a safe environment, and so on). During the non-formal educational classes, the activity of foreigners granted asylum increased, decreased isolation and limited interaction trend (the beginning of cross-cultural friendship ties), decreased spontaneous emotional expression cases. Emotional cognitive activities were increased participants' self-perception and people around them; constructive emotion management, conflict resolution, multicultural space of communication skills were formed and trained; relaxation techniques help reduce the anxiety level of foreigners granted asylum. To reduce self-centeredness trends of foreigners granted asylum were encouraged tolerance, teamwork, group sharing. Minors tested constructive conflict resolution skills in a safe exercise environment (N=7).

*The third stage* was to repeat emotional state and multicultural communication skills assessment. Also, this stage is for compare foreigners granted asylum multicultural communication skills, their emotional state. After participation in cross-cultural communication skills workshops, and performance contact opportunities contact opportunities become better, less of the language barrier problems, communication and performance motivation higher than at the

beginning of the activities. Promotion of self-reliance program (included in the multicultural communication skills workshops' content) positively influenced teen's confidence. Also, constructive communication, teamwork, intercultural conflict management skills between foreigners granted asylum were developed. Foreigners granted asylum became less dependent on positive feedback, sensitivity to criticism decreased. The majority of examinees' emotional response appropriate to the context (N=8). Operating rate of activity is sufficient. At the end of sessions the emotional stability/lability test results – high neuropsychological level of stability (N=2), average neuropsychological level of stability (N=6), emotional exhaustion is quite enough, high emotional will (N=7), the average degree of openness of the respondents is 82 percent.

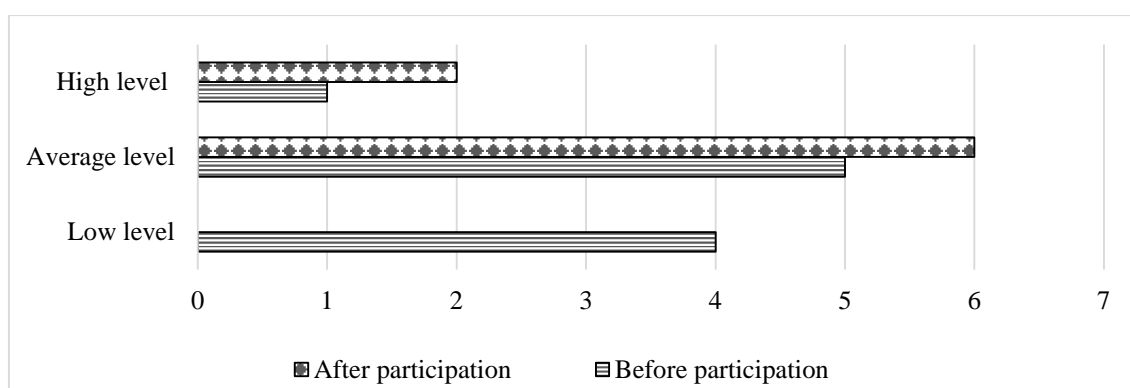


Fig. 1. Emotional state comparison of participants

According to results of the empirical research, non-formal education of multicultural communication skills have a positive impact on emotional state of minors forced migrants (emotional state's comparison before using the methods and after group activities), develops multicultural communication skills and can help them to integrate into a new society.

In discussions about the integration of forced migrants are no longer a question of the role of education in this process. However, in official immigrants' integration programs are often dominated by formal education measures. Indeed, formal education methods should be applied to immigrants' training as an integral part of the education system of the host country (providing equal opportunities for study at schools, universities). However, if we are seeking more effectively integration of forced migrants (not only at the institutional level, but at the personal also), it is necessary to apply non-formal education programs. During non-formal education, the emotional relationship between the new immigrant and the host country, its people, traditions and behavior are formed. Not only formal knowledge, but also multicultural communication, newly established relationships and new skills, which are forming during non-formal education



make it easier for forced migrants to feel better in a new environment and to integrate into a new society.

### Conclusions

Summarizing the presented analysis of scientific publications and the results of the study it is stated, that education of multicultural communication skills is important for forced migrants' integration. Multicultural communication skills can and must be developed as far as incoming migrants and the host local community groups. In addition, it's effective to organize such activities by using non-formal programs. Results of the empirical research stages comparison suggests that non-formal multicultural education have a positive impact on emotional state of teenage that granted asylum, develops multicultural communication skills and can help them to integrate into a new society.

Making the conclusion is important to emphasize the educational effectiveness of the program (non-formal education of multicultural communication skills). Thereby, confirming Lopez (2004) studies that identified in connection with a more favorable assessment of the differences in cultures and multicultural communication skills training activities, regardless of the duration of programs.

In conclusion there are described the integration problems of forced migrants and multicultural communication skills, promoting the integration aspect of the results; it is important to note the further factors contributing to the process of integration, making relevance research of searching multicultural education forms.

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# THE RESOLUTION OF CONFLICT BETWEEN TEACHER AND STUDENT: TEACHERS' NARRATIVES

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**Abstract.** *The significant thing for teachers is to settle conflicts with students correctly and effectively without disrupting educational process and damaging the relationship. Despite teacher-student conflicts are unavoidable, and important consequences arise there from, teacher-student conflicts remain poorly studied. The present study aims to examine the strategies teachers use to resolve teacher-student conflicts. To investigate the process of conflict between a teacher and a student, a case study method was used. Respondents – teachers - were asked to recall a conflict occurring between them and a student during the school years, describe how the incident was handled, and the consequences of it. The number of respondents constituted 31 teachers. Their average age was 43, 6 years. By gender there were 2 males and 29 females; work experience was from 2 till 35 years.*

*An analysis of the cases enabled to distinguish two groups of teachers' reactions to the conflicts. One of them is focus on communication with student on the issue and discovering of the reasons of his / her behaviour. Resolving conflict in a cooperative way involves teacher's endeavours to perceive accurately student's positions and motivation, recognise the legitimacy of each other's interests, and search for a solution accommodating the needs of both sides. The second group of teachers' reactions to the conflicts manifests itself by the lack of the reflection of the motives and causes of the student's inappropriate behaviour. Thus, recorded conflicts are considered as non cooperative (destructive) ones.*

*This study give insight into the role of teacher in relation to conflict resolution with student. Findings of the study emphasize the need for teachers to critically determine meaningful conflict resolution strategies.*

**Keywords:** *conflict resolution, student, teacher.*

## Introduction

There are at least two reasons teachers should be competent at resolving teacher-student conflict. Firstly, the resolution of conflict impact teacher-student relationship. Teachers are expected to develop high-quality relationship with students. The level of quality relationship refers to the level of involvement, closeness, affection, and openness of the communication between a teacher and a student (Kurdi & Archambault, 2017). Integrative conflict resolution with

students may be accounted for in the quality of support a child receives. Low-quality student-teacher relationship refers to negative and problematic relationship, occurring as the forms or the result of distributive conflict resolution. It is documented that positive teacher-student interactions predict academic achievement (e. g. McCornic & O'Connor, 2015). In contrary, bad relations diminish the quality of school life (e.g. Kurdi & Archambault, 2017).

Secondly, students are thought the ways to repond to conflicts by teacher's actions applied to resolve conflicts. Thus competent teacher promotes social negotiations of children by influencing the ability to respond in a socially competent manner. Teachers who resolve conflict through collaboration foster children's learning about empathy, problem solving, and sharing. In contrast, teachers who resolve conflicts throught avoiding or competition do not promote social skills of the children (e. g. Jenkins et al., 2008). Conflicts may be considered as a means to teach skill essential to social competence (Blunk et al., 2017).

When analysing conflictual situations between a teacher and a student, it is important to note that the participants of this relationship possess different positions of power regarding the resolution of conflicts. Although it is deemed that both participants of the relationship are active and equal communication partners, however, the final decision depends on the teacher as a relationship leader, who is granted the power of decision regarding the strategies of a conflict. Any relationship of an adult with the child always has educational potential (Kairiene, 2017), therefore, as far as the conflict with a student, it is expected of the teacher not only a successful conflict resolution, but also the implementation of educational objectives.

The range of the conflict varies according to behaviors people enact during a conflict. The term „conflict resolution strategy“ is used to „cluster“ information about individual moves people make to carry out their general approach. In the field literature the most frequently investigated approach is defined by Kilman and Thomas a five-strategy approach including collaboration, accommodation, forcing, avoidance and compromise. Conflict resolution strategies may take different methods (tactics, forms) - individual moves people make to carry out their general approach (Wilmot & Hocker, 2001: 130-150). Collaboration (problem solving) involves trying to understand the others's point of view and negotiating the conflict effectively to find both parties satisfying outcomes. Forcing (competing) involves destructive behaviors like attacking the other verbally, being defensive, or losing self-control. Avoiding involves denial of the conflict, equivocation, changing and avoiding topics, being noncommittal, joking, and becoming distant. Accommodation (compliance) involves putting the other party's needs over self ones.

Integrative conflict resolution relies on having parties share their perceptions and feelings with the intention of arriving at a mutually acceptable solution to the conflict. What lead to a win-win situation are empathy, critical thinking, problem solving, and the use of „I-messages“ (Yssel et al., 2001: p. 298). Among the conflict resolution strategies collaboration (integrating) and compromise are regarded as integrative as they help individuals to develop and get experienced while they are solving the interpersonal conflicts. Integrative conflict behaviour is directed at maximizing the outcomes for the conflicting parties together, whereas distributive conflict behaviour is directed at maximizing the outcomes for one party, minimizing the outcomes for the other party (or both). Forcing and accommodation are both highly distributive strategies, avoiding is neither distributive nor integrative (Van de Vliert et al., 2004). These three strategies are not to be used as a tool or opportunity for one's personal development.

According to research, handling conflict in an integrative way is quite challenging for teachers. For example, Okeke and Mtyuda (2017) have revealed that only 39 % of the teacher participants was efficient at disciplining students. Ficarra and Quinn (2014) have indicated that teachers had identified classroom management as an area for which they need additional training. Similarly, Ortega and Fuentes (2015) identifying that the quality of teaching depends on the quality of communication in the classroom have found in their study that 80 % respondents believed that these skills are not acquired during studies.

Dispite teacher-student conflicts are unevitable, and important consequences arise there from, teacher-student conflicts remain poorly studied. Moreover, in the literature cultural backgruond is labeled as one of the underlying factor influencing the ways of handling interpersonal conflicts (e.g. Oetzel & Ting-Toomey, 2003). In fact, only a few studies have been conducted on this issue in Lithuania (e.g. Čiuladienė & Kairienė, 2017; Čiuladienė & Raudeliūnaitė, 2015). The present study **aims** to examine the strategies and tactics teachers use to resolve teacher-student conflicts.

## **Method**

**Participants.** The data from teachers was collected during 4 hours long seminar discussing conflict at educational setting, which was organized for teachers and prepared by one of the author of the article. The respondents consist of a total of 31 teachers. Particapants had a mean age of 43,6 years. By gender there were 2 males and 29 females; work experience was ranging from 2 to 35 years.

**Procedures.** The instrumentation replicated those of Horan et al. (2010) where a questionnaire format was employed. Participants were asked to recall the teacher-student conflict they experienced at school. The conflict memories form

included free space for description of conflict situation and questions to collect the following information: what was student behaviour they perceived as conflicting? What were teacher's feelings due to that behaviour? How did they react / resolve the conflict?

**Data analysis.** A method of involving data analysis is the content analysis (Berg, 2007). Transcriptions of the provided teacher-student conflict situations were read several times with the purpose of extracting important statements. Answers were deductively coded according to a set of three categories, which were derived from dimensions of the conflict process: perception of cause, feeling to that student's action, and actions (those of teacher and student) aiming to resolve the issue.

Each behavioural response constituted a separate unit. Then, after indepth analysis of the responses, they were organised in accordance with conflict resolution strategies. It was identified that two conflict resolution strategies were used: integrating and forcing. *Forcing* focuses on wanting to win the conflict (to force the violation) and unwilling to reconcile. Forcing assumed victory of one party at the expense of the other. *Integrating* emphasises both the resolution of the conflict and the preservation of the relationship. Integrating assumed satisfying the goals and needs of both parties in conflict. Description of the results consists of list of various methods teachers impement while conflict interaction with student.

### **Teacher-student conflict resolution strategies and methods**

The findings of the research allowed for the distinguishing of two strategies which are applied by teachers to resolve conflicts – **integrating** and **forcing**. When applying *the integrating* strategy teachers take a decision regarding the conflict only after having clarified all the circumstances and causes of the conflict. In such a case, the consequence (result) of the conflict is positive – in the assessment of the teacher, the conflict has been resolved, the teacher has achieved his goal and has ended up satisfied with the outcome of the conflict (3, 10, 11, 17, 21, 27, 29, 30).

When applying the forcing strategy teachers take a decision regarding the conflict having not clarified all the circumstances and causes of the conflict, without trying to clarify a student's opinion regarding the conflictual situation, which has arisen, and his behaviour, the motives for his actions. In case of the application of the forcing strategy, the consequence (result) of the conflict is negative – in the assessment of the teacher, the conflict has not been resolved, the teacher has not achieved his goal and has ended up dissatisfied with the outcome of the conflict (2, 4, 5, 9, 12, 13, 15, 16, 18, 19, 20, 23, 24, 26, 31).

When applying **the integrating** strategy, the findings of the research allowed to distinguish the following modi operandi (methods) chosen by teachers: ***argumentation, sanction, the response to the needs of the child.***

The application of *the argumentation* tactics can be distinguished as an independent modus operandi chosen by the teacher, which is sufficient to resolve a conflict. As an example of such situation, could be a situation, when, in children's hospital school, a student categorically refused to learn, ignored her teacher, because her doctor extended her treatment at hospital and did not allowed her to go home (11). In this case, the modus operandi, which was chosen by the teacher – *the argumentation*, – was appropriate for the situation at issue: firstly, the teacher calmed down the child, then he explained the situation, which had emerged, the motives for a doctor's decision. When the child calmed down and listened to the arguments, he started his lesson.

In some cases, the applied *argumentation* method embraces not only the student, but also other relevant participants – parents (1, 10, 14, 28, 29). Due to the fact that teacher's decisions at issue are taken after having clarified conflict circumstances, the reasons, motives for a student's behaviour and the like, therefore, the involvement of other participants is justified. The case, when the teacher intervened and stopped a student scuffle (however, during the examination of the conflictual situation between the students, it turned out that one of the students was hit by another, however, hit back, because he had been taught like that by his father – *if anyone hurts you – do not give in and hit back* (28)), could serve as an example of the involvement of other participants into the conflict resolution when applying the method of *the argumentation*. In such a way, only by applying the integrating strategy, the teacher could clarify the reason for the behaviour of one of the students and, respectively, to take a decision – to argue, however, by engaging a person, who encouraged a child's inappropriate behaviour – his father.

The cases of the application of the integrating strategy, when *argumentation* tactic proved to be inappropriate, came to light – a desirable goal is not achieved and then a decision is taken to change a tactic and to apply another method (8, 17, 21, 22). A situation, when a conflict arose due to the fact that a student refused to wear the uniform which is obligatory at school (17), could serve as an illustrative example. Firstly, the teacher attempted to clarify the reasons for the student's unwillingness to wear, which, in the opinion of the teacher, were not convincing, therefore, she presented her argumentus, which were based on the agreement between the student and the school and the obligation, which has to be signed by the student, to wear the uniform. It turned out that the teacher's arguments did not make impact on the student's decision, therefore, the teacher complimented *the argumentation* tactic with a provided possible *sanction*, as a means of impact – if the student does not change her decision and does not begin wearing the uniform,

the teacher will not support her candidature for the school's Council arguing that the person, who fails to comply with the obligations, may not be elected to the structure, which represents the interests of the school and its students.

In all the examined cases of the application of *the integrating* strategy, the modus operandi of *sanction*, which was chosen by the teachers, was applied only then, when *the argumentation* tactic was not effective (21) or jointly with *the argumentation*, i. e., the application of the sanction is explained by giving arguments (8, 22). For example, when the students were writing a test, teacher noticed that a student was cheating using his phone (8). The teacher explained that the school rules provide a sanction for such behaviour – the termination of a test and the removal of the student from an auditorium. Consequently, the teacher reminded the requirement and imposed the sanction.

The modus operandi of *the integrating* strategy – *the response to the needs of the child* – is applied in those cases when teachers take into consideration individual characteristics of the child, which affect a conflictual situation, such as emotional and behavioural disorders (6), *the desire to always play a leading role, to draw attention to himself* (7), *the inability to establish and maintain relationships* (30). In one of the mentioned cases, the conflict broke out when a boy became angry and refused to play when the role of a game leader was given to another student (7). The teacher decided to organise the activity of children, which was optimal for all the students.

When **the forcing** strategy was applied, the research findings allowed to distinguish the following modi operandi (tactics), which were chosen by the teachers: *the ignoring of child's needs, requirements which do not comply with a child's development / abilities, an inadequate sanction*. When analysing the actions of teachers, who chose to apply the forcing strategy, it turned out that the applied tactics had failed to achieve objectives, therefore, the conflict was not resolved, the objectives were not achieved, whereas the teachers felt dissatisfaction with the outcome of the conflict.

The teachers, who chose to apply *the forcing* strategy without having clarified the causes and circumstances of the conflict, were marked by one common feature – the insufficient preparedness of teachers to work with children and, respectively, to resolve conflictual situations, despite the fact they had a considerable length of service as teachers. The teachers characterised their feelings and reactions towards conflictual situations in the following manner: *I scold, raise my voice, I lack patience* (the length of service of 13 years) (15), *I was angry, got nervous* (the length of service of 33 years) (18), *I felt helpless, because a small child (of preschool age) dominates all the people, harms all, whereas I can do nothing* (20), *I fight with a child (age – 5 years old), I feel helpless* (the length of service of 3 years) (23), *I feel helpless, I do not know how to impact the child (age – 2,5 years old)* (the length of service of 20 years) (24), *I*



*feel helpless, I do not know what to do, I feel that I do not possess sufficient knowledge, experience* (the length of service of 13 years) (5), *I am at a loss* (the length of service of 25 years) (16).

One of the applied tactics was *the ignoring of child's needs* (4, 15, 8, 20, 23, 24). In all the cases, the teachers abstained from noticing and responding towards the changes in a child's behaviour: *a student of primary forms hums during his lessons, disturbs a lesson* (4), *a 3rd form student walks, eats and talks during a lesson* (15), *a 6-year old girl did not want to dress up after her sleep* (18), *a 2.5 year-old child refused to wash his hands after returning from the yard* (24). Such an expression of a child's behaviour demonstrates that something happened to the child, he is sending certain signals of behavioural change which must be addressed after having clarified the causes of such behaviour. An example of *the ignoring of child's needs* is a case when a 5-year-old child brings to his kindergarten a toy from home, although there is a rule that it is not allowed. When the toy is taken from him by the teacher, he becomes very angry, shouts, falls on the floor (23). It is obvious that such a child's reaction to a taken toy demonstrates his need for safety, which is not satisfied by the environment of the kindergarten fully, therefore, he brings a toy from his home as a symbol of "home" (his safe environment).

The tactic of teachers' *requirements which do not comply with a child's development / abilities*, which is chosen to react towards a conflict, is linked to conflictual situations, in which children with special needs participated (5, 19). Mention must be made of the case when, while performing a task, a preschool child with special needs was picking at other children and was teasing them (19). The teacher's attitude towards the conflictual situation, which has arisen, is demonstrated by her reaction: *I fought with her in order to achieve psychological justice in respect of other children*. In this case, the teacher chose to apply, as she maintains herself – a cause and effect method – *perform at least a part of the task and come to have supper*. In this case, not only did the teacher fail to assess the child's age, individuality and special needs, but also chose to threaten with a sanction by restricting the child's physiological need for food.

One more tactic of the forcing strategy, which came to light, is *an inadequate sanction*. As it has already been mentioned, when applying the forcing strategy, the teachers did not clarify the circumstances and causes of a conflict, therefore, their actions (the chosen tactics) were also groundless. In the case of the application of *an inadequate sanction*, during the lesson, a student cut to pieces his notebook, which, according to the teacher, must be neat, without torn out leaves and with the cover (2). It is obvious that such a student's behaviour is not typical, rather, it indicates some kind of the child's shock, anger or anxiety. However, the teacher, instead of clarifying it, simply punished him by telling him to rewrite all information into a new notebook and to bring it to show to her.

One more noteworthy case is when a student spits, hits children, speaks dirty words, walks during lessons, runs around, crawls under the chairs (16). As in the above described cases, the teacher does not examine the reasons for the student's inappropriate behaviour, however, applies one after another *ineadequate sanctions* – firstly, she separated the student from other children, then she gave a task, after that she made him sit down next to herself and, finally, removed him from the classroom. Such behaviour of the teacher can be assessed in two ways. On the one hand, she imposes four sanctions on the student for his inappropriate behaviour, on the other hand, it demonstrates that the teacher does not analyse the ineffectiveness of the methods (sanctions) applied by her.

Despite the fact that the examination concerns the conflicts between teachers and students, however, in some cases, other specialists working at school are engaged in the resolution of conflicts – classroom teachers, social pedagogues, psychologists (1, 3, 4, 6, 13, 26, 31). It may be noted that not in all the cases of conflict resolution the inclusion of other specialists has a justified reason, i. e. daily situations: the student is undisciplined during the lesson – the classroom teacher is informed (1), the student is dissatisfied with his appraisal – the classroom teacher is informed (3), the student of primary forms hums during his lessons, disturbs the lesson, does not respond to the remarks – the social pedagogue is notified (4), a 7th form student walks around, throws the belongings of his class friends, talks, does not perform tasks, does not have school supplies, repeats the teacher's words, plays games on the phone, eats – the psychologist, social pedagogue, classroom teacher are notified (13), students make fun of each other – social pedagogue is informed (26).

However, there are conflictual situations when the inclusion of other specialists is justified: the student with emotional, behavioural and development disorders refused to participate in the lesson, because she does not like the subject. She is unwilling to speak, attempts to move from the communication zone – the psychologist is engaged (6). Another case, when the engagement of the specialist assisted in resolving a conflict, should be mentioned – the teacher barred the student from taking an examination, because the student *does not possess sufficient knowledge* (31). Due to the involvement of the psychologist the student was allowed to take the examination which was passed by him very well.

The decision of teachers to engage other specialists in a conflictual situation demonstrates their unpreparedness to resolve them and the ignoring of the educational function. The possibilities for assistance of other specialists, when resolving the situations of such nature, when they are not the participants or observers of a conflictual situation, are doubtful. Rather, it demonstrates the helplessness of the teachers (what has been confessed by themselves) and an attempt to encourage themselves and, which is highly likely, to intimidate the student by the external enforcement of their forces.

The findings are in line with the other studies indicating the importance of teacher's conflict resolutions skills, and revealing their insufficient level. One of the reasons for this may be that teacher preparation programs do not incorporate the subjects concerning conflict theory and practice. Teachers should be able to analyze conflict, understand power issues, and be knowledgeable about various resolution strategies. Teacher training for current teachers should include appropriate elements from curriculum models such as the CoRe model to enhance their abilities to respond to conflict and also support social competence. presented a conceptual model for incorporating conflict resolution in preservice teacher education. The CoRE model offers teachers conflict resolution skills in a four-level approach: Foundational Knowledge, Integration, Contextual, and Implementation (Yssel et al., 2001). The goal of the first level is to build a framework for understanding society and the components that lead to unrest, specifically with respect to children. The focus on the second level is to integrate the foundational knowledge within the educational realm by introducing conflict resolution training in a workshop format. The third level engage in continued mediation training involving simulation, role playing, and constructing and responding to case studies. The fourth level brings an opportunity for student teachers to assess the viability of their conflict resolution programs within the context of a school setting.

One more possible explanation to the finding of low teacher conflict resolution competency is that it may be argued that teachers are currently too focused on children's academic skill building, rather than giving classroom time to promoting social skills. It is discussed in previous studies as well. Jenkins and colleagues (2008) has highlighted teachers feel compelled to achieve academic goals with less interest in strategies to address conflict resolution. Similarly, Sakk (2013) has found in her investigation that the role of the teacher does not allow learners to express their opinion or thoughts as the teachers are focused on teaching their subject and on learners' learning (in its narrow meaning) rather than on the social development of children. However, Kuurme and Carlsson (2010) argue that a human being cannot develop into an authentic person with repressive pedagogy, when being under the will of an external authority and dealing with it constitutes the core of the experience (p. 72).

## **Conclusions**

The purpose of this qualitative study was to explore the strategies and tactics teachers resolve teacher-student conflicts. Using content analysis, two strategy were identified such as integrating and forcing. Teacher tactics used to resolve the conflict in collaborative way included: argumentation, sanction, the response to the needs of the child. When the forcing strategy was applied the following tactics

were chosen: the ignoring of child's needs, requirements which do not comply with a child's development/abilities, an inadequate sanction. The tendency of teacher to involve to his/her conflict with students another person such as classroom teacher, social pedagogue, psychologist is also revealed in the study.

The study confirmed that the integrating strategy is the desirable strategy due to its positive characteristics both of the process and the outcomes, and vice versa, the forcing strategy due to its 'unsatisfied results is the undesirable one. In the cases teacher gets stuck in a destructive way of conflict resolution, it would be helpful for teachers to get an individual support, e.g., have the opportunity to talk about the negative experiences they have with some of their students, get tutorial on how to change the conflict resolution strategy.

Findings of the study emphasize the need for teachers to critically determine meaningful conflict resolution strategies. The course and the consequences (result) of a conflict are determined by a conflict resolution strategy which are chosen by teacher. It is important for them to realize that every conflict has its teachable moment; it provides possibility to promote social competence. Teacher need more information on constructive conflict resolution approach.

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## INFORMAL COMPONENT IN THE EDUCATIONAL WORK WITH GIFTED CHILDREN IN CHINA

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**Abstract.** *Informal Education is a general term for education that can occur outside of a structured curriculum. Nowadays it is mainly used to provide people of different ages and social categories with additional knowledge and skills needed for their professional activity or fulfilling interest. China today also uses such kind of providing educational services mainly for children and youths. These activities are seen by the state educational system as the basic level of gifted children`s detection and separating them from the other ones. Modern Chinese educational theory has its own ideas as to the problem of gifted children starting from the definition of giftedness and up to the place of such children in the society including the welfare and legal issues. Seeing giftedness as “ability to work and methodical training” the Chinese educational and welfare system is totally built up by this conception. The article using various research methods (such as theoretical literature and current Chinese legislation`s analysis, comparative methods, method of personal experience etc.) represents the Chinese experience as to educational work with gifted children especially in the field of informal education as well as general ideas of the Giftedness theory in the Chinese educational practice.*

**Keywords:** *conception of giftedness, gifted children, informal education, PR China, youths.*

### Introduction

Gifted children are always treated as the national property to form the intellectual, sport, creative the elite of any nation. Recently the whole world was impressed by so called “Chinese miracle” when the country just in some years turned up to be not the poor developing one, but a rapid leader of the world. Each country solves the problem of educational work with gifted children basing upon its educational traditions and national concept of giftedness.

**The aim of this article** is to represent the experiences of China as to organization of the system of the educational work with gifted children paying focused attention to the potential and opportunities given by the non-formal education. The stress is also made towards the uniqueness of the “giftedness concept” leading in the Chinese social and pedagogical self-awareness.

**Methods used:**

- scientific methods (analysis, synthesis, comparison, generalization) to study the encyclopedic, psycho-pedagogical and methodological literature on the point of the research;
- problem-target methods to analyze scientific and methodical literature, periodicals and regulatory guidance educational documents;
- comparative pedagogical ones to compare the theoretical ideas and practices of China.

Moreover, such methods as personal observations of the authors during their internship and work in the education system of China, interviews with teaching staff of institutions of social care for talented children in China, summarizing the data of official statistics were also of great use.

### **Historical framework of gifted children`s education in modern China**

China is probably one of the first countries in the world, which professionally dealt with the identification and selection of gifted children through the historical and pedagogical process. Since the time of the Western Han dynasty (206 BC), China has conducted state examinations, known as “Tong Zi Ke” (同字科 - a test for hieroglyphs` knowledge, which was usually hold for children of 6-8 years old) to define gifted children. However, the process of further development of giftedness and abilities of such children was not controlled by the state, since the system of obtaining education in the country was mainly built on the services of private teachers. Systematic and formal programs for gifted children fell into the country's educational practices only in 1978 as a part of the education system`s modernization that was then provided by the People's Republic of China (Theory and practice of the reform of Talent-oriented special education in China, 2007).

Orientation to ensure that China in the agricultural, industrial, technological and trade areas becomes equal to the rest of the world led to significant changes in methods of education in the country as a whole, as well as to emergence of pedagogical work with gifted students as a special activity of Chinese teachers. Firstly, the methods for identifying gifted children, especially children from rural regions, were adopted, improved and justified. Secondly, special programs have been developed to help gifted children and support their development.

It is quite difficult even to name the researchers that pay attention to the problem of gifted children in China. Traditionally the Chinese both theoretical and practical literature especially of 50-90s. of the XX century leveled the idea of giftedness. It corresponded to the practice of Soviet Union where the only form of giftedness recognized was the physical one. As for contemporary ideas over the problem mentioned, the Chinese still form their mass educational system of work with gifted children and mainly still use the one borrowed from the USSR in the late 50s of the XX cent. which is based on the practice of specialized boarding schools for talented and gifted children. This position is reflected in papers of Guo Jijia, Wang Yaomin, Mei Xinlin, Li Doli, Yu Bin, etc. The problem of adoption of abroad educational technologies to the needs of China is reflected in researches of Li Jiegao, Pi Aiqin, Ouyang Pinmei, Pi Moren, Guo Lijun etc., but their papers reflect the problem fragmentary and incomplete.

### **The concept of giftedness in China**

Chinese culture, pedagogics, education system, and public opinion have developed their own concept of “giftedness” in children, which to a greater extent determines the place of gifted children in modern Chinese society. Perception of this or that reality in Chinese culture is most fully reflected in the hieroglyphics. If we take a hieroglyph-by-hieroglyph analysis of the word “a gifted child” (天才儿童), it's interpretation is close to the notion of “a child who has a gift from Heaven”. The Chinese traditionally perceived Heaven as the supreme deity, which gives a person destiny, talent, happiness and so on. The inner content of the concept is identical to “a child who was kissed by an angel”, which is common among Slavic and European peoples. However, this interpretation implicitly hints that, because of God's gift, man's giftedness is a concept that is already full, constant and does not require additional development.

As for the Chinese educational system, the main slogan of it in this aspect for a long time was: “There are no ungifted or unprofitable, but there are only those who make little effort”. Therefore, the curricula in the country were developed without taking into account the phenomenon of “talent”, “giftedness”, “learning disabilities”, “poorly educated”, etc., and synonymous with the word “gifted” were diligent “and” hardworking” (Ding & Ji, 2008).

As to the Chinese society towards gifted children it occupies a dual position. In one hand, all parents want their child to be defined as gifted and invest big money in circles of interests, additional classes, children clubs etc. In the other hand, unlike other countries, Chinese society does not consider it necessary to support the initiatives of the state and the education system as to



giving gifted children the possibility of early graduation from school and entering universities since earlier graduation means earlier start of work. The current legislation clearly defines the time when a candidate can be chosen for civil service, employment, retirement etc. Under such conditions, the working life of gifted children who are potentially entitled to graduate from high schools and universities is sufficiently resolved. Also, Chinese society fears that children and adolescents themselves will not be psychologically and physically ready for the amount of information that a university provides. Therefore, the possibility of early graduation for gifted children (jumping through the class, externship and other forms) is very interesting for the Chinese theorists and is actively developed in the narrowly specialized pedagogical and methodical literature, but meets rather harsh criticism in media and society.

### **Theoretical framework of educational work with gifted children in modern China**

To improve the situation and develop the national system of educational work with gifted children, the Ministry of Education of the PR China has identified a number of problems to be solved on the national level in order to develop a new education strategy as to the category of children mentioned, which includes:

- A training system concentrated upon a student;
- Creative people as the result of the educational system and process;
- Development of educational strategies that take into account the concepts and methods typical to China.

As the result, there were determined three main aspects of practical and theoretical work with gifted to be developed first: scientific development of national concept of giftedness, educational strategies and the system of gifted children's selection.

***The concept of giftedness.*** Chinese schools almost always used traditional concepts of giftedness. As a result, programs for gifted students in this country were intended primarily for students who demonstrated a high level of general mental abilities, often referred to as “g-factor” (general). Students with a high level of g-factor were given advantage in admission to specialized schools and classes. While developing a new concept of giftedness, in particular, the following models were adopted:

- Three-component theory of giftedness, which contains three types of giftedness: analytical, synthetic and practical.
- Gardner's theory, which defines seven different categories of giftedness and intelligence: verbal/linguistic, logical/mathematical,

spatial, musical, physical, interpersonal and intrapersonal.

- The three-ring concept of giftedness, which defines giftedness as a phenomenon that combines abilities above the average level, creativity and motivation.

However, in the process of developing national concept of intelligence, the Chinese scientists did not accept any of the above mentioned concepts in full, but rather at their expense expanded their traditional ideas of giftedness. By now in Chinese pedagogical literature giftedness is treated as “high level of a child's progress in all subjects, his goodwill, social activity, non-conflictness, etc.”

**Educational strategies.** It is well known that any knowledge is best perceived when children explore real problems that concern them directly. Problems with open solutions stimulate maximum efforts of a child and are interesting for him/her. So China decided to focus on new educational strategies. Introduced with the help of available resources and children's literature, new strategies encourage student autonomy and creativity through open questions addressed to children. Development occurs through additional forms of learning, such as art or expansion of interaction between pupils and teachers. Chinese scientists believe that when these changes will be introduced into the system of educational work with gifted children already established in China in full, the positive shifts will be more obvious than in the case of a complete transformation of the system mentioned.

**Selection.** Due to the misbalance between the possibilities of urban and rural educational institutions, many gifted children do not have a chance to be selected for participation in the relevant programs, as there are is no such kind of activities at their schools. Also parents of gifted children in rural areas do not always have the financial opportunity to develop high rates of their child; at best - on the recommendation of the rural teachers and the territorial communities, such children could be transferred to a boarding school for gifted children.

The other strategic task in organization of the system of educational work with gifted children which the state constantly pays attention to is the problem of preparing a teaching corps. The solution of this problem requires not only equipping the teacher with new technologies, providing them with information and controlling their practical work, but also mass training of primary school teachers and preschool institutions to identify gifted children. Today according to the sociological survey made by the Ministry of Education of the PR China made in 2016, school teachers in China are not psychologically ready to work with gifted children. Manifestations of giftedness in practical work of teachers are either leveled (the pupil traditionally gets good marks), or are exploited (olympiads, contests, etc.).

## **Practical issues of educational work with gifted children in modern China**

To date, the Chinese educational system uses the following practical methods as to gifted children:

- specialized training programs that meet the special needs of gifted students in obtaining knowledge and high level of their intelligence. Today, China actively adopts abroad developing and specialized programs as to gifted children, adapting them to its own needs in the process of practical use. For this purpose, foreign teachers are also invited (since 2008 to work at a Chinese University or a state school for gifted children a foreign teacher must have a specialized pedagogical education, be at least 25 years old, guarantees at least 3 years of practical work on the profile). Foreign teachers are given freedom of action within the framework of textbooks recommended by the Ministry of Education of the PR China, but usually there is a Chinese teacher present in the class to adopt the techniques of the foreign specialist;
- specialized schools for gifted children. In China there was established a hierarchical system of schools: in all provinces and cities several best schools are allocated, among them the best is proclaimed as “super school”. They receive the greatest state support, and, which is more important, the right to make a competitive selection of students. For the whole China the amount of such “super schools” are not more than 50 and each school has its own specialization. Such schools have the right to invite the best teachers from different countries. These are elite institutions, where study not only the Chinese, but also children from USA, England, Australia, Canada and other countries. Tuition fee is rather high (\$ 5-10 thousand per year), but competition is 15-18 children per place. Also the country widely uses opportunities that university centers provide. Many universities have a school or schools attached. There are university teachers work there and provide the students with the high level of educational services. Naturally this applies, first of all, to the upper classes; middle classes participate in this practice through a system of non-formal education. Also for the musically, choreographically and sportingly gifted children there is a system of profile boarding schools with a full residence;
- circles on interests, additional educational activities, research projects at schools. The modern Chinese educational system is designed to maximally free parents from the process of education children. The state supports this trend in every possible way for two reasons: the

traditional Chinese conviction that every action should be done by a professional (parents – are to work qualitatively at their workplace, the education system – is to provide education services and educate children), as well as fear of the “difference of views” between the family and the school as the conductor of the official ideology of the state. Therefore, the organization of all kinds of circles and extracurricular activities is the responsibility of educational institutions. (Wang, 2006)

Today the Chinese system of work with talented children in the system of formal education gives its results mainly in sports (among the Chinese Olympic games winners and participants 100 % graduated from the sports boarding schools) and music (especially, violin and piano virtuoso musicians). Also it is traditionally seen in the amount of Chinese students to gain scholarships from the world key Universities (especially in computer sciences). But a lot of Western researchers (Schilds M., Boiken V., Gavrish Yu. etc.) explain the success of the Chinese not by the system of work with gifted Children, but by the human resource that guarantees possibility of selection. However, the leading role in educational work with gifted children in the PR China today is played by the parents and the establishments of non-formal education.

#### **Opportunities of non-formal education in work with gifted children**

Traditionally, the development of giftedness in their own children in China was given to parents. Having a gifted, unique or talented child in the family has always guaranteed parents honor, respect and certain bonuses from the Chinese society. Therefore, even now the Chinese parents take on the main work to identify and develop talents of their children: they lead them to all kinds of circles, additional classes, studios, experimental schools, etc. Today, this practice is widespread in cities. And also mainly the urban population has the access to such services. Although many educational institutions of the PR China now declare their experimentation and progressiveness, in most cases their differences are reduced to an improved material base, reorganization of the educational space of children according to the Western pattern (language classes, round tables for working in small groups) only, because there is not enough specialists know how to work with new experimental technologies or with gifted children in practice.

The system of non-formal education is also considered more attractive both for gifted children and for their parents due to the nature of the information and psychological climate. Because of the scarcity of resources, the selection of talented and gifted children for training in public top schools in China is mainly done through very rigid test methods and is not always objective. Also, the curricula in such schools is standardized by the state and do not take into

account individual characteristics and peculiarities of a gifted child. As for the informal sector, teachers are encouraged to use the “Individual Development Plan” to track progress of a child. Completing the Plan, a teacher is invited in a free form to mark the progress of the student weekly, noting his creativity, initiative, goodwill and positive attitude towards teacher and other students (Chen, 2016). This technique encourages the teacher, parents and the student himself/herself to focus only on the strengths of the child, while traditional Chinese techniques used in public schools tend them to focus on identifying the child's weak points, focusing on what the students cannot cope with or cannot do properly.

### **Conclusions**

The modern state system of educational work with gifted children in the PR China is now in the stage of formation, actively using its own pedagogical experience as well as abroad borrowings. During the historical and pedagogical process, the Chinese developed its own concept of giftedness, the system of social relations between the state, society and the family, which mostly determine both the perception of gifted children as a pedagogically separate category and their place in the pedagogical and social ties of modern Chinese society. Initiative of parents, their will to provide this process with money and time as well as their access to the system of non-formal education plays the main role in a gifted child's formation and development in China today. It is the institutions of informal education (circles, studios, clubs, private classes, etc.) in most cases that perform primary identification and development of a child's giftedness, supplying state educational institutions for gifted children (special schools, classes, boarding schools) with the approved product ready and suitable for further specialization and crystallization of the talent.

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## РЕБЁНОК, КАК ЖЕРТВА НАСИЛИЯ В СЕМЬЕ

### *Child as a Victim of Domestic Violence*

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**Abstract.** *Domestic violence is undoubtedly a topical yet still embarrassing problem of contemporary families. Violence leaves an imprint on human mental health, thus negatively affecting the development and functioning of a child. The aim of this paper is to present views to various aspects of a child being a victim of domestic violence, at least from the standpoint of being the witness of violence of one parent against the other or experiencing physical or sexual abuse. This paper presents investigations of the violence against children and the analysis of selected problems discussed in the literature.*

**Keywords:** *child, victim of violence, physical and psychical violence, witness.*

### **Введение**

#### ***Introduction***

Явление насилия в семье это международная проблема, которая появляется в семьях независимо от расы, происхождения, религии или социально-экономического статуса. Домашнее насилие представляет особый интерес, как для теоретиков, так и для практиков, пытающихся противостоять насилию и помогать жертвам.

Согласно Всемирной Организации Здоровья насилием является «преднамеренное применение физической силы или власти, которое может иметь как характер угрозы, так и реального воздействия, направленное против самого себя, другого лица или против группы лиц или сообщества, которое причиняет либо с большой долей вероятности может причинить физический либо психологический вред, быть причиной смерти либо нарушения развития» (Makara-Studzińska, 2010: 11). Таким образом, насилие - это любое действие, направленное на причинение физического и/или психологического вреда индивидууму. Насилием также является отказ или неспособность принять меры. В литературе различают четыре основных типа насилия: физическое, психологическое, сексуальное и пренебрежение.

Каждый член семьи может стать жертвой насилия в семье. Чаще всего, однако, жертвами являются женщины и дети, потом пожилые люди и реже

всего мужчины. Целью артикула будет теоретический анализ ситуации детей – жертв насилия в семье. Работая в группах противодействия насилию в семье часто встречаюсь с ситуацией невосприятия ребёнка как жертвы.

### **Положение ребёнка в проблемной семье** *Situation of children in families with violence problems*

В соответствии с Законом о борьбе с насилием в семье (2005, статья 2, § 2) насилием в семье является «единичное или неоднократное умышленное действие или бездействие, нарушающее права или личные потребности лиц (...), в частности, подвергая эти лица риску смерти, утраты здоровья, унижению их достоинства, нарушению физической неприкосновенности, свободы, включая сексуальную, наносящее ущерб их физическому или психическому здоровью и причиняющее боль и моральный вред». Согласно с тем самым законом, членом семьи является близкий человек, по определению Кодекса о семье и опеке (1964) или другой совместно проживающий и ведущий домашнее хозяйство человек. Это означает, что в соответствии с законом, мы также семьёй считаем лица, живущие в неформальных брачных отношениях.

В этой статье расскажу о наиболее уязвимых членах семьи, о детях. В ситуации физического насилия в отношении ребенка (избиение, удушение, нанесение ожогов и т. д.), эта ситуация недвусмысленная - ребенок считается жертвой насилия. К сожалению, очень часто должны быть четкие следы этого злоупотребления, чтобы соответствующие службы могли принять меры. Например, часто ребёнок, попадая в больницу с серьёзными травмами или переломами, не попадает в систему помощи, потому что врач не инициирует процедуру «Голубой карты» (направленную на оказание помощи жертве насилия). Это потому, что врачи не хотят тратить свое время на участие в допросах или судебных слушаниях, они также объясняют, что они не хотят бросать поспешные обвинения против родителей пациентов. Между тем, врач обязан вмешаться в случае насилия, и имеет множество инструментов для распознавания симптомов насилия.

Согласно ранее упомянутому законодательному определению насилия, любое преднамеренное нарушение физической неприкосновенности также является актом насилия. Между тем, многие родители шлепок ребёнка рукой или физическое наказание рассматривают как форму воспитания, часто оправдывая себя тем, что они также в детстве получали ремнём и выросли людьми. Часто родители также объясняют, что они не бьют сильно и что другие методы не помогают. В Польше физическое наказание запрещено - «лицам, имеющим родительские права и тем, кто осуществляет опеку или уход за несовершеннолетним, запрещается применение телесных



наказаний» (Семейный и опекунский кодекс, 1964, статья 961). Также статья 37 Конвенции о правах ребенка (1991) запрещает унижающее достоинство обращение и физическое наказание детей. По какой-то причине мы, взрослые, объясняем, что мы нервничаем, что ребенок по-другому ничего не понимает, но мы должны задуматься, можно ли нам что-то объяснить при помощи физической силы? По какой-то причине мы даём себе право бить более слабого, беспомощного и безгранично доверяющего нам человека, и мы называем это воспитанием. Второй вопрос - потеря самоконтроля. Удивительно, но мы теряем самоконтроль, когда перед нами стоит слабый человек, а не когда, например, раздражает нас менеджер или директор, кто-то более сильный, чем мы. Более того, если мы так легко теряем контроль над своим поведением, возможно, родитель должен пойти на терапию для контроля эмоций, а не издеваться над ребёнком.

Другим аспектом насилия в семье является использование психологического насилия, то есть всех форм унижения, изоляции, критики и т. д. Психологическое или эмоциональное насилие очень трудно доказать, и часто, если у потерпевшего нет доказательств, остается только слово против слова. К счастью, в Польше растет степень понимания необходимости распознавания психологического насилия и реагирования на него. Жертвы все чаще сообщают о факте психологического насилия, а соответствующие службы инициируют процедуру помощи.

И опять же, в случае психологического насилия в отношении детей, ситуация совершенно иная, как будто психологическое насилие над детьми не существует или является маргинальным явлением. В течение нескольких лет работы в группе по предотвращению насилия в семье и работе с жертвами и лицами, совершившими насилие, я не сталкивалась с сообщениями о психологическом насилии в отношении ребенка. В то же время всякая ссора между родителями или физическое насилие в отношении взрослого члена семьи является актом насилия в отношении ребенка. Между тем родители часто говорят, что если ребенок не присутствовал во время ссоры или избиения, этот инцидент не затрагивает его психику или, например, они думают, что ребенок всё ещё слишком мал, чтобы понять, а ведь даже базовые знания в области детской психологии показывают, что дети понимают и воспринимают гораздо больше, чем взрослым кажется. В случае вмешательства в ситуацию насилия в отношении взрослого в семье ребенок может рассматриваться только как свидетель насилия, если он непосредственно присутствует при инциденте, а должен автоматически считаться жертвой насилия. Если в семье насилие применяется к взрослому человеку и есть дети, учреждение, инициировавшее процедуру «Голубой карты», обязано информировать суд о возникновении такой ситуации и подать заявление о рассмотрении положения ребенка в семье.

Отдельной проблемой является то, что взрослые часто жестоко обращаются с детьми, обзывают их, например, «идиот», «дебил», «ты безнадёжен» или лишают ребёнка своего внимания, говоря, что не любят ребёнка или применяют эмоциональный шантаж («ты меня в могилу отправишь», «мама/папа из-за тебя плохо себя чувствует», «мы столько пожертвовали тебе, а ты такой неблагодарный»). Возможно, каждый из нас слышал эти слова хотя бы один раз в своей жизни, в некоторых семьях это «норма», а большинство из нас не видит в этом ничего опасного. Тем не менее, слова могут оставлять более глубокие раны, чем удары, особенно если речь идёт о незрелой психике ребенка. Родители ожидают от своего ребенка поведения взрослых, а сами далеко не всегда ведут себя как взрослые.

Ребенок, или, скорее подросток, также может быть виновником насилия в семье. Случаи несовершеннолетних, применяющих насилие в отношении других членов семьи, составляют около 10 % всех случаев жестокого обращения детей в отношении родителей (поскольку взрослые дети на много чаще плохо относятся к своим родителям). Здесь ситуация однозначная, насилие происходит по вине ребенка. Это происходит по нескольким причинам. Чаще всего насилие над родителями (скорее над матерями) применяется молодым человеком, употребляющим наркотики или другие психотропные вещества. Другим примером является ситуация, когда дети любой ценой хотят принудить своих родителей к соответствующему поведению или решению и угрожают им, что иначе они будут вызывать полицию. Пример профессиональной практики: 17-летняя девочка хотела поехать с друзьями на каникулы, а её родители не соглашались и не хотели финансировать эту поездку. Сначала подросток сообщил о предполагаемом насилии воспитателю и школьному учителю, угрожал убежать из дома и самоубийством. Поскольку это не помогло, девочка спровоцировала драку со своей матерью, а затем вызвала полицию, утверждая, что она боялась избиения со стороны матери. И, наконец, ситуации, когда ребенок по разным причинам (например, психическое заболевание, эмоциональные расстройства или убеждения, что он является главой семьи), плохо относится к родителям. В качестве примера можно привести ситуацию, когда подросток после развода родителей решил, что он глава семьи, и начал регулярно избивать младшую сестру за всякие провинности. Кроме того, он начал контролировать свою мать, проверять ее телефон, запирает в комнате, если она хотела куда-то пойти, он забирал у неё деньги. Позже он объяснил, что мать была безответственной, и кто-то должен был её облагоразумить.

### **Характеристики детей жертв насилия** *Characterization of children of violence victims*

Общенациональная диагностика домашнего насилия показывает, что 71 % подростков в возрасте от 11 до 17 лет испытали на себе как минимум одну из форм насилия, а основываясь только на «голубых картах», составленных полицией (не считая других уполномоченных лиц), в 2012 году в Польше было 21394 тыс. детей жертв насилия в семье (Przemoc wobec dziecka w Polsce, 2013, 5-8). В 2016 году в статистике полиции было зарегистрировано 14200 тыс. детей жертв домашнего насилия (Włodarczyk, 2017: 195). Хотя в 2016 году произошло сокращение зарегистрированных полицией актов насилия в отношении детей, следует отметить, что в то же время увеличилось число составления школами и социальными работниками «голубых карт».

Масштабы проблемы жестокого обращения с детьми со стороны самых близких членов семьи до сих пор неизвестны. Статистика опирается на процедуры, инициированные полицией, которые, однако, не включают детей, так называемых свидетелей насилия в семье, и тем более неизвестно число детей, пострадавших от сексуального насилия. Аналогично выглядит ситуация, когда речь идет об исследованиях, касающихся детей жертв насилия. Из-за сложности темы и необходимости заботы, в первую очередь, о благополучии ребенка, доступно лишь немного исследований, характеризующих жертв насилия. Ниже ниже предоставляется одно из них. Автор, Марта Макара-Студинька, провела свои исследования на двух группах – клинической (299 человек) и контрольной (301 человек). Исследования проводились в период 2003-2007 (Makara-Studzińska, 2010: 51).

Во время одного из исследований была сделана попытка охарактеризовать молодежь, переживающую насилие, с учетом типа насилия, применяемого к ним. Анализ результатов позволил выделить четыре типа. *Тип А* - это применение физического и эмоционального насилия. В этой группе доминировала молодежь после попыток самоубийства (46,43 %) и подростки, употребляющие психотропные вещества (39,29 %). Дети с расстройствами питания составляли 14,29 % респондентов из типа А. Эта группа жертв демонстрирует значительную интенсивность невротизма и низкий уровень проблем в отношениях со сверстниками. Интересно, что молодежь характеризуется позитивным отношением к жизни. Это люди с чрезмерным самоконтролем. Жертвы данного типа редко используют словесную агрессию, но имеют серьезные проблемы с контролем физической агрессии. Они имеют наивысшие результаты в области скрытой агрессии. Молодежь в этой группе ценит

такие показатели, как физическая подготовка, доброта, деликатность и богатство. Недооценка сложных ситуаций и самоагрессия - типичные способы реагирования на стресс. Большинство респондентов воспитывалось в полноценных семьях. Когда речь идёт о саморазрушительном поведении, у 85,14 % респондентов в этой группе были суицидальные мысли (Makara-Studzińska, 2010: 71-79, 98-102).

В *группе Б* в первую очередь использовалось физическое насилие. Большинство из этой группы – это дети, употребляющие психотропные вещества (70,59 %) и молодые люди после попыток самоубийства (29,41 %). Дети в этой группе получили самые низкие оценки в области невротизма и самые высокие результаты с точки зрения враждебности к окружающей среде и физической агрессии по отношению к другим. Для них больше всего важны гедонистические и эстетические ценности, такие как популярность, жизнь, полная приключений и мужество. Наиболее распространенным способом реагирования на стресс было преуменьшение, компенсация и отказ от действия. 60 % респондентов выросло в полноценных семьях, а 37,65 % в семьях с одним родителем. 71,76 % респондентов употребляли наркотики и более 50 % пытались совершить самоубийство (Makara-Studzińska, 2010: 71-79, 98-102).

Третий - *тип В* - касается сексуального насилия. Здесь преобладали молодые люди с нарушениями питания (53,75 %) и молодёжь после попыток самоубийства (30,38 %). Жертвы получили высокие оценки в области невротизма и негативной самооценки. Субъекты данного типа характеризовались низкими результатами во всех типах агрессии. Больше всего для них важны моральные ценности и правда, а также дружба, любовь и чувство юмора. В ситуации стресса они стараются преуменьшить проблему или угрозу. 52,32 % жертв этой группы воспитывалась в неполных семьях. 34,38 % употребляли наркотики хотя бы один раз, но суицидальные мысли возникали у большинства респондентов (71,88 %) (Makara-Studzińska, 2010: 71-79, 98-102).

Последний *тип Г* касался главным образом эмоционального насилия. Большинство в этой группе это молодёжь с нарушениями питания (75,68 %) и люди после попыток самоубийства (23,32 %). Жертвы этой группы проявили повышенный уровень невротизма и добросовестности и низкий уровень враждебности к окружающей среде. У жертвы из этой группы преобладала словесная агрессия. Субъекты предпочитают религиозные ценности и правду, они ценят интеллект, доброту и богатство. Молодёжь справляется со стрессом при помощи таких механизмов, как отказ от действия, пассивность, поиск решения или самоагрессия. Они имеют самый негативный образ себя из всех типов. Чаще всего они родом из полных семей (68,92 %). У более половины респондентов были суицидальные

мысли (58,11 %), у большинства никогда не было инцидента с использованием наркотиков (Makara-Studzińska, 2010: 71-79, 98-102).

### **Противодействие домашнему насилию**

#### ***Preventing violence in families***

Как ранее упоминалось, вопрос насилия в семье регулируется Законом о борьбе с насилием в семье, в котором определяется порядок оказания помощи, как жертвам, так и лицам совершившим насилие. Основой для начала помощи является запуск процедуры «Голубой карты» и создание рабочей группы, которая будет заниматься конкретным случаем. По закону, такой семьёй занимается социальный работник, участковый, часто инспектор по делам несовершеннолетних, а в случае детей ещё и школьный педагог, а иногда и суд. Кроме того, согласно закону, проводятся профилактические и образовательные мероприятия, целью которых является повышение осведомленности общества об актах насилия, особенно в отношении детей (например, в средствах массовой информации, общенациональных социальных кампаниях) и просвещения взрослых о последствиях насилия.

Теоретически система противодействия насилию в семье достаточно хорошо продумана. Однако, как всегда, дьявол кроется в мелочах. И здесь следует сделать несколько комментариев о реализации помощи для ребенка. Если в семье, в которой есть ребёнок, существует насилие по отношению к её взрослому члену, в суд автоматически направляется просьба об ознакомлении с семейной ситуацией ребёнка. Если во время собеседования инспектор по делам несовершеннолетних не находит угрозы, вмешательство суда заканчивается, в остальных случаях наступает ограничение родительских прав и семье назначается инспектор по делам несовершеннолетних. В принципе, в этой ситуации помощь для ребенка заканчивается, а действия направлены на родителя-жертву. Следует отметить, что для некоторых семей, для которых вмешательство происходит в первый раз, заинтересованность суда является мотивирующим фактором для изменения собственного поведения. К сожалению, это нельзя сказать о семьях, в которых есть дополнительная проблема с алкоголем, или «Голубая карта» появляется не первый раз.

Другая проблема заключается в том, чтобы представлять права ребёнка жертвы. Часто есть ситуации, когда насилие над ребёнком применяется обоими родителями, а затем в процедуре «Голубой карты» ребенок не представлен никем. Рабочая группа должна принять решение о передаче дела в суд, с целью установления другого законного опекуна, который будет представлять интересы ребёнка и размещении ребёнка в приёмной семье. В

польской системе предпочтительнее размещать детей у опекунов, связанных с ребенком (родственников). Иногда, однако, бывают ситуации, когда приемный опекун часто остается в близком контакте с лицом, совершившим насилие. Примером этого является сообщение о насилии в отношении трёх детей (3, 5 и 6-летних), где бабушка, которая заботилась о детях своих двух дочерей, была указана как лицо совершившее насилие. Бабушка неоднократно применяла физическое наказание к маленьким детям, и, кроме того, она убеждала других детей «дисциплинировать» малышей избиванием. Мать зарегистрированных детей не выполняла должным образом свои родительские обязанности, она часто исчезала из дома на несколько дней, оставляя детей на попечении своей матери. В этом семействе в течение нескольких лет была оказана всевозможная помощь: от присутствия социального работника, через помощника семьи и инспектора, вплоть до участкового. Тем не менее, ситуация насилия все еще присутствовала, хотя и в разных конфигурациях. Мать никогда не приходила на заседание рабочей группы и не заботилась о своих детях. В конце концов, суд решил разместить детей в приемной семье, а законным опекуном назначил вторую сестру (с ее согласия), в семье которой не обнаружено признаков патологии. Казалось бы, что положение детей успешно разрешено, проблема заключается в том, что исполнитель насилия – бабушка – также часто оставалась в доме второй дочери, а это означает, что дети продолжали иметь прямой контакт с лицом, виновным в насилии.

Насилие имеет множество последствий, как в функционировании семьи, так и в индивидуальном поведении её отдельных членов. Особенно опасные последствия остаются у детей в психике, что может вызвать множество нарушений или препятствий в дальнейшем развитии, а в некоторых случаях можно говорить об эмоциональной инвалидности (см. Czerw, 2016: 108-109). Это означает, что следует прилагать больше усилий или искать новые решения, чтобы дети все меньше и меньше становились жертвами насилия (см. Marzec, 2008: 21-27). В то же время эти мероприятия должны проводиться как на местном, так и на национальном уровне всеми учреждениями, назначенными для оказания помощи и защиты детей.

### **Вывод** *Conclusions*

При анализе польских данных о насилии в семье следует отметить, что ребёнка чаще всего рассматривают как свидетеля насилия, поскольку насилие не направлено непосредственно на ребенка, а только по отношению к совершеннолетнему члену семьи. Отсюда вытекает однозначный вывод о

том, что ситуации насилия в отношении взрослых не рассматриваются как психологическое насилие в отношении детей. И это означает, что необходимо в первую очередь предпринять усилия для изменения законодательства, с тем чтобы в любой ситуации открытия «Голубой карты» несовершеннолетний ребенок автоматически считался жертвой этого насилия. Кроме того, следет работать над осведомленностью взрослых. Потому что взрослые часто думают, что если ребёнок находится в своей комнате или ребёнок маленький, насилие не влияет на его чувство безопасности. Конечно, это неправда, и стоит просвещать общественность о последствиях насилия в отношении детей.

Несмотря на множество социальных компаний, остаётся желать лучших результатов, инициировать судебное разбирательство в случаях воспитания детей с помощью, так называемых шлепков или авторитарного воспитания. В каждом случае следует помнить, что акты агрессии неизменно влияют на развитие и поведение ребёнка и, следовательно, на его будущую жизнь. Это означает, что противодействие бытовому насилию всегда должно быть актуальной задачей для государства и общества.

### Summary

Analysis of the data concerning domestic violence indicates that children are mostly viewed as witnesses rather than victims of violence since such acts are often aimed at other adults rather than directly at the child. This leads to a common misconception that violence affecting adults should not be regarded a mental violence against children. This means that actions should be taken to change legislature so that in each case of starting the Blue Card procedures, minors would be simultaneously regarded victims of violence. Furthermore, awareness of adults should also be raised, because the adults often think that if a child was in his or her own room or it is very young, the violence acts do not impact on their sense of security. Obviously this is not true and society should be aware of consequences of violence against children.

Despite many social campaigns, little has been done to start procedures to prevent raising children by "giving and occasional slap" or using overly strict principles. It should be remembered that violent acts incessantly impact on the development and changing the behaviour of the child, including their future functioning. This means that preventing violence in family should become one of the key objectives to be achieved by the state and society.

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## СОЦИАЛЬНО-ПСИХОЛОГИЧЕСКИЕ ХАРАКТЕРИСТИКИ ВЕРУЮЩИХ И НЕВЕРУЮЩИХ ГРАЖДАН, ОТБЫВАЮЩИХ НАКАЗАНИЕ (НА ПРИМЕРЕ ХРИСТИАНСКОГО ВЕРОИСПОВЕДАНИЯ)

*Socio-psychological characteristics of believers and non-believers,  
serving their sentences (as illustrated by Christianity)*

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**Abstract.** *The object of the work was the research of religiousness as the factor affecting on nature of punishment, future plans, view of life and self-concept. In the work were used the following research methods: personal psychological characteristic examination, assessment of convicted person by the staff, social diagnostics of such factors as conscience of guilt, attitude toward punishment and punishment administration analysis.*

*There were revealed trends in the study testifying an influence of religiousness on persons serving their sentences. Thus, religiousness is a trigger for correctional facility adaptation because there is a decrease of offences and violations of custodial control. Psychological diagnosis showed that the religious have higher opinion of themselves than the irreligious. 63, 2 % of the religious have high or average level of inherent value and only 42, 9 % of the irreligious have such level of inherent value. The faith promotes positive attitude to life and lower rate of depression among the religious testifies this. Religious convicted persons' aim in life is to realize their moral standards of higher hierarchical level and this is a favorable background for their life after deinstitutionalization.*

*Thus, research of religiousness as the factor affecting on convicted persons serving their prison terms has showed positive influence of faith on nature of punishment, future plans after deinstitutionalization, view of life and self-concept.*

**Keywords:** *convict, church member, believer, but non-performing religious rites, non-believer, religiousness, execution of punishment.*

## **Введение** ***Introduction***

Еще в 1998 году Патриарх Московский и всея Руси Алексий II при освящении православного храма в ИК-3 в Витебской области произнес пророческие слова: «Если мы не будем строить храмы, то будем строить тюрьмы».

Словно в подтверждение его слов, в настоящее время в пенитенциарной системе отчетливо выделяются несколько тенденций:

- 1) направленность реформирования уголовно-исполнительной системы на строгое соответствие деятельности по исполнению наказания в виде лишения свободы;
- 2) разнообразие применения воспитательно-педагогических элементов в исправительном воздействии и их явный недостаток в практике работы пенитенциарных сотрудников;
- 3) ежегодно фиксируется увеличение количества осужденных, которые остро нуждаются в духовно-пастырском окормлении со стороны представителей религиозных организаций и церкви, накопившей большой опыт миссионерской работы в местах лишения свободы (Лещенко, 2011).

С 2014 года согласно Постановлению Правительства Российской Федерации в штаты Федеральной службы исполнения наказаний введено 85 должностей помощников начальников региональных Управлений ФСИН России по организации работы с верующими. Как было отмечено ранее, нововведение родилось из запроса практики – немалое число осужденных обращаются к вере в период отбывания наказания. Это подтверждает также социологический опрос от 24 марта 2015 года, согласно которому подавляющее большинство преступивших закон людей (85 %) относят себя к числу верующих (Симонова & Шайдулина, 2017).

Наблюдения и экспертные оценки сотрудников уголовно-исполнительной системы свидетельствуют о том, что верующие граждане, отбывающие наказание, ведут более правопослушный образ жизни, практически не нарушая правила внутреннего распорядка, понимают справедливость того наказания, которое им назначено, реже совершают повторные преступления.

Вместе с тем вопрос влияния веры на осужденных в науке изучен недостаточно. Исследователи рассматривали некоторые аспекты влияния религиозности на личность, ограниченную в свободе. Например, вопросы реализации права осужденных на свободу вероисповедания в ракурсе исследования их правового статуса в местах лишения свободы были

изучены В. Н. Королевым (1992); тематика социального служения религиозных организаций в контексте внутренней политики современной России исследовалась В. Б. Устиненко (2008), актуальные вопросы правового статуса религиозных образований в Российской Федерации были раскрыты И. А. Куницыным (2000); анализ религиозного воздействия на осужденных к лишению свободы в Российской Федерации был проведен В. Г. Лещенко (2012).

Недостаточность научных исследований религиозности осужденных, отбывающих наказание, с психологической точки зрения определило актуальность нашего исследования.

Целью работы стало исследование религиозности как фактора, оказывающего существенное влияние на характер отбывания наказания, планы на перспективу, мировоззрение, самооценку личности.

### **Теоретическая основа темы** *The theoretical background*

Миссия тюремного служения, по мнению владыки Иринарха, основана на словах Христа «...в темнице был, и вы пришли ко Мне» (Мф. 25, 36), – и направлена на обеспечение условий для полноценной духовной жизни и облегчения участи лиц, заключенных под стражу. Традиционная задача Церкви – содействовать приобщению человека в условиях лишения свободы к христианским духовно-нравственным ценностям и, возрождая в его душе религиозность, помогать осужденному, волей судьбы оказавшемуся в заключении, преодолеть в себе склонность к греху и совершению преступлений, а после выхода на свободу находить в себе духовные и нравственные силы для восстановления утраченных социальных связей».

Протоиерей Федор (Соколов) предлагает рассматривать преступность в контексте отклонений правопорядка от христианской духовности. Однако, оступившемуся человеку, какое бы страшное преступление он не совершил, всегда дается шанс на исправление и выравнивание своего жизненного пути (Соколов, 1996).

Как было отмечено ранее, вопрос влияния веры на осужденных на сегодняшний день изучен не достаточно. По результатам экспертных оценок сотрудников уголовно-исполнительной системы, верующие люди, отбывающие наказание, ведут более правопослушный образ жизни, практически не нарушая правила внутреннего распорядка, понимают справедливость того наказания, которое им назначено, реже совершают повторные преступления (Дебольский, 1986).

## **Методика и организация исследования** *Methodology and organization of research*

Исследование религиозности как фактора, оказывающего воздействие на характер отбывания наказания, планы на перспективу, самооценку мировоззрение, душевные качества осужденных проводилось на базе исправительных учреждениях Новгородской, Псковской областей и республики Карелия в период с 2014 по 2016 гг., совокупный объем выборки составил 123 осужденных.

В работе использовались психологические характеристики личности, полученные по результатам следующих психологических методик: методика определения уровня депрессии В. А. Жмурова, тест смысложизненных ориентаций (СЖО), методика измерения самооценки. Также в анализе использовались такие характеристики как осознание собственной вины и отношение к наказанию, проанализирована дисциплинарная практика.

## **Результаты эмпирического исследования** *The results of empirical research*

В первую очередь нами было проанализировано распределение среди осужденных и свободных граждан мужского пола по показателю религиозности. Оказалось, что среди осужденных и мужчин, не привлекавшихся к уголовной ответственности, данное распределение абсолютно идентично: доля верующих и исполняющих религиозные обряды (воцерковленные) составила в обеих выборках 12 %, верующих, но неисполняющих религиозных обрядов – 55 %, колеблющихся между верой и «неверием» – 17 %, неверующих – 15 %. Таким образом процент верующих, неверующих и колеблющихся в отношении вопросов веры одинаков как среди преступников, отбывающих наказание так и среди мужчин, не привлекавшихся к уголовной ответственности. Данный факт подтверждает мнение о том, что места лишения свободы являются отражением общества в миниатюре.

Для выявления характера влияния веры на поведение осужденного в исправительном учреждении выполнен анализ дисциплинарной практики в одной из колоний строгого режима. Оказалось, что верующие осужденные реже нарушают режим исправительного учреждения и правила внутреннего распорядка. По наличию взысканий при отбывании наказания у 40,3 % верующих осужденных дисциплинарных взысканий нет. Среди неверующих осужденных отсутствуют взыскания у 29,3 %. При наличии

дисциплинарных взысканий в штрафные изоляторы водворялись 23,4 % верующих осужденных, среди неверующих эта цифра – 34,1 %. Таким образом, верующие осужденные спокойнее отбывают наказание и в меньшей степени являются источниками психологической и социальной напряженности в колониях.

Верующие осужденные в большей мере по сравнению с остальными категориями полностью осознают собственную вину (33 %) и демонстрируют абсолютное принятие наказания. Наименьший этот показатель у категории неверующих (17,8 %).

Изучение психологических особенностей личности осужденных с разным отношением к вере, позволило выявить ряд характерных особенностей. По показателю самооценки 28,9 % верующих осужденных имеют высокие значения, 36,8 % – низкие, среди неверующих – 23,8 % высокий, 57,1 % – низкий уровень самооценки.

Доля осужденных, имеющих депрессивные состояния разной степени выраженности, среди верующих оказалась несколько ниже, чем среди неверующих (49 и 57 % соответственно). Таким образом, можно сказать, что верующие осужденные в целом более благополучны в отношении к себе.

Вместе с тем осужденные, относящие себя к категории воцерковленных, в большей степени характеризуются как личности демонстративные, что несколько противоречит сути христианского вероисповедания. Данное обстоятельство позволяет предположить, что понимание веры осужденными несколько отличается от общепринятого в обществе.

Оценка собственных перспектив после освобождения верующими и неверующими не имеет заметных различий; опасения по поводу перспектив своей жизни после освобождения одинаково присутствуют у всех категорий. Однако, особое место занимают осужденные, имеющие неопределенное отношение к вере. В отличие от всех остальных групп осужденных они испытывают достаточно серьезные опасения по поводу перспектив своей жизни на свободе. Количество лиц, пессимистично смотрящих в свое будущее (по данным анкетного опроса), в категории «не определившиеся» гораздо больше. Выраженность социального пессимизма (по методике И. Ю. Беляковой) также в большей степени характерна для осужденных, не определившихся в вопросах религии.

Анализ выраженности смысложизненных ориентаций осужденных с разным отношением к вере проводили на основе среднеарифметических значений показателей осмысленности жизни теста СЖО. Оказалось, что показатель осмысленности жизни достаточно высок у осужденных воцерковленных и регулярно общающихся с православными

священниками ( $M=88,5\pm 2,0$ ), осужденных верующих, но не исполняющих обрядов ( $M=87,4\pm 0,96$ ) и неверующих ( $M=86,7\pm 1,65$ ). Низкие показатели осмысленности жизни отмечены у тех, кто не определился в отношении веры ( $M=81,7\pm 1,5$ ). Таким образом, осужденные, сомневающиеся в вопросах веры и религии, как правило, демонстрируют низкие показатели осмысленности жизни.

Кроме того, проведен анализ терминальных ценностей и смыслов жизни верующих и неверующих осужденных. Система жизненных смыслов верующих воцерковленных осужденных достаточно сильно отличается от всех остальных категорий. Большая часть осужденных – 30 % считает для себя первостепенно важными жизненным смыслом самостоятельно строить свою жизнь и активно стремиться к реализации своих целей, в тоже самое время достаточно велик процент – 21,3 %, стремящихся к «простым радостями жизни», и примерно пятая часть (19,1 %) отмечает в качестве первостепенно важного жизненного смысла «жизнь ради людей». Важнейшим отличием направленности жизненных смыслов остальных категорий осужденных является большая ориентация на самостоятельное устройство собственной жизни, особенно (в среднем около 40 %). Одновременно с этим в значительно меньшей степени выражена направленность на «жизнь ради простых радостей» (около 10 % для всех остальных категорий). Стремление жить ради людей также выражено в меньшей мере: в качестве приоритетного жизненного смысла его для себя отмечают 9 % верующих, не исполняющих обряды, 8,3 % неверующих и всего лишь 6,7 % сомневающихся в отношении к вере. Для категории осужденных, не определившихся в вопросах веры, абсолютно неважным оказалось «духовное становление и развитие своего внутреннего мира» (0,8 %), в то время как для неверующих и верующих не воцерковленных данный жизненный смысл важен для 4,6 % и 5 % соответственно, а среди воцерковленных осужденных доля выбирающих данный смысл жизни составляет 10,1 %.

Воцерковленные осужденные, по нашим данным, в большей степени открыты для изменения и развития, поскольку доля лиц желающих «оставаться самим собой, быть тем, кем являюсь в действительности» составляет всего 10 %, в то время как среди остальных категорий осужденных данный жизненный смысл выбирает каждый третий (в среднем около 30 %).

Оценка терминальных ценностей производилась по группам в соответствии с общеизвестной иерархией потребностей А. Маслоу. Структуры ценностных ориентаций осужденных с разным отношением к вере имеют ряд характерных особенностей. Отличительной чертой

неверующих и сомневающих в вере является выраженное преобладание в структуре ценностных диспозиций простых ценностей органического ряда (35,2 и 34,2 % соответственно). Для воцерковленных этот процент незначительно (31,3 %), а для верующих, но не исполняющих элементов обрядовости значительно ниже (24,5 %).

Выраженность группы ценностей безопасности (здоровье, безопасность и т. д.) для всех сравниваемых категорий осужденных оказалась приблизительно равной (в среднем каждый третий осужденный декларирует данную группу ценностей в качестве приоритетной). Ценности социальных отношений (семья, любовь, общение) одинаково важны для всех исследуемых групп (21–22 %) за исключением категории осужденных относящих себя к верующим, не придерживающихся общепринятой обрядовости (28 %). Для данной группы осужденных значимость социальных отношений, а, прежде всего, семьи значительно выше.

Сравнение ценностей групп самореализации и самоактуализации также позволило выявить ряд особенностей. Ценности индивидуальной самореализации приблизительно одинаковы по значимости для всех осужденных (от 4 до 6 %). Ценности самоактуализации наиболее приоритетны для категории воцерковленных осужденных (13,8 %) и верующих невоцерковленных (9,2 %), в меньшей степени значимы для сомневающих в определении своего отношения к вере (6,1 %) и неверующих (7,6 %).

Таким образом, верующие осужденные характеризуются как лица, в большей степени, чем неверующие и не определившиеся в вопросах веры направленные на социальные отношения, и самоактуализацию. Для категорий неверующих в целом ценностно-смысловая сфера организована более примитивно.

### **Обобщение** **Conclusions**

В ходе исследования были выявлены тенденции, свидетельствующие о помощи религиозности в ресоциализации верующих граждан, отбывающих наказание:

- 1) как показало исследование, доля верующих осужденных (воцерковленных и невоцерковленных) составила во всех выборках (по Новгородской, Псковской областям и Республики Карелия) 77 %;
- 2) для верующих осужденных вера и религиозность являются факторами, способствующими более успешной адаптации к

- условиям исправительного учреждения, уменьшению количества совершаемых правонарушений и нарушений режима содержания;
- 3) по психологическим характеристикам нужно отметить, что верующие осужденные в целом более благополучны в отношении к себе: у верующих более положительное отношение к своей личности – 63,2 % имеют высокую или среднюю самооценку, тогда как среди неверующих этот процент составил 42,9. Кроме того, вера способствует позитивному настрою в жизни, о чем свидетельствует более низкая выраженность депрессивных состояний разной степени выраженности, чем среди неверующих;
  - 4) направленность жизни верующих осужденных ориентирована в большей степени на реализацию ценностей более высокого иерархического уровня, что, несомненно, является предпосылкой благоприятного прогноза в отношении жизни осужденных после освобождения из мест лишения свободы;
  - 5) что касается неверующих осужденных, то наиболее серьезный фактор, препятствующий ресоциализации, – их опасения по поводу перспектив своей жизни на свободе. Человек без видения своего созидательного будущего опасен для себя и для общества.

Таким образом, исследование религиозности как фактора, оказывающего существенное влияние на осужденных, отбывающих наказание с изоляцией от общества, подтвердило позитивное влияние веры на характер отбывания наказания, планы на перспективу освобождения из исправительного учреждения, мировоззрение, самооценку личности. Положительное отношение осужденного к вере способствует признанию вины в совершенном правонарушении, менее болезненной адаптации к местам лишения свободы, более быстрому принятию условий исправительного учреждения. Кроме того, позитивное отношение к вере способствует проявлению положительного отношения к себе, снижению депрессии и выработке умения принимать мир таким, какой он есть в настоящий момент. Важным вопросом также является видение положительной перспективы личного развития после освобождения.

В целом религиозное воздействие в рамках разрешенных в местах лишения свободы конфессий является продуктивным методом самовоспитания и дисциплины. В перспективе освобождения религиозность осужденного делает его более ответственным человеком, безопасным для жизнедеятельности общества в целом.



### Summary

There were revealed the trends in the study testifying an assistance of religiousness in resocialization of the religious persons serving their sentences:

1. According to the research, an amount of the religious convicted persons (churched and unchurched) is 77 % (in the Novgorod and Pskov Region and in the Republic of Karelia);
2. The faith and religiousness are triggers for correctional facility adaptation and decrease of offences and violations of custodial control;
3. Psychological diagnosis showed that the religious have higher opinion of themselves than the irreligious. 63, 2 % of the religious have a high or average level of inherent value and only 42, 9 % of the irreligious have such level of inherent value. The faith promotes positive attitude to life and lower rate of depression among the religious testifies this;
4. Religious convicted persons' aim in life is to realize their moral standards of higher hierarchical level and this is a favorable background for their life after deinstitutionalization;
5. As for the irreligious convicted persons, major setbacks to their resocialization are their doubts about plans for life outside. A person who isn't able to visualize his future active life is dangerous for himself and society.

Thus, research of religiousness as the factor affecting on convicted persons serving their prison terms has showed positive influence of faith on nature of punishment, future plans after deinstitutionalization, view of life and self-concept. Favorability of convicted person to the faith assists him in conscience of his guilt, his better adaptation to correctional facility and quicker acceptance of correctional facility conditions. Furthermore, favorability of convicted person to the faith promotes positive opinion of himself, the lower rate of depression and ability to take the world. Also, the serious matter is visualization of self development after deinstitutionalization.

In the whole, according to permitted confession in detention facilities, an influence of religion is an efficient method for self-education and discipline. In the view of deinstitutionalization religiousness of convicted person makes him more responsible and safe for the society.

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# ОРГАНИЗАЦИЯ РАБОТЫ СТОРОЖИЩЕНСКОЙ ИСПРАВИТЕЛЬНОЙ КОЛОНИИ-ПРИЮТА СМОЛЕНСКОЙ ГУБЕРНИИ В КОНТЕКСТЕ ИДЕЙ И.Ф. ГЕРБАРТА

*The organization of work of Storozhishchensky corrective colony  
shelter of the Smolensk province in the context of  
I.F. Gerbart's ideas*

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**Abstract.** *In article the organization of teaching and educational work of Storozhishchensky corrective colony shelter of the Smolensk province opened in 1894 in the context of the ideas of the outstanding German scientist-teacher Johann Friedrich Gerbart is considered. The analysis of labor, religious and moral, physical, esthetic training of children of colony of a shelter taking into account psychology and pedagogical installations of Gerbart is given. Authors have presented experiment of colony shelter on training of pupils for independent life in society. In work also teaching and educational work of the agricultural lowest school of the 1st category opened at colony shelter is also analysed. At this school labor education of the children who are in colony shelter was carried out. Here pupils acquired knowledge, abilities and skills necessary for them for further life in society. In article the mode, training programs, methods, forms and means of labor education at agricultural lowest school of the 1st category in detail reveal.*

**Keywords:** *pupils, colony shelter, training, Smolensk province, work, teaching and educational work, physical, esthetic, religious and moral, labor training.*

## **Введение** **Introduction**

*Актуальность* поднятой в статье проблемы объясняется тем, что в нынешнем веке, также как и в начале XX века, рядом специальных интернатных учреждений в ходе учебно-воспитательного процесса осуществляется развитие личности несовершеннолетних правонарушителей и детей, оказавшихся в сложной жизненной ситуации, ведется их подготовка к дальнейшей самостоятельной жизни. Реализация мер, направленных на решение проблемы подготовки несовершеннолетних

правонарушителей и детей, оказавшихся в сложной жизненной ситуации, находящихся на воспитании в интернатных учреждениях, к дальнейшей самостоятельной жизни, актуализирует включение в современный контекст российского образования опыта перевоспитания ребенка специального интернатного учреждения предшествующих периодов развития отечественной педагогики, объективно предусматривает творчески-критический анализ и использование всего ценного, накопленного в данном направлении педагогической наукой и практикой.

В связи с этим особое значение приобретает необходимость обращения к идейно-творческому, содержательному и программно-методическому потенциалу образования, сформированному в отечественной педагогической науке и образовательной практике в досоветский период. В этом плане вызывает интерес опыт Сторожищенской колонии-приюта Смоленской губернии, связанный с подготовкой воспитанников к дальнейшей самостоятельной жизни и опирающийся на идеи выдающегося немецкого педагога И. Ф. Гербарта (1776-1841), труды которого современные отечественные историки педагогики называют «первым опытом научного построения педагогической теории» (Гербарт, 2007; 9).

В исследовании ставится *цель* – в целостном виде на основе архивных материалов Сторожищенской исправительной колонии-приюта Смоленского уезда Смоленской губернии начала XX века в контексте идей И. Ф. Гербарта представить практическую реализацию процесса подготовки несовершеннолетних правонарушителей и детей, оказавшихся в сложной жизненной ситуации, к самостоятельной жизни в обществе.

*Задачей исследования* является: выявление и анализ методов, форм и средств трудового, физического, эстетического, религиозно-нравственного воспитания, направленных на подготовку детей к дальнейшей жизни в обществе с учетом ключевых положений разработанной И. Ф. Гербартом педагогической концепции, согласно которой целью воспитания является формирование добродетельного человека, умеющего приспособиться к существующим отношениям, уважающего установленный правопорядок и подчиняющегося ему.

Важнейшими *методами исследования* выступили: общетеоретические (анализ, синтез, актуализация, систематизация, реконструкция, эпистемология) и историко-педагогический (выявление основных условий воспитания законопослушного члена общества в Сторожищенской колонии Смоленского уезда начала XX века в контексте тезиса И. Ф. Гербарта о сложном синтезе индивидуальной природной сущности

ребенка, взаимодействующей с обществом, в котором данный ребенок воспитывается и живет).

## Содержание *Content*

В дореволюционной России вопрос перевоспитания несовершеннолетних преступников находился в центре внимания специалистов уголовного права, теоретиков и практиков тюремного дела, не сходил со страниц официального органа Главного тюремного управления – журнала «Тюремный вестник». Обсуждались организационные, педагогические, юридические аспекты многогранной деятельности общественных и государственных организаций по привлечению к уголовной ответственности и ресоциализации малолетних правонарушителей. Обращение к опыту западноевропейских государств во время подготовки судебной (1864) и тюремной реформ (1879) показало, что в Западной Европе действуют специальные исправительные учреждения для несовершеннолетних. По этому пути пошла и Россия. В статье Н. И. Горской «Земство и перевоспитание несовершеннолетних правонарушителей» отмечается, что «в 1894 году в России существовало уже 22 исправительно-воспитательных учреждения для несовершеннолетних. Девять из них было открыто непосредственно земствами: Харьковский (1881), Вологодский (1886), Одесский (1889), Батищевский Тульской губернии (1890), Таврический (1890), Костромской (1890), Вятский (1891) и Смоленский в селе Сторожище (1894) воспитательные приюты и Владимирская колония в деревне Пиганово (1892)» (Горская, 2017; 212). Мы же в своей статье остановимся на анализе деятельности Сторожищенской исправительной колонии-приюта Смоленской губернии.

Колония-приют была открыта в 1894 году Смоленским обществом колоний и приютов для несовершеннолетних на территории имения Сторожище. В 1899 году общество под предлогом стремления к увеличению числа членов заявило, что десятирублевый членский взнос слишком велик для Смоленска, и ходатайствовало о сокращении ежегодного взноса для действительных членов до пяти рублей (ГАСО; 1). Такое решение выглядело вполне обоснованным, потому что в различных попечительских и благотворительных обществах в губернских городах, как правило, участвовали одни и те же лица. И тогда же в Смоленске «для заботы о детях, нуждающихся в попечении и защите» открылось Общество попечения о детях, членский взнос для действительных членов которого составлял три рубля (ГАСО, 3). Однако сокращение ежегодных взносов и

другие обстоятельства привели к плачевным результатам в Смоленской колонии. В 1902 г. в связи с банкротством общества колония-приют была закрыта. В 1903 г. Временным комитетом по управлению делами и имуществом общества исправительных приютов и колоний для несовершеннолетних колония-приют была снова открыта. В 1913 году комитет почти единогласно принял решение о передаче колонии губернскому земству. С 1915 года она официально стала называться «Смоленская губернская земская воспитательно-исправительная колония-приют для несовершеннолетних».

Главными целями данного учреждения были: «а) воспитание несовершеннолетних мужского пола, предназначенных к помещению в исправительный приют судебным приговором; б) призрение беспризорных и нищих детей мужского пола, которым под влиянием неблагоприятных условий или порочности их среды грозит опасность впасть в пороки» (ГАСО, 1910; 1). Нами отмечается, что намеченные руководством колонии цели явно совпадают с установками по воспитанию подрастающего поколения, сделанными выдающимся немецким педагогом И. Ф. Гербартом еще в первой трети XIX века. Нужно заметить, что при жизни ученого-педагога его идеи не получили должного распространения не только в Европе, но даже в немецких государствах. Только уже после смерти ученого-педагога в 1841 году благодаря ученикам его идеи начинают активно внедряться в педагогическую практику. Что касается интереса к наследию немецкого педагога в России, то его актуализацию можно наблюдать в конце XIX – начале XX вв.

Так, в редком фонде библиотеки Смоленского государственного университета нами обнаружена «Психология» И. Ф. Гербарта, изданная в 1895 г. типографией А. Ф. Штольценбурга в г. Санкт-Петербурге. Данное издание было подготовлено блестящим переводчиком и автором работ по педагогической психологии А. Нечаевым и издано с предисловием профессора Санкт-Петербургского университета А. И. Введенского.

Данная книга явно оказалась в библиотеке университета после Октябрьской революции, когда экспроприированные из дворянских усадеб книги распределялись по научным библиотекам. А это значит, что работы по педагогике и психологии И. Ф. Гербарта, изданные в конце XIX – начале XX вв., были знакомы инициаторам создания Сторожищенской исправительной колонии-приюта.

Кроме названной работы в конце XIX – начале XX вв. в России были опубликованы статьи и монографии, посвященные психолого-педагогическому наследию немецкого ученого (Николаевский И. Иоганн Фридрих Герbart как педагог // Журнал М.Н.П. 1876, ч. 187, сент. с. 11-46; окт. с. 47-74; Запольский Н. Теория и практика преподавания по учению

Гербартовской школы в педагогике. СПб, 1886; Фогель И. Философские основания педагогики. Введение к пониманию научной педагогики. Герbart // Журнал «Гимназия». Митава, 1892, с. 87-117; Герbart И. Главнейшие педагогические сочинения в систематическом изложении А. В. Адолфа. М.: Изд-во Тихомирова, 1906).

Таким образом, у создателей Сторожищенской исправительной колонии-приюта к моменту ее открытия была основательная теоретико-методологическая база.

Несомненно, для достижения поставленных целей педагогический коллектив колонии осуществлял нравственное и физическое развитие личности воспитанников, занимался обучением питомцев грамоте, сообщал им элементарные сведения по общеобразовательным предметам, способствовал овладению воспитанниками какой-либо профессией: сельскохозяйственной или ремесленной. Кроме того, для осуществления вышеназванных задач при колонии-приюте были созданы начальная школа с курсом не ниже одноклассных школ Министерства народного просвещения, практическая сельскохозяйственная школа с курсом садоводства, молочного хозяйства и ремесленные мастерские. Данная практика основывалась на тезисе И. Ф. Гербарта, который он высказал в «Отчете Г. Фон-Штейгеру»: «Я полагаю, что цель воспитания – оградить детей от игры случая. Не будь в этом недопустимой неуверенности, то лучше бы совсем не думать ни о каком намеренном образовании молодых людей, потому что случай, мол, воспитывает гораздо лучше, нежели величайшие заботы родителей и учителей. Воспитание приобретает ценность именно в силу надежности своих планов. Результаты его всегда должны предвидеться, если не с полной уверенностью, то с большой вероятностью. Если же оно без крайней необходимости отдается в жертву простым возможностям, то перестает быть воспитанием» (Герbart, 1940; 62).

Руководил колонией директор С. С. Павловский, окончивший Смоленскую духовную семинарию и проработавший в колонии 12 лет. Директор занимался ведением хозяйства колонии, предоставлением отчетов по хозяйственной и учебно-воспитательной работе, годичных смет. Так как директором колонии назначался человек, имеющий достаточную педагогическую подготовку, то, естественно, ответственность за выполнение учебно-воспитательного плана, вытекающего из устава колонии, забота о поддержании общего порядка и благопристойности со стороны как воспитателей, так и других служащих лежали на его плечах.

Нами в ходе работы с архивными документами выявлено, что воспитателями в приюте работали: А. И. Орлов, выпускник Смоленской духовной семинарии по 1-му разряду, Г. К. Гончарова, окончившая курс

Учительской семинарии, титулярный советник П. О. Куторг и А. А. Александровский, получившие дипломы одного из лучших сельскохозяйственных учебных заведений России – Горецкого земледельческого училища по 1-му разряду, коллежский секретарь К. К. Козловский, окончивший курс Ветеринарного института, священник А. Г. Михайловский, имевший диплом Смоленской духовной семинарии по 1-му разряду. Из лиц педагогического персонала и врача под председательством директора создавался совет колонии, рассматривавший все вопросы, касающиеся внутренней жизни учреждения, постановки учебно-воспитательной работы. Постановления педагогического совета рассматривались Правлением Смоленского общества исправительных колоний и приютов и после утверждения им приводились в исполнение. Архивные документы свидетельствуют, что перед педагогами ставилась задача достаточно четко и полно регламентировать и контролировать деятельность воспитанников, подходить к ним с одинаковыми требованиями, соответствовать образу руководителя детской группы, стимулировать ученические усилия с помощью поощрений и наказаний, оценивать все моменты их поведения. Т.е. ученическая дисциплина в колонии-приюте являлась одной из важнейших ценностей разработанной педагогическим коллективом стратегии. В этом плане педагоги строго следовали тезису И. Ф. Гербарта, сформулированному им в «Общей педагогике, выведенной из цели воспитания» (1806 г.): «Цель управления детьми является многообразной, отчасти она направлена на то, чтобы избежать вреда как для других, так и для самого ребенка. Управление направлено не на достижение каких-либо целей в душе ребенка, а только на установление порядка» (Герbart, 1940; 161).

На воспитании в колонии находилось 35 детей в возрасте от 10 до 16 лет. Несовершеннолетние должны были пребывать в ней до 18-летнего возраста. Воспитанники в учебно-воспитательном и административном отношениях находились в распоряжении директора. В случае исправления воспитанники освобождались из колонии досрочно. Дети, определяемые в колонию-приют по просьбе родителей или по собственному желанию, всегда могли оставить колонию, но, пока оставались там, должны были подчиняться общему режиму и не пользовались никакими привилегиями. В колонию не принимались заразные больные, душевнобольные и эпилептики. При невозможности принять несовершеннолетнего, директор возвращал его тому лицу или учреждению, которое направило его в колонию, с объяснением причин отказа. Все документы, касающиеся воспитанников, хранились в колонии до их выпуска. Безусловно, педагогический коллектив колонии-приюта осуществлял наблюдение за досрочно освобожденными воспитанниками до достижения ими



16-летнего возраста и, если они замечались в дурном поведении, их снова возвращали в колонию на прежних основаниях. Педагоги также сохраняли связь с бывшими воспитанниками путем переписки и возможной помощи в различных жизненных вопросах.

Что касается учебно-воспитательной работы колонии-приюта, то «для теоретических занятий воспитанники распределялись по 3 классам, первый класс – 11 человек, второй и третий по 12 человек. Теоретические занятия состояли в обучении Закону Божьему, чтению, письму, арифметике, беседах по садоводству, огородничеству и пчеловодству. Кроме того, в форме рассказов, преподавались русская история, география, главные сведения по законоведению, преимущественно касавшиеся крестьянского быта. Помимо классных занятий, мальчики обучались сапожному и столярному ремеслу в мастерских, работали в саду, огороде, пчельнике. Практическое обучение имело последовательный и законченный характер. В этом плане все педагоги колонии-приюта следовали установке И. Ф. Гербарта: «школа не является местом, в котором человек может получить законченное или только основное образование в области искусств или в нравственном отношении. Каждый должен научиться своему ремеслу у мастера этого ремесла: свою нравственную природу человек вырабатывает сам в жизненной среде. Следовательно, школа может взять на себя только часть этого обучения, необходимого для человека. Путем разделения его занятий она может облегчить обучение. Она может привести мальчика к тому, что он может заранее выполнить часть работы будущего юноши» (Гербарт, 1940; 110). Исходя из этого утверждения, обучение огородничеству, садоводству, пчеловодству осуществлялось под руководством преподавателя-специалиста, с этой целью ему в ведение предоставлялись сад, огород, пчельник. В качестве меры поощрения воспитанникам предоставлялась возможность иметь собственные грядки, кусты, ульи и заниматься каким-нибудь рукоделием для себя. Столярному и сапожному ремеслу питомцы обучались в мастерских, которые функционировали круглый год.

Ключевыми режимными моментами дня воспитанников являлись: подъем, уборка спального места, умывание, общее чтение молитвы, работа в мастерских или по хозяйству, завтрак, классные занятия, обед, отдых, продолжение работы, подготовка уроков, сон.

Подчеркнем, что отношения педагогического коллектива и воспитанников колонии должны были основываться на личном признании и доверии. Педагогический коллектив боролся с пороками детей. Считалось, что «только личность воспитателя может сосредоточить на себе внимание и интерес детей и, действуя мягко, но настойчиво, прививать, наконец, питомцу благородные чувства и образ мыслей, пока не

вызовет на борьбу со своими недостатками самих питомцев. Тогда они, проникнутые сознанием этой необходимости, и создадут то благодетельное настроение «среды» (ГАСО, 1910; 41). Эти идеи учителей колонии-приюта созвучны тезису И. Ф. Гербарта: «позаботиться о том, чтобы идеи справедливости и добра во всей своей определенности и чистоте являлись действительным предметом воли, чтобы в зависимости от них определялось внутреннее, реальное содержание характера, внутреннее ядро личности с отстранением всякого произвола, вот это, а не что-либо меньшее является истинной целью нравственного просвещения» (Гербарт, 1940; 173).

Нами выявлено, что обучение в колонии-приюте не имело принудительного характера, все усилия педагогов были направлены на то, чтобы внушить воспитаннику любовь к книге, умение пользоваться ею самостоятельно для получения необходимых знаний по своей специальности. Учителя исходили из гербартовского совета: «не воспитывать слишком рьяно, воздерживаться всюду, где это возможно, от применения той власти, которая порой гнетет, подавляет настроение и нарушает радость» (Гербарт, 1940; 169). В колонии-приюте существовали следующие формы воздействия персонала на воспитанников в соответствии с теми или иными обстоятельствами:

- «а) простое спокойное замечание;
- б) замечание с оттенками недовольства или упрека;
- в) выговор в присутствии всего педагогического персонала;
- г) обсуждение проступка при участии всех воспитанников (товарищеский суд) и в присутствии всего педагогического персонала;
- д) временное удаление в особое помещение, с сохранением права работы и получения пищи, вплоть до изменения поведения;
- е) временная отчужденность и холодность к воспитаннику всего педагогического персонала, выразившаяся в прекращении общения с ним, с сохранением более длительного надзора;
- ж) перевод в другую колонию или тюрьму» (ГАСО, 1910; 43).

В качестве мер поощрения выступали:

- «а) простое выражение довольства поведением воспитанников;
- б) назначение на ответственные работы по хозяйству;
- в) одобрение в присутствии всех воспитанников и воспитателей;
- г) доверие и внимание всех членов педагогического персонала;
- д) досрочное освобождение из колонии или содействие в поступлении в какие-нибудь другие учебные или ремесленные заведения» (ГАСО, 1910; 44). Данные формы воздействия на воспитанников колонии-приюта соответствуют тем установкам,

которые были даны И. Ф. Гербартом в отношении организации учебно-воспитательной деятельности как средства формирования нравственной воли. Ученый исходил из неспособности ребенка осмысливать этические отношения. Пока в его сознании не сформировались группы организованных представлений, он не способен управлять своими беспорядочными желаниями и порывами, что Гербартом было названо «дикой резвостью». «Для того, чтобы характер принял нравственное направление, индивидуальность должна сохраняться как бы погруженной в текучий элемент, который, в зависимости от обстоятельств, то содействует, то противодействует ей, но в большинстве случаев остается почти неощутимым. Этим элементом является забота о развитии и дисциплинированности воспитуемого» (Гербарт, 1940; 178-179).

Следует подчеркнуть, что главным в жизни воспитанников был труд, воспитательное и практическое значение которого имело место лишь тогда, когда он отвечал силам и склонностям детей и имел характер последовательности, законченности и полезности в глазах самого ребенка. Такой труд развивал духовные и физические способности воспитанников, любовь к труду вообще и, в частности, к той специальности: сельскохозяйственной или ремесленной, которую они выберут.

Что касается эстетического воспитания, то «в колонии-приюте время от времени устраивались спектакли, литературные вечера, пикники, прогулки» (ГАСО, 1910; 367). Физическое воспитание учеников осуществлялось в процессе купания в пруду летом, бесед по гигиене, проводимых врачом, катания на коньках и подвижных игр на свежем воздухе.

Врач посещал колонию не реже двух раз в месяц, оказывал помощь заболевшим лично или через фельдшера, состоявшего в колонии в должности надзирателя, следил за здоровьем воспитанников, принимал участие в решении всех вопросов, касавшихся пищи, одежды, обуви, режима дня воспитанников, знакомил их с элементарными правилами гигиены применительно к возрасту детей и свойственными им вредными привычками.

Что касается религиозно-нравственного воспитания, то во внеурочное время с учениками проводились беседы духовно-нравственного характера, чтение книг религиозного содержания, литературно-нравственные вечера во время рождественских праздников и масленичной недели. Вообще, в колонии-приюте уделяли большое внимание развитию духовности, опираясь на установки И. Ф. Гербарта, утверждавшего: «действительно, кто при воспитании мог бы обойтись без опыта и общения с людьми? Это

все равно, что отказаться от дневного света и довольствоваться одними свечами! Богатство, сила, индивидуальная определенность всех наших представлений, навыки в приложении общего, связи с действительностью, со страной, со временем, терпение по отношению к людям, таким, как они есть, все это должно быть почерпнуто из этих первичных источников духовной жизни» (Гербарт, 1940; 190).

Отметим, что самой тяжелой формой наказания являлось заключение в карцер, но оно применялось исключительно к беглецам. Наград в колонии не существовало. Хорошее поведение или проявление благородных качеств давало право на доверие и признание, которым очень дорожили воспитанники.

При выпуске из колонии молодому человеку выдавалось денежное пособие (не менее 15 рублей), лучшим выпускникам, заслуживавшим особого внимания, а также сиротам предоставлялись необходимые средства на проезд в какое-нибудь другое учебное заведение, на поиски должности, на покупку необходимых инструментов для ремесла или для открытия какого-либо самостоятельного предприятия, аттестат, удостоверяющий хорошее поведение и практические знания. Воспитанникам, лишенным семьи, подыскивалась соответствующая их знаниям должность или занятие.

1 января 1910 года при колонии-приюте открылась сельскохозяйственная низшая школа 1-го разряда. Школа находилась в ведении Главного управления землеустройства и земледелия. Ключевой целью школы было: «дать необходимые знания по садоводству, огородничеству и пчеловодству путем практического выполнения учениками всех работ, относящихся к этим отраслям хозяйства» (ГАСО, 1910; 380). Для достижения данной цели при школе были созданы питомник, теплица, сад, учебный огород и пчельник.

За благосостоянием школы следил попечитель, который избирался на четырехлетний срок из числа членов Смоленского общества исправительных колоний и приютов для несовершеннолетних и утверждался в должности Главным управлением земледелия и землеустройства. Для обсуждения и разрешения хозяйственных и учебных вопросов создавался Совет под председательством попечителя школы или управляющего. В состав данного совета входили законоучитель и преподаватели. Непосредственное заведывание школой, как в учебном, так и в хозяйственных отношениях осуществлял управляющий С.С. Павловский. Естественно, управляющий школой руководил занятиями преподавателей, наблюдал за выполнением ими своих обязанностей, он должен был не только сам следовать программам преподавания и установленным распределениям уроков и практических

занятий, но и следить за тем, чтобы эти программы и распределения были выполнены всеми учителями. Наблюдение за поведением учеников, кроме учителей, также было возложено на управляющего. Оно осуществлялось не только в классах, но и вне их. В этом плане управляющий следовал предписаниям И. Ф. Гербарта: «последовательная широкая деятельность должна определенно и успешно идти собственным прямым путем, считаясь с обстоятельствами и не заботясь об одобрении или неодобрении со стороны более слабой воли. Если неосторожный мальчик из грубости вторгается в замкнутые для него круги, то он должен почувствовать, что именно он мог бы испортить; если в нем проявится злая воля испортить что-нибудь, то это намерение, поскольку оно стало или могло стать действием должно быть в должной мере наказано, но надо оставить без внимания оскорбление, заключенное в злой воле. Поражать глубоким заслуженным неодобрением дурные желания, которые ни управление детьми, ни управление государством не могут карать, уже является делом воспитания, которое может быть начато только теперь, после того как управление уже сделало свое дело» (Гербарт, 1940; 163).

Изучая архивные материалы, мы обнаружили, что должность преподавателя общеобразовательных предметов А. И. Орлова совмещалась с должностью воспитателя колонии; преподавателями садоводства, огородничества и пчеловодства были назначены лица, получившие специальную подготовку: титулярный советник П. О. Куторг и А.А. Александровский, выпускники Горецкого земледельческого училища, коллежский секретарь К. К. Козловский, имевший диплом Ветеринарного института. Каждый из преподавателей в конце учебного года представлял в Совет школы отчет о своей деятельности по преподаванию, по практическим занятиям с учениками и по надзору за их поведением. Педагогический коллектив заботился о нравственном воспитании учеников, об их определении, по окончании двухлетнего курса, на должности, а также о возможном материальном пособии неимущим при выпуске из школы.

Бесспорно, школа комплектовалась из воспитанников колонии и посторонних лиц, не моложе 14 лет и не старше 18. Посторонние ученики жили и содержались в самой школе. Прием учеников осуществлялся с января, а выпускной экзамен – в начале октября второго года. Курс обучения в школе составлял три года, из которых первые два года ученики проходили все три намеченные отрасли, а в последующий специализировались на какой-нибудь отдельной отрасли.

Необходимо отметить, что общеобразовательные предметы в данной школе ограничивались уровнем одноклассной министерской школы. Общеобразовательные предметы преподавались учителями

общеобразовательных предметов, а специальные – преподавателями садоводства, огородничества и пчеловодства, заведующим учебным садом, огородом и пчельником; столярное же ремесло изучалось в мастерской колонии. Ученики школы должны были выполнять все требования администрации как в отношении выполнения различных работ по изучаемым отраслям сельского хозяйства, так и в отношении общепринятой школьной дисциплины. Время, отводимое на занятия, составляло от 8 до 10 часов.

В первый класс школы принимались дети, умевшие читать и писать. В этом классе, в объеме второго отделения одноклассных народных училищ, они проходили следующие предметы: русский язык, арифметику, Закон Божий, пение и элементарные знания по обществоведению. Во втором классе, кроме вышеназванных предметов, дети получали элементарные сведения по географии России и общей географии. В обоих классах школы давались практические знания по огородничеству, садоводству и пчеловодству.

В учебную программу по огородничеству входила работа и ознакомление с огородными культурами. В программу по садоводству включался уход за плодовыми деревьями и кустарниками: обрезка, прививка, пересадка и разведение. В программу по пчеловодству входили подкормка, уборка ульев, постройка ульев и т.д.

Ученики первого класса выполняли практическую работу под руководством учителя, ученики второго класса выполняли практическую работу уже самостоятельно, что накладывало на них определенную ответственность за порученное дело. Неуспевающие могли быть оставлены в том же классе на второй год. Весной, летом и осенью воспитанники активно осуществляли работы в саду, огороде и пчельнике. Зимние месяцы зачастую предназначались для классных занятий по общеобразовательным предметам и теоретическому освещению, повторению всех пройденных манипуляций в саду, огороде и пчельнике в процессе беседы по данным вопросам. По окончании учебного года руководством школы, по соглашению с лицами, наблюдавшими за работой учеников, выдавалось пособие в зависимости от их поведения.

Ежедневные занятия в школе начинались в 8 часов утра. В послеобеденное время дети занимались работой по специальности или столярным ремеслом, имевшим отношение к садоводству и пчеловодству (изготовление парниковых рам, ульев и т.д.). Необходимые работы по уходу за огородом или пчельником проводились также и в праздничные дни.

Переводные и выпускные экзамены по теоретическому курсу проводились в конце марта, по практическому циклу – в течение всего лета, по мере выполнения работ, и заканчивались в сентябре.

Следует подчеркнуть, что успехи воспитанников обозначались в именных списках баллами. Ученики, выдержавшие испытание в знании полного курса школы, для самостоятельного ознакомления с обязанностями по сельскому хозяйству, должны были пробывать в какой-либо отрасли сельского хозяйства сроком в один год. Ученик, пробывший опытный год в сельском хозяйстве и выдержавший проверочное испытание, считался окончившим полный курс. Ему выдавался аттестат с подписью попечителя и управляющего школы об успехах как в пройденных им предметах, так и в практических занятиях. В аттестате также обозначалась та отрасль сельского хозяйства или ремесла, в которой воспитанник был более осведомлен. Не выдержавшему выпускного экзамена выдавалось свидетельство о времени его пребывания в школе. Кроме того, не выдержавшего выпускной или переводной экзамен могли оставлять, с разрешения попечителя, на второй год в классе. Ученики, успешно окончившие полный курс школы, пользовались, при отбытии воинской повинности, льготой третьего разряда, а прошедшие с успехом два первых класса – такой же льготой четвертого разряда. Окончившие с успехом полный курс обучения навсегда освобождались от телесных наказаний.

Таким образом, Сторожищенская исправительная колония-приют не подавляла личность воспитанника, а развивала и поощряла естественную склонность к добру и труду, подчиняла питомца той внутренней дисциплине высшего порядка, которая в конечной форме своего развития выражалась в сознании долга по отношению к окружающим. А созданная при колонии школа не только развивала представление о связи отдельной личности и общества, но и помогала обрести уверенность этой личности при вхождении в социальное пространство. При этом явно прослеживается влияние идей И. Ф. Гербарта на организацию учебно-воспитательного процесса колонии-приюта, на деятельность педагогического коллектива. Ключевыми среди этих идей являлись: формирование добродетельного человека как основная цель воспитания (нужно воспитать такого человека, который сможет приспособиться к существующим отношениям, который будет уважать установленный правопорядок и подчиняться ему); согласование между разумом и волей личности, гармония между ее этическими суждениями и волей, что составляет основу внутренней свободы; выработка организованной воли, сформированной многосторонним интересом индивида, в основе которого лежат наивысшие нравственные ценности (идея совершенства); установление гармонии

между индивидуальной волей воспитанника и волей, проявленной другими людьми, что выражается как благожелательность; понимание воспитанником своих прав и обязанностей в отношениях с другими колонистами и педагогами, обязывающее его в случае конфликта признавать равноправие противостоящих друг другу волеизъявлений; воздаяние за любое действие, предпринятое по отношению к воле другого человека через систему поощрений и наказаний (идея справедливости).

### **Выводы** **Conclusions**

Подводя итог изложенному, можно заключить, что идеи немецкого педагога И. Ф. Гербарта легли в основу всей учебно-воспитательной работы Сторожищенской колонии-приюта.

Подготовка воспитанников Сторожищенской колонии-приюта Смоленской губернии проводилась посредством организации их трудового, физического, эстетического и религиозно-нравственного воспитания.

Так, трудовое воспитание осуществлялось в процессе работы в мастерских по освоению тем или иным ремеслом; работы в саду, огороде, пчельнике; физическое воспитание – в процессе купания в пруду, бесед по гигиене, катания на коньках, подвижных игр на свежем воздухе; эстетическое воспитание – во время проведения спектаклей, литературных вечеров, пикников, прогулок; религиозно-нравственное воспитание – во время бесед духовно-нравственного характера, чтения книг религиозного содержания, литературных вечеров, изучения Закона Божьего.

### **Summary**

The Storozhishchensky corrective colony shelter for minors of the Smolensk province was engaged not only formation of the identity of the minor offenders and children who have appeared in a difficult life situation but also solved problems of their preparation for further independent life.

The program of training of pupils included practical and theoretical training on the Scripture, reading, the letter, arithmetics, the Russian history, geography, jurisprudence, gardening, truck farming, beekeeping, joiner's and shoe business.

Such methods of encouragement of pupils as simple expression of content with behavior of pupils practiced in colony shelter; appointment to responsible works on economy; approval in the presence of all pupils and tutors; trust and attention of all members of pedagogical personnel; early release from colony or assistance in receipt in some other educational or craft institutions.

At the same time, acted as measures of punishment: simple quiet remark; a remark with shades of discontent or reproach; a reprimand in the presence of all pedagogical personnel;



discussion of offense with the assistance of all pupils (friendly court) and in the presence of all pedagogical personnel; temporary removal to the special room, with maintaining the right of work and receiving food, up to change of behavior; the temporary estrangement and coldness to the pupil of all pedagogical personnel which was expressed in the termination of communication with him with preservation of longer supervision; transfer to other colony or prison.

Various methods, forms and means of esthetic, moral and religious and physical training were applied to formation of the identity of pupils and preparation them to further life in society also.

The leading role was assigned to labor education. Children were engaged in agricultural and craft work. The agricultural lowest school of the 1st category where pupils could seize knowledge, skills on gardening, truck farming and beekeeping, necessary him for their further independent life in society has been open for implementation of labor education at colony shelter.

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# PRIEKŠLAICĪGAS MĀCĪBU PĀRTRAUKŠANAS NOVĒRŠANAS ATBALSTA SISTĒMAS VEIDOŠANA UN VADĪBA

## *Development and Management of Support System for Early School Leavers*

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**Abstract.** *The started education reform School 2030 in Latvia requires to implement essential changes in approaches to education. The content and the way of learning, how the teachers manage everyday teaching and learning are being revised starting from kindergarden to the graduating of the school. The vision of the student includes the active and mindful participation of everybody in the life of the society, has deepened the necessary knowledge, developed skills and attitudes to be useful for the society. It means that the accent is put on every child to be involved in education. Education has to be built on equity, equality and quality. At the same time there is a great discrepancy between reality and aim of education in Latvia. There is a quite big drop out of students from general and professional education. According to the research of Baltic social research institute (2014) 26 % of students from secondary schools and gymnasiums leave school before graduating it. Schools have a great potential to prevent it. The authors discuss the opportunity to develop support system in general education schools to prevent and avoid drop out of learning. The great attention is being paid to the cooperation and collaboration in the system of education, development of teachers' competences.*

**Keywords:** *cooperation, collaboration, early school leavers, drop out, support system.*

### **Ievads**

#### **Introduction**

21. gadsimts raksturīgs ar straujām pārmaiņām ekonomikā, sociālajā un politiskajā sfērā. Nākotnes cilvēkam nepieciešamas kompetences, kas tam ļaus darboties ne tikai šodien, bet pēc divdesmit, trīsdesmit gadiem. Tādēļ liela uzmanība jāpievērš izglītībai, tās ieguvei.

Čarlzs Fadels (2016) "Četru dimensiju izglītība" uzsver izglītības četras dimensijas: starpdisciplināru zināšanu radīšanu, prasmju attīstīšanu, rakstura veidošanu, mācīties mācīties visa mūža garumā. Tie ir paši būtiskākie uzdevumi 21. gadsimta izglītībai. Šodien izglītība kalpo kā instruments personības attīstībai.

Latvijā uzsāktā izglītības reforma prasa realizēt būtiskas pārmaiņas izglītības pieejā no pirmsskolas līdz skolas pabeigšanai. Lai to veiktu, tiek pārskatīts mācību saturs un mācīšanās veids, kā skolotāji organizē un vada skolēnu mācīšanos ikdienā, lai apgūtu zināšanas un prasmes un attieksmes konkrētā vecumā, neatkarīgi no tā, kādā mācību iestādē tas notiek. Vīzijā par skolēnu Valsts izglītības satura centra (turpmāk – VISC) īstenotā Eiropas Sociālā fonda (turpmāk – ESF) projekta “Kompetenču pieeja mācību saturā” (Nr.8.3.1.1/16/I/002) jeb projektā Skola 2030 norādīts: „Vispārīgās vidējās izglītības mērķis ir, lai ikviens jauniešs kļūtu par mērķtiecīgu un lietpratīgu savas profesionālās nākotnes veidotāju, kurš izsvērti līdzdarbojas sabiedrības dzīvē, sadarbojas, ir Latvijas patriots; ir padziļinājis zināšanu sabiedrībā pieprasītas zināšanas, prasmes un attieksmes atbilstoši saviem mērķiem; inovatīvi un produktīvi strādā tautsaimniecības izaugsmei, labklājīgas, ilgtspējīgas valsts un pasaules veidošanai.”

Kā atslēgas vārdus varam izdalīt – līdzdarbošanās, sadarbība dažādos līmeņos, virzienos, lai sasniegtu plānoto rezultātu. Nenoliedzami, ka mērķtiecīgas sadarbības rezultātā veidojas jaunas attieksmes, vērtības, personības īpašības, prasmes. Veiksmīgai dzīvei mūsdienu pasaulē ir nepieciešamas:

- augstas komunikatīvās prasmes;
- spēja sadarboties, prasme strādāt komandā;
- radošums, prasme domāt ārpus rāmjiem;
- attīstīta kritiskā domāšana (tieši tā palīdz izdzīvot mūsdienu pasaulē).

Lai to veiktu ikvienam bērnam un jauniešim ir jābūt iesaistītam izglītības ieguvē. Diemžēl tikai 2017. gadā sarucis skolā neregistrēto septiņgadīgo bērnu skaits, bet savukārt, atbilstoši Baltijas sociālo pētījuma institūta datiem 26 % vispārīglītojošo skolu un ģimnāziju skolēni nepabeidz iesākto izglītību. Šī problēma ir aktuāla ne tikai Latvijā, bet arī Eiropā un citās pasaules valstīs. Tas arī noteica tēmas izvēli rakstam.

Kā pētījuma avoti tiek izmantoti Eiropas Komisijas (turpmāk - EK) dati un dokumenti par priekšlaicīgu mācību pamešanu (turpmāk – PMP), Latvijas Universitātes (turpmāk – LU) jau īstenotā ESF projekta „Atbalsta programmu izstrāde un īstenošana sociālās atstumtības riskam pakļauto jauniešu atbalsta sistēmas izveidei” (turpmāk–projekts Atbalsts) (Nr. 2010/0328/1DP/1.2.2.4.1/10/IPIA/VIAA/002) laika posmā no 2010.-2014. gadam un Izglītības kvalitātes valsts dienesta (turpmāk – kvalitātes dienests) īstenotā projekta "Atbalsts priekšlaicīgas mācību pārtraukšanas samazināšana” (Nr.8.3.4.0/16/I/001) jeb PuMPuRS (16.03.2017.-31.12.2022.) materiāli. Minēto pētījumu un projektu rezultāti tiek salīdzināti, analizēti un izmantoti kā datu bāze, kas sniedz informāciju par reālo situāciju un palīdz noteikt galvenos komponentus atbalsta sistēmas izveidei.

Raksta mērķis: analizēt mācību pārtraukšanas cēloņus un risinājumus atbalsta pasākumu atlasei, sistēmas un tās pārvaldības veidošanai, lai rosinātu izglītības darbiniekus aktīvāk darboties šo cēloņu atpazīšanai un novēršanai.

### **Priekšlaicīga mācību pārtraukšana un tās cēloņi** *Early school leaving and its reasons*

EK skatījumā jēdziens “priekšlaicīga mācību pārtraukšana” ietver visas mācību un apmācības pārtraukšanas formas, pirms ir pabeigta augstākā līmeņa vidējā izglītība vai līdzvērtīga profesionālā izglītība un apmācība.

Tas nozīmē, ka dažādu cēloņu dēļ dažādās vecuma grupās bērni un jaunieši neapgūst tās zināšanas un prasmes, kas nepieciešamas, lai plānotu un virzītu savu karjeru un iesaistītos darba tirgū.

EK paziņojumā Eiropas parlamentam, padomei, Eiropas ekonomikas un sociālo lietu komitejai un reģionu komitejai norādīts, ka „PMP novēršana ir būtisks ieguldījums stratēģijā *Eiropa 2020*.”

PMP raksturota kā kompleksa parādība, kas kavē jauniešu izaugsmi un ilgtspējīgu attīstību. Atbilstoši problēmai, tā arī prasa kompleksu pieeju bērnu un jauniešu atgriešanai izglītībā. Viens no Eiropadomes apstiprinātajiem pamatmērķiem ir “samazināt PMP īpatsvaru līdz mazāk nekā 10 % un nodrošināt, lai vismaz 40 % jaunākās paaudzes iedzīvotāju iegūst augstāko izglītību vai tai līdzvērtīgu izglītību.

Pats par sevi saprotams, ja netiks apgūta pamatizglītība, tad arī vēlāk nevar runāt par jauniešu nodarbināmību, kas veicinātu integrāciju darba tirgū un līdz ar to arī sekmētu pamatmērķi, lai sasniegtu nodarbinātības līmeni 75 % apmērā sievietēm un vīriešiem vecuma grupā no 20 līdz 64 gadiem. Tas dotu arī ieguldījumu sociālās atstumtības risināšanā, kura pamatā ir nabadzība un trūkums. ES no 6 miljoniem, kas pārtraukuši mācības - 17,4 % no šiem jauniešiem ir pabeiguši tikai pamatizglītības kursu (Eurostat, 2010).

Šo problēmu var skatīt arī individuālā līmenī, ne tikai ES un valsts līmenī. Šie cilvēki jūtas atstumti, neprot un nevar iesaistīties darba tirgū, sociālajā un sabiedriskajā dzīvē. Bieži vien viņi ir agresīvi, neapmierināti ar dzīvi. Raksturīgi, ka viņu pēcnācēji bieži vien seko viņu pēdās.

PMP bērni un jaunieši bieži vien neprot piedalīties demokrātijas procesos un nebūt neveidojas par apzinīgiem un aktīviem pilsoņiem, kā norādīts ESF projektā Skola 2030. Mūsdienās mainās darba vide un darbs kļūst arvien intelektuālāks. EK paziņojumā Eiropas parlamentam, padomei, Eiropas ekonomikas un sociālo lietu komitejai un reģionu komitejai norādīts, ka samazinot Eiropas vidējo PMP līmeni kaut vai tikai par vienu procentpunktu, Eiropas ekonomika katru gadu papildus tiktu nodrošināta ar gandrīz pusmiljonu potenciālu kvalificētu jauno darbinieku.

EK izglītības politikas dokumentos tiek uzsvērts, ka ES valstis ir apņēmušās līdz 2020. gadam panākt, lai priekšlaicīgi skolu pametušo skolēnu īpatsvars būtu mazāks par 10 %.

EK gala ziņojumā “Reducing early school leaving: Key messages and policy support Final Report of the Thematic Working Group on Early School Leaving” (2013) skaidrots, ka PMP ir daudzpusīga un sarežģīta problēma, kura kumulatīvi veidojas personisko, sociālo, ekonomisko, izglītības vai ar ģimeni saistītu iemeslu dēļ.

Cēloņi var būt ļoti dažādi. Kā viens no cēloņiem varētu būt nelabvēlīgi apstākļi ģimenē – sociālie un arī finansiālie, kad vecāki bērniem nevar nodrošināt pilnvērtīgu uzturu, kas bieži vien ir pamats dažādām slimībām, veselības problēmām. Tas nozīmē, ka netiek apmierinātas bērna vai jaunieša fizioloģiskās vajadzības, kuras psihologs Maslovs (1943) novietojis vajadzību apmierināšanas piramīdas pamatā. Finansiālie apstākļi arī rada plaisu starp skolēniem- apgērbā, uzvedības, ārpuskolas pasākumu apmeklēšanā, redzesloka paplašināšanā. Savukārt, pārlietu lielas finansiālās iespējas ģimenēs bieži rada visatļautību un negatīvu attieksmes veidošanos pret vienaudžiem, izsmiešanu, ņirgāšanos. Šī ir problēma, kuru nepieciešams pētīt dziļāk, lai secinājumi nesakņotos stereotipos: „Ja tu esi bagāts, tad tu esi izlutināts, augstprātīgs utt.” Mūsdienu skolēna skatījumā draugiem un paziņām reizēm ir lielāka nozīme kā vecākiem un skolai.

Tehnoloģijas sekmē, palīdz mācīties, rosina interesi par mācībām, bet tai pat reizē tās var kļūt par kavēkli, laika patērētāju bērna un jauniešu attīstībā un bieži vien par cēloni skolas kavējumiem, slepus spēlēm, naudas nevajadzīgai izmantošanai.

Būtiska nozīme PMP novēršanai ir skolai. Atbilstoša un interesanta mācību vide, kur katrs bērns tiek ievērots, atzīts, mērķtiecīgi virzīts, mācību process notiek atbilstoši skolēnu vecumposma īpatnībām, spējām, interesēm un vajadzībām sekmē mācīšanos.

Skola kā liela komanda, kur administrācijas pārstāvji darbojas kā līderi, veido vienotu skatījumu pozitīvas uzvedības veidošanā. Disciplīna un uzvedība bieži vien ir nesekmības pamatā, kas arī kļūst par cēloni skolas kavēšanai, bezatbildīgas attieksmes veidošanās procesam pret skolu un izglītību kopumā. Ne visi bērni un jaunieši spēj vienādi apgūt visus mācību priekšmetus, tādēļ diferenciacijai un individualizācijai ir būtiska nozīme mācīšanās sekmēšanai. Individuālo spēju neievērošana bieži kļūst par cēloni PMP. Tā veidojas arī tā sauktie „veiksminieki” un „neveiksmīgie”, “sliktie” un „labie”. Šo problēmu uzsver arī Lietuvas autore Taljunaite (2010). Tā bērni tiek “apzīmogoti” jau no 1. klases, kas pazemina pašvērtējumu, labsajūtu skolā. Šī problēma, savukārt, ir saistīta ar mācību sasniegumu vērtēšanu, jo visiem skolēniem nevar piemērot pilnīgi vienādus kritērijus. Arī ieviestā bez atzīmju sistēma sākumskolā neatrisina

šo bērnu dalījumu „veiksmniekos” un „neveiksmniekos”, jo tieši pāreja no viena izglītības posma uz otru rada psiholoģiskus pārdzīvojumus gan skolēniem, gan arī vecākiem zināšanu vērtējuma izmaiņu dēļ.

Autors Dovns P. (2011 a) uzsver 4 aspektus formālajā izglītībā, kuriem vajadzētu pievērst sevišķu uzmanību, lai samazinātu mācību pārtraukšanu:

- konfliktu risināšanas stratēģijai skolotāju darbībā,
- emocionālajam atbalstam,
- alternatīvu iespēju piedāvājumam,
- skolotāju multiprofesionālās darbības stiprināšanai.

Pētījumā TALIS (2009) norādīts, ka 4 vadošajās valstīs 30 % no stundu laika skolotāji ”tērē” dažādu administratīvu uzdevumu izpildei, kas saistīti ar skolēnu nedisciplinētību. Savukārt Kefai un Kūpers (2010) uzsver, ka ”bāršanās un rāšanās” dominē konstruktīvu risinājumu vietā. Dovns (2004) norāda, ka skolotāji reizēm savlaicīgi nesaredz riska grupas skolēnus. Tie paliek nepamanīti preventīvajā stadijā.

Taljunaite (2010) atzīmē, ka vidēji Lietuvā 10 % skolēnu mācību gada laikā tiek izslēgti no skolas, kur ir šādi iemesli:

- uzvedības pārkāpumi,
- huligānisms, terorizēšana,
- agresivitāte,
- citu traucēšana.

Dovns (2011b, 2013) uzsver, ka skolās netiek nodrošināts pietiekams emocionālais atbalsts skolēniem, kuriem ir veselības un dažādi citi apstākļi, kas traucē mācīties. Šādu pašu domu izsaka Keslere (2009) un Pasaules veselības organizācija (2003), kur akcentēts tiek labsajūtas trūkums skolā.

Iepriekš minētie cēloņi PMP tiek raksturoti ES un atsevišķu autoru skatījumā. Sadaļā pētījuma rezultāti un secinājumi PMP tiek analizēti Latvijas aspektā.

### **Atbalsta komponenti priekšlaicīgas mācību pārtraukšanas samazināšanai** *Support components for reducing of early school leaving*

Atbalsta komponentu izvēlē, sistēmas un tās pārvaldes izveidēvar izdalīt vairākus etapus: datu vākšana un analīze, prevencija, intervencija, kompensācija.

Dati signalizē par pārmaiņām, tendencēm situācijā PMP pārraudzībā un parāda izmantoto formu un metožu efektivitāti. Dati dod ierosmi politikas un tās realizācijas stratēģijas izstrādei. Latvijā, balstoties uz kvalitātesdienesta un Centrālās statistikas pārvaldes un citupētījumu datiem, tādiem kā: „Jaunu izaicinājumu un to risināšanas iespēju identificēšana un analīze, kas ietekmē pieaugušo (18–24) iesaistīšanos mācīšanās mūža garumā” (2015), “Pētījums par politikas alternatīvu veidošanu priekšlaicīgas mācību pārtraukšanas problēmas

risināšanai” (2014) un citu, izstrādātas Metodoloģiskās vadlīnijas darbam projektā „Atbalsts priekšlaicīgas mācību pārtraukšanas samazināšanai” (8.3.4.0/16/I/001).

Datu vākšanas, apkopošanas un analīzes periodā sevišķa uzmanība tiek pievērsta individuāli katram skolēnam. Tas palīdz agri saskatīt brīdinošās pazīmes skolēna uzvedībā, kas var veicināt mācību pārtraukšanu.”Agrās brīdināšanas sistēmas” (Early warning systems) palīdz savlaicīgi diagnosticēt cēloņus skolēna uzvedības un attieksmju maiņā. Šajā periodā ļoti būtiska ir sadarbība ar ģimeni, lai noskaidrotu patiesos cēloņus un faktorus skolas neapmeklēšanai, mājas darbu pavisai izpildei, izklaidībai stundās, kas var tikt uzskatīts par brīdinājumu turpmākajiem notikumiem. Skolotāja emocionālais pamudinājums, iedrošinājums, ieinteresētība situācijas izmaiņā var būt kā atbalsts ģimenei un pašam skolēnam negatīvo parādību novēršanā. Tas nozīmē, ka skolēnam ir jāsaņem savlaicīgs un mērķtiecīgs atbalsts mācību procesa turpināšanai.

Prevencijas un intervencijas etapos būtiska nozīme ir skolas un ģimenes sadarbībai, kvalitatīva mācību procesa nodrošināšanai vidē, kur labi jūtas ikviens skolēns. Latvijas izglītības attīstības pamatnostādņēs 2014-2020. gadam norādīts, ka sevišķa vērība jāpievērš izglītības videi ”paaugstināt izglītības vides kvalitāti, veicot satura pilnveidi un attīstot atbilstošu infrastruktūru” (<https://m.likumi.lv/doc.php?id=266406>)

Autores atzīmē, ka ESF projekts “Skola 2030”, kas balstīts uz kompetenču pieeju, paredz būtiskas pārmaiņas mācību satura realizācijā no pašas pirmsskolas līdz tās beigšanai. Tas iezīmē jaunas pieejas mācību procesā, kuras vispirms jāapgūst pašiem pedagogiem, kas ir liels izaicinājums visai izglītības sistēmai un jebkurai izglītības iestādei. Šajā sakarā tikai “skolēna centrēta” pieeja palīdzēs katram bērnam un jauniešiem labi iejusties izglītības vidē.

Līdz ar to, VISC īstenotā ESF projektā „Atbalsts izglītojamo individuālo kompetenču attīstībai” (8.3.2.2./16/I/001), kurš tiek īstenots laika posmā 01.01.2017. – 31.12.2020 un ESF projektā PuMPuRS pamata darbībā ir individuāla pieeja katram bērnam un jauniešiem, sniedzot konsultācijas jeb konsultatīvo atbalstu. Konsultācijas, padomdošana, dialoga veidošana, supervīzijas skolotājiem, skolēniem un vecākiem kļūst par atbalsta sistēmas būtiskiem elementiem skolā. Ja skola darboies kā viena liela komanda un sadarbosies ar izglītības pārvaldēm un citām organizācijām, tad arī būs iespējams samazināt PMP dažādos mācību posmos. Katrai izglītības iestādei ir tiesības izvēlēties tai atbilstošākās preventīvā un intervences darba formas.

Gandrīz visās Latvijas skolās darbojas atbalsta personāls, kas plāno un organizē preventijas un intervences atbalsta pasākumus, atbilstoši skolēnu vecumposma īpatnībām un problēmām PMP. Izglītības iestādes atbalsta komandu var veidot:

- administrācijas pārstāvis (direktors, direktora vietnieks, izglītības metodiķis);
- izglītības psihologs;
- speciālais pedagogs / speciālās izglītības skolotājs;
- sociālais pedagogs;
- logopēds / skolotājs–logopēds;
- pedagoga palīgs;
- skolotājs (klases audzinātājs, mācību priekšmeta skolotājs);
- vecāki;
- cita kompetenta persona. (VISC metodiskie ieteikumi).

Gan izglītības iestādēs, gan pašvaldībās ir atšķirīgi resursi, personāla sastāvs, apjoms, iespējas un citi indikatori, kas nosaka, ka katrai izglītības iestādei vai pašvaldībai būtu jāveido sava iespējamā atbalsta sistēma, lai savlaicīgi un mērķtiecīgi risinātu bērnu un jauniešu PMP risku novēršanu .

No 2010. līdz 2014. gadam Latvijā tika īstenots ESF projekts “Atbalsts” (LU), kura ietvaros tika veidota atbalsta sistēma ar sociālajam riskam pakļautajiem bērniem un jauniešiem, lai mazinātu sociālo atstumtību. Tika izstrādāts Starpinstitucionālās sadarbības modelis (1. att.) sociālās atstumtības mazināšanai, kura ietvaros pašvaldības teritorijā koordinēti tika risināti Bērnu tiesību aizsardzības likuma 58. pantā un 2011. gada 1.februāra Ministru kabineta noteikumos „Kārtība, kādā izglītības iestāde informē izglītojamo vecākus, pašvaldības vai valsts iestādes, ja izglītojamais bez attaisnojoša iemesla neapmeklē izglītības iestādi” pašvaldībām deleģētos uzdevumus.

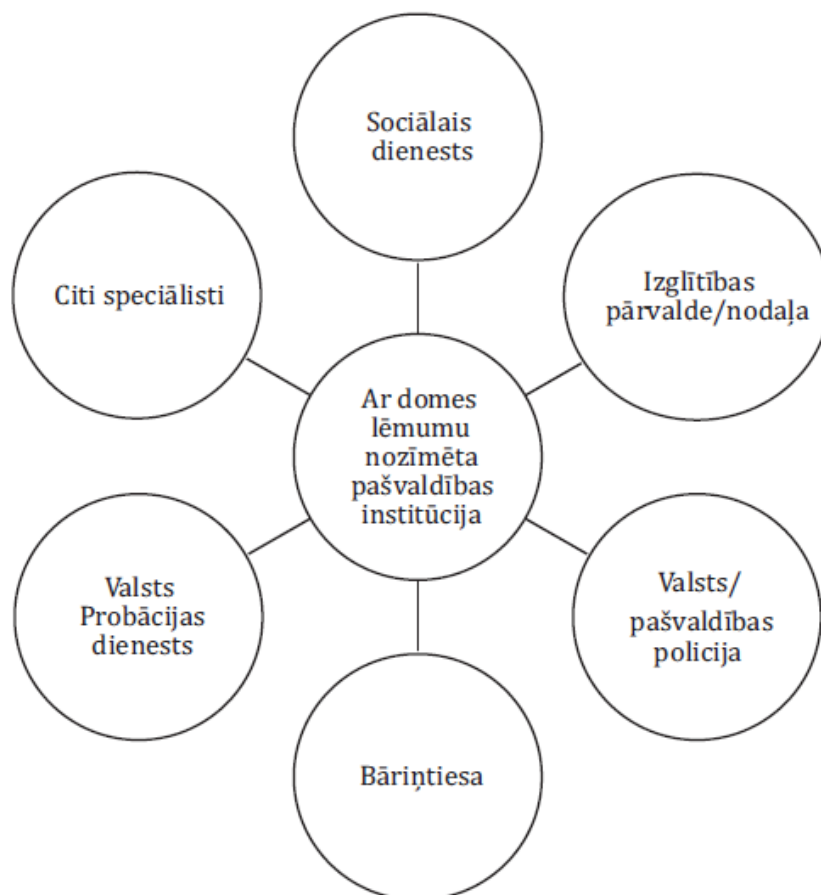
Projektā iesaistītās pašvaldības veidoja Starpinstitūciju/speciālistu darba grupu sociālajam riskam pakļauto bērnu/jauniešu atbalstam. Darba grupas redzeslokā bija sociālās atstumtības riskam pakļautie jaunieši ar uzvedības problēmām un traucējumiem, kas ir izglītības iestādes pamešanas riska grupā, kas pārtraukuši mācības un izglītību neturpina. Speciālistiem darbojoties komandā, iespējams precīzāk diagnosticēt problēmas cēloņus un plānot koordinētu turpmāko rīcību.

Projekta ietvaros 11 pašvaldībās tika izveidotas starpinstitūciju speciālistu darba grupas, 4 pašvaldībās pilnveidoti starpinstitūciju speciālistu sadarbības modeļi sociālās atstumtības mazināšanai. (Starpinstitucionālās sadarbības modelis sociālajam riskam pakļauto bērnu/jauniešu atbalstam sociālās atstumtības mazināšanā, 2013).

Jaunajā struktūrfondu 2014.–2020. gada plānošanas periodā darbības programmas „Izaugsme un nodarbinātība” 8.3.4. specifiskā atbalsta mērķa „Samazināt priekšlaicīgu mācību pārtraukšanu, īstenojot preventīvus un intervences pasākumus” projekta „Atbalsts priekšlaicīgas mācību pārtraukšanas



samazināšanai” ietvaros, tiek turpināta starpinstitucionālā sadarbības modeļa ieviešana un stiprināšana Latvijas pašvaldībās.



1. att. **Starpinstitucionālās sadarbības modelis** (Starpinstitucionālās sadarbības modelis sociālajam riskam pakļauto bērnu/jauniešu atbalstam sociālās atstumtības mazināšanā, 2013)

*Fig. 1. Model of institutional cooperation*

Izglītības iestādēs var veidot arī individuālo atbalstu PMP riska mazināšanai. Individuālais PMP riskamazināšanas plāns– indivīda specifiskajām problēmām atbilstošs atbalsts, preventīvs vai intervences pasākumu piemērošanas plāns, kas ir saskaņots gan ar izglītojamo un viņa likumiskajiem pārstāvjiem, gan pedagogu un pašvaldības atbildīgo personu, un ietver individuālā plāna izstrādi izglītojamam, speciālistu, piemēram, psihologa, sociālā pedagoga, skolotāja palīga, logopēda u.c. konsultācijas, t.sk. atbalstu krīzes situācijās un skolas brīvlaikos, kā arī papildu konsultācijas mācību priekšmetos. Individuālā atbalsta plānā tiek ietverti arī kompensējošie pasākumi, kas nozīmē, finansiāls atbalsts bērniem un jauniešiem nodrošinot nepieciešamās vajadzības, atbilstīgi Ministru Kabineta Nr. 460 noteikumiem, piemēram, sabiedriskais transports, ēdināšana, naktsmītņu apmaksa u.c. (Metodoloģiskās vadlīnijas, 2017) darbam projektā „PuMPuRS.”

Mentoru sistēma var kalpot kā atbalsta sistēmas elements PMP. Kā mentors var darboties iestāžu darbinieki, vecāko klašu skolēni, vecāki, augstskolu studenti. Arī šī prakse Latvijā ir pārbaudīta no 2010. līdz 2014. gadam LU īstenotajā ESF projekta "Atbalsts" ietvaros, kur augstskolu studenti ļoti veiksmīgi sniedza atbalstu mācībās, brīvā laika organizēšanā un savstarpējo attiecību veidošanās procesā. Pasaulē šī kustība pazīstama kā "Lakstīgala". Šādā atbalsta formā ieguvēji ir skolēni un arī studenti-topošie skolotāji, kuriem ir iespēja iepazīt dažādas dzīves un izglītības situācijas. Šāda veida atbalsts var tikt izmantots preventīvajā, intervences un kompensējošā stadijā.

„Kompensācijas” uzdevums ir piedāvāt alternatīvas iespējas, kuru realizācijas rezultātā skolēnam rodas vēlme un interese turpināt mācības, mācīties jaunā, neiepazītā vidē. Tāda varētu būt virtuālā vide, tālmācība, kur izglītības ieguve ir saistīta ar moderno tehnoloģiju izmantošanu. Latvijā šāda alternatīva eksistē- tālmācības vidusskola. Tai pat reizē alternatīvas piedāvātājiem jāatceras, ka mācīšanās tālmācībā prasa lielu gribas spēku, mācīšanās plānošanu, mācīšanās prasmes.

### **Pētījumi Latvijā kā pamats atbalsta sistēmas veidošanai PMP skolēniem** *Research in Latvia as basis for the developmnt of support system for early school leavers*

Latvijā veikta virkne pētījumu, kas tieši vai netieši saistīti ar PMP.

Jau 2009. gadā "Iekļaujošās izglītības un sociālās atstumtības riskam pakļauto jauniešu atbalsta sistēmas izveides un tās darbībai nepieciešamā personāla sagatavošanas un kvalitātes uzlabošanas koncepcijā" (Nīmante, Daniela, Raževa, Raščevska, Tūbele, Berķe, & Kraģe, 2009) tika secināts, ka jau ilgā laika posmā no 5,6 % līdz 10 % obligātās izglītības vecuma skolēnu „izkrīt” no izglītības sistēmas vai arī nav izglītības iestādē reģistrējušies, vai arī izglītības iestādi neapmeklē. Daļa skolēnu atrodas tā saucamajā „izkrišanas riska grupā”, jo nepietiekami apmeklē skolu, neapmierinoši mācību sasniegumi (vērtējums 1 – 3 kādā priekšmetā-pēc statistikas datiem ir 9,7 % 1. – 12. klašu skolēniem).

2011. gadā veiktais pētījums „Jauniešu sociālās atstumtības mazināšana: situācijas raksturojums pašvaldībās” (Nīmante, Daniela, Samuseviča, & Moļņika, 2013) atklāja galvenās tendences izglītības iestādēs un pašvaldībās, kā tiek nodrošināts atbalsts skolēniem, kam ir uzvedības vai mācību grūtības. Tika konstatēts, ka skolās, kurās bija atbalsta personāls un tas veiksmīgi sadarbojās, bija izveidota arī atbalsta sistēma skolēniem ar mācīšanās grūtībām. Taču tajās skolās, kurās nebija atbalsta personāls, atbalsta sistēma mācību grūtību gadījumā netika nodrošināta. Diemžēl, nevienā izglītības iestādē un pašvaldībā nedarbojās vienota sistēma – kā rīkoties, saskaroties ar skolēnu uzvedības problēmām jau preventīvi, kā arī nebija izstrādāta atbalsta sistēma bērniem ar uzvedības

problēmām, kas ietvertu vienotu saskaņotu sistēmisku rīcību skolas noteikumu pārkāpšanas gadījumos, no vienkāršiem līdz komplicētiem gadījumiem, tai skaitā agresīvas uzvedības gadījumos.

Pētījums „Skolotāju aptaujas par skolēnu mācīšanās darbību un uzvedību (SASMDU, 2012) ticamība un validitāte“ noteica svarīgākos faktorus, kas izskaidro galvenās skolēnu grūtības skolā un iespējami prognozē skolēnu „izkrišanu” no izglītības sistēmas (Raščevska, Raževa, Martinsone, Tūbele, Vucenlīdzāns, & Vazne, 2012). Pētnieki izdalīja četrus galvenos faktorus:

- 1) mācīšanās grūtības,
- 2) uzvedības regulācijas problēmas,
- 3) ģimenes atbalsta trūkums,
- 4) sociāli-emocionālās problēmas.

Pētījuma rezultāti apstiprināja, ka nav viena atsevišķa faktora, kas negatīvi ietekmē problēmu veidošanos skolā, faktori ir daudzveidīgi, un tie var kombinēties. Atbilstīgi tālākai intervencei faktoru mazināšanai arī jābūt daudzveidīgai un kombinētai, veidojot multifaktorālas ietekmes programmu izglītības iestādēs, kas mazinātu skolēnu problēmas skolās un samazinātu risku pāragri pamest izglītību. Ciešās sakarības starp mācību grūtībām, impulsivitāti un agresīvu uzvedību, uzmanības un pašorganizēšanās grūtībām, trauksmi un sociālajiem/ģimenes faktoriem pamatoja nepieciešamību skolās piedāvāt gan sociālās un emocionālās audzināšanas, gan pozitīvas uzvedības mācīšanas programmas, kas var uzlabot visu skolēnu riska grupu stāvokli.

Savukārt, pētījumā “Par politikas alternatīvu veidošanu priekšlaicīgas mācību pārtraukšanas problēmas risināšanai” (2015) par PMP riskiem jauniešiem vecuma grupā no 13 līdz 18 gadiem tika secināts, ka ir iespējams noteikt dažas pazīmes, kurām ir tendence atkārtoties. Vairākums jauniešu (65 %) kā PMP iemeslus norāda dažādus faktorus, kas saistīti ar mācību darbu un skolas vidi. Salīdzinoši bieži tiek minēti dažādi sociālās vides un veselības faktori (39 %), kā arī ekonomiskie apsvērumi (38 %), katrs ceturtais PMP jauniešis norādījis uz sociālo attiecību iemesliem. Ar vecākiem saistītus iemeslus min tikai 3 % aptaujāto. Savukārt, starp visiem jauniešiem atbilstošajiem PMP iemesliem visbiežāk minētais ir motivācijas trūkums (33 %) un nepatika mācīties (27 %), vēlme sākt strādāt algotu darbu (26 %), bet 23 % PMP jauniešu kā mācību pamešanas iemeslu norāda veselības problēmas

Latvijā veiktie pētījumi liecina, ka PMP saistīta ar četrām risku grupām:

- ar mācību darbu / izglītības iestādes vidi saistītie riski,
- sociālās vides un veselības riski,
- ekonomiskie riski,
- ar ģimeni saistītie riski. (Metodoloģiskās vadlīnijas, 2017).

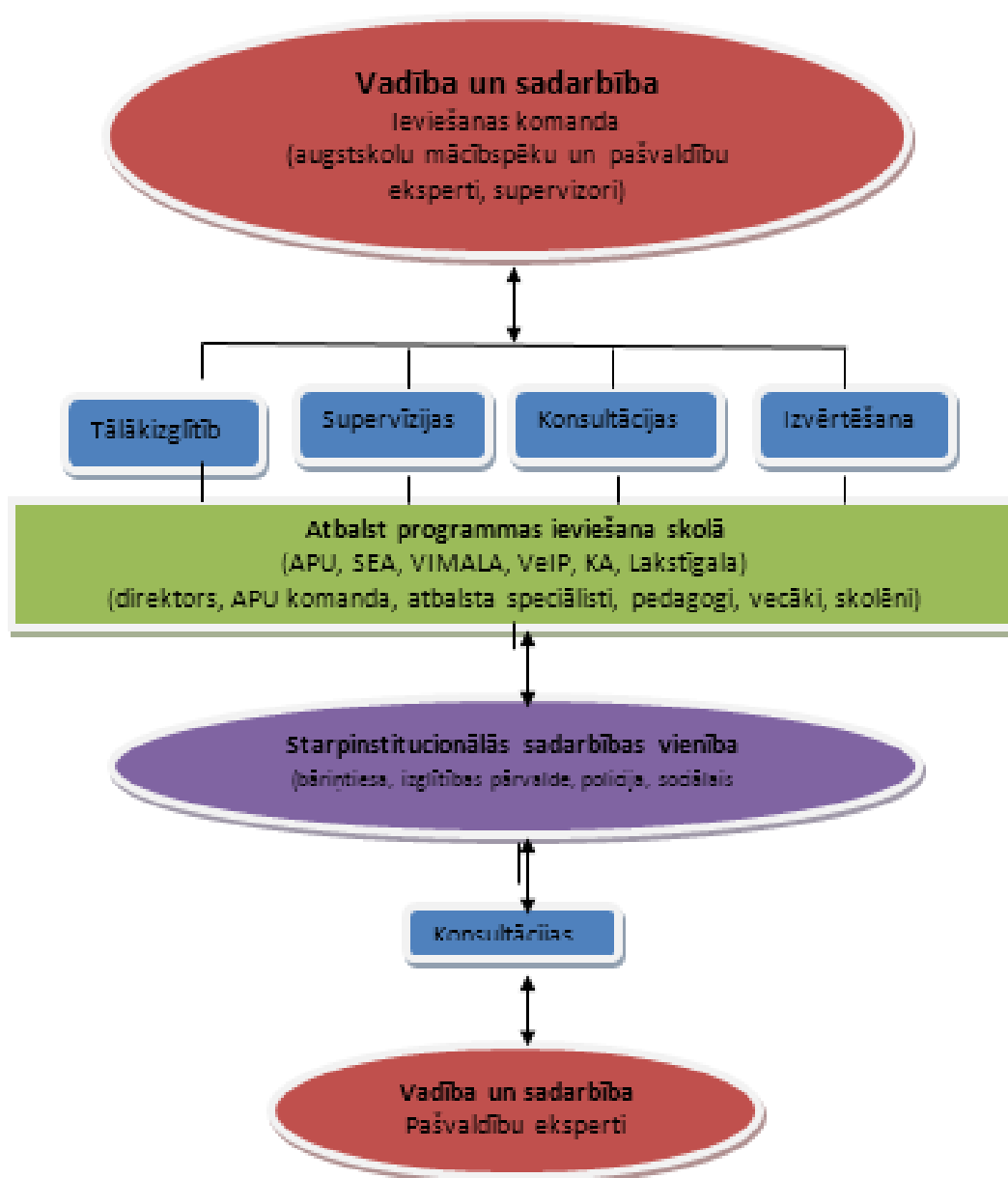
ESF projekta „Atbalsts“ (2010 - 2014) mērķis bija izveidot sistēmu izglītības iestādēs un pašvaldībās sociālās atstumtības mazināšanai jauniešu vidū. Tika izvirzīts uzdevums samazināt to skolēnu skaitu, kas atrodas riska zonā, paaugstinot skolēnu, īpaši to skolēnu, kuriem ir nepietiekams vērtējums, samazināt to skolēnu skaitu, kas kavē mācības vai vispār neapmeklē skolu, samazināt otrgadnieku un trešgadnieku skaitu. Sociālās atstumtības mazināšanas sistēmā iesaistījās 15 pašvaldības 5 reģionos, 39 vispārīzglītojošās izglītības iestādes, 944 skolotāji, 237 skolu tehniskie darbinieki, 99 atbalsta personāla speciālisti, 103 skolu administrācijas pārstāvji, 7884 skolēni, 310 skolēnu vecāki un 15 pašvaldības koordinatori. Projekta ietvaros tika izstrādāta multidomēna atbalsta programma sociālās atstumtības mazināšanai izglītības iestādēs. Tā ietvēra 6 savstarpēji saistītas integratīvas apakšprogrammas sadaļas:

- „Atbalsts pozitīvai uzvedībai” (APU),
- „Sociāli emocionālā audzināšana” (SEA),
- „Vienaudžumācīšanās lasītprasmes attīstībai” (VIMALA),
- „Vecāku kompetences pilnveide skolēnu izglītības ieguves atbalstam un sadarbībai izglītības iestādēs, pašvaldības un valsts līmenī” (VeIP),
- „Karjeras atbalsta programma skolēniem” (KA),
- „Mentoringu alternatīvai dzīves pieredzei “Lakstīgala” („Lakstīgala”).

Programmas realizācija sekmēja indikatīvas izmaiņas vairākos svarīgos rādītājos projekta izglītības iestādēs: nozīmīga nepietiekamo vērtējumu skaita samazināšanās; neattaisnoti kavēto stundu īpatsvara uz vienu skolēnu samazināšanās; otrgadniecības samazināšanās.

Projekta „Atbalsts” izvirzīto mērķu un uzdevumu sasniegšanai tika izveidota programmas ieviešanas vadības sistēma (2. att.), kas nodrošināja izveidotās atbalsta sistēmas ieviešanu (Nīmante, Daniela, & Kraģe, 2014).

Struktūrfondu 2014.–2020. gada plānošanas periodā darbības programmas „Izaugsme un nodarbinātība” 8.3.4. specifiskā atbalsta mērķa „Samazināt priekšlaicīgu mācību pārtraukšanu, īstenojot preventīvus un intervences pasākumus” tiek turpināts pilnveidot atbalsta pasākumu vadību preventīvajā, intervences un kompensējošā aspektā.



2. att. Programmas ieviešanas vadības sistēma (Nīmante, Daniela, & Kraģe, 2014).

Fig. 2. The management system of programm introducing

## Secinājumi Conclusions

Visaptverošai politikai, kas vērsta pret priekšlaicīgu mācību pārtraukšanu, būtu jācentrējas uz preventīvajiem pasākumiem, intervenci un kompensāciju. Tā ietver: vienotu mērķi, stratēģiju, aptver visas izglītības pakāpes, notiek sadarbība ar dažādiem resoriem, ģimene tiek uzskatīta kā resurss attīstībai, precīzu datu izmantošana kalpo darbības plānošanai, resursu sadalei, sistemātisku monitoringu un vērtēšanu, skola kā darbības centrs, kas darbojas kā organizācija, kas mācās.

Sistēmiskās pieejas īstenošanā jāparedz progresa izvērtēšanas un monitoringa sistēma, kas nodrošina iespēju regulāri apkopot un analizēt iegūtos datus, izvērtējot indikatīvos rādītājus, tādējādi nodrošinot konsekventu attīstību un ilgtspēju.

Visaptveroša skolēnu atbalsta sistēma (VSAS) nodrošina mācīšanās motivācijas veidošanos, kas ir būtisks nosacījums sekmīgām mācībām.

Jaunu alternatīvu variantu piedāvājumi (mājmācība, tālmācība, mentorings) kļūst par izaicinājumiem PMP skolēniem, lai mācītos un iegūtu izglītību.

### Summary

The article views a very topical problem – early school leaving or as it is very often called "drop out". The problem is analyzed on the basis of research results, that are given in EK documents about early school leaving in comparison to Latvia. There is a quite big drop out of students from general and professional education. According to the research of Baltic social research institute (2014) 26 % of students from secondary schools and gymnasiums leave school before graduating it. EK has adopted measures to reduce early school leaving in three aspects prevention, intervention and compensation. The article proposes ideas about the components of support system in Latvia. Schools and parents are characterizes as a great potential to prevent drop out. Special attention is paid to the implementation of the projects already since 2009. These projects are attempting to create overall student support system to diagnose, prevent, intervent and compensate early school leaving. 3Cs—cooperation, communication, collaboration have become the key words of the article.

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# DOES INTERNALISATION OF MORAL VALUES PREDICT ADOLESCENTS' PROSOCIAL BEHAVIOUR AND LESS TOLERANCE TOWARDS ANTISOCIAL BEHAVIOUR?

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**Abstract.** *The purpose of the current qualitative cross-sectional design study was to examine relations between the internalisation of moral values and prosocial behaviour as well as tolerance towards antisocial behaviour in adolescence. A total of 385 adolescents (192 girls and 193 boys) aged 13 and 16 years (mean age = 14.6, SD = 1.11) completed the self-reported measures of moral values internalisation, adolescents' prosocial behaviour, and tolerance towards antisocial behaviour. Girls scored significantly higher than boys on moral values internalisation and such prosocial behaviour types as altruism and help in emergency situations. Girls were significantly less tolerant towards antisocial behaviour. Multiple regression analysis showed that external and introjected value regulations were the significant predictors of altruistic behaviour. Only the identified regulation was a significant predictor of adolescents' intention to help others in emergency situations. Adolescent tolerance towards antisocial behaviour was predicted by the identified and integrated value regulations. Overall, these findings reflected the importance of personal values, especially moral values for encouraging adolescents' moral behaviour and intolerance towards antisocial behaviour of peers.*

**Keywords:** *adolescents' antisocial behaviour, moral values internalisation, prosocial behaviour.*

## Introduction

Adolescence is a crucial period in the development of abstract thinking skills that fully integrates the moral values and principles influencing the self-concept of adolescents (Hardy & Carlo, 2011). Furthermore, the period is inseparable from the search, selection, awareness and integration of values (Aramavičiūtė, 2016). On the basis of daily experiences and examples, the impact of environment, adolescents develop their moral self-awareness that constructs their action strategies and regulates decision-making behaviour while coping with challenges and solving problems. Thus, the moral self-awareness of adolescent values is their moral decision-making and behavioural factor (Hardy & Carlo, 2005) as well as

the level of internalisation of moral values. According to Aramavičiūtė (2016), the internalisation of values reveals the transition of values to the inner world of a person, in other words, the development of values into an individual's personality, provokes concrete actions and expands the range of possibilities for values' perception. Thus, "the internalisation of values is viewed as a perspective research direction in the dynamics and stability of values as well as the essential basis for the values' development" (Aramavičiūtė, 2016: 150-151). Inter alia, values are internalised as the standard of personal behavioural regulation (Harter, 1998), and this internalisation continues to evolve as adolescents shape their moral identity (Hart, 2005). Values internalisation model is reflected by the Self-Determination Theory developed by Deci and Ryan (1991). The emphasis is placed on four continuously outlined value regulation forms taking into account the degree of self-regulation and internalisation: the *external regulation*, where a person perceives external encouragement and punishment as a stimulus to act; the *introjected regulation* is the most closely related to the functioning of a person's ego, when values are taken from the outside, but are not yet perceived as one's personal self; the *identified regulation* demonstrates a clear perception and realization of values in activities, and the highest form of internalisation is considered - the *integrated regulation*, when values are interspersed with a person's identity and are perceived as one of thinking and behavioural projection factors (Hardy et al., 2008). Thus, lower levels (external and introjected) are referred to as emerging from the environment, while the higher levels of internalisation (identified and integrated) are the closest to the internal, independent choices of an individual. Supposedly, the degree of adolescent moral values is considered to be related to their intention to behave honourably. Jonhston & Krettenauer (2011) add that the importance of moral values relates to the expression of prosocial behaviour, while the adolescent's moral identity is supposed to positively predict their prosocial behaviour (Hardy, 2006). Studies have shown that the relationship between the moral values of internalisation and prosocial behaviour is weak or moderate (Kromerova, 2016; Paciello et al., 2013; Shields et al., 2017). Therefore, it has long been claimed that moral reasoning is important but insufficient aiming to explain prosocial behaviour (Blasi, 1980). Recent research shows that people do not necessarily need to perceive values as part of their own self, but if they are considered more important than other personal values, they become part of their identity over time (Blasi, 2009). A recently performed meta-analysis of 111 studies on moral identity and moral behaviour substantially confirms the idea that moral identity encourages ethical and prosocial behaviour and inhibits the manifestation of antisocial behaviour (Hertz & Krettenauer, 2016) as the adolescent's behaviour reflects their moral decisions, reasoning and internalisation of values. As people tend to judge the surrounding actions according to their moral prism, it is assumed that a higher

level of internalisation of moral values predicts the prosocial behaviour of adolescents and less tolerance to antisocial actions in their environment.

The purpose of the current study was to explore relations between internalisation of moral values and prosocial behaviour as well as tolerance towards antisocial behaviour in adolescence.

## Methods

### *Participants*

The sample included 385 adolescents (192 girls and 193 boys) between 13 and 16 years old ( $M$  age =14.6,  $SD$  =1.11) from four public schools in Kaunas city (the second biggest city) in Lithuania. Nearly two thirds (64.8 %) of adolescents lived with both biological parents, while 3.7 % of them lived with foster parents.

### *Measures*

Moral values internalisation was assessed using the 24-item adolescent-report Moral Values Internalisation Questionnaire (Hardy et al., 2008) which was based on the Self-Determination Theory approach to internalisation (Deci & Ryan, 1991) and Prosocial Self-Regulation Questionnaire (Ryan & Connell, 1989). The questionnaire contained six questions with four answer options. As the questionnaire measures the internalisation of moral values, two questions were associated with fairness, two questions were associated with honesty and two ones – with the value of kindness. Each question asked the participants to rate the importance of different reasons why they might or might not engage in certain behaviour, on scale from 1 – not at all important to 5 – very important. The four items for each question represented the four forms of value regulation. Therefore, in total, six items for external regulation ( $\alpha$  =.79), six items – for introjected regulation ( $\alpha$  =.82), six items – for identified regulation ( $\alpha$  =.84) and six items – for integrated regulation ( $\alpha$  =.82) were represented. Composite scores for each level of internalisation (i.e. each form of values regulation) were created by calculating the mean of the six items corresponding to each level. It is possible to calculate a composite of overall internalisation, but in this study we analysed separate forms of value regulation.

Prosocial behaviour was measured applying the revised Prosocial Tendencies Measure (PTM-R, Carlo et al., 2003). This measure was adapted and validated to the Lithuanian population in previous studies (Šukys & Šukienė, 2015). The participants completed the 21-item questionnaire to assess how likely they were to engage in prosocial behaviours across a variety of situations. The participants rated the extent to which the statements characterized them using a 5-point Likert scale (from 1 = *does not characterize me at all* to 5 = *characterizes me greatly*). The original scale assessed six types of prosocial behaviour: public,

anonymous, dire, emotional, complaint and altruistic. Public prosocial behaviour was defined as behaviour intended to benefit others enacted in the presence of others. Anonymous behaviour was defined as the tendency to help others without other people's knowledge. Dire behaviour involves helping others during emergency or crisis situations. Emotional is behaviour intended to benefit others enacted under emotionally evocative situations. Compliant behaviour involves helping others when asked. Altruistic behaviour involves helping others when there is little or no perceived potential for a direct, explicit reward to the self. A higher score on each of these scales reflected a stronger endorsement. In Lithuania, the four forms of prosocial behaviour were distinguished during the process of questionnaire adaptation: help in asking for it or in case of emergency, anonymous, public and altruistic prosocial behaviour (Šukys & Šukienė, 2015). The four forms of prosocial behaviour were evaluated taking into consideration the factor of different cultures in this data analysis. Cronbach alpha ranged from 0.60 (for altruism) to 0.87 (help in emergency).

Tolerance towards antisocial behaviour was measured using *Attitudes about Behaviour Measure* (Loeber et al., 1991, 1998). This is a 16-item measure that assesses the youth's tolerance regarding a variety of delinquent behaviours ranging from skipping school to stealing, assault and substance use. The items were rated on a four-point scale from 1 = not wrong at all to 4 = very wrong. Although two sub-scales are identified (attitude towards substance use, and attitude towards delinquency), because of high inter subscales correlations ( $r=.96$ ), the total score of all scale was used. Cronbach alpha for all scale was 0.87.

#### *Procedure*

The research of schoolchildren was subject to permission of school directors and verbal consent of schoolchildren that had to be obtained prior to the research. After the successful agreement with the school administration and arrangement of survey time the researchers arrived to place. The survey was carried out in classrooms during lessons. The teacher of the schoolchildren or the school's deputy director was participating in the survey. Prior to each survey the schoolchildren were explained the research purpose and instruction of the questionnaire filling. Emphasis was always given to the survey anonymity and possibility to refuse to participate in the survey at any time.

#### *Data analysis*

All the analyses were performed using IBM SPSS Statistics for Windows software (version 22.0). The analysis included Cronbach's alpha coefficients, descriptive statistics and correlations calculation. The statistical or null hypothesis ( $H_0$ ) of equality of the mean ( $M$ ) between groups was tested using independent sample t-test and Cohen's  $d$  effect size was calculated. Hierarchical regression analysis was used for predictions of moral values internalisation on prosocial and antisocial behaviour as applied.

**Results**

Descriptive statistics and correlations were computed using the entire sample and presented in Table 1. The adolescents reported the identified regulation more, followed by the introjected, integrated and external regulations, respectively. In the study of prosocial behaviour, it was determined that adolescents were more likely to help others in an emergency. The research showed that adolescents were not tolerant to antisocial behaviour, since the mean of responses was higher than three.

Bivariate correlations were also conducted for the study variables (see Table 1). The four forms of values regulation were all associated positively with each other. All four forms of values regulation were significantly correlated with prosocial behaviour except anonymous prosocial behaviour. In addition, all forms of value regulation were positively associated with less tolerance towards delinquent behaviours. Lastly, help in emergency situation was positively related to adolescents' less tolerance towards antisocial behaviour.

**Table 1 Correlations and descriptive statistics for values internalisation, prosocial behaviour and tolerance towards antisocial behavior**

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
1. External									
2. Introjected	.79**								
3. Identified	.73**	.81							
4. Integrated	.64**	.73	.74						
5. Altruism	-.22**	-.21**	-.12*	-.11*					
6. Anonymous	.07	.07	.06	.09	-.43**				
7. Public	.20**	.23**	.21**	.23**	-.48**	.51**			
8. Help in emergency	.36**	.38**	.42**	.37**	-.39**	.45**	.58*		
9. TTAB	.34**	.39**	.41**	.26**	.02	-.05	.02	.19**	
Mean	3.82	3.93	4.05	3.87	2.92	2.91	3.09	3.55	3.25
SD	.79	.81	.79	.77	.85	.93	.86	.80	.71

**Note.** TTAB – tolerance towards antisocial behaviour. \* p<.05; \*\* p<.01

Furthermore, we investigated gender differences in the study variables (Table 2). Comparing moral values internalisation girls scored significantly higher than boys on all internalisation forms. Further, we assessed prosocial behaviour by gender. Girls scored significantly higher than boys on altruism and help in an emergency situation. Comparing adolescents' tolerance towards antisocial behaviour significant differences emerged. Girls were significantly less tolerant towards antisocial behaviour as compared to boys.

Table 2 Study variables comparison by gender

Variables	Girls n=192)	Boys(n=193)	t	Cronbach's $\alpha$
	<i>M (SD)</i>	<i>M (SD)</i>		
External	4.02 (0.71)	3.62 (0.82)	5.15***	0.52
Introjected	4.08 (0.75)	3.77 (0.84)	3.78***	0.39
Identified	4.22 (0.72)	3.87 (0.83)	4.45***	0.45
Integrated	3.98 (0.71)	3.79 (0.82)	2.41*	0.25
Altruism	3.01 (0.88)	2.84 (0.80)	2.00*	0.20
Anonymity	2.83 (0.90)	2.99 (0.95)	-1.76	0.17
Public	3.10 (0.84)	3.06 (0.88)	0.54	0.05
Help in emergency	3.68 (0.77)	3.41 (0.80)	3.26***	0.34
TTAB	3.39 (0.64)	3.11 (0.74)	3.89***	0.41

Note. TTAB – tolerance towards antisocial behaviour, \*  $p < .05$ ; \*\*\*  $p < .001$

Table 3 Multiple linear regression analyses for the influence of moral values on prosocial and tolerance towards antisocial behaviour

	<i>B</i>	<i>SEB</i>	$\beta$	$\Delta R^2$	<i>F</i>
<b>Altruism</b>					
Gender	-0.29	0.09	-.17***	0.08	7.54***
External	-0.24	0.09	-0.22**		
Introjected	-0.24	0.10	-0.23*		
Identified	0.15	0.10	0.14		
Integrated	0.08	0.09	0.08		
<b>Public prosocial behaviour</b>					
Gender	0.03	0.09	0.02	0.05	4.89***
External	0.03	0.09	0.03		
Introjected	0.11	0.11	0.10		
Identified	0.02	0.10	0.02		
Integrated	0.14	0.09	0.12		
<b>Help in emergency</b>					
Gender	-0.12	0.08	-0.08	0.19	17.99***
External	0.04	0.08	0.04		
Introjected	0.07	0.09	0.07		
Identified	0.23	0.09	0.22**		
Integrated	0.13	0.08	0.12		
<b>Tolerance towards antisocial behaviour</b>					
Gender	-0.14	0.07	0.10*	0.19	18.71***
External	0.01	0.07	0.01		
Introjected	0.18	0.08	0.20*		
Identified	0.29	0.08	0.33***		
Integrated	-0.13	0.07	0.14*		

Note. \*  $p < 0.05$ ; \*\*\*  $p < 0.01$

Multiple regression analysis was used to test if the forms of moral value regulation significantly predicted adolescents' prosocial behaviour and tolerance towards antisocial behaviour (Table 3). In each analysis, variable of gender was also included as an independent variable. The analyses of anonymous prosocial behaviour according to the non-significant correlation with independent variables of value internalisation were not conducted. The results of the regression indicated that externalized ( $\beta = -.22, p < .01$ ) and introjected ( $\beta = -.23, p < .05$ ) value regulation significantly related to the outcome for altruism, however, adolescent gender was also a significant predictor ( $\beta = .17, p < .001$ ). The analyses showed that none of the predictors significantly predicted public prosocial behaviour. The results of the regression analyses indicated that only the identified value regulation ( $\beta = .22, p < .01$ ) was a significant predictor for help in emergency situation. Further, adolescent tolerance towards antisocial behaviour was predicted by introjected ( $\beta = .12, p < .01$ ), identified ( $\beta = .33, p < .001$ ) and integrated ( $\beta = .14, p < .05$ ) value regulation with gender being also a significant predictor ( $\beta = .10, p < .05$ ).

### **Discussion**

The purpose of the current study was to explore relations between internalisation of moral values and prosocial behaviour as well as tolerance towards antisocial behaviour in adolescence. It was assumed that a higher level of moral values internalisation would predict the prosocial behaviour of adolescents and less tolerance to the antisocial activities of the surrounding people. The research revealed that the introjected value regulations was significant predictors of altruistic behaviour but only the identified regulation was the significant predictor of adolescents' intention to help others in emergency situations. Adolescents' tolerance towards antisocial behaviour was predicted by the identified and integrated value regulation. Partly, as expected, a higher internalisation of adolescents' moral values predicts the expression of prosocial behaviour and a more critical attitude to antisocial activities. Commenting on these data, it should be mentioned that growth from childhood to adolescence is related to the development of cognitive abilities, which allows recognition of the needs of others and ways of help, as well as the moral awareness of the importance of helping others (Eisenberg et al., 2006). The importance of a cognitive maturation factor in constructing one's behaviour towards others is justified by the fact that values provide meaning, energize and regulate human behaviour, but only if they were "cognitively activated and central to the self" (Verplanken & Holland, 2002: 434). The study by Johnston and Krettenauer (2011) confirms the idea that prosocial behaviour is best predicted by a moral person's self-awareness. On the other hand, the existence of such moral content based self-awareness is

indicated by a high level of internalisation of moral values. A person with socially acceptable values tends to take into account the needs of others, and their moral reasoning is based on a sense of individual responsibility towards others and the community (Paciello et al., 2013). Although adolescents with moral reasoning tend to behave more tolerantly (Breslin, 2006), according to this research, the internalisation of moral values relates to moral considerations and prosocial behaviour, but the antisocial behaviour of the surrounding people, referring to the internal prism of human values, is valued more critically than that of adolescents whose choice of values is influenced by external factors. Thus, the level of internalisation of adolescent moral values and moral reasoning are very important. The latter ones form the basis of civic activity, a conscious choice of goals and ways to achieve them, a critical adolescent's attitude to antisocial activities as well as help to set limits of tolerance and promote a sense of responsibility for society and community.

The research results also demonstrated that the identified value regulation was expressed more than the integrated, introjected and external regulations. It means that adolescents accept moral values as individuals and are guided by them in life. This form of regulation is considered to be one of the most autonomous value regulation forms and, according to Vansteenkiste et al., the supporters of Self-Determination Theory (2006), a motivating, growth-orientated human model. Individuals who perceive themselves as initiators of their behaviour experience pleasure in causality (Nuttin, 1973), while the needs for competence and personal causality, which are very closely related to the concept of autonomy, are the basis of the underlying motivational behaviour (Vansteenkiste et al., 2006). According to Vansteenkiste et al. (2006), motivated activities are the natural basis for learning and development. It is believed that this can lead to many positive emotions (greater number of friends, better health, better skills), which strengthens the will of adolescents later (Vansteenkiste et al., 2018). On the other hand, "the introjected regulation, which refers to extrinsic motivation more when a person does not fully accept values as their own and their own actions are still associated with expectations of self-approval, expresses alike integrated regulation that refers to the most self-determined form of internalized regulation" (Kromerova & Šukys, 2016: 27). However, according to Deci and Ryan (2000), all external motivation form (external, introjected & identified) differences were related to different experiences and outcomes of the respondents. The more individuals were regulated by the outside factors, the less interest and effort they showed to achieve results, tended to blame others and avoided responsibility for negative outcomes more. The introjected regulation was positively related to increased efforts, but also showed the increased respondents' anxiety, excitement and poorer coping with failures. Meanwhile the identified regulation, according to the authors, was associated with greater satisfaction and interest in school, as



well as with more positive behavioural styles and greater respondents' efforts (Deci & Ryan, 2000). Thus, it can be argued that a higher form of internalisation of values not only indicates the autonomous choices of a person's activity, but also provides an internal sense of satisfaction, a stronger sense of responsibility, a feeling of self-realization, and acts as the basis for natural development.

The research results demonstrated that girls scored significantly higher than boys on moral values internalisation and such prosocial behaviour types as altruism and help in emergency situation. Other studies (Hardy et al., 2013; Shield et al., 2017) also found that girls had higher moral values and more prosocial behaviours than boys. This can be explained by the fact that boys, more than girls, need external reinforcement, social support, group membership and peer recognition, which is regarded as components of external internalisation. Gillian (1982) states that the moral reasoning of girls is focused on concern for others, while the moral reasoning of boys manifests by following the norms and rules and are described as justice orientation. It can be interpreted that the moral judgement of boys depends directly on cognition, and for girls it is a fundamental emotional reaction. Silfver-Kuhlampi (2008) believes that sometimes the purpose of the research itself can lead to a perception among respondents about the distribution of social roles, so they may be inclined to present themselves as more emphatic. On the other hand, the author considers, if gender differences are in fact constructed by the gender factor itself arising from stereotypes, the latter are likely to be sufficiently strong rooted in order to influence their true behaviour. It can be claimed that the micro-environment plays an important role, and the different activities of boys and girls encourage them to develop different skills, influence the attitude, and the refinement of values, which is reflected in adolescents' social behaviour.

### **Conclusion**

The research results showed that higher level of moral values internalisation predicts prosocial behaviour by adolescents. Specifically, identified regulation was the significant predictor of adolescents' intention to help others in emergency situation. Adolescents with higher level of moral values internalisation were less tolerant towards antisocial behaviour. Overall, these findings reflected personal values, especially the importance of moral values for encouraging adolescents' moral behaviour and intolerance towards antisocial behaviour of peers.

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## MACHIAVELLIANISM AND PERSONAL TRAITS IN YOUNG AGE

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**Abstract.** *The article is devoted to one of the vital problems of modern society, the problem of Machiavellianism. It is noted that manipulative forms of interaction between people become common, and it can lead to a tendency to use the manipulation by an increasing number of people and, in its turn, to the loss of openness, sincerity, and congruence of communication. The results of an empirical study of Machiavellianism and its interrelationship with personality traits in young age are discussed. The study is based on a dispositional approach to the person, suggesting that it consists of reliable, stable, interrelated elements (properties, traits) that determine its internal essence and behavior. Differences in the behavior of people are explained by the differences in the intensity of personality traits. The article shows that adolescence is one of the most sensitive ways to consolidate manipulative strategies in the behavior of a person. The obtained results prove the existence of a interrelationship between Machiavellianism and a number of personality traits, according to the theory of R. B. Cattell. Among such personality traits are communicative (closed), regulative (low normative, low self-control behavior), emotional (rigidity) and intellectual (radicalism). Knowledge of the personal profile of a personality prone to Machiavellianism in adolescence will allow continuing the study within the framework of studying ways of preventing extreme manifestations of manipulative behavior and widening the range of constructive patterns of youth behavior.*

**Keywords:** *Machiavellianism, manipulation, interpersonal relations, personal traits, young age.*

### **Introduction**

The changing social and economic conditions in Russia give rise to new demands on the subject of modern society, which in turn forms new styles of relations between people. Not always these changes indicate an increase in harmony, mutual understanding between people. More often they began to show the spread of asymmetrical interpersonal relations - rivalry, competition and manipulation (Grachev & Melnik, 2002). The problem of manipulating the personality, its consciousness and behavior was repeatedly posed in the 20th century by domestic and foreign researchers (Christie & Geis, 1970; Jones & Paulhus, 2009; Znakov, 2007; Shostrom, 1967).

On the one hand, there are several areas of professional activity, where the possession of manipulation techniques plays a decisive role in achieving success (management, culture, jurisprudence, journalism, advertising, applied sociology, religion, politics, etc.). Also in the social sphere, the situations of approval of such forms of behavior as manipulation, aggression, fierce competition are increasingly noted. On the one hand, a person can become the victim of manipulative techniques against himself, and the person using manipulation exposes himself to serious deformities. Interpersonal interaction, based on manipulative methods, is characterized by an attitude toward another person as a means of achieving his own goals and reducing the qualities of the subject of decision-making in the interlocutor.

In this regard, some scientists believe that in the 21st century, destructive manipulation of people, public opinion and mass consciousness can, along with national conflicts, environmental disasters and demographic disasters, turn into a global world problem of the beginning of the third millennium (Egorova, 2002; Shibaeva & Tarasova, 2014; Ryumshina, 2003).

The purpose of the research was to study the intensity of Machiavellianism in adolescence and its relationship with personality traits.

The object of the research is Machiavellianism, the subject is the interrelationship between Machiavellianism and personality traits in the young age.

## **Overview**

In relationships built on manipulation, the positions between participants of interpersonal interaction are often distributed on the basis of the principle of “a winner-a defeated”, “a winner-a loser”. At the same time, the steady desire to manipulate other people brings immediate benefits to the manipulator himself, but can turn into personal and social problems for him in a long time perspective (Znakov, 2007; Ryumshina, 2003).

Machiavellianism should be regarded as a stable personality trait, expressing the system of human relations to other people, social reality (Paal & Bereczkei, 2007). There are such psychological components of Machiavellianism as persuasion of the subject that they can and should be manipulated when communicating with other people; possession of skills of manipulation. Machiavellianism as a property of the personality reflects the desire and intention of a person to manipulate others in interpersonal relationships (Znakov, 2007).

The tendency to manipulate other people in interpersonal relationships is called Machiavellianism by western psychologists R. Christie and F. Geis (Christie & Geis, 1970). They connect the predisposition of manipulative style

of communication with personal traits of a person. Machiavellianism reflects the denial of a person's belief that most people need to be trusted, that they are independent and may have a strong will. The high level of manipulation means resistance to social influence, calm and lack of emotionality, orientation to the goal, the desire to achieve the goal in a competitive struggle with others, a cold rational initiative. The traits of such a person are determined by psychological processes: by fixing on the precise cognitive characteristics of the situation and concentrating attention and actions on freedom. Usually such people are leaders (Jones & Paulhus, 2009).

As a rule, people with a low level of manipulation, on the contrary, are characterized by excessive trustfulness, sensibility to social influence, orientation to the personality, acceptance of the social structure and adherence to it. They are characterized by frequent interference of emotions in a rational assessment of the situation, dependence on emotions and pressure from the side (Znakov, 2007).

The researchers also identified the following common psychological characteristics of the Machiavellian personality: developed intelligence, courage, ambition, domination, perseverance, selfishness. In general, there are individual manipulative traits in every person (Shostrom, 1967). Another characteristic trait of the manipulator is a tendency to superficial erudition, the aim of which is to make an impression, catch others, and then control them (Egorova, 2009; Larina, 2010; Shostrom, 1967). The manipulator likes to control and is dependent on this need.

According to E. Shostrom, the lifestyle of the manipulator is characterized by lies, unconsciousness, control and cynicism. Being unable to appreciate him as he is, the manipulator feels misunderstood, unrecognized and underappreciated. The more he depreciates himself, the more part of himself he has to deny (Shostrom, 1967).

Modern research suggests that the maximum degree of inclination to manipulate falls on youth (Znakov, 2007; Ryumshina, 2003), while there is no detailed study of this phenomenon. It is at this age that young people are in a situation of personal and professional choice and self-determination, which are based on values that set the orientation for the future. Intermediate social status and the status of youth determine the characteristics of his psyche.

Young people have a special sensitivity, as a result, young people are the most unprotected, vulnerable, lonely and psychologically helpless before difficulties in the life. Often they are not ready for the new tough demands of society, they are not always able to make an independent choice and take responsibility for their behavior, for their future, and therefore find themselves in stressful situations.

Youth in the modern period of socio-economic development of the society and the state was in the conditions of continuing instability of public consciousness, when there are no claimed ideals from the past, but in the present there are still no new benchmarks suitable for the ongoing development in the country and in the world for the forthcoming development, personal, national self-determination. Therefore, today, it is very difficult for young people to single out and assimilate norms of adult life. Hence - confusion and uncertainty in the future (Feldshtein, 2004).

Along with this, the present stage of the social development of society has “shifted” the border of all ages towards an earlier maturity in the psychological and “activity” meaning. This process occurs according to many “formal” characteristics, but at the same time the social infantilism among the youth and youth is paradoxically intensified. In this regard, the importance of the young age is growing both for the successful formation of the personality and for the productive social development of society (Feldshtein, 2004). With the complication of life activity in the young age, there is not only a quantitative expansion of the range of social roles and interests, but also a qualitative change in them. In the young age, there are more and more “adult” social roles with the consequent greater measure of independence and responsibility.

In adolescence life, the formation of moral consciousness is intense, value orientations and ideals, a sustainable worldview, and civic qualities of the individual are developed and formed. The worldview search in the young age includes the social orientation of a person, the realization of oneself as a particle of the social community (Feldshtein, 2004).

Therefore, a more detailed study of Machiavellianism in the young age and its interrelation with personality traits is necessary.

### **Research methodology**

Research hypothesis: in the young age Machiavellianism as a personality trait is associated with other personal traits and forms a certain profile prone to manipulating personality.

The theoretical and methodological basis of the research consists of the fundamental principles of the theory of manipulation in interpersonal communication (Shostrom, 1967; Christie & Geis, 1970); the concept of Machiavellian personality (Znakov, 2007), dispositional personality theories (Cattell, 1990).

Among the methods of research both theoretical analysis of sources and empirical methods – testing were used. A technique of the research the Machiavellian personality of V. V. Znakov was used to study Machiavellianism;

for the study of personality traits - a 16-factor personality questionnaire by Cattell. To confirm the reliability of the results obtained, methods of mathematical statistics (correlation analysis, the Mann-Whitney U test) were applied.

An empirical study was conducted in which the participants were senior pupils of the secondary schools of the Republic of Mari El and the 1st and 2nd year students of Mari State University, 97 young people in total.

## **Results**

The results of the research of Machiavellianism showed that one third of respondents have a high level of expression of this personality trait. At the same time, the average level of Machiavellianism prevails (56.5 %). Among the subjects with a low propensity for manipulation, there are more students, and it proves the opinion of scientists that with age the severity of Machiavellianism is somewhat reduced.

To test the hypothesis about the Machiavellian personal profile, the personality traits of respondents with high, medium and low Machiavellian levels were determined, significant differences were revealed.

The personality traits of the subjects, obtained according to the “Method of Multifactor Research of the Personality of R. Cattell”, were analyzed according to the level of Machiavellianism of the respondents. Thus, students with a high level of Machiavellianism have high rates of radicalism (Q1) and average self-monitoring indicators (Q3), rigidity (I), and normative behavior (G).

It should be noted that all measured personality traits are divided into several groups: communicative, intellectual, emotional and regulative. In the research, statistically significant differences were found in students with a high and low level of Machiavellianism only in the expression of intellectual factors (factor Q1  $U_{emp} = 62,5$ ,  $p = 0.000$ ), emotional (factor I  $U_{emp} = 83.5$ ,  $p = 0.004$ ) and regulatory traits (factor G  $U_{emp} = 92.5$ ,  $p = 0.01$ , factor Q3  $U_{emp} = 66.5$ ,  $p = 0.001$ ). Communicative traits of a person with different levels of Machiavellianism do not differ.

Characteristics of the identified personality traits of respondents with Machiavellianism are presented in Table 1.

It can be concluded that in the young age a Machiavellian is characterized by such intellectual traits as the presence of intellectual interests, analytical thinking, distrust to authorities, susceptibility to changes; such emotional properties – lack of sentimentality, self-confidence, severity, rationality; regulatory features - low discipline, irresponsibility, impulsiveness, lack of agreement with generally accepted moral rules and standards.



**Table 1 Description of personal traits of respondents with a high level of Machiavellianism according to the questionnaire of R. B. Cattell**

Factor	Description
I-	The lack of sentimentality, self-confidence, severity, rationality, flexibility in judgments, pragmatism, sometimes some cruelty and callousness towards others, rationality, logic.
G-	Inclination to instability, susceptibility to the influence of feelings, chance and circumstances. He indulges his desires, does not make efforts to fulfill group requirements and norms. Lack of organization, irresponsibility, impulsiveness, lack of agreement with generally accepted moral rules and standards, flexibility in relation to social norms, freedom from their influence, sometimes unprincipled and inclined to antisocial behavior.
Q3-	Low discipline, self-indulgence, dependence on moods, inability to control one's emotions and behavior.
Q1+	Freethinking, experimentation, the presence of intellectual interests, developed analytical thinking, receptivity to changes, new ideas, distrust to authorities, refusal to accept anything on faith, focus on analytical, theoretical activity.

Respondents with a low level of Machiavellianism, on the contrary, are characterized by conservatism, sensitivity, ability to self-control and normative behavior.

To reveal the interrelationship between the level of Machiavellianism and personal traits, a correlation analysis (rank correlation of Spearman) was carried out. The interrelation of Machiavellianism with such personality traits as “isolation - sociability” ( $r = -0.23$ ,  $p = 0.05$ ) was revealed; “low normative behavior - high normative behavior” ( $r = -0.22$ ,  $p = 0.05$ ); “rigidity - sensitivity” ( $r = -0.23$ ,  $p = 0.05$ ); “low self-control - high self-control” ( $r = -0.33$ ,  $p = 0.01$ ); “conservatism - radicalism” ( $r = 0.36$ ,  $p = 0.01$ ).

So, the strongest interrelation is revealed between manipulation and radicalism. Hence it follows that the Machiavellians are characterized by experimentation, analytical thinking, free-thinking, distrust to authorities. Also, a strong reverse statistical interrelationship is revealed between Machiavellianism and high self-control: the more Machiavellianism is revealed, the lower is the level of self-control. The average negative interrelationship exists between Machiavellianism and sociability, normative behavior, sensitivity.

### Summary

The research showed that the tendency to manipulate other people in interpersonal communication and in mass information impact is one of the characteristic features of a modern man. In this case, this problem becomes the most urgent for young age. It carries a

certain internal crisis, sensitivity, as a result of which young people are most vulnerable and psychologically helpless before difficulties of the life. Therefore, young men constitute a risk group for the development and consolidation of Machiavellianism as personality traits (Znakov, 2007; Ryumshina, 2003).

The study of psychological and pedagogical literature on the problem of manipulation and Machiavellianism showed that the personality of a manipulator has not been studied enough, it is possible to trace completely contradictory characteristics in its description, and in this connection an attempt was made to describe the personal profile of a Machiavellian in the young age.

Machiavellianism, according to V. V. Znakov, is a stable personality trait and manifests itself in the system of human relationships with other people. Machiavellianism reflects the desire and intention of a person to manipulate others in interpersonal relationships.

The results of the empirical research showed that in the young age the category of students with high level of Machiavellianism indices is singled out.

Machiavellianism as a personality quality is included in the personal profile of the respondents and is associated with communicative (asocial), regulative (low normative, low self-control behavior), emotional (rigidity), intellectual (radicalism) personality traits.

The results of the research can become the basis for further theoretical and methodological development of the problem of Machiavellianism of personality at different age stages. In this paper, the relationship between Machiavellianism and personality characteristics in the young age is shown; general characteristics of young people with a high level of Machiavellianism are given.

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## «УНИВЕРСИТЕТ ТРЕТЬЕГО ВОЗРАСТА» КАК ФОРМА НЕПРЕРЫВНОГО ОБРАЗОВАНИЯ ПОЖИЛЫХ ЛЮДЕЙ

### *"University of the Third Age" as a Form of Senior Citizens' Lifelong Education*

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**Abstract.** *The article is devoted to the urgent problem of finding ways of social integration of senior citizens to the conditions of the rapidly changing society. The main idea is to use the resources of life-long education for providing retired people with the conditions to obtain information about the world on a systematic basis.*

*The subject of the research are the form and the content of senior citizens' lifelong education that is aimed at preserving their active life style and enriching their intrapersonal potential. The article gives the social-pedagogical model of lifelong education of elderly people that corresponds to their needs, and describes the author's conceptual basis (openness of education, voluntariness, focus on the learners' needs) and the content of the model (giving knowledge, developing skills, interaction and self-development training). The methods of the research are modeling and pedagogical natural experiment.*

*The five-year experience of implementing the model of senior citizens' lifelong education in the form of "University of the Third Age" allows the authors to conclude that it is effective. In the students' opinion, the educational programs of "University of the Third Age" meet their cognitive needs, provide their social integration, help them to maintain active life style, increase their satisfaction with the quality of their life. Thus, higher educational institutions can and should become the place where senior citizens can get education and training.*

**Keywords:** *model, lifelong education, students, senior citizens, university of the third age.*

### **Введение**

#### ***Introduction***

Международная статистика свидетельствует о том, что жители Земли стремительно стареют. В мировом масштабе, группа лиц в возрасте 60 лет и старше растет более высокими темпами, чем другие группы населения. По оценкам экспертов ООН, общество находится на пороге беспрецедентного

демографического преобразования: ожидается, что число пожилых людей возрастет на планете в более чем два раза к 2050 году (до 2,1 миллиарда), и в три раза — к 2100 году (до 3,1 миллиарда). В 2017 году количество жителей планеты в возрасте 60 лет и старше достигло 962 миллионов человек, составив 13 % мирового населения. Самое большое количество лиц в возрасте 60 лет и старше проживает в Европе - 25 % (United Nations, 2017).

Складывающаяся демографическая ситуация ставит перед мировым сообществом новую проблему – пересмотреть свое отношение к старению и старости, что заставляет на национальном уровне активизировать усилия в поиске адекватных мер поддержки и реабилитации людей «третьего возраста». Согласно рекомендациям крупнейших международных организаций (ООН, ВОЗ и др.), в основе всей современной социальной работы с людьми старшего поколения должно стать не только обеспечение удовлетворения их потребностей как особой социальной группы населения, но и раскрытие положительного потенциала, который при благоприятных условиях будет способствовать сохранению активного долголетия. Успешная социализация пожилых людей имеет важнейшее значение для развития и самореализации, оказывая влияние не только на качество жизнедеятельности этой категории граждан, но и всего социума, частью которого они являются.

Таким образом, успешная социализация лиц «третьего» возраста, обеспечение их естественного «вращения» в быстро изменяющийся социальный мир, представляет собой актуальную проблему.

Одним из центральных направлений решения данной проблемы является обеспечение условий для получения пенсионерами сведений об изменяющемся мире на системной основе, то есть использование образовательного ресурса. Так, в США пожилые люди могут пройти обучение на специальных отделениях в университетах, в Европе существуют самостоятельные университеты для обучения пожилых или специальные программы в Высших народных школах, а так же развита сеть неформального образования в виде кружков, консультационных пунктов, клубов встреч и др. В современной России, хотя и растет понимание специфики роли пожилых людей в обществе, однако система образования пожилых людей пока еще не создана.

Поэтому целью данного исследования стало обоснование социально-педагогической модели непрерывного образования лиц позднего возраста, отвечающего их потребностям.

Предмет исследования – форма и содержание непрерывного образования пожилых людей с целью сохранения их активности и обогащения внутриличностного потенциала.

Задачи исследования – разработка инновационной программы неформального дополнительного образования пожилых людей, ее апробация и проверка эффективности.

Методы исследования – моделирование и естественный педагогический эксперимент.

## **Обзор** *Overview*

Проблема старости всегда была одной из центральных в мировоззрении людей разных времен и народов. Однако систематические психолого-педагогические исследования развития пожилого человека стали появляться лишь во второй половине XX века. Зарубежные ученые обосновали концепции адаптации, компетентности и ресурсный подход к личности в позднем периоде жизни (Baltes, 1984; Lehman, 1953; Rosow, 1974 и др.). Российские исследователи описали старость и старение в рамках теории геронтогенеза (Ананьев, 1968), теории жизненного пути (Абульханова-Славская, 1991; Анцыферова, 2006), концепции целостности и устойчивости личности пожилого человека (Краснова & Лидерс, 2002) и др.

Несмотря на разнообразие научно-исследовательских подходов, большинство авторов основываются на том, что социальная ситуация развития пожилого человека в первую очередь связана с его отходом от активного участия в производственной деятельности и изменением социальных ролей и функций. Это требует от него переосмысления ценностей, осознания нового отношения к себе со стороны окружающих, а значит и перестройки сознания, поиска новых путей для реализации своей активности и накопленного опыта.

Согласно рекомендациям Генеральной Ассамблеи ООН основными принципами разработки практических мер в пользу пожилых выступают реализация внутреннего потенциала, достоинство, независимость, участие, а именно:

- пожилые люди имеют право на справедливое обращение независимо от возраста, пола и расовой или этнической принадлежности или иного статуса;
- лица пожилого возраста должны быть по-прежнему вовлечены в жизнь общества, активно участвовать в разработке и осуществлении политики, непосредственно затрагивающей их благосостоянии, и делиться своими знаниями и опытом с представителями молодого поколения;

- пожилые люди должны иметь доступ к возможностям общества в области образования, культуры, духовной жизни и отдыха, в частности, иметь возможность участвовать в программах образования и профессиональной подготовки.

Таким образом, на первый план выдвигается идея обучения на протяжении всей жизни «от колыбели до могилы», предложенная еще средневековым философом и педагогом Яном Амосом Каменскими ставшая основой современной концепции под названием Lifelong Learning (LLL). Эта концепция непрерывного, добровольного поиска новых знаний приобретает особое значение в пожилом возрасте, обеспечивая активность и развитие личностного потенциала через обращение к своим интересам и увлечениям.

### **Описание исследования** *Research methodology*

С целью реализации принципа непрерывного обучения взрослых в условиях одного из полиэтнических регионов России учеными-педагогами Марийского государственного университета была разработана концепция и модель образовательной программы «Университет третьего возраста» (УТВ). С 2012 года модель начала реализовываться как естественный педагогический эксперимент по апробации инновационной программы неформального дополнительного образования пожилых людей, проживающих в столице Республик и Марий Эл городе Йошкар-Оле.

Согласно ведущим принципам непрерывного образования, авторская концепция основана на открытости обучения для всех желающих, достигших пенсионного возраста, и добровольности, т.е. личной мотивации и ответственности за обучение. Важнейшими особенностями нашей концепции обучения пожилых людей являются:

- ориентация на потребности (учет запросов обучающихся и коррекция тематических модулей программы);
- безопасность образовательного пространства и процесса обучения (обучение проводится в условиях государственного университета с соблюдением обязательных требований безопасности, гигиены и прочих);
- диалог и партнерство в обучении взрослых (не «меня учат», а «я учусь с другими и делюсь своим опытом»);
- последовательность в содержании и в изложении (возможность обучения в течение нескольких лет по разным тематическим

модулям и переходов от начального к продвинутым уровням их освоения);

- обучение действием (освоение практических компетенций с последующей рефлексией);
- воздействие на сознание и чувства (обращение к имеющемуся у обучающихся опыту, его «включенность» в процесс обучения);
- работа в команде и малых группах (коллективные задания и дела).

Модель УТВ включает четыре основных направленности обучения: обучение знаниям, обучение умениям, обучение взаимодействию с другими людьми (разрешение конфликтов, развитие коммуникативных навыков, социализация, толерантность к иным культурам и так далее) и саморазвитие.

Общая картина образовательных услуг, предоставляемых пожилым людям в рамках описываемой модели дополнительного образования в форме УТВ за пять лет отражена в таблице 1.

Таблица 1. Сведения о количественном составе слушателей «Университета третьего возраста» по модулям обучения

Table 1 The quantity of students of the "Third Age University" in the modules of training

Название модуля программы	Количество обучающихся по учебным годам				
	2012-2013 уч.г.	2013-2014 уч.г.	2014-2015 уч.г.	2015-2016 уч.г.	2016-2017 уч.г.
Возрождение: основы духовно-нравственной культуры	37	37	48	31	26
Семейная академия: психолого-педагогические основы взаимодействия с детьми и внуками	33	39	12	23	22
Основы компьютерной грамотности	40	237	200	138	81
ИКТ-пользователь	-	-	80	13	39
Пилатес	-	37	53	114	88
Английский язык, 1 год обуч., с «0»	-	-	-	-	30
Английский язык, 1 год обучения	-	25	24	38	22
Английский язык, 2 год обучения	-	-	9	23	30
Немецкий язык, 1 год обучения	-	8	19	22	9
Немецкий язык, 2 год обучения	-	-	-	-	12
Восточные танцы, 1 год обучения	-	10	24	19	15
Восточные танцы, 2 год обучения	-	-	10	49	28
Восточные танцы, 3 год обучения	-	-	-	-	16
Авторская песня	-	-	20	26	12



Сад-огород: основы приусадебного хозяйства	38	47	51	53	23
Хоровое пение	-	17	19	33	22
Художественная фотография, 1-й год обучения	-	15	26	-	-
Художественная фотография, 2-й год обучения	-	-	5	-	-
Народный управдом	-	-	40	-	-
Актёрское мастерство	-	21	36	18	16
Шахматы	-	-	13	20	24
Изобразительное искусство с основами художественного мастерства, 1-й год обучения	-	19	26	59	35
Изобразительное искусство с основами художественного мастерства, 2-й год обучения	-	-	15	17	31
Бисероплетение	-	-	-	-	21
Кукольных дел мастер	-	-	-	-	20
Ландшафтный дизайн	-	-	-	75	53
Цветоводство	-	-	-	-	36
Краеведение, 1 год обучения	-	-	-	38	60
Краеведение, 2 год обучения	-	-	-	-	11
Основы здоровья пожилого человека	-	-	-	61	56
Общее количество слушателей	148	512	705	870	838

Анализ свидетельствует об устойчивой тенденции увеличения и сохранения численности слушателей (почти в 6-7 раз по сравнению с первым годом обучения) и расширении спектра предлагаемых образовательных услуг.

Разработанная программа ежегодно корректируется в соответствии с запросами слушателей, имеющегося у них опыта и актуальных социально-экономических условий региона. Новые модули появляются по предложению самих слушателей. Ценно и то, что пенсионеры включаются в образовательный процесс не только как слушатели, но и как преподаватели (с учетом бывшей профессиональной деятельности), сами разрабатывают программы модулей и реализуют их.

Формами работы при этом являются беседы, учебные упражнения и экскурсии, тематические исследования, результаты которых представляются на итоговой конференции.

Для изучения состава слушателей «Университета третьего возраста», их образовательных потребностей и удовлетворенности процессом обучения ежегодно проводится анкетирование и опрос. Подавляющее большинство слушателей составляют женщины, на долю которых

приходится в разные годы от 89 % до 92 %. Средний возраст слушателей – 64-66 лет; самому «молодому» - 48 лет, самому «зрелому» - 84 года. Среди обучающихся преобладают люди с высшим образованием (более 62 %), остальные имеют среднее специальное образование.

Важным направлением реализации инновационной программы неформального дополнительного образования пожилых людей «Университет третьего возраста» является ежегодное изучение образовательных результатов слушателей и их удовлетворенности процессом обучения, подробный анализ которых представлен в отдельной работе (Домрачева и др., 2016). Отметим лишь, что слушатели УТВ ежегодно высоко оценивают процесс и результаты обучения, отмечая не только приобретенные знания и умения, но и личностный рост: желание совершенствоваться, общаться, расширять кругозор, использовать полученные навыки в ежедневной жизни. Шесть из десяти слушателей (60 %) отмечают, что в результате занятий у них повысилась удовлетворенность качеством жизни, по мнению 81 % обучающихся содержание образования взрослых отвечает их потребностям.

Включению слушателей в активную социальную среду помогают культурно-досуговые и событийные мероприятия: ежегодно проводятся мероприятия «Посвящение в слушатели УТВ», «Татьянин день», «Выпускной УТВ», викторина «Каждый вправе знать о праве» (совместно с Избиркомом), конкурс «Миссис «Университета третьего возраста», праздничные концерты, театральные постановки, выставки работ обучающихся и прочие. Слушатели принимают участие в ежегодной российской акции «Тотальный диктант», в конкурсе «Хоровая весна», в тематических флешмобах на городских и университетских площадках, посещают театральные премьеры, новые музейные экспозиции.

Социально-педагогическое сопровождение пенсионеров осуществляют студенты-волонтеры – они оказывают помощь слушателям в адаптации к университетской среде, помогают им на занятиях, извещают о предстоящих мероприятиях, совместно готовят материалы, в том числе электронные, участвуют в приеме и оформлении документации. Такой подход обеспечивает дополнительные возможности для приобретения молодежью практических навыков волонтерской деятельности, а также для формирования этических убеждений и понимания основ социально-педагогической деятельности.

## **Результаты** **Results**

Целью разработанной и внедренной в практику Марийского государственного университета социально-педагогической модели непрерывного образования лиц позднего возраста явилось сохранение и развитие их внутриличностного потенциала и активной жизненной позиции.

Опросы слушателей Университета третьего возраста показывают, что:

- предложенная форма обучения помогает социальной интеграции (84 % обучающихся в УТВ пенсионеров);
- содержание образования в рамках предлагаемых в УТВ тематических модулей отвечает потребностям лиц пожилого возраста (81 %);
- положительно оценивают процесс организации занятий в УТВ 83 % слушателей;
- у 52 % обучающихся в результате занятий повысилась удовлетворенность качеством жизни, при этом у четверти слушателей - существенно.

Пятилетний опыт функционирования «Университета третьего возраста» позволяет характеризовать эту структуру как новый социальный институт, уникальное сообщество лиц пожилого возраста, стремящихся к новым знаниям, ведущим активный образ жизни. Участие пожилых людей в образовательной деятельности в соответствии со своими интересами дает им приток положительных эмоций, жизненную энергию, радость общения.

## **Выводы** **Conclusions**

Образование в пожилом возрасте – инструмент социальной интеграции и сохранения жизненной активности личности через получение на системной основе актуальных знаний об изменяющемся мире. Право на образование какодно из основных прав человека не может быть ограничено по признаку возраста, что подразумевает его непрерывность и возможность продолжения в пожилом возрасте. Образование в пенсионном возрасте относится к неформальному образованию, имеющему цель персонального развития, социальной адаптации и общения людей, сохранения их активной жизненной позиции.

Университеты, обладая необходимым профессорско-преподавательским составом, материально-технической базой, являясь центром

культурной и общественной жизни регионов, могут и должны стать главными проводниками образования для пожилых людей.

### **Summary**

Senior citizens' education is a way of a person's social integration and preservation of a person's active life style through gaining knowledge about the changes in the world on the systematic basis. The right for education as a basic human right can not be limited by the person's age, which implies its continuity and the opportunity for senior citizens to get education. Education for retired people is regarded as non-formal and is aimed at senior citizens' personal development, social adaptation and communication, maintaining their active life position.

Universities have the necessary facilities and highly qualified staff, they are the cultural and social centers regions. So they can and should become the centres where senior citizens can get continuous education and training.

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## FEAR SYNDROME AND ATTITUDES TOWARDS DEATH IN YOUNGER AND OLDER FEMALES

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**Abstract.** *The author has measured attitudes regarding death and fear syndrome in a group of females of young and of old age. The results obtained via the Student's t-test reveal that older females demonstrate perceive death in the categories of value, inevitability and centrality, whereas younger females see it as tragic, absurd, mysterious and fearful.*

*Regarding the fear syndrome older females demonstrate a higher level of hidden fear (HF) and a significantly higher level of needs and desires (Q4+), while younger females – a significantly higher level of neurotic tendencies (C-).*

*The correlation between fear syndrome and attitude towards death also differentiate both examined groups. The attitude of the young females is marked mostly by fear.*

**Keywords:** *attitude to death, fear, older females, younger females.*

### Introduction

The phenomenon of death has for a long time been treated with a distance by science, although it has been present in other areas of human life: art, religion, philosophy or literature. Only in modern times more and more scientists – in particular physicians, historians, sociologists and psychologists – are becoming more and more interested in the problems of death. All that has initiated a new branch of science – thanatology (from Greek *thanatos* – death and *logos* – science), dealing with death, process of dying and the issues related to them. Due to the interdisciplinary character of thanatology, there exist several sub-branches, such as thanatopsychology, which examines the psychological aspects of death. The origins of this science should be sought in 1959 when a book, edited by H. Feifel made the path for other researchers and broke a certain taboo regarding psychology of death (Toynbee, 1973). In 1970s a number of thanatopsychological titles appeared in bookshops, of which the works by A. Toynbee (1973) or L. earson (1975) seem particularly interesting.

Thanatopsychology in Poland is still a stub, although published in Polish, too. Father Professor Józef Makselon is a pioneer-researcher dealing with that area of science in Poland. He is the also only Polish scholar examining various aspects of the phenomenon of death: fear level, attitudes towards death and the influence of various factors on them. Makselon has been examining the role of

religiousness and hierarchy of values on the attitude towards death, as well as the level of fear in various groups. Recently a few Ph.D. dissertations on that subject have appeared and father Makselon is the promoter of most of them. Sadly, Nobody besides Professor Makselon's research circle has been interested in this subject in Poland so far.

The article reports a research performed on 50 females, aged 75-80 and on 40 females, aged 20-25, using the standardized Attitudes Towards Death Questionnaire by J. Makselon, measuring the following eight dimensions of attitudes towards death: inevitability – realizing the inevitability of death, centrality – the degree of being interested in death, mystery – death as a great mystery, value – death as a spiritual value, fear – fear of death, tragedy – death as a tragic event and a reason for despair, destructivity – death as a force of destruction, absurdity – death as a negation of the meaning of life.

Another objective of the research is determining the category of fear in the examined groups, using the Polish version of the IPAT Anxiety Scale adopted by Hirszl, with the following categories: (Q3-) – laziness and dissatisfaction, (C-) – tendency to neurotic behaviour, (L+) – tendency to paranoid reaction, (C+) – sense of guilt and being uncertain of oneself, (Q4+) – tension of needs and impulses, (NJ) – explicit fear, (NU) – hidden fear, (NO) – general fear.

The author has determined the differences between the groups of older and younger females, regarding the attitudes to death and categories of fear using Student's t-test and has carried out correlational analysis between categories of death and categories of attitudes towards death separately for each group.

Prior to statistical analysis the author has discussed the problem of death in the medical, evolutionary, psychological and cultural aspect.

### **Evolution and Reproductive Success as a Justification of Ageing and Dying**

Among numerous theories explaining the phenomenon why living organisms grow older and die, the views represented by R. Baker and E. Oram (1998Ж 336-341) certainly belong to the most remarkable ones. The authors have provided two original theories explaining the phenomena of ageing and death. The first tries to explain these phenomena on the basis of accumulation of ontogenetic processes of chemical errors and mutations. In the process of cell division, both the genes inside DNA and mitochondria are being replicated, during which process some DNA code is damaged and repaired by enzymes. The enzymes' task is to “cut out” the damaged parts and to replace them with their exact copies. With time this mechanism fails to work, as chromosome ends called telomeres which actually decide of the number of divisions, are used up. There are however three types of cells, containing an enzyme, capable of repairing damaged telomeres, which eventually leads to immortality of cells. These three

types are cancer cells, eggs and sperms. The remaining cells accumulate genetic, mitochondrial and telomeric errors, which leads to senility of the body and inevitably to death.

This theory seems to contradict the theory of natural selection and makes humans protest against death, understood as the effect of accumulation of genetic errors. Death, understood in this way, is in fact an error. To untangle from that kind of thinking R. Baker and E. Oram propose to take a closer look at the life of Pacific salmons, which swim down the rivers to the Pacific Ocean. After some time they return to the place where their lives began, lay eggs and die of exhaustion. The strategy of maximization of reproductive effort is so much preserved by natural selection that contemporary salmons lose their stomachs and bowels to devote most energy for reproductive purposes. Eels obtain reproductive success in the same way.

There is a correlation between the reproductive success and death in sexual habits of mantis whose female eat male's head during copulation. The headless male goes on inseminating the female. Some spiders act in a similar way, as the male is devoured right after insemination, providing proteins for better reproductive success.

It should be noted that the mechanism like that is being used in breeding many plants, which are forced to reproduction in most extreme conditions, at the edge of life and death. Although called cultivation, it depends on cutting off branches or even whole trunks to provoke to emerging new better ones. Grains of numerous species, for example, need to survive the stage of freezing. It can be assumed, therefore, that death and reproduction are the two sides of the same formula.

Can that model of relations between ontogenesis and phylogenetics, which reigns in the kingdoms of plants and animals, be transferred onto humans? Aren't we much like Pacific salmons? B. Bettelheim (1943) describes a dramatic episode from a Nazi death camp, where people in a gas chamber – men and women, old and young, at the moment when their lives were endangered, began intensive sexual activities. Weren't the mechanism from the above formula triggered when they were facing death?

Humans, just like any other species, must reproduce. After they have their own children and have helped bring up their grandchildren they become a threat to the reproductive success. That is why they must first reduce their amount of collected resources and then get senile and die – just like the salmons.

According to R. Baker and E. Oram, the evolution theory explains well the different lifetime of males and females. Females tend to live longer (67.2 years) than males (63 years). This difference is the biggest among the humans living in Europe – 8 years, while in Asia it is just one year. The difference is certainly conditioned genetically and “programmed” by natural selection, due to the

different share in the reproductive success. But there is still another explanation for the different lifetime of both sexes. The shorter expected lifetime of males may be caused by a bigger accumulation of genetic errors and by a smaller capability of repairing them. Females, on the other hand, characterize with a higher repairing ability level and lower tendency of mutation. Natural selection uses the mechanisms which take place during cell division, thus controlling the repair and mutation coefficients in order to maximize the reproductive success. Senility and death are nothing but a means to achieve it.

### **Death Fear as a Source of Neurasthenic Symptoms and Personality Defensive Mechanisms**

Thanatologists (Gorer, 1965; Wass & Corr, 1982; Feifel, 1977) agree that fear is the most frequent emotion caused by death. There are different types of death fear. The analysis by B. Hołyst (1999) distinguishes the following subtypes of death fear: generalized fear, fear of the body decomposition, of loneliness, of shame, of the loss of social roles or of possessed property.

Another type of death fear is the fear of the loss of one's identity, i.e. the fear of annihilation. Still another is the anticipation of the effects of one's own death on those who will be left, as well as the fear of the unknown. People often experience the fear of the death of others, in particular those who are dear to them and whose loss brings despair and suffering.

Modern civilization, particularly the American and Western European culture promote a success-oriented lifestyle, thus triggering egoistic, egocentric, hedonistic and instrumental attitudes, leading to the lack of acceptance of death as the main obstacle in achieving happiness. This makes the fear of death and dying even stronger.

The problems concerning death are reluctantly verbalized and therefore realized, as they carry fear reactions. Thoughts about one's own death are pushed deep into subconsciousness and the whole lifestyle frequently shows symptoms of reducing the level of that fear. Among numerous defence mechanisms and symptoms, these most often encountered include negation, annulation, rationalizing, compulsion, hysteria or phobia.

### **Culture and Death**

Wolfgang Sofsky (1996), a sociology professor at the University of Göttingen, Germany maintains that a dream of immortality is an illusion. The desire to endure suffering comes out of the hope of not passing away. The culture, according to him, is nothing but a futile effort to live after life. It stems from the same roots as the absolute force –from the megalomania of survival. Human work



in its biggest part is a hopeless struggle with the destiny. The results can be heroic, sometimes ridiculous, but most often tragic. Culture demands forgetting what cannot be forgotten, to contradict what every human is destined for. The man himself is an illusion, the only living creature aware of his death. He is the only one who knows that he must die someday and this certainty overshadows all his life. He is infected with death fear. He must pretend he will not die to go on living. He cheats himself in order to survive. This is what culture is for. Since humans know they are mortal, they keep being busy with shaping their lives, filling them with a form and a meaning. They look for a life which will let them forget of death and which will not be destroyed by a thought of its meaninglessness – a life which will fill in the feeling of emptiness. Culture gives a prescription how to get rid of death fear. It promises a future which humans will never taste.

A broad spectrum of human ontogenetic activities contains several strategies of how to achieve eternity. During the ontogenetic process humans take advantage of cultural security created in phylogenetics. Ritualizing the defensive mechanisms may take up the form of religious practices, whereas any attributions or rationalizing manifest themselves in philosophical views and literary works (Lipiński, 2003, 2004).

In order to exemplify that, it is enough to have a look at the way how philosophy and religion attempt to reduce the fear of death. Despite substantial differences, the attitude to death in most religions has a common feature –an attempt to familiarize it. All religious systems refer to death with respect and solemnity. Funeral rituals express respect to the dead and make those who survive think about the meaning of death and the meaning of life.

**Christianity** treats death as a consequence of the first humans' disobedience to God- *“But of the tree of the knowledge of good and evil, thou shalt not eat of it: for in the day that thou eatest thereof thou shalt surely die”* (Gen. 2,17). The life is therefore not an autonomous value, but dependent on the will of God, who can take it back at any time. In the Old Testament the life is the supreme value and death is perceived as a great tragedy *“For to him that is joined to all the living there is hope: for a living dog is better than a dead lion”* (Eccles. 9,4). Jesus Christ brings the hope to regain immortality and eternal life in the presence with God. His death on the cross was the necessary condition wipe away with the primal sin.

**Rabbinical (Talmudic) Judaism** initially anticipated human resurrection and in this aspect it was close to Christianity. It assumed that death was only a stop on the way of the soul to “Olam haba”. On the last day the dead would rise from their graves and during the Final Judgment they would either find themselves in the paradise (Olam haba) or would go to the land of eternal suffering (Gahanna). Rabbinical Judaism makes its confessors visit the fatally ill, confess on the death bed and mourn. Then it split into two schools: the mystical and the

scholastic. The mystical school recognized death as an indefinite demonical power. The scholastics announced that at the moment of death the man approaches God thanks to the knowledge acquired during earthy life. Intellect and intelligence would be the basic components of the soul.

Contemporary Judaism relates the quality of death to the quality of life and thus postulates to live a life in a worthy way. One should take care of one's own body as it is the place where the soul dwells. Thus anything that may be harmful and prevents body improvement is prohibited. Suicide, abortion, cremation, euthanasia and cloning are forbidden (Tokarczyk, 2002).

Death in **Buddhism** is closely related to the idea of reincarnation. Subsequent incarnations of an individual aim at getting liberated from the power of urges and needs. Individuals are eternal as long as they are not free from their desires, i.e. until they reach the nirvana. Then the individual is no longer a subject to further incarnations. The chain of incarnations continues as long as desires and spiritual ignorance govern the man. Reaching the nirvana is possible only through human existence. The nirvana is a state higher and more splendid than heaven and God. No one gets there either as a person or a soul, but only as a nonexistence, and as Buddha has already reached the nirvana, he no longer exists, so any prayers to him are meaningless. "A real saint is the one who desires neither death nor life" (Toynbee, 1973).

Immortality means the lack of peace of mind; this is why Buddhism has rejected in soul, which is the synonym of the desire for immortality. The necessary condition to reach the nirvana is getting rid of any desires, including that for immortality. The Buddhist doctrine of reincarnation assumes immortality through subsequent embodiments, but the final objective is to go beyond immortality. That is why in the nirvana there is no death and no life alike. In Buddhism there is no belief in a Creator – Supreme God, whereas the evil is personified by Mara – a figure that "causes death" and makes the way to the nirvana more difficult. Mara – the counterpart of Christian Satan causes death and evokes wishes, temptations and desires. Buddha was able to overcome Mara through meditation. This is why every Buddhist should meditate about death and in this way defeat Mara (Tokarczyk, 2002).

The inevitability of death makes Buddhist tradition encourage meditation in the way expressed by E. Conze: "If you made any plans that do not take into account the inevitability of death, you must make an effort to reject them, as if they were a pest. You may not count on life even for a moment, for time, like a hidden tiger is waiting to attack you". In Buddhism death is the source of all calamities of human life, but you must accept it as the main symbol of fragility of human desires and hopes. Despite that you should neither be afraid of death, nor miss it. Only the one, who is not afraid of death and does not want it, will achieve

eternity. Only an attitude like this makes reaching the nirvana possible (Toynbee, 1973).

In **Hinduism**, despite the multitude of schools and cults, the views on death look similar in practically all its versions. Just like in Buddhism, also Hinduism accepts reincarnation as the main religious dogma. Early Hinduism assumed entering of souls to the world of gods, although that excluded reincarnation. Recently, more and more popular is the view that the ultimate goal of the man is to join the Absolute and to prevail over individual identity, thanks to which the man becomes a god himself (Tokarczyk, 2002).

The yoga system presents an interesting view regarding death and redemption. A soul, liberated from physical and mental states exists alienated from anything and neutral to the matter (Wilowski, 2000).

In the religions of the east liberation from death, identified with the circle of incarnations does not depend on faith or trust in God, like in Christianity, but on one's own asceticism, effort and meditation. After someone's death the community has to cremate the body. Cremation provides purification of the body, made impure in life. The ashes should be scattered over the holy River Ganges. Only upon that is possible to overcome death.

The Hindu mythology assumes that god Shiva is both the creator and the destructor of the world. That particular dichotomy symbolizes the fact that the good and the evil have the same roots. The way to overcome death is to go beyond them both. It happens in senility, when there are no longer obligations to children and family. Then the human becomes a wandering ascetic and goes beyond what is good or bad. It is possible because Shiva is both the Time that brings death and the Yogi that overcomes it (Toynbee, 1973).

Besides the cult of Shiva there is also the cult of Vishnu, in which the victory over death depends on the trust in God. The cult of Vishnu rejects any form of violence or killing, and says that the humans cannot be killed as they are endowed with a soul which is immortal (Tokarczyk, 2002).

**Taoism** and **Confucianism** are the main religions of China. Both religions have their roots in Buddhism and in some aspects they are similar. Still, they are different, too, as both appeared as a reaction to Buddhism. In Taoism the key word is "Tao" meaning "the way" and understood as the principle governing the world. Only wise men follow "the way," thus becoming a part of it, which in some way gives them eternity and immortality. Being in a union with Tao guarantees freedom from the problems of life and death. The one who has properly understood it spends time on physical exercises and meditating. This helps live in a harmony with the rules of the universe, far from human desires and weaknesses. With time, the desire to gain eternal life transforms into the wish to achieve the old age and existence after death. Thanks to this Taoism has contributed to the development of medicine, for as a religious dogma, it treats illness and suffering

as a sin ant tries to overcome any dysfunctions of human body (Toynbee, 1973).Confucianism announces that death is a natural solution to all human problems. Death is a separation of the soul from the body and at the same time it commences a contact with the dead ancestors in heaven or hell, depending on the merit or sins in the earthly life. After death the soul lives on and the body returns to its origin i.e. to the space (Tokarczyk, 2002).

**Japanese religion (Nenbutsu-shū)** – just like in China, also Japan was under the influence of Buddhism, but also there emerged religious movements modifying its main principles. Nenbutsu was the first branch of Buddhism which rejected celibacy and promised salvation to anyone who said prayers containing the name of Buddha, which was the only way to cross the threshold of the afterlife. Shintoism was another religious current in Japan. Early Shintoism did not look deep into the issues of the afterlife. It only assumed that after death the dead go to the inferior underground kingdom and only those few who had enjoyed prestige and social respect enjoyed the privilege of finding themselves in heaven (Tokarczyk, 2002).

### **Objective of Research, Examined Groups and Measurement Tools**

The objective of the research is to determine the differences in particular dimensions of death, measured with the Attitudes to Death Inventory (ADI) by J. Makselon on the group of younger females and of older females, using the Student's t-test. Another objective is an attempt to find a correlation between particular death dimensions and particular categories of fear.

The examined group included 50 females, aged 75-80 and another group of 40 females, aged 20-25. The research took place in Łódź, Poland in 2016.

Three psychometrically correct techniques were applied for measurement:

1. Attitudes to Death Inventory (ADI) by J. Makselon. The author assumes that in Poland so far there has been no psychometrically correct method of examining attitudes to death and the methods applied in other countries most often examine only some selected aspects and regard another cultural environment, so he has decided to develop his own inventory, including three basic methods of data collecting: scale, questionnaire and statement ending (Makselon, 1983).

Only the first part of the inventory was applied in our research, i.e. a scale composed of 33 statements covering eight dimensions: 1. inevitability – degree of realizing the inevitability of death (I); 2. Centrality – degree of being interested in the fact of death (C); 3. Mystery – perceiving death as a great mystery (M); 4. Value – perceiving death as a spiritual value (V); 5. Fear – terrorof death (F); 6. Tragedy – death as a tragic event, causing despair (T); 7. Destruction – death as a destructive power (D); 8. Absurdity – death as a rejection of the meaning of life (A).

2. The Polish translation of R. B. Cattell's IPAT Anxiety Scale, translated and adapted by Hirszi (1974), intended to measure fear reaction. It is a part of a larger personality inventory, developed also by Cattell to measure 16 bipolar factors, called personality dimensions and denoted A, B, C, E, F, G, H, I, L, M, N, O, Q<sub>1</sub>, Q<sub>2</sub>, Q<sub>3</sub> and Q<sub>4</sub>.

To the factors measuring fear belong the negative pole of Q<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup>, denoting the dissatisfaction of oneself, the negative pole C<sup>-</sup>, denoting the tendency to a neurotic conduct, the positive pole L<sup>+</sup>, denoting the tendency to paranoid reactions, the positive pole C<sup>+</sup>, denoting the sense of guilt and lack of certainty and the positive pole Q<sub>4</sub><sup>+</sup>, denoting a high level of needs and impulses. Additionally, the Cattell's questionnaire measures the so-called public fear (PF), hidden fear (HF) and general fear (GF) (Siek, 1983).

### Results

Table 1 Differences between old (OF) and young (YF) females regarding attitude to death

	OF M	YF M	t	df	P	O N	YF N	OF Q	YF Q
Tragic	5.5	<b>6.2</b>	-4.	88	P<0.05	50	40	1.0	0.4
Value	<b>5.6</b>	5.2	3.	88	P<0.05	50	40	0.6	0.5
Inevitability	<b>5.6</b>	5.4	2.	88	P<0.05	50	40	0.7	0.4
Destruction	5.3	5.6	-2.	88	n/s	50	40	1.0	0.8
Centrality	<b>3.4</b>	2.5	6.	88	P<0.05	50	40	0.8	0.6
Absurdity	4.9	<b>5.3</b>	-2.	88	P<0.05	50	40	1.1	0.7
Mystery	4.9	<b>5.6</b>	-3.	88	P<0.05	50	40	1.3	0.5
Fear	5.2	<b>6.2</b>	-6.	88	P<0.05	50	40	1.0	0.4

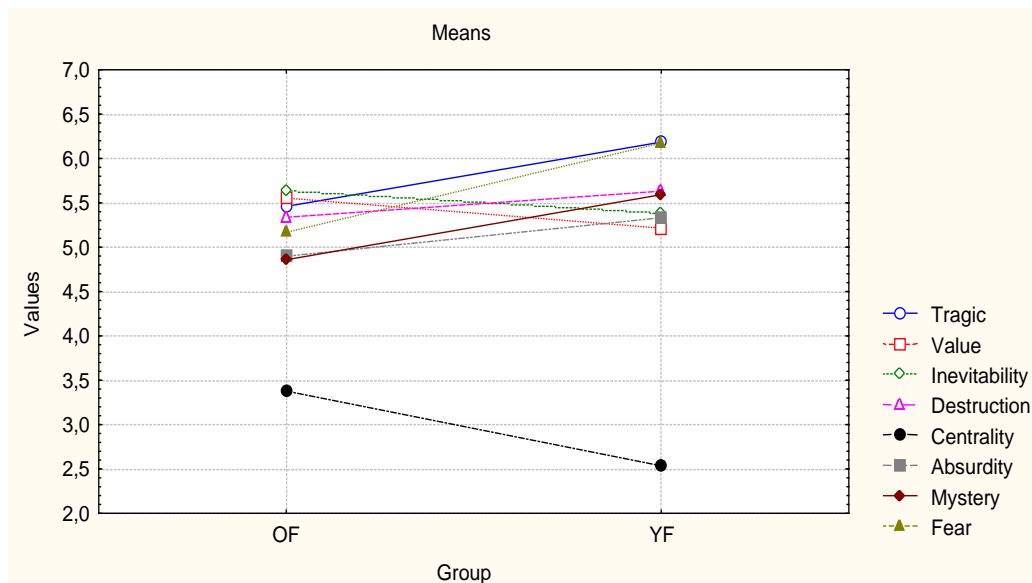


Figure 1. Average attitudes to death in the group of older (OF) and younger (YF) females

### Results of the Comparative Analysis Regarding Attitude to Death

- Older females demonstrate a significantly higher level of the value, inevitability and centrality attitudes to death.
- Younger females demonstrate a significantly higher level of the tragic, absurdity, mystery and fear attitudes.
- The level of the destructive attitude is comparable in both groups.

Table 2 Differences between old (OF) and young (YF) females regarding fear syndrome

	M/OF	M/YF	t	df	P	N/OF	N/YF	Q/OF	Q/YF
HF	18.7	19.4	-0.9	88	n/s	50	40	3.9	3.9
PF	<b>15.5</b>	12.1	3.5	88	P<0.05	50	40	3.9	5.01
GF	6.1	5.7	2.0	88	n/s	50	40	1.1	1.3
Q <sub>3</sub> -	5.3	5.3	0	88	n/s	50	40	1.3	1.5
C-	4.7	<b>6.8</b>	-5.0	88	P<0.05	50	40	1.9	2.1
L+	6.8	6.3	1.0	88	n/s	50	40	1.8	1.6
O+	6.1	5.6	2.0	88	n/s	50 <td 40	1.3	1.4	
Q <sub>4</sub> +	<b>7.9</b>	6.0	6.0	88	P<0.05	50	40	1.5	1.7

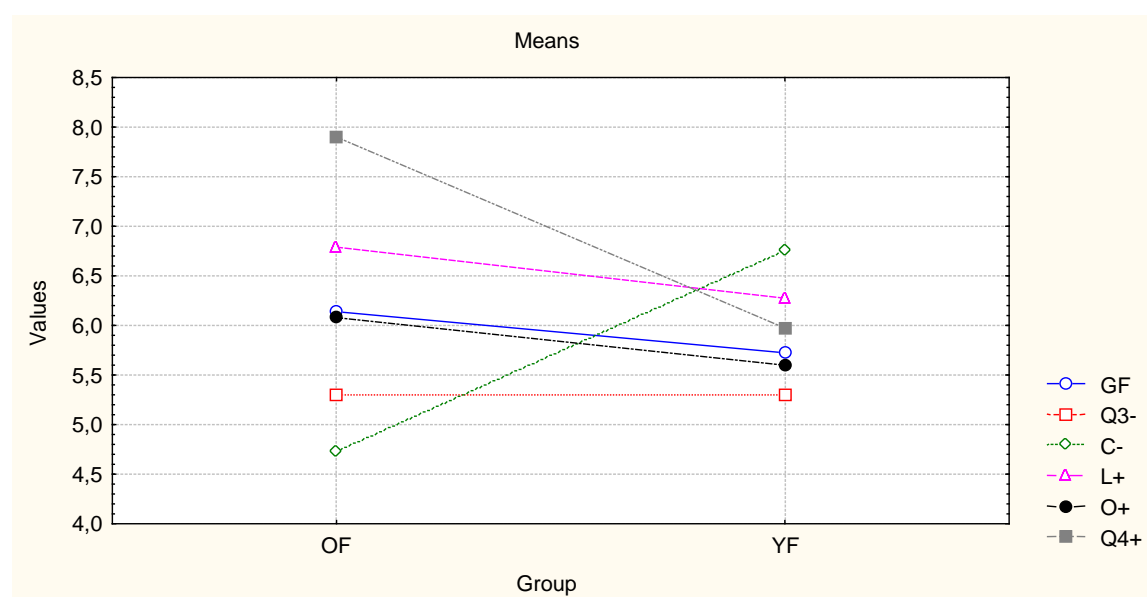


Figure 2. Average score of fear syndrome in the group of older (OF) and younger (YF) females

### Results of the Comparative Analysis Regarding Fear Syndrome

- Older females demonstrate a significantly higher level of public fear and higher ergic tension (upper end of high).
- Younger females demonstrate a significantly higher level of neurotic conduct (lower end of high).

- The compared groups do not differ in a statistically significant way, regarding public and general fear, self-estimation, paranoid behaviour and sense of guilt.

Table 3 **Fear syndrome and attitude to death coefficients in the group of younger females (YF) \* denotes p<0,05**

	HF	PF	GF	Q <sub>3-</sub>	C-	L+	O+	Q <sub>4+</sub>
Tragic	-0.15	-0.06	-0.12	-0.25	-0.11	0.07	-0.13	0.08
Value	0.19	-0.02	0.08	0.01	<b>0.30*</b>	0.04	-0.08	0.04
Inevitability	-0.22	0.21	0.02	-0.10	0.07	0.04	0.05	0.02
Destruction	<b>0.34*</b>	0.16	<b>0.30*</b>	0.09	0.09	<b>0.30*</b>	<b>0.40</b>	0.14
Centrality	-0.05	-0.09	-0.09	-0.17	-0.12	-0.12	-0.04	0.10
Absurdity	<b>0.34*</b>	-0.01	0.18	0.20	<b>0.35*</b>	0.06	0.06	-0.07
Mystery	0.10	-0.21	-0.09	0.02	-0.13	-0.09	-0.07	-0.05
Fear	-0.08	-0.25	-0.21	-0.03	-0.10	-0.02	-0.07	<b>-0.40 *</b>

Table 4 **Fear syndrome and attitude to death coefficients in the group of older females (OF) \* denotes p<0,05**

	HF	PF	GF	Q <sub>3-</sub>	C-	L+	O+	Q <sub>4+</sub>
Tragic	0.20	0.03	0.15	0.11	0.03	0.11	0.07	0.11
Value	0.01	0.03	0.03	0.06	-0.16	-0.01	0.10	0.05
Inevitability	0.05	0.23	0.19	0.15	0.05	0.14	0.05	0.16
Destruction	0.01	0.12	0.09	<b>0.30*</b>	-0.14	0.08	-0.02	0.06
Centrality	-0.12	0.13	0.00	0.13	-0.07	0.09	-0.08	-0.02
Absurdity	0.06	-0.27	-0.14	0.02	0.10	-0.02	<b>-0.40*</b>	-0.08
Mystery	0.10	0.13	0.15	<b>0.30*</b>	0.03	0.10	0.10	-0.03
Fear	0.09	-0.00	0.06	0.13	0.02	0.07	0.04	-0.05

- In the group of older females only three statistically significant coefficients were found, i.e. the positive correlation between the level of self-dissatisfaction with the destructive (9 % variance) and mystery aspects of death and negative correlation between the sense of guilt and absurdity of death (16 % variance).
- In the group of younger females there were found many more statistically significant correlations between fear and attitude to death. A positive correlation was found between hidden fear and the destructive and absurd aspects of death (11.56 % variance per each), between general fear and the destructive aspect (9 %), between neuroticism and the destructive aspect (9 %) and death absurdity (9 %), between the sense of guilt and the destructive aspect (16 %) and the negative correlation between ergic tension and death terror (16 %).

- The aspect mostly motivated by fear is the destructive one correlated with hidden fear, paranoid behaviour and sense of guilt, and then comes the absurdity of death, correlated with hidden fear and neuroticism.

## Conclusions

The comparative analysis of attitudes towards death points out to the fact that the older females demonstrate a more central attitude to it, respecting its inevitability and value. For the younger females death seems absurd, tragic, fearful and mysterious.

The analysis of fear in the examined groups shows that older females demonstrate a high level of explicit fear and a strong tension of needs and impulses. The younger females demonstrate significantly higher fear level of neurotic character.

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## REDUCING SOCIAL EXCLUSION IN EDUCATION: A CONCEPTION OF ALL DAY SCHOOLING

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**Abstract.** *Growing disproportion between different social groups, migration, unemployment, busyness of parents, not safe outside environment – there are just few general aspects of social life that influence concept and organization of all day schools. The purpose of the article is to analyse the possibilities of decreasing social exclusion in education by implementing all day school conception. In order to achieve research goal, secondary data analysis was done by applying multi stage sample. Research data shows that all day school phenomenon is not new in European education. States have to deal with inequalities in social life and education – to minimize learning results gaps, to compensate shortage of social skills, to prevent risky behaviour, to ensure safe environment and care at school and use all day school model as the mean to face these challenges. All day schools have purpose to serve as best as possible to students and their families by providing individual help, using benefits of longer time at school, specialists supervisions, community support. Social life realities and unique contexts form not unified models of all day school.*

**Keywords:** *all day school, family, social exclusion, student.*

### Introduction

Social exclusion is a complex phenomenon which is influenced by social, economic, political and cultural assumptions (Witcher, 2003). The definition of social exclusion was approved in 1989 by European Commission and after that it was widely used in EU, USA and other countries (Dumbliauskienė & Braukylaitė, 2010). Social exclusion is described as stigmatization and marginalization of certain groups in society by such characteristics as social, economic status, race, gender, disability, etc. (Hill, Davis, Prout, & Tisdall, 2004; Snowdon, 2012). M. Taljūnaitė (2001, 2004) states that it is a process during which individuals or groups are isolated from the main social resources in community or society in general. M. Ališauskienė et al. (2015) adds that social exclusion prevents people

from possibility to have minimal quality of life, leads to unsafety, non-confidence, psychological and social discomfort.

Though ratified international declarations<sup>1</sup> forbid any restrictions of education by gender, race, ethnicity, language, religion, political attitudes, social-economic status, disability and attitudes, scientific research proves that social exclusions still exists in educational system (Diaz, 2010; Nowicki, Brown, & Stepien, 2013). According to UNESCO (Addressing Exclusion in Education, 2012) social exclusion in education manifests not only as non-attendance of the school but also as no possibilities to involve in formal and non-formal educational programmes, not enough money for tuition fees, impossibility to attend a school because of language barriers, etc. Various research show that social exclusion in education leads to worse academic achievements; high drop out rate, low socialization and other challenges (Macrae, Maguire, & Melbourne, 2003; Honey, Emerson, & Llewellyn, 2011; Lynch & Baker, 2005; Machin, 2006; Woessmann & Schütz, 2006; Nicaise, 2012).

Globalizations processes during last twenty years affected educational policy all over Europe – most of the countries underwent reforms of educational systems (Steiner-Khamsi & Waldow, 2012). These reforms relate to welfare society principles, one of which is to ensure right to education for everyone (Bolívar, 2012). Welfare society emphasise close interconnection between educational policy and global economy (Pöder, Kerem, & Lauri, 2013) as changes of occupational models and family structures influence that many families are not able any more to ensure children safety and care after lessons end; children after school are left alone without any guidance (Armstrong & Armstrong, 2004). In this context the most vulnerable groups become children from single, divorced, migrant, poor families (Pfeifer & Holtappels, 2008). Free after school time also has close relation with emotional and behavioural problems, drug abuse, delinquency (Armstrong & Armstrong, 2004).

In order to address these challenges, all day school conception has been actively promoted and realized during past decades in EU countries. This concept relates to attempts to guarantee children welfare and equal possibilities for academic success, to decrease social inequalities and exclusion. Among such countries Germany, Greece, Finland, Slovakia, England and Portugal could be mentioned. Leaders of education policy define the conception of all day school as a reasonable means which ensures children equal right to education and support

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<sup>1</sup> UNESCO Convention against Discrimination in Education (1960), International Covenant on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights (1966), International Covenant on Civil and Political Rights (1966), International Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Racial Discrimination (1965), Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination against Women (1979), Convention on the Rights of the Child (1989), International Convention on the Protection of the Rights of All Migrant Workers and Members of Their Families (1990), Convention on the Rights of Persons with Disabilities (2006).

(Pfeifer & Holtappels, 2008; Den Besten, 2010; Reh, Rabenstein, & Fritzsche, 2011). All day school model is implemented in West, South and East Europe, but its implementation differs by school types, forms, etc. Even definitions, titles, descriptions of all day school vary from country to country. Such variety is determined by different countries' needs and contexts, different ways of school's life organization and implementation. Differences exist not only in separate countries, but also in schools of the same country. The variety of experiences makes relevant to investigate the all day school conception implementation in foreign countries, revealing its advantages and challenges.

**The purpose** of the article is to analyse the possibilities of decreasing social exclusion in education by implementing all day school conception. **Object of the research:** implementation of all day school conception. **Main research questions are:** how all day school is defined in various countries? How implementation of all day school conception helps to reduce social exclusion in education?

**Research methodology.** In order to achieve research goal, secondary data analysis was done by applying multi stage sample. In the first stage countries were chosen according to these criteria: experience of all day school conception implementation, availability of information resources in the English, German and/or Finish languages. Five countries were chosen for analysis: England, Greece, Germany, Finland and Portugal. In the second stage – information resources inside countries were selected. Key words such as *school day*, *full day school*, *prolonged school day*, *longer school day*, *integrated school day* were entered in search systems. The found resources were sorted according to their validity. Data analysis of selected resources was based on interdisciplinary perspective, emphasising interconnection of macro (education policy) and mezzo (implementation of the conception at schools) levels. Principles of academic and research ethics were followed: translation was accurately validated; texts were presented with full references and could be revised by others. The main research limitation is that most of the scientific resources which were selected for content analysis are in English, German or Finish languages.

### **Implementation of all day schooling conception in the context of reducing social exclusion**

Generally all day school is understood as a regular school with prolonged in time curriculum and non-formal activities, which last till certain afternoon hours. After analysis of selected countries' experience it could be said that conception of all day school differs according to country cultural, socioeconomic and political context, education traditions.

All day school is helpful for all children, because of possibility to have additional attention and support from teachers; to have more flexible timetable; to

involve in interesting projects and activities, to nurture individual hobbies and even try on different professions, jobs, specialities. But such school is especially meaningful for those, who are less advanced in academic achievements, and are from lower socioeconomic status and/or immigrant families. Socio-pedagogical support for families, possibility for combining work and family life are mentioned as the biggest advantages of the conception in all researched countries (Merfeldaitė, Pivorienė, Penkauskienė, & Railienė, 2017). But each country makes emphasis on certain specific aspects due to its unique context.

England is in its secondary education reform process, which is outcome of Deregulation act (2015). Schools have been named academies with more autonomic decisions on their own part. They can choose how to organize their educational process, including allocation of time for teaching and learning activities during school day. More flexible organization of school life started even earlier (The changing of school session times regulations, 2011). Around 50 % state and 70-80 % private schools used freedom of autonomic decision and prolonged school day in 2014 (Briggs & Simons, 2014).

House of Commons Education Committee (2014a) associates longer school day with space and time to do homework and get additional pedagogical support for children with lower socio-economical background. The same Committee in its later report (House of Commons Official Report, 2016) expanded value of longer school day by suggestion to include attractive, free of charge sport activities. In short, all day school is understood as combination of teaching, leaning, non-formal activities and supervised individual work during prolonged time table.

Implementation of longer school day concept has been received not without ambiguity. Representatives of educational policy report about increase of children self-esteem and involvement in school activities (House of Commons Education Committee, 2014b). Public opinion, represented by media, blames government for improvidence. People lack evidence of direct correlation between education results, money spent and longer school day (Worrall, 2013; Hobby, 2014). Scientists also argue about interrelation of spent time at school and academic achievements (Mansell, 2014).

In spite of on-going debates about value of additional efforts, time and funds at overall educational level, there is almost no question about value of additional investment at certain socio-economical level. Children that used to struggle with social, economic, cultural and educational issues, after some time, spent in all day schools, perform advancement in school attendance, learning, behaviour and relationships with their fellows (Extending school time, 2017)

All day school (*oloimero*) grassroots in Greece concurred with idea of development of so called “creative classes” in 1989 (Thoidis & Chaniotakis, 2015). Parents wanted longer day school for their children not only because of safe environment and caretaking, but also because of possibility to be involved in

meaningful artistic and sports activities. Two types of schools – of obligatory and non-obligatory attendance existed in the period of 1998–2011 in Greece. Obligatory attendance meant that all children had to participate in all school activities during full day. Non-obligatory attendance meant that all children had to participate only in the first part of school day. Second part was optional – for those who wanted to do homework and to involve in creative activities. New stage of all day schools concept implementation started in 2011. It was no more strict division between obligatory and non-obligatory all day schools. School attendance became obligatory for all till 2:00 p.m., after that time – selective program for those, wishing to spend time at school till 4:00 p.m. or even longer.

Greece government has no purpose to have all day schools for a specific group of children. It declares that such schools are for all, willing to prepare for daily life and knowledge society's challenges. It means better quality of education – more time for leaning, non-formal activities (especially creative ones); for better peers' relationships and collaboration; for involvement of social partners in school life. However, such school had specific social objectives – to decrease level of private tutoring in favour of children experiencing learning difficulties; to support families by taking care for children and helping them to fulfil job and family responsibilities (Gkoratsa, 2014). Social objectives expanded during 2015–2018. Changes have to do with legal and illegal immigration in the country. Number of political and economic immigrants is growing enormously during recent years. Greece government seeks for a best as possible social and cultural inclusion of immigrants. The second part of the day provides possibility to come together different age groups and involve into cultural activities, enriching indigenous and newcomers. All day schools are seen as places of getting to know each other, to familiarize with different cultures, as places of learning to be and to coexist together.

Implementation of all day school concepts in Greece has been also interpreted differently (Gkoratsa, 2014). Parents declared satisfaction with safe environment, pedagogical support, but complained about poor, not always attractive and meeting personal interests non-formal activities. Teachers reported about more opportunities to spend time and work together, but also expressed feeling of being overtasked. Schools have more possibilities to involve social partners, but struggle with time tables, suitable for all. Social objective – to supplant or at least significantly reduce private tutoring has not been achieved. Schools lack professional pedagogical staff to support, to supervise students, especially from poor, immigrants families. Scientists suggest to use resources outside school – local community members', volunteers, retired professionals, etc. (Thoidis & Chaniotakis, 2015). But it remains challenging task in the view of current socio-economic challenges.

Portugal as well as Greece declares all day school (*Programa Escola a Tempo Inteiro*) to be all children school in spite their academic achievements, socio-economic status (Dober, Echard & Sroka, 2004; Munoz, 2005; Field, Kuczera & Pont, 2007). The main idea of such school lies in enrichment of formal curriculum. All day school has been component of Curriculum Enrichment program (Atividades de Enriquecimento Curricular, AEC), aimed at decrease of discrimination in education. It was thought that prolonged and enriched time by various non-formal education activities and early English language learning could increase level of attainment at primary school level of all children. It was also thought, that care taking could be good prevention tool for possible students misbehaviour (Magalhães & Stoer, 2002). Possibility to get as much as possible quality education, free of charge food and children care services at school was considered significant support for families. But it was not found any systemic evaluation report or comprehensive comparative research about such school impact on social inclusion in Portugal. School enrichment program evaluation research (Martins, Vale, & Mouraz, 2015) presents quite moderate data analysis about social benefits of all day school. The research reveals positive viewpoints on above mentioned social aspects in two different Porto schools only.

All day school (*ganztagsshulle*) concept various in federal lands of Germany. Different expectations and aims make difficult to come up with one single definition. Association of Day schools (Ganztagsschulverband) have suggested minimum criteria to define such school: 1) students have to spend seven hours at least three days per week; 2) students have opportunity to have lunch; 3) non-formal activities have to be conceptually tied with formal curriculum (Züchner, 2015). Not only federal government, but also separate schools have right and freedom to implement their own model of all day school. Thus duration of school time, organization of pedagogical process and additional services have very wide diapason around the country.

Social aspect of such schools have been very strongly emphasised during all periods. Grassroots of such school can be found in the beginning of XX century. Children went to school not only to learn academic disciplines, but also to acquire different technical and social skills, useful for everyday life. Such schools sometimes were called “life schools”, “places of youth culture development”, as an opposition for strict and family members distancing boarding schools (Ludwig, 2005). The other, post-war period introduced quite different tasks for all day schools. Many families struggled with everyday life challenges - to work, to find food, sometimes to find shelter. It was urgent need to provide safe environment and care for children, while their parents were working long hours. It was even thought to make such schools obligatory for all in the seven decade of XX century (Züchner, 2015).

Similar challenges have some families in our days as well. Especially in the view of political and socio- economical context – increasing migration rates, growing gap between different society’s layers (Lettau, Radisch, & Fussangel, 2016). All day school is considered as possibility for children from families having lower-economic status to get better education and individual support. Continuous research, initiated by Association of Day Schools and other bodies, as well as individual researchers, revealed that children inherit lower social status from their parents, latters – from their own parents. And that goes from generation to generation. Regular schools are not capable to make needed impact and correct so called “social peculiarities”. All day school in this context is seen as a vehicle to break up “magic circle” and, according Bourdieu, stop “circulating social inequality”. Growing number of low social status families leads to bigger problems. German government envisages danger of so called “basic deficit” of social capacities as possible loss of economical competencies in global market (Bettmer, 2007).

Social political aims of all day schools have been clearly stated. In support to them, following pedagogical arguments have been formulated (Holtappels, 2007):

1. *All day schools are integral part of social infrastructure.* They provide not only safe environment and care taking during all work day, but also supply with additional education services, that in other case parents have not been able to afford. It means that school provides full set of qualitative education in one place;
2. *All day schools expand school mission.* They are not only places of formal learning, non-formal activities and care taking. They also provide additional socio-pedagogical support for children and their families, especially those lacking basic social skills or/and experiencing personal perturbations. It means that school takes on social mission;
3. *All day schools are response to urgent educational requirements.* Today’s schools have to develop metacognitive, learning to learn and other not traditional competences. They have to deal with such issues as environment protection, healthy life style, cultural issues, unemployment and etc. It means that school has to have more time to present and discuss those issues and to teach how to meet them;
4. *All day schools nurture learning culture.* Longer school day provides opportunity to give more time for getting to know each other, to communicate, to provide individual consultations and counselling, to learn in more relaxed environment.

Above mentioned social-pedagogical arguments have been understood and positively accepted by majority of stakeholders (Rauschenbach, 2015). The research has proved that all day schools help to develop social skills, and prevent

from not desirable behaviour, help to overcome learning difficulties. However researches express concern about massification of such schools and danger to lose focus – individual needs (Appel, 2006), as well as quality of education as such (Arnoldt, Kuhn, & Züchner, 2011).

Finish model of all day school differs from above described examples by one essential principle. Finish school (*joustava koulupäivä, eheytetty koulupäivä*) is called integrated school day. It means that formal and non-formal activities are blended during whole day – from morning till late afternoon. Integrated school day is part of Mukava project, aimed at increase of students' satisfaction with school and emotional well-being (Pulkkinen, 2005). In spite of high learning results demonstrated in international arena, national research revealed quite negative approach to school of students, at age of 13-15. The researchers (Pulkkinen, 2005; Haapasalo, Välimaa, & Kannas, 2010) claim that students lack meaningful out of school, non-formal activities and in some cases suffer loneliness and feel unsafe being alone at home till late evening (Junttila, 2010). Pulkkinen (2002: 2005) emphasizes following social-pedagogical aims of integrated day school: 1) to increase feeling of safety; 2) to contribute to social-emotional development; 3) to contribute to better learning environment at school. Each student has been observed and each school day has been monitored during "Mukava" project. Such approach helped to know each student better, to overcome individual difficulties, to integrate students with risky behaviour into school community life. Integrated school day had very strong social partnership component from the very beginning of the project. Local community members, NGOs, outside non-formal education services providers have been welcomed at school. They have taken active part into implementation of school program by organizing different activities in school and outside it.

Students well-being orientated school has no specific focus on certain social groups. Integrated school welcomes all students in spite their families' social economic status, ethnicity or other traits. Such schools provide equal learning opportunities for all community members. Integrated school day advocates for pleasant and meaningful being at school. Longer brakes, possibility to rest and to involve into interesting activities create feeling of a school-home, where everyone feels safe.

National agency of education (Rajala, 2017) in its report to Estonian politicians, willing to follow neighbours' example, points out that such initiative needs patience and flexibility, strong and reliable partnerships, courage, will and energy to implement all ideas.



## Conclusions

All day school phenomenon is not new in European education. Many countries have or have tried such practises in certain periods. It is difficult to say how many, because concept of such schools vary from country to country and even inside country. Such schools have even different names – all day school, prolonged day school; longer day school, integrated school day, etc. All day schools have purpose to serve as best as possible to students and their families by providing individual help, using benefits of longer time at school, specialists supervisions, community support. “All day school for benefits of all children” – it is common declaration of all researched practices. Anyway, social life realities and unique contexts form not unified models of all day school. Growing disproportion between different social groups, migration, unemployment, busyness of parents, not safe outside environment – there are just few general aspects of social life that influence concept and organization of all day schools. Governments have to deal with inequalities in social life and education – to minimize learning results gaps, to compensate shortage of social skills, to prevent risky behaviour, to ensure safe environment and care at school. One of all day school goals is to meet social challenges and to deal with them. More unified efforts, consolidated vision and funds will be needed to reach this ambitious and still very concrete goal. Empowerment and inclusion in education process by various community resources, possibility to better ensure equal rights to afterschool activities what relates to raising children’s motivation are also defined as positive sides of all day school. Additional funding which is necessary for implementation of all day school goals in full scope and in a comprehensive way is considered to be great challenge in all researched countries.

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## **“ME – YOU”: SOCIAL PEDAGOGUE’S HELP FOR SOCIAL RISK CHILDREN IN TERMS OF INTERRELATIONSHIP**

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**Abstract.** *Social pedagogue’s help for social risk children is a relevant part of education and of our society as well in Lithuania and in the world in general. The purpose of article is to describe social pedagogue’s help for social risk children through interrelationship perspective. Every relationship between social pedagogue and social risk child has different story. But the results presented in this article show all interrelationships between these two persons have the same idea – the respectful trust or trust-based respect is necessary. Only such relationships can create conditions for the provision of professional and effective help for social risk children both in short-term and long-term perspective. Interrelationship “me – you” between school social pedagogue and social risk children is looked through the ideas of A. Lingis and M. Buber. The research is based on the phenomenological narrative perspective.*

**Keywords:** *help, social pedagogue, social risk child, phenomenology, narrative.*

### **Introduction**

The topic of social pedagogue’s help for social risk children becomes increasingly relevant, because despite the development of the society, a part of, social risk children, remains an exceedingly vulnerable group. Therefore, social pedagogy in general, and a social pedagogue in particular, faces a great task of helping these children to come back to the social life.

The origins of social pedagogy are historical, yet it can be said that as a branch of pedagogy, it has emerged not that long ago. In the global context, it is perceived rather differently. Therefore, scientific discussions about social pedagogy are oriented at answering plenty of very different questions, some of them mentioned by Ezechil (2015: p. 14):

*Is social pedagogy just a science? If YES, is it an independent science or interdisciplinary in nature?! Is social pedagogy a simple study discipline? Is social pedagogy a method? <...> Is social pedagogy only dealing with children and the young or also with adults?! Does it deal with disfavored / disadvantaged social categories or with all the population categories from the perspective of a specialized problematics?!*

Hämäläinen (2003) notices that social pedagogy as a tradition of thought and actions is older than the concept of social pedagogy, not to mention the term of social pedagogy itself. The ideological origins of social pedagogy can be traced back to the ancient Greek philosophers Aristotle and Plato. According to Hämäläinen (2012), historically, social pedagogy has emerged from an idea which advanced the process of modernisation and resulted in the new societal order, characterised by the need for education to become as an intermediary in a discrepancy between individual's autonomy and the expectations of a modern society. Even though in different countries social pedagogy is perceived rather differently, according to Mylonakou-Keke (2015), analysis of social pedagogy in the context of different world locations reveals that despite space and time, social pedagogy can be noticed to possess certain common elements governing social pedagogy's philosophy, ideology, value system, theory, methodology, areas of scientific research and practice.

As noticed by Juodytė (2009: p. 21), "social pedagogy has come close to the concept of human development as socially conditioned, yet individual-oriented process, which is in line with the essence of the principle of education formed by Comenius: for a person, the entire social life that takes place in the real world is a one large school." In the contemporary society, social pedagogy occupies a very important role both solving the existing social issues and preventing them as well. At the same time, the agents of social pedagogy, namely social pedagogues, perform functions assigned to them for the aims and goals of social pedagogy to be implemented in reality. Even though there are many definitions of social pedagogy in scientific literature, they are all very similar and over-lapping: all of them emphasise the role of social pedagogues in the process of socialisation, especially their role in facilitation processes for school students, helping their families, etc. Therefore, it can be said that the main aim of social pedagogues is comprehensive social help (in the school context, it refers to help for school students).

The role of a social pedagogue is very important working with children at social risk. According to Böhnisch and Schröer (2011), children and teenagers are the most vulnerable age groups. Therefore, the line between a child and a social risk child is sometimes a very fine one indeed.

Etzion and Romi (2015) claim that the concept of a social risk child defines a part of children population which is in a physical, psychological or spiritual peril. When speaking about problems related to children at risk Lovitt (2010: p. 317) claims:

*Thousands of children are living in stressful and dysfunctional situations. Scores of them reside in conditions replete with drugs or alcohol. Many children live in circumstances of abject poverty. Indeed, hundreds of them are homeless and live in automobiles, parks, or on streets. Other children are in situations in which*

*violence of one type or another is common. Some of these children are living with two parents, but many are with a single parent. Great numbers of children are placed with relatives (often grandparents). Yet others reside in foster homes, group homes <...>.*

According to the Social Map of Lithuania (2016b), in 2014, the rate of social risk families has been 4.73 per one thousand inhabitants of Lithuania. Moreover, according to the Social Map of Lithuania (2016a), the rate of children raised in social risk families is slightly more than 56 per one thousand children. Social pedagogue's help serves as one of the key actions applying preventive and problem-solving measures working with children at social risk. Social pedagogue's help takes place in various forms not only in Lithuania, but the entire world as well.

Leliūgienė (2003) has noted that social pedagogue is a person who usually has an opportunity to diagnose the problems of children at social risk, find solutions for the subsequent rehabilitation of such minors and decide on methods and instruments to work with them. However, studies focusing on social pedagogues in the context of the provision of socio-pedagogical help are relatively scarce. A more extensive study on this topic has been conducted by Baraldsnes and Vaškienė (2013). The said study analyses challenges faced by social pedagogues when providing socio-pedagogical help. Numerous foreign research (Kozan et al., 2014; Schuitema et al., 2016; Liu et al., 2016; Wood et al., 2017; Tian et al., 2015) focuses on the provision of social support. Klanienė and Šmitienė (2013) has noticed that there exists a lack of scientifically-based research and recommendations regarding the provision of socio-pedagogical help to social risk children. According to Klanienė and Šmitienė (2013), these studies and recommendations could form foundation offering targeted/ specific recommendations related to the effectiveness of the individual functions of a social pedagogue. Therefore, research focusing on the help of social pedagogues to children at social risk could lead to improving the situation and increasing the efficiency.

The study introduced in this article aims at describing social pedagogue's help for social risk children in terms of interrelationship. Research subject is social pedagogue's help for social risk children.

## **Methodology**

The study introduced in this article has been based on a qualitative approach, taking into consideration that its subject is oriented at human interrelationship. According to Dietrich (2011), when analysing human relationship and experiences, the aim is to reveal why and how do these phenomena take place and explain them as well, and in such case, qualitative

study is appropriate and acceptable. This study is conducted combining the narrative approach and phenomenology. According to Clandinin (2006), a narrative-based approach enables understanding how a social and a personal experience gradually intertwines as people's lives advances, because their individual experience is determined by greater social, cultural and institutional narratives that have been and still are inhabited by people. At the same, phenomenology, according to Van Manen (2014), aims at looking straight at the core of the phenomenon, describing and analysing the instantaneous experiences of people who have been exposed to such phenomena. According to Van Manen (2014), when conducting research, those who are engaged in the phenomenology of practice pose a question of *what it is*, rather than *why*? However, both the narrative and phenomenology raise some very important and relevant questions and even though the focus is not on receiving specific answers to them, they encourage thinking and analysing problems. The final text in both narrative and phenomenology does not ever mean that the final answer will be provided; it does not aim at creating practical tools and models regulating "how one *should* live" and does not develop theories that would help explaining and/ or controlling the world (Clandinin et al., 2016; Van Manen, 1990). Experts of the narrative employ collaboration and ethics in order to enable the audience to rethink, retell, take a better look into one's experience, reconsider how they operate and are related to others (Clandinin et al., 2016), why those who specialise in the phenomenology of practice analyse real-life problems as well, yet they aim at producing a comprehensive description of a phenomenon in question (Van Manen, 1990).

It is noteworthy that research data is collected by the application of the narrative. The total of nine social pedagogues have participated in the study. Seven of them have been interviewed using the narrative approach to the in-depth interview. The other two participants have provided their answers in writing. Additional material necessary for the study has been collected applying the following two methods: a structured interview and additions made in writing to participant stories, their notes and documents. The subsequent research has employed stories only by five respondents restructured into seven narratives. The article introduces fragments of the narrative from two research participants. In order to comply with the principle of confidentiality, the names of participants and children mentioned in the narratives have been changed.

Research data provided in this article is analysed applying the phenomenological approach. Even though phenomenological research usually employs short and vivid stories (anecdotes), in case of this study, it is only employed only as an analytical method that enables a more extensive analysis of narratives collected conducting this research. Therefore, stories illustrating the analysis are excerpts from the narratives on socio-pedagogical help for social



risk children that comply with requirements for narrative-based approached research.

According to Batuchina (2015) (quoting Van Manen, 1990), there are several existentials characteristic to all phenomena: lived relation, lived body, lived space and lived time. This article introduces the aspect of relationship between social pedagogues and social risk children in the context of socio-pedagogical help for social risk children.

## Results

Our relationships with each other are affected by plenty of factors and based on various feelings and aspects. However, stories told by social pedagogues reveal that the most important aspects of relationship between a social pedagogue and a social risk child (and thus the recipient of help) are respect and trust. In my opinion, respect and trust are the most important elements of any relationship. And both of them are rather hard to earn. To quote Leonardo da Vinci, respect cannot be gained through force but rather through goodness and ability to share your last morsel with the poor. It means that you cannot force a person to respect you. Respect cannot be purchased or imposed on someone. The same applies for trust. Lingis (2010: p. 87) claims that “the deepest and most profound relations are made when you trust someone and when you trust the unknown with your life.” Social pedagogues usually work with the most vulnerable children who have faced various difficulties in life and been disappointed in a lot of things and relationship with people. It is not easy to earn trust and respect of such children. Therefore, it is important to understand how social pedagogues earn trust and respect of social risk children and how such relationship develop in general.

An illustration of relationship between Dainora and Domas based on trust and respect is provided below:

*Since the very beginning of our acquaintance, he communicated with me rather willingly. At the beginning not so much maybe, but later he's understood that I am not a punishment, because social pedagogues are usually described as the punishment: "if you are bad, you will go to a social pedagogue". It is very difficult to provide help, when you are perceived as a punishment. And you must work with a child somehow, even though he or she imagines that you are just someone who chastises them. Domas has never been afraid of communicating with me. On the contrary, Domas himself has been prone to initiate the contact. A lot of depended on what kind of day it was at home. He trusted me. He never lied to me. Either he told me nothing or told things the way they were. If something happened, he would always come to me, because teachers were rather set against him because of his insolent behaviour. There used to be a lot of conflicts during the lessons because he has always been very dissatisfied with his*

*life. Maybe it has to do with his mother's death? And he used to get into conflicts with teachers. And teachers, in their turn, used to blame Domas at once if something happened. But he used to communicate with me. So always, if there is some sort of problem, he used to come and tell me about it. If something was his fault, he used to avoid me, but if someone blamed him unjustly, he used to come even before the teacher did, and told me the entire story. (Dainora)*

First of all, Dainora's story reveals that a social pedagogue usually faces obstacles when trying to earn child's trust and respect, because as Dainora stated, teachers usually describe a social pedagogue as a punishment and an executioner of sorts who imposes a sentence on a transgressed child. Naturally, children are frightened this way, and the process of earning respect and trust becomes even more complicated; as stated by Dainora, "it is very difficult to provide help, when you are perceived as a punishment." According to Lingis (2010, p. 67), "fear is fear of something unknown; it is not a simple reaction to a situation to something that turns out to be clearly dangerous." A similar idea has been expressed by Daniel Defoe: "fear of danger is ten thousand times more terrifying than danger itself". This means that fear goes side by side with the unknown. Therefore, social pedagogue who aims at earning trust and respect, first, needs to help a child to overcome the feelings of fear and uncertainty frequently experienced by social risk children and directed to the social pedagogue himself/ herself.

Once children overcome the barrier between themselves and social pedagogues, the latter can expect to establish a connection with the former. Dainora recalls that even though Domas would get into conflicts with teachers and found it difficult to communicate with them, but there have not been any problems communicating with a social pedagogue: he would initiate the contact and be the first to tell her about his problems. This shows that Domas trusts Dainora despite the fact whether the situation has been his fault or not. According to Lingis (2010), we establish trust without possessing knowledge, i.e. we do not have to know a person in order to trust him/her: sometimes it does not depend on us.

The fact that Domas tends to talk back to teachers but communicates and opens to the social pedagogue rather willingly shows that he respects Dainora and trusts her as a person who cares, listens to him and does not jump to unfavourable conclusions without learning about the situation first (a situation he has experienced when communicating with his teachers). Such a bond between Dainora and Domas has facilitated the options to provide socio-pedagogical help to a child.

Giedrė recalls a specific event which reveals how a trust between her as a social pedagogue and a girl has developed.

*When I arrived at work, I found Dija on the ground floor pressed against a radiator. She was very sad and upset. I approached the girl and asked whether she is up for a talk. Dija told me that her mother was drinking throughout the entire weekend. She couldn't sleep for the entire weekend either, because the house was full of noisy drunkards. I asked her whether she had had something to eat that day and Dija told me that she hadn't had any breakfast that morning, because there is not a morsel of bread or tea at home, not to mention butter... This broke my heart. The girl spent the first lesson in my office. I made her some tea and a sandwich. The girl opened and talked to me; it was evident that after our conversation she felt relieved. Later she even managed to smile. (Giedrė)*

Giedrė states that when she has arrived at school, she has found Dija crying. When she invited the girl to talk, she could either receive consent or refusal to do it. Therefore, her consent has been the first sign that the girl trusts her. Lingis (2010: p. 87) states: "I think that the deepest and most profound relations are made when you trust someone and when you trust this unknown entity with your life." Girl's trust in her social pedagogue not only makes her feel better ("Later she even managed to smile") but by talking about her problems she also opens up about her life, which she probably has not done before.

Child's trust in a social pedagogue in terms of socio-pedagogical help to a social risk child is very important; it allows the child to talk and reveal his/ her problems. According to Lingis (2010), trust helps to form a deeper bond between people. In this situation, it can be stated that trust in a social pedagogue allows a child to share his/ her problems and thus expect to receive help, because otherwise, mistrusting the social pedagogue, Dija could have told nothing about her experience and suppress it. Therefore, when speaking about socio-pedagogical help to social risk children, trust enables a social pedagogue to discover child's problems sooner, analyse them to a deeper extent and start providing help immediately.

Both stories have revealed the importance between a social pedagogue and a child receiving his/ her help. Buber (1962/1998) defines three kinds of dialogue: genuine, technical and dialogue-based monologue. According to Buber (1962/1998: p. 71), a genuine dialogue is a dialogue which can be both spoken or silent, but "where each of the participants really has in mind the other or others in their present and particular being and turns to them with the intention of establishing a living mutual relation between himself and them." In the context of an interaction between a social pedagogue and a social risk child, I place emphasis on this, genuine, dialogue, because it essentially defines the dialogue between a social pedagogue and a social risk child. Therefore, such a dialogue must be inevitably based on a living mutual relation and participants in a dialogue, and as Buber (1962/1998) claims, they must inevitably turn towards

one another; only then their interaction will be a successful one. Such dialogues between a social pedagogue and a social risk child, according to Buber (1962/1998), can take place without any external signs. The stories of both Dainora and Giedrė have revealed that sometimes there do not have to be any words passed between a social pedagogue and a social risk child for them to develop a bond: a child simply need a look or an action to see that a social pedagogue is a human being who can be trusted.

However, trust and respect in the "Me – You" relation should go both ways: from the child to the social pedagogue and vice versa. The best illustration for it is Dainora's story provided below:

*There's no need to lose positivity, I guess. But what if children see different things? We cannot explain them that things may go either this or that way, you must behave this way, do these things and have these goals. Because they go back to their families and see different things: they see drunk parents, violence and things that happen in their families but not what we tell them about. And they cannot change their ways. These are the ways that help them to survive. And you cannot change anything. You can incept these thoughts, but you cannot make choices for them. You cannot live for them. Domas is good on the inside, but his living conditions, his family and circumstances have arranged themselves in a way which forces him to renounce the hope for everything to ever be better. Even though he tries really hard. Yet I think that there is a positive change: I don't think that he will sink as low as he could have. I see that he does sports. I think that it's not bad. But they are used to survive rather than to live. Others are defended by parents. It does not matter what they do, parents always have their backs. And he hasn't had this support. We were here, but he missed his parents. (Dainora)*

This part of Dainora's story while revealing that sometimes the outcomes of help for social risk children are not the ones a social pedagogue expects, yet it also reveals an unconditional pursuit for positivity, her respect for a child and believe in him/ her. Dainora evaluates the situation of Domas critically: she understands that there might have been more of the negative rather than positive factors in his life, yet she finds some positive stages and solutions. Dainora's story radiates trust and faith in this child, respect for him as a human being, his life and his choices, even though they are not always the ones as expected by a social pedagogue who provides help. When discussing trust, Lingis (2010: pp. 84-85, 87) introduces an insight based on his life experience:

*Therefore, if you start trusting someone, this trust must gradually increase. If you feel that you are trusted, you trust yourself more. <...> Therefore, a person leading you through the jungle must trust not what he knows, but oneself and one's ability to find the way. And when you trust him, his self-confidence increases, and he becomes braver.*

*<...> I also think that trust characteristic to this relation is the basis for all of our relationship. Every time you establish a friendly relation you risk something. Because of this reason, friendship is not only safe and comforting but also exciting.*

It means that trusting another person provides an opportunity to trust yourself more, yet trust involves a certain risk. Lingis (2010: p. 81) claims that “when we trust someone, there is always some risk involved. To trust is to take a risk. Speaking, building, creating, living is to take risks”, i.e. trust so as everything else in our life is a risk of sorts. However, despite the risk, we do not have to cease trusting others. Trust enables us to respect the choices and actions of others.

Stories told by both Dainora and Giedrė reveals the importance of the role of trust in the process of provision of socio-pedagogical help to social risk children; yet what it is more important, is the trust for a person next to us. Trust and respect in this process are interrelated. This is how it becomes possible to see a social pedagogue like a sort of support for a child, who helps to solve their problems that a child could not have solved alone. There is a passage in *Women Who Run with the Wolves: Myths and Stories of the Wild Woman Archetype* by Estés (2005: pp. 157-158):

*Feeling his death approaching, one old man gathered all of his relatives to his deathbed. To each of his many children, wives and relatives he gave a short, thick rod and asked to break it in half. They gathered they forces and managed to break their rods.*

*“This is what happens when you are alone without anyone in the world. You are easy to break.”*

*Then the old man gave his relatives another rod each and continued talking:*

*“This is how I want you to live when I’m gone. Place your rods together in twos and threes. And try to break them now.”*

*No one managed to break them all at once. The old man smiled.*

*“We are strong only when there are two of us. When there is someone next to us, no one can break us.”*

This excerpt shows that in the life of individuals, people around and interaction with them is important. The effect is synergistic: one plus one is not just two. Sometimes it is more than three. I have chosen this story for a purpose. It resonates with a discussion of socio-pedagogical help to social risk children. Stories describing the experience of social pedagogues show the importance of their role and the dialogue between them and children receiving help. The stories told by social pedagogues have revealed that children in their stories usually are lonely, neglected and highly vulnerable. In these particular relationships based on respect and trust, a social pedagogue becomes as a sort of rod for a child described by Estés (2005), having this support, a child will not break that as easy as left alone.

It is not important how we are going to describe a relation between a social pedagogue and a social risk child: respectful trust or trust-based respect; the most important thing is such foundation of relationship between them enables a social pedagogue to provide help for social risk children: maybe it is not always as efficient as intended by the social pedagogue, but it is important that there are an opportunity to provide it in the first place.

## Conclusions

Socio-pedagogical help provided to social risk children is a complex and difficult process focusing on the solutions and prevention of social problems. Even though there exist plenty of studies focusing on socio-pedagogical help, the need for comprehensive qualitative studies focusing on the help itself still exists. Taking it into consideration and combining phenomenology and the narrative approach, this study focusing on socio-pedagogical help for social risk children has been conducted.

The article introduces results of a study that deal with social pedagogue's help for social risk children in terms of interrelationship. From the perspective of the narrative-phenomenological approach, study results have revealed that relationship between a social pedagogue and a social risk child are based on mutual trust and respect. Relationship based on trust and respect enables a child to open to the social pedagogue and thus results in a timely and more efficient provision of help. It is not important how a relation between a social pedagogue and a social risk child is described: respectful trust or trust-based respect; the most important thing is such foundation of relationship between them enables a social pedagogue to provide help for social risk children: maybe it is not always as efficient as intended by the social pedagogue, but it is important that there is an opportunity to provide it in the first place.

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# THE DEVELOPMENT OF SOCIAL SKILLS OF YOUNG PEOPLE LIVING IN COMMUNITY CARE HOMES

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**Abstract.** *The purpose of the article is to reveal the need for the social skills of young people living in community care homes based on the experience of young people. Problematic study questions: What social skills, which are important to a person's independent living, do the adolescents lack? How do opportunities to develop social skills change while living in the community care homes? Eight young people aged 17-18 years old from three community care homes, which are in different parts of Lithuania, participated in the study. The study revealed that young people lack communication skills: they have difficulty establishing and maintaining contact, communicating politely, being empathetic (careful, attentive and understanding to others), addressing emerging issues and conflicts constructively. The study found out that young people lack intrapersonal skills: self-control, responsibility, and self-confidence. Young people lack activity organisation skills: activity planning and activity realisation skills. The study reveals that, while living in community child care homes, opportunities to develop social skills change in a positive way. In everyday practical activities, more opportunities to solve problems and plan and organise various activities occur. By communicating and cooperating in the family environment, young people acquire more empathy, building rapport and maintaining it, polite communication and conflict resolution skills. A family atmosphere and close and positive mutual relationships, which are built in the community child care homes, contribute to the strengthening of self-confidence and trust in others.*

**Keywords:** *community care homes, social skills, young people.*

## Introduction

One of the priority objectives of the restructurisation of child care is to create conditions for the children to prepare for independent living in the ever-changing, dynamic society. In this context, personal social skills are very important. The creation of social skills empowers the person to manage social situations, to resolve life's problems effectively, to adapt in the new ever-changing environment successfully and to affect his environment correspondingly or even to change it (Raudeliūnaitė, 2007). Social skills, as the prerequisite for fully-fledged social life, are necessary in order to achieve a person's independence in daily life and for his ability to find his bearings in complicated situations or



interactions (Segrin & Taylor, 2007; Demir et. al., 2012; Merrell & Gimpel, 2014 et al.). The quality of a person's social functioning is determined by a series of different social skills – communication and cooperation, problem, conflict resolution and other social skills.

When social skills are developed, the powers of a person's social functioning improve, the potential possibilities of the person to participate in society's life increase. In addition, when social skills form, a person's self-confidence increases, he begins acting more effectively when problematic situations arise, communicating more freely in the context of formal and informal mutual interactions, creating an effective mutual relationship and cooperating effectively when performing joint group activity (Merrell & Gimbel, 2014). The development of social skills is extremely relevant to resolving the problems of effective functioning in public life of children living in care homes. It is not by chance that quite a few authors (Raudeliūnaitė & Paigozina, 2009; Samošonok, 2013; Gudžinskienė & Raudeliūnaitė, 2016), who examine the social and educational situation of the children living in care homes, emphasise the relevance of the development of social skills as an important factor of a personal social integration. On the other hand, the majority of them also point out some lack of social skills, which aggravate the integration these children into their social environment. Therefore, in the context of deinstitutionalisation processes, it is important to analyse the preparation of the children for independent living in the community childcare homes, because the preparation of the children for independent living in the community and its improvement remain one of the most important and the most relevant tasks in order to achieve successful integration of the children in care into society. Community childcare homes are childcare homes (up to 8 children), which operate in accordance with the model of the environment, which is close to the family environment and are established in separate premises (e. g., a house, flat) in the community, intended for the children, who are destitute of parental guardianship, children with disabilities or children with other special needs.

On the other hand, while the restructurisation of childcare homes in Lithuania is underway, there is a lack of studies, analysing the development of social skills of children growing in the community childcare homes. The objective of the study is to reveal the need for the development of social skills of the adolescents, who live in the community care homes, on the basis of the experience of the adolescents. Problematic questions of the study: What social skills, which are important to a person's independent living, do the adolescents lack? How do opportunities to develop social skills change while living in the community care homes?

## **Research methodology**

**Research methods.** Qualitative research type was chosen for the study. According to Creswell (2009), the purpose of a qualitative study is to research complex phenomena with the properties that are characteristic of them and present the meanings and approaches, that were expressed by the participants of a study, on a researched phenomenon. In the study, the method of a semi-structured interview, which enables to come close to the understanding of human experiences, designation of meanings, the definition of meanings and the construction (explanation) of reality, was used. This article overviews two problematic questions of the study: What social skills, which are important to a person's independent living, do the adolescents lack? How do opportunities to develop social skills change while living in the community care homes?

The obtained data were analyzed by using the content analysis method. The qualitative content analysis was performed in the following sequence (Creswell, 2009): the repeated reading of the content of transcribed interview texts, the distinction of meaning elements in the text analysed, the grouping of the distinguished meaning elements into categories and sub-categories, integration of the categories/sub-categories into the context of the phenomenon analysed and the description of their analysis.

**The sample of the research.** A criteria-based sample was used in the study. The informants were chosen according to the following criteria: 1) adolescents living in the community care homes; 2) the age of the adolescents, from 17 to 18 years old, who will leave the care home not later than after one year.

The study was conducted in the April - May of 2017 in the community foster care homes established under "The List of Residential Social Care Institutions and the Homes of Infants with Impaired Development Selected for Restructuring" (2015). 8 young people (4 boys and 4 girls) participated in the study.

**Ethics of the research.** The permission of the heads of the community foster care homes to conduct the research in their organisation has been obtained. Personal permission of the informants to take part in the research was sought. The researchers obliged themselves to the research participants not to divulge the information related to the organisation and the informant. The principles of anonymity, volunteerism and benevolence were followed. The young people were acquainted with the goal of the research, the interview questions, and the importance of a reasoned reflection on their experience.

## **Analysis of research results**

Social skills are one of the most important life quality factors, assisting the person in integrating into society, coping with daily independent living problems

in ever-changing situations successfully. Therefore, during the study, it was sought to reveal what social skills, which are important to a person's independent living, adolescents, living in the community care homes, in their subjective assessment, lack. The study has revealed that the adolescents, having begun living in the community care homes, acknowledge that they lack communication, empathy, problem and conflict resolution, intrapersonal and activity organising skills (Table 1).

**Table 1 Lack of social skills important to adolescents' independent living**

Category	Subcategory	Proving Statements
Communication skills	Contact establishment	“sometimes I begin feeling ill at ease having said something too openly, improperly and not to the proper people” (F), “I don't know how and from what to start a conversation” (A), “when there are outsiders present I don't dare to talk” (C)
	Contact maintenance	“it happens to me that while talking I cut off another person” (H), “I'm told that I'm not able to listen to others” (B), “people sometimes don't understand what I say, I'm no good at presenting my thoughts clearly” (E), “my friends blame me that I don't look at the other while talking” (D)
	Polite communication	“I often swear while talking” (F), “I often forget to greet and to bid farewell (D), “I sometimes get remarks for politeness: they say that I could have thanked at least” (A), “There is one thing I'm really unable to do – I can't say 'sorry'” (G), “I haven't learned to keep my tongue behind my teeth” (H)
Empathy	Attentiveness and carefulness	„I have a hard time understanding others, what other people feel” (C), „It happens that I don't understand how people feel” (B)
	Understanding	„When you don't know how somebody feels, then you don't know how to help” (E), „I often tell a joke out of time and out of place” (H), „I often happens among us that, when someone feels bad, others laugh” (G)
Problem resolution	Problem acknowledgement	„Most often I „accumulate” problems, and don't resolve them” (F), „it happens that it's hard to understand that it's a problem” (D)
	Search for decision	„I take decisions without thinking over” (C), „I firstly do, and then think that I could have done it in another way” (A), „I don't think about other possibilities of resolving a problem, I don't weigh them” (B), „I don't think about possible consequences...” (H)

	Decision taking	„I put off taking decisions, I think that everything will resolve itself” (B), „I often take decisions without giving them enough thought, I’m sorry about them later” (E)
Conflict resolution	Lack of search of conflict causes	„I don’t care at all why we are at odds and that’s it” (C), „I sometimes fail to agree with some people, I don’t even know why...” (G)
	Refusal to acknowledge that he/she is not right	„I dislike losing” (D), “I’m angry when I’m told to apologise...I can’t stand that” (F)
	Unwillingness to consult with others	„I don’t want to consult...” (A), „I’ve got to be on top” (E)
Intrapersonal skills	Self-control	„Others can easily get me out of balance” (B), „if there are differences of opinion, I start shouting” (H), „I break rules” (C), „I have a hard time saying ,no” (A)
	Responsibility	„I fail to perform obligations I’ve been entrusted with” (A), „Sometimes I promise, then I forget...fail to do” (D)
	Self-confidence	„I’m afraid to make a mistake, to say what I think” (G), „I don’t trust myself or others ” (F)
Activity organising	Activity planning	„Sometimes I work, but I don’t know exactly what will come out...” (C), „I don’t set any objectives for myself here, you just do and that’s it ” (E)
	Activity realisation	“I plan, but I don’t finish my work... it somehow falls flat” (B), “I sometimes lack patience, carefulness and you just give up” (A), “maybe it’s possible to fix some things, but I don’t like it” (D)

The study revealed that the adolescents have difficulty establishing contact. They have difficulty assessing their real communication situation. The informants noted that they have difficulty both beginning a conversation and also joining a conversation, they feel ill at ease among strangers. The adolescents also lack verbal and non-verbal contact maintenance skills: to listen to another person without interrupting, to express thoughts clearly, to keep eye contact. It should be noted that the adolescents lack polite communication: not to use improper words, to greet properly and to bid farewell, to thank properly, to apologise, to get their bearings in the communication situation and to choose appropriate communication strategy.

In order to create a constructive mutual interaction, it is important to be able to feel another person’s condition, his situation. Human relationships are impossible without empathy, which is the foundation of many decisions and actions. D. Goleman points out that those, whose are capable to empathise with the feelings of other persons, “possess a better social “hearing”, which enables to perceive the needs of others better” (2001: 64). In addition, it is important not only to perceive another person’s emotional condition, to be able to empathise with it,

but, if need be, to offer assistance sometimes. The study established that adolescents lack empathy skills. They have difficulty being attentive, careful and understanding.

The ability to resolve problems is one of the most important person's abilities, assisting him in acting in different areas successfully and adapting in ever-changing situations successfully. The study identified that the adolescents, living in the community care homes, lack problem resolution skills. The adolescents pointed out that their greatest lack is the ability to acknowledge a problem, to perceive various possibilities to resolve it, to assess positive and negative aspects to the problem resolution and possible consequences and to take appropriate decisions.

In the presence of interpersonal interaction, it is natural that various conflicts arise and it is important to know how to resolve them constructively. The study revealed that the adolescents lack conflict resolution skills. The informants acknowledged that they seldom inquire into the causes of the origin of a conflict, they have difficulty acknowledging that they are wrong, and they are reluctant to consult another person. The researchers (Sellman & Edward, 2011) maintain that, during a conflict, it is important to clarify the causes of misunderstanding and to look for constructive methods to resolve a conflict. The clarification of positions ensures a better platform for constructive communication. L. Ismayilova et al. (2014) studies also reveal that children from care homes lack communication, problem resolution, and conflict management skills.

Intrapersonal skills, which assist in retaining inner balance, allow for the possibility to interact positively with other persons and the resolution of arising conflicts and problems constructively, are of great significance for the successful adjustment of the person in life, his relationships with surrounding people. The study revealed that the informants lack self-control, responsibility, and self-confidence. According to the informants, they have a difficult time managing their emotions, receiving the opinion of another person without anger, irritation, adhering to the rules of polite behaviour, not giving in to the bad influence of others and resisting the pressure of others. The adolescents acknowledged that they do not always fulfill their promises or obligations, lack self-confidence and confidence in others. Responsibility and self-confidence are important to overcoming difficulties and obstacles arising while achieving the set objective. R. Bubnys & Z. Jasevičienė (2013) study revealed that children with self-confidence feel independent, do not feel rejected when planning their future and communicating with surrounding people, share their cares and difficulties easily. According to M. Scannapieco et al. (2007), the lack of self-confidence, will, and responsibility in the cared children is one of the most serious obstacles for their successful learning, acquisition of profession/trade and getting established in the labour market.

Activity organising skills assist the person in planning his activity, getting involved in it maximally and using his abilities effectively to achieve the set objective. The study established that adolescents lack both activity planning and its realisation skills. They have difficulty setting an achievable objective of their activity, foreseeing the result of their activity and pursuing it patiently and purposefully. The informants acknowledged that they have difficulty linking the success of their activity with the efforts they made, performing tasks carefully and fully, whereas, having performed a task improperly, performing it anew.

During the study, it was sought to reveal how the possibilities of the adolescents to develop their social skills, while living in the community care homes, change. The study revealed that, while living in the community childcare homes, the possibilities to develop social skills change in the positive direction: the community care homes are dominated by a more favourable family atmosphere, the organising of the daily activity changes in the positive direction and the network of social relationships expands (Table 2).

**Table 2 Opportunities to develop social skills for the adolescents while living in the community care homes**

Category	Subcategory	Proving Statements
Favourable family atmosphere	Warmer mutual relationships	“We communicate with each other more, and we do it nicer” (D), “Our social worker is more like a mother now” (A), “We live like a family” (H), „After we began living in households, we became safer, calmer, our mutual relationships got stronger” (G)
	More time allotted for mutual communication	“We talk more and about everything” (B), “We spend our evenings while talking” (E), “Now I communicate more, the workers pay more attention” (F)
	Communication quality improves	“Even the workers perhaps communicate more openly, the feelings are warmer” (B), “they’re friendlier now, communication improved, I’m a warmer communicator” (C)
Changes in daily activity organising	More independence when planning and realising different activities	“We plan our leisure more themselves now” (F), “we do everything ourselves: we cook, tidy rooms and our environment” (H), „In the household, I feel as if I were at home. Here, as in the family too, we can decide on our own what we are going to eat, what we are going to do, we are much more independent” (B)
	Assumption of obligations and responsibility	“We distribute various work themselves” (E), “We learn to keep promises, to perform the assumed or delegated work well”
	Cooperation in activities	“We consult together how to make household more beautiful, who will do it and what will be done” (A), “We

		help each other” (G), “We learn to consult nicely, without anger, dictate, although it’s not easy” (C)
Expansion of social relationships	Cosying up with neighbours	“We communicate with neighbours, their children” (H), “We live with our neighbours in a friendly manner, we invited them to our house-warming party” (D)
	Participation in the community events	“Our household participates in the community festivals” (E), “We contribute to the organization of community events” (C)

One of the most important Common European Guidelines on the Transition from Institutional to Community Based Care (2012) objectives is to create conditions, for the child, to grow in the family environment or in the environment, which is close to the family environment. The study revealed that, when the adolescents begin living in the community care homes, mutual relationships become warmer: the adolescents communicate more and more closely both among themselves and with workers. According to the informants, they feel safer, their mutual relationships become stronger and they live “similarly to the family...” (H). It should be noted that the research conducted abroad indicates that those adolescents, who lived in small care homes, in which the conditions resembled the family model, are better prepared for independent living. In addition, warm, stable relationships dominated the relationships among the children and the relationships between the children and the staff (Spray & Jowett, 2012).

The study showed that more time is allotted for communication in the family environment and communication quality improves. The informants note that they communicate with the workers more openly and warmer, whereas, among themselves, they are more polite.

It has been established that the organising of daily activity changes in the positive direction. There is more independence when planning and realising different activities in the community care homes. According to the adolescents, they plan their leisure themselves in a greater measure and get involved in practical activities in daily life (they cook, organize their household, go shopping etc. themselves). According to the adolescents, „in the household, they feel as if they were at home... we are more independent“ (B). It can be said that, in the community care homes, children are given opportunities to learn real life, they are more independent to resolve problems.

The findings of the study reveal that the adolescents are prone to assume obligations more and are more responsible. The adolescents note that they consult with each other, assist each another, assume obligations and learn to adhere to them.

It has been established that, in the community care homes, social relationships expand. The adolescents maintain that they communicate with the

neighbours living next door, their children, participate in the community events and contribute to their organisation.

Based on the findings of the study, it can be said that, in the community care homes, conditions are created to develop communication, cooperation, activity organising skills by creating a favourable family environment and close and positive mutual relationships. Family atmosphere enables the development of intrapersonal skills.

### Conclusions

The study revealed that the adolescents, having started to live in the community care homes, lack communication skills. They have a hard time establishing and maintaining contact, communicating politely, being empathic, resolving problems and conflicts constructively. The adolescents also lack intrapersonal skills, especially self-control, responsibility, and self-confidence. The adolescents lack activity planning and its realisation skills.

The study revealed that, while living in the community child care homes, the opportunities to develop social skills change. In a daily practical activity, more opportunities occur to learn to resolve problems and conflicts and to plan and organise different activities. When communicating and cooperating in the family environment, the adolescents acquire more empathy, contact establishment and maintenance and polite communication skills. The family atmosphere, which is created in the community care homes, and close and positive relationships not only assist in acquiring social skills, but also contributes to the strengthening of self-confidence and confidence in others.

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# COMPENSATION OF EDUCATIONAL DEFICIENCIES IN CHILDREN STAYING IN FOSTER CARE IN BIALAPODLASKAPOVIAT

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**Abstract.** *The material for the article was created as part of the project "Education, levelling developmental and educational deficits of charges of family-run children's houses and care and educational institutions (based on the example of BiałaPodlaskapoviat)" implemented by the Department of Pedagogy of Higher State School in BiałaPodlaska. Two methods: diagnostic survey and study of individual cases were used in the research, using proprietary questionnaires for charges, interview questionnaires with educators of care and educational centres and family facilities, an observation sheet and talks with coordinators and directors of the examined institutions. The research was carried out in BiałaPodlaskapoviat in three care and educational centres and three family-run children's homes. The subject of the article was to implement the educational needs of foster care children, including the issue of levelling educational gaps. The aim of the study was to determine whether educational deficiencies are noticeable there, what is the compensation of these deficiencies in family and institutional settings, if any of these forms is more favourable, what factors affect the proper satisfaction of educational needs? The analysis of the results made it possible to conclude that educational needs are realized in both care and educational centres and in family-run children's homes, the beneficiaries of both forms exhibit numerous educational deficiencies conditioned by previous educational negligence. Compensation of educational deficiencies is more beneficial in family care. The basic forms of compensating for gaps include: tutoring, compensatory classes, individual caregiver work with a child, colleague self-help, voluntary activities.*

**Keywords:** *compensation for educational deficiencies, foster care, BiałaPodlaska poviat.*

## Introduction

Basic educational, care, socializing and economic responsibilities should be taken by biological parents, however, in case of dangers i.e. unemployment, poverty, breaking of a family structure, addictions, violence in families and other dysfunctions, often enough a child is directed to a foster care. Contemporary legal regulations in Poland differentiate institutional and family care. (Bill, 2011). Family care includes: foster family and family-run children's houses, institutional

care, by contrast, involves educational care centers, regional care and therapeutic institutions and intervention pre-adoption institutions. Each of the above mentioned forms of foster care should constitute an educational environment that compensate a confided child the deficiencies in care, upbringing and education.

Education takes one of the key places in one's life. A right to education is guaranteed by Polish Constitution, in a section of an act no. 70 one can learn that everyone has a right for a free education in state schools and education is obligatory till the age of 18. Both institutional and family care institutions should guarantee their charges an access to education which is adapted to their age and developmental chances as well as take care of a proper balancing of educational deficiencies (*Bill on supporting family and foster care system, sections of an act no. 40 and no. 93*). Moreover, for each child that is directed to institutional care a help plan is constructed right after its coming to an institution. This help plan includes i.a. child's educational development, a residence card that reports on the contacts between an institution and a school which a child attends and on its learning process. (*Decree, 2011: § 15, § 17*).

It is worth noting that children directed to educational care centers and family-run children's houses usually require undertaking compensatory activities that handle educational deficiencies resulting from past negligence coming from their family environment.

The problem of many charges is not only backlogs and negligence but also a lack of systematicity, a lack of a habit of learning, an inability to organize work. Marzena Ruszkowska thinks that small school achievements of foster care charges are conditioned by many risk factors, much more frequently occurring in this group than in general population. Besides it, these children usually from the early age experience negative, traumatic things, such as violence, different kind of negligence, deficits, shortages, humiliation that might additionally deepen their learning difficulties. These children have usually poor vocabulary, a little or no knowledge about a world, a lack of basic information concerning civilization inventions (Ruszkowska, 2013a: p. 78).

Józefa Matejek believes that it is common that charges of a foster care present a reluctance to learning, have low aspirations resulting from disbelief in their talents and chances, and additionally their motivation is decreased by failures that they experience in schools and the problems with acceptance they experience among their peers. Thus, it is necessary to diagnose children in psychological and pedagogical clinic, the aim of which is to define mechanisms that determine growth, behavioral patterns and school functioning of a child (Matejek, 2014: pp. 98-99). Each diagnosis should recognize not only student's weaknesses but also strengths and potential on which to organize correction and compensatory activities.

The article deals with satisfying educational needs of foster care charges, including the issue of balancing educational deficiencies.

The aims of the studies were as follows: first, to find if charges of a foster care suffer from educational deficiencies; secondly, to learn how compensation of these deficiencies looks like in family-run children's houses and educational care centers; thirdly, to learn if one of these forms is much better than the other and, fourthly, to learn what factors affect fulfilling educational needs of the charges successfully.

It was assumed that educational needs are satisfied in both educational care centers as well as in family-run children's houses. The charges of both forms of foster care reveal numerous educational deficiencies that result from the past educational negligence. Simultaneously, this study focuses on the analysis of such factors as a type of institution, location of a institution, number of charges and their age.

### **Researched territory and researched sample**

The researches for the studies were conducted in educational care centers and in family-run children's houses in bialski district that is located in the eastern part of Poland. Conducting of the studies was planned within the project *Education, balancing educational and developmental deficiencies of the charges of family-run children's houses and educational care centers (based on the example of bialski district)* realized by Department of Pedagogy of State School in BiałaPodlaska.

In bialski district three institutions of institutional type (educational care centers) are currently functioning. The first one, *Educational Care Centre in Komarno*, was established on the 1<sup>st</sup> August 1997. Till 31<sup>st</sup> December 2012 it was the *Children's House in Komarno*. It is a socializing institution offering 30 places. It is located in Konstanyńów commune, in the Komarno village. Since 1999 the unit directing it is Bialski District. The institution employs 14 care providers. These days there are 25 charges there.

The next institution is *Educational Care Centre in Szachy*. It has functioned since 2003. Nowadays it is an entity that comes under the *Administrative Centre of Educational Care Centers in Komarno*. The Administrative Centre of Educational Care Centers is responsible for dealing with economic, administrative and organizational tasks of the subject entity. A separate housing in Educational Care Center in Szachy resembles its residents a family house. Educational Care Centre in Szachy is dedicated to children over 10. It offers 14 places. It employs 5 care providers. These days 10 charges are residing there.

The last of the researched institutions is Educational Care Centre in Janów Podlaski. It has functioned since 1st April 2010. Currently it is subject to

Administrative Centre of Educational Care Centers in Komarno. The entity was redeveloped from the former border guards building. The building was adapted to the ruling residential standards for 12 charges. Five care providers work with the children. These days, 10 charges are residing there.

It needs to be highlighted that following the trends in caring for a child in the western countries, the number of permanent residence centers as well as the number of available places there is decreasing (Kantowicz, 2001: p. 197). The centers that function, in particular the centre in Szachy and Janów Podlaski, due to the number of their charges resemble more and more an entity of family type rather than of institutional.

The other part of the researches was conducted in Family-run Children's House in Neple and in two educational care centers of family type located in Bohukały. Both of the places are located in Terespol commune. In bilaski district there is one more educational care centre of family type in Żabka, in Międzyrzec Podlaski commune. Unfortunately, despite taken actions there was no approval of conducting the studies in the place. In every of all three places there are eight charges.

The studies in the form of a survey were done in the last quarter of 2017 on a little researched sample of 25 charges of educational care centers, aged 11-20. The whole group of this age category includes 33 people but reaching the rest of the people was impossible as large number of charges is residing in Socioterapy Center for Youth, Educational Centers for Youth and they educate outside the centre or represent a lower age group. In family-run children's houses in the age group mentioned above 10 charges were surveyed. The survey included both closed and open questions.

Moreover, 10 care providers from the educational care center as well as 6 head people who direct family-run children's houses completed questionnaires. Among the surveyed people there were both men and women. Additionally, within the case study, the acquired information was complemented with interviews with coordinators from two educational care centers and with a director of a family-run children's house. The study was accompanied by the observation sheets, as well. A hidden, participatory observation was supposed to confront the acquired information with the actual situation in the family foster care and in institutional foster care. At the same time, it enriched and complemented the acquired researches.

### **Balancing educational gaps of the charges of both family and institutional foster care according the studies**

Researches involved compensatory actions revolving around educational deficiencies and negligence of the charges that have grown out of dysfunctional

family house. It can be assumed that the stay in a foster care itself is compensatory as long as we interpret compensation as: “a process of completing, balancing and replacing deficiencies through other methods” (Matyjas, 2003: p.147).

Detailed researches concerning compensatory activities involved such issues as: an access to school equipment and educational aids, conditions to effective learning at home and in the institution, time spent on dealing with homework, help and support in completing deficiencies and backlogs in knowledge offered at home, at school and in the environment, developing children’s passions, interests and talents.

It was found that both environments, family-run and institutional centers, ensure their charges all necessary course books and school equipment as well as offer an access to various educational aids i.e. Internet, encyclopaedias, required reading, atlases, dictionaries etc.

According to the statements of care providers from family-run children’s houses and the educational care centers, in both environments each child is provided with a room or a place for learning. Educational care centers, however, are assessed much worse. The statements of the charges support this thesis: „*if I have to prepare to a school test in the centre I usually do this late in the evening or at night because it is the only time when it is quiet and nobody disturbs me*”, or „*in the centre there is no atmosphere to learn*” (statements of a seventeen year old charge of educational care centre who learns in the secondary school).

The next problem that was carefully analyzed was the time spent daily on doing homework and learning. The table 1 presents the data.

Table 1 **Time spent on doing homework and learning**

<b>Time spent on doing homework and learning</b>	<b>Educational care centers</b>		<b>Family-run children’s houses</b>	
	<b>No. of people</b>	<b>Percent of the researched people</b>	<b>No. of people</b>	<b>Percent of the researched people</b>
<b>Not even an hour a day</b>	10	40%	0	0
<b>1-3 hours a day</b>	13	52%	9	90%
<b>3-4 hours a day</b>	1	4 %	0	0
<b>More than 4 hours a day</b>	1	4%	1	10%
<b>Total</b>	25	100%	10	100%

Out of the data it can be concluded that as much as 40 % of the charges of educational care centers do not spend their time on doing homeworks and learning at all whereas this does not happen in family-run children’s houses. Many charges of the educational care centers think that: „*education is not needed in their lives*” (the statement of a nineteen year old boy from a vocational school, a charge of

educational care centre) or they frankly state that they “do not like to learn” (every third charge of educational care center declares so).

According to the care providers and coordinators of educational care centers the charges “regard grades unimportant” and “do not care about them although they suffer from numerous educational backlogs resulting from past negligence in the family”. The staff in the center focus rather on other problems that charges have i.e. emotional problems, inability to deal with aggression, autoaggressive behaviour, escaping from the center, truancy, addictions (such as smoking, drinking alcohol and taking psychoactive substances) and other.

Findings of the research show that the largest group of the charges of the foster care (both family-run children’s houses and educational care centers) spend up to three hours a day on doing homework and learning. Usually the individual people spend more than four hours a day and they state that “education has a specific goal” which gives them “a chance to get better educational background and to make some changes in a life” (the statement of a twenty year old girl, a charge of educational centre and a student of secondary school for adults).

The studies involved also the acts of helping and supporting charges while doing homework. Table 2 presents the results of the researches on the issue.

Table 2 **Help and support with the homework**

People providing help	Educational care centers		Family-run children’s houses	
	No. of people	Percent of the researched people	No. of people	Percent of the researched people
<b>Educators/care providers</b>	12	48%	7	70%
<b>Older mates</b>	5	20%	0	0
<b>Older siblings</b>	0	0	3	30%
<b>Trainees/volunteers</b>	2	8%	0	0
<b>I do not get any help</b>	11	44%	3	30%

*Note: the results of the studies cannot be summed up because more than one answer was possible, percentage was calculated for 25 charges of educational care centers and for 10 charges of family-run children’s houses*

As it turned out, in both forms of foster care prevails help offered by educators and care providers – 70 % of the charges of family-run children’s houses and 50 % of charges of educational care centers rely on it. Charges of educational care centers do not want to get any form of support.

In family-run children’s houses children often ask for help their older siblings, what does not happen in educational care centers where siblings are often separated and reside in different forms of foster care.

A chance to get a help from volunteers or trainees happens very rarely because the places of the researched institutions are located far from the cities or bigger towns.

Besides a help offered at home there is a possibility to take advantage of external help such as extra courses, including also school environment. Analysis of courses offered to the charges of foster care is presented in table 3.

Table 3 **Extra courses taken by the charges**

Type of extra course	Educational care centers		Family-run children's houses	
	No. of people	Percent of the researched people	No. of people	Percent of the researched people
<b>Compensatory lessons</b>	1	4%	2	20%
<b>After-school activities</b>	8	32%	0	0
<b>Private lessons</b>	0	0	3	30%
<b>Optional classes</b>	3	12%	3	30%
<b>None</b>	16	64%	4	40%

*Note: the results of the studies cannot be summed up because more than one answer was possible percentage was calculated for 25 charges of educational care centers and for 10 charges of family-run children's houses*

Unfortunately, the results of the studies reveal that the charges of foster care do not have any extra activities that would balance their backlogs and deficiencies or broaden their knowledge. It applies to 60 % of charges in educational care centers (sample responds imply that they “do not want to waste their time and energy”) and to 40 % of the charges in family-run children's house.

In case of family-run children's houses, children take no extra activities, they rarely take private lessons because „school and the environment offer nothing”, „there is a problem with commuting to school and a return if a child wants to take any after-school activities”, „school offers nothing, regular lessons finish and school is closed”, „often there is no teacher who could offer private lessons in the surrounding or it is too far for a teacher to arrive from a bigger town, for example”.

In educational care centers private lessons do not happen at all whereas in family-run children's houses charges do not take after-school activities. What is more, charges of educational care centers take hardly any compensatory lessons.

Compensation of educational deficiencies looks a bit more favorably in family-run children's houses since among forms of balancing deficiencies there can be found: private lessons (although rarely), compensatory lessons (much more often), extra after-school activities, an individual work between a tutor and a child (quite often).



According to the statements of care providers from the family-run children's houses, there has not been observed any worsening of children's situation at school or worsening of their behavior since they have been accommodated in family-run children's house. Marzena Ruszkowska got similar results during her researches among foster families in the same area in 2011. Ruszkowska's results were: 14 % of foster parents regarded children's progress poor; 5 % of foster parents thought there was no progress at all and only 2 % thought the school situation got worse (Ruszkowska, 2013b: p. 100).

Coordinators of educational care centers, however, were not that optimistic because in the institutions occurred both improving and worsening of educational condition of the charges. In this case, the type of institution determined school situation of the students.

Both researches concerning education and balancing educational deficiencies of charges of foster care that were carried out in 2017 as well as the earlier Marzena Ruszkowska's researches carried out in foster families in bialski powiat in 2011 (Ruszkowska, 2013b) revealed the limited access to compensatory and developing activities that charges have does not depend neither on care providers nor on the type of a foster care, but it predominantly depends on the environmental location.

It is common knowledge that rural area offers no extra after school activities, within the premises of a school or outside it, which, in turn, affects the chances of balancing educational deficiencies as well as the development of children's interests and talents unfavorably. Researches carried out in foster families in bialski powiat, both rural and urban ones, confirm the thesis. According to foster care providers in the rural environment 42,5 % of the researched children have no interests, while in urban area it is 10,9 % (Ruszkowska, 2013b: p. 80).

Also in the literature there can be found a confirmation that students that come from or live in the countryside are disadvantaged and it is needed a lot in order to make their chances equal to the chances that children from big towns and cities have (Czajkowska, 2001).

The problem of schools in the countryside and in small towns is that the quality of education is poorer, what results in worse scores students get during proficiency tests (Buchta, 2009: p. 83). Some authors imply that the poor quality of education in a countryside school constitutes a hindrance to get an access to further education (Matyjas, 2013: p. 150).

Care providers in the educational care centers and in the family-run children's houses enumerate many problems related to child's functioning in a school environment i.e. learning problems, educational backlogs, lack of motivation, educational requirements misaligned to intellectual capabilities of a student, disturbance in attention and concentration, truancy, problems in contacts with peers, no after-school activities available, attention deficit hyperactivity

disorder, misbehaving at school, serious emotional disorders, inability to deal with aggressive and auto aggressive behaviors.

### **Conclusion**

Acquired data allow to formulate some conclusions:

1. It is recommended to establish both educational care centers and family-run children's houses in the vicinity of big towns or cities since locating them in the rural area limits the proper compensation of educational and developmental deficiencies that children have and disables developing their interests and passions.
2. Moreover, location of the institutions makes it hard and rare for children to get some help from volunteers or trainees.

### **Summary**

The analysis presented in the article does not max out the issue of activities compensating educational deficiencies of charges of foster care. It only inspires to further researches and consideration.

Both educational centers and family-run children's houses ensure their charges educational aids and a place for learning. Researches have shown that there are numerous problems, negligence and backlogs in learning. Despite their occurrence, the charges hardly ever take extra classes, private lessons, compensatory activities and very often are not interested in help from care providers and tutors. It results mainly from the two: first, the location of the institutions in the rural area which does not offer extra classes, second, the individual factors within the charges themselves.

Family-run children's houses seem a bit more favorable due to the amount of time that care providers spent with the charges, which is a more individual approach to a charge.

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## EDUCATIONAL AND PROFESSIONAL PLANS AND ASPIRATIONS OF THOSE IN CHARGE OF CARE AND EDUCATIONAL CENTRES AND FAMILY-RUN CHILDREN'S HOME (ON THE EXAMPLE OF BIAŁA PODLASKA POWIAT)

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**Abstract.** *Research for the purposes of this publication was carried out in Biała Podlaska powiat, which is part of Lublin province. Its implementation was planned within the framework of the project "Education, levelling developmental and educational deficits of children under the care of family-run children's homes, also the care and educational institutions (on the example of Biała Podlaska powiat)". The diagnostic survey method and the study of individual cases were applied. The survey was based on the author's questionnaire designed for the charges of care and educational institutions and family-run children's homes as well as the interview questionnaire with the educators of family and institutional institutions. In turn, the study of individual cases involved the use of an observation sheet and interviews with coordinators of the examined care and educational centres, directors of family-run children's houses. The subject of the article are educational and professional plans of the beneficiaries of institutional and family facilities. Attention was paid to the currently implemented level of education and future educational and occupational plans of these children. The aim of the research was to determine how the educational and professional plans of the charges of various forms of foster care are shaped and what are they conditioned by?*

*Among the indicators determining the implementation of educational and occupational aspirations of the examined subjects were environmental factors, i.e. location of the facility or the family-run children's home; personal: willingness and motivation to learn, time spent on homework and learning, age and sex of children under their care, their siblings; in addition, the type of facility in which the examined person is staying, received support and help from educators.*

**Keywords:** *educational and career aspirations, care and educational institution, educational and career plans, family-run children's home.*

### Introduction

Education is taking more and more place in everyday life of an everyman as it conditions further functioning and is a way to get educational background, which in turn conditions the professional chances, social and cultural activities one undertakes. Educational background is tightly related to the level of vocational and educational aspirations. Those, according to Bożena Kołaczek's

studies are conditioned by family factors such as: an educational background and profession of parents, a financial status of family, a place of living (Kołaczek 2004: p. 12). Moreover, Kołaczek's studies reveal that educational aspirations of inhabitants of a city are much higher than aspirations of people living in the countryside (Kołaczek, 2004: p. 27). Teresa Wilk, however, adds that alongside with individual abilities the external factors condition educational aspirations as well i.e. an access to education or to extra classes (Wilk, 2003). There are some barriers in completing plans or educational aspirations i.e. territorial barrier connected with the location of the educational institution (Kowalak, 2002) and others i.e. poor health condition, disability, reluctance to learning, lack of time for learning and others (Kołaczek, 2004: p. 95). What is more, it should be highlighted that important are not only activities and classes offered by educational institutions, but also any other extra ways of educating and developing skills i.e. extra classes, private lessons, courses, trainings, an access to which, according to Alicja Zawistowska, is limited in the countryside and because of that country people take advantage of those activities rarely (Zawistowska, 2012). Mirosław Szymański, however, sees correlation between both one's plans and educational aspirations and social inequalities in the field of education (Szymański, 2010).

The subject of the article are plans as well as educational and vocational aspirations of the charges of family-run children houses and educational care centers. The focus was on a level of education being currently realized as well as on a future educational and vocational plans of the charges. The significant factor that has to be taken into consideration is that the studies are not conducted among teenagers living with their biological parents but with foster ones. This can also affect the level of aspirations and vocational and educational plans.

The aim of the studies is to find what educational and vocational plans charges of various foster care have and what conditions these plans. Among the factors affecting completing these plans and aspirations were mentioned: on the one hand, environmental factors i.e. a location of the educational institution and family home of a child, personal willingness and motivation to learning, time devoted to doing homework and learning, the age and sex, having or not having siblings, on the other hand, there are institutional factors i.e. kind of the educational institution where the surveyed person resides, a support and help taken from a tutor.

It was assumed that educational aspirations relate to the level of education that an individual desires to achieve in the future (Szczepska-Pustkowska, 2003: p. 198); they are also treated as life goals that an individual aspires to in order to make a life meaningful (Dyrda, 2009: p. 25); what is more, they are an element of a life plan of an individual (Dyrda, 2009: p. 181); they fulfill the educational needs, which is a crucial condition if a youngster undertakes any activity

(Janowski, 1977: p. 12). Educational choices of parents and children are regarded as a way to achieve a life success. (Odrowąż –Coates & Stańczak, 2013: p. 82).

Educational aspirations, however, should be interpreted as a certain profession, functions within it, a place of working, a position held and the characteristics of a job that are concentrated on getting a specific profession in the future (Szczepska-Pustkowska, 2003: p. 199).

The expectations and perception of one's life in the long-term run that a youngster has are, according to Urszula Tyluś, one of the measure of the vocational and educational aspirations (Tyluś, 2010). Opinions, expectations and preferred values concerning different goods and offers of the reality accompany educational and vocational aspirations (Tyluś, 2010: p. 97).

Aspirations constitute a factor determining behavioral patterns youngsters have as well as they affect decision-making process related to life goals. Life goals, in turn, encompass career goals by stimulating an individual to undertake activities that make those plans come true. It is worth highlighting, as M. Tyszkowa mentions, that perspectives and life aspirations play more and more significant role not earlier than at the age of 13-14, under this age it happens rarely that a child can plan a future (Tyszkowa, 1990).

Furthermore, children residing in a foster care can encounter numerous obstacles connected with developing their individual aspirations and interests that result from an earlier educational negligence, changes of a place of living and numerous emotional problems etc.

### **Researched territory and researched sample**

Researches for this publication were conducted in the educational care centers and in family-run children houses in Bialski district that is located in the eastern part of Poland. Conducting the researches was planned within the project *Education, balancing educational and developmental deficiencies of the charges of family-run children's houses and educational centers (the example of Bialski district)* realized by Department of Pedagogy at Higher State School in Biała Podlaska. In Bialski district currently function three educational centers. *Placówka Opiekuńczo - Wychowawcza in Komarno (Educational Care Center in Komarno)* established in 1997 which is a socializing institution offering 30 places. The institution ensures 24/7 care and upbringing to children completely or partially uncared-for by their parents when a foster care wasn't found. The institution employs 14 tutors. Currently there are residing 25 charges in it.

The next institution is *Placówka Opiekuńczo-Wychowawcza in Szachy (Educational Care Center in Szachy)*. It has functioned since 2003. Separate housing resembles its residents a family house. The institution is addressed to

children over the age of 10. It offers 14 places. It employs 5 tutors. These days there are residing 10 charges.

The last researched institution is *Placówka Opiekuńczo-Wychowawcza in Janów Podlaski (Educational Care Center in Janów Podlaski)*. It was set up in 2010. It was redeveloped from the former border guards building. The building was adopted to the ruling residential standards for 12 wards. There are 5 tutors working with children. In the place there are currently residing 10 charges.

To compare, other part of the studies was done in two family-run children's houses in Bohukały and in *Family-run Children's House in Neple (Rodzinny Dom Dziecka in Neple)*. Both villages are parts of Terespol commune. In bialski district there is one more family-run educational care center in Żabka in Międzyrzec Podlaski commune. Unfortunately, despite the undertaken attempts, the institution disapproved the idea of conducting studies there. Each of the above mentioned institutions takes care of 8 charges.

The researches conducted in the third quarter of 2017 were qualitative and quantitative. In the beginning a survey was carried out among 25 charges of educational care centers who were aged 11-20 and among 10 charges of family-run children's houses aged the same. The applied researching method was a survey including both open and closed questions.

Moreover, 10 questionnaires were made among the selected tutors of the three educational care institutions and among 6 people governing the family-run children's houses. Interviewed people were both men and women.

Additionally, within individual case studies, observation sheets were completed and the acquired information was complemented with the interviews with coordinators of educational care centers in Szachy and Janów Podlaski and with the director of the Family-run Children's House in Neple. The observation was participatory and hidden and its aim was to learn the situation of the researched institutions and the relationships between the charges and tutors, which enriched the acquired researches.

### **Plans and educational aspirations of the charges of different forms of foster care according to the researches**

Analysis encompassed currently realized level of education, further educational and professional plans connected with the interests, passions and talents of the charges. It was taken into account, however, that any educational decisions taken by the charges of foster care are actually affected by various constraints i.e. individual abilities, numerous acts of educational negligence, lack of motivation, lack of support from a biological family, location of the institutions, limited access to extra activities or to activities that develop charges' interests.

First, it was checked what current level of education is realized by the charges of both family-run children's houses and educational care centers. Data is presented in table 1.

Table 1 **Currently realized level of education**

Type of school	Educational Care Center		Family-run children's House	
	No.of people	Percent	No.of people	Percent
<b>Primary school</b>	5	20%	3	30%
<b>Middle school</b>	7	28%	2	20%
<b>Vocational school</b>	10	40%	0	0
<b>Technical school</b>	2	8%	1	10%
<b>Secondary school</b>	1	4%	4	40%
<b>Total</b>	25	100%	10	100%

Data show that most of the surveyed people represent the oldest age group i.e. teenagers learning in upper-secondary schools (vocational school, technical school and secondary school). Among the charges of educational care centers prevail people who learn in vocational schools and in family-run children's houses there are teenagers learning in secondary schools. The charges of educational care centers much more often decide on vocational schools that offer them a specific profession and relatively quick chance to get independent and to perform a job.

What needs to be stressed is that in both types of institutions charges are provided with all necessary course books and educational facilities, there is an access to different forms of educational help, home learning is ensured, there is a support with homework, but the location of the institutions in the rural area hinders an access to extra activities, compensatory activities and the ones that develop charges' interests and passions.

Further educational aims of the charges are tightly connected with the chosen direction of further education. See table 2.

Table 2 **Further educational and vocational aims that charges of foster care have**

Further plans	Educational Care Centers		Family-run children's Houses	
	No.of people	Percent	No.of people	Percent
<b>Working and extramural studies</b>	2	8%	0	0
<b>Continuing of education</b>	5	20%	8	80%
<b>Taking on a job</b>	9	36%	3	30%
<b>Going abroad</b>	8	32%	0	0
<b>No idea</b>	4	16%	2	20%

*Note: the results of the studies cannot be summed up because more than one answer was possible. The percentage was calculated for 25 charges of the educational care centers and for 10 charges of family-run children's houses*



Much more often the charges of a family-run children's houses plan further learning after finishing the educational stage they are currently at. The situation concerns 80 % of the researched charges of family-run children's houses.

The charges of educational care centers, however, continue education rarely. Joanna Przygoda from Warsaw University reports statements reflecting unwillingness to continue education i.e. *insufficient abilities, a lack of zeal for learning, a willingness to earn money as quickly as possible and to make a living independently* (Przygoda, 1998: p. 201).

Every fifth charge of the foster care does not know what to do in the future. As an example, the statement of a thirteen-year old charge of educational care center: *I do not have plans for future, I do not want to learn, I see no point in it, I do not need it, in the future probably I will work illegally on the construction site* or a statement of a seventeen-year old secondary school girl: *I do not know what I want to do in my life yet, I have not considered it yet.*

Terrifying is the fact that over 30 % of the charges of educational care centers do not see their future in Poland and soon after finishing education and becoming independent they plan to go abroad.

In the table 3 there is data informing about significant people in charges' lives, people who the charges the most often turn to in order to discuss their future plans.

Table 3 **People whom wards talk about their future plans**

Talks concerning future	Educational care centers				Family-run children's houses			
	girls		boys		girls		boys	
	No.of people	Percent	No.of people	Percent	No.of people	Percent	No.of people	Percent
<b>With nobody</b>	6	46,16%	6	49,98%	0	0	0	0
<b>With tutors/ care providers</b>	6	46,16%	4	33,32%	6	60%	2	20%
<b>With sibling</b>	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	10%
<b>With parents</b>	0	0	1	8,33%	0	0	0	0
<b>With friends</b>	1	7,69%	0	0	1	10%	1	10%
<b>With a trainee/ volunteer</b>	1	7,69%	0	0	0	0	0	0
<b>Other eg. a boss, a school tutor</b>	0	0	1	8,33%	0	0	1	10%

Note: the results of the studies cannot be summed up because more than one answer was possible, the percentage is calculated 25 charges of educational care centers (12 boys,13 girls) and for 10 charges of family-run children's houses.

The key difference between an educational care centers and family-run children's houses is that in family-run children's houses there are no charges who would not talk to anybody about their future, while in educational care centers this group accounts for nearly 50 %.

The most often the youth ask for a piece of advice or a hint their care providers and tutors. Girls address tutors with their concerns much more often than boys. Boys prefer to ask for advice their friends, siblings and other adults eg. school tutor or a boss in the place of work. According to A. Łuczyński and his studies on family-run children's houses, the people whom the charges address when having a problem are either care providers or friends and schoolmates (Łuczyński, 2008: p. 181).

Future professional plans of the charges were analyzed. See data in table 4 below.

Table 4 Professional plans of charges of the foster care

Future plans	Educational care centers		Family-run children's houses	
	No.of people	Percent of the researched people	No.of people	Percent of the researched people
<b>Physical worker</b>	8	32%	1	10%
<b>Cleaner</b>	4	16%	0	0
<b>Teacher/pedagogue</b>	3	12%	5	50%
<b>Shop assistant</b>	4	16%	0	0
<b>Policeman</b>	1	4%	0	0
<b>IT specialist</b>	1	4%	1	10%
<b>Farmer</b>	1	4%	0	0
<b>Beautician</b>	0	0	1	10%
<b>No clear plans</b>	3	12%	2	20%
<b>Total</b>	25	100%	10	100%

According to M. Tyszkowa (Tyszkowa, 1990) charges aged under 13 do not have specific career plans and now they are thinking about finishing current school. Older charges, however, declare various career interests. In a family-run children's houses prevail people who want to graduate from university and who see their future in a school or other educational institutions (50 % of the charges). In educational care centers, however, prevail jobs based on physical work (eg. a mechanic, a driver, a construction worker, a cleaner). These account for 60 % of the surveyed people.

K. Buchta believes that the choice of an upper secondary school made by the teenagers of villages and small towns is dictated by the following: an access to schools, their location in the nearest surrounding and by possibilities and costs of

commuting (Buchta, 2009: p. 83). The researches of M. Ruszkowska from 2011 and from 2014 conducted in bialski district revealed that in foster families the educational aspirations are conditioned by the place of living, in family-run children's houses a sex of a child determines a choice of school (in a case of male, a place of living as well), in educational care centers it is a character of institution that shapes the level of educational aspirations of the teenagers (Ruszkowska, 2016). J. Przygoda points in his researches a primacy of family-run foster care over educational centers when it comes to future, too (Przygoda, 1998).

The present findings of the researches confirm a primacy of family-run foster care over educational centers. The charges of family-run children's houses more often continue education on studies, more of them speak about their educational and vocational plans, too. By contrast, the charges of educational centers want to get a profession quicker, to earn on living and, unfortunately, large number of them do not connect their future with Poland.

### **Conclusions**

1. The kind of institution determines the level of educational aspirations and the choice of future profession. That is why in a family-run children's houses people finish studies more often while in educational care centers people decide on vocational schools.
2. A sex affects the educational aspirations as girls are more willing to continue education.
3. The age of a child relates to having or not having future career plans. Teenagers aged under 14 very rarely determine their plans.
4. The location of the institutions in the rural area hinders an access to the activities that develop interests of the teenagers.
5. In case of family-run children's houses and educational care centers personal factors eg. a lack of motivation to learning, getting reluctant quickly, a fear of failure and a lack of faith in one's talents, occur very often and only the right attitude of the tutors and care providers can change them.

### **Summary**

Perspectives presented within this study and the results of empirical researches do not max out the whole problematic aspects of aspirations and educational and vocational plans of the charges of a foster care. The field of study requires further studies and analysis. Presented findings offer some hints on how to work with the charges of both educational care centers and family-run children's houses. It is important to initiate among the charges speaking about their educational and vocational plans as well as to make them aware how important education and qualification in one's life is. Moreover,

it is necessary to take care of the right motivation to learning of a child. When it is possible, an access to activities that develop interests and passions should be ensured.

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## SOCIAL WORK IN SCHOOL EDUCATION

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**Abstract.** *This work comments on issues connected with an aspect to include tasks from widely perceived social work into the activity of school. School, by fulfilling certain social tasks, consolidates characteristics which are significant for workplaces, as well as social institutions, e.g. children's homes, community centres, social units. Thus, for a student, school is some kind of mind training department. The time spend at educational facility forces, apart from didactical activities, insurance that children in care will get a possibility to relax, play or to provide safe development, then by defined part of a day the school replaces a family. Didactical functions, character and social education of school are equal and mutually connected. By understanding social work within categories of support in gaining abilities of self functioning within society, it will be then an activity which includes various behaviours and attitudes which drive to equip a client with necessary strength or means which are crucial for individual development and proper social functioning.*

**Keywords:** *child protection system, child welfare system, functions of social work, social change, social development, social work.*

### Introduction

Education, understood as transfer of knowledge, skills, education, is a process that encompasses the whole human life. The earlier division of human existence, as emphasised by Urszula Jeruszka (Jeruszka, 2003), has lost its relevance in the pursuit of constant and comprehensive learning, for the time of learning, professional activity and social activity. Education begins to play much significant role in the perspective of individuals in the labour market. A higher level of education creates both greater career opportunities and greater adaptability to the broadening needs of the economics. The educational policy of the state, although essential in the area of equalising educational opportunities, can influence the development of inequalities or the perpetuation of the unfortunate position of an individual. The school system, according to the selective function, determines the educational paths of the pupils, deciding on the later strengths in the labor market. The student through the educational institution receives material support and actual aid, didactic aids, as well as psychological and pedagogical support. The role of the school in the local environment and the role of the school other than the educational one, e.g. integration of the social

environment (Godlewska & Jaroszewska, 2007), also seems to be significant from the perspective of social policy. Justyna Godlewska and Emilia Jaroszewska (Godlewska & Jaroszewska, 2007) present the most important problems of the Polish educational system:

- low level of pre-school education;
- difficulties with realisation of the educational function of the school, especially at lower secondary level;
- absence of effective mechanisms for equalising opportunities for children and young people in access to education, especially at the secondary and higher levels;
- incompatibility of vocational education and training according to the needs of the labour market;
- no systemic solutions for the dissemination of lifelong learning.

Social pedagogy treats social work as an area of social activity of various stakeholders interested in stimulating development and the support of individuals, groups or communities in overcoming difficult situations. Action at this point is understood within categories of creating institution, which makes it possible to construct analytical tools, which are the basis for distinguishing three types of institutions: real, imagined and symbolic one which are included in one organism or in an individual act of action. An institution in this sense has dynamics, arising from the tension between what is organised, developed, and what is in the process of creation. Social work is therefore a dynamic process of change and transformation, predestinating individuals or groups to enter into relationships with oneself, others and by others (Marynowicz-Hetka, 2007).

### **Social work as discipline strictly associated with school education**

The General Assembly of the International Federation of Social Workers and the International Association of Schools of Social Work (<http://ifsw.org/get-involved/global-definition-of-social-work>) accepted in July 2014 a global definition of social work, in practice and academic discipline, promoting such elements as social change, development, social cohesion, empowerment, liberation of people. Principles of social work include: human rights, community sense of responsibility, and respect for differences and otherness. Social work, based on its own theories, social sciences, humanities and local knowledge, mobilises people or social structures to counter life difficulties in order to improve the broadly understood functioning of the individual. Historical, socioeconomic, cultural, spatial, political and personality factors, on the one hand, may be an opportunity for the development and welfare of the human being and, on the other hand - a barrier. Structural barriers result in persistence of inequality, oppression,

discrimination, exploitation. Reflecting on the structural aetiology of oppression or privilege, including the criteria of race, language, class, religion, gender, disability, culture and sexual orientation, and on developing a strategy of action against structural and individual constraints, play an important role in emancipatory practice, the foundation of which are the empowerment and liberation of the people. Solidarity with disadvantaged people triggers the pursuit for poverty reduction, the liberation of the defenceless and the oppressed, and the promotion of social inclusion and cohesion. The promotion of social change is based on the belief that the current situation of a person, family, small group, community or society is interpreted as requiring change and development to intervene in social work. There is therefore a necessity to counterbalance structural conditions that affect marginalisation, social exclusion, oppression. The role of human activity lies at the root of social work initiatives in the promotion of human rights, as well as economic, environmental and social justice. Social work is also required to maintain social stability, but it cannot be used for the purpose of marginalising, excluding or oppressing a given group of people. Social development is understood as intervention strategies, desirable states and policy frameworks. It is based on holistic, bio-psycho-social, spiritual diagnoses and interventions that go beyond micro-macro divisions, and involve different levels of the system, as well as interdisciplinary, interdisciplinary cooperation on balance. The pursuit of socio-structural and economic change is significant within social development, although the conventional idea is that economic growth determines social development. Principles of social work include: respect for the inherent value and human dignity, harmlessness, respect for otherness, protection of human rights and social justice. Encouraging social justice and defending human rights are motivational as a justification for social work. Human rights must coexist with social responsibility. The concept of social responsibility is related with the everyday reality, because individual human rights can be attained when human beings are responsible for each other, the environment and recognise the importance of building relationships within communities. Social work focuses on the protection of human rights at all levels, facilitating individuals to take responsibility for each other's well-being, as well as raising awareness and respect for the interdependence between people and the environment. Social work refers to the rights of the first, second and third generations. The first generation includes civil and political rights (freedom of expression, freedom of conscience, freedom from torture and arbitrary imprisonment), the second - socio-economic and cultural rights, including rights to specific areas of education, health, housing, the use of their own language by ethnic minorities while the third focuses on the world of nature, the biodiversity between species and intergenerational equality. The rights of all generations are mutually reinforcing, dependent on each other, ensuring individual and collective rights. Social work, with a wide assortment of

theories and research, is interdisciplinary, as well as trans-disciplinary. Science is understood here as a basic knowledge. Social work draws on knowledge from its own theoretical foundations and research, and goes on to the theories of other humanistic theories, including but not being limited to community development theory, social pedagogy, administration theory, anthropology, ecology, economics, theory of education, management theory, psychiatry, psychology, public health theories and sociology. The uniqueness of research and the theory of social work is evidenced by the fact that they are application and emancipatory. A substantial area within these research or theories is formed by the participation of social work recipients in a dialogical, interactive process that is constructed by specific practice environments, as well as the core resources of knowledge. Recognising only the values of Western knowledge and theories, and the elimination and negation of native knowledge are elements of the colonial heritage. The new global definition of social work proposes to stop and reverse this process by believing that native people in each region or area have their own values, ways of knowing and transferring knowledge, and contributing to science a very important contribution. Social work, letting to voice and learning from indigenous peoples, wants to make reparation for hegemony and historical Western scientific colonialism. International Federation of Social Workers, having regard to the work of the United Nations, define the indigenous peoples as:

- living on (or keeping attached to) geographically defined territories of their ancestors;
- striving for their respective territories to maintain separate social, economic and political institutions;
- typically striving to preserve cultural, geographical and institutional distinctiveness rather than full assimilation of society;
- identifying as indigenous or tribal (<http://ifsw.org/policies/indigenous-peoples>).

The justification and commitment of social work involves intervention where individuals interact with the environment. The environment is a variety of social systems in which a person is rooted and a natural geographical environment that has a fundamental influence on his life. The participatory methodology affirmed in social work refers to the claim that it engages people, social systems, to counteract life problems in order to improve daily living. Social work promotes more work with people than for people. Taking into account the paradigm of social development, social workers have a variety of skills, techniques, strategies, rules on different levels of the system, set to maintain or change. The practical side of social work involves many tasks, forms of therapy, counselling, group work and environment, formulation and analysis of social policy, advocacy and



interventions. Emancipation prospects give social work strategies a direction to strengthen human hope, self-esteem, creative potential in order to resist the dynamics of oppressive forces, as well as the structural a etiology of injustice, combining micro-macro, as well as individual-political dimension of intervention. The holistic approach to social work is universal, but the priorities of the practice, depending on the historical, cultural, political and socio-economic conditions will be different in different countries.

Activities implemented within the scope of social work may fulfil the following functions:

- where social work appears as a distributor of goods, a guard and a stabiliser of social change, and social workers represent managers of social problems;
- contesting in which the activities of the representatives of social professions focus on the realisation of social mechanisms, hence they act as spokesmen for people excluded from social life;
- in contrast to the management of social problems, representatives of social professions, together with their dependents and users, work out a contract draft (Marynowicz-Hetka, 2007).

The following table (Marynowicz-Hetka, 2007) describes the functions and related social work models:

The implementation of the aims and tasks of social work is determined by taking conscious actions aimed at shaping the personality of child in care. It encompasses a wide range of activities: from intervention, through marginal, institutional, environmental, organisational, to caring one. Understanding social work in terms of support for gaining self-employment in society, it will be an activity that includes a variety of behaviours and attitudes aimed at equipping the client with the necessary strength or resources for individual development and proper social functioning. Supporting development as the core of social and educational work in terms of social pedagogy means proactive, protective and cultural actions aimed at enriching the development that are taking place in institutions, institutions, groups or living environments, and refer to the widest populations. In this context, the aim of protectionism is to protect the pejorative impact of potential threats and to promote the promotion of conditions conducive to a more satisfactory level of life. It is also of great importance to seek and help weak forces while strengthening the strengths of enabling social and educational activation of the environment, thus supporting the capacity of individuals, groups or local communities to develop and solve problems by themselves. Social and educational work therefore stimulates social activity and stimulates mutual aid activities to meet the development needs of individuals, families, groups, social backgrounds and active participation in inspiring, developing and improving

social-pedagogical programmes aimed at improving the quality of human functioning and creating a more favourable environment (Olubiński, 2007).

**Table 1 Functions and models of social work**

<b>Functions</b>	<b>Goals</b>	<b>Manners</b>	<b>Models of social work practice</b>	<b>Orientation of activity</b>
Protective/ normalising	change guard, stabiliser	protection normalisation and distribution of goods problems management	adaptive/normalising distribution managing social work	on transfer (of goods, rules, solutions) individual projects of solutions
Mediative	communication and mutual understanding (situations, problem, solutions etc.) and development	interactive and taking into consideration communication	relational promotional and developmental ones	on change and mutuality of division, creating a community
Defining	advocacy excluded analysis of mechanisms of social problems	protection of own laws and radicalisation of attitudes	radical focused on change and shaping	on solution of social problems, on society; direction from revolve society to radicalisation of excluded social group or in danger of exclusion

There are two basic systems in the social work approach to child and family care:

1. Child protection system – the focus of social work on the protection against harm done to the child by parents or carers, using legalistic capacity to disclose cases of wrongdoing and punishing perpetrators. This approach is the most popular in Canada and in the United States.
2. Child welfare system – focusing on recognising all events and circumstances harmful to the child in terms of social and psychological problems experienced by the family. Social work in this system, mainly in European countries, is oriented towards helping the family to overcome existing difficulties and to strengthen their proper functioning (Spratt & Higgins, 2005).

In the face of educational imperatives such as: equal opportunities, effective emancipatory and adaptive education, improving the quality of education, normalising the educational situation (Chrzanowska, 2009), it seems necessary to coordinate the care and education activities. Among the indispensable conditions that depend on the success of science and the optimal development of a young man Bogumił Łuczak (Łuczak, 2000) states:

- material situation of the family;
- lack of nervousness, conflicts, chaos, disorder, constant haste and sense of security;
- values recognised in the family;
- satisfying the basic needs of the child;
- the health of the child and the parent's concern for its proper physical development;
- proper motor, intellectual, emotional, social development;
- lifestyle, organisation of daily activities.

### **Summary**

Therefore, the educational success of the student depends to a large extent on the fulfilment of the protective function by the educational environment. School as the second most important parenting area for the child is the place where the social problems of the young man and his family are concentrated (Sander, 2005). In the social system of the state, as given by Jerzy Materne (Materne, 1999), primary schools, in particular, have a main role in bringing together the whole population of children. The school, by fulfilling its assigned social tasks, consolidates the attributes attributed to the work places and to social institutions, such as children's homes, day-care centres, social clinics. It represents a type of mental work. The time spent at the educational institution forces the student to take charge of recreation, play or safe development, in addition to the didactic activities, so that he takes over family responsibilities for a certain part of the day. Thanks to establishing interpersonal relations, the student acquires the norms functioning in society, adopts the prevailing system of values and social roles performed by individual members of the group (Siedlaczek-Szwed & Jałowiecka-Frania, 2016). The educational, upgrading and social functions of schools are therefore equal and interrelated. Due to the significant increase in caring needs and the increasing number of problems that directly threaten the development of the child, the school among other institutions involved in the care process is of prime importance, and should therefore expand its activities in terms of broadly understood social work both for pupils and their families (Kromolicka, 2002). Social work at school, emphasising the promotion of social competence, must refer to the following principles:

- parents and children are part of a transactional system that is characterised by continuous development and adaptation;
- parents and children are seen as highly motivated to gain the skills needed to meet the needs or challenges of everyday life;
- transfer of the centre of gravity from therapeutic work with clients to develop skills for mastering the art of life;

- opportunities provided by the environment or social support are a means of supporting development, achievement and self-fulfilment;
- the help' needs to be tailored to individual needs in order to maximise the competence, identity and autonomy (DuBois & Miley, 1996).

Social work as discipline should be strictly connected with school education, with purpose to ease problems which are connected with learning process and strengthening educational potential of students (Skidmore & Thackeray, 1996), plays an important role in stimulating the comprehensive development of a young man, especially in the face of his barriers to learning e.g. in disability, chronic illness, poverty, discrimination, social maladjustment, disfunction of the family.

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## THE ASPECTS OF SHARED LEADERSHIP IN HEALTH CARE

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**Abstract.** *Leadership is overwhelming the thinking of contemporary society. A well-functioning organization is first identified with its leader very often. Therefore, it is very important to question the attitude of leadership constantly, not to devalue it, but to understand it better and realize it. Moreover, the expression of leadership in different organizations is very distinct, and its specificity in areas such as health care is still insufficiently explored. Healthcare organizations hold strict hierarchy, therefore leadership is considered as equal to the administrative position. Modern conceptualizations such as transactional, shared, authentic and other leadership theories point to the educational power of a leadership; however, implementation remains challenging. The article presents the analytical-theoretical point of view and interpretive approach for case study about leadership. Firstly, the article introduces research evidence analysis of leadership educational impact for integrated health care system. Secondly, the traditional discourse of leadership is challenged with analysis of complex adaptive systems theory. The case study research was conducted with the purpose to identify the images of leadership among nursing staff and to recognize the needs for leadership education in the healthcare system. Case study results reveal the great need for leadership education in general and for shared leadership in particular.*

**Keywords:** *leadership development, leadership education, leadership in health care, shared leadership.*

### Introduction

There is a constant desire to better understand and realize leadership. New concepts are hoping to bring us closer to an ideal leadership perception and draw the path for its realization. Nowadays, the concept of leadership is characterized by exceptionally wide versatility. It helps to explain many other phenomena, but not the depth of leadership itself. In terms of modernity, the concept of leadership becomes more liquid and more flexible. On the one hand, this means that it has freed itself from a settled and one-sided approach; on the other hand, the concept has, to a certain extent, lost its fundamentalism.

Leadership in healthcare organizations is more than significant; it is crucial (Leadership in Health Care Organizations. A Guide To Joint Commission Leadership Standards, 2009). From the point of view of A. Al-Sawai, the problem

is that many theories of leadership were developed on the basis of the business activities and directly applied to healthcare organizations. Although there is a strong premise about the universality of leadership theories, there is a lack of specific data on how leadership models help achieve specific results when applied in the context of healthcare (Al-Sawai, 2013). Over the last few decades transformational, authentic, shared, etc. leadership theories are intensively constructed. However, the application of different leadership theories in the researches of health sciences is uneven. From the perspective of M. West and colleagues, the theory of transformational leadership is the most widely used in health research, as well as the theoretical preconditions of authentic leadership. Lately, the number of research that analyzes the importance of teamwork by analyzing it in a shared leadership perspective has been increasing. However, most studies lack the sample representativeness and methodological significance of the sample (West et al., 2015). It is important to note that nurses are the most frequent participants in healthcare leadership research (West et al., 2015). However, this gives only a one-sided follower approach to leadership.

Most of the leadership research has a common methodological feature - it seeks to answer the question of how leadership affects organizational performance, organizational culture, teamwork, etc. At the same time, it seeks to answer the question - what is good leadership, which determines the good performance of the organization. Leadership is usually understood as having an influence, but leadership theories of new generation (transformative, shared, authentic, etc.) are constructed to democratize the role of a leader. Therefore, influencing is associated not with the autocratic and formal strengthening of the position of the leader (*power over*), but with educational and mentoring-based mechanisms (*power with*). Because of this kind of research, there is a global approach that the role of leader has a real benefit in strengthening the social system and leads the society to the path of social progress. However, so far, research do not analyze social structures as spontaneous phenomena, but focus on social practices in which members themselves systematically and methodically implement social structures by interacting with one another. Therefore, the recent researches based on the complex adaptive systems theory (Weberg, 2013) seek to answer the question - not who is a good leader, but what is a good system that works well following self-organization principles. In this perspective, the realization of leadership is based on emergent (*sui generis*) structures, rather than on created through social practices. The emergent systems are based on the principle of agency, which refers to the importance of microprocesses implemented through iterations (repetition of the procedure based on the outcome of the previous procedure). Synergy is the closest analogue to the emergent systems.

The purpose of the study is to reveal the expression of leadership in health care using theoretical analysis and survey methods. The research methodology is based on a qualitative paradigm. The theoretical analysis method allows to reveal a variety of leadership expression in the health care system, and the survey is intended to determine the specificity of leadership expression. Critical theory provisions are used to integrate the analysis of the results of theoretical analysis and empirical research. The non-traditional method was chosen for the survey, i.e. the question for the participants on the survey was presented in the form of a picture. The theory of complex adaptive systems was chosen for the survey: i.e. the picture shows a V-shaped bird colony, and the participants were asked to mark (position) themselves and the bird they are following. The data was collected in October 2017. The sample consisted of 28 senior nurses who work in a hospital in Western Lithuania and who participated in leadership training (where basic theories of leadership were explained and the discussion on the basis of them followed). The hypothesis is raised - if the shared leadership model is implemented in the hospital, the senior nurses will position themselves in the middle of the bird colony.

### **The phenomenon of leadership as a factor in the development of an integrated health care system**

The effectiveness and importance of a strong team in the health care system is not questioned nowadays. However, the shift towards team-based activities involves questioning the traditional leadership model. The traditional, i.e. vertical, leadership model means that the formal team leader is responsible for all the results, while others are simply followers of the instructions. However, such a model prevents effective use of the knowledge, skills and skills of followers (Pearce & Conger, 2003).

By refusing the traditional model of leadership in contemporary organizations, a shared leadership model is being implemented. It is based on delegating responsibility to lower organizational staff, as well as the probability that all members of the organization will be involved in the leadership process (Konu & Viitanen, 2008), i.e. organizational leaders are responsible for strategic leadership, while lower leaders are responsible for the implementation of the activities. According to A. Ropo and M. Eriksson (2001), shared leadership means respect for others' capacities, including listening, encouraging, sharing knowledge and information, and engaging in decision-making. It is believed that the implementation of such a leadership model in the organization increases the personal responsibility of individual employees, greatly reduces the number of conflicts and guarantees the status of learning organization (Konu & Viitanen, 2008).



S. G. Willcocks (2017) argues that the idea of shared leadership is particularly suited to multidisciplinary organizations such as hospitals, where activities are divided into many divisions, but the ultimate goal of the action is united. Other studies are also discovering that the implementation of a shared leadership model in healthcare organizations can serve as a factor in building an efficient and integrated organizational system.

A study by C. Forsyth and B. Mason (2017) reveals that shared leadership is closely linked to the stronger professional and institutional identity of healthcare professionals. Their research confirms the idea that healthcare staff strongly supports and values the application of shared leadership principles in institutions. There is also a positive correlation between professional identity and leadership assessment, i.e. persons who better value the application of the principles of the shared leadership idea are also characterized by stronger professional identities. An analogous link has been found between shared leadership and respondent loyalty to the institution in which they work. In conclusion the authors state that the application of principles of shared leadership in health care organizations becomes a strong factor in developing the professional identity of the organization's employees and strengthening team atmosphere. These conclusions are consistent with S. Sims et al. (2015) opinion that shared leadership is perhaps the most important factor in creating a team atmosphere in the organization and loyalty of staff of all levels. Shared leadership enables employees to feel involved in organizational decision making and make them feel important. And this strengthens organizational identity and loyalty. K. Miller et al. (2007) provides evidence that shared leadership improves teamwork efficiency and helps meet the requirements of a modern healthcare organization.

The shared leadership model in health care institutions can be realized in several directions, depending on the type of institution and its size. Vertical and horizontal model realization is possible. In the vertical case, the leaders of the organization share responsibility with the lower-level leaders, in the horizontal case responsibility is shared among several leaders of the same level. In this paper, the implementation of a model in a multi-profile hospital in the aspect of senior nurses (vertical model realization) is studied.

Nurses are an integral part of healthcare teams. S. Ryan (2017) reveals that shared leadership, i.e. sharing roles and responsibilities, understanding and respect for them, helps nurses better express and use their professional and social skills and also strengthen the doctors-nurses teams. T. Kitch (2017) states that the implementation of the shared leadership model in healthcare organizations is empowering the nurses. S. L. Choi et al. (2016) reveals that empowering the followers in the leadership process is a link between leadership and followers' satisfaction with activity and its outcomes. The empowerment of followers is also

important because it encourages followers to identify with the organization stronger, thus increasing loyalty, personal effort, and engagement (Zhu, 2012; Minelgaitė-Snaebjornson, 2016).

The implementation of a shared leadership model in a multidisciplinary hospital regarding the senior nurses is relevant because their competences and responsibilities are steadily increasing. It is also important to note that the senior nurses in a multidisciplinary hospital have a dual position in the leadership process, i.e. they are the followers of the organization's leaders, but they are leaders for the nurses. It is likely that if they are empowered as followers, they will implement a model of empowering leadership in situations where they themselves act as leaders.

### **Leadership as an epiphenomenon**

The approach to a leadership as a high-level complex adaptive system is important because society and social interactions are becoming more complex and their perceptions are becoming more specific. The main feature of a complex adaptive system is the interconnection, which is based on the high degree of autonomy of each member (agent). However, the agent's behavior is defined by very simple actions. Everyone admires the impressive “buildings” of the termite colonies, but there is no grand plan for their creation, but only a very specific behavior of each member of the colony. Synergy power combines individual elements of behavior into a whole. This creates unique structures. A complex adaptive system theory enables to perceive leadership as a systemic phenomenon in the meanings that there is no centralized central coordinator. A leader is a part of the system in which all its agents interact and create networks. The complex adaptive system is based on the ability of agents to create synergies rather than functional relationships.

A complex adaptive system is very important as collective intelligence becomes more and more important in contemporary and future science. And its modeling is to a large extent based on the principles of a complex adaptive system (Surowiecki, 2005).

In the context of a complex adaptive system, leadership acquires a qualitatively new style in the meaning that a leader is not the main coordinator of the leadership process. Therefore, the concept of epiphenomenon, which refers to leadership as a systemic phenomenon, is more appropriate for the description of the role of a leader. It would be very difficult to identify where the leader is in process of the construction of impressive architectural structures constructed by the termites' colony. However, the charm of this unique natural phenomenon does not diminish anyway.

Another example is the V-shaped colony of flying birds. At first glance, it

looks like a bird that flies in the spine of a V-shaped colony is its leader. But, in fact, the same bird does not lead all the time, birds constantly change (Owen, 2012). Thus, the colony does not have a central coordinating point. It is formed not by linear principle, but by the principle of small interactions, i.e. each bird follows a bird flying in front of it (Resnick, 1996). It should be noted that such a behavior of birds determines not only the perfect architectural V-form composition but also the resistance of the colony: if the number of flying birds changes, V-shaped colony structure will be successfully maintained.

The approach of complex adaptive systems is relevant to the healthcare system because analogies can be easily found. For example, a hospital's organizational activity can be identified with a high-end watch. The finest parts can be picked, but they will not necessarily work like a perfect clock when they are put together. Hence, a good hospital needs something more than just the best specialists in one place - a system is needed. Therefore, in terms of leadership in health care, it is important for a leader to create a system (Leadership in Health Care Organizations, A Guide to Joint Commission Leadership Standards, 2009). The complexity of the health care system is considered to be its critical characteristic (Buckley, 1967).

D. R. Weberg (2013) proves that a complex adaptive system is a very suitable concept for building insights for leadership in health care. In addition, the development of leadership based on the principles of a complex adaptive system allows a much more effective development of innovations in health care.

The lack of a systemic paradigm can be seen in the context of health care, as healthcare organizations are often identified with a conglomerate of individual components (Leadership in Health Care Organizations, A Guide to Joint Commission Leadership Standards, 2009). As a result, the issue of leadership is also explored in the absence of a systematic approach.

## **Results and discussion**

As already mentioned, a picture of a V-shaped flying bird colony was given to the participants of the research. They were asked to label themselves and the bird they follow (see Figure 1).

The use of pictures in the research is rare, but very meaningful, especially in order to deepen the analysis of such phenomena as leadership. It enables people to express their thoughts more freely, especially the influence of hierarchical structures on leadership (Woods, 2016). Moreover, leadership is not an objective virtue, it depends on the perception and attitude of the evaluator (Maxwell & Greenhalgh, 2011).



Figure 1. A picture used for the research

The results reveal that all of the subjects identified themselves as one of the birds in the middle of the V-shaped colony (from 2nd to 9th bird, a mean 4.7). The participants of the research indicated that they were following the bird front of them or the leading bird in the leadership process (mean 2.2). The average position difference between “self” and “the one who is followed” is 2.65.

This suggests that the shared leadership model exists in the hospital, i.e. the senior nurses see the leaders in the organization, but by positioning themselves in the middle of the chain, they also see the people behind them (that follow them). Therefore, it can be assumed that they are empowered to act as the leaders in the leadership process. In view of the fact that it is precisely shared leadership that empowers followers, it is believed that such a model exists in the hospital and is implemented in a vertical direction.

Some subjects have indicated that they are following the bird in front of them, while the others are following the first or second bird in the front of the chain (the first leading persons in the organization). It can be assumed that the birds in front of the chain are considered to be leaders and therefore the subjects have indicated the intention to follow them. It can also be argued that the model of shared leadership is implemented in a horizontal direction as well, and responsibilities are divided among executives.

On the basis of research data, the correlation between the participants' characteristics and self-positioning is also sought. The moderate linear functional correlation was determined between the age of the subjects and the self-positioning ( $r = 0.353$ ;  $p = 0.000$ ), and the length of work experience and self-

positioning ( $r = 0.481$ ;  $p = 0.000$ ), which means older people see themselves further from the front in the organizational chain.

A moderate linear functional correlation was revealed between the self-positioning and following the chain leaders ( $r = 0.431$ ;  $p = 0.000$ ). This means that nurses who position themselves closer to the front of the chain more often follow the executives.

The identified linear correlations also suggest that younger people are more likely to position themselves in the front of the organizational structure and are more likely to take leadership roles and responsibilities than older colleagues. This brings novelty to leadership research since it is argued that there is a lack of research that seeks to reveal how person age correlates with individual leadership (DeRue et al., 2011; Bal, Kooij, & Rousseau, 2015).

Thus, the instinctive self-positioning of research participants in the organization's leadership model allows for such assumptions. But further studies and more qualitative data are needed for these assumptions to be validated and that the model of bird colonies could be used as a universal model for leadership research.

## Conclusions

Leadership is important for the development of modern health care system. In recent years, many reforms have taken place in the healthcare system. A lot of them are foreseen in the future. Leadership becomes a prerequisite for effective implementation of changes in the healthcare system. Shared leadership that focuses on a relationship between leader and the followers rather than on a position of authority empowers followers and has a great impact on their professionalization. Shared leadership enables the collaborative learning, creative experience, and empowerment that are key factors for modern healthcare development.

The research confirmed the hypotheses raised, e.g. it can be assumed that the shared leadership model is (at least partly) implemented in the hospital and senior nurses are empowered to act as the leaders in the leadership process. However, it must be noted that only part of nurses sees themselves in the process of leadership. This suggests that health care professionals require education about leadership, its impact on the effective functioning of the healthcare system, and the education on how leadership principles can be implemented in healthcare institutions.

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## PROFESSIONAL IDENTITY OF NURSING STUDENTS IN LITHUANIA AND POLAND

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**Abstract.** *Nurses' professional identities develop throughout their lifetimes, from before entering nursing education, throughout their years of study and clinical experience, and continue to evolve during their careers. Education is, however, a key period as it is during this time students gain the knowledge and skills that separate nurses as healthcare professionals from people representing their professions. In order to purposefully shape the professional identity of nursing students, there is a need of knowing the level at which students identify themselves with the profession when graduating from a university. The aim of the study is to reveal the professional identity of nursing students in Lithuania and Poland and to make recommendations for improving the study process on the basis of the results of the study. A quantitative survey was conducted in the spring of 2017. The results of the research reveal that the professional identity of nursing students is rather of high level, the decision to work as nurses is strong, but there are some gaps in understanding of roles and responsibilities of nursing.*

**Keywords:** *development of professional identity, nursing, nursing students' professional identity, professional identity.*

### Introduction

Professional identity is thus the self that has been developed with the commitment to perform competently and legitimately in the context of the profession, and its development can continue over the course of the individual's career (Tan, 2014). Identity can be defined as knowledge, emotions, abilities, and experiences that are organized around a social role. Professional identity is referring to those elements organized around a particular professional role (Giddens, 1991). Professional identity is a matter of concern for so many different professions (Webb, 2017), because having a strong professional identity is crucial for increasing the likelihood of ethical performances, an advanced awareness of professional roles, and ultimately, a better chance for the profession to survive

(Woo, Henfield, & Choi, 2014) and successful professional leadership practices depend to a large degree on strong professional identities (Ritacco & Bolívar, 2018). Evidence shows that strong professional identity contributes to altruistic and honest behavior (Houdek, 2017).

The even more problematic issue is the development of professional identity. The professional identity of nursing students may fluctuate or even disintegrate when exposed to clinical realities. A self-identity must be integrated firstly with new expectations and modified within a social context to form a professional identity. In the process of developing a professional identity, students either develop a self-concept within a professional role based on attributes, beliefs, values, motives, experiences, morals and ideals of who and what a nurse is, or lack to develop in this role (Moola, 2018). Professional identity develops throughout lifetimes, from before entering professional education, throughout the years of study and work experience, and continue to evolve during person's career. The development of a professional identity that is aligned with the desired attributes of the professional-in-practice becomes a priority (Tan, 2014).

Professional identity cannot be achieved without the contribution of many actors. Education is, however, a key period as it is during this time students gain the knowledge and skills that separate them as the professionals from people representing other professions. Students have to be supported to understand their developing identities: in making sense of their experiences to relate to who they are, and who they might become as the professionals (Monrouxe, 2010). When explicit support for the development of their professional identity is not designed or provided for, students may inadvertently be influenced by the informal or hidden curriculum that can run counter to the desired outcomes of professional education (Tan, 2014).

In order to purposefully shape the professional identity of nursing students, there is a need of knowing the level at which students identify themselves with the profession when graduating from a university. Thus the aim of the study is to reveal the level of the professional identity of nursing students in Lithuania and Poland, to reveal the gaps in study process and to make recommendations for improving the study process on the basis of the results of the study.

### **Research methodology**

The research was carried out in the universities of Lithuania and Poland. The data was collected in spring 2017. Participants consisted of 131 last year nursing students at selected universities (Lithuania n=65, Poland n=66).

Lithuania and Poland are developing countries and relatively new members of the European Union. Both states had to make certain changes in the training of



nurses regarding the regulation of European Union. The states are very different in territory and population size, and cultural context as well. The study carried out in these countries is likely to reveal gaps in the development of the professional identity of nursing students, and the insights made on the basis of the results of the study can be adapted to other new member states of the European Union. The study does not seek to compare the results of participating countries, but rather to find common trends.

Professional Identity Five Factor Scale (PIFFS) by C. P. Tan was employed in the research. Based on the literature review C. P. Tan extracted five key dimensions that contribute to the formation and development of a professional identity. These dimensions are 1) *knowledge about professional practices*, 2) *having the professional as a role model*, 3) *experience with the profession*, 4) *professional self-efficacy*, and 5) *preference for a particular profession* (Tan, 2014).

Based on a literature review C. P. Tan summaries:

- the first dimension, knowledge about professional practices, anchors the knowledge in terms of the professional contexts and central aspects or tasks of the profession. These are important for students' introduction and initiation into the profession. The knowledge of the discipline that the students gain, and the technical terms they learn to use, provide a start for them to begin identifying with and be identified with the community of practitioners;
- the second dimension, having the professional as a role model, refers to students having access to professionals as role models to look up to, and learn from. Students can observe from their role models: (1) ways to approach, reason and deal with profession-related issues; (2) understand what it means to act professionally, and (3) to behave and dress appropriately for the role;
- the third dimension is experience with the profession. Experience is defined as authentic contact with clients in a professional context that enables students to learn about the professional practice and the role of the professional. Experiences in the field contribute to students' understanding of what it means to act as a professional-in-practice;
- self-efficacy is concerned with judgments of how well one can execute courses of action required to deal with prospective situations. Self-efficacy research in education has shown that such personal beliefs influence students' decisions to put in effort to successfully complete their tasks;
- the fifth dimension is a preference for a particular profession. Studies in motivation have shown that when students personally identify with the importance of their learning - and hence experience greater

autonomy in their learning - they are more likely to work hard, enjoy school, and cope with failures In summary, the five key dimensions described above are expected to contribute to the professional identity development of students over the course of their vocational and professional education (Tan, 2014).

A measurement scale with 25 items for the five dimensions was used. All the items were on a five-point Likert scale, with 1-Never True, 2-Not Really True, 3-Neutral, 4-Somewhat True and 5-Definitely True. Reliability analysis was run and the results were reasonably good, with Cronbach's Alpha coefficient ranging from .75 to .87 for all the factors.

Research data were processed using SPSS 21.

### Professional identity of nursing students

Professional identity include knowledge about professional practices, aving the professional as a role model, experience with the profession, professional self-efficacy, and preference for a particular profession. The mean score of students professional identity is 4.03 (SD=0.93) and can be interpreted as rather of high level.

The subject of the research was also the development of students' professional identity during their studies at the university. First of all, it needs to be mentioned that students refer that the future work they prefer is related to the diploma they are enrolled in (4.26; SD=1.14) and their university education is relevant and useful in preparing for the future career (4.26; SD=0.98).

On the basis of the presented data it can (Figure 1) it can be noted that students' knowledge about professional practices is the strongest component of their professional identity developed during the study years, while experience with the profession is the weakest component.

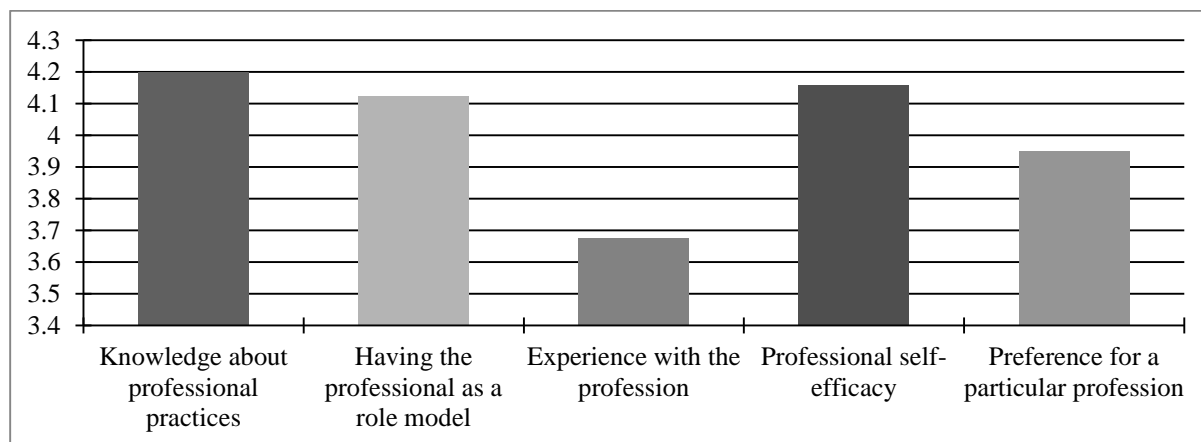


Figure 1. Components of students' professional identity

The mean of students' knowledge about professional practices is rather high and most of the elements are distributed evenly (Table 1), except for knowing the rules and regulations in health care and nursing.

Table 1 **Students' knowledge of professional practices**

Item	Range (SD)
I know the nature of the work I will do in my future profession	4.39 (0.75)
In most work environments, professionals with different backgrounds work together. I know of the different types of professionals I will be collaborating with	4.32 (0.67)
I have a good idea about the roles and responsibilities of my future job	4.14 (0.78)
I know what kind of applications, tools, and equipment I will handle in my future occupation	4.21 (0.76)
I understand the nature of decision making in nursing	4.5 (0.66)
I have a good idea about the rules and regulations in health care and nursing	3.64 (0.90)

Though students admire nursing professionals who are already working in the area and concentrate on what is believed to be needed to know when entering future occupation is high, it is still difficult to think and reason like a nursing professional (Table 2).

Table 2 **Having the professional as a role model**

Item	Range (SD)
When working on problems in class, I imagine myself to be in the shoes of a professional in my future work environment	3.95 (1.07)
I concentrate in my studies on what I believe I would need to know and be able to do when I enter my future occupation	4.57 (0.65)
I believe I can already think and reason like a nursing professional	3.69 (1.08)
I admire most those teachers who are professionals in nursing	4.07 (0.99)
I admire nursing professionals who are already working in the area	4.34 (0.80)

The weakest component is students' experience with the profession. The minor part of research participants had some prior work experience related to health care or nursing or worked part-time in a hospital or primary health center (Table 3). Still, knowing personally some people who work in my future

profession and attending the nursing training during the studies at the university strongly contributes to professional identity of nursing students.

Table 3 **Students' experience with the profession**

<b>Item</b>	<b>Range (SD)</b>
I work part-time in a hospital or primary health center	2.27 (1.71)
I have attended the nursing practicum during my studies at the university	4.72 (0.79)
I know personally some people who work in my future profession	4.75 (0.75)
I follow developments in my future profession in newspapers and on television	3.92 (0.97)
Before I entered university, I already had some prior work experience related to health care or nursing	2.20 (1.54)
I have interacted with nursing professionals outside of university or through events organized in university	4.19 (1.30)

Students believe that they will easily get along with the future colleagues and get their cooperation, they are pretty confident that can do an excellent job in the future and are sure about the kind of challenges faced by the nursing professional (Table 4). Still, they have some doubt about how well they are prepared for a real job.

Table 4 **Students' professional self-efficacy**

<b>Item</b>	<b>Range (SD)</b>
I am sure I will have no problems behaving professionally	4.16 (0.79)
I feel well prepared for a real job	3.76 (0.96)
I believe that I will easily get along with my future colleagues, get their cooperation, and have informal conversations with them	4.26 (0.80)
I'm confident that I can do an excellent job in the future	4.24 (0.78)
I have no doubt that I will master all the skills necessary to succeed in my future work	4.19 (0.77)
I am sure about the kind of challenges faced by the nursing professional	4.33 (0.74)

Though students are sure they will be able to adapt to the nursing working environment, they doubt what institution they would like to work in after completing their university education (Table 5).

**Table 5 Students' preference for a particular profession**

Item	Range (SD)
I am sure I will be able to adapt to the working environment of the profession	4.24 (0.88)
I am already pretty sure where I would like to work after completing my university education	3.66 (1.25)

### Conclusions and recommendations

The professional identity of nurses is crucial to foster leadership, honest behavior, and professional achievements. Level of the professional identity of last year nursing students in Lithuania and Poland is rather of high level and students express their willingness to work as nurses. It can be assumed that universities make a significant contribution to the development of students' professional identity.

Still, some gaps in the study process can be seen, i.e. the rules and regulations in health care and nursing are not learned well, doubts if well prepared for a real job arises, students do not know their carrier opportunities, etc. The findings indicate that universities provide much professional knowledge, but there is a lack of students' experience with the profession.

According to this, some recommendations for improving the study process on the basis of the results of the study can be offered:

- since knowing personally some people who work in nursing profession positively influence the level of professional identity, the universities could invite more working professionals to give lectures or discussions;
- since attending the nursing training during the studies at the university strongly contributes to professional identity of nursing students, the universities can organize more practical training and pay attention to preparing mentors of the high qualification;
- since knowing carrier opportunities contributes to the higher level of professional identity, more opportunities for the future carrier can be explained to students.

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# LEARNING A PARENTAL ROLE DURING THE PROCESS OF REHABILITATION AND FAMILY INTEGRATION, WITHIN PRISON SETTINGS

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**Abstract.** *Family relationships can give people a valuable sense of identity, belonging, security and responsibility. Families are important to us all, but for prisoners, they can make a huge difference to rehabilitation. They can provide emotional support and a home to go to on release. They can also provide financial assistance and help to find work. All of these things can help to reduce the risk of re-offending: Research suggests that having family ties can reduce the likelihood of re-offending by 39 percent. However, not all family relationships are positive and helpful.*

*Not all imprisoned parents have the opportunity to learn a parenting role before they are sentenced—they may have a negative experience of being parented, themselves. Therefore, prison might offer their first opportunity to learn a parental role and to learn about parental responsibilities. These new skills may enable them to break the cycle of crime, desist from future offending, and may impact on the prevention of intergenerational crime. To ensure that the process of learning parenting skills delivers its full potential, all members of a family should be involved, with adults and children learning together.*

**Keywords:** *children of imprisoned parents, family, integration, lifelong learning, parenting role.*

## Introduction

Going into prison is a difficult experience for offenders and their families. As a result of imprisonment, prisoners lose most of the roles they performed before. The parenting role should not only be continued but should be supported and used as an important tool in rehabilitation process. Prisoners are separated from the world they know and can find it difficult to become part of society again after they have served their time. Prisoners' families also suffer, even though they have not committed a crime. They can face financial and housing difficulties caused by loss of income, they can suffer from anxiety and depression, and they are often ostracised by neighbours and friends. Families have to cope with the practical, financial and emotional consequences (Mills, 2004). Therefore maintaining the relationships between prisoners and their relatives can be a

particularly challenging. Prisoners might serve their sentence a long way from home, so families have to bear the stress and cost of travel. They are faced with rigid visiting hours, are subject to searches, and may be treated with suspicion by prison staff. What is more, the prison may feel intimidating and hostile. Nevertheless family relationships can give people a valuable sense of identity, belonging, security and responsibility. Families are important to us all, but for prisoners, they can make a huge difference in rehabilitation. They can provide emotional support and a home to go to on release.

### **Maintaining family ties**

The United Kingdom Ministry of Justice's own research shows that for a prisoner who receives visits from a family member the odds of reoffending are 39 % lower than for those who do not (May et al., 2008). Yet in Polish Prison and Probation System there is an inconsistency of respect for the role families can play in boosting rehabilitation and assisting in resettlement across the prison system. The role of family is not treated in the same way as employment and education. Family work should always be seen and referred to alongside these two rehabilitation enablers. In Poland there are only few non-governmental organizations working with prisoners and their families, usually struggling to get funding and support. This is partly because work to help offenders rehabilitate is a relatively unpopular cause that elicits little public sympathy or political interest—in the field of offenders and their families, the difficulty in attracting support goes further than this. However, if prisons are truly to be places of reform, we cannot ignore the reality that a supportive relationship with at least one family member is indispensable to a prisoner's ability to serve their sentence well and achieve rehabilitation.

Consistently good family work, which brings prisoners face-to-face with their enduring responsibilities to the family, is indispensable to the rehabilitation culture we urgently need to develop in our penal system, and has to be integral to the changes required. Families need to be willing and able to engage with the rehabilitation process, as well as needing to feel being a partner in the process (Lord Farmer review, 2018) .

Maintenance of strong family ties is equally vital for the children of prisoners. Research shows that the outcomes for children of prisoners can be hugely negative. Early studies suggested that parental imprisonment might cause a range of adverse outcomes. Ambiguous loss, disrupted attachment and stigmatisation contribute to a shaken sense of ontological security, all of which together can partly explain the increased risk for intergenerational crime identified in prior research (The COPING Project – Final Report, 2013). Strengthening children's resilience in order to improve their coping capacity is a key path to



empowering these children and their families, and improving the chances of a healthy, productive adult life.

Gwyneth Boswell's (2002) study of children whose father was imprisoned, found that most children interviewed expressed feelings of sadness or distress and commented on mostly negative changes in their lives since their father's imprisonment. The children were found to entertain a 'mixture of hopes and fears for their continuing and future relationships with their fathers'. Other studies have consistently reported the following psychosocial problems during parental incarceration, including: depression, hyperactivity, aggressive behaviour, withdrawal, regression, clinging behaviour, sleep problems, eating problems, running away, truancy, low academic achievement and delinquency/anti-social behaviour (Farrington & Murray, 2005). Farrington and Murray's 2005 analysis found that boys separated because of parental imprisonment had higher rates of antisocial-delinquent behaviour, and of mental health problems after statistically controlling for other childhood risk factors in the study (including low child IQ, parental criminality, family poverty, and poor parenting). That means children of imprisoned parents were a 'highly vulnerable group with multiple risk factors for adverse outcomes'. For instance, 71 percent of boys who experienced parental imprisonment during childhood had antisocial personalities at age 32, compared to 19 per cent of boys who did not share this experience (Farrington & Murray, 2005). Furthermore, the study found that children of imprisoned parents were likely to be 'disproportionately represented in clinical populations'. Most crucially, 'parental imprisonment predicted boys' mental health problems throughout the life-course', and up until age 48, with 36 percent having high levels of anxiety or depression at age 48 compared to 15 percent of boys with no history of parental imprisonment or separation. Compared to their peers, children of prisoners have been found to have three times the risk for mental health problems, anti-social delinquent behavior and other adverse outcomes (Farrington & Murray, 2009).

Parental imprisonment threatens a child's sense of attachment security. This is linked with Bowlby's attachment theory (Bowlby, 1969), which states that young children require dependable, accepting and intimate contact with their parents for stable emotional development. According to Bowlby, secure attachment bonds promote positive child development and behaviour, whereas insecure attachment can lead to deficits in social and moral functioning in adulthood. The idea that parent child separation is harmful for children may be especially significant for children of prisoners because of the way that separation can often occur.

Although a large number of children are affected by parental imprisonment there is a lack of research into the topic, and the problem appears to be world-wide. The research that has been carried out in several countries into the effects

of parental incarceration on children illustrates that it can be a very traumatic experience for the child of the offender. However it is extremely difficult to estimate the number of children who are affected by parental imprisonment every year. In Poland no data is collected on a national scale. Despite this, last year the Polish Ministry of Justice announced that there are 47,000 children with a parent in prison. The number was given in response to a request asked by a journalist involved in an international champagne “Not my crime, still my sentence” regarding a situation of children of prisoners in Poland. The credibility of this information is somehow questionable (Jaroń, 2017).

According to Children of Prisoners Europe (COPE) a network of non-profit organizations, there are 2.1 million children affected by imprisoned in Europe. This is an umbrella organization, consisting of professionals and academics working to support children separated from a parent in prison with 28 members in 16 countries across Europe. Their aim is to promote and protect the rights of children with imprisoned parents and to ensure that these rights—as enshrined in the UN Convention on the Rights of the Child (UNCRC) and the European Convention on Human Rights, are taken into account. Between 2010 and 2012 the organization led a child-centred project, which investigated the resilience and vulnerability to mental health problems of children of imprisoned parents. It was the first time that a study of its size focused on the resilience and vulnerability of children of imprisoned parents throughout Europe. The study covered four countries: Sweden, Romania, Germany and the UK. COPING research findings are aimed towards implementing European and international public policies in the view of enhancing the welfare of children. Support for children in accessing prisons and participating in prison visits, for example, is highly needed since only non-governmental organisations provide such services. Moreover, these methods vary greatly from one country to another (The COPING Project: Final Report, 2013).

Garmezy (1993) defines resilience as the individual ability to adjust properly, positively or feeling competent despite being at serious risk. Newman and Blackburn (2002) provided a definition for resilience in children. They state that resilient children are more capable at confronting stress, managing change and indecision and recuperate more quickly and thoroughly from disturbing incidents. Children’s resilience is closely related to sharing information with them openly and honestly about what has happened and the reasons for their parent’s imprisonment, consistent with their age and maturity. Above all, honesty is good for children and helps promote their positive mental health. Children of prisoners are sometimes told nothing or false stories about what happened to the imprisoned parent. Non-disclosure may come from a desire to protect the child, parents may lie pre-trial, assuming they’ll be found not guilty and return. However, imprisoned parents may be motivated to protect themselves rather than do what is best for the

child or the family. Some prisoners think that by keeping the imprisonment secret, they could return to the family and things would be the same as before the sentence. Sometimes one parent wants to tell the truth and the other does not, which adds difficulty. Children find it much harder to deal with the parent's absence if the truth is concealed: it can increase insecurity and erode trust between parents and children. Children may find out the truth from other sources. Disclosure of the imprisonment in an age-appropriate way can help the children adjust to the situation and reduce feelings of anxiety and guilt. Children can be more resilient and adaptable to adversity than adults often recognise. Honest disclosure can help children see the consequences of actions. Even young children were thought by some to benefit from knowing the sequences of events and what would happen when, particularly as children often subconsciously pick up on what is occurring. Parents may need assistance in how to tell their children (The COPING Project – Final Report, 2013).



Figure 1. The letter from a child to his dad: “Dear Daddy, when I found out that you are in a prison, I cried, and granny also cried when she was telling me this. I felt sad and wanted to come and visit you, by this car”

COPING research also recognised the potential role of imprisoned parents as active agents in promoting children's welfare (Mahmoudi et al., 2015). Encouraging imprisoned parents to contribute to their children's daily lives can be problematic because they might not appreciate how hard it is for their children

to deal with their imprisonment. They might not realise just how important they are in promoting their child's welfare and they may fail to see how they can possibly carry out from prison their role as a parent. Imprisoned parents need to have their awareness raised about the importance of their role, the difficulties their children may face and the various positive coping strategies that the family can develop. Just as carers need support on the outside, the imprisoned parent should be offered advice and support on parenting from within the prison through the provision of and participation in parenting groups and classes. But it is not just a case of changing perceptions. Imprisoned parents cannot execute their parenting role without continuing quality contact with their child. Therefore a suitable, child – friendly space should be provided for children visiting prisons, with non – judgmental approach.

Another aspect which children of imprisoned parents have to face is stigma. Parental imprisonment very often leads to children being labelled as different, as having an undesirable characteristic and being in a category of “them” as opposed to “us” (Eddy & Poehlmann, 2010). The stigma of having a parent in prison can cause children of prisoners to be labelled and rejected by peers, while children may feel they are different from others and withdraw from social contacts. They do not attract sympathy from others and can be stigmatised by prison staff, school staff and parents of their friends. Fear of stigma can stop children telling others about the situation, which can mean their problems are often hidden.

Although the prison environment is often destructive to family relationships, it can also provide a window of opportunity for change. National and international research indicates parents in prison are often motivated to use this period to reflect on their relationships with their child and to improve their capacity to parent.

Parenting programmes within the Prison System provide a unique opportunity to promote a range of parenting skills to, often to parents unlikely to engage in parenting education in the outside world. It also provides a safe space for prisoners to reflect upon and rethink their role as a parent, it can assist and support them through the process of imprisonment, potential release and resettlement into family life. The opportunity for parents in prison to contribute to a different childhood for their own children may help break the potential cycle of intergenerational crime and increase their own motivation not to re-offend (Purvis, 2011).

Programmes designed for imprisoned parents should differ from other programmes in two significant ways. In addition to focusing on the development of parenting skills, they need to deal with the challenge of parenting within the context of imprisonment and provide parents with the skills and strategies needed for positive engagement with their children, families and communities after release. This means addressing those factors that might threaten successful reintegration. Additional topics critical for this population might include

identifying and avoiding abusive or negative relationships, staying away from drug and alcohol misuse, dealing with past trauma and life development skills. Many men and women who become imprisoned may also have experienced much childhood adversity, for example, domestic violence, substance abuse and physical or sexual abuse. Many may have lacked positive adult role models during their developmental years and, as the research states, these early experiences will inevitably shape their own parenting style in later life. Hence, there is a real need for incarcerated parents to be offered education and training in effective parenting, given that most lack the knowledge necessary to demonstrate positive parenting (Purvis, 2011). Parenting programmes can be successful in helping parents develop their skills and resources, which, help them to parent more effectively. Components within the programmes can enhance parental knowledge of child development and positive parenting styles, which then can lead to enhanced parenting skills and parental self-esteem (Wilson et al., 2011).

Parenting support should also differ whilst being offered for imprisoned fathers or mothers. Given the distinctive emotional and practical role a mother has in a child's life, the experience of a mother in prison is usually qualitatively different to that of a father in prison. Unlike fathers in prison, whose child is usually living at home with its mother (the prisoner's partner or ex-partner), when the mother is arrested, and she is the primary or sole carer, then the probability of disruption on the children's lives is higher. This not only relates to the change of the carer, but also to the changing of home, friends, school and sometimes separation from siblings (Simmons, 2003). Another consequence is the fact that grandparents as carers (usually grandmothers) may be old and/or ill and with restricted economic resources. These grandmothers have to deal at the same time with the emotional and social problems of having a son or daughter in jail along with supporting children of separated parents (Ann Cunningham, 2001). In addition to this, research also highlights that two in three imprisoned women have mental health problems, at least half report being victims of domestic violence and 37 percent have tried to kill themselves. Nine out of ten women are convicted of non-violent offences, and two-thirds of women in prison are mothers (HMP Report 2005). Inevitably therefore, maintaining relationships between the mother and child is fraught with difficulty and the impact on the child can have far reaching consequences.

In order to meet all the above described individual, very often multiple and complex needs, it is crucial that highly qualified staff is selected to provide parenting support. Moreover, due to the nature of this work, and the necessity of reaching all members of those families, the imprisoned ones as well as the people on the other side of the wall, it becomes apparent that prison staff doesn't have the required skills. People supporting families affected by imprisonment have to fulfil the space between the prison and local communities. Another obstacle is the

fact that the roles of a prison officer and a family support worker are based on different values, which are difficult to combine. The first one is mostly about oppression whilst the second has more therapeutic approach. Therefore non-governmental organizations play such an important role in this process.

In the Małopolskia region, Probacja Association works with families affected by imprisonment, delivering parenting programs, organizing special children's visits as well as running an early intervention service providing individual support for children and young people affected by the imprisonment. In 2017, for the first time in Poland, they joined a pan-European campaign entitled "Not my crime, still my sentence" to raise awareness about the rights and needs of children with an imprisoned parent. The aim of the campaign was exploring new ways to improve children's prison visits, giving children their voice as well as raising the awareness among teachers and social workers, by showing how ordinary children have to deal with unusual life circumstances.

### Summary

The above described research shows the importance of supporting parenting roles in prison. Not only from a rehabilitation point of view, but also as a social responsibility to provide care for vulnerable groups. Children affected by parental imprisonment are in the 'at risk' group in society but their problems are hidden, and their voices are not heard. It is time for society to listen. Children shouldn't be punished for what their parents have done. It is time to think more widely about prison reform, not only for the imprisoned parents, but their children and family members who are also serving a punishing sentence outside the prison gates. Supporting a parenting role is a positive way to contribute to the whole process by strengthening family bonds, developing skills, emphasizing the importance of education. Parenting programs can provide the tools for parents to better understand their children, and consequently to support them in both their social and educational development.

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## THE PSYCHOSOCIAL FUNCTIONING OF WOMEN AND MEN ADDICTED TO ALCOHOL

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**Abstract.** *The article presents how women and men addicted to alcohol function in basic areas of social life as well as what their psychical condition generally is. The conclusions are based on the theoretical findings and quality surveys. The research shows the equality does not exist in alcoholism. The men, contrary to the women: become addicted quicker, drink more alcohol, suffer from more somatic complications, more serious social damages arise especially conflicts with the law. What is more, they die more often due to alcohol intoxication. However, socio-cultural conditions show the women are more stigmatized than the men, what results in receiving non-effective support. The features about being an alcoholic are variant in reference to sex, particularly the development of an addiction as well as experiencing the alcoholism and the alcoholism addiction treatment. The revealed differences between sexes should allow improvement in already existing therapeutic solutions, notably to adjust them more individually. It will improve the quality of life in sobriety, people who are addicted to alcohol.*

**Keywords:** *alcohol, alcoholism, alcohol addiction.*

### Introduction

Alcohol is by far one of the most widely used psychoactive substances today. Its use has a culturally accepted place in social situations. It should be stressed that even though most people are aware of the detrimental effects of excessive alcohol consumption as well as the widespread problem of alcohol addiction in modern society, they do not seem willing to change their patterns of thought and behaviour. The contradiction arises, in this case, from the fact that people drink alcohol because they truly believe that they do not have a problem, therefore, they are unable to see or recognise its seriousness. Such a wrong approach to the issue undoubtedly has a substantial influence on escalation of excessive drinking, harmful alcohol consumption and an increasing number of addicts, which poses a serious threat to public health (Fudała, 2009).

Alcoholism is considered one of the most dangerous diseases, which also may be acutely life-threatening. Excessive and improper alcohol consumption can lead to numerous problems, including mental health issues, as well as various health and social problems that may result in qualitative changes in the functioning of individuals with alcohol dependence. Long-term alcohol intoxication seems to degrade the human personality, cause serious health effects,



destroy relationships with close family members, ruin professional careers and impoverish social living situations. Cumulative negative impacts, in turn, impair the ability to perform social roles.

The way of viewing alcoholism in the context of nomenclature as well as perceiving addiction by psychological and medical sciences has evolved considerably. It should be noted that in both sciences there is a growing trend away from using the terms *alcoholism* and *alcoholic* as they are perceived to be negative labels. Until recently, alcoholism was considered the form of social maladjustment because there was a common assumption that alcohol abusers violated social norms. Their behaviour was considered abnormal as a consequence of their propensity to deviate from socially accepted patterns. Medical scientists began to use the term disease to describe alcoholism. Furthermore, the disease concept holds that alcoholism is a primary disease, leading to the development of numerous somatic and psychiatric disorders. It is also medically defined as a fatal disease. This simply means that it can result in death if left untreated (Żurek, 2004). From a psychological point of view, alcohol addiction refers to a psychological and physical dependence. Psychological dependence refers to the regulation of an emotional state, whereas physical dependence means an intense craving or feeling of compulsion to use alcohol and evident impairment of the ability to control use of alcohol (Pospiszyl, 2008).

Alcoholism affects both women and men. It turns out that until the 1970s, there were neither epidemiological, clinical nor experimental studies investigating the effects of alcohol use among women. Even if they took part in the studies, researchers focused almost exclusively on men. The number of women addicted to alcohol has increased considerably. Excessive drinking undoubtedly is related to economic, social and cultural changes, as well as women's changing roles in the family and society (Chuchry, 2012).

### **Characteristics of addiction taking account of gender – qualitative analysis**

Taking into consideration the fact that understanding the research process is necessary to conduct any scientific research, the subject of these studies is psychosocial functioning among women and men addicted to alcohol. The studies aimed to examine the fate of a certain social group with alcohol addiction, that is to say the individuals whose experiences give essential knowledge to understand the functioning of addicts. Therefore, the studies were based on qualitative approaches focusing on *the issues going beyond objective and measurable features, which enables one to address the issues regarding assessments, values and experiences* (Bauman, 1995: 55)

The main question posed in the study was: How do women and men with alcohol addiction function in society? The following questions were formulated:

Question number 1: What were the pathways leading the women and men into addiction?

Question number 2: What does the professional status of addicted women and men look like?

Question number 3: What are the family relations of addicted women and men?

Question number 4: How does the affiliation to an Abstinence Association affect the functioning of addicted women and addicted men?

The purpose was to find differences between female and male alcoholics in order to present the characteristics of addiction taking account of gender.

Taking the nature of the studies into consideration, an instrumental case study was conducted (Denzin & Lincoln, 2017) to provide better insight into the phenomenon of alcohol dependence and to capture the characteristics taking account of gender. Two types of survey interviews were conducted – the targeted survey and the survey with the standardised list of questions (Konecki, 2000).

The studies were conducted among a purposefully selected sample of 10 members (5 women and 5 men) of Association of Teetotallers Club “Ostoja” and Teetotallers Club “Wytrwałość” formed in Częstochowa. Every respondent uses an assumed name in order to remain anonymous (Table 1). They all suffer from the same disease as well as they have been through similar kinds of experiences.

**Table 1 The characteristic of every respondent**

<b>Name</b>	<b>Age</b>	<b>Education</b>	<b>Years of alcohol abuse</b>	<b>Years of abstinence</b>
Jolanta	67	higher	10	2
Barbara	66	secondary	20	3
Maria	62	secondary	20	20
Małgorzata	55	primary	30	2
Ewa	48	higher	10	2
Kazimierz	70	secondary	30	22
Adam	62	vocational	20	18
Robert	46	secondary	30	5
Marek	48	secondary	25	5
Krzysztof	52	secondary	10	5

What were the pathways leading the women and men into addiction? Although alcohol initiation among the respondents began in late adolescence, the development of addiction occurred among the women aged 30 and over, except for one woman over the age of 20 whose intensity of addiction was contingent on environmental factors. The men, on the other hand, developed alcohol problems before the age of 25 and their addiction was to a large extent genetically

determined. The women had a tendency to turn to alcohol because of their inability to handle strong emotions triggered by the death of a loved one, mental and physical abuse, cheating in a close relationship, a lack of positive interpersonal relationships and poor communication in a marriage. In the early stage of addiction, the women had an occasional drink with friends at weekends, then they began to drink at home alone to gain a feeling of comfort and safety in the mistaken belief that they could successfully hide their drinking problem from other. One of the female respondents described the road to alcohol dependence among women. Barbara:

*At the age of 20, I began to drink sporadically in the senior year of secondary school, then I misused alcohol occasionally during name day and birthday celebrations and social gatherings. I started to abuse alcohol after age 40 after giving birth to my third child. I was miserable in my marriage. My husband not only abused me emotionally and physically, but also cheated on me. That is when I began to consume alcohol every day. I could not abstain from drinking for 10 days – 3 weeks in succession. Then I took a 2-3 month break from drinking until another drinking episode occurred. I used to consume wine, neat vodka in different quantities. The repeated episodes of excessive drinking tended to occur for 20 years. I always drank alone at home.*

Drinking patterns among women often remain secretive and hidden because they are expected to perform their role as mother or a housewife in the domestic sphere. Some stereotypes of female alcoholics have emerged and tend to prevail, for example, the long-standing belief that women drinking alcohol are perceived morally depraved (Gašior, 2005). It is commonly believed that the influence of social pressure still has a large impact on individuals' drinking habits. They drink alone in order to avoid confronting their own problems. Both such behaviour and, in particular, the image of women and wives deserve to be criticised. Furthermore, in many instances, this imposes a great psychological burden on them, often leading to a sense of guilt and further degradation. However, it must not be forgotten that there is a group of women whose behaviour refers to male behaviour patterns, e.g. drinking in public places or consuming the same kind of alcoholic beverages. In general, their drinking is related to the drinking patterns of people around them (i.e. their husbands, close friends, siblings).

For the male respondents, alcohol consumption was seen as an easy alternative to social life. Some respondents described their use of alcohol as a way of handling life changes, the others needed social integration. In contrast, drinking alone appeared as a result of deepening addiction, as well as a deteriorating financial situation at home. Male drinking patterns are characterised by collective drinking. It appears that goal achievement, portraying a masculine image in the presence of other individuals in order to excel them are essential for men. They claim that there is social encouragement of alcohol consumption as well as

ubiquitous presence of alcohol. Importantly, both social and cultural roles in the two groups may result in differences in cognitive assessment and behavioural reactions to alcohol (Poprawa, 2011).

Men have been found to drink not only twice as much alcohol as women, but also more frequently. In addition, men took shorter breaks from alcohol and mixed different types of alcohol (for instance, vodka, wine and beer) and other liquor containing ethanol. On the other hand, women mostly preferred vodka. When it comes to effects of alcohol addiction, women who drink may be at greater risk of somatic symptom disorders than men, because it is possible for them to suffer from such disorders without being addicted. It must be stressed that women are more likely than men to feel the effects and destructive nature of alcohol abuse because the female body is inherently weaker than the male body (Ziółkowski, Augustyńska, & Budzyński, 2006). Somatic symptom disorders and mental disorders in women were, to a great extent, associated with affective disorders (depressive disorders, medications). The men suffered from disorders, such as psychoses (alcoholic hallucinosis, Othello syndrome, bipolar disorder experiencing manic episodes without psychotic features). Physical complications included cardiovascular system problems (the heart, hypertension), digestive system problems (duodenal ulceration, liver problems), cutaneous lesions. Taking account of behaviour under the influence of alcohol, an increase in aggressive behaviours appeared in most respondents. The women manifested only verbal aggression as a defensive reaction, whereas the men also showed aggression towards other people caused by frustration.

It turns out that the awareness moment appeared to be the result of others' influence (family, psychologist, AA fellowship members), the situation (loss of job, lack of money, body emaciation) and the feeling of blame. This is what one of the respondents said (Adam):

*It was all very shocking for me when my wife told me that when I am sacked and I don't earn any money, she will throw me out of our home by herself. At the beginning I somehow accepted that with ease, but when she gradually stopped taking care of me, I began to think more and eventually it was slowly getting through to me that I really had a problem with alcohol. My wife told me to go to the Club, where there was an open meeting, but I didn't like it at all. So then a friend of mine, who was a leader of a support group, asked me to see him in private, he told me about himself, I observed the relationship with his wife, and I thought it was cool, so I hoped I might be successful too. Thanks to him I went to a center, where I went through a 10 week therapy, after which I turned up at the Club again.*

In all cases the decision was taken independently, but it was a result of the outer motivation.

What does the professional status of addicted women and men look like? Women, contrary to men, experienced more problems in their professional career

because they lost their job either as a result of a disciplinary dismissal or a disability to perform professional obligations. The respondents were occupying responsible positions related to some office work in the state administrative offices (Social Insurance Institution, post office), in a private company (accountancy) or they were self-employed (a tailor's shop). If they were professionally active, it was very unstable and accompanied by a frequent change of activity. Maria remembers how alcoholism devastated her professional career:

*Unfortunately, due to alcohol I lost my job many times, I was disciplinary dismissed twice. I was a good worker, I was deeply involved in my work, but when you drink there comes a moment when you start self-deluding that it is all right while it is very bad.*

She notices that the relations with colleagues were good unless her disease negatively influenced her obligations. Presently three of them retired, one of them has been unemployed throughout her entire life, and the last one is actively looking for a job.

In case of men their professional career seems to be much better, just because despite their addiction they were professionally active and most of them returned to the same place of work. The men occupied technical positions, and additionally they took up some extra tasks. The respondents were aware that if it weren't for the disease, they would have earned more. Robert says that he lost a lot due to alcohol abuse because:

*He had a decent job in the field of trade abroad, so if he hadn't wasted everything on drink, then he would have had a set life now.*

Alcoholism in both groups led to a decrease in professional competences. It turned out that relations with persons that the men were in, just collapsed. The respondents somehow accepted that fact and when it comes to relations with new coworkers, they do not hide their disease, they establish proper relationships. The three of them have been professionally active since they gave up drinking, two of them do not work because of retirement and disability pension.

What are the family relations of addicted women and men? The most painful social result of alcoholism is worsening of a family situation. Family is a social community that is based on fulfilling each other's needs. Therefore, alcoholism of one of the group members has a negative impact on the other members. An addicted person disturbs an existing dependence, thus causing many problems in every sphere of a family life and leading to a breakdown of family bonds. The respondents either rebuilt their family relations or they are on the right way to do it, or there's still much to be done when it comes to their relations. The truth is that the relations of women and men under research belong to the most diversified sphere, however both the period of abstinence and the status of relations before the development of addiction as well as the effort made throughout the period of sobriety, should all be taken into consideration. Among women only two of them

maintain good emotional relations with their husbands, however one of them established a relation with an addicted person during the period of sobriety, what shows that similar experiences had an impact on mutual involvement in building healthy relations. In the second case the woman was being supported by her husband all the time, that is why their good relations were only strengthened after the period of alcohol withdrawal. On the other hand Ewa declares that her problems with alcohol deepened the already destroyed relations with husband:

*This was often the cause of rows, he was against my abuse, just because it made our already bad relations more complicated. It turns out that relations between them are far from ideal, my husband does not fully trust me, and I think that he does not completely understand what it means to be addicted. Frankly speaking, I do not know how much I can rely on him.*

The other respondents are singles, one because of her husband's death, and the second one because she had suffered violence from her partner, however in both cases these are just life experiences that brought them to addiction.

In case of men their relations in marriage are much more positive ones. That is what Krzysztof says about his wife:

*Most of all, I have a wonderful wife, naturally we have arguments, but they last just for five minutes and then we laugh at that. Now we are having a fantastic relation. I have rebuilt that broken confidence, and my wife makes me feel it by the way she cares or looks after me. Our communication has improved for sure. When there is a problem, we try to solve it talking to each other, we both have learned how to discuss what we feel, not only what we think. My wife makes fun of my showing feelings for her, because I am such a nutcase that being in a crowd of people in the middle of a street, I am able to say that I love her, kiss or hug her. All our life decisions are taken together just because we have decided so.*

Wives played big roles in relations rebuilding, because thanks to their consequent attitudes to men, who involved themselves emotionally, they changed their behaviours. Now they nurture reciprocity, the sense of community, open communication and autonomy to the same extent. Only one respondent experienced a break-up of a marriage tie, however he was able to build friendly relations with his wife in order to actively participate in their children's lives.

When it comes to relations with children, women suffer more when they do not fulfill their parental function, thus they blame themselves much. Women, despite a strong sense of shame and guilt, are more critical towards their disease. In their opinion admitting to alcoholism is equal to a failure in playing the role of a mother or a wife. The difference is basically related to an assigned social role – men are responsible for satisfying material needs of their children while women are responsible for taking care and upbringing, so it is more difficult for them to accept a failure of fulfilling own obligations. Małgorzata's lack of educational involvement caused many conflict situations, full of regret and anger:

*It is obvious that when a mother drinks, then children are being brought up by themselves. It was not a good situation when they came home from school and their mother was drunk, uninterested in anything and it was not possible to talk about it in any way. It was my husband's job to act as a father and a mother. Conflicts were quite frequent. At that time I did not realize that the girls needed the mother.*

Even though the relations with daughters improved, regaining their confidence took some time:

*It was not easy in the first year. At present it is really fine, just because the relations are being rebuilt. I make a lot of effort to make them know that they can count on me.*

Małgorzata is aware how much she lost as a mother, but she is able to see herself critically as a parent:

*I cannot turn back the time or all the years I lost, I was not the best mother, I did not participate in my daughters' life, because I was drinking. It has all really changed since I am sober and my daughters see that, and they enjoy it together with me. Do I have an impact on my children's life? At the time when I had it or should have it, I did not do anything, and now I do not want to, because they are grown ups, they have their own families, and the only thing I can do is to give them a piece of advice.*

Despite their awareness of mistakes they have made, men are able to put aside negative emotions and concentrate on what is happening. When it comes to perceiving oneself as a parent, they try to form a good opinion about themselves due to an insight in their role as a parent since the moment of alcohol withdrawal, but it does not change the fact that they still remember former misconducts. Majority of respondents has good relations with children, some of them still take care of children the best they can, trying to participate in their children's lives via frequent talks, showing that they care and cooperation in problematic situations. The others maintain correct relations with grown-up children and grandchildren, sharing their interest and support.

How does the affiliation to an Abstinence Association affect the functioning of addicted women and addicted men? It turns out that the impact of a teetotal fellowship on the respondents' life is equally positive. Undoubtedly the need for integration with people experiencing the same disease favours that. It allows to shape faith and power necessary to learn to live in sobriety. The respondents feel well as members of a fellowship, it becomes a part of their life and established relations are as valuable as family relations. As Barbara says:

*Meetings help me accept myself, they give me confidence, I do not look back at the past that was once the reason of my drinking, I am calmer, under control, I try to see some problems from a perspective, I learn patience and tolerance in everyday life.*

As women claim, their life has changed much since they took part in meetings, for example, they begun to respect themselves, they started to work on their emotions, they learned how to live in the now, they became more open – both in talking about themselves and when it comes to discussing others' behaviours.

For men self-support groups became their part of life, therefore they try to participate in every meeting systematically and with big involvement, because as Marek says:

*I would not like to exaggerate, but sometimes I feel better here than at home, and you can derive something good for yourself, just because each of us is different, and everybody brings something here, so it is enough that I take 10 % out of it and it is encouraging enough for me. They give me a possibility to talk, and besides I always get some feedback that gives me a pause to reflect.*

They also try to shape patience and learn to be tolerant and more active in their everyday functioning. Unfortunately only men can rely on support from their closest ones in their sober life. Wives take advantage of therapies for those co-addicted. However, women under research do not have emotional support of their partners and children who did not use any form of support and are not active in any anti-alcoholic movement.

### Summary

Analysing collected information, we should be careful while evaluating the psychosocial functioning of women and men addicted to alcohol. It is not enough to have a look at the fact whether respondents can manage in certain spheres of life, but we have to bear in mind some conditioning, both internal, resulting from personal predispositions, and external ones that include gathered experience, acquired skills, gained knowledge and conditions rooted in social contacts.

On the grounds of analysis it can be stated that both women and men addicted to alcohol function in social life on a level suited to their possibilities, being able to enjoy some achievements and trying not to forget about continuous work on themselves. It is worth emphasizing that respondents try to live in conformity with themselves, taking into consideration some external factors. It turned out that life situations with regard to gender are differentiated in the professional and family sphere as well as in the elements of a psychological image of oneself. Women more often struggle with family problems than men and that is reflected not only in the development of addiction but in motivation to undergo a therapy. Respondents have a realistic self-image, they have already rebuilt or are trying to improve family relations, striving to self-realization as a partner and a parent. They are professionally active or they do not work because of retirement, they try to establish accurate interpersonal relations at the place of work and they avoid environments which they were once related to due to alcohol.

Apart from a cognitive value, the scientific research should be practical, that is why some activities that might positively influence the psychosocial functioning of women and men addicted to alcohol in the process of alcohol withdrawal have been distinguished:



- Including in the treatment therapeutic work on problems specific for the given gender, having its reflection in the course of alcohol withdrawal
- Organising self-support groups for women that would enable them to get involved in work on personal development, at the same time would make it possible to shape their self-value, and focusing on facilitating social roles served by them
- Including a family in the process of therapy, making it possible to rebuild relations on the grounds of work based on values of psychologically healthy family
- Creating conditions which would effectively motivate partners of addicted persons to participate in the therapy for co-addicted ones. It is important to precisely present values gained due to approval of such a form as well as a reliable justification of necessity of its application.
- Organisation of free psychological workshops targeted at work on difficult emotions, negative thoughts and fears. Shaping the ability of releasing the tension in a constructive way using relaxation techniques, favouring the right reacting in stressful situations

Alcohol addiction is a disease that is diversified with regard to gender, that is why it is worth taking up research on individual cases to specify theoretically existing differences, because the knowledge of such differences is necessary to introduce changes in the treatment of addiction. Moreover, the generally accepted purpose is not only to maintain the state of abstinence by addicted people or minimize damages, but first of all a personal development is what counts. It gives a possibility to take advantage of an individual's potential to constructively and actively fight off everyday difficulties while improving life in sobriety.

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# FACTORS DETERMINING VULNERABILITY ON ONLINE SOCIAL NETWORKS AMONG TEENAGE GIRLS ATTENDING A CHILD DAY CARE CENTRE

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**Abstract.** *The article presents the results of the qualitative research which provide a deeper understanding of the factors determining vulnerability on online social networks among teenage girls attending a Child Day Care Centre. The research has involved the specialists from Child Day Care Centres of different towns and districts of Lithuania. A version of a systematic grounded theory (Strauss & Corbin, 1990) has been applied to conduct the research; it has helped to construct the phenomenon – Insight into threats on online social networks: “One step and everything can end up badly”. By applying the paradigmatic model of “cause and effect” of the systematic grounded theory, reasons for the development of this phenomenon, contextual and intervening factors, strategies of actions/interactions applied by the specialists as well as the manifested consequences have been distinguished.*

**Keywords:** *Child Day Care Centre, online social networks, teenage girls, vulnerability.*

## Introduction

Today, the Internet is an important part of everyday life of young people; it provides numerous opportunities for learning, leisure, and communication. Online social networks are described as a fast-developing part of the Internet (Haataja, 2010); they unite people of common interests who themselves create the content of a particular website and interact with each other virtually (Wellman & Marin, 2009). By participating on online social networks (further referred to as OSN), young people often face a variety of risks that pose a threat to their safety. The problem of vulnerability on OSN is particularly acute in adolescence, since it is precisely at this age period when the peak of risky participation on online social networks is reached (Gamez-Guadix et al., 2016; Schilder et al., 2016; Targamadzè, 2016; Vanderhoven et al., 2014; Vandoninck et al., 2014; Steijn, 2014; Turow & Nir, 2000).

Scientific studies (Notten & Nikken, 2014; Paluckaitė & Žardeckaitė-Matulaitienė, 2016; Pociūtė & Krancaitė, 2012; Wolak et al., 2008; Noll et al., 2013; Rosen, 2007) have identified the significance of the social context for risky involvement of adolescents in OSN: adolescents who are growing in

dysfunctional and/or single-parent families often lack social skills; therefore, their participation on OSN is prone to higher risk exposures. Socio-cultural, economic, and educational crisis prevails in social risk families, and child development disorders are determined both by the objective situation in the society and by the subjective experiences of family members and their attitude to the crisis situation (Kovachevikj et al., 2009).

It is noteworthy that, according to the data of the *Lithuanian Department of Statistics* (2016), there are about ten thousand social risk families in Lithuania and about nineteen thousand children are being raised there. In Lithuania, assistance to children from families at social risk is provided by *Child Day Care Centres* (further referred to as *CDCC*) which not only ensure social services but also organise children education (Catalogue of Social Services of the Republic of Lithuania, 2006).

According to the results of the study called *Life Online - Through Children's Eyes* (2017), girls spend more time communicating on social networks than boys. Therefore, teenage girls' communication on OSN might often lead to their greater vulnerability in the following aspects: harassment, bullying, persecution, exploitation, sexual harassment, or seduction (Dowdell & Bradley, 2010). Girls are more likely to publicise sexual photos on social networks (Rafferty, 2009); they are more inclined to share information about their daily activities with others (Williams & Merten, 2009); and they are more often exposed to the threats of sexual nature (Wolak et al., 2008).

There are studies on the relationship between adolescents' gender and their self-presentation in social media (Herring & Kapidzic, 2015; Campbell & Twenge, 2015) differences in online activities from the point of view of gender (Johnson, 2011); dangers for girls and boys in the virtual space and their safety (Livingstone et al., 2014); risky behaviour of girls and boys on the Internet (Notten & Nikken, 2014; Hasebrink et al., 2009) involvement of teenage girls and boys in OSN and its relation to romantic and/or sexual experience of relationships (Sorbring et al., 2014). These studies discuss the peculiarities of teenage behaviour on OSN of both sexes, but they lack deeper and more comprehensive insights into girls' involvement in OSN.

**The purpose of the research** is to deepen the understanding of the factors determining vulnerability on OSN among teenage girls attending a *CDCC*.

**Tasks:**

1. To identify the reasons determining vulnerability on OSN among teenage girls attending a *CDCC*.
2. To highlight the contextual and intervening factors related to teenage girls' vulnerability on OSN.

3. To distinguish the strategies of actions/interactions of specialists of a CDCC aimed at reducing teenage girls' vulnerability on OSN and their consequences.

### **Methodology of the Research**

The *qualitative research method* has been chosen for the empirical research. A qualitative research helps to answer the question of how a particular phenomenon occurs and it allows raising the question of why this phenomenon is expressed in one way or another (Silverman, 2011). It is an inductive approach to research: from a practical analysis of the phenomenon towards theory construction (Atkins & Wallace, 2012). The research has been accomplished by applying the grounded theory methodology (further referred to as GTM), *a version of a systematic grounded theory* developed by Strauss and Corbin (1990). Based on the authentic experiences of participants of the research and by using tools of high-level of conceptualisation, explanations of the phenomenon under investigation are performed which later can be transferred to other environments of social reality (Strauss & Corbin, 1990; Amsteus, 2014; et al).

The application of the grounded theory has helped to reveal the development of the phenomenon (its reasons, context, factors, strategies of actions, consequences); it provided with an opportunity to look through the eyes of participants of the research, through their subjective experiences and language.

Therefore, this study aims at revealing the opinions of specialists of Child Day Care Centres on the problem of vulnerability of teenage girls on online social networks and the factors that determine it.

*Participants of the research.* 20 specialists from Child Day Care Centres of different towns and districts of Lithuania have participated in the interview. The sample has consisted only of those objects that are sufficiently informative in respect of the research, i.e. the need for research as well as the relation of the investigated subjects to the problem under investigation have all been taken into account.

The research was carried out in the period of 2015-2016 in *Children Day Care Centres* in various cities of Lithuania. Data on the experiences of specialists in this aspect of research have been collected by means of a *semi-structured interview*.

The analysis of the research data has been carried out in respect of the methodology of the grounded theory, by gradually implementing all three stages of data coding: *open*, *axial* and *selective*. The phenomenon – The insight into threats on OSN: “*One step and everything can end up badly*” has been developed in the process of axial coding, by means of the coding paradigm of a *systematic version of the grounded theory*, which allows us to view the emerging category-

phenomenon from different perspectives (Corbin & Strauss, 2008). The phenomenon has been given a name that was embedded in the words of participants of the research *in vivo*.

### **The Research Findings**

The phenomenon – The insight into threats on OSN: “*One step and everything can end up badly*” highlights the dangers of girls’ involvement in virtual space. In the course of the development of the phenomenon one can perceive the experiences of specialists of a CDCC due to insecure involvement of teenage girls in OSN. Specialists’ concern about the well-being of girls in the virtual space also becomes prominent. This phenomenon helps to understand the reasons and purposes of girls’ risky involvement in OSN, reveals specialists’ actions that strengthen adolescents’ skills and promote the risk-free involvement in OSN.

**Reasons.** The research data reveal that workers of a CDCC are concerned about girls’ involvement in OSN. The main reasons for their concern are the following: risky girls’ actions, the threat posed by other users of OSN, striving to get the attention “at all costs”. It becomes evident that the feeling of threat experienced by specialists is due to unsafe behaviour on OSN among the girls themselves, often due to their willingness to receive attention “at all costs”, which further leads to the expression of problematic girls’ behaviour on OSN.

**Risky girls’ actions.** According to participants of the research, girls often face risk due to their own unsafe actions on OSN. They emphasize the problematicity of girls’ information published on OSN, notice that it is namely girls at social risk that provide a lot of personal information in the public domain: “*Girls behave risky by publishing their personal information on OSN, by exposing their contact details, their location, hobbies, photos*” (9th informant). The sense of threat is reinforced by the list of girls’ friends on OSN as well as by their interaction and meetings with strangers: “*There are hundreds of friends in a friend list of a twelve-year-old or thirteen-year-old girl, there are older people, foreigners with whom her relationship is unclear; various thoughts appear; she is messaging on OSN with older guys, whom she later meets, is going for a ride in cars*” (7th informant). Specialists are afraid that teenage girls are involved in various online communities where they can get access to harmful, dangerous information: “*Teenage girls are involved in various online communities that are now plenty of on Facebook; they are involved in communities that propagate various harmful habits, promote bodily self-harm in various forms, even extreme cases of suicide can be observed there*” (12th informant). Particular emphasis is put on the sensitive problem of cyberbullying. Specialists note that teenage girls at risk often try to resolve their disagreements and emerging problems by insulting

and threatening in the public space: *“If they quarrel with others, on the Internet, under their photos there appear threats, curses, and offensive comments”* (15th informant). The research data reveal that by their actions girls often violate not only their own security limits, but also the limits of other people, for example, their friends or other Internet users. As specialists point out, *“On OSN younger girls tend to publish photos in which there are other people who are not aware that they are being published”* (7th informant). Girls share information of inappropriate content that may harm not only them but also other younger Internet users: *“Girls watch and sometimes for other children distribute recordings of pornographic nature”* (8th informant); or: *“Several girls who harm themselves, cut their hands and feet, take pictures of this and share photos on Facebook”* (15th informant).

Specialists note that girls’ actions are more courageous on online environment than in real life; their photos on OSN are very open, sometimes even vulgar, their communication is too brave: *“Girls behave on OSN boldly, share their contacts, and meet strangers”* (9th informant). Girls are often inclined on OSN to create such their image which would allow to think they are older than they really are: *“By publishing photos on OSN they try to look older, sexier; they lie about their age, choose hairstyles, cosmetics, clothes that would make them look older”* (5th informant). According to specialists, it is precisely age-concealment that may influence the fact that girls may get older men’s attention and intimate, indecent suggestions. It is also noticed that on OSN girls often use taboo language, street slang, etc.: *“Photos, posts are commented in taboo language, a lot of swear words, jargons, etc. are used; this allows us to form a certain opinion of the culture of behaviour of a girl”* (3rd informant).

**The threat posed by other users of OSN.** While working with girls, in their stories specialists also perceive the threat posed by other users of OSN as well as the threat posed by the published information of violent content: *“Teenagers tell that they are often disturbed by information on the Internet published by others, for example, pictures of tortured animals; they complain that after seeing such pictures it is hard to fall asleep at night”* (12th informant). Specialists note that girls receive offers, intimate queries that pose a threat to them: *“Because they had received offers on the Internet, they had been invited to work as models, they blurted out that they had been invited to prostitute, to take part in photography; I think it is a big threat”* (14th informant). Often, girls get suggestions to get involved or to share the links of doubtful OSN communities: *“Once a girl told me of how she had been invited to join the group of “suicides” on Facebook, and as I understood from her story, in this group there were people with addictions, people who were suffering from anorexia, bulimia, people who were talking about the ways and possibilities of suicides, well, people who had reached a certain*

*bottom in their life... The girl did not join the group, but she and her friends had been invited and asked to share the link of the group”* (16th informant).

***Striving to get the attention “at all costs”***. Another aspect that stimulates specialists’ worries is girls’ desire to be popular and visible on online environment. For girls at risk *“attention is important as the weather, because if they had not received it in another environment, they can make up here [on OSN]”* (6th informant). It is very important for girls to get as much attention from the Internet users as possible, therefore, often they are not inclined to behave safely on OSN: *“It is important for them that everybody would see their information; they themselves are looking for friends among strangers, so what to talk about safety settings, they want this publicity as much as possible”* (15th informant). In this way girls test their social status seeking to be valued and recognized by the users of a social network: *“If your picture has received many “likes”, it seems that you are better or more popular than others”* (14th informant). Specialists have noticed some posts in the Facebook chronicles of a girl, where for a “like” of her photo she promises to write a personal message (8th informant). Specialists express their concern that girls often publish photos of their naked bodies, personal intimate information in a desire to get the answer. Striving to get the attention “at all costs” girls often neglect the sense of security.

The reasons determining girls’ vulnerability on OSN highlighted by the specialists of a CDCC confirm the insights by other researchers. The authors analysing the problem of adolescents’ involvement in social media (Herring & Kapidzic, 2015) also perceive the interrelationship between adolescents’ gender and their self-presentation; they discuss the encountered risks and the issue of adolescents’ safety (Livingstone et al., 2014). Scientific research has revealed that girls are more likely to share information about their daily activities (Williams & Merten, 2009); they are more often faced with the threats of sexual nature (Wolak et al., 2008), harassment and bullying (Dowdell & Bradley, 2010). Adolescents’ actions on OSN are often directed towards the formation of an attractive self-image (Campbell & Twenge, 2015) and associated with the experiences of romantic and/or sexual relationships (Sorbring et al., 2014). Risky involvement of young people in social networks can be displayed in three ways: a young person may be the initiator of a risky activity on OSN, in another situation he may be the continuator of a risky activity initiated by other users and he may be exposed to risky activities of other users, to encounter their consequences (Hasebrink et al., 2009).

**Context.** The analysis of the research data helps to understand that the anxiety of specialists of a CDCC about the involvement of teenage girls in OSN often occurs under certain conditions, the main of which are the following: *biographies of girls’ lives, OSN as the world of illusions, risky behaviour is fashionable and vulnerability of younger girls*. Specialists’ thoughts help to

explain the threats posed to girls on OSN, the context of girls' living conditions, their perception of OSN and their vulnerability in the virtual space.

**Biographies of teenage girls' lives.** Research data reveal that biographies of teenage girls' lives often create a certain environment for their actions on OSN. Girls' biographies are revealed through the characteristics of their families: a family at social risk is usually characterised by the problems of alcohol consumption, illicit activity, lack of a warm relationship, which is compensated by things, parents' lack of responsibility for their children, care for the younger children is given to older children, etc. (2nd, 4th, 5th, 8th informants). According to specialists, girls, who grew up without love and sense of security often naively hope to find them in the virtual space: "*Girls like homeless kittens become attached to everyone, without considering that one can "caress behind the ear", and the other can throw them out somewhere*" (10th informant). Such experiences in life in particular create the environment in which girls are looking for love without realizing that they can be wounded and/or harmed even more. The fact that these girls "*grew up without love like snails without shells*" (10th informant) makes them particularly vulnerable to actions by other people. They do not have a shield that can protect them and help them understand how to appropriately behave in the virtual space. Specialists note that "*it is ironic, but girls, who grew up in families that lacked warmth, foster one main dream – to find a husband and have a family*" (2nd informant). This striving can also be one of the motives encouraging risky adolescents' involvement in OSN because a desire to find a partner for life can stimulate thoughtless behaviour.

**OSN as the world of illusions.** Another contextual factor of this phenomenon, according to specialists, is girls' misconceptions about OSN. The analysis of the research data allows us to realize that girls' assessment and understanding of the virtual social space often go beyond the reality. According to one participant of the research, OSN to girls is "*a world of illusions which they themselves create, where they live and which they often do not distinguish from the reality*" (9th informant). Often girls who have received attention and recognition on OSN are even more likely to get involved in this environment. The world of OSN is more pleasant to them: "*It is fun for them to live in their created world where they are loved, where boys write them, where their photos are commented, where they get a lot of attention; but the return from the virtual space to reality is sometimes painful*" (1st informant).

**Risky behaviour is fashionable.** Risky teenagers' behaviour on OSN is promoted by the examples of such behaviour demonstrated in their environment. Research data have revealed that teenage girls often observe the models of inappropriate involvement in OSN among their peers, in their families and in society.



The context of the phenomenon is revealed through the environment which is created by girls and where it is fashionable to behave risky, and such actions on OSN are even encouraged: *“She boasts what risky actions she had performed, it is even “a fad” to behave like this, she proudly tells other peers how she interacts with older men on OSN, how they got acquainted, how they had been writing each other, how they met; there are girls who are afraid to interact like this so others urge them: “Don’t be silly, nothing will happen here” (15th informant). Workers of a CDCC point out that the forms of risky behaviour are also propagated for children by their family members: “If her mom is also interacting with different kind of people, if she has her eyes glued to the computer, does not come out of Facebook, then her daughter will think that it is normal, that it should be this way” (9th informant). Tendencies of risky behaviour are perceived by specialists as prevalent not only in daily routines of the youth, but it is also noticed that the norms of such behaviour are declared and implied in the virtual space by the society itself: “On Facebook you can see how everyone is sharing funny videos, the content and jokes of which are vulgar, full of violence, sex scenes, and it is normal for everyone; everyone is simply “liking”, “sharing”...” (8th informant). Participants of the research believe that such forms of behaviour that harm and impair the consciousness of individuals are supported in the society. Therefore, actions that pose a threat while being involved in OSN become a certain norm or even a trend if somebody wants to get more attention, become popular and visible. Fashion dictated to teenage girls is especially significant since it is demonstrated by certain groups that are important to them: peers, family and society.*

***Vulnerability of younger girls.*** The feeling of the threat for the participants of the research is reinforced by the fact that younger girls are more vulnerable on OSN. This is due to several reasons. First of all, younger girls’ behaviour on OSN is different: *“I think we should work with younger teenage girls more because they tend to publish more open photos than older teenage girls” (11th informant). Another reason which reveals the vulnerability of younger girls is their incapability to recognize the threat: “Now they often do not associate OSN with dangers, thus, we say that bad things can happen, and they, especially the younger ones, do not even have such thoughts “on their little minds” (12th informant).*

The contextual factors identified by the specialists of a CDCC confirm the findings of other studies that adolescents raised in families at social risk are more likely to have a higher probability of exposure to risk on OSN (Notten & Nikken, 2014; Paluckaitė & Žardeckaitė-Matulaitienė, 2016). The authors of earlier studies (Pociūtė & Krancaitė, 2012; Wolak et al., 2008; Noll et al., 2013) also emphasize that poor culture of relationship in girls’ families, the lack of understanding and comfort, painful experiences and dissatisfaction with the quality of their lives are essential factors determining adolescents’ careless involvement in OSN and leading to the cases of girls’ victimization on OSN.

**Intervening factors.** In the course of the research it has become evident that specialist's anxiety about the involvement of teenage girls in OSN is determined by the following essential factors: lack of skills, underestimating the threats, lack of privacy on OSN is the problem of the society, parental withdrawal.

**Lack of skills.** Specialists are convinced that the lack of girls' skills in choosing what information is suitable for publishing in the virtual space, the inability to protect their privacy and their data create the preconditions for the real threat on OSN. According to them, *"teenage girls have unlimited opportunities for communication on OSN but they do not have enough skills thus they pose a danger to themselves by their own actions"* (6th, 8th, 13th informants).

Specialists note that girls' skills are often limited to the creation of a questionnaire; they are not capable of realizing of other their necessary actions on OSN. It is believed that this may be due to language barrier, since some girls do not have any skills of the English language (or do not know the language well enough), they are not capable of protecting their data or performing other important actions (4th, 10th informants). Due to the lack of skills teenage girls often lose their passwords to the OSN account, they do not know how to deal with problems they face on OSN. Specialists also point out that girls lack for information where they should seek for help if they are faced with a problem. According to participants of the research, *"administrators of social networks should pay more attention to personal data protection and assume at least partial responsibility in order to protect younger users of OSN"* (9th informant).

**Underestimating the threats.** Specialists claim that girls fail to assess the threats in a virtual environment. This is one of the root reasons affecting teenage girls' vulnerability on OSN.

According to specialists, girls' understanding of the potential threats on OSN is very superficial, often they do not see any. A specialist gives an example when one teenage girl, who had got acquainted with a boy on the Internet, was about to meet him, although she did not know him completely. She was advised not to meet with a stranger, the risk of such meeting was explained to her: *"We told the girl that it is a big risk, but when girls are lost in love, they are in a fog and they do not see anything"* (15th informant). Similar examples are provided by other participants of the research who had talked with girls about the impending dangers of choosing strangers as their friends on OSN. In such cases, girls are encouraged to act risky by only one motive – "getting as many friends as possible", and they do not even think about security: *"It does not matter what friends; they simply do not think that it is not the quantity, but the quality that matters"* (3rd, 8th, 9th informants). Another observation by the specialists is that girls are aware of the threats, but *"they lack the understanding that it is not a joke, that it is very serious"* (14th informant).

**Lack of privacy on OSN is the problem of the society.** Participants of the research believe that actions which pose a threat on OSN are not only the problem of teenage girls – lack of privacy on OSN is the problem of the whole today's society: *“The lines and all the boundaries between what is personal and private, what we should keep for ourselves, for the closest people, have been deleted long time ago; all boundaries disappear when children's photos since birth are published on OSN, when our everyday events are published, when we try to resolve our disagreements there...”* (4th, 1st, 16th informants). Consequently, contemplations and discussions about girls' actions on OSN are often inseparable from the standards declared in the society and the patterns of behaviour in the virtual space. The issue of publicity on the online environment has already become a global problem, and it is becoming a certain standard (7th informant).

**Parental withdrawal.** In the course of revealing intervening factors of this phenomenon, one more factor which is inciting specialists' stress and worry about girls' vulnerability on OSN has been observed – it is the withdrawal of their parents (guardians) from their lives and from their activities on OSN.

As it is evident from the statements of specialists, the withdrawal of parents from the lives of adolescents is twofold: either parents are completely not involved in adolescents' lives, or they are indifferent to girls' activities on OSN. According to participants of the research, *“there are parents who are completely not involved, they do not know how to use a computer or how to turn it on, they only play card games and that's it; there are very many of such parents...”* (11th, 8th informants). Participants of the research have also revealed painful experiences of girls' lives in families at risk: *“Parents are drowned in alcohol, in their friends' companies, this child is not necessary, he or she is like “a fifth leg to a dog”* (10th informant); parental involvement in girls' lives is very minimal. The research has revealed that parents are not interested in or they are simply indifferent to girls' activities on OSN, some of them even believe that involvement in OSN ensures their safety because teenage girls *“are not tramping in streets”*: *“Parents are not interested in the activities of adolescents on OSN, they feel safer when the child is at home on Facebook and not somewhere else”* (7th, 9th informants). Parental indifference affects the vulnerability of adolescents on OSN, not all parents understand what social networks are and how they work: *“Parents are not interested in girls' activities online, some of them even do not know how to use the computer, not to mention social networks”* (10th, 15th informants). Participants of the research point out that parents themselves show their children the examples of inappropriate involvement in OSN: *“One mother is constantly coming to the library because she is single and she is looking for acquaintances online, she is so involved that she forgets her daughter; but she does not understand it, she needs these acquaintances, new dads, other things are not important to her... the girl sees everything, so what can be expected in the*

*future?*” (2nd informant). The provided examples of parental withdrawal from the lives of adolescents are often full of specialists’ helplessness, anxiety, stress and worries, they constantly raise the question whether they are capable of doing something if “*everything is the opposite in the family*”.

According to specialists of a CDCC, girls’ skills and abilities to assess the threats on OSN are still very weak. This insight is confirmed by other studies (Steijn, 2014; Schilder et al., 2016) which stress that adolescence is a period when young people are particularly vulnerable because the ability to critically assess the environment and to resist the mischiefs is not yet fully developed. Studies by Turow and Nir (2000) suggest that young Internet users, due to limited their ability to make decisions, are more likely than adults to be deceived, persecuted or exploited by others on the Internet.

**Strategies of actions/interactions.** The analysis of the research data helps to understand that the following strategies of actions are used by specialists in order to protect teenage girls on OSN: computer use regulations in a CDCC, prohibitions to use OSN and encouraging parental involvement in the lives of adolescents.

**Computer use regulations in a CDCC.** One of the strategies applied by the specialists to identify and solve the manifestations of problematic involvement of adolescents in OSN is the establishment of regulations of the Internet/computer use at a CDCC. This order establishes the time, sequence of the Internet use, possible online activities, etc. According to specialists, in a CDCC adolescents’ involvement in OSN must be restricted because it is becoming a problem: “*Since there is Wi-Fi in a CDCC, girls practically do not “get off” their phones, they are basically sitting on Facebook, so we try to introduce a rule that we do not use phones in the centre*” (11th informant). It is suggested for those teenage girls who violate the rules to change their activities or they are absolutely prohibited to use the computer: “*If I see that she is doing something wrong on OSN, I tell her either to change the activity or I will no longer allow her to sit at the computer*” (14th informant). Specialists understand that the activity of adolescents on OSN is their entertainment and a part of their free time; on the other hand, activities at a CDCC is primarily focused on such areas of teenage activities as doing homework, catering, etc., only then their leisure time is organized, then they are allowed to use the Internet. Participants of the research acknowledge that computer use regulations aim to address the problem of girls’ vulnerability on OSN.

**Prohibitions to use OSN.** Another strategy of action applied by the specialists is various prohibitions: bans to use the Internet or OSN completely or prohibitions to perform certain actions on OSN. Specialists reveal that sometimes when they are tackling the problems of teenage girls’ vulnerability on OSN, they are overwhelmed by the feeling of helplessness and if not seeing another way to protect teenage girls, they prohibit to use the Internet: “*Girls ask why they cannot*

use Facebook, we reply that we cannot protect them” (2nd informant). Prohibitions are often applied because the attempt to solve the problem of adolescents’ vulnerability on OSN by means of conversations and warnings is equal to “*tilting at windmills*” (8th informant). Specialists of a CDCC are often worried about risky girls’ involvement in OSN: “*We are worried about the consequences of girls’ risky activities, yet everything is fortunate, but one can never know when something bad may happen*” (8th, 9th, 16th informants). Another case which encourages specialists to apply bans is a painful experience of one tragic event: “*Communication and meetings of one child who had been attending a CDCC with strangers from OSN ended up in his death*” (10th informant). Specialists note that the online space is difficult to control and manage, but in order to protect teenage girls from dangerous activities on social networks, they take the following steps: girls are banned from publishing vulgar photos on OSN, looking for information that is not appropriate for their age, being involved in networks that are dangerous, and sometimes they are absolutely prohibited to use the computer in order to reduce the chances of misuse and to avoid tragic consequences.

***Encouraging parental involvement in the life of a CDCC.*** As one of the strategies used to reduce the potential threats of OSN, parental involvement in the life of a CDCC is promoted. Maintaining closer relationships with the family strengthens and stimulates parents’ perception of the involvement of adolescents in OSN.

Specialists motivate why, in their opinion, it is necessary to encourage parents to participate in the activities of adolescents on OSN: “*If there is no parental control – there are no levers to control the threats online*” (8th, 11th informants). Participants of the research observe that the work with families at social risk is rather specific, such parents (guardians) are reluctant to talk, to cooperate, thus firstly one has to win their favour (which is easier to achieve if parents participate in the activities of a CDCC), to talk with them about everyday matters, to discuss the bothering issues.

According to participants of the research, in order to reduce girls’ vulnerability on OSN, it is necessary to explain to teenage girls the rules of safe behaviour on OSN, to teach them to follow the appropriate order. When communicating with girls’ parents it is important for specialists to discuss with them the issues of safe Internet use, to inform about positive communication, the creation of the rules for using the Internet and their support in the family. Studies by other authors (Rosen, 2007) have found out that children with whom parents had not discussed the issues of online safety exhibited a more dangerous online behaviour than those children with whom parents had talked about safe Internet use.

**Consequences.** The strategies applied by the specialists of a CDCC in order to reduce teenage girls' vulnerability on OSN have some consequences. The analysis of the research data helps to understand the main consequences of the development of this phenomenon: teenage girls' resistance, "forbidden fruit is sweeter", negative experiences on OSN, parental involvement.

**Teenage girls' resistance.** Specialists are worried that the strategies of prohibitions or regulations applied in a CDCC do not always bring positive results; in some cases, feedback is completely the opposite. According to participants of the research, teenage girls, due to some peculiarities of their development, tend to rebel and resist to the advices and decisions of adults, therefore, in the case of the established order they "*try the limits*" (12th, 15th informants). One particular case demonstrates that a girl was not allowed to bring the tablet to a CDCC because her behaviour on OSN was not always appropriate. However, after some time, she continued to ignore the rules of the centre and used her tablet (6th informant). Specialists acknowledge that prohibitions for the activities on OSN are sometimes short-term and not always effective: "*The problem is resolved only for some time; after I said it – it worked, the girl did not view inappropriate information on OSN; but later I noticed that she was continuing to share inappropriate information because if she thinks that I do not see, she is again viewing the information that does not meet her age*" (1st informant).

Although specialists understand that the results of activities with teenage girls are often minimal and short-term, they do not give up and consider how to help the girls to adequately recognize and overcome the threats on OSN.

**"Forbidden fruit is sweeter".** Another consequence of the strategies of actions/interactions which is closely related to the first one is the fact that the more teenage girls have something forbidden, the more they want it. In adolescence, the desire for independence is so strong that any prohibition makes them even more likely to behave the opposite: "*Adolescence is a disease that passes, but in this phase it is necessary to find a medicine to help teenage girls*" (10th, 2nd informants). According to the workers of a CDCC, although prohibitions in emergency situations are beneficial, they sometimes have to be used carefully, especially if working with teenage girls: "*You know, you can quickly achieve the opposite result, they have a "blind" desire to resist adults' demands, to wish for something that is not allowed, thus these prohibitions sometimes "bring more fire"*" (14th informant).

**Negative experiences on OSN.** Specialists note that when involved in OSN girls often have negative experiences due to their own or other users' actions. The loss of their OSN accounts due to unprotected passwords is named by the specialists as one of the most commonly learned girls' negative experiences: "*There are very often repeated cases when other children steal girls' passwords,*

which leads to writing in their profiles inappropriate, malign things that the girl is of a free behaviour, doing all kinds of things for a certain price, etc.” (15th informant). Negative girls’ experiences are related to cyberbullying, which, according to specialists, is another serious reason why girls suffer painfully: “Cyberbullying occurs constantly, how much psychological violence girls have to endure” (13th informant).

Specialists note that girls’ negative experiences are also related to the harassment by the adult men, when teenage girls receive intimate suggestions, or after they publish their contacts they receive phone calls with indecent offers (15th, 9th, 13th informants). The girls themselves often do not perceive anything negative in such experience; it is more noticed by the specialists.

**Parental involvement.** Data of the research reveal that strategies of specialists’ actions oriented towards parental involvement often fail to achieve positive results, therefore specialists are worried and experience the feeling of hopelessness. Parents are reluctant to cooperate, they avoid the specialists of a CDCC. Participants of the research compare the work with families at social risk to “nightmare”, saying that there is nothing to motivate them when all the invitations and attempts to get involved in the life of a CDCC are not responded, and if encouraged more persistently, even drastic decisions are made: “More courageous efforts to motivate parents for cooperation end up in parents’ prohibitions to their children to attend the centre” (16th informant).

It can be stated that specialists of a CDCC perceive the real threat to girls on OSN but they acknowledge that the strategies of their actions / interactions to manage this phenomenon do not yet yield long-term positive results. However, they do not give up and think about how to help the girls to recognize and overcome threats on OSN.

According to participants of the research, in adolescence the desire for independence is so strong that any prohibition makes the adolescents even more likely to behave the opposite, girls are not able to recognize the risks and to perceive the consequences of their behaviour. Studies by other authors have identified that teenagers have difficulties in controlling their impulses, they have the need to suppress the potential negative effects, which in turn may increase the risk, especially if they publish their photos, declare about their needs and reveal their identities (Vanderhoven et al., 2014; Targamadžė, 2016). The results of this research have revealed that girls often do not see any negativity in negative experiences on OSN. What specialists perceive as a threat, girls associate it with the positive and/or opportunity. In the context of adolescents’ online experiences, a contradiction is also found by other authors (Vandoninck et al., 2014): sharing sexy photos and intriguing comments may be those things that fascinate adolescents, but they may also be a precondition for gaining negative experience, for example, for receiving particularly offensive comments, etc.

## Conclusions

Specialists of a *CDCC* identify the following *reasons* determining girls' vulnerability on OSN: risky girls' actions on OSN, which are manifested in over-courageous and open interactions, publishing personal information, dissemination of information of harmful content; the threat posed by other users of OSN when the information of violent content is published, when intimate offers are proposed, when the links of doubtful OSN communities are shared; striving to get the attention "at all costs"; and the desire to be popular and visible.

The *contextual factors* related to girls' vulnerability on OSN are: the biographies of their lives in families at social risk, where the lack of a warm relationship is attempted to be compensated in the virtual space; illusory understanding and evaluation of the virtual space; a desire to behave fashionably; higher vulnerability of younger girls.

Girls' vulnerability in the virtual space is influenced by the following *intervening factors*: the lack of skills in choosing which information is appropriate for publishing in the virtual space; failure to protect privacy; frequent underestimating the emerging threats on OSN; in the society prevailing problem of privacy on OSN; parental withdrawal from girls' lives and activities on OSN.

In order to reduce teenage girls' vulnerability on OSN specialists apply the *strategies of actions/interactions*: at a *CDCC* establish the regulations of the Internet/computer use; in certain cases impose prohibitions to use OSN; encourage parents (guardians) to get involved in the life of a *CDCC*, i.e. to participate in various activities, to talk, together discuss the bothering issues.

The strategies applied by the specialists of a *CDCC* in order to reduce the vulnerability of girls on OSN have the following *consequences*: girls' resistance to the decisions and prohibitions of adults; their desire to behave contrarily to what is advised; negative girls' experiences due to their own or other users' actions; insufficient involvement of parents (guardians) in the activity of a *CDCC* and in girls' activities on OSN.

Although specialists' actions do not yet yield positive results, they are looking for ways and means to reduce girls' vulnerability on OSN and to help the teenage girls to recognize and overcome the threats on OSN.

Only after the factors determining teenage girls' vulnerability on OSN are identified it is possible to determine the direction for the development of their safe and responsible behaviour on OSN in order to achieve the active role and equal participation in this process by girls themselves.



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## PRECONDITIONS FOR ENHANCING SOCIO- EDUCATIONAL ASSISTANCE TO INDIVIDUALS SERVING NON-CUSTODIAL SENTENCES

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**Abstract.** *The paper focuses on the issue of socio-educational assistance to people prone to criminal behavior, unrelated to the use of psychoactive substances, and serving non-custodial sentences in the Probation Department of Klaipėda Regional Probation Service. It comments on the results of the behavioural correction programme Behaviour-Conversation-Change (BCC) applied to the individuals serving non-custodial sentences. The research was based on the quantitative research strategy. The participants of the research were individuals prone to criminal behavior, unrelated to the use of psychoactive substances, and serving non-custodial sentences in the Probation Department of Klaipėda Regional Probation Service. In the period from 2012 to 2017, 233 respondents took part in the research. The changes in the respondents' motivation were recorded by means of the University of Rhode Island Change Assessment (URICA) 32-item measure, designed to evaluate four key components: precontemplation, contemplation, action, and maintenance (McConaughy, Prochaska, Velicer, 1983). The changes were evaluated at the beginning and at the end of the programme. As proved by the findings, the impact of the Behaviour-Conversation-Change programme was positive at the precontemplation and the action stages. The results achieved in the application of the Behaviour-Conversation-Change programme meaningfully differed, given the officers' approach to the programme.*

**Keywords:** *individuals prone to criminal behavior, unrelated to the use of psychoactive substances, and serving non-custodial sentences; motivational interview; socio-educational assistance.*

### Introduction

Currently, in most of the Western societies, the priority objective of penal enforcement systems both at the national and global level has been the resocialisation of convicts, their successful return to society, and the management of the risk of re-offending.

Theoretical and empirical research suggests that the individual resocialisation-oriented measures have been more effective than punishment and control of imprisoned people. A progressive penal enforcement policy has been formed by the countries (and particularly Scandinavian ones) where the recidivism and crime rates are the lowest in Europe (Berger, 2016). The probation system in the Nordic countries has been well developed and widely used: thus, e.g., in Sweden in 2012, there were twice more probationers than prisoners per 100,000 inhabitants, and the convicts after serving 2/3 of the sentence were released on probation, part of them under supervision (Ugelvik, 2016). Thus, those countries manage to control the scale of imprisonment and to maintain the smallest numbers of prisoners in Europe. The Norwegian probation system focuses on reintegration and education for independent life and ensures smooth and consistent delivery of social assistance (Ugelvik, 2016).

*In accordance with the data of the Republic of Lithuania Department of Statistics as of 1 January 2018*, the indicators of criminal offences in Lithuania over the last five years have been decreasing (from 82, 492 criminal offences in 2012 to 59, 075 in 2016). Over the last five years, the number of imprisoned persons has also been consistently decreasing (from 9, 729 in 2012 to 6, 815 in 2016). In accordance with the data of the *Lithuanian Probation Service Registry as of 1 January 2018*, the number of persons serving non-custodial sentences (including probation) and recorded in the Probation Department Registry did not change significantly (from 8,776 in 2012 to 8,351 in 2016).

The work of law enforcement agencies and progressive criminal and penal policies, consistently pursued by the state and aimed at increasing the opportunities of offenders' behaviour correction in freedom, lead to positive changes in the penal enforcement practice. An improving criminogenic trend is also predetermined by active efforts of probation services to apply effective methods of legal, social, psychological, and educational assistance promoting positive changes in offenders' behaviour (Žukauskienė, Viršilas, & Farbring, 2017).

To date, in the discourse of resocialisation of persons prone to criminal behaviour, two models are discussed: the Risk-Need-Responsivity Model, or RNR, and the Good Lives Model, or GLM. The first one, or the RNR, emphasises the importance of risk evaluation, attention to the neutralisation of criminogenic needs, and response through the application of individually chosen programmes, given the offender's personality, motivation, abilities, skills, etc. (Andrews et al., 2011: 738). The second one, or the GLM, accentuates the development of skills to meet the needs for knowledge, health, leisure, community, inner peace, creativity, and other (Ward et al., 2012: 95-97). Measures are proposed that can help implement an individual's wishes in a non-criminal way and to motivate the individual to change (Ward et al., 2012: 95-97). However, as stated by

D. A. Andrews et al. (2011: 740-741), the reduction of criminogenic needs leads to individual well-being, yet by itself does not ensure the reduction of criminogenic needs.

T. Ward, Sh. Maruna (2007: 81-83) believe that offenders' motivation in the RNR model is a rather problematic issue, as they are seen as potential sources of risk, which makes it more difficult to convince them of the benefit of eliminating risk factors. The RNR representatives (Andrews et al., 2011: 742-743) propose that the problem be solved by motivating employees to build positive relationships with their clients and introduce them to the opportunities for change. In accordance with the GLM model, client motivation starts from the very first interactions with employees through encouraging the clients' willingness to change and revealing the benefits of prosocial behavior. The convict is seen as an active participant who, with the assistance of employees, is able to formulate goals acceptable to the public and to himself (Ward et al., 2012: 106-107). Contemporary versions of the models combine their ideas, and the models are updated conceptually and supplemented with the latest empirical data (Wormith et al., 2012: 112). T. Ward, Sh. Maruna (2007: 81-83) believe that offenders' motivation in the RNR model is a rather problematic issue, as offenders are seen as potential sources of risk, which makes it more difficult to convince them of the benefit of eliminating risk factors.

In order to successfully re-socialise convicts, various offenders' behaviour correction programmes are implemented in the penal enforcement system. The effectiveness of the programmes is ensured by a clearly formulated goal, objectives, and structure, favourable legal regulation, institutional support, professionally trained and motivated employees, community involvement, and continuous monitoring and evaluation of those measures (Lipsey et al., 2007; McGuire, 2008, etc.).

It was cognitive-behavioural therapy (CBT) that was recognised as one of the most effective behaviour corrections (Landenberger & Lipsey 2005; Hollin, Palmer 2006; Lipsey & Cullen 2007). The said therapy is based on the assumption that cognitive distortions are not inherent but acquired, therefore, through the CBT, it is possible to change the mindset of offenders, to teach them to solve problems, to identify the risks of criminal behaviour, to develop cognitive and social skills, and to change antisocial behaviour for social (Vaske et al., 2011: 91; Lipsey, Landenberger, & Wilson, 2007; Lizama et al., 2014). However, the researchers point out that effective cognitive therapy is only possible when the person is already motivated to change (Miller et al., 1988; Miller et al., 1995; Figlie & Dunn, 2005; Vasilaki et al., 2006; Lundahl & Burke, 2009), thus creating the preconditions for the application of motivational programmes for behaviour correction.

Motivation is recognized as an important factor that improves the results of

resocialization (Miller & Rose, 2009; McMurrin, 2009; Austin et al., 2011). The BCC motivational program, conducted through a motivational interview, is suitable for all groups of offenders (Farbring, 2014). Changes in the offender's behaviour are difficult to perceive and are possible even without his own motivation, which is an incentive to act. The BCC program is designed to motivate a client to change his problematic behaviour: to help him analyse his situation, to create the vision of the motivation to change, to make up his mind to change, and to continue to participate in other behaviour changing programmes (e.g., CBT).

Article 18 of the *Republic of Lithuania Law on Probation* (2011) lays out the forms of probationer's resocialization, including *behavioural correction programs*. The BCC programme was launched in the Lithuanian Probation Service in 2005 (in 2004, the BCC was developed on the commission of the Swedish Kriminalvarden and used for imprisoned persons and probationers).

In itself, the programme does not guarantee changes in the motivation or behaviour of individuals serving non-custodial sentences, while a motivating interview is not just a set of methods and strategies: a very significant role is played by the counsellor (Farbring, 2014), as well as his ability to convincingly show willingness to help a client (Saarnio, 2000). It is therefore important how the probation officers implement the BCC programme and how well they have mastered the motivational interview method. In the probation system, the components of socio-educational assistance are the goal of individuals' re-socialization, a constructive interaction of the officer and the offender, the knowledge of the BCC programme methodology, and a favourable psychological climate. Successful education is possible only in an environment where an individual's self-confidence and belief in his own powers is encouraged, his learning power is enhanced, and the belief is promoted that he will be able to act in a certain situation (Jucevičienė, 2013).

**The problem.** In the penal enforcement system of Lithuania, five adapted and accredited convict behavioural correction programmes are presently carried out. One of them is the Behaviour-Conversation-Change (hereinafter referred to as BCC) programme which aims to increase the internal motivation of an offender to act prosocially (Ehe Official Gazette, 2012, No. 72).

The BCC programme is targeted at all the groups of individuals in the penal enforcement system, especially those with addictions or lengthy criminal life experiences. The current penal enforcement system adheres to the assumption that it is important for individuals prone to criminal behaviour to learn to solve their own problems, to acquire cognitive and social skills, and, most importantly, *to be willing to use them*.

The research-based effectiveness of socio-educational assistance through the use of the BCC programme to alcohol addicts serving non-custodial sentences was proved by their increasing motivation to change and the determination to

make use of the acquired skills in life (Žukauskienė, Viršilas, & Farbring, 2017). However, the effectiveness of socio-educational assistance through the BCC programme to offenders with no addiction to psychoactive substances has not yet been justified by scientific research.

The BCC programme seems to be likely to help individuals having no addiction to psycho-active substances and serving non-custodial sentences in the probation service learn to make decisions to pursue the goals of their lives without violating the law and to develop their social, problem decision, thinking, and self-control skills.

**The research aim** is to reveal the preconditions of the effectiveness of socio-educational assistance to individuals having no addiction to psycho-active substances and serving non-custodial sentences through the assessment of the impact of the Behaviour-Conversation-Change (BCC) on their motivation to change their criminal behaviour.

### **Empirical research**

**Research methodology.** A *quantitative research strategy* was chosen for the research in accordance with which the knowledge that develops through the prism of the positivist philosophy is based on the observation and measuring of objective reality in order to understand the phenomenon under consideration (Greswell, 2013: p. 36).

**Research instrument.** The research was carried out, based on the works of foreign authors (Miller & Rollnick, 1991, 2002; Mc Guire, 2002; Burke et al., 2003; etc) and the methodology of the BCC programme (Farbring & Berge, 2004) intended for the penal enforcement system institutions. A motivational interview was defined as a way of communication and a method of conversation, based on psycho-social and educational knowledge.

The changes in the behaviour of individuals having no addiction to psychoactive substances and serving non-custodial sentences were recorded by means of the University of Rhode Island Change Assessment (URICA) 32 item-scale, designed to evaluate four key components: *pre-contemplation(not ready)*, *contemplation (ambivalence)*, *action*, and *maintenance* (McConaughy, Prochaska, & Velicer, 1983). The changes were evaluated in the introductory and final sessions of the BCC programme.

In addition, for the assessment of motivational changes, the Scale (the assessment of three motivation components – desire, ability, and priorities – on the Likert scale from 1 to 10) and the Scales (the data of the assignment of measuring the ratio of the internal and external motivation by dividing 10 weights into two plates, collected in the second and the final sessions of the BCC programme) were chosen.

**The methods of statistical analysis:** the statistical data analysis was performed using the statistical data processing software IBM SPSS (Statistical Package for the Social Sciences), version 20. To process the data, the following statistical procedures were applied: *on the nominal scale*, percentage frequencies were calculated in the data distribution; *on the ordinal scale*, the t-test of two dependent (paired) samples was calculated in the data distribution, and to establish the relationships between variables, *the correlation coefficient after Spearman* was calculated (Vaitkevičius & Saudargienė, 2006).

**The research participants.** The participants of the research were individuals serving non-custodial sentences in the Probation Department of Klaipėda Regional Probation Service and the officers of the Probation Department who carried out the BCC programme. For the research, one of the convict groups was chosen: individuals prone to criminal behaviour and unaddicted to psychoactive substances.

In the period from 2012 to 2017, 233 individuals serving con-custodial sentences took part in the research, and they accounted for the sample of the research. The BCC programme was carried out by 24 officers of the Probation Department.

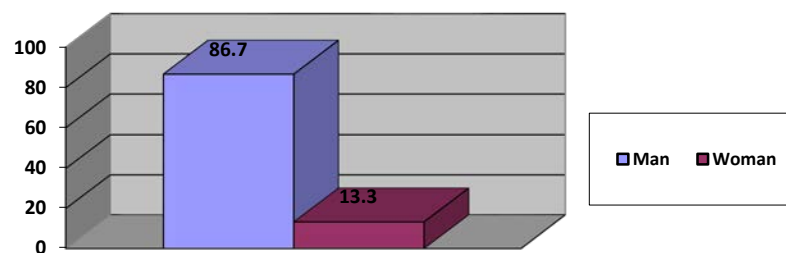


Figure 1. The characteristics of the respondents by gender N=233

As proved by the research data analysis (Fig. 1), the distribution of the respondents (N=233) by gender was as follows: the majority (86,7 %) were men, and the minority (13,3 %) were women. Thus, the majority of individuals prone to criminal behaviour and unaddicted to psychoactive substances were men. However, given the fact that, on the data of 1 January 2018, in the territory of activities of the Probation Department of Klaipėda Regional Probation Service, women accounted for 11,6 % of the total number (166 out of 1431), one can state that the number of the women- participants of the programme, prone to criminal behaviour and unaddicted to psychoactive substances, was proportionally higher than that of the men.



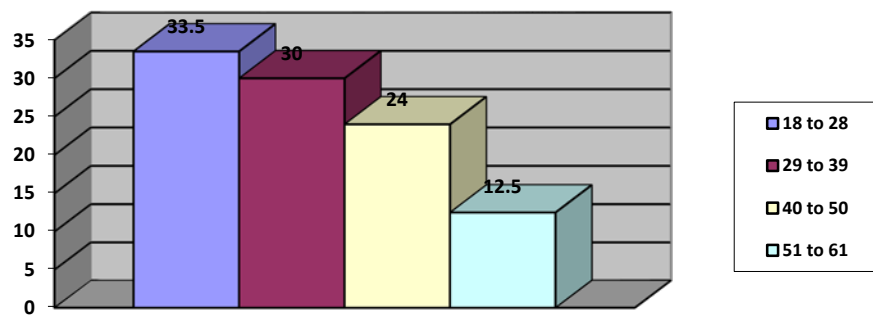


Figure 2. **The characteristics of the respondents by age N=233**

As proved by the data analysis, the vast majority of the respondents (33,5 %) were 18 to 28-year-old, slightly over a quarter (30,0 %), 29 to 39-year-old, almost a quarter of them (24,0 %), 40 to 50-year-old, and the remaining (12,5 %), 51 to 61-year-old. Thus, most frequently, non-custodial sentences were served by individuals prone to criminal behaviour and unaddicted to psychoactive substances who were 18 to 28 year-old, and least frequently, by senior citizens (51 to 61-year-old).

### **The problem of behaviour**

The majority of the respondents (38,9 %) named the absence of thinking about the future consequences of their behaviour as the key problem. 31 % during the BCC programme were dealing with the problem of uncontrollable anger, and 20,7 %, with the problem of the lack of self-confidence. Other problems (e.g., laziness, etc.) were identified in merely 9,4 % of all cases. To evaluate by gender, the most common problem identified by the men was the absence of thinking about the future consequences of their behaviour (40,8 %), and only by 25,8 % of the women, while in the case of the women, it was the lack of self-confidence (35,5 %), and only 18,4 % in the case of the men.

The BCC programme was carried out by officers of the Probation Department (N=24), therefore, it would be reasonable to identify their education and work experience, i.e. the factors that could have had an impact on the motivation of the convicts and of the individuals prone to criminal activities and unaddicted to psychoactive substances to change.

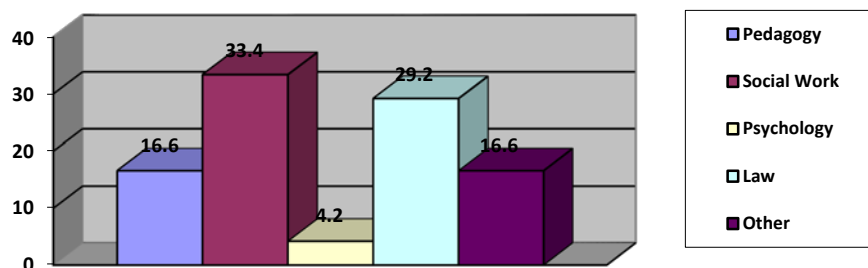


Figure 3. Officers by education N=24

As proved by the research data analysis, the majority of the officers (33,4 %) had a degree in the field of social work, a slightly smaller part (29,2 %), in law, and one-sixth each (16,6 %), in the field of pedagogy or in other fields (management, business administration, etc). Only a small proportion of the officers (4,2 %) had a degree in psychology. However, given the number of the participants that the officers were conducting the BCC programme to, the figures were distributed as follows: the vast majority (66,1 %) of the respondents participated in the programme conducted by an official with a degree in pedagogy; one-eighth (12,4 %), by an official with a degree in social work, almost one-tenth (9,9 %) of the respondents participated in the programme conducted by officers with a degree in law or a degree in other fields (management, business administration, etc.). Only an insignificant part of the respondents (1,7 %) took part in the programme conducted by an officer with a degree in psychology.

The Probation Department of the Klaipėda Regional Probation Service mainly employs officers with a degree in social work and law, however, the BCC programme is mainly conducted by those with a degree in pedagogy and social work. That means that the officers essentially specialise in accordance with the performed functions. The officers most frequently conducting behavioural correction programmes are prepared and able to provide versatile socio-educational assistance to offenders (in our case, to also conduct the BCC programme) and to evaluate changes in the motivation to live a prosocial life of individuals serving non-custodial sentences and prone to criminal behaviour unrelated to the use of psychoactive substances.

### Work experience

The majority (38,0 %) of the probation system officers had work experience of 0 to 4 years, slightly more than a quarter (29,2 %), from 8 to 12 years, almost one seventh (16,0 %), from 16 to 20 years, and almost one tenth each (8,4 %), from 4 to 8 and from 12 to 16 years. Thus, most of the officers in the probation

system were new, and only a small part of them had substantially more extensive work experience. However, given the number of the participants that the officers were conducting the BCC programme to, the figures were distributed as follows: the officers with the work experience of 8 to 12 years worked with the vast majority of the programme participants (69,1 %), those with the work experience from 0 to 4 years, with a smaller segment (13,7 %), and the officers with the work experience of 4 to 8, 12 to 16, and 16 to 20, with segments from 7,3 % to 3 %.

One can argue that most of the probation officers had sufficient experience of work to be able to conduct the BCC programme and to evaluate motivational changes of their participants.

**The research findings.** To assess the changes in the motivation of the BCC programme participants, the URICA (University of Rhode Island Change Assessment) 32-item scale was used. The changes in the motivation were evaluated by four key components: *precontemplation (not ready)*, *contemplation (ambivalence)*, *action*, and *maintenance* (McConaughy, Prochaska, & Velicer, 1983).

In order to establish how the BCC programme changed the motivation of the convicts, two measurements were made during the introductory and final sessions. Additionally, their motivation was assessed by means of the Scale and Scales assignments. In the Scale assignment, a 10-point Likert scale was used to assess the client's desire, ability, and priorities to change (as compared with other goals of their lives). In the Scales assignment, the assessment of the internal and external client's motivation took place by dividing 10 into two plates of the scales. For the final assessment of the Scale and Scales assignment, four estimates were used (desire, ability, priorities, and internal motivation), the sum ranging from 0 to 40 points.

First of all, we intended to establish *how the motivation of the BCC programme participants changed in the recognition of the raised problem (a precontemplation stage)*. The comparison of the means of the two measurements is presented in Table 1.

Table 1 Comparison of precontemplation before and after the BCC

No.	Attribute	Assessment mean	N	t	df	p
1.	Precontemplation (not ready) 1	5,86	233	3,451	232	0,001
2.	Precontemplation (not ready) 2	5,23	233			

Upon analysing the data of Table 1 and performing two dependent (paired) samples t-test, it was established that the respondents' precontemplation (not ready) assessment mean at the beginning of the BCC programme was 5,86, and during the final session, 5,23. Thus, the difference between the means was

statistically meaningful ( $t=3,451$ ;  $df=232$ ;  $p=0,001$ ). High scores in the assessment of the precontemplation (not ready) stage proved that the client refused to admit having the identified problem related to his criminal behaviour and tended to state he had no desire to change. He did not realise that, provided nothing changed, further manifestations of the problem were to cause more serious problems (Farbring, 2014: p. 180). Based on the findings, one can argue that the individuals who completed the BCC programme were more inclined to admit having the identified problem related to their criminal behaviour, and that was the key precondition for changing. Recognition of the problem at the end of the BCC programme was one of the main symptoms witnessing the increased motivation of the individuals to change.

By the research, we sought to assess *how the programme participants' motivation changed with regard to contemplation (ambivalence)*. The comparison of the means of two ambivalence measurements is presented in Table 2.

Table 2 Comparison of ambivalence before and after the BCC

No.	Attribute	Assessment mean	N	t	df	p
1.	Contemplation 1	11,59	233	0,096	232	0,923
2.	Contemplation 2	11,56	233			

Upon analysing the data of Table 2 and performing two dependent (paired) samples t-test, it was established that the respondents' ambivalence assessment mean at the beginning of the BCC programme was 11,59, and during the final session, 11,56. The difference between the means was not statistically meaningful ( $t=0,096$ ;  $df=232$ ;  $p=0,923$ ), therefore, one can argue that the ambivalence of individuals who had completed the BCC programme did not change meaningfully. However, in the context of an individual's motivation, the change in ambivalence could not be evaluated unambiguously. It could indicate the client's readiness to consider the problem in the same way as indicated in the model of contemplation stages by O. Prochaska and C.C. DiClemente (1984). When recording and assessing ambivalence points, attention should be paid to the number of points received in the precontemplation stage. As proved by our research findings, at the end of the BCC programme, the recognition of the problem increased, therefore, non-increasing ambivalence witnessed the fact of *the research respondents' knowing that the identified problem caused them difficulties*.

By the research, we sought to assess *how the programme participants' motivation changed at the level of action*. The comparison of the means of two action measurements is presented in Table 3.

Table 3 Comparison of action before and after the BCC

No.	Attribute	Assessment mean	N	t	df	p
1.	Action 1	12,28	233	-6,223	232	0,000
2.	Action 2	13,31	233			

Upon analysing the data of Table 3 and performing two dependent (paired) samples t-test, it was established that the respondents' action assessment mean at the beginning of the BCC programme was 12,28, and during the final session, 13,31. Thus, the difference between the means was statistically meaningful ( $t=-6,223$ ;  $df=232$ ;  $p=0,000$ ). High scores in the action assessment witnessed that the client was already coping with his problems and could have felt positive consequences of the change. Changes were taking place, and the client was likely to want assistance to consolidate the change and to avoid relapse. High scores in the area indicated a probability that the change was going to be a success (Farbring & Berge, 2004: 51; Farbring, 2014: 181).

By the research, we sought to assess *how the programme participants' motivation changed with regard to the maintenance attribute*. The comparison of the means of two maintenance measurements is presented in Table 4.

Table 4 Comparison of maintenance before and after the BCC

No.	Attribute	Assessment mean	N	t	df	p
1.	Maintenance 1	7,41	233	1,767	232	0,79
2.	Maintenance 2	7,11	233			

Upon analysing the data of Table 4 and performing two dependent (paired) samples t-test, it was established that the respondents' maintenance assessment mean at the beginning of the BCC programme was 7,41, and during the final session, 7,11. The difference between the means was not statistically meaningful ( $t=1,767$ ;  $df=232$ ;  $p=0,79$ ), therefore, we can argue that the maintenance of the individuals who had completed the BCC programme did not change meaningfully.

By the research, we sought to assess *how the programme participants' motivation changed in the Scale and Scales common assessment* of the desire, ability, priorities, and inner motivation, the sum ranging between 0 and 40 points. The comparison of the means of two Scale and Scales measurements is presented in Table 5.

**Table 5 Comparison of the Scale and the Scales assignments before and after the BCC**

No.	Attribute	Assessment mean		N	t	df	p
1.	Desire 1	9,07		228	-3,785	227	0,000
2.	Desire 2	9,45		228			
3.	Ability 1	8,64		228	-5,365	227	0,000
4.	Ability 2	9,12		228			
5.	Priorities 1	7,60		228	-8,301	227	0,000
6.	Priorities 2	9,32		228			
7.	One's own desire 1	7,60		228	-9,193	227	0,000
8.	One's own desire 2	8,59		228			
9.	Total score 1	34,15		228	-9,830	227	0,000
10.	Total score 2	36,32		228			

Upon analysing the data of Table 5 and performing two dependent (paired) samples t-test, it was established that the BCC programme participants' Scale and Scales assignment assessment means at the beginning of the BCC programme were 9,07; 8,64; 7,60; 7,60; 34,15 respectively, and during the final session, 9,45; 9,12; 9,32; 8,59; 36,32 respectively. Thus, all the differences between the means were statistically meaningful ( $t=-3,785$ ;  $-5,365$ ;  $-8,301$ ;  $-9,193$ ;  $-9,830$ ,  $df=227$ ;  $p=0,000$ ). High scores unambiguously indicated that the motivation of the programme participants to change after the completion of the programme increased.

As proved by the research findings, the answers of the Probation Department officers fell into three groups: the majority of the officers (50,0 %) believed in the effectiveness of the BCC programme; one fourth (25,0 %) had doubts about its effectiveness; and the same segment (25,0 %) did not believe in the programme. However, given the number of the participants that the officers were conducting the BCC programme to, it turned out that the officers who believed in the effectiveness of the programme and were conducting it to the convicts accounted for as many as 87,6 %, those in doubt, for 10,3 %, and those who did not believe in it, just for 2,1 %. Therefore, one can argue that the vast majority of the probation officers believed in the effectiveness of the BCC programme, and when working with a substantially larger number of convicts, they better specialised in the area. The officers who did not believe in the effectiveness of the BCC programme might have been not totally familiar with its aims, content, and the opportunities of application or have not have mastered effective methods for the work with convicts (see Table 6).

Table 6 Correlation between the attributes of the convicts' problem recognition and the Probation Department officers' view on the BCC programme effectiveness

The convicts' recognition of the problem	The Probation Department Officers' view on the BCC programme effectiveness
Precontemplation 1	<b>-0,218**</b>
Precontemplation 2	<b>-0,185**</b>
Action 1	0,119
Action 2	<b>0,280**</b>
Total sum 1 (Scale and Scales)	0,117
Total sum 2 (Scale and Scales)	<b>0,240**</b>

*\*\*The correlation is meaningful at the level of 0,01*

Upon the correlation analysis of the data, a *weak positive correlation* ( $r = -0,218$ ) ( $r = -0,218$ ) ( $r = -0,218$ ) ( $r = -0,185$ ) ( $p < 0,01$ ) was established between the belief of the probation officers in the BCC programme effectiveness and the programme participants' refusal to recognise their problems at the beginning and the end of the programme, i.e. the more a Probation Department officer believed in the effectiveness of the BCC programme, the less the programme participants were inclined to deny the behavioural problem, identified by themselves, that predetermined their criminal behaviour.

A *weak positive correlation* ( $r = 0,280$ ) ( $p < 0,01$ ) existed between the belief of the probation officers in the BCC programme effectiveness and the programme participants' action in coping with the behavioural problem identified by themselves at the beginning and the end of the BCC programme, i.e. the more a Probation Department officer believed in the effectiveness of the BCC programme, the better the programme participants were coping with their problem at the end of the BCC programme.

A *weak positive correlation* ( $r = 0,240$ ) ( $p < 0,01$ ) existed between the belief of the probation officers in the BCC programme effectiveness and the programme participants' motivation assessment results in the Scale and the Scales assignment at the end of the BCC programme, i.e. the more a Probation Department officer believed in the effectiveness of the BCC programme, the higher the client's scores in the Scale and the Scales assignment were at the end of the BCC programme.

Thus, the belief of the officers in the BCC programme effectiveness had a decisive impact on the positive changes in the motivation and behaviour of the convicts who had no addiction to psychoactive substances. Our research confirmed the conclusions previously made by researchers (Moyers, 2003; Žukauskienė, Viršilas, & Farbring, 2017) about there being no correlation between the counsellor's education and experience and the effectiveness of the assistance rendered by him when encouraging the clients to change; the most

important factor was the belief of the counsellor in the effectiveness of his assistance.

C. A. Farbring (2014) presumed that the changes in the convict motivation depended not only on the ways the motivational interviews were used, but also on the counsellors' body language, voice, and smile, on whether the client smiled or looked worried when telling some sad story, and on whether the desire to help the client was shown convincingly.

During the BCC programme, the individuals who served non-custodial sentences and had no addiction to psychoactive substances were motivated to change their criminal behaviour. One can argue that further implementation of the programme can produce positive results in increasing the effectiveness of the socio-educational assistance in the probation service and in continuing the correction of criminal behaviour through such psychological measures as cognitive behavioural therapy, etc. As proved by research (Landenberger & Lipsey 2005; Hollin & Palmer 2006; Austin et al., 2011, etc.), clients' high motivation to change was an important precondition for further successful behavioural correction.

## **Conclusions**

The use of the BCC (Behaviour-Conversation-Change) programme in the probation system for people not addicted to psychoactive substances resulted in a positive impact of the programme on the changes in their motivation and behaviour in the stages of precontemplation (not ready) and action (URICA questionnaire) and in the Scale and the Scales assignment.

The recognition of the problem predetermining their criminal behaviour, identified by persons serving non-custodial sentences during the introductory session of the BCC programme, grew in the final stage of the programme. That was one of the key factors witnessing the grown motivation of the programme participants to live without violating the law.

The BCC programme participants who had no addiction to psychoactive substances achieved positive changes at the level of action: they undertook real action in order to live without violating the law (changed the circle of associates, changed the place of residence in a criminal environment, found a job, abandoned risky activities, and, most importantly, continued to take part in the CBT programme or other approved behavioural correction programmes).

A decisive impact on the positive changes in the motivation to live without violating the law of the individuals who had no addiction to psychoactive substances through the BCC (Behaviour-Conversation-Change) programme was made by the belief of the Probation Department officers in the effectiveness of the programme.



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**INOVĀCIJAS VALODU IZGLĪTĪBĀ**  
***INNOVATION IN LANGUAGE***  
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# ОСОБЕННОСТИ ПРЕПОДАВАНИЯ ГРАММАТИКИ ВТОРОГО ИНОСТРАННОГО ЯЗЫКА НА НАЧАЛЬНОМ ЭТАПЕ ОБУЧЕНИЯ

## *Special Aspects of the Second Foreign Language Teaching at the Basic Course*

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**Abstract.** *The aim of this work is to define special aspects of the second foreign language (SFL) grammar teaching at the basic course, because at Ukrainian universities the number of course hours for studying of the SFL is less than for the first one. This leads to more superficial learning of grammar material. In addition, it was believed that the grammar of the SFL can be taught in the context of the general course. The integration of vocabulary and grammar teaching hampered the thorough understanding of grammatical constructions by the students, as the study of the SFL came against the background of the first foreign language enhanced studying. For the scientific analysis of this issue, the methods of causality analysis and generalization were applied, which helped identify the priority of the communicative approach in the SFL grammar teaching, as this approach develops the oral and written skills of students. Nevertheless, there are some factors that impede the fluency of grammar material at the basic course of education. The article reveals problems and ways to solve them during the training. The authors consider that the communicative approach in the SFL grammar teaching will help master the language more quickly and efficiently, which meets the needs of modern society.*

**Keywords:** *communicative grammar, deductive approach, inductive approach, second foreign language, studying process.*

### **Введение** *Introduction*

**Актуальность** работы определяется тем, что проблема методики преподавания грамматики второго иностранного языка – это непосредственная составляющая часть методики обучения второму

иностранному языку вообще. К сожалению, существует не очень большое количество методических материалов по данной теме. Более того, современные методы обучения требуют существенного пересмотра и полной переработки или адаптации учебных материалов, составленных несколькими годами ранее.

**Целью** данной статьи является попытка изложить и систематизировать основы методики преподавания грамматики второго иностранного языка на начальном этапе с учетом современных требований к обучению иностранным языкам и опыта, накопленного в отечественной и зарубежной методике изложения грамматического материала.

**Методологической базой** для написания статьи являются методические работы Gerngross G., Hadfield J., Harmer J., Puchta H., Thornbury Sc. и др.; использовались методы критического анализа научной литературы, метод систематизации и обобщения. Для научного анализа данного вопроса, в качестве основных, применялись методы причинного анализа и обобщения, которые помогли выявить приоритет коммуникативного подхода (communicative approach) при обучении грамматике второго иностранного языка, поскольку именно он в полной мере развивает навыки устной и письменной речи учащихся.

### **Теоретическая часть** *Theoretical part*

**Теоретические основы применения коммуникативного метода обучения.** В методике изучения языка понятие «второй язык» означает, что студент уже изучал, по крайней мере, один иностранный язык. Под понятием «второй иностранный язык» подразумевается язык, изучаемый после первого, независимо от уровня, достигнутого в его овладении. С каждым годом все больше студентов высших учебных заведений выбирают в качестве второго иностранного языка, кроме широко распространенных английского, немецкого, французского, некоторые восточные языки, в частности, китайский, японский, турецкий, арабский. Безусловно, при преподавании каждого из этих языков требуется особый подход. Однако существуют определенные закономерности для преподавания любого языка, выбранного в качестве второго иностранного, так неоспоримым является приоритет коммуникативного подхода при обучении грамматике второго иностранного языка, поскольку именно он в полной мере развивает навыки устной и письменной речи учащихся.

Роль грамматики и способы ее преподавания являются одним из самых противоречивых вопросов в преподавании иностранных языков. В течение



значительного периода эта проблема рассматривалась как центральная и нередко считалась синонимической к преподаванию языка вообще. Однако в последнее время преподаватели иностранных языков стали признавать, что обучение иностранному языку имеет много общего с овладением родным языком. А поскольку действительной задачей преподавателя на занятии по иностранному языку должно быть обеспечение языкового минимума, который учащиеся способны понять, появляется вывод о необходимости обучать грамматике, как и другим аспектам языка, коммуникативно. Двумя основными вопросами коммуникативного подхода является обучение языковым функциям и использование коммуникативных задач. Считается, что знание грамматики не поможет человеку представить себя или что-либо описать. Язык используется для выполнения определенных функций, например, приглашение, извинение, предложение чего-то и др. Это вызывает необходимость обучению языковым функциям. Но эта идея не может опровергнуть необходимости обучения грамматике, потому что именно из грамматических элементов состоят предложения, выполняющие те или иные функции. Поэтому даже в условиях современного коммуникативного обучения, наряду с обучением речевым функциям, особенно на начальном этапе, очень важным остается обучение грамматике, целью которого является овладение грамматическими навыками.

В отношении коммуникативных задач, нам следует определить их роль и место в процессе преподавания грамматического материала. С внедрением коммуникативного подхода в сферу преподавания иностранных языков стало ясно, что выполнение учениками только некомуникативных упражнений для отработки грамматических структур недостаточно для того, чтобы дать им возможность самостоятельно использовать язык. Для развития свободной устной и письменной речи, изучаемой на занятии, нужны другие виды упражнений, с помощью которых студенты могли бы общаться и обмениваться мыслями. Сегодня преподавателям вторых иностранных языков известно большое количество коммуникативных упражнений. Среди них ролевые игры, обсуждение, соревнования, проектная работа и др. Такие упражнения характеризуются динамизмом, дают ученикам возможность пользоваться вторым иностранным языком в той мере, в какой они способны общаться на начальном этапе обучения. Такие виды деятельности оживляют и меняют обстановку в классе, предоставляя возможность варьировать формы (индивидуальная, групповая, коллективная) и режимы (ученик – ученик, ученик – группа, группа – группа) работы (Методика навчання іноземних мов у середніх навчальних закладах, 1999).

Но, с нашей точки зрения, говоря о проблеме преподавания грамматики второго иностранного языка на начальном этапе, невозможно определить единственно верный подход к ее решению, то есть единственное направление в обучении грамматике. Этот выбор будет зависеть от многих факторов, в частности, от стратегий и стилей обучения самих студентов, от грамматической информации, подаваемой на разных этапах занятия (презентация, контролируемая автоматизация или дальнейшая автоматизация) и др.

Одним из главных принципов преподавания грамматического материала, его отбора и определения методов и приемов, которые будут использованы для его презентации и отработки, является целесообразность, которая охватывает собой понятие эффективности, экономичности и простоты. Это означает, что прежде, чем предложить учащимся тот или иной материал или действие с ним, преподаватель должен спросить себя: насколько это целесообразно? При планировании определенного занятия следует предусматривать эффект, которого можно достичь. Если этот эффект невозможно соотнести с целью, сделанный выбор приемов следует считать неэффективным. Во время презентации грамматической структуры главным правилом должно быть «чем короче, тем лучше». Чем более краткое пояснение, тем лучший результат. Принципом простоты надо пользоваться при объяснении, инструкциях, то есть для организации практической деятельности студентов. Но понимание этого принципа еще недостаточно для его дальнейшего эффективного применения. Чтобы определить соответствие выбранного для обучения материала этому принципу, следует учитывать такие критерии, как мотивация, внимание учащихся, их понимание и запоминание материала. Эти критерии связаны между собой и поэтому должны существовать в неразрывном синтезе друг с другом. В противном случае, наличие одних или одного фактора при отсутствии других / другого может свидетельствовать о неэффективности занятия или его части и о некачественной подготовке к нему со стороны преподавателя.

Исследователи в области психологии образования считают, что люди, которые изучают что-нибудь, пользуются как минимум двумя четкими стратегиями: аналитической и холистической (analytical and holistic). Аналитические студенты формируют и испытывают гипотезы: сознательно или нет, они прорабатывают правила и большое количество примеров к ним. Это так называемый дедуктивный подход к изучению языка (или обучение по правилам), непосредственно связанный с грамматически-переводным методом. Холистики, наоборот, учатся без выполнения аналитических действий или выполняя лишь небольшое их количество. Такие учащиеся

используют индуктивный подход или обучение из примеров), который реализуется именно в коммуникативном методе обучения (Moskovitz, 1978).

Также известно, что некоторые студенты предпочитают зрительно-ориентированный способ презентации грамматики, например, контекстуализация примеров, предложения, записанные на доске или в учебнике. Другие же лучше усваивают аудиальную информацию, например, путем неоднократного повторения определенной информации. Так что с целью удовлетворить учебные потребности всех учащихся, присутствующих на занятии, мы понимаем необходимость варьировать приемы преподавания, предоставят возможность студентам максимально использовать свои органы восприятия.

Таким образом, мы видим, насколько внимательно следует относиться к отбору методов и приемов для обучения грамматическим правилам, особенно на начальном этапе. При использовании некоторых из этих приемов, грамматическая информация, которую подает преподаватель, будет скрытой от студентов, то есть, выполняя задания (заполнение пропусков, чтение текста и т.д.), они встречают новые грамматические компоненты, но их внимание обращается на задание или текст, но не на грамматику. В таком случае учитель помогает студентам овладевать языком и / или практиковать ее без сознательного внимания к грамматическим фактам.

Соответственно, при неприкрытом обучении грамматике, преподаватель обеспечивает студентов грамматическими правилами и объяснениями. Иными словами, информация подается открыто и непосредственно.

Кроме того, принадлежность грамматического материала к активному или пассивному минимуму также влияет на выбор методов и приемов обучения. Грамматические структуры, входящие в активный грамматический минимум, используются во всех видах речевой деятельности (аудирование, говорение, чтение и письмо). Поэтому они требуют формирования и развития всех возможных грамматических навыков. По этой причине на начальном этапе студенты и ученики будут учиться исключительно именно структурам активного грамматического минимума.

**Виды деятельности в коммуникативном методе на занятиях по второму иностранному языку.** Говоря о втором иностранном языке, следует сказать, что из западных языков чаще всего это именно английский язык. Многие методисты по английскому языку подчеркивают важность дидактических игр при обучении грамматике (Hadfield, 2003); (Rinvolucrí, 1984); (Thornbury, 1999). Они давно доказали, что изучение языка в вузах не может сводиться только к изучению грамматических правил, чтению и

переводу литературы по специальности. Максимальному развитию коммуникативных навыков студентов способствует применение игровых ситуации во время аудиторных занятий, ведь именно игра позволяет создать условия, максимально приближены к реальным ситуациям, имеет элемент непредсказуемости.

Закреплению грамматического материала способствует проведение различных грамматических игр. Необходимо отметить, что темп игры должен быть достаточно быстрым, что способствует активизации умственной деятельности студентов. Неисчерпаемым источником интересных и эффективных дидактических материалов, считаем методическую литературу издательства Pearson, которое представляет интересные материалы для изучения лексики и грамматики английского языка (Hadfield, 2003); (Hadfield, 2005).

Подчеркивая полезность и необходимость проведения игр направленных на изучение грамматики, отметим, что особое внимание на занятиях все же необходимо уделять развитию речевой деятельности студентов, связанной непосредственно с их будущей профессией.

Некоторые украинские высшие учебные заведения в последние годы стали предлагать студентам для изучения восточные языки в качестве второго иностранного. Этому способствует развитие торгово-экономических и культурных связей Украины со странами Востока. Не секрет, что среди всех восточных языков студенты, в большинстве случаев, выбирают китайский язык, считая его перспективным для дальнейшей работы.

Мы рассмотрели многие аспекты преподавания грамматики китайского языка и пришли к выводу о действительной необходимости изучать ее в отдельном курсе. На современном этапе преподавания грамматики китайского языка как второго иностранного следует использовать различные средства обучения. Средства обучения являются важным и неотъемлемым компонентом учебного процесса. Материальные предметы, которые считаются средствами обучения, помогают преподавателю организовать эффективное обучение грамматике, а студентам успешно овладеть ею.

В идеале все средства должны быть представлены в учебно-методическом комплексе, по которому проводится обучение иностранному языку. К ним относится учебник, методическое пособие для учителя, лингафонный практикум, компьютерные программы, комплект слайдов, аудио- и видеокассеты, таблицы и т.д. Те средства, которые преподаватель использует дополнительно к основным средствам обучения, считают вспомогательными. Это могут быть специально подобранные серии рисунков, раздаточные учебные карточки, таблицы, схемы, статьи из

журналов, газет, фотографии и др. (Методика навчання іноземних мов у середніх навчальних закладах, 1999).

Другим важным принципом обучения грамматическому материалу китайского языка на начальном этапе является соответствие таким факторам, как размер группы, интересы студентов, их потребности и ожидания, культурные факторы и тому подобное. Успех того или иного действия, направленного на ознакомление или отработку грамматической структуры, в значительной степени зависит от возраста группы учеников или студентов. Согласно исследованиям, дети более склонны к овладению иностранным языком естественным путем, аналогичным овладению родным языком, то есть, не изучая языки, а именно овладевая ими. Наоборот, взрослые студенты лучше справляются с задачами, которые требуют анализа и сознательного запоминания.

Культурные факторы также имеют большое значение для успешной отработки студентами материала на занятии, и это особенно важно при изучении китайского языка. Коммуникативный подход позволяет перераспределять социальные роли на занятиях по грамматике. При таком подходе студенты оказываются более задействованными в работе, несут больше ответственности за свои результаты. Часто прийти к этому можно с помощью эвристических приемов, по которым они сами выводят правила из предложенного им тщательно подобранного материала (Grinder, 1989).

Также важное значение имеет изменение фронтальной формы работы на групповую, то есть соблюдение принципа коллективного взаимодействия. При реализации этого принципа студенты активно и интенсивно общаются друг с другом, обмениваясь учебной информацией, способствующей расширению знаний, совершенствованию грамматических навыков и умений каждого студента. Между участниками общения создаются оптимальные взаимодействия и формируются характерные для коллектива взаимоотношения, а условием успеха каждого является успех других членов коллектива.

В условиях группового взаимодействия создается совместный фонд информации, к которому каждый из участников-партнеров вкладывает свою долю и которым пользуются все вместе. Формы совместной коллективной деятельности, а также формы поведения, которые демонстрирует учитель, создание атмосферы доброжелательности, внимательное отношение к партнерам по общению, взаимопомощь создают оптимальные условия для активизации потенциальных возможностей каждого из учеников.

Исходя из принципа коллективного взаимодействия, в условиях интенсивного обучения иностранным языкам предпочтение отдается коллективным формам учебной деятельности, таким как одновременная работа в парах или тройках, малых группах по 4-5 человек, в командах и

тому подобное. Для реализации коллективных форм работы на занятии по грамматике китайского языка следует использовать высокоэффективные приемы, разработанные преподавателями и методистами других иностранных языков, в частности английского. Так, хоровое повторение приобретает черты общения, хотя и на иммитативном уровне, когда все студенты вслед за преподавателем обращаются поочередно к первому, второму, третьему и т.д. студенту с вопросом, советом, одобрением, коротким сообщением и тому подобное. Таким образом, по “иммитативному общению” пропускаются почти все грамматические единицы при сохранении таких черт общения как обращения и наличие адресата речи.

Коллективное взаимодействие и сотрудничество преподавателя и студента, преподавателя и группы и студентов между собой является одним из важнейших элементов организации деятельности при обучении грамматическому материалу китайского языка как второго иностранного. Из этого элемента вместе с принципами целесообразности и соответствия состоит основа методической системы обучения грамматике китайского языка на начальном этапе ее изучения.

Определенный уровень овладения иностранным языком позволяет студентам распознавать грамматические структуры и верно высказываться на уровне фразы, предложения и текста. Это может быть определено как одна из целей изучения грамматического минимума.

Но учитывая необходимость изучения основ грамматического состава китайского языка на начальном этапе, а также некоторые особенности данного языка и методические принципы преподавания грамматического минимума, мы сталкиваемся с проблемами. Во-первых, это социокультурная проблема, которая заключается в значительных различиях между китайским языком и родным языком студентов. Изучение особых грамматических моментов, которые не являются характерными для флективно-синтетических языков, вызывают трудности на начальном этапе изучения вместе со значительными трудностями в овладении лексическими и аудио-фонетическими навыками. Это сильно усложняет процесс изучения и освоения иностранного языка. Выходом из ситуации должно стать совершенное овладение преподавателем грамматическим строем китайского языка и понимание его особенностей. Также целесообразна разработка последовательной программы преподавания грамматических аспектов языка. Последнее предполагает четкое поэтапное планирование ознакомления с грамматическими структурами и выполнение упражнений. Скорейшему овладению китайской грамматикой способствует раздел курса

на две части: морфологию и основы синтаксиса простого предложения, а также синтаксис сложного предложения (Коротков, 1968).

Безусловно, использование эффективных новейших технологий, интерактивных форм и методов обучения также будет способствовать пониманию, восприятию и своевременному усвоению грамматических структур.

Главные противоречия возникают между подходами к обучению речевым функциям и грамматическим формам, которые часто неверно соотносятся студентами. Как указывалось ранее, трудно решить, какой подход, методы и приемы являются наиболее эффективными для преподавания грамматических фактов. В условиях современного распространения коммуникативного обучения следует определить его действительную результативность, связанную с быстрым применением студентами структур, изучаемых в речевых ситуациях. Однако, не отрицая положительных сторон коммуникативной методики обучения, необходимо отметить, что на начальном этапе коммуникативные упражнения не всегда могут пригодиться, в связи с ограниченным объемом знаний студентов на начальном этапе. Чаще преподаватель использует условно-коммуникативные и даже совсем некоммуникативные упражнения. На наш взгляд, одним из важнейших приемов ознакомления и запоминания грамматических структур китайского языка с его аудио-фонетическими особенностями на начальном этапе изучения является использование образцов речи для устного опережения нового грамматического материала.

Далее возникает вопрос об определении критериев верности употребления грамматических структур, потому что так или иначе в естественном общении мы часто встречаем значительные нарушения даже самых строгих грамматических правил. Мы считаем, что самым верным путем решения этой проблемы является привлечение студентов к естественному общению с носителями языка или к культурной сфере изучаемого языка, которое позволит “отшлифовать” усвоенные грамматические навыки.

Еще одна проблема возникает в связи с тем, что преобладающее сосредоточения внимания на грамматическом составе предложений, по сравнению с учетом грамматических аспектов слов и текстов, подводит нас к риску недостаточно подготовить студентов к реальному использованию языка.

Эти проблемы побуждают к дальнейшей проработке вопросов, связанных с изучением грамматического материала китайского языка, и в перспективе раскрывают возможность более активного их изучения. Сегодня мы наблюдаем значительный подъем интереса к изучению китайского языка, о чем свидетельствует мировая заинтересованность в

активном развитии отношений с Китаем. Поэтому, определив основные трудности в области преподавания грамматики китайского языка как второго иностранного на начальном его этапе, мы надеемся тем самым сделать некоторый вклад в решение этих проблем и вскоре ожидаем нахождения путей их преодоления.

### **Выводы** *Conclusions*

Таким образом, рассмотрев исследования ведущих методистов, считаем коммуникативный метод доминантным при обучении грамматики второго иностранного языка на начальном этапе. С помощью данного метода усвоение учащимися нового грамматического материала происходит интенсивнее и глубже, благодаря различным видам деятельности, которые предусматривает коммуникативный метод. Преподаватель выбирает индивидуальные, парные, групповые виды работы, легко переходит от одного к другому, максимально приближая учебные задания к жизненным ситуациям. Данная особенность коммуникативного метода обучения особенно приветствуется, принимая во внимание зачастую небольшое количество учебного времени, выделяемого на изучение второго иностранного языка. Однако, хотя коммуникативный метод становится все более популярным при обучении грамматике иностранных языков, он не исключает использования хорошо зарекомендованных традиционных методов. Удачное их сочетание является залогом успешного и эффективного обучения вторым иностранным языкам в современных вузах. Данная статья не претендует на исчерпывающий ответ относительно существующих особенностей преподавания грамматики второго иностранного языка на начальном этапе обучения, а лишь очерчивает круг вопросов, нуждающихся в дальнейшем решении. Существует ряд трудностей, которые неизбежно возникают в данных условиях, и над которыми необходимо работать и дальше, чтобы сделать процесс обучения вторым иностранным языкам более эффективным и быстрым.

### **Summary**

The paper is devoted to definition of the special aspects of the second foreign language (SFL) grammar teaching at the basic course. For the scientific analysis of this issue, the methods of causality analysis and generalization were applied, which helped to identify the priority of the communicative approach in the SFL grammar teaching, as this approach develops the oral and written skills of students. Some practical advice is given within the communicative approach on the basis of English and Chinese as the most popular second languages in the universities. Nevertheless, there are some factors that impede the fluency of grammar material



at the basic course of education. The article reveals problems and ways to solve them during the training. The authors consider that the communicative approach in the SFL grammar teaching will help to master the language more quickly and efficiently to meet the needs of modern society.

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# LATVIEŠU VALODAS KĀ SVEŠVALODAS DOCĒŠANA MULTILINGVĀLĀ KLASĒ: UNGĀRIJAS PIEREDZE

## *Teaching Latvian as a Foreign Language in the Multilingual Classroom: Experience of Hungary*

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**Abstract.** Multilingualism has been highly valued in the society from ancient times. Nowadays, along with the increase of people mobility and technology development, foreign languages competence and its acquisition learning becomes increasingly important. At the same time, minority language studies, taking into account a relatively small number of their users, provide the necessary contribution to the preservation and further development of the cultural heritage of the world nations. For example, the goal of the Department for Uralic Studies, Savaria Campus of the University of West Hungary, was to create a special unit and invite specialists in order to study and promote the Central European region, its culture, as well as the ancient Amber Route that stretched from the East coast of the Baltic Sea to the Adriatic coast and the Apennine Peninsula. From 1992 to 2013, this unit offered students an opportunity to learn Latvian as a foreign language, as well as the history of Latvia and its culture, Latvian literature, folklore and ethnogenesis. This article, based on the author's personal experience, is devoted to the specifics of learning and teaching of the Latvian language to Hungarian students, as well as translating the works of the Latvian authors into Hungarian.

**Keywords:** the Latvian language as a foreign language, Latvian language lecturers, popularisation of the Latvian language and culture.

### **Ievads**

#### **Introduction**

Lai sekmīgi konkurētu darba tirgū, spētu produktīvi strādāt un radīt inovācijas, ikvienam Eiropas Savienības (ES) iedzīvotājam tiek rekomendēts nemitīgi papildināt zināšanas, apgūstot jaunas iemaņas un prasmes. Viena no šādām prasmēm, kuras nozīme pēdējo gadu laikā būtiski pieaug, ir spēja sarunāties vairākās svešvalodās. Viens no iemesliem, kādēļ valodu zināšanas ir ļoti vajadzīgas, ir nepārtrauktais globalizācijas process.

Ņemot vērā, ka vairāku svešvalodu prasme ES iedzīvotājiem mūsdienās ir dzīves diktēta nepieciešamība, Eiropas Padomes un Eiropas Parlamenta (EP) 2006. gadā pieņemtajās Eiropas struktūras mūžizglītības galvenajās

pamatprasmēs (*European Framework for key Competences*) pausts identisks viedoklis attiecībā uz valodu apguvi. Ietvar dokumentā ir definētas astoņas galvenās kompetences. Tās ir: saziņa dzimtajā valodā, komunikācija svešvalodās, matemātiskās prasmes un pamatprasmes dabaszinībās un tehnoloģijās, digitālās prasmes, mācīšanās mācīties, sociālās un pilsoniskās prasmes, pašiniciatīva un uzņēmējdarbība, kultūras izpratne un izpausme. Rakstā uzmanība tiks pievērsta otrai kompetencei – komunikācijai jeb saziņai svešvalodās. “Komunikācijai svešvalodā nepieciešamas arī tādas prasmes kā starpniecība un starpkultūru izpratne. Individīda prasmju līmenis variējas starp četrām dimensijām (klausīšanās, runāšana, lasīšana, rakstīšana) un starp dažādām valodām, kā arī ir atkarīgs no indivīda sociālās un kultūras izcelsmes, vides, vajadzībām un/vai interesēm” (Mūžizglītības galvenās pamatprasmes, 2007). Raksta autors turpat arī norādījis, ka saziņai svešvalodā un dzimtajā valodā galveno prasmju aspekti ir kopīgi: gan viena, gan otra balstīta uz spējām saprast, izpaust un interpretēt jēdzienus, domas, jūtas, faktus un viedokļus mutvārdos un rakstveidā, piemērojoties kultūras vai sabiedrības kontekstam un indivīda vēlmēm un vajadzībām.

Spēja sazināties vairākās svešvalodās ir nepieciešama ne tikai darba tirgū. Iepriekš minētajā dokumentā atrodama piebilde, ka šī prasme ir svarīga arī ikdienas dzīvē, lai indivīds būtu pasargāts no sociālās atstumtības. Nespēja vai ļoti ierobežota spēja sazināties svešvalodās bieži tiek uztverta kā problēma tieši saistībā ar migrantiem un migrācijas tendencēm Eiropas Savienības valstīs. Cilvēkiem, kuri nepārvalda savas mītnes zemes valodu, tas var atstumtības izjūtu: “Kaut arī ES imigrācijas racionālie apsvērumi un ekonomiskie ieguvumi ir guvuši virsroku, Eiropas valstu sabiedrībās vienlaikus pieaug arī neiecietība pret imigrantiem un minoritātēm vispār” (Kļava, 2009). Nav noliedzams, ka svešvalodu prasme sniedz lielas priekšrocības gan karjeras veidošanā, gan sadzīvē.

Ikvienas jaunas prasmes, tai skaitā, valodu, apgūvē ļoti liela loma ir motivācijai. Attiecībā uz valodu mācīšanos Latviešu valodas aģentūras Izglītības daļas metodiķe Indra Lapinska norāda: “Daudzvalodība nodrošina iespēju gūt un nodot informāciju dažādās valodās, tādejādi tā sekmē analītiskas personības veidošanos. Daudzvalodība ir nozīmīga gan kā izglītības galarezultāts, gan kā kvalitatīva izglītošanās procesa priekšnoteikums, komponents” (Lapinska, 2015).

Individīda konkurētspējas celšanai ieteicams apgūt ne tikai lielo nāciju valodas, bet arī tās valodas, kurās runātāju skaits ir relatīvi neliels. Tieši šo valodu prasme darba tirgū var sniegt priekšrocības, piemēram, veidojot starpvalstu diplomātiskos un starpkultūru kontaktus. Tas pilnā mērā attiecināms arī uz latviešu valodu, kuru iespējams apgūt ne tikai Latvijā, bet arī ārpus tās robežām, turklāt sākot ar A1 prasmju līmeni un beidzot ar augstāko valodas zināšanu jeb C līmeni. “Šobrīd pēc LVA datiem, ar latviešu valodas mācīšanu un/vai pētniecību nodarbojas apmēram 21 ārvalstu augstskola 12 pasaules valstīs: ASV (1), Čehijā (2), Francijā (1), Igaunijā (2), Krievijā (2), Ķīnā (2), Lietuvā (3), Polijā (2), Somijā (1), Ukrainā

(1), Vācijā (3), Zviedrijā (1)” (Lapinska, 2016). Aptuveni 20 gadus latviešu valodu kā svešvalodu varēja apgūt Rietumungārijas Universitātē, taču ekonomisku apsvērumu dēļ no 2013. gada rudens šādas iespējas vairs nav.

2014. gadā Ministru kabinets (MK) apstiprināja “Valsts valodas politikas pamatnostādnes 2015.-2020. gadam”, kur definēti valsts valodas politikas pamatprincipi, mērķi un rīcības virzieni nākamajiem sešiem gadiem. Iepriekš minētajā vidēja termiņa politikas plānošanas dokumentā noteikts, ka viena no iespējām, lai sasniegtu izvirzīto valsts valodas politikas mērķi, ir latviešu valodas apguves atbalstīšana ārvalstu augstskolās. “Atzīstot izglītības pieejamības aktualitāti, nodrošinot latviešu valodas apguves iespējas un pieejamību plašākam interesentu lokam, tāpat sadarbībā ar augstākās izglītības iestādēm tiks izstrādāts latviešu valodas kā svešvalodas apguves tālmācības kurss e-studiju vidē. [...] Tāpat tiks organizēti letonistu semināri latviešu valodas docētājiem, kas strādā ārvalstu augstskolās un ar ārvalstu studentiem. Augstākās izglītības iestāžu iesaiste ir plānota gan pedagogu profesionālās kompetences pilnveidei, gan atbilstošu programmu latviešu valodas kā svešvalodas mācīšanā pieaugušajiem izstrādei” (Valsts valodas politikas pamatnostādnes 2015.-2020. gadam, 2014).

Autore no 2007. gada 1. septembra līdz 2013. gada 31. augustam ir docējusi studiju kursus latviešu valodā kā svešvalodā, latviešu literatūrā, folklorā, etnoģenēzē, Latvijas vēsturē un mākslas vēsturē Rietumungārijas Universitātē (*Nyugat-magyarországi Egyetem Savaria Egyetemi Központ*). Sešos studiju gados uzkrāta pieredze latviešu valodas kā svešvalodas mācīšanā ungāru studentiem. Raksta mērķis ir atklāt latviešu valodas mācīšanas praksi Rietumungārijas Universitātē un analizēt galvenās grūtības, ar ko nākas saskarties docētājam, pasniedzot latviešu valodu ārpus Latvijas. Autore arī mēģinājusi sniegt ieteikumus, kā šīs grūtības varētu risināt.

### **Latviešu valodas studijas Rietumungārijas Universitātē *Latvian Language Studies at the University of West Hungary***

Ideja, ka ungāru studentiem jānodrošina plašākas svešvalodu apguves iespējas, piedāvājumā iekļaujot mazo nāciju valodas, Rietumungārijas Universitātē sāka realizēt 20. gadsimta 90. gadu sākumā. Tolaik augstskolai bija cits nosaukums un statuss – Dāniela Beržeņi Pedagoģiskā augstskola (*Berzsenyi Dániel Tanárképző Főiskola*), kur rektora amatā no 1991. līdz 1996. gadam bija somugru valodu pētnieks profesors Jānošs Pustai (*Pusztay János*). Otrajā savas darbības gadā rektora amatā J. Pustai nodibināja Urālistikas katedru (*Uralisztikai Tanszék*), kuru pats vadīja no pirmās pastāvēšanas dienas 1992. gadā līdz likvidēšanai 2013. gadā.

Katedras darbība saistīta ar somugru valodu studijām un pētniecību, bet ne tikai ar to. Viena no lektorēm, kura no 1997. līdz 2005. gadam docēja studiju

kursu latviešu valodā kā svešvalodā, bija Inga Klēvere. Viņa Urālistikas katedras darbību raksturo šādi: “Tā ir somugristikas katedra, kas studentiem piedāvā apgūt praktisko somu un igauņu valodu un dažādus ar somugristiku saistītus teorētiskos kursus galvenokārt valodniecībā. Līdzās pētījumiem somugristikā katedra nodarbojas arī ar Viduseiropas valodu kontrastīviem pētījumiem tā saucamā Dzintara ceļa projekta ietvaros. Ar to cieši saistās latviešu valodas mācīšana un pētniecība” (Klēvere, 2002).

Viens no mērķiem, dibinot katedru, bija saistīts ar Centrāleiropas reģiona (tā kultūras mantojuma, valodu u.c.) izpēti. J. Pustai pirmoreiz Latviju apmeklēja 1990. gadā oficiālas delegācijas sastāvā ar nodomu veicināt Pēčs Universitātes (*Pécsi Tudományegyetem*) un Latvijas Universitātes sadarbību zinātnes jomā. Minētā vizīte veicinājusi viņa interesi par Latviju un latviešu valodu. Profesors pauž: “Latviešu valoda ir īpaša, jo vienlaikus ir gan eksotiska, gan eiropiska. Ja mani studenti vēlas mācīties eksotiskas valodas, nav nepieciešamības doties tik tālu kā uz Okeāniju vai Āfriku, es viņiem saku, lai paliek tepat, Eiropā, un izvēlas, piemēram, latviešu valodu. Tā ir sena indoeiropiešu valoda. Rīgā viesojoties pirmo reizi, es ar prieku atklāju vārdus un vārdu celmus, kas cēlušies no

indoeiropiešu valodas. Latviešu valoda ir arhaiska, bet vienlaikus arī mūsdienīga. Atklāt šo latviešu valodas divpusīgo raksturu ir ļoti interesanti. Tikpat iespaidīgi ir tas, cik daudz jaunu jēdzienu jūs cenšaties izteikt ar latviešu valodas vārdiem, nevis izmantojot aizguvumus” (Lukšo, 2016).

J. Pustai pētniecības objekts bija senā Dzintara ceļa izpēte saistībā ar lingvistiku. Dzintara ceļš no 1. līdz 5. gadsimtam pēc Kristus kalpoja kā maiņas sakaru ceļš, kas sācies Baltijas jūras austrumu piekrastē un vedis lejup pa Vislu līdz Karnuntas pilsētai tagadējā Ungārijas teritorijā. Tā kā viena no Baltijas jūras reģiona valodām ir latviešu valoda, profesoram šķita likumsakarīgi, ka Urālistikas katedras darbībai jābūt saistītai ne tikai ar somugru valodu saimes Baltijas jūras somu valodu grupu un Volgas somu valodu grupu, bet arī ar latviešu valodu, kas ar somugru valodu saimi nav saistīta, jo pieder indoeiropiešu valodu saimes baltu valodu grupai.

Savas darbības laikā J. Pustai kopā ar katedras mācībspēkiem rīkoja starptautiskas konferences, kas tika veltītas dažādiem ar baltu valodām saistītiem jautājumiem. “Urālistikas katedra organizējusi vairākas konferences: 1993. gadā *Valodu aina Dzintara ceļa reģionā (The linguistic picture of the amber road region// Das sprachliche Bild der Bernsteinstraße-Region// A borostyánkőút-régió nyelvi képe)* (referāti publicēti 1994. gadā izdotajā apgāda *Savaria University Press* un Urālistikas katedras kopīgajā izdevumu sērijā *Dzintara ceļš/Bernsteinstraße/Amber Road/Borostyánkőút*), 1995. gadā – *SCLOMB [Studia Comparativa Linguarum Orbis Maris Baltici] un Viduseiropa (SCLOMB und Mitteleuropa)* (referāti publicēti *Dzintara ceļa* sērijā 1996. gadā), bet 1999. gadā tika organizēta terminoloģijas konference (referāti publicēti Urālistikas

katedras izdevumu sērijas *Specimina Sibirica* 18. sējumā 2001. gadā)” (Klēvere, 2002).

**Docētāju profils un ungāru studentu motivācija apgūt latviešu valodu**  
***The Profile of Lecturers and the Motivation of Hungarian Students to Acquire the Latvian Language***

Rietumungārijas Universitātes Filoloģijas fakultātes Urālistikas katedras pastāvēšanas laikā latviešu valodu docējuši vairāki mācībspēki. Visiem docētājiem tā bija dzimtā valoda, turklāt viņi visi bija ar augstāko izglītību latviešu filoloģijā (vairākiem bija maģistra akadēmiskais grāds, dažiem – doktora zinātniskais grāds). I. Klēvere norāda: “Pirmā latviešu valodas lektore Ungārijā bija pazīstamā žurnāliste Laima Žihare (1992-93). Par latviešu valodas lektorēm Sombathejā un Budapeštā strādājušas arī Rīgas Tehniskās universitātes (RTU) valodniecības profesore Daina Nītiņa (1993-96) un literatūrzinātniece Dagmāra Kokina (1996-97 Sombathejā, 1996-98 Budapeštā). [...] Kopš 1997. gada Sombathejā un kopš 1999. gada Budapeštā strādā I. Klēvere” (Klēvere, 2002). Vairākus gadus Rietumungārijas Universitātē latviešu valodu kā svešvalodu pasniedza Liene Jūrmale. 2006./2007. studiju gadā Ungārijā latviešu valodu docēja Inese Vasiljeva-Muhka, bet no 2007. līdz 2013. gadam – RTU E-studiju tehnoloģiju un humanitāro zinātņu fakultātes latviešu valodas lektore Lāsma Gaitniece.

Rietumungārijas Universitātē latviešu valoda kā svešvaloda bija brīvas izvēles kurss. To apguva studenti, kuri studēja kādu no somugru valodām (praktisko somu vai igauņu valodu), kā arī ar somugristiku saistītus teorētiskos studiju kursus. Nodarbības latviešu valodā notika divas reizes nedēļā (90 min katra), sākot ar A1 līmeni. Kursa kopējais apjoms: divi studiju gadi (četri semestri). 2007./2008. studiju gadā tika nokomplektēta četru studentu grupa, kuru apgūstamajai specialitātei ar valodniecību nebija saistības. Četri studenti salīdzinoši ir liels skaits; parasti vienā grupā bija ne vairāk par trim, parasti gan viens vai divi studenti. Studiju semestra noslēgumā vērtējot testus un iegūtās zināšanas, tika secināts, ka rezultāti bija pat ļoti iepriecinoši, taču nākamajā semestrī grupa vairs netika komplektēta. Raksta autorei nav arī informācijas, vai šie studenti latviešu valodas apguvi turpināja un vai izmantoja savas jau apgūtās zināšanas.

Kas motivēja ungāru studentus apgūt latviešu valodu? Vairāki raksta autores studenti izvēlējās mācīties valodu pēc Latvijas apmeklējuma. Turklāt viņiem Latvijā bija draugi, ar kuriem savas valodas zināšanas varēja pielietot praktiski. Nereti motivācija apgūt mazas valsts valodu indivīdam rodas, ja tā ir dzimtā valoda viņa dzīvesbiedram vai dzīvesbiedrei, taču raksta autores pieredzē šādu gadījumu nav. Vairāki studenti, sākot mācīties latviešu valodu, atzina, ka viņu

mērķis ir iegūt plašākas iespējas darba tirgū, piemēram, strādāt vēstniecībā vai par tulkotājiem.

Lielākā daļa raksta autores studentu Latviju nebija apmeklējuši, līdz ar to viņu zināšanas par valsti bija minimālas. Šī iemesla dēļ docētāja pienākumos latviešu valodas nodarbību laikā ietilpa iepazīstināšana ar valsts ģeogrāfiju, kultūru un tradīcijām, tai skaitā, svētku svinēšanu. Šim nolūkam nodereja gatavošanās Latvijas Valsts proklamēšanas gadadienu atzīmēšanai 18. novembrī. Uz svētkiem Urālistikas katedrā ieradās kāds Latvijas Republikas vēstniecības Budapeštā darbinieks, dažkārt pati vēstniece. Autore saistībā ar pirmo darba gadu Rietumungārijas Universitātē laikrakstā "Izglītība un Kultūra" paudusi: "Šis 18. novembris man bija īsts izaicinājums, jo pirmo reizi mūžā kopā ar studentiem gatavojām nelielu svētku programmu un gaidījām ierodamies viesus. Lai iepriecinātu gan sevi, gan citus, ar profesora Pustai palīdzību ungāru valodā atdzejojām Austras Skujiņas fantastisko dzejoli "Meitenei kafejnīcā", ko klātesošajiem skaisti norunāja viens no studentiem, taču uzreiz pēc tam to klausījāmie oriģinālā – dziedātāja Igo izpildījumā. [...] Nemelošu, teikdama, ka vēstniecības pārstāve bija sajūsmināta" (Ģibiete, 2014).

Cita iespēja studentus iepazīstināt ar Latviju, radās, veidojot fotogrāfiju izstādi saistībā ar Latvijas Valsts proklamēšanas 90. gadadienu. No 2008. gada novembra līdz decembrim Sombathejas mākslas centrā (*Művészetek Háza*) bija eksponētas 28 lielformāta fotogrāfijas ar Latvijas dabasskatiem, mirkļiem no zvejnieku darba ikdienas Baltijas jūras krasta, kā arī vairāku pilsētu – Rīgas, Liepājas, Jūrmalas, Kuldīgas – ievērojamākās vietas.

Sobrīd vienīgā izglītības iestāde Ungārijā, kur iespējams apgūt latviešu valodu kā svešvalodu A1 līmenī, ir Etveša Lorānda Budapeštas universitāte (*Eötvös Loránd Tudományegyetem*).

### **Mācību līdzekļi latviešu valodas apguvei *Teaching Aids for Latvian Language Acquisition***

Latviešu valodas docētāja darba pienākumos ietilpa arī mācību līdzekļu sagatavošana, lai studentiem būtu materiāli, no kā mācīties. Ļoti nozīmīgu ieguldījumu sniegušas D. Nītiņa un I. Klēvere.

D. Nītiņa ir pirmā mācību līdzekļa ungāru studentiem latviešu valodas apguvei "Könyv a lett nyelvéről" [*Grāmata par latviešu valodu*] (Szombathely, 1998) autore. Tā ir ungāru valodā veidota praktiska, skaidrojoša latviešu valodas gramatika ar uzdevumiem, kas atbilst strukturālajai pieejai. Secināms, ka autores mērķis ir bijis strikti mācīt gramatiku un veidot studentu izpratni par dažādiem tās tematiem. Ar grāmatu paredzēts strādāt induktīvi, tās mērķauditorija ir studenti ar priekšzināšanām un augstu motivācijas līmeni, savukārt studentiem, kuriem latviešu valodā nav priekšzināšanu, tā varētu šķist par sarežģītu. (Nītiņa,

1998). Raksta autore savā praksē minēto mācību līdzekli izmantojusi nedaudz, galvenokārt ar mērķi atkārtot iepriekš apgūtus tematus, lai nostiprinātu studentu zināšanas. Otrs D. Nītiņas darbs ir pirmās un pašlaik vienīgās ungāru-latviešu vārdnīcas “Ungāru-latviešu vārdnīca//Lett-magyar kisszótár” (Szombathely, 2004) sastādīšana. Šis izdevums valodas apguves procesā ir neaizvietojams (Nītiņa, 2004). Studenti vārdnīcu izmantoja bieži un to novērtēja ļoti atzinīgi apjomīgā vārdu krājuma dēļ.

D. Nītiņas iesākto veiksmīgi turpinājusi I. Klēvere. Pateicoties viņas uzņēmībai, tapusi “Latviešu-ungāru sarunvārdnīca//Lett-magyar társalgás” (Szombathely, 2000), kas atbilst komunikatīvajai pieejai. To var izmantot ne tikai ungāru studenti, bet ikviens tūrists, ceļojot pa Ungāriju. Sarunvārdnīcas ievadā autore skaidro dažas ungāru valodas fonētikas īpatnības (skaņu izrunu), kam seko ikdienas dzīves situācijās lietojamu frāžu un teikumu apkopojums, kas sistematizēts pēc konkrētiem tematiem (Klēvere, 2000). Mācību līdzekli bija iecienījuši un regulāri izmantoja studenti, kuri tikko sāka apgūt latviešu valodu.

Rietumungārijas Universitātes studiju piedāvājumā bija iekļauts Latvijas vēstures kurss, tādēļ 2010. gada nogalē Urālistikas katedras iespieddarbu sērijā “hEÚréka” tika publicēts mācību līdzeklis “Az örökre elveszett hazáért. Az 1939-es év Lettországban és Liepājában” [*Uz mūžu zaudētā dzimtene. 1939. gads Latvijā un Liepājā*] (Szombathely, 2010). Autores ir L. Gaitniece un S. Ģibiete; redaktors – J. Pustai. Mācību līdzeklis vispirms tika sagatavots vācu valodā; ungāriski to tulkojusi studente Gabriela Gāngo (*Gángó Gabriella*). Mērķis – studentus iepazīstināt ar vācbaltiešu, kuri pirms Otrā pasaules kara bija viena no lielākajām minoritātēm Latvijā, izceļošanu no Baltijas valstīm pēc Ādolfa Hitlera aicinājuma 1939. gada 7. oktobrī (Ģibiete, L. & Ģibiete, S., 2010). Ārzemniekiem, mācoties Latvijas vēsturi, par šiem notikumiem ir svarīgi zināt, jo vācbaltiešu izceļošana bija pagrieziena punkts, kas ievadīja virkni traģisku notikumu Baltijā.

Ņemot vērā, ka Rietumungārijas Universitātē studiju kurss Latvijas vēsturē ilga vienu semestri (nodarbība reizi nedēļā), saprotams, ka docētājam bija rūpīgi jāizvēlas, kuriem tematiem dot priekšroku un kurus kursa saturā neiekļaut. Šo izvēli vienmēr veica mācībspēks. Autore, docējot vēstures kursu, iekļāva tematus par abiem pasaules kariem, vācbaltiešu izceļošanu, deportācijām 1941. un 1949. gadā un padomju okupācijas laiku Latvijā. Studentu zināšanas par pasaules vēsturi kopumā vērtējamās kā vājas: vairākiem pat sagādāja problēmas nosaukt gadskaitļus, kad sākās un kad beidzās Pirmais pasaules karš vai Otrais pasaules karš, nemaz nerunājot par detalizētāku informāciju.



### **Literāro darbu tulkojumi** *Translation of Literary Works*

Ungāriem iespējas iepazīties ar latviešu literatūru savā dzimtajā valodā ir niecīgas; latviešu autoru darbu tulkojumi ir retums. Pirmā ungāru lasītāju iepazīšanās ar latviešu literatūru notika 1950. gadā, kad Budapeštas izdevniecība “Új Magyar Könyvkiadó” ungāriski izdeva Annas Sakses romānu “Pret kalnu” (1948). Tulkotājs Jozefs Ņīro (*Nyírő József*) izmantojis nevis oriģināltekstu, bet tā tulkojumu krievu valodā, kuru viņš tulkojis ungāriski (Szaksze, 1950). Otra reize bija 1982. gadā, kad Budapeštas izdevniecība “Európa Könyvkiadó” ungāru valodā publicēja Viktora Lagzdiņa romānu “Nakts Mežāžos” (1976), ko tulkojusi Ēva Lēnārte (*Lénárt Éva*). Arī tad izmantots nevis latviešu valodas oriģināls, bet romāna tulkojums krievu valodā, kas tulkots ungāriski (Lagzdiņš, 1982). Svarīgi minēt 1977. gadā ungāru valodā izdoto latviešu autoru darbu izlasi “A lett irodalom kistükre” [*Mazais latviešu literatūras spogulis*], kur iekļauti gan latviešu klasiķu darbi, gan zemas mākslinieciskās kvalitātes padomju propagandas autoru sacerējumi. Krājuma sastādītāja ir Šāra Kariga (*Karig Sára*) (A lett irodalom kistükre, 1977).

Docējot latviešu valodas kursus, viens no uzdevumiem bija starpkultūru izpratnes veicināšana. Tas minēts arī 2006. gadā pieņemtajās Eiropas struktūras mūžizglītības galvenajās pamatprasmēs (*European Framework for key Competences*). Lai uzdevumu veiksmīgi izpildītu, ir svarīgi studentus iepazīstināt ar apgūstamās valodas literatūru: gan klasiku, gan mūsdienu autoru darbiem. Lieliski, ja studenti darbus spēj lasīt un saprast oriģinālvalodā, taču vēlams, lai viņiem būtu pieejami to tulkojumi arī dzimtajā valodā. Šī iemesla dēļ J. Pustai katram no svešvalodu docētājiem uzdeva pēc pašu ieskatiem izvēlēties autora, kurš raksta mācībspēka dzimtajā valodā, darbu un, maksimāli iesaistot studentus, to iztulkot ungāru valodā. Mērķis bija sagatavot publicēšanai bilingvālu izdevumu – literāro darbu ungāru un latviešu valodā. Visu šajā laikā sagatavoto un izdoto darbu literārais redaktors bija J. Pustai.

Tātad viens no latviešu valodas docētāja visgrūtākajiem uzdevumiem un izaicinājumiem bija kvalitatīvi sagatavot latviešu literāro darbu tulkojumu ungāru valodā, ko izdeva izdevniecība “Savaria University Centre of the University of West Hungary Department for Uralic Studies” sērijā *Folia Baltica* vai *Minoritates Mundi*. Tulkošanas procesā tika iesaistīti paši sekmīgākie studenti, kuri valodu prata vismaz B1 līmenī, un dažkārt pat speciālisti no Latvijas, piemēram, ungāru valodas tulkotāja Elga Sakse, kas bieži tika lūgta konsultēt. Studentiem tā bija vērtīga prakse, kas ne tikai palīdzēja pilnveidot valodas zināšanas, bet arī disciplinēja. Laikā no 2007. līdz 2013. gadam tika iztulkotas un izdotas divas latviešu autoru grāmatas. Kā pirmais sērijā *Minoritates Mundi* tika izdots dzejnieka Modra Zihmaņa (1928) lirikas krājums “Vēstules Margrietiņai//

Levelek Margarétához” (Szombathely, 2008), bet pēc gada sērijā *Folia Baltica* – rakstnieces Zentas Mauriņas (1897-1978) eseju krājums “Zenta Mauriņa – viņas dzīve un esejas//Zenta Mauriņa – élete és ésszéi” (Szombathely, 2009). Abi ir bilingvāli izdevumi, kas lasāmi ungāru un paralēli latviešu valodā (Zihmanis, 2008), (Mauriņa, 2009).

M. Zihmaņa darba izdevēju mērķis bija lasītājus iepazīstināt ne tikai ar šī latviešu dzejnieka daiļradi, bet arī ar Latvijas iedzīvotāju masveida deportāciju 20. gadsimta 40. gados. Iespējams, šī izvēle potenciālajos lasītājos radīja izjūtu, ka visa latviešu literatūra ir „smagnēja” un radīta uz traģisku notikumu bāzes, kaut gan M. Zihmaņa dzejas krājumā tika ietverta arī izsūtījumā tapusī mīlestības lirika. Bilingvālais lirikas krājums “Vēstules Margrietiņai// Levelek Margarétához” izdots Latvijas Republikas proklamēšanas 90. gadadienā.

Izlase “Zenta Mauriņa – viņas dzīve un esejas//Zenta Mauriņa – élete és ésszéi” ir pirmais esejistis darba tulkojums ungāru valodā. Izdevumā publicētas septiņas esejas, kas sniedz ieskatu vairāku slavenu autoru (Antona Čehova, Fjodora Dostojevskā, Šarla Bodlēra, Albēra Kamī) dzīvē un daiļradē. Lai ungāru studenti uzzinātu par rakstnieces dzīvi un daiļradi, izdevumā iekļauts L. Gaitnieces referāts “Zenta Mauriņa: írónó, filozófus, európai. Egy női sors” [*Zenta Mauriņa – rakstniece, filozofe, eiropiete. Sievietes liktenis*] un bibliogrāfisko datu saraksts.

### **Secinājumi** **Conclusions**

1. Pieaugot mobilitātei, attīstoties modernajām tehnoloģijām un paplašinoties starptautiskajiem, tai skaitā, starpkultūru, sakariem, rodas nepieciešamība pēc vairāku svešvalodu prasmes. Lai paaugstinātu konkurētspēju darba tirgū gan Eiropas Savienības valstīs, gan ārpus tās robežām, nepieciešams pārvaldīt ne tikai lielo nāciju valodas, bet arī skaitliski nelielu tautu nacionālās valodas.
2. Lai nodrošinātu latviešu literatūras un kultūras pieejamību interesentiem citās valstīs, ir nepieciešams sagatavot speciālistus, kuri latviešu valodu pārvaldītu tādā līmenī, lai nākotnē spētu dibināt un uzturēt starpkultūru sakarus starp Latviju un savu izcelsmes valsti. Viens no veiksmīgiem piemēriem ir Rietumungārijas Universitāte, kur šādi speciālisti tika gatavoti no 1992. gada līdz 2013. gadam.
3. Docējot mazo tautu valodas kā svešvalodas, ir svarīgi studentus nodrošināt ar mūsdienīgiem mācību līdzekļiem: ne tikai vārdnīcām un mācību grāmatām, bet arī daiļliteratūras darbiem, kas ideālā gadījumā būtu pieejami viņu dzimtajā valodā. Ne mazāk svarīgi ir studentiem piedāvāt arī pētniecības iespējas, kas saistītas ar tās nācijas kultūru, kuras valodu viņi

- apgūst. Pamatojoties uz Rietumungārijas Universitātē gūto pieredzi, secināms, ka nereti mācību līdzekļu veidošana atkarīga no paša mācībspēka iniciatīvas, entuziasma un spējām, kā arī prasmes motivēt studentus. Lai varētu studentus iesaistīt literāro darbu tulkošanā, iepriekš ir nepieciešams viņus sagatavot, kas no docētāja prasa milzu darbu. Cilvēkam, kurš valodu tikai sāk apgūt, nav iespējams uzticēt tulkot daiļliteratūras darbu.
4. Lai studentus motivētu izzināt pēc iespējas pilnvērtīgāku informāciju par valsts, kuras valodu viņi apgūst, kultūru un tradīcijām, ir svarīgi viņus iesaistīt dažādos projektos, piemēram, daiļliteratūras tulkošanā, ceļojošo izstāžu sagatavošanā, valsts nacionālajiem svētkiem veltītu kultūras pasākumu organizēšanā.

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### **Summary**

Along with the growth of people mobility, technological development, and increasing international and intercultural cooperation, there is a growing need to develop foreign language competence in several languages. In order to raise competitiveness in the labor market both in the EU countries and beyond it is necessary to develop competence not only in the major, but also in the lesser used foreign languages.

In order to provide access to the Latvian literature and Latvian culture to the interested parties in other countries, it is necessary to educate and train specialists, who have sufficient knowledge of Latvian to be able to establish and maintain cross-cultural cooperation between Latvia and their home countries in future. The University of West Hungary, where the specialists in the Latvian language were educated and trained from 1992 until 2013, is one of the most successful examples of implementation of this policy.

Teaching languages of smaller nations as a foreign language it is very important to provide students with the range of relevant learning aids, including not only dictionaries and study books, but also general fiction – the works of contemporary authors and poets translated into the native language of the students. It is also important to offer students opportunities to get involved in research connected with the culture of the nation the language of which they are learning. These opportunities – both a wide range of learning aids and research opportunities – were offered to the students of the University of West Hungary.

To motivate students to learn comprehensive information about the country, the language of which they learn, about its culture and traditions, it is important to involve them in different

projects, for example, translation of literature, preparation of touring exhibitions, organization of cultural events dedicated to the national holidays.

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## INNOVATIVE APPROACHES IN DEVELOPING COMMUNICATIVE COMPETENCE

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**Abstract.** *The article deals with the aspect of the language acquisition through the use of socioculturally contextualized educational materials and applying particular strategies and techniques to improve communicative skills of the students. We have defined a motivation-stimulating sociocultural principle, and presented both theoretical and practical items in terms of socioculturally contextualized educational materials based on the mentioned above principle. The social demand for a linguistically competent personality faces the problem of the lack of the proper effective educational methods in the classroom. The aim of the research is to study the theory and practice of developing the communicative competence via the innovative approaches in language education. The article also introduces the concept of multiculturalism and global citizenship, national values and beliefs in language education as innovative principles of education, interest to a human being and to another culture as a life skill, we study the definitions of multiculturalism and the phenomenon of interest to a personality, we identify various types and components within the complex structure of multiculturalism; describe the ways of applications of the principles of multiculturalism into the classroom. We also suggest a model of developing the communicative competence through innovative approaches (with stages, particular algorithms for a teacher, indicators in students' behavior).*

**Keywords:** *global citizenship, motivation, multiculturalism, sociocultural awareness, socioculturally contextualized educational materials, values.*

### Introduction

In our increasingly globalised world language teaching for developing communicative competence and intercultural communication is front and center in the educational mission of facilitating the students' participation in intercultural citizenship which is a "sine qua non" in today's society (Byram, 2018). To become a successful person, to prosper economically, and to have positive relations with the representatives of other nations the students should be able to read, speak, and understand other languages. However, focusing only on linguistic

aspects of the language is not enough. The educators should help their students acquire and apply linguistic and communicative competence.

The paper deals with the innovative approaches of fostering students' (multilingual and multicultural) identities by developing the existing and new language skills and identities through interactions with the representatives of other cultures. The subject under consideration is motivated by the great changes the world has been going through for the past several decades. New conditions of a technologically developed, multicultural, multinational society provide a new focus for intercultural communication. Thus, an effective system of training is becoming increasingly in demand.

### **The concept of multiculturalism at the English classroom**

The study shows that the problem originates from the outdated strategies and techniques currently applied during the instructional process. They have proved to fail in fostering students' intellectual and emotional capacity. Neither do they motivate them or develop communicative competence in a foreign language.

Following that reasoning, effective strategies and techniques for mastering a foreign language under new conditions should be offered. Let's consider multicultural approach for developing communicative competence at a foreign language classroom. It originates from the necessity to develop tolerant, effective, fruitful and responsible global citizenship. The teacher should provide particular tools to help students become successful in modern society and learn to perform in multicultural encounters. What can give the students new insights into their own culture and another culture is *multicultural awareness* as well as *self-awareness*. A single generally accepted interpretation of the term "multiculturalism" is not available at the moment. Multiculturalism is understood as the recognition and promotion of cultural pluralism. Multiculturalism advocates cultural diversity. Finally, multiculturalism can be interpreted as the coexistence of several cultures within one group, and also as a policy aimed at ensuring equal opportunities for different cultures and combating discrimination against minority cultures.

In global studies various adjectives are used to describe education in the context of existing cultural diversity: cross-cultural, metacultural and multicultural. These labels or markings are used interchangeably, often without differentiation of values. In this multicultural and intercultural are the most common concepts in education and many researchers and practitioners have attempted to determine precisely their key characteristics and the boundaries of these concepts. Some European researchers are inclined to attribute the notion of multiculturalism some negative characteristics, arguing that multicultural education exacerbates cultural differences and ignores the similarities,

individuality and significance of interrelations and interaction of cultures, in contrast to intercultural education. Culture is behavior, beliefs and values (Wagner, 2017). Consequently, communicative competence combines language skills with the knowledge, personal experience, attitudes, that help become “intercultural citizens”.

In this paper, we deal with multicultural and intercultural awareness with regard to the concepts of culture and identity.

Therefore, the optimal definition of multiculturalism in education should go beyond the traditional context of multicultural education and should include a methodology for the formation of knowledge, communicative skills in general and skills of intercultural communication in diverse contexts.

In the Western approaches, multiculturalism is often defined as communication among cultures, among people representing different cultures, between a representative of one culture and a carrier of information (digital, paper) in a different culture.

Teaching “culture” is a part of “language teaching”. However, teaching culture exclusively as information about a country and nation is wrong. Culture is a complicated and challenging concept, difficult to define.

We strongly support the idea of M. Byram, who suggests that an interculturally competent speaker is someone who has skills of *discovering* about one’s own culture and another culture, *comparing* the aspects of another culture with our own culture to get better understanding, *analyzing* and evaluating the elements of cultures (Byram, 2000).

Effective communication becomes possible only if participants share common values and find common cultural grounds for communication (if there is a “third culture”, a shared culture, a compromise reality, a multicultural hybrid culture).

There are certain pedagogical tools for the formation of relationships of multicultural awareness in the group of students as a specially organized educational process characterized by a sequence of stages and developing the spiritual (value content of consciousness) and the soul (value content of experiences) characteristics of a personality.

We suggest a *model* of pedagogical support for the developing of multicultural awareness at a foreign language classroom, with the *target*, *stages*, *content* (algorithm of teacher’s actions in the classroom) and the *result*.

At every stage the students work with the texts (written or video) and find the answers to the following set of questions (presented by Byram M., 2018): Whose words are those? Whose discourse? Whose interests are being served by this text? What made this text possible and another impossible? How does the speaker position him/herself? How does he/she frame the events talked about? What prior discourses does he/she draw on?

*Stage 1. Inclusion.* At this stage the teacher assists the students in the acquiring the skills of a positive attitude and interest to the problem of multicultural awareness through the demonstration in the process of open communication the significance of this phenomenon. Emotional inclusion is achieved through the use of particular speech clichés: “I’m interested in it”, “I want to participate in it”, “I want to understand”, “I want to be understood”. At the stage of inclusion the workshops with the following topics can be held: “Me and my group mates”, “Happiness is when you are understood”, “Everyone chooses for himself” (about spiritual values in the life of a person), “The House of Our Happiness” (value attitudes and happiness in the classroom), etc., where the students are offered to answer the questions like “Who understands me?”, “Whom do I understand?”, “How do my relationships develop with those who understand me and whom I understand?”. At the class “We are going to a birthday party” students reflect on what they know about a person, his/her dreams, hobbies, nature, favorite pursuits, in order to give him/her a birthday present. As a result, there is a shift in the attitude of students towards the problem of understanding people in their statements: “To understand a representative of another culture is an opportunity to make the relationship better and kinder”, “Multicultural awareness is the key to happiness”, “For the first time I thought about who understands me and whom I understand”, “Multicultural awareness eliminates the conflicts”.

*Stage 2. Problem-setting.* At this stage the problem of multiculturalism becomes personally significant. The teacher expands and enriches the ontological basis of multicultural relationships among students through joint search, discovery and insight into the new values of multiculturalism; in the process of working on the content of the basic philosophical postulates and metaphors: “to understand a culture is to justify”, “without understanding there is no acceptance of an individual, and without acceptance there is no and can not be interaction in multicultural encounters”, “understanding a person is possible only through experience”, “attention generates interest to a person, and there is nothing more interesting than a human being in the world”, etc. The students discuss the essence of multiculturalism as the basic mode of being; differentiate the notions of understanding and knowledge, understanding and explanation; accept another person as he/she is; accept the values of another person.

The stage of problem-setting was devoted to the discussion of the following issues: “Multiculturalism and Conflict”, “Components of multicultural awareness and relationships”; communicative exercises like “Sincere joy”, “Verbal portrait”, “What the eyes say”, “Catch the mood of the class”, “I’m responsible for you” are held; workshops such as “On the way to multiculturalism”, “Multicultural awareness is the path to harmony” are organized. As a result, the statements and creative works of students at this stage become more sophisticated: “a person can



not be explained, he/she can be understood and described”, “multicultural awareness and understanding relationships are the basic way of being, working with meanings, accepting a person as he is, justifying him”, “to read the text, you need to know the alphabet, a person can also be “read”, but for this you need to know the "ABC" of multiculturalism”, “multicultural awareness is an art”.

*Stage 3. Action.* At this stage students become aware of the behavior strategies. The teacher organizes the activities that lead to the maintenance of interest and the need to be understood and understand the representative of a different culture. It is realized through the interpretation of texts, photographs, movies and TV shows; analysis of encounters with a beautiful, tragic, unusual, a situation of choice and a situation of resistance to the negative: a) the teacher introduces the cultural text into the sphere of interaction; b) sets a problem by revealing contradictions and asks participants to strengthen the problems by finding, opening up other contradictions, paradoxes of misunderstanding; c) challenges the understanding of everyone and leads the participants into a reflexive position in relation to their variant of understanding; e) the arising conflict of semantic positions is used as a basis for the beginning of polypositional communication; g) mutual understanding. The students start to show interest and attention to the person (“empathic listening”); they extract the meanings from the life manifestations of a person and interpret them on the basis of their own life experience, but taking into account the values of another person; they are engaged in a multicultural dialogue; they can “transfer” themselves to the position of another person; they are aware of the similarity and difference of human individualities.

The core of the meetings were problem situations, examples that lead to different aspects of the activity-behavioral component of mutual understanding relationships (the film about Tom Sawyer - the episode where the character paints the fence, showing himself as a small manipulator; the reflections of a famous surgeon Fyodor Uglov on good and evil; a television interview of figure skater Arthur Hill about the attitude to fame, live-show “Dom-2”, where love is a bargain and business alliance). At this stage, the students completed the tasks: “Group agreement on multiculturalism”, “The Dictionary of Multicultural Relationships”, “Declaration of Principles of Multicultural Relationships”.

The comprehension of the problem of multiculturalism goes beyond the classroom, when students, preparing for classes at home, address their parents and friends, formulate together the principles of the successful life of the multicultural group, prepare fragments of works of art, films, television programs illustrating cases of multicultural relationships or misunderstanding, make a code of behavior in multicultural environment, write essays, stories, articles, dictionary entries about multiculturalism.

### **Intercultural communicative competence in the context of the socioculturally contextualized materials**

The communicative competence is closely related to the motivation for learning and its consistency, as well as to a high level of interest that has to be constantly maintained. Theoretical significance of our research leads to the further development of the concept of motivated foreign languages teaching/learning via incorporating socioculturally contextualized educational materials. Within this new context, we are guided by a new principle defined as “motivation stimulating sociocultural principle”, which enables the educators to put intercultural communicative competence into a context.

By socioculturally contextualized educational materials we mean multimedia tools (musicals in particular) used for maintaining and stimulating motivation for learning a foreign language, and for creating favorable conditions for formation and developing communicative competence. Involving multimedia tools in educational process creates conditions for modeling a specific educational environment in the process of teaching foreign languages. In this context, multimedia materials acquire the quality of socioculturally contextualized educational materials. These audiovisual authentic materials correspond to all psychological and pedagogical demands needed for the successful formation of motivation. First, they affect the emotional dynamic of the audience. Second, they function as a powerful tool to stimulate the awareness of the need for learning and to promote the formation of the motive. Finally, these materials carry a significant potential for learning and raise the awareness of the aesthetic value of a foreign language communicated through various linguistic and cultural information.

We believe that one of the effective mechanisms for developing a foreign communicative competence is the integration of the socioculturally contextualized educational materials into the teaching/learning process. The methodical emphasis of our research is placed on integrating authentic films (musicals) into the pedagogical reality. The strategy of incorporating foreign films into the teaching/learning process provides the following benefits:

- the increased emotional impact of a foreign language authentic text on the listener;
- a way to obtain verbal information with no difficulty through foreign language ‘immersion’;
- a way to obtain non-verbal information as the conditions for the formation of a proper language behavior (model) in a foreign language environment are provided for.

The suggested strategy assumes direct participation of the students in the teaching/learning process. At the same time, the essence of educational process is

the expansion of sociocultural awareness via the use of multimedia tools and students' independent work. The basis of the language training is the emotional accessibility of video materials and the development of interaction and cooperation skills. The peculiarity of our technique implies the students' involvement into an efficient activity designed by the instructor. This technique is based on psychological and pedagogical aspects of the formation of motivation in the process of studying a foreign language. It also relies on the qualities of the proposed socioculturally contextualized educational materials used for educational purposes in terms of the formation of the educational motivational basis. The fundamental principle in the system of teaching via multimedia, "a motivation stimulating sociocultural principle", aims at increasing the role of motivation.

The content of the multimedia materials is also determined by the following methodological principles: 1) authenticity of video production; 2) methodologically expedient use of materials; 3) communicative and contrasting nature of native and foreign cultures; 4) cultural compatibility; 5) emotional accessibility or emotional connections for learning; 6) the principle of incentive management.

Taking into account all the above principles, we propose the following criteria for the selection of video materials:

1. Authenticity of video production.
2. Consistency with the academic curriculum.
3. Consideration of the possible language difficulties.
4. Artistic value of the video production
5. The proposed video materials' potential for the discussion.
6. Correlation to classical literature
7. Consideration of the psychological and pedagogical characteristics of the audience.
8. Humanistic nature of the video production.

Taking the mentioned above criteria into consideration, we focus on a musical film (musical), and propose the following repertoire for pre-view, viewing and further types of work:

- Film 1. Chitty-Chitty Bang-Bang (Ian Fleming)
- Film 2. Les Miserables (Trevor Nunn)
- Film 3. The Phantom of the Opera (Joel Schumcher and Andrew Lloyd Webber)
- Film 4. The Sound of Music (Richard Rogers and Joel Schumacher)
- Film 5. My Fair Lady (George Cukor)
- Film 6. The King and I (Richard Rogers and Oscar Hammerstein II)
- Film 7. Cats (Lloyd Webber and Trevor Nunn)
- Film 8. Moulin Rouge (Baz Luhrmann)

Film 9. *Dancer in the Dark* (Lars von Trier)

Film 10. *Jesus Christ Superstar* (Andrew Lloyd Webber, Tim Rice)

Film 11. *Dirty Dancing* (Eleanor Bergstein)

Film 12. *Beauty and the Beast* (Alan Menken, Howard Ashman, Tim Rice)

Film 13. *Chicago* (John Kander, Fred Ebb)

Film 14. *Chess* (Benny Andersson, Bjorn Ulvaeus, Tim Rice)

Film 15. *Evita* (Andrew Lloyd Webber, Tim Rice)

Our technique involves the application of musicals from the given repertoire, and include the sets of the following training activities that consist of three stages:

- 1) speech-stimulating or warming activities,
- 2) watching activities,
- 3) speech-forming activities.

Stimulating or warming exercises aim at optimizing conditions for motivational considerations. Watching exercises aim at understanding video materials. Speech-forming exercises aim at forming motivation in the learning process and developing communication skills. Generally, three blocks of exercises are suggested in accordance with the stage of work:

- 1) speech-stimulating or warming activities, such as studying new vocabulary, finding Russian/English equivalents for some words or word combinations, working with idiomatic expressions presented in the film, matching the words and phrases, giving a free translation of the articles devoted to the film;
- 2) watching exercises, such as designing a plan of the film, anticipation of the further information, “stop-slide and talk”, cinema scoring, performing songs;
- 3) speech-forming exercises, such as rendering the plot and describing the characters of the film, composing dialogues for imaginary situations, doing case-study tasks and projects, writing essays, participating in oral discussions and debates, role plays, dramatizing.

The purpose of the first block of exercises is to challenge the students' interest and to stimulate further learning activities. The purpose of the second block of exercises is to enhance listening skills and understanding of the content of the film. The purpose of the third block of exercises is to allow students to experiment with the language, support pair and team work, and on the whole, receive a constructive feedback in a controllable educational environment.

Incorporating socioculturally contextualized educational materials (musicals) into a teaching/learning process helps learners to observe the natural way of social interactions. The strategies we suggest enable learners to achieve deep analyses and to develop deeper understanding of the language in use, which in its turn can help them to note the gaps and to achieve learning readiness.

The sequence of implementing theoretical aspects regarding the efficiency of incorporating audio-visual aids to promote motivational background is as follows:

- application of a foreign language musical video series;
- modeling of the positive emotions;
- developing motivation for taking actions;
- formation of the communicative competence;
- stimulating creative activities (Glushchenko, 2012).

### **Intercultural skills acquisition via the project methodology**

The implications for language teaching by means of project methodology may be as follows: develop explicit purposes for intercultural interaction; introduce strategies to draw on critical awareness raising and collective sense-making to help students to enhance their intercultural experience to develop intercultural competence and global citizenship; develop a systematic approach to cultural preparation including the socio-political-cultural and historic context; work with particular texts according to the hot issues of the future profession, rendering the texts, application of knowledge gained in the process of researching foreign resources for other professional disciplines (CLIL).

Analyzing various issues from different cultural views, realizing that other cultures tend to perceive things differently, possess other values and beliefs, is one of the most valuable experiences that CLIL may offer. Students need to learn about other countries because there is evidence that people's willingness to interact greatly increases the better they know each other. If we want to prepare our students to succeed in a globalized world and enable them to work in teams across national and cultural borders, intercultural communicative competence needs to be the ultimate educational target and it must be placed at the front of our teaching.

Thus, the following goal is achieved: by learning foreign languages, students have the opportunity to become familiar with other cultures. Such insight provides the basis for respect and increased tolerance, and contributes to other ways of thinking and broadens students' understanding of their own cultural belonging. In this way students' own identity is strengthened.

Project technology enables the students to acquire critical cultural awareness, i.e. an ability to evaluate, critically and on the basis of explicit criteria, perspectives, practices and products in one's own and other cultures and countries.

At the heart of the project technology there is the development of cognitive skills and intercultural skills of the students; the ability to search in the

information space, the ability to shape the knowledge on their own, integrate knowledge from various fields of science, and critical thinking.

Participation in project activities in the foreign language classroom develops critical thought, development of self within traditions, mutual understanding and development of traditions, self-reflection, self-monitoring to given standards and norms. If a learner receives intercultural skills of orientation in the amount of information in the course of work at a foreign language project, he/she will learn to analyze it, generalize, see the trends, compare the facts, draw conclusions, then due to the higher educational level it will be easier to adapt in the changing conditions of the surrounding reality, the students will be creative and analytical in finding the solution of various problems in everyday life encounters.

In modern conditions we can use a wide range of topics, project variants and ways of implementing them, opportunities of modern interactive technologies, presentations, blogs, video clips and so on in a foreign language classroom.

It should be noted that the projects are of different types and, depending on the purpose of the assignment, the teacher will choose the most effective in this particular situation: research projects, creative, role and game projects, information, practice-oriented projects, as well as mono-projects within a single subject, inter-subject projects and international ones.

### **Conclusion**

To draw a conclusion, we can say that intercultural skills as well as knowledge are required for students' communicative competence. Moreover, the former idea, when students had to imitate the native speaker in the English-language classroom, completely fails, as it is not only the matter of knowledge of language but values, which can hardly be copied. Intercultural and communicative competence is a combination of attitudes, knowledge, understanding and skills applied through interaction which enables one to understand, accept, respect people with different values; respond appropriately, effectively, and respectfully; establish positive relationships; understand the differences and similarities of the representatives of different cultures. developing communicative competence in a foreign language classroom through the mentioned above approaches is a specially organized education process aimed at both developing linguistic skills and the ethno-cultural identity of a person via familiarization with the native language and culture, while simultaneously absorbing the cultural and spiritual values of other people and the achievements of the world culture.

Education based on the stated in the material principles, contributes to the preservation and development of the diversity of cultural values and cultural practices, helps the formation of the cultural identity of the individual; promotes

the perception and respect for cultural diversity, as well as intercultural interaction and community integration.

Finally, the principles of multiculturalism, intercultural citizenship, understanding and accepting other values, beliefs, ways of interaction should become a part of internationalization of higher education, where the “mutual understanding approach” should be a vital priority and a contribution to person’s ability to communicate, interact, collaborate and contribute globally.

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**ИНОЯЗЫЧНАЯ КОМПЕТЕНТНОСТЬ НАСЕЛЕНИЯ  
ПОЛЬШИ И ЧЕХИИ В КОНТЕКСТЕ  
СОВРЕМЕННЫХ ОБЩЕЕВРОПЕЙСКИХ  
ЛИНГВИСТИЧЕСКИХ ПРОЦЕССОВ**

*Foreign Language Competence of the Citizens of Poland and  
Czech Republic within the Context of Current All-European  
Linguistic Processes*

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**Abstract.** *The comparative analysis of the foreign language competence among the citizens of Poland and Czech Republic has been accomplished. The received findings were compared with current observations of all-European linguistic tendencies. Having analysed various statistics the authors succeeded in assembling the social portrait of an average multilingual European. The authors have also considered the fact that over the past years the official percentage of multilingual citizens, both in Poland and the Czech Republic, has significantly decreased due to intensive emigration processes. In the authors' opinion, this problem is mostly of the socio-economic nature and demonstrates rather not the weakness of educational systems, but the ability of educational institutions of both countries to prepare competitive specialists who are able (due to the high level of foreign language competence) to find decent job in the labour-market of the United Europe. It has also been stated that since the foreign language competence has become a professional and cultural prerequisite for creation of the unified globalized Europe, and multilingualism has become a part of the European identity, the future specialists' foreign language training in Ukraine should be conducted precisely taking into account the prospects of European integration.*

**Keywords:** *comparative analysis, Czech Republic, European tendencies, foreign language competence, linguistic processes, multilingualism, Poland.*



## **Введение** ***Introduction***

Сегодня Европейский Союз объединяет более полумиллиарда людей с различными этническими, культурными и языковыми традициями. Лингвистическая карта современной Европы чрезвычайно сложна, поскольку сформирована под влиянием многочисленных исторических и геополитических процессов (войн, революций, миграции населения), общественных преобразований, иных социально-экономических факторов. По состоянию на 2017 год в ЕС официальными признаны 24 языка. Более 60 региональных языков и диалектов также используются на территории Евросоюза. Языковое разнообразие, или мультилингвизм, является одной из ключевых особенностей современной Объединённой Европы во всех смыслах этого слова, поскольку сам термин «мультилингвизм» (многоязычие) толкуется и как ситуация одновременного использования совокупностью людей нескольких языков в пределах определённого географического пространства, и как способность определённого человека использовать несколько языков в повседневной и профессиональной деятельности (Communication from the European Commission, 2008).

Цель статьи – выяснить уровень иноязычной компетентности граждан Польши и Чехии, а также определить основные тенденции формирования среднестатистического мультилингвального гражданина ЕС.

Методы исследования – сравнительный анализ уровней иноязычной компетентности, историографический анализ предпосылок развития систем иноязычной подготовки, нетнографический анализ официальных информационных материалов Европейской Комиссии.

## **Современные общеевропейские лингвистические процессы** ***Current All-European Linguistic Processes***

Подавляющее число европейцев полностью осознают неоспоримые преимущества владения иностранными языками, понимая, что это верный путь к лучшему пониманию иных социальных принципов и жизненных моделей, что, в свою очередь, открывает прямую дорогу к межкультурной толерантности. Иноязычные навыки облегчают межгосударственные экономические и производственные отношения, культурный обмен, взаимодействие в области образования и спорта, трудовую мобильность, туризм, тем самым, осуществляя реальную коммуникацию между представителями различных культур. Другими словами, мультилингвизм вносит значительный вклад в развитие таких ключевых европейских ценностей как демократия, равноправие, конкурентоспособность и

открытость. Кроме упомянутых общечеловеческих понятий, эмпирически можно определить чисто экономические факторы, мотивирующие людей к изучению иностранных языков, которые довольно метко обозначил один из немецких дипломатов: «Без знания иностранного языка легко делать покупки, но очень сложно продавать» (Бердичевский, 2017). То есть, человек, не владеющий иностранным языком, находится в заведомо проигрышном положении, так как превращается в человека, способного лишь тратить, но не способного зарабатывать самому.

После резкого (практически вдвое) увеличения числа стран-членов Европейского Союза за счет вхождения стран Балтии, Юго-Восточной и Восточной Европы, стало очевидным, что с каждым годом многоязычие становится неотъемлемой частью будущей Европы. Что знание нескольких иностранных языков, как фактор политического и культурного развития личности, обусловлено даже не экономическими, а в большей степени общечеловеческими аспектами. Бесспорно, современный ЕС является мультилингвальным геополитическим образованием, пропагандирующим идеалы целостного содружества разнообразных культур и языков. Одной из гарантий незыблемости прогресса в рассматриваемом направлении стало принятие Европейской Комиссией «Новой рамочной стратегии многоязычия» (принята – ноябрь 2005 г., дополнена – сентябрь 2008 г.), в которой детально изложены основные положения касательно развития мультилингвизма на всей территории ЕС. Три ключевых направления европейской многоязыковой политики определяются следующим образом:

- акцент на ведущей роли мультилингвизма в общеевропейской политике и экономике, активное содействие его дальнейшему развитию;
- гарантия гражданам Единой Европы неограниченного доступа к информации законодательного, социально-экономического, общественно-политического и культурно-просветительского характера;
- мотивация граждан ЕС к общению и изучению большего количества иностранных языков с целью улучшения взаимопонимания в процессе коммуникации (Communication from the European Commission, 2005).

### **Необходимость изучения позитивного опыта Польши и Чехии** ***Necessity to Study the Positive Experience of Poland and Czech Republic***

Реализация европейских рекомендаций в сфере развития иноязычного образования обуславливает необходимость пересмотра устоявшихся

взглядов на процесс иноязычной подготовки будущего учителя в Украине с учётом запросов современного общества, требований к уровню и объёму знаний, которыми обязан владеть каждый выпускник отечественного педагогического вуза. Сравнительное изучение позитивного опыта педагогов Чешской Республики и Республики Польша считается нами наиболее уместным по нескольким причинам:

- во-первых, генетическое сходство – в виду схожести менталитета трех славянских народов, наличествуют общие черты в психологической организации, особенностях восприятия, умственной деятельности и т.д.;
- во-вторых, лингвистическое сходство – благодаря структурному, семантическому, морфологическому подобию польского, чешского и украинского языков три народа имеют практически однотипную основу для иноязычной подготовки, ведь родной язык всегда является основой для изучения языка иностранного;
- в-третьих, историко-политическое сходство – все три страны в определённые периоды своей истории являлись частями глобальных общественно-политических образований (Австро-Венгерская, Германская и Российская Империи, «Варшавский договор», «Совет экономической взаимопомощи»), в виду чего исповедовали схожие идеологические, политические, культурные, жизненные принципы, а также унаследовали образовательные традиции, характерные для стран так называемого «социалистического лагеря». Позже одинаково отстаивали собственную независимость и выстраивали рыночную экономику.

В начале тысячелетия оба соседних государства стали полноправными членами Евросоюза благодаря реформированию не только общественно-политической и социально-экономической систем, но и глубоким преобразованиям в сфере образовательной политики, в частности, иноязычной подготовки специалистов. Исследование вопроса иноязычной компетентности наших ближайших соседей в контексте современных общеевропейских языковых процессов способствует лучшему пониманию основных тенденций в сфере иноязычной подготовки специалистов в учебных заведениях и позволяет обосновать возможности творческого использования прогрессивных идей этих стран в деле усовершенствования системы иноязычной подготовки специалистов в Украине.

### **Иноязычная компетентность населения Польши и Чехии** ***Foreign Language Competence of the Citizens of Poland and Czech Republic***

С начала XXI века на территории ЕС неоднократно проводились глубокие статистические исследования по вопросу иноязычной компетентности своих граждан. По заказу Европейской Комиссии раз в шесть лет (2000, 2006, 2012) авторитетной аналитической компанией TNS (Taylor Nelson Sofres) Opinion & Social (Великобритания) отслеживалась динамика изучения гражданами иностранных языков как в среднем по Объединенной Европе, так и в отдельных странах-членах сообщества.

По нашему мнению, данные 2000 года можно оставить без внимания, так как их учёт в нашем исследовании некорректен по двум причинам: во-первых, количество стран, входивших в состав Евросоюза, была почти вдвое меньше, чем сейчас (15 против 28); во-вторых, на территории стран, которые нас интересуют наиболее (Чехии и Польши), исследования не проводились вовсе, ведь в то время они не входили в состав ЕС.

Итак, проанализируем данные последних наблюдений касательно иноязычной компетентности населения как в целом по Европейскому сообществу, так и отдельно в чешской и польской республиках. Отметим, что исследования 2006 и 2012 годов проводились в рамках выполнения Плана действий «По содействию изучению иностранных языков и лингвистическому разнообразию» (Communication from the European Commission, 2004) Генерального Директората Европейской Комиссии по вопросам образования и культуры, что бесспорно указывает на объективность исследования и добавляет научной значимости полученным результатам. Количество респондентов в каждом наблюдении составляла более 25 000 человек, которые были разделены на три возрастные группы (молодежь 15-34 лет, средний возраст 35-54 года, старший возраст 55+ лет) и представляли все слои населения (руководители различных звеньев, предприниматели, служащие, представители рабочих специальностей, студенты, пенсионеры, безработные, лица заняты домохозяйством и т.п.).

Сначала рассмотрим ситуацию по Европейскому Союзу в целом. По данным исследований 2012 года более половины (54 %) граждан ЕС владеют по крайней мере одним иностранным языком, каждый четвертый (25 %) – двумя, каждый десятый (10 %) – тремя, ни одним иностранным языком не владеют 46 % граждан. Наиболее распространенными тремя иностранными языками являются английский, французский и немецкий. Чаще всего иностранными языками пользуется молодежь и люди среднего возраста, меньше всего – представители старшего поколения.

Таблица 1. Социальный портрет мультилингвального гражданина ЕС  
 Table 1 Social portrait of an average multilingual EU citizen

<b>Социальный портрет мультилингвального гражданина ЕС</b>	
<b><i>По уровню полученного образования</i></b>	
Выпускники высших учебных заведений	76 %
Выпускники старшей школы	48 %
Выпускники средней школы	22 %
<b><i>По профессии (роду занятий)</i></b>	
Студенты высших учебных заведений	86 %
Руководители (управленцы) разных звеньев	77 %
Предприниматели	63 %
Служащие и другие «белые воротнички»	62 %
Представители рабочих специальностей	51 %
Безработные	48 %
Граждане, занятые домашним хозяйством	38 %
Пенсионеры	36 %
<b><i>По интенсивности использования Интернет и ИКТ</i></b>	
Пользуются ежедневно	70 %
Пользуются часто	49 %
Пользуются редко или никогда	25 %
<b><i>По уровню активности (мотивированности) изучения языка</i></b>	
Очень активный (очень мотивированный)	91 %
Активный (мотивированный)	87 %
Пассивный (не мотивированный)	45 %
<b><i>По уровню оценки собственного социального статуса</i></b>	
Высокий уровень оценки своего социального статуса	66 %
Средний уровень оценки своего социального статуса	52 %
Невысокий уровень оценки своего социального статуса	42 %

С точки зрения социального положения, наибольшую иноязычную осведомленность демонстрируют предприниматели, так называемые «белые воротнички» и студенчество, наименьшую – пенсионеры и лица занятые домохозяйством. В ракурсе образованности респондентов наблюдаем прямую линейную зависимость, ведь наибольшее количество «полиглотов» среди студентов и выпускников высших учебных заведений, а наименьшее среди тех, кто закончил только среднюю школу. Важным фактором является частое использование Интернета и ИКТ, ведь подавляющее большинство лиц, владеющих иностранными языками, пользуются услугами глобальной сети и ИКТ ежедневно. С точки зрения активности изучения – лица, владеющие хотя бы одним иностранным языком, почти единодушно определяют себя как активных или очень активных, мотивированных учеников. И, пожалуй, самое главное, две трети граждан Европейского Союза, владеющих иностранными языками,

оценивают свой общественный статус как высокий, то есть, даже по европейским меркам, считают себя достаточно состоятельными и влиятельными людьми (Special Eurobarometer № 386, 2012). Последний факт демонстрирует осознание формулы «знание иностранного языка = успешность», что, в свою очередь, резко поднимает мотивацию к повышению уровня иноязычной компетентности.

Итак, проанализировав социо-демографические показатели, делаем вывод, что среднестатистический мультилингвальный европеец, это: молодой или среднего возраста человек, хорошо образованный, очень часто – студент, активный пользователь Интернет и ИКТ, уверенный в себе, мотивированный к изучению иностранных языков, ведь работает на управленческой должности или на должности, требующей качественной иноязычной подготовки. Необходимо заметить, что по сравнению с наблюдениями 2006 года процент граждан ЕС, которые владеют хотя бы одним иностранным языком, снизился на два пункта (56 % → 54 %), что свидетельствует об определенном, но не критическом, снижении общего уровня иноязычной компетентности (Special Eurobarometer № 243, 2006). Уменьшение общеевропейского значения объясняется тем, что в 2007 году к ЕС присоединились Болгария и Румыния, чьи граждане имеют уровень иноязычной компетентности несколько ниже, чем в среднем по Евросоюзу.

Теперь анализируем уровень иноязычной компетентности поляков и чехов по сравнению с общеевропейскими показателями. Процент граждан обеих стран, владеющих одним, двумя и тремя иностранными языками, по сравнению со средним показателем в ЕС, выглядит несколько ниже, однако является одним из наиболее близких к среднеевропейскому значению. По этому показателю поляки незначительно опережают своих юго-западных соседей (Рис. 1.).

Как и в большинстве стран, самый распространенный иностранный язык – английский, причем в Чехии он обрёл этот статус только в последние годы, вытеснив с первого места немецкий. Этот факт не вызывает удивления, ведь не только в Объединенной Европе, но и во всем мире английский воспринимается как глобальный язык политики, науки, культуры, бизнеса, Интернета, высоких технологий, образования, а также как средство международного общения. Английским активнее пользуются представители молодого поколения, наименее – люди старшего возраста.

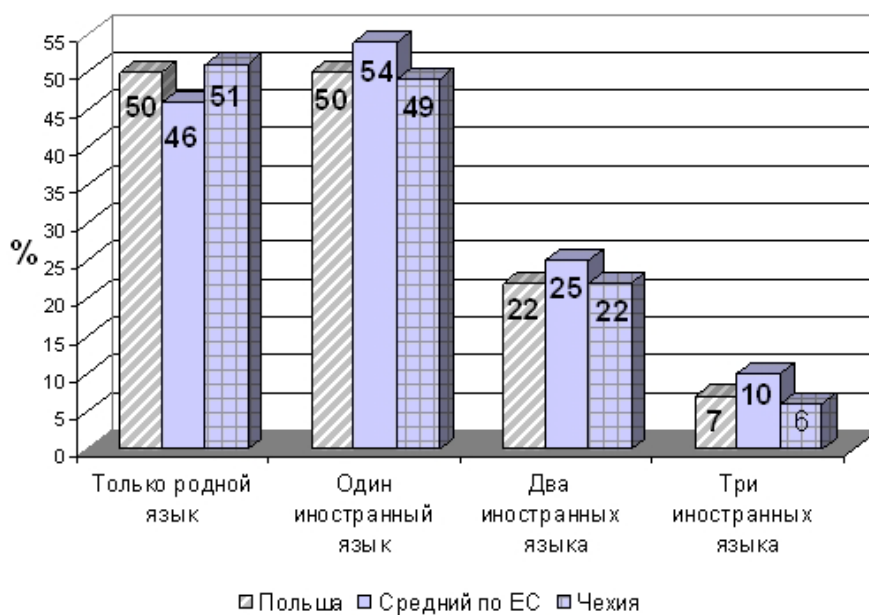


Рисунок 1. Процент владеющих языками в Польше, Чехии и ЕС  
*Figure 1 Percentage of Foreign speakers in Poland, Czech and EU*

Вторым по популярности в обеих странах является немецкий язык. Это также закономерно, ведь, во-первых, это язык их ближайшего соседа, а также большинства этнических немцев, проживающих как в приграничных областях, так и по всей территории Польши и Чехии; во-вторых, на разных этапах исторического развития целые регионы обеих стран входили в состав Германской и Австро-Венгерской империй, а позднее находились под полной оккупацией (Польша) или под насильственным протекторатом Германии (Богемия, Моравия и Чешская Силезия). Понятно, что в результате политики принудительной германизации, которая вводилась в те времена, подавляющее большинство чехов и поляков старшего поколения владеют немецким языком. Интересен факт, что наименьший процент владения немецким языком наблюдается у людей, чье детство и молодость пришлось на послевоенные годы, ведь ненависть ко всему немецкому автоматически коснулась и образовательно-языковой политики руководства ПНР и ЧССР (Keller, 2010).

Основным отличием обеих стран от общей европейской статистики является то, что в тройке наиболее распространенных иностранных языков место французского языка занимает русский язык. Этот феномен также имеет логическое объяснение, ведь в свое время большая часть Польши входила в состав Российской империи, а в послевоенные годы оба государства политически, экономически и культурно принадлежали к так называемому «социалистическому лагерю», в котором русский язык был обязательным к изучению не только в средней школе, но и во многих

высших учебных заведениях, так как позиционировался в качестве языка межнационального общения на территории всех социалистических стран.

Интересно, что в обеих странах «расцвет» владения русским языком пришелся на середину 1960-х годов, ведь популярность Советского Союза как государства, освободившего народы Европы от нацистской оккупации, была в те времена очень высокой. Однако, начиная с августа 1968 года, после вторжения советских танков в Прагу, популярность русского языка начала резко падать, ведь язык снова начал ассоциироваться с оккупацией, только уже советской (Sak & Sakova, 2004). В Польше также изменилось отношение к изучению русского языка, ведь Советский Союз активно поддержал непопулярный в народе Военный совет национального спасения под руководством Войцеха Ярузельского во времена военного положения 1981-1983 годов. Ближе к началу нового тысячелетия, с развитием межгосударственных рыночных отношений, интерес к русскому языку несколько вырос, однако, так и остался на невысоком уровне. Закономерно, что среди тех, кто пользуется русским в обеих странах, наибольший процент людей старшего поколения (Sak & Kolesarova, 2012).

Социальный портрет среднестатистического поляка или чеха, который владеет хотя бы одним иностранным языком, почти не отличается от общеевропейского, и максимально приближен к статистическим данным, приведенным в соответствующей таблице. Однако, если сравнить данные наблюдений 2006 и 2012 годов, можно увидеть, что, в отличие от незначительного уменьшения процента в целом по ЕС, численность чехов и поляков, владеющих хотя бы одним иностранным языком, резко упала. За шесть лет в Польше процент знатоков иностранных языков снизился на семь пунктов (57 % → 50 %), а в Чехии на двенадцать (61 % → 49 %) (Special Eurobarometer № 386, 2012), (Special Eurobarometer № 243, 2006).

На первый взгляд ситуация выглядит, если не катастрофической, то, по крайней мере, очень неприятной, ведь фактически наблюдается резкое снижение интереса к изучению иностранных языков в обеих странах, что идет в разрез с постулатами общеевропейской политики мультилингвизма. Однако, внимательно изучив статистические данные, можно убедиться, что ситуация вполне закономерна, и связана не со снижением спроса на иноязычные знания и не с недостатками в системах образования наших ближайших соседей, а скорее имеет социально-демографическую основу.

Во-первых, снижение общего процента иноязычной образованности поляков произошло за счет уменьшения количества лиц, пользующихся русским языком как иностранным (26 % → 18 %), немецкий язык удержал свои позиции (19 % → 19 %), а английский язык, наоборот, добавил четыре пункта (29 % → 33 %). В Чешской Республике наблюдаем подобную ситуацию, ведь количество знатоков русского (20 % → 11 %) и



немецкого (28 % → 15 %) языков уменьшилось почти вдвое, а количество «англоязычных» чехов наоборот выросло на три процента (24 % → 27 %). По нашему мнению, подобный лингвистический сдвиг стал возможным за счет так называемой «смены поколений» — естественного уменьшения количества лиц старшего возраста, которые долгое время находились под влиянием германской и/или русской языковой экспансии, одновременно с увеличением процента граждан, считающих английский язык средством бизнеса, производства, образования, межнациональной коммуникации и т.п. (Special Eurobarometer № 386, 2012), (Special Eurobarometer № 243, 2006).

Второй причиной, приведшей к подобному результату, по нашему мнению, стала трудовая миграция граждан обеих стран. Такое печальное социальное явление как «утечка мозгов» характерно не только для стран бывшего СССР. Наиболее эффективные и образованные работники из Польши и Чехии на протяжении последних лет активно ищут «лучшей жизни» на территории более развитых стран Евросоюза. Большой процент граждан с высоким уровнем иноязычной компетентности, к сожалению, оставили родину ради трудоустройства на предприятиях Великобритании, Германии, Италии, Франции, Нидерландов. Этот факт говорит, скорее, не о слабости образовательных систем, а о том, что учебные заведения обеих стран способны готовить конкурентоспособных специалистов, которые в состоянии, в том числе, и благодаря высокому уровню иноязычной подготовки, найти свое место на рынке труда Объединенной Европы. Однако, по принципу замещения, поток переселенцев из стран бывшего СССР хлынул в Чехию и Польшу. К сожалению, фундаментальные исследования уровня их иноязычной компетенции пока не проводились ни по заказу Европейской Комиссии, ни по заказу любой другой уважаемой структуры ЕС, однако, по нашему мнению, этот уровень оставляет желать лучшего, ведь упомянутые слои населения заняты, в основном, в отраслях производства и услуг, которые не требуют высокого уровня квалификации.

## **Выводы** *Conclusions*

1. Иноязычная компетентность является профессиональной и культурной предпосылкой создания объединенной глобализированной Европы, а мультилингвизм становится частью Европейской идентичности.
2. Среди граждан Польши и Чехии доминирует четкое осознание, что без знания иностранного, прежде всего, английского языка

- невозможно пользоваться достижениями в области ИКТ, в частности - сетью Интернет, а также успешно устроиться на рынке труда Европы.
3. После вступления в ЕС и открытия европейского рынка труда иноязычная компетентность стала необходимостью для представителей многих профессий на польском и чешском внутренних рынках труда, и с каждым годом список этих профессий только расширяется.
  4. В чешском и польском социумах доминирующими являются три иностранных языка: английский, немецкий, русский; уровень владения другими европейскими языками сравнительно невысок.
  5. Иноязычная компетентность является одним из проявлений Западно-Европейской модели развития польского и чешского общества; наиболее очевидным является смещение иноязычной компетентности от русского языка (представители старшего поколения) в сторону английского языка (представители младшего поколения).
  6. Среди представителей молодого поколения наибольшая активность в изучении иностранных языков наблюдается в возрастной группе людей 25-35 лет, которые более мотивированы, так как уже воспользовались преимуществами новой социально-экономической системы, почувствовав положительные тенденции, связанные с обучением за рубежом, а также использованием разных языков в своей профессиональной деятельности.
  7. Статистическое снижение уровня иноязычной компетентности граждан Польши и Чехии обусловлено не уменьшением интереса к иностранным языкам и не пробелами в системах образования, а высокими темпами трудовой миграции в сторону Запада наиболее компетентных, в том числе и в языковом аспекте, граждан обеих стран.

### **Summary**

The article is devoted to investigation of the foreign language competence in Eastern European countries. The comparative analysis of the foreign language competence among the citizens of Poland and Czech Republic has been accomplished. The received findings were compared with current observations of all-European linguistic tendencies. Having analysed various statistics the authors succeeded in assembling the social portrait of an average multilingual European. It has been found out that in Czech and Polish societies, three foreign languages are dominant: English, German, Russian whereas the level of competence in other European languages is relatively low. It has also been shown that, according to official returns, both citizens of Poland and Czech Republic demonstrate legible understanding that without knowing at least one foreign language it's impossible to use the Internet and other latest achievements of information communication technologies, to get quality education abroad, to carry out cultural exchange, to find high-paid job in the European labour-market.

The authors have also considered the fact that over the past years the official percentage of multilingual citizens, both in Poland and the Czech Republic, has significantly decreased due to intensive emigration processes. In the authors' opinion, this problem is mostly of the socio-economic nature and demonstrates rather not the weakness of educational systems, but the ability of educational institutions of both countries to prepare competitive specialists who are able (thanks to the high level of foreign language competence) to find decent job in the labour-market of the United Europe. It has also been stated that since the foreign language competence has become a professional and cultural prerequisite for creation of the unified globalized Europe, and multilingualism has become a part of the European identity, in Ukraine the foreign language training of future specialists should be conducted precisely taking into account the prospect of European integration.

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## TEACHING CONTENT OF TECHNOLOGY IN POLISH PRIMARY SCHOOL

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**Abstract.** *In view of the reform that is currently taking place in Poland, as well as changes in the content of the education curriculum, the authors of this study present contents of two selected curricula for primary schools technology in polish school. The study of research is content of curricula created by publishing house (WSiP) and Nowa Era. The school's task is to prepare pupils for adult life, and therefore, bring the ability to create by themselves a friendly environment. In each school there are such subjects, to which students participate more willingly than others - this situation can be used to reflect what affects their state of affairs. Comparing teachers opinions about the curriculum developed by Nowa Era and WSiP, it should be stated that the curriculum developed by the WSiP publishing house according to the opinion of the surveyed teachers has an advantage over the analogous program Nowa Era in the following areas: transparency, clarity, exhaustion topic, availability for the student.*

**Keywords:** *education, programme curriculum, educational reform*

### Introduction

Technical education plays an important role in pupils development. Thanks to properly selected and adapted to the psychophysical capabilities of the student, it is possible to learn more and more complex issues, but also give possibility to develop efficiency, creativity and ability to see the relationship between the relations of different subjects (Berelson, 1952, Prauzner & Ptak 2014).

### Research Methodology

The subject of the authors research is the content of the subject's curriculum and opinion about the quality of the program, the possibilities of the classes and

the opinions of the teachers that work at the school (Cartwright D., 1965). The impact of teaching content on development of pupils technical skills.

All of the following research was initiated through the implementation of new teaching curricula that are part of the education reform currently being conducted in Poland. The selection of the content of exemplary curricula is dictated by a high percentage of the choice of publishing houses. This choice is dictated by interesting price offers in relation to additional didactic materials added as multimedia form for teachers choosing one of the WSip or Nowa Era. The main research problem is expressed in the questions:

Do technical science programs for primary schools affect the level of technical education of young people?

This main problem is subordinated to be detailed by research problems:

1. Does children age and gender affect the effectiveness of technical education of primary school youth?
2. Are the assumptions contained in the core curriculum take into account in documents detailing the aims and effects of education?
3. Do educational models included in the curricula sufficiently promote technical education?
4. Is technical education core curriculum of primary schools are also the basis for the programs of secondary schools?

The study used the method of content analysis, completed by an interview with the teacher. The research tool prepared for the present research was the categorization key. An interview was also completed with technical teachers (Pytel et al., 2012).

An important stage in preparing for undertaking the research is the selection of the research sample and the definition of the research area. In the present research, the research area was based on the core curricula and educational programs of technical education as well as teachers conducting technical science classes at junior high schools. The teachers participating in the interview were teachers with at least 5 years of work experience. The other criteria were also the implementation of at least one of the above programs in their classes at school. The study group consisted of 28 teaching teachers in a dozen or so schools in the cities of Krakow. Interview take place in September of 2017 at from start to end of month. Teachers gender and age were not counted as relevant. The choice of the interview for the teacher was aimed at obtaining full opinions and evaluations of the program elements in terms of efficiency and fullness of the answers.

### **Analysis of the curriculum No. 1 Nowa Era**

The curriculum contains a list of requirements for primary school students by the Ministry of National Education as a list of skills that can be acquired

through the use procedures for their achievement. It also describes the objectives of education and upbringing as well as the. (Glendinning, 2003).

The program includes:

- discussion of the current core curriculum,
- characteristics of didactic methods,
- publication contains a description of criteria that will allow effective assessment of student performance.
- The knowledge and skills acquired by students are formulated in the form of general and specific requirements

The document containing the current program assumptions of the subject of the second stage of education which is added as an Annex number 2 to the Regulation of the Minister of National Education from February 14, 2017 on the core curriculum of pre-school education and the core curriculum of primary education for primary school, including for students with intellectual disabilities moderate or substantial, general education for the industry-level school, general education for a special school for apprentices and general education for a post-secondary school (Journal of Laws of February 24, 2017, item 356) (Dz. U. 2009).

**Table 1 Learning Content specific requirements**

Chapter	Students requirements
I. Workplace	following workplace regulations; complies with the safety and hygiene rules; explains the meaning of safety signs (pictograms); takes care of tools and utensils; cooperates and takes various roles in team work; uses technical terminology; performs works with due diligence and care; is a conscious and responsible user of technology products; keep in touch with technical progress, recognizes and gets to know the changes taking place in the technique around it; evaluates technical predispositions in the context of choosing the future direction of education
II. Communication	safely participates in common traffic as a pedestrian, passenger and cyclist; interprets road signs concerning pedestrians and cyclists; maintains and adjusts the bicycle and prepares it for driving while maintaining safety rules
III. Material Engineering	recognizes construction materials (paper, wood and wood-based materials, metals, plastics, textiles, composite materials, electro technical materials) and electronic components (resistors, diodes, transistors, capacitors, coils, etc.); defines the properties of construction materials and electronic components; characterizes construction materials and electronic components; use appropriate methods of conserving construction materials; choose the material depending on the nature of the work; select material substitutes, taking into account their properties; rationally manages a variety of materials; distinguishes and applies the principles of segregation and processing of waste from various materials and electronic components

IV. Technical Documentation	distinguishes technical drawings (machine, construction, electrical, tailoring); makes simple drawings in the form of sketches; prepares drawing documentation (applies rectangular projections and axonometric); reads executive and assembly drawings; analyses the drawings contained in the operating instructions and catalogues; reads and interprets the information contained in the device operating instructions, on the rating plate, food packaging, clothing labels, electronic components, etc
V. Mechatronics	explains the principles of interaction between mechanical, electrical and electronic elements on examples of simple devices; reliably and safely use mechanical, electrical and electronic equipment at home, including devices and technology for intelligent household management; constructs, among others from ready-made elements, toys, robots, mechanical-electronic models, including programmable ones
VI. Manufacturing technology	distinguishes between the types of treatment of various materials; adjusts the type of processing for intended final effect; selects and adapts the tools used for the specific processing; safely uses tools and devices; develops a process order of activities with various organizational forms of work; regulates technical devices; makes measurements using appropriate measuring equipment; assembles the individual parts together; uses different types of connections

Source: own research

The program puts special emphasis on acquiring practical skills, knowledge, independent planning and practical abilities. Both simple and complicated inventions and technical devices can be presented in technology lessons. From an early age, students use a variety of materials, learn about their properties, basic technologies, perform various objects, assemble them from ready-made construction elements. At the same time become acquainted with the construction of basic tools, their use and safe handling. The creativity, which always fascinated students of aged 10-12 years, young people develop the technical and structural thinking, learning optimization and, good organization. Practical activities provide children with new, interesting experiences, arouses activity, develops imagination and broadens knowledge. The content of education determines types and material properties, the construction of simple devices and their daily use. Reading technical documentation and safe navigation on the roads helps traveling on foot or by bike. The will to protect natural environment, recycling and proper use of recyclable materials.

Program Purpose: The presented curriculum is addressed to teachers with various age that conduct technical classes of grades 4-6 of the elementary school. It allows one to plan work with class with different perceptual abilities in an interesting way, using specific solutions. Proposed activities can be successfully conducted in school that lack the technical workshop.

## Analysis of the WSiP curriculum No. 2

Curriculum “Technika na codzień” is designed to be implemented in range of 4-6 classes of elementary school in a modular way. The modular education program gives one opportunity to easily select content of teaching, plan indicated skills, and develop desired abilities. Currently, with a small number of well-equipped classes in Poland, there’s the problem of teaching in large number of students in class (small towns, villages). Modular curriculum solves this problem (in the next year, students can pursue additional modules). The order of implementation both the modules and their content results from needs and capabilities of the given facility, it should be implemented in the cycle of 3-year technical teaching (classes 4-6. The module is a unit with determined features, that poses a repeatable factor. The elements of each module should be:

- knowledge and understanding technical concepts in a given field, application of technical vocabulary
- study materials properties, improve designed adjustment and on everyday use,
- knowledge about production cycle, materials used and producing technology, planning: work and safe execution of technological operations,
- reading and correction and preparation of technical documentation (drawings, symbols, diagrams, pictograms),
- developing technical creativity by grading difficulties with handcraft,
- constructing products from ready-made elements,
- promotion of ecological attitudes, use of utility disposals in technical production tasks,
- the workplace organization, compliance with health and safety rules , first aid,
- elements from the history of technology - inventors and their inventions.

In the elementary school, the module of technical classes in classes 4-6 contains teaching adjusted content for all-year education in the field of the subject.

**Table 2 The aim of use modular education in the technical teaching**

integrates knowledge with skills;
stimulates the intellectual and motor activity of the student;
allows the integration of knowledge from various scientific disciplines;
preferring active teaching methods that trigger the student's creativity;
they implement self-assessment, and the teacher becomes an adviser and partner in the education process;
develops interests and manual predispositions;

Source: own research



“Technika na co dzień” is a program with operational and expressive features. Operational, because it assumes that all clearly defined goals in specific, check-able behaviours. Expressive (stimulus), because it exposes learners to specific situations, events and problems and familiarize them with certain procedures. Solving students' educational problems may be varied due to didactic results. This program allows each student to have the opportunity to showcase their skills and ingenuity, which gives them opportunity to enhance the community status, raises the personal evaluation. Selecting for teaching material, the following criteria:

- knowledge - a basis of these contents that have a particular stability, and thus does not often change due to technical progress;
- content usefulness - this is a practical and pragmatic criterion, valued for its motivational value and attractiveness for learners;
- motivation - it is related to level of the expectations and direction of student's motivation.

One should also consider the program suitability in terms of entities involved in the education process. These entities are: pupil, teacher, headmaster. Modular curriculum “Technika na co dzień”, taking into account the certain needs:

1) For student:

- helps obtain knowledge and skills useful in everyday life;
- shapes needs for the further learning;
- provides content in an accessible and understandable manner;
- gives one the opportunity to compensate for any deficiencies in the event of absence;
- in a comprehensible way, presents the assessment system and allows for individual assessment design, taking into account the level of knowledge and own skills;
- form in students the sense of their own dignity and respect for others;
- develops competences such as: creativity, innovation, entrepreneurship;
- develops critical and logical thinking;
- shows the values of knowledge as a source of personal development;
- gives one the opportunity to master practical methods of technical activities;
- sets up a technology acquisition.

2) Teacher:

- helps plan didactic and educational work in details;

- enables implementation of individual program thanks to various methods;
  - allows for ongoing and periodic control as well as compliant assessment with the adopted criteria;
- 3) Principal:
- is part of the pedagogical and didactic concept of the school;
  - has measurable educational effects;
  - detected methods and forms of work allow to assess the type of teacher-student interaction; affects the environment in which the school functions.

Table 3 **The content of technical education**

<p>In the field of cognition</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- materials and composites with which the student meets in everyday life and their properties;</li> <li>- the influence of material properties on their application;</li> <li>- technologies used to process learned materials;</li> <li>- principles of safe use products of technology;</li> <li>- construction and operation of technical devices, tools, instruments and utensils found in the student's environment;</li> <li>- information contained in the technical documentation (ability to read pictograms, symbols, diagrams);</li> <li>- design principles from ready-made elements and sets, design computer programs,</li> <li>- traffic rules;</li> <li>- principles of providing assistance to victims of random accidents;</li> <li>- choosing means adjustment</li> </ul>
<p>In terms of application</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- planning and organizing workplace;</li> <li>- planning of technological operations;</li> <li>- selection of appropriate technical devices, tools, instruments and utensils for the material being processed;</li> <li>- safe use of technical means of work;</li> <li>- consciously and responsibly uses the products of technology,</li> <li>- reacting appropriately to existing threats;</li> <li>- proper organization of work breaks and workplace;</li> <li>- responsible planning of their activities (eg cycling trip);</li> <li>- rational time management, materials, accessories, devices and tools and devices;</li> <li>- solving technical problems on the basis of technical tasks and projects;</li> <li>- designing own personal development, assessment technical predispositions in the context of choosing the future professional career;</li> <li>- economic use of various energy sources - protection of the natural environment;</li> </ul>

	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- - safe and cultural participation in road traffic as a pedestrian, passenger and cyclist,</li> <li>- - providing pre-medical help, correct submission of the report from the place of the event to the emergency services.</li> </ul>
In field of improvement	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- acquiring new knowledge and skills by using various sources (media, literature, manuals, etc.), searching for new and innovative material solutions and design;</li> <li>- development of own interests.</li> </ul>
In field of communication	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- taking group decisions</li> <li>- applying democratic procedures;</li> <li>- negotiating and reaching agreement;</li> <li>- cooperation in the group, division of tasks and responsibilities;</li> <li>- establishing interpersonal contacts.</li> </ul>
In field of cooperation	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- using various communication techniques;</li> <li>- communication using technical information, including technical drawing, internet, programs</li> </ul>

Source: own research

The program also meets the requirements of teachers with general didactic preparation, due to the school's organizational conditions. The program is clear and its individual elements are well thought out and logically arranged. The teacher will find in it suggestions for a variety of learning methods - along with a detailed description and references to their use when discussing specific content from the student's handbook. In addition, the program enables the teacher to check the pupils' skills and allows them to focus and develop the technical interests in young people. It also provides assessment criteria and methods for checking students' performance, which helps the teacher to continuously monitor educational progress. The valuable material included in the presented curriculum are the notes concerning the current one, semester or final exam of the student's achievements. Evaluations can be formulated using the proposed ones by the author, the criteria referring to the six-point scale of assessments.

### **Curricula in teachers opinion**

A research tool prepared for the following study was an interview with technical teachers. The results of the research is presented below.

Analysing the data contained in Table 4, it should be noted that the question: what are the opinions of teachers on the curriculum Number 1 developed by the publisher Nowa Era many people pointed the availability of the students and the realization of the objectives of the program (90 %), Fulfilling the topic (85 %), clarity (80 %), Clearness (75 %).

**Table 4 Teachers' opinions on curriculum number 1 developed by the Nowa Era publishing house**

Answers	% of Answers
Clearness	75%
Clarity	80%
Fulfilling the topic	85%
Accessibility for the student and implementation of the program objectives	90%

Source: own research

**Table 5 Teachers' opinions about the curriculum No. 1 developed by the WSiP publishing house**

Answers	% of Answers
Clearness	80%
Clarity	80%
Fulfilling the topic	90%
Accessibility for the student and implementation of the program objectives	95%

Source: own research

Analyzing the data contained in Table 5, it should be noted that the following question: what are the opinions of teachers about the curriculum No. 1 developed by the WSiP publishing house the most people indicated Accessibility for the student and program objectives (95 %), then: exhaustion of the topic (90 %), Clarity (80 %), Clearness (80 %). Comparing the teachers opinions about the curriculum developed by Nowa Era and WSiP, it should be stated that the curriculum developed by the WSiP publisher according to the opinion of the surveyed teachers has an advantage over the analogous program Nowa Era in the following areas: transparency, clarity, realization of topic, accessibility for the student.

### Conclusion

In conclusion, it should be noted that the school task is to prepare pupils for adult life, and therefore, inter alia, to bring the ability to create a friendly environment - hence the choice of the proposed subject matter. When discussing it, reference should be made to the students' experiences and imagination. In each school there are such subjects, to which students participate more willingly than others - this situation can be used to reflect on what affects this state of affairs is. In order for the classes not to be too theoretical, students can be offered chance to design a model of the apartment. In their work, students should take into account the elements that have been mentioned previously, e.g. the model of electrical

installation. When discussing installations at homes, pay attention to the safe and economical use of the installation. Each student should know how to react in the event of certain risks, so as not to harm themselves and others (Ptak & Prauzner, 2013). It should also be made clear to students that resources are not only a private matter, but also a general social issue. The state of our environment depends on us all (Pytel et al., 2016).

The study presents only selected conclusions from the conducted analyzes. Further results will be presented in subsequent studies. Regardless of the final shape of the technology curricula after the reform, along with the development of technology and the emergence of new methods of working with the student, about the further evolution direction a discussion about technical education seems necessary.

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## ДИФФЕРЕНЦИРОВАННЫЙ ПОДХОД К ОБУЧЕНИЮ ИНОСТРАННОМУ ЯЗЫКУ В НЕЯЗЫКОВОМ ВУЗЕ

### *Differentiated Approach to Foreign Language Training in Non-Linguistic Higher Educational Institution*

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**Abstract.** *In the Russian system of foreign language education, learner-centred approach is seen as a leading strategic direction designed to ensure self-realization of the learner as a linguistic personality able to interact effectively in the intercultural context. The problem of differentiation is one of the central issues in learner-centred education. In authors' opinion, the differentiated approach is the most optimal in the conditions of the heterogeneity of the study groups. The article reveals the main characteristics of a differentiated approach as a general methodological principle of teaching, allowing to take into account the individual, intellectual and psychophysiological characteristics of students. The problems, advantages and disadvantages of differentiated education in non-linguistic higher schools are analyzed. The authors of the article examine the essence of multilevel training, define its principles, describe both the external differentiation of students depending on the difference in linguistic competence and the internal differentiation as the organization of the learning process, in which the individual characteristics of students are contemplated in the conditions of a homogeneous group. Generalization of the experience on the afore-mentioned differentiation forms in the system of language training is given as well as some techniques and methods of teaching in multilevel groups are offered.*

**Keywords:** *differentiated approach, external and internal differentiation, group heterogeneity, multilevel training.*

### **Введение**

#### ***Introduction***

В настоящее время в российской системе высшего образования совершенствование языковой подготовки студентов неязыковых вузов и создание оптимальных условий повышения ее качества представляются важнейшими задачами, стоящими перед преподавателями иностранного

языка. В качестве ведущего стратегического направления рассматривается личностно-ориентированное обучение, призванное обеспечить самореализацию обучающегося как языковой личности, способной эффективно взаимодействовать в межкультурном контексте.

Однако приходится констатировать тот факт, что качество языковой подготовки большинства выпускников нелингвистических направлений оставляет желать лучшего. Декларируемые высокие цели иноязычной подготовки будущих инженеров, экономистов и менеджеров сталкиваются с достаточно жесткими академическими реалиями, объективно не обеспечивающими их реализацию. Каковы же факторы, вызывающие нарушение баланса в обучении иностранному языку на нелингвистических направлениях? Обозначим основные из этих трудностей.

Во-первых, совершенно очевидно, что вузовский курс иностранного языка, ограниченный 288 часами общей трудоемкости, отведенными федеральными государственными образовательными стандартами высшего образования (ФГОС ВО), не может обеспечить овладение иностранным языком на уровне Intermediate, для которого необходимо гораздо большее количество учебного времени.

Во-вторых, значительные трудности для интенсификации иноязычного образования обусловлены неоднородным входным уровнем владения языком, разным опытом предыдущего обучения, национальной вариативностью. Кроме того, как правило, абитуриенты, поступающие на неязыковые направления подготовки, имеют уровень иноязычной коммуникативной компетенции ниже базового, определенного программой по иностранному языку для образовательной школы.

В-третьих, проблема усугубляется низкой мотивацией к совершенствованию иностранного языка у студентов-первокурсников.

Учитывая эти обстоятельства, повышение качества владения студентами иностранным языком должно происходить, по нашему мнению, за счет реализации дифференцированного подхода к обучению и использования современного методического инструментария.

Исходя из вышесказанного, цель нашего исследования – определить педагогический потенциал дифференцированного подхода как общего методического принципа обучения, позволяющего учитывать индивидуальные, интеллектуальные и психофизиологические особенности обучающихся, а также обобщить опыт реализации этого подхода в языковой подготовке студентов неязыковых специальностей Псковского государственного университета.

Объектом исследования является процесс обучения английскому языку студентов нелингвистических направлений Псковского государственного факультета (далее - ПсковГУ).

Предметом исследования выступает технология дифференцированного иноязычного обучения студентов технических и экономических факультетов в условиях неоднородности академических групп.

В качестве теоретических методов исследования использовались анализ научно-педагогической литературы по проблеме и моделирование процесса дифференцированного обучения английскому языку.

Эмпирическая часть исследования заключалась в обобщении опыта преподавания в одноуровневых и разноуровневых группах, а также в организации, проведении, обработке и интерпретации результатов опытного обучения с использованием методов наблюдения, собеседования, тестирования, анкетирования и анализа продуктов речевой деятельности студентов.

### **Теоретические основы проблемы** *The theoretical background*

Проблема дифференциации обучения является одной из центральных в личностно-ориентированном образовании. Термин «дифференциация» прочно вошел в научное употребление начиная с 60-х годов XX века, и в настоящее время происходит расширение его содержания. Как известно, дифференцированный подход предполагает использование различных методов и приемов обучения в зависимости от целей обучения, вида формируемой речевой деятельности, этапа обучения, осваиваемого языкового материала, возраста обучающихся (Полат, 2010).

Проблемы организации дифференцированного обучения находят свое отражение в многочисленных работах российских и зарубежных исследователей (Г. В. Дорофеев, Л. В. Кузнецова, Е. С. Полат, И. М. Осмоловская, И. Э. Унт, Т. И. Шахматова, И. С. Якиманская, В. Bowler, J. Harmer, N. Hess и др.). Обобщая различные трактовки и подходы к дифференцированному обучению, подчеркнем, что дифференциация характеризуется созданием групп обучающихся, в которых элементы дидактической системы (цели, содержание, методы, формы, результат) различаются, т.е. предполагается формирование типологических групп, в которых обучение происходит по разным учебным программам (Полат, 2010; Хуторской, 2005).

Принято различать внешнюю дифференциацию, выражающуюся в создании относительно стабильных однородных (гомогенных) учебных групп на основании определенных признаков и внутреннюю дифференциацию, предполагающую временное, тактическое разделение студентов на подгруппы внутри разноуровневой академической группы (Селевко, 2007; Унт, 1990; Якиманская, 1995).



Следует подчеркнуть, что дифференциация обеспечивает учет индивидуально-типологических особенностей личности обучающегося и создает ему условия для максимального развития способностей, удовлетворения познавательных потребностей и интересов в процессе усвоения содержания образования (Ариян, 2007).

Авторы статьи имеют достаточный опыт в реализации как внутренней, так и внешней дифференциации в процессе языковой подготовки студентов неязыковых специальностей в Псковском государственном университете. Проанализируем некоторые результаты использования данной технологии.

**Реализация дифференцированного подхода в языковой подготовке  
студентов неязыкового вуза**  
*The implementation of the differentiated approach in foreign language  
training of non-linguistics students*

В течение ряда лет кафедрой иностранных языков для нелингвистических направлений практикуется использование технологии внешней дифференциации с учетом начального языкового уровня при обучении английскому языку, поскольку прежний способ работы, а именно, деление студентов на подгруппы внутри академической группы, существующий в России на протяжении последних десятилетий, уже не отвечает требованиям времени в силу вышеуказанных проблем иноязычного образования.

Отдельной существенной трудностью является тот факт, что в вузе есть факультеты, имеющие в учебных графиках только одну языковую дисциплину – «Иностранный язык (английский)». Соответственно, студенты 1 курса этих факультетов, изучавшие в средней школе немецкий и французский языки, начинают изучать английский язык с «нулевого» уровня. Из этого следует, что контингент первокурсников отличается по уровням от «нулевого» до «продвинутого». Очевидно, что преподавателю трудно создать активную коммуникативную среду в разноуровневой группе, учесть индивидуальные языковые особенности всех студентов.

Организация учебного процесса с использованием дифференцированного обучения оказалась единственно возможным решением в сложившейся ситуации.

Для реализации принципа внешней и внутренней дифференциации и учета индивидуальных особенностей студентов практикуется изучение школьных языковых портфолио первокурсников экономических и технических факультетов, а также их компьютерное тестирование на уровень владения английским языком.

В качестве он-лайн теста используется тест размещения, предлагаемый Международным центром иностранных языков «LanguageLink». По итогам тестирования студентов определяется их уровень владения английским языком и организуется иноязычная подготовка по единому учебному плану, но на разных уровнях: от «начального» до «продвинутого».

Характеристика обучающихся и результаты уровневого обучения представлены ниже.

Таблица 1. Особенности обучающихся на разных уровнях  
 Table 1 Students' characteristic features in multilevel teaching

Уровень группы	Особенности группы
Beginner/ Breakthrough h/A1	-группа состоит из студентов, которые в школе изучали немецкий или французский язык; -имеют бытовое представление об английском языке, но не способны осуществлять устное и письменное общение; -представители разных групп факультета вычислительной техники и электроэнергетики, объединённые в одну языковую группу.
Elementary/ Waystage/A2	-основная часть студентов, выявленная в результате тестирования и собеседования; -подгруппа внутри академической группы, сформированная в результате дополнительного тестирования на уровень элементарного/свободного владения языком; -понимают и воспроизводят повседневные фразы и выражения; -могут представиться и представить других; могут участвовать в несложной беседе.
Intermediate/ Threshold/B1	-основная часть студентов, сформированная в результате тестирования и собеседования; -подгруппа внутри академической группы, выявленная в результате дополнительного тестирования на уровень элементарного/свободного владения языком; -понимают высказывания, относящиеся к самым насущным аспектам жизни; могут объясниться в простых бытовых ситуациях.
Upper- Intermediate/ Vantage/B2	-студенты, имеющие языковой потенциал на высоком уровне; -группа студентов после уточнения уровня самостоятельного/свободного владения английским языком на основе дополнительного тестирования; -могут объясниться на английском языке в разных ситуациях и по широкому кругу тем; могут сделать описание, изложить и обосновать свое мнение (в устной и письменной формах); способны извлекать полную информацию из различных источников.

<b>Advanced/ Proficiency/C 1</b>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"><li>-студенты, владеющие английским языком на продвинутом уровне;</li><li>-группа студентов после уточнения уровня самостоятельного/свободного владения языком на основе дополнительного тестирования, как правило, студенты, которые сдали ЕГЭ по английскому языку на высокий балл или имеющие языковые сертификаты высокого уровня;</li><li>-понимают общее содержание сложных текстов общекультурной и профессиональной направленности; могут поддержать обстоятельную беседу на разные темы; способны говорить быстро и спонтанно.</li></ul>
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Как видно из проведенного анализа, в процессе обучения иностранному языку был выбран внешний вид дифференциации, основанный на объединении обучающихся в группы согласно выявленному уровню владения языком по итогам входного компьютерного тестирования и собеседования. Кроме того, внутри самих групп использовались приемы внутренней дифференциации, призванные обеспечить реализацию принципов посильности, доступности и индивидуализации обучения.

При определении уровня мы руководствовались критериями, описанными в документе «Общеввропейские компетенции владения иностранным языком» (Общеввропейские компетенции владения иностранным языком, 2005).

Отметим, что студенты уровня Upper-Intermediate/Advanced, как правило, обучаются быстрее, чем студенты с уровнями Beginner или Elementary-Intermediate, так как меньше времени тратится на этапы ознакомления и тренировки языкового материала, и, соответственно, больше времени отводится такому виду речевой деятельности, как говорение через различные интерактивные формы обучения (дискуссии, дебаты, круглый стол, деловые и ролевые игры, презентации, конференции и т.д.). Именно такие активные формы обучения наилучшим образом отвечают потребностям студентов в реализации своих коммуникативных навыков и умений в реальных ситуациях общения (Bowler, 2002). Кроме того, данная категория обучающихся отличается высокой мотивацией к изучению иностранного языка, поскольку они уже имеют большой опыт и достижения в его овладении. Такие студенты ориентированы на повышение уровня коммуникативной компетенции, а не на получение положительной оценки на экзамене. Как следствие, одной из задач преподавателя является постоянное поддержание высокого уровня мотивации.

Перейдем к анализу результатов реализации технологии дифференцированного иноязычного обучения студентов 1-2 курсов технических и экономических факультетов.

## Результаты исследования *Research results*

Эффективность одновременного использования внешней и внутренней дифференциации в процессе обучения иностранному языку была выявлена в ходе проведения экспериментальной работы в течение трех учебных семестров (с 1 сентября 2016 г. по 31 декабря 2017 г.) в условиях академической среды Псковского государственного университета.

Для проведения педагогического эксперимента были выбраны две группы 1 курса (по 12 студентов в каждой) с одинаковым уровнем владения иностранным языком – Upper-Intermediate/Advanced. Данный контингент обучающихся представляет особый интерес, поскольку в его состав входят студенты, которые в большинстве случаев имеют или сертификат о сдаче Единого Государственного Экзамена по иностранному языку с результатом от 85 баллов и выше, или сертификаты международного образца, подтверждающие уровень владения языком B2/C1 (как правило, это IELTS: 6,5-7,5 баллов, либо TOEFL: от 90 баллов).

На начальном этапе для уточнения уровня и дальнейшего планирования учебного процесса группам предлагалось пройти дополнительное тестирование, которое представляло собой один из пробных вариантов международного экзамена Cambridge ESOL “Cambridge English: Advanced (CAE)” (уровень C1), включающего проверку всех видов речевой деятельности и аспектов английского языка.

В ходе тестирования оценивались следующие параметры: Reading, Writing, Use of English, Listening, Speaking.

Итоговая шкала баллов выглядела следующим образом: 200–210 баллов – оценка А, уровень владения языком C2; 193–199 баллов – оценка В, уровень владения языком C1; 180–192 балла – оценка С, уровень владения языком C1; 160–179 баллов – уровень владения языком B2; 142–159 баллов – ниже порогового значения.

Большая часть обучающихся на начальном этапе обучения в экспериментальной и контрольной группах имела уровень владения иностранным языком B2 (Upper-Intermediate): соответственно 10 % и 9 % от общего количество обучающихся в группе.

На втором этапе проведения эксперимента в контрольной группе проводилось обучение по традиционной методике, а в экспериментальной – с расширенным применением современных педагогических и информационно-коммуникационных технологий и с учетом индивидуально-личностных особенностей студентов.

Рассмотрим некоторые особенности организации работы и содержательного наполнения учебного процесса в экспериментальной группе с уровнем «Upper-Intermediate» (B2)/«Advanced» (C1).

Одним из способов поддержания мотивации стало обсуждение тем, актуальных в условиях современности. Выбор изучаемых тем определялся на основе анализа части Speaking таких международных экзаменов, как IELTS, TOEFL, Cambridge ESOL. В качестве примера приведем ряд тем: “People and relationship”, “Health”, “Studies and Work”, “Communication”, “Technology”, “Environment”, “Culture”, “Traveling”, “Hobbies and Daily Routine”, “Food and Cooking”.

Необходимо осознавать, что у данной категории студентов уже сформирован практический навык на достаточно высоком уровне. Для поддержания мотивации в работе над такими аспектами языка, как грамматика и лексика, правомерно уделять внимание тонкостям языка, которые студентам не известны.

На данном этапе обучения особенный интерес представляла лексика, поскольку именно словарный состав языка более всего подвержен изменениям и обновлению. Уделялось большое внимание работе с синонимическими рядами, использованию фразовых глаголов и фразеологизмов, устойчивых словосочетаний.

Как известно, большую популярность на данный момент пользуются мобильные приложения и компьютерные программы, имеющие своей целью запоминание и тренировку лексических единиц. Нами также проводилась работа с лексическим материалом на этапах ознакомления и тренировки при помощи программ Quizlet и Anki. Данные приложения удобны тем, что студенты самостоятельно могут создавать набор карточек из слов и выражений по определенной тематике для запоминания. В качестве контроля преподаватель может выводить на экран карточки, используя либо картинки, либо синонимы, либо определения. Таким образом, принципы частотности и наглядности могут облегчить работу студентов в процессе запоминания новых лексических единиц (Harmer, 2014; Hess, 2001; Shamim, 2007).

На этапе применения новой лексики студенты писали эссе; либо создавали свой видео-блог, в котором обсуждали тему; либо создавали видео-подкаст в форме интервью с обсуждением актуального вопроса. Также, для отработки новой лексики студенты готовили выступления на актуальную тему в формате конференции TED-talk.

Студенты экспериментальной группы постоянно принимали участие в различных учебных и научно-практических мероприятиях на иностранном языке, поэтому важным моментом в процессе обучения иностранному

языку в данной группе стала подготовка студентов к участию в мероприятиях на английском языке подобного рода.

Подчеркнем, что обучающиеся группы Upper-Intermediate/Advanced – это студенты, потенциально желающие участвовать в программах академической мобильности. Соответственно, в экспериментальной группе, в отличие от контрольной, больший акцент делался на необходимость ознакомления студентов с требованиями участия в обменных программах, на формирование навыков заполнения документации, написания мотивационного письма и резюме. Еще одним важным направлением работы со студентами данной группы являлось знакомство с различными форматами международных экзаменов и отработка их частей (IELTS, TOEFL, Cambridge ESOL).

В конце третьего семестра обучения было проведено итоговое тестирование в таком же формате международного экзамена, как и на начальном этапе. Контрольной и экспериментальной группам было предложено пройти одинаковое тестирование.

Результаты тестирования на начальном и заключительном этапах проведения эксперимента отражены в таблице 2.

Таблица 2. Результаты тестирования на начальном и заключительном этапах проведения педагогического эксперимента

Table 2 The results of testing at the initial and final stages of conducting the pedagogical experiment

	Начальный этап				Заключительный этап			
	ЭГ, чел.	Удельный вес, %	КГ, чел.	Удельный вес, %	ЭГ, чел.	Удельный вес, %	КГ, чел.	Удельный вес, %
оценка А (C2)	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
оценка В (C1)	-	-	1	8	2	17	1	8
оценка С (C1)	2	17	2	17	8	66	3	25
уровень В2	10	83	9	75	2	17	8	67

В соответствии с данными таблицы видно, что в экспериментальной группе произошло увеличение удельного веса студентов, имеющих уровень владения языком Advanced с 17 % до 83 % с первого по третий семестр обучения, т.е. на 66 %, в то время как количество обучающихся контрольной группы, владеющих языком на уровне Advanced, выросло с 25 % до 33 %, т.е. на 8 %. Данное обстоятельство говорит о том, что в

процессе обучения иностранному языку при реализации внешней дифференциации в обязательном порядке необходимо учитывать и внутреннюю дифференциацию, которая предполагает учет индивидуально-личностных особенностей обучающихся, применение различных инновационных технологий, что приводит к повышению познавательной активности студентов, повышению мотивации, увеличению степени самостоятельности в работе с иноязычными источниками, и, в целом, к результативности обучения.

Представим результаты тестирования наглядно на графике.

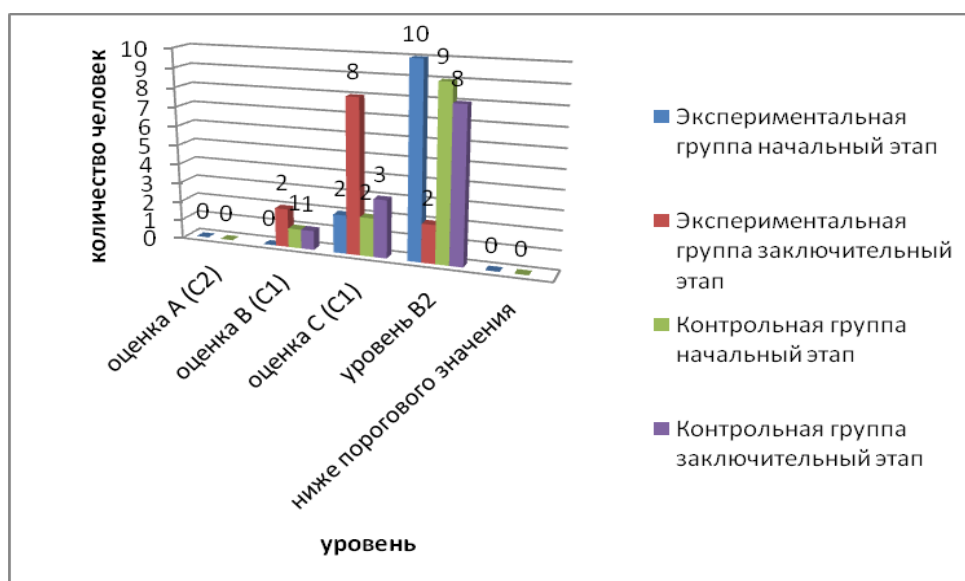


Рисунок 1. Результаты тестирования в ходе проведения педагогического эксперимента

*Figure 1. The results of testing during conducting the pedagogical experiment*

## Заключение *Conclusions*

Авторы статьи рассматривают дифференцированный подход как наиболее оптимальный в условиях неоднородности учебных групп, поскольку он обеспечивает систематизацию языковой подготовки студентов нелингвистических специальностей, позволяет сделать ее более эффективной, способствует формированию студента как субъекта учебно-познавательной деятельности и наилучшим образом отвечает ожиданиям самих студентов. Отметим, что при таком распределении обучающихся возможна реализация всех общеметодических и частнометодических принципов обучения дисциплине. При органичном сочетании внешней и

внутренней дифференциации формируется здоровая атмосфера взаимодействия и сотрудничества всех субъектов образовательного процесса, возникает мотивация к изучению языка, конкуренция студентов становится разумной. У преподавателя появляется лучшая возможность дать максимум знаний и обеспечить качество усвоения материала в группе и, в итоге, адекватно оценить знания студентов на зачете и экзамене.

### Summary

In the Russian system of foreign-language education, learner-centred approach is seen as a leading strategic direction designed to ensure self-realization of the learner as a linguistic personality able to interact effectively in the intercultural context. The problem of differentiation is one of the central issues in learner-centred education. The authors of the article consider the differentiated approach to be the most optimal in the conditions of the study groups heterogeneity, since it ensures the systematization of the language training of non-linguistics students, makes it more efficient and favors the formation of the student as a subject of educational and cognitive activity.

The results of the pedagogical experiment carried out by the authors of the article proved the effectiveness of the described methodology in language training of engineering and economics students.

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# THE INTEGRATION OF “HOME, MONASTERY AND SCHOOL” LEARNING ORGANIZATION IN THE STUDY OF LOCAL TOURIST ATTRACTIONS AND CULTURE

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**Abstract.** *The purpose of this study are to study the community’s and the monk’s satisfaction of the knowledge exchanging activity among ‘Home, Monastery and School’ learning organization, and to study the students’ satisfaction of the integration of such learning organization in the study of local tourist attractions and culture. Samples selected purposively include 51 subjects, namely 38 local people, 1 monk and 12 English Major Students attending the knowledge exchanging activity, at the Monastery. The data of this descriptive survey is collected from a questionnaire, and the statistics employed include percentage, mean, and S.D. The study discloses the findings as follows: 1) the overall level of the community’s and the monk’s satisfaction of the knowledge exchanging activity among ‘Home, Monastery, and School’ learning organization is in high level, while the overall students’ satisfaction in the integration of such learning organization in the study of local tourist attractions and culture is in highest level. 2) In terms of item analysis, the aspect of the community’s and monk’s satisfaction in highest level of mean scores includes passing on knowledge to next generation, while the aspect of the students’ satisfaction in highest level include exchanging knowledge in learning organization. It can be concluded that the integration of learning organization in classroom instructions enriches community’s life-long learning and students’ engagement as well as motivation.*

**Keywords:** *classroom instruction, community’s life-long learning, and learning organization*

## Introduction

Due to the fast growing Information Communication Technology, English is a vital tool for communication among people around the world. People with different races who speak different languages can consume the same piece of information; news or culture and share it to other internet users or netizens, and of course the core language used on the Internet or websites is English language. That’s why English is regarded as “World Language”, or “Global Language.” (Melitz, 2009) The impact of English as World Language on Thai students

learning English language is that channel of the communication is not between Thais and native speakers of English, but between Thais and other non-native speakers of English. (Kunnu, 2013)

Meanwhile, the development of Information Communication Technology and social media affect the teaching of English in some aspects. The teaching methodologies have included “Task-based learning” and “Learner-based activities” in course design. (McKay, 2000) It is, therefore, common for teachers to assign students to engage with English outside the class and bring into the class the authentic English in the forms of reports or classroom presentation. The problem at this point is that the students conduct the so called “Copy Cut Paste” reports. That is most of the students’ work is not their originalities. When making oral presentation concerning local tourist attractions and culture in English, the students read aloud the report taken from various websites. The language used in the presentation loads with long complex sentences and difficult words. The presentation is difficult to understand and this leads to the lack of interest and motivation to participate in learner-based activity.

However, in Thailand, learning organization in the community including Home, Monastery, and School has existed for more than 100 years. (Summart, 2008) Home is regarded as the first school of children, and parents together with other family members are their teachers responsible for bringing up and socializing the children to be able to live happily in the community when they grow up. In the meanwhile Thai monastery was firstly the institution responsible for training local people’s mind and teaching boys how to read and write as well as Lord Buddha’s teaching. However, later on when school as formal education was established in the reign of King Rama V in the year 1871, school has taken the role of educating people to read, write and earn their living, while monastery serve as religious place for religious ceremonies as well as social events. (Clark, 2014) This learning organization in the community - Home, Monastery, and School – has taken their duties day by day. Nowadays, due to the digital world, the collaboration among the 3 cores institution seems to be neglected. The relationship of home and monastery has been closed so far in terms of religious ceremonies and Dhama or Buddha’s teaching practice while school with modern and up to date knowledge and development has been organized in line with Western standard and theories. Gaps between school and the other 2 institutions; home and monastery have existed. Students or teenagers have been mostly educated under the westernized school administration, and this leads to the students’ neglect of community and monastery. (Krubannok, 2012).

The integration of ‘Home, Monastery, and School’ learning organization in the study of local tourist attractions and culture can close gaps among these institutions, and will be beneficial to all in this learning organization. This study is, therefore, conducted.

The purposes of this study are to study the community's, and the monk's satisfaction of the knowledge exchanging activity among Home, Monastery and School (HMS), and to study the student's satisfaction of the integration of the learning organization; HMS in classroom instruction.

### **Theoretical Background**

#### 1. Definition of 'Home, Monastery and School' learning organization

The term 'Home, Monastery and School' learning organization is frequently mentioned in various contexts with different meaning. Here are some definitions.

Home can be defined as an important unit in a community including headman responsible for leading the community to develop the community surroundings or the physical setting of the community. (Krubannok, 2012)

Monastery can be defined as an important unit in the community or center of everything relevant to a person's life from one's birth to one's death. That is to say when a child is born, the parents will go to a monastery to request the monk in a monastery to name their child. Later, when that child grows up and in case the child is a boy, monastery in the past served as school for boys to learn to read and write as well as to study basic Buddha's teaching. After that when the child grows up to 20 years old, he will be required to ordain as a monk in the monastery to study Buddha's teaching and serves in the religious ceremonies, and this will make their parents and other family members happy as he is regarded as a well-educated man who will be ready to live his life as a mature adult. After that when this man gets married, monks are responsible for finding the right and good time for his wedding ceremony, and in his wedding ceremony monks from the monastery will be invited to bless the bride and the groom. Finally, at the end of his life, the cremation ceremony will be held at the monastery. In turn, the development and maintenance of monastery, together with annual religious ceremonies and festivals can normally be conducted by the support and co-operation of local people. It is clear that the close relation between Home and Monastery has existed in Thai way of life through the century and it will still exist in Thai community. (Krubannok, 2012).

The term 'School' can be defined as formal educational institutions responsible for educating young children from the age of 3 in pre-school to the age 16 of in high-school. School serves as educational institution responsible for developing the child's knowledge, intellect and behavior based on Western Theories of Education. (National Education Act, 1999)

In this study, Home includes 38 seniors of the community participating in the 2 knowledge exchanging activities held at Tanod Monastery, Bangkok, on 2<sup>nd</sup> March 2016, and 15<sup>th</sup> May 2016.

Monastery refers to Tanod Monastery, Bangkok, Thailand and 1 monk responsible for coordinating and organizing 2 knowledge exchanging activities at Tanod Monastery.

School refers to 12 3<sup>rd</sup> year English Major Students, Faculty of Humanities and Social Sciences, Suan Sunandha Rajabhat University, Bangkok, Thailand organizing the knowledge exchanging activities at Tanod Monastery.

## 2. Participatory Learning Approach

Based on the most inspiring vision statement of Singapore Ministry of Education: Teach Less, Learn More, traditional teaching method: ‘Lecturing’ is not suitable for language learning (Motorola University, 1996). That is because during lecture students are only listening and/or taking some notes, and at the end of lecture the percentage of the students’ retention rate is extremely low. Lecturing is a passive teaching method requiring less students’ engagement, and this leads to low rate of students’ retention. However, “Active and Participatory Learning” will enable learners to retain more what they learn. (Kangan, 2006)

Participatory approach is a that incorporates themes or content area that are of interest to the learners. The Participatory approach is under the umbrella of Content-Based Instruction (CBI), in which topics for specific purposes are concerned. The themes derive from real issues that affect students’ daily lives where language learning is used as a vehicle to solve social problems. There are various activities that can be incorporated in this teaching strategy aiming to develop all language domains in the learning process. (Ross, 1995)

It can be noted that in participatory approach, teachers are required to design class activities allowing students to choose the contents relating to their interest and daily life. Moreover, to complete the tasks, students have to use language as a tool to solve problems with collaborations among friends, teachers, and other persons in the community if possible.

## 3. Researches related to ‘Home, Monastery and School’ learning organization.

Even though ‘Home, Monastery and School’ learning organization has existed in Thailand for a long time, the use of this organization to strengthen the community is quite rare. Preeda Poonsin studied ‘Community Participation in Knowledge Management of Art and Culture; a Case Study of Sommanut Community’. (Poonsin, 2012) The result shows that Sommanut community has various kinds of art and valuable cultural heritage. However, the community participation on knowledge management, and cultural resources management is still a problem. The suggest solution is that the community should conduct cultural activities with temples, schools and youth centers to improve the quality and amount of the cultural human resources. In addition, the community must create a clear plan of a serious cooperative framework on cultural activities among ‘Home, Monastery and School’ learning organization. This is an example of the

utilization of the learning organization to promote collaboration among core units of learning organization to preserve and pass on community's cultural heritage.

Furthermore, 'Home, Monastery and School' learning organization can promote family strength. Yuranan Tamkal (Tamkal, 2014) studied how 'Home, Monastery and School' influence the use of sufficiency economy to promote family strength. The results show that processes, methods and contents that are used to promote the family strength of members of 'Home, Monastery and School' follow the principles and functions of the institution and government policies. However, the community do not show 'intention' to use sufficiency economy to promote the family strength, and there are many problems and difficulties among members of 'Home, Monastery and School' to use sufficiency economy to promote the family strength.

Based on the above review, the collaborations among core units of 'Home, Monastery and School' learning organization can be beneficial to anyone in the community if careful planning is conducted. Moreover, participatory learning is a key to promote students' engagement in learning leading to targeted learning outcome and students' satisfaction of learning. 'The integration of "Home, Monastery and School" learning organization in the study of local tourist attractions and culture' is, therefore, studied.

## **Research Design**

### 1. Samples

Samples of this study include 51 subjects grouped into 3 core units of learning organization in the community; Home, Monastery and School.

Home includes 38 seniors in the community. Monastery includes Tanod Monastery, Bangkok, Thailand, and 1 monk responsible as a coordinator between Home and School. School includes 12 3rd year English Major Students, Faculty of Humanities and Social Sciences, Suan Sunandha Rajabhat University, Bangkok, Thailand taking the course; English for Communication in Cultural Context in the second semester of academic year 2015.

### 2. Procedures

Research procedures are divided into 4 steps as follows;

1) Introduce the integration of Home, Monastery, and School learning organization in the study of tourist attractions and culture to the students.

In the second semester of the academic year 2015 in the course: English for Communication in Cultural Context, the students are required to conduct a learner's based activity in which they'll have to collect information about a local tourist attraction and conduct a 10-minute oral presentation detailing a tourist attraction.

Steps for conducting an oral presentation (Crane, 2009) are as follows;

(1) Brainstorming ideas for a topic (2) Researching the topic (3) Organizing the information (4) Writing the first draft of the presentation script (5) Creating visual aids with PowerPoint presentation (6) Rehearsing the presentation and (7) Editing and writing the final draft of the presentation script

Based on the 7 steps above, the problems can be found when the students research the topic concerning tourist attraction and culture. The problems are the lack of information about local tourist attract especially some unseen attraction. However, for popular tourist attractions and culture, students employ ‘copy, cut, paste’ technique. This leads to the lack of creation and originality. The solution to these problems is the integration of Home, Monastery, and School learning organization in the study of local tourist attractions and culture. That is they have to collect data about the tourist attraction by organizing a field trip and a knowledge exchanging activities at a monastery.

Tanod Monastery is chosen as one of the core units in the Learning Organization because it is an old small monastery not far from the University, and there is a need to publicize its history to the tourists and the community.

2) Take field trip to collect data from local people and monk at the monastery.

On 2<sup>nd</sup> March 2016, a group of 3<sup>rd</sup> year English Major students, Faculty of Humanities and Social Sciences, taking the course – English for Communication in Cultural Context – was assigned to take field trip to Tanod Monastery. The purposes of the field trip are to collect information about the history of Tanod monastery from local people and the monks in the form of focus group small talk, and to visit the area in and around the monastery to take some photos for making presentation about the history of Tanod Monastery.

From 2<sup>nd</sup> March 2016, the students responsible for making presentation about Tanod Monastery continue to possess the data to make an oral presentation with PowerPoint presentation.

3) Conduct a Knowledge Exchanging Activity among 3 core units of “Home, Monastery and School” learning organization

On 15<sup>th</sup> May 2016, a knowledge exchanging activity is held at Tanod Monastery. The purposes of this activity include threefold, to allow the students to present PowerPoint presentation detailing the local tourist attraction of Tanod Monastery and culture to local people and the monk, to allow the local people and the monk to comment on the presentation, and to allow the researcher to collect data concerning the satisfaction of the knowledge exchanging activity taken from the participants including the local people, the monk, and the students.

The oral presentation includes 2 topics, namely “Wat Tanod with a beautiful ordination hall decorated with bowls on top of its gable” and “Vultures at Saket Monastery, and Giant Hungry Ghost at Temple of the Giant Swing.”

The research tool employed in this study is a questionnaire.

4) Analyzing the data

In May 2016, the data from the questionnaire is analyzed by SPSS program, and statistics employed include percentage, Mean, and Standard Deviation.

**Results and Discussion**

The research findings reveal the satisfaction of the integration of ‘Home, Monastery, and School’ Learning Organization. The details of the findings are as follows;

1. The community’s and the monk’s satisfaction of the knowledge exchanging activity among ‘Home, Monastery, and School’ learning organization

The overall satisfaction among core units of the learning organization is in high level. In terms of item analysis, 4 aspects of the satisfaction in highest level ranging from high to low mean scores are shown in table 1.

Table 1 **The community’s and the monk’s satisfaction**

<i>Aspects of Satisfaction</i>	Mean	S.D.
Passing on knowledge to the next generation	4.70	1.56
Exchanging knowledge for learning	4.43	1.44
Being impressed by the PowerPoint Presentation	4.35	1.40
Gaining knowledge and insight in the tourist attractions and culture	4.24	1.27

Based on table 1, these findings reveal the benefits of the integration of ‘Home, Monastery, and School’ learning organization in the study of local tourist attractions and culture in terms of passing on knowledge to the next generation, exchanging knowledge for learning, and gaining knowledge and insight in local tourist attractions and culture.

The research results lead to the community of life-long learning. That is because School or the university students have initiated the chance of knowledge exchange among the core units of learning organization. The contents about local tourist attractions and culture are tacit knowledge kept in the community or the seniors, and when the seniors were asked to share their memory or experience about the tourist attractions and culture in their community, these seniors would be delighted to pass on their knowledge to the students or the next generation. Moreover, after the students had created PowerPoint presentation detailing about local tourist attractions and culture told by the community, the community and the monk were invited to join the presentation in the knowledge exchanging activity. On hearing and seeing what the seniors told in the presentation, the community and the monk satisfied with the presentation, and more knowledge exchange occurred. This leads to the knowledge and insight in their local tourist attractions

and culture, as well as the love of their community. For the monastery, it serves not only as religious place for making merit or holding religious ceremonies, but also as learning center for all in the community including the seniors and the students.

2. The students’ satisfaction of the integration of ‘Home, Monastery and School’ learning organization in their study

The overall satisfaction of the students’ satisfaction of the integration of Home, Monastery, and School learning organization in the study of local tourist attractions and culture is in highest level. In terms of item analysis, 4 aspects of the satisfaction in highest level ranging from high to low mean scores are shown in table 2.

Table 2 **The students’ satisfaction**

<i>Aspects of Satisfaction</i>	Mean	S.D.
Exchanging knowledge for learning	4.70	0.46
Gaining knowledge and insight in local tourist attractions and culture	4.43	0.44
Passing on the culture	4.35	0.48
Collaborating with others in the community	4.24	0.68

Table 2 shows that the aspects of the students’ satisfaction of the integration of ‘Home, Monastery, and School’ learning organization in the study of local tourist attractions and culture. It can be noted that this kind of integration can be beneficial to teaching and learning. That is because in the integration process, the students are exposed to the contents of local tourist attractions and culture through exchanging knowledge for learning with the seniors of the community and the monk. With the students’ attempt and determination, the students use English language as a tool to complete the task relevant to local tourist attractions and culture in the form of PowerPoint presentation, and their task was presented to the community outside the classroom. It’s a kind of task they should do in their future career. The students are motivated and challenged to make use of their language skills together with presentation skill to accomplish the target goal of the course. This requires high order of students’ engagement in learning both inside and outside classroom which enables the students to gain confident and experience in working with language. This kind of learning is in line with Participatory Learning Approach. (Richard-Amato, 2010)

## **Conclusion**

Based on the findings, the integration of ‘Home, Monastery, and School’ learning Organization in the study of local tourist attractions and culture is beneficial to all involving in the learning organization. For home and monastery,



the integration leads to community for life-long learning. The monastery serves as center of all people including home and school to exchange knowledge for learning, and this results in the seniors' pride to pass on their knowledge and experience to the next generation. For school, the integration can motivate and inspire the students to use language as a tool to complete task relevant to the community by using collaborations among themselves as well as with people outside the classroom. This also leads to students' engagement with English inside and outside the classroom. This kind of integration can, therefore, be used in classroom instruction especially in content-based instruction and task-based activity.

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*Kosarassawadee et al., 2018. The Integration of “Home, Monastery and School” Learning Organization in the Study of Local Tourist Attractions and Culture*

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## FROM LINGUISTIC REPRESENTATION TO FUZZY MATHEMATICS IN GROWN UP PEOPLE

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**Abstract.** *The aim of this note is to give some critical examples where even the use of the same clustering rules lead to fuzziness. It starts from poor numerical systems and compares them with the expanded Sergeyev model, where the grossone is used, as an infinite terminal element. It can be compared with terminal elements of the ancient languages, such as the Greek myriad and the Chinese wan. On them some propositions that hold in the arithmetic of the grossone are similar, while they are not meaningful for the countable system of infinity. The note shows that both the upward and downward trend are actually present in human language and in conceptual arrangements.*

*The note then goes on to sketch the model of evolution of Bak-Sneppen, showing two significant applications: the case of the evolution and study of foreign languages and, according to the model of Lloyd, the territorial analysis. In both cases it is highlighted how the Bak-Sneppen model becomes more stable when the universe is segmented, as already proven by the authors in previous works. The third part examines some cases of false probabilistic intuition due to incomplete perception of the phenomena, what could therefore be defined as hidden conditional probability. Interesting is the classic application of the theory of games to lotteries and ternary games, such as Chinese morra.*

**Keywords:** *Infinity, Grossone, Bak-Sneppen model, Conceptual granularity and translation, Lloyd's problem of clustering, Probabilistic delusions.*

### Introduction

The authors some years ago discussed the problem of translating the mathematical text from one language to another, analyzing the perceptive implications that emerge (Piccinini et al., 2015).

Following Sergeyev (Sergeyev, 2015), it has been noted that there are problems analogous to translation when changing numerical systems from weaker instruments to more powerful one. The conceptual references can be found for a general theory of semiology in (Eco, 1975) and for the detail of translation problems in (Eco, 2002).

On the mathematical side we recall that the elementary models of Gordon (Gordon, 2004) and Pica et al. (Pica et al., 2004) are weak, while Sergeyev's expanded system is powerful (Sergeyev, 2008), so that many problems of translation may arise passing to and from ordinary arithmetic.

The note aims to capture apparently non-mathematical aspects of everyday language that are placed between these extremes and the true or presumed passage that can be accomplished passing from the real but informal world to the correct but abstract world of mathematics. Section 1 discusses the rules and the risks of this translation. Those who know the numbers associate them with the empirical quantities, to obtain a well ordered system and to compare different subjects among them. The clustering, both explicit and hidden, is a fundamental instrument for this purpose. The possibility of using different criteria is typical of classification in various sport competitions. Mathematics supplies consistent solutions to the problem, but cannot overcome its fuzziness. Some critical examples will be shown where even the use of the same clustering rules lead to fuzziness.

The second part of the note discusses the problem of clustering and its empirical consequences. The third part associates the problem of granularity with some errors of intuition that are committed in the calculus of probabilities and in its application to the elementary theory of games.

### **Poor and rich systems of numbers**

The two extremes are the primitive and childish language of the three “numbers” <one, two, many> (Gordon, 2004) or of the richer system <one, two, three, four, five, many, really many> (Pica et al., 2004) and the extended system in which there is a number, the “grossone” that formalises the infinity (Margenstern, 2011). The idea is the same as the elementary system, that is, subsequent some (or many) numbers there is a last number bigger than all the other (compare Boyer, 1968). In ancient languages, such as Greek and Chinese, this number has been fixed in 10000 (*myrioi* = one myriad of Greeks, *wan*<sub>4</sub> of Chinese), perhaps because it corresponds to the 100 x 100 square. It has always retained the double meaning of 10000 and infinity. The fundamental difference is that the “grossone” cannot be reached by a finite sum of addends, while the myriad can. As long as the calculations remain under this roof (and this often happens in practice) they coincide in the two systems.

In the original system of indoeuropean languages there were only three quantities associated with a name: singular, dual, plural. Afterwards the use of the dual has disappeared, except in Slovenisch and in some baltic languages. Let us remark that the opposition of singular and plural is not compulsory, for example, in Chinese. On the contrary the use of pseudo-numeral adjectives is widely

common in all languages. What is the meaning of the words <little>, <much>, <big>, <small>? Is there an ordinal scale of quantities? The classic case is the answer to the question “How many trees are there in this forest?”, where <many> is a correct answer, but does not allow comparison with another forest.

Postulate 2 of Sergeev (Sergeev, 2015) states that:

*Following the naturalistic approach of physicists, we will not venture into saying what mathematical objects are but we will build tools (such as natural numbers or other more or less powerful systems) that will allow us to improve our ability to observe and describe mathematical objects.*

Therefore the answer “many” of the previous example was not wrong, only the system used was poorly selective.

Combinations of generic terms quickly lead to fuzzy situations due to different clustering and different granularities. Furthermore, when arithmetic operations are attempted, the most frequent perceptive error is to believe that <little> + <little> = <little>. The absurd is therefore that <many> \* <little> = <little>. The contrary absurd is that <many> - <little> - ... - <little> = <many>, regardless the number of times <little> is subtracted. The problem of course does not exist for the “grossone”, because it is greater than any number, hence for example it makes sense to speak of 1 “grossone” minus 6 elements, that still is greater than any number (compare also Sergeev, 2008). On the contrary in the children's speech we find the tendency to binary opposition between the two terms <all> and <none>, as exemplified in Piccinini-Indelli 1980-81 at middle school level; however this orientation is also found among adults in emphatic discourses.

It is usual to translate from the qualitative scale to some form of numerical scale. For example, the scholastic system in many countries translates the judgments linguistically expressed into a sequence of numbers, but it often happens instead that it is precisely the number that is taken as the label of a judgment. This does not alter the fact that there are strong oscillations between a linguistic-cultural area and another, both in space and in time.

Although originally the scale is qualitative, in all the rankings both socio-economic and sporting there is the immediate numerical transposition, through systems of indicators on which it is possible to perform operations of comparison, sum, and mean. Clearly, it is arbitrary how to eliminate variables considered not meaningful and, on the other hand, how to assign weights to significant ones, as well as the choice of aggregation and granularity modalities.

The extreme (lowest) case of granularity is the binary one of direct elimination, where the only certainty (at least in theory) is the one that wins the strongest, even if the ranking for subsequent positions is fuzzy.

For this reason there is the technique of creating the *seeded players*, that is to say to select the best eight (according to some previous category) and to avoid

their meeting in the first rounds. The eight players can be assigned by lot, or, if there is a ranking among them, the correct technique is to follow this order:

Quarterfinals 1-8, 5-4; 3-6, 7-2

Expected semi-finals 1-4, 3-2

Expected final 1-2.

In direct elimination the information that is derived is the following:

The losers of the semifinals are at the same level third/fourth;

The losers of the quarterfinals are at the same level from fifth to eighth;

No further information can be derived.

In the case of a random match, however, there is no certainty that the finalist who loses is the second in the ranking. In fact, in the case of the output 1-2, 3-4; 8-7, 6-5, the second would already be eliminated in the quarterfinals.

The problem of creating a ranking has no obvious solution, and it is a NP-hard problem, and must be done on the basis of the results, even quantitative, of direct comparison. The mechanism is as follows: a square matrix  $M$  is created, where all the results translated into a number are recorded. After that, a new order is assigned, equal for the rows and columns, constructed so that the superdiagonal of the matrix assumes the maximum possible value and the subdiagonal the minimum one. In general it will not happen that the subdiagonal is null, as this only occurs when there is at least one complete ordering (and in this case the problem is reduced to a polynomial one). A powerful solution method is described in the work of Piccinini & Chang 2007, while its meaning in the macroeconomic models is analyzed by Chang, Piccinini, Iseppi in (Chang et al., 2013). Usually, for practical reasons, simpler proxies are used, as it happens in sport classification.

### **Clustering and Bak-Sneppen models**

Piccinini, Lepellere, Chang and Iseppi in (Piccinini, 2015) discussed some applications of Bak - Sneppen model, which describes the essential concepts of the progress of biological components in an interactive framework (Bak & Sneppen, 1993). The basic idea recalls clustering: every element of the system has a score (called fitness, to remind biological original aim of the model). At each period the worst element is forced to change, obtaining a new score randomly. Proceeding in this way, in the long run a suboptimal distribution would be achieved but not very realistic. Another possibility is to consider a natural random decay of all the elements, but the model provides a more interesting choice: when the worst element changes, some of its neighbours are induced or forced to change at random, even if their score was already high. The overall system gets an improvement but complete optimality can never be achieved. The authors in (Piccinini et al., 2013) and in (Piccinini et al., 2014) have shown that the construction of cluster boundaries, though perhaps non democratic, can improve

the average levels and allows from time to time sudden phenomena of overtaking. The basic Bak-Sneppen model poses a dramatic question: why who are involved in the process of improving weaker species can get worse? A first answer is obvious, because someone has to bear the costs, but also the change of an element may induce damage on the neighbours or stimulate them to change.

Good examples are found in linguistics and in learning foreign languages. Words can be grouped into clusters according to areas of meaning. This takes place in the construction of the linguistic *thesaurus*, often used in the systematic teaching of a language or in the dialogues of specific situation (for example “Greetings”, “Journey by plane”, “Customs”, etc.) The thesaurus system and the pertinences it creates are widely used in machine translation programs to settle cases of polysemy and homophony. The Chinese uses this system even in the writing of many ideograms, where often the semantic area is described by an ideogram called radical, which is glued with another ideogram that instead has a similar pronunciation and therefore their pictorial structure does not allow to derive pronounce. When the semantic cluster is progressively learned each new acquisition perturbs the meaning to be attributed to the next terms. This sometimes leads to neglecting its neighbors and supporting the new word in place of those already known. In the creation of languages, the passage from Latin to Neo-Latin languages is full of examples. We will remember *pullus* (young animal, bud, scion) that passing (already in Plautus) through *pullus gallinaceus* (son of hen) becomes chicken (Pollo, Italian and Spanish; Poulet, French) with this exclusive final meaning

Another interesting problem is Lloyd’s problem. Its simplest version is this: in a territory a certain number of equivalent service centers must be installed. Each user will use the nearest service center; the centers are not in competition with each other, unlike the Hotelling model of the two ice-cream makers (Hotelling, 1929). The goal of the project is to minimize the burden of the route for all users. A good measure of this burden is the square of the distance, even if other functions can be used to evaluate it. This problem is called Lloyd's problem.

To solve it (in an iterative way) the Voronoi diagrams are used (Voronoi, 1908): given N nodes, we must divide the domain into N parts, that represent the attraction basin of each node. The division must be such that for any point of the attraction basin its generating node is the next of all. If we use the normal Euclidean distance, the result is a subdivision of the domain into N convex polygons, each containing a node. If the domain is not limited, one or more of the polygons will be unrestricted. The methods to perform the analysis are numerous; refer, for example, to (Aurenhammer, 1991).

The problem is linked to the Bak-Sneppen model when a new node is inserted in a cell. In fact, it is involved not only the polygon in which the new node falls, but also some of the adjacent ones. Only if the boundary consolidation

is carried out, the innovative action concerns only the polygon in which insertion takes place.

Lloyd's problem requires that the centroids of the Voronoi diagram be chosen so as to minimize the sum of the overall distances. In case of a quadratic Euclidean distance and a uniform territory, the optimal point is the center of gravity of the polygon. A solution can then be found by the following iteration:

- a) Given arbitrarily N nodes;
- b) Evaluate the N Voronoi polygons;
- c) Calculate the center of gravity of these polygons;
- d) Use them as a new node assignment;
- e) If they coincide (almost) with the previous set of nodes, stop. Otherwise restart from b).

In the paper by Du et al. (Du et al., 2006) it can be found a proof of the convergence of the above described iteration.

But does this solve the problem? The algorithm provides a local minimum, but not all the possible minima. This can be checked dividing a square into two domains. The minima may be achieved dividing horizontally or vertically according to the starting position of the first nodes, but the minimum is the same. Suppose now that you construct a rectangle, perturbing the original square by a small amount. There are still horizontal and vertical solutions, but only one provides the actual minimum! This shows that unfortunately Lloyd's problem is not convex and may have a plurality of local minima. Usually they are not very different, so they are reasonable suboptimal solutions, but the problem remains fuzzy.

Let consider now a square to be divided into four Lloyd's regions. A solution is dividing it along horizontal strips, another along vertical strips, another into four isosceles rectangular triangles. These are unstable solutions. A good stable solution is to divide it in four coordinate squares of side one half the original. But the best solution is achieved taking a triangle in the interior, and three confining particular irregular figures along the boundary. This plenty of solutions can be compared with economic expansion of activities as shown in (Chang & Iseppi, 2011; Chang et al., 2014) for the optimal central clustering, while in (Chang & Iseppi, 2012) and (Chang et al., 2015) the linear solution is chosen, even if it seems to be more unstable due to the limited resilience.

### **Fine tuning in Probability**

When using probability, intuition is very dangerous. In particular results are very sensitive to the granularity of the framework. Experience could lead to life-long memory of correct solutions as Freudenthal reminds in (Freudenthal, 1991). This part of the note associates the problem of granularity with the intuitive errors



that are made in the calculation of probabilities. We do not speak here of the critical problems of conditional probabilities and independent events, which require a more refined logical reflection, but we limit ourselves to some classic examples taken from game theory and to some evolution problems. A trap lies in hidden conditional probabilities, and it is shown in the last example.

A first case is to ask to write a random 10-digit sequence. The two samples were constituted in one case by adults of a good professional level and in the other case by engineering students. It was found that the percentage of choice of equal consecutive digits was zero for adults and significantly less than 1/10 for students. Obviously the probability that the next digit is equal to the previous one in an unbiased process is equal to the reciprocal of the number of digits. So, if we use decimal notation, the probability is 1/10 for each pair of consecutive digits.

A plausible interpretation is that the probability of equality is perceived as too low to be significant, which is true if the subject uses a scale of the type <impossible> <improbable> <possible> <probable>. Anyhow the most likely interpretation is that the random sequence is “felt” as a sequence of *draws without replacement*, as happens in the popular game of bingo. In the case of only ten digits and a long sequence, the possibility of avoiding any repetition is very low. As a result, usually after a few different items an old one is drawn again, but not near another equal item.

The intuitive scale becomes sufficient in the binary case, since the alternate sequence 101010... clearly cannot be considered random, so it is necessary to have some repetitions. How long should they be, in the average? The problem is solved by a Porfirio tree which each branch there is the possibility of change the sequence and start a new one. So the probability of changing after just one shot is  $\frac{1}{2}$ ; this means that the probability of moving forward is  $\frac{1}{2}$ . At this point there is the probability  $\frac{1}{2}$  of  $\frac{1}{2}$  of changing, leaving only a possibility of  $\frac{1}{4}$  to move on. So after 2 draws the probability of stopping is  $\frac{1}{4}$ , after 3 draws  $\frac{1}{8}$ , in general after  $n$  draws is  $\frac{1}{2^n}$ . The average length is therefore given by the sum of the sequence  $n/2^n$ , that is 2, as calculus teaches.

Already in the case of three digits most people seem to like the construction of preferential rather than equiprobable sequences. This is proven experimentally by the impossibility of winning in the game of Chinese morra with an expert system that analyzes the behavior of the human adversary.

Let us recall that in this game each player has three moves, which are also physically represented: the card = extended hand, the stone = closed fist, the scissors = two extended fingers and the other three closed. Players show their move at the same time. The card wins on the stone, the stone wins on the scissors, the scissors win on the card. In the case of an equal move, neither wins.

The winning strategy among skillful players is to make every move at random with the same probability. However, if a player changes the next move

after each move, as soon as the opponent realizes this mistake, he has a winning strategy. In fact, after a stone the first player will choose between paper and scissors, so the opponent who plays scissors is sure not to lose and has a  $\frac{1}{2}$  chance to win.

The answer rule is therefore

Stone	Scissors
Paper	Stone
Scissors	Paper

The expert system is needed to analyze the behavior of the first player and understand what are his privileged sequences. In correspondence with these he builds the winning strategy. However, it may be noted that the gesture of the scissors requires a more elaborate movement and therefore in a quick game it may appear less often, so playing paper with a probability greater than  $\frac{1}{3}$  can be a good strategy.

The game between two computers with the same pseudo-random number construction algorithm, on the other hand, ends in parity.

The opposite phenomenon occurs in the falsification of accounting books, in which the last significant amount is not randomly distributed, but are dominant 0, 5 and 9, the latter for commercial and psychological reasons.

The case in which the random number is required is that of certain games where one has to guess the sequence of 5 or 6 distinct numbers chosen among the possibilities of the bingo game. In theory, the events are equally probable, so the obvious sequence of type 1, 2, 3, 4, 5 has the same probability of 3, 89, 32, 17, 2. However, if the game requires that the bet is divided between all those who guess the winning sequence extracted on the bench, it is in the interest of the player to bet on a sequence that is probably not chosen by any other player, a bit like it happens with the numeric keys of the safes.

Let us now come to a very subtle example taken from the book of Métivier (1968) in which the case of the two brothers is discussed. It is given that the probability of a male or a female among the juvenile population is approximately equal. Then we consider the males present in the universe and identify those that belong to pairs of two brothers. At the end it is asked if the other member of the couple is male or female. Most observers expect MM responses and MF responses to be about the same. Instead it is not so because the entire universe, writing first the older brother, consists of pairs MM, MF, FM, FF, averagely equiprobable. In our sample the FF pairs have not been consulted, so the MF answer, which has been considered equiprobable to the FM, appears with double frequency of the MM. The experimental verification made among the students of electronic engineering nevertheless gave the surprising result that MF and MM had approximately the same frequency. This is probably due to a considerable distortion of the sample, since evidently the presence of a sister diversified the

cultural landscape of the male, reducing its propensity to electronic engineering, while the presence of another male increased it.

## Conclusions

The advice that should be given to those who read this note is to keep in mind the saying “The best is the enemy of good”. The Bak-Sneppen model presented with some of its applications in the second section shows which price can be paid for an improvement even by those who already adequately comply with current regulations.

Operational research and business logistics offer numerous cases in which there is a global improvement, but the price to pay can be high, both in terms of training time and in terms of obsolescence of existing equipment and skills acquired. On the other hand, even young people who enter directly into the new system can not easily use the skills of the elderly and will be forced to reflect on the knowledge that is imparted by the new system.

The first section, on the other hand, shows how the mathematical models can be altered upwards or downwards, and how these variations conform to the way of thinking and the language generally used. The affirmation of science that the more the tools are perfected the more knowledge is possible, it stops at the practical level with the finite of our ability to work mathematical and conceptual (first axiom of Sergeyev (2015)). Information science teaches us that it is essential to adapt the tools to the proposed objectives (and also to the times when problems must find an appropriate solution).

The third section, instead, opposes Sergeyev's third axiom to the first, which re-establishes that even in a complex system “the totality is greater than every single part”, which should be read in the other verse “every part is smaller than the total”. The last section recalls the errors made in the use of probability calculus and in game theory when parts of the universe in which we move are omitted.

## Summary

In everyday life we use a small amount of numbers. After all, even if we used 100 numbers a day in our entire life we would remain at a few millions, but most likely the numbers actually used will be a few hundred, some of which are repeated very often. There are more or less precise quasi-numerical adjectives, such as <little>, <very>, <still> ... and in general a “final number” that is often called in the modern languages Billion, but in Greek there is the Myriad (10000). The final number is “fuzzy” because it is often replaced by the expression <full>. It is interesting, because if it is diminished by one unit it remains unchanged: if we say that the theater was *full* of people, after our neighbor came out, we continue to say that it is *full*. This from the mathematical point of view leads to contradictions, and they are overcome in the Sergeyev system, object of the first paragraph. In this system it is allowed to specify that the first moment it was actually <full> while in the second moment it was <full> minus 1.

In the second paragraph the Bak-Sneppen evolution model is recalled and applied to the clustering problem, which in turn is closely related to the creation of reduced quasi-numerical systems. A common application is the teaching of foreign languages, but more striking effects can be seen in models of urban planning such as the case of the Lloyd process. It shows in particular the non-uniqueness of clustering solutions and their substantial arbitrariness.

The third paragraph concludes with examples of intuitive, but distorted, use of probability. They are explained by the insufficient precision of the description system that is used. It may become ambiguous when it is translated into a mathematical model that happens to be too poor or too fuzzy for giving a correct representation.

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# INNOVATION IN TEACHING ENGLISH FOR LAW ENFORCEMENT: A TECHNOLOGY-INTEGRATED APPROACH

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**Abstract.** Nowadays, innovation is seen as a process of change, whose implementation is supposed to bring about more effectiveness in those organizations that envision such reformative initiatives. In language education, innovation is often related to the emergence and experimentation of both pedagogical and technology-integrated approaches to teaching and learning. The technology-based language teaching refers to the integration of modern technology into the language class, either as a tool or as a resource. From this perspective, the article starts with an overview of the literature regarding key-concepts we operate with throughout the paper and is organized in several subsections attempting first to define what innovation in language education is, then to clarify what English for Law Enforcement is against the distinction between English for Specific Purposes as opposed to General English. Further the paper focuses on the use of ICT in English language teaching, enumerating and illustrating how the technology-based approaches can be employed in language classes. This section makes the shift to the next one, which discusses a concrete case of teaching English for Law Enforcement students in Romania, exemplifying the “what” and “how” of the use of technology in such a language learning environment, pointing out both its benefits and drawbacks for both teachers and learners.

**Keywords:** innovation, language teaching and learning, English for Specific Purposes, Law Enforcement English, ICT, technology-integrated language classes.

## **Introduction: Innovation in language education**

Innovation has often been identified as a process of change. The underlying purpose of innovation, seen as change, is to make education more effective for the students. As such, innovation is viewed by some authors as an attempt to produce educational improvement by doing something which is perceived by implementers as new or different (Carless, 2013). Similarly, Rogers (2003) defines innovation as “an idea, practice or object that is perceived as new by an individual or other unit of adoption”.

The adoption of innovations is often due to the fact that, in the globalised world, societies feel the need to keep up with the effective changes that others have already implemented. In keeping with this idea Rogers (2003) notes that an innovation does not have to be “objectively” new, but rather perceived as new.

This means that the adoption of a certain innovation is rather a subjective process, which involves a selection of what particular method, tool or process will be implemented as innovation.

However, when deciding upon implementing an innovation in language teaching and learning one should take into account the potential rate of success that innovation might have, the effectiveness of that innovation or, differently put, the extent to which students make more learning progress than before the innovation was implemented (K. Van den Braden, 2009). Moreover, innovations need to be designed in ways which are receptive to and respectful of both local classroom realities and wider national cultures. In this respect, Wedell (2009) claims that we need to put people and contexts at the core of the innovation process and, in the same note, Carless (2011) supports the case of “contextually grounded approaches” to pedagogic innovation. Therefore, we need to adapt the innovations in language teaching and learning to the realities of the specific context we teach English in. For instance, the realities might refer to the availability or unavailability of technology, the technology literacy of both teachers and learners, or the context to the variety of English we teach, for instance ESP (English for Specific Purposes). As such, there needs to be a balanced approach in the implementation of innovations in language education.

It was earlier mentioned that innovation is seen as change. As a matter of fact, change is also the goal of teaching English. This change consists, primarily, in producing “fully competent English knowing bilinguals rather than imitation of native speakers”, and, secondly, “English is not viewed as an end in itself but a means to learn content” (Penny Ur, 2009), especially in an ESP context, where the language teacher’s aim is to help students learn both the content and the language in what is called a CLIL (Content and Language Integrated Learning) approach to language education.

In fact, innovation in language education may unfold on two dimensions, which are the pedagogical and the technological. The pedagogical facet refers to new teaching approaches such as task-based learning, CLIL (Content and Language Integrated Learning), CBI (Content Based Instruction), learner-oriented teaching etc., changes to teaching materials from course-books to the use of alternative teaching resources such as authentic materials, video or audio recordings, other online resources. The technological dimension of innovation refers to the technology-based language instruction which resorts to the integration of technological developments into the language class, including tools, techniques, methods or approaches, such as: computers, notebooks, mobile phones, the internet, online teaching, e-learning, computer assisted language learning, to name but a few of the possibilities.

Among the new trends in language teaching there is also the shift of focus from the teacher on the learner. Dewey (1938) was apparently the first to coin the term “learner centeredness”, which became popular in ELT. Such an approach has the goal of making the language teaching more flexible and responsive to students (Tudor, 1996) and also brings along a series of new roles of the teacher. In the literature there are various opinions as to what are the teacher’s roles in this approach to language teaching. According to Richards and Rogers (1986) the teacher’s role is part of a “design”, a component of a method, while Little Wood (1981) considers that the teacher is a facilitator of learning, an overseer, a classroom manager, a consultant or adviser and a co-communicator. To Harmer (2012), a teacher plays a role of controller, organizer, assessor, promoter, participant, resource, tutor and observer. Depending on the language class circumstances, the teacher might take on each of these roles in turns or make use of a mixture of them simultaneously. One of the teaching approaches that rely on learner-centeredness is TBLT (task-based language teaching). Nunan (2004) considers that the underlying principle of TBLT is “experiential learning or learning by doing”. As such, the learners take on a more active role, whereas the teacher becomes the facilitator of learning through what Vygotsky (1978) calls “dialogic communication”. That is to say that the teacher’s role is limited as he is expected to be merely a guide standing by the side.

### **English for Specific Purposes (ESP). English for Law Enforcement (LEE)**

It is generally conceded that there is a difference between GE (general English) and ESP (English for Specific Purposes). As Anthony (1997) puts it, “some people described it as simply being the teaching of English for any purpose that could be specified. Others, however, were more precise, describing it as the teaching of English used in academic studies or the teaching of English for vocational or professional purposes”. On the other hand, Dudley-Evans and St. Johns (1998) argue that “ESP requires the careful research and design of pedagogical materials and activities for an identifiable group of adult learners within a specific learning context”. The concepts most frequently used in defining ESP are: context, situational practice, cross-cultural issues, authenticity of communication and materials, and needs analysis (Dudley-Evans & St. Johns, 1998).

Therefore, the most common issues associated with teaching ESP refer to the tasks an ESP teacher has to carry out before entering the class and teaching. These tasks include the identification of the learning needs of the group of learners the teacher is supposed to teach, which is performed through *needs analysis*, then, once the learners’ needs have been determined, the teacher starts



the process of *research* and *documentation* in the target field (in our case, law enforcement), so as to be able to *select* appropriate *material*, which will be *evaluated* and, subsequently, *developed* into effective teaching sequences. Needs analysis is not unique to language teaching, but it is often seen as being the foundation of ESP and leads to a focused course (Dudley-Evans & St. John, 1998). In other words, a needs analysis is the process of determining the needs for which a learner or group of learners requires a language and arranging the needs according to priorities (Richards & Platt, 1992).

In addition, if the development of an extensive language course is envisioned by the ESP instructor, then they might consider deciding on *course content* – in terms of most relevant topics that the course will cover – as well as formulating course objectives. Generally, the content of any ESP course should only be determined by a comprehensive needs analysis, as this first step is seen as being absolutely crucial if ESP practitioners wish to design a course that will maximally benefit their learners (Wright, 2001). As to materials development, Hutchinson & Waters (1987) suggest starting from looking for appropriate input, examining language and content in it, and then devising tasks in which the language aspects and content will be used, an approach that we also embraced. Depending on the teacher's choice of the preferred teaching approach, the course may contain activities focused on the development of all productive and receptive skills, focused solely on the communicative approach to language teaching or rather on a task-based approach.

When it comes to English for Law Enforcement, the attempt to define it should also start from the understanding of the concept of ESP. English for Specific Purposes (most commonly referred to by its acronym: ESP) is a branch of EFL/ESL (English as a Foreign Language/English as Second Language) system, which is an essential part of ELT (English Language Teaching). ESP can be further divided into two main sub-branches, which are EAP (English for Academic Purposes) and EOP (English for Occupational Purposes). As such, English for Law Enforcement is a variety of ESP, encompassed by EOP.

ESP is a more focused approach to language learning, whereby the content and method are based on the learner's particular needs to learn the language (Hutchinson & Waters, 1987). Being part of the ESP family, LEE borrows its characteristics. Thus, as the ESP literature posits, the content is of paramount importance in learning a language as it reflects the learners' needs for learning that language. Therefore, it is considered that if the learners' English language needs are adequately identified through an accurate needs analysis then the content of the language program will be designed so as to meet these needs (Munby, 1978). Therefore, when planning and designing a language program that aims to meet the needs of an ESP target group (in our case, law enforcement students), extreme attention should be paid to various facets of the language

learning process so as to meet the specific English language needs of the target group and produce a learner-centred course.

In an ESP context, the learners' needs will always be related to aspects such as learning specialized lexis pertaining to a particular profession, which is not taught randomly, but in contexts specific to that particular professional area. This means that the language program learners attend will expose them to contents that reflect or duplicate job-related situations. On the other hand, the learners' needs may echo their desire to improve various aspects of the language, which may refer to grammatical structures, language functions or development of the language skills, both receptive and productive (reading, listening, speaking, writing). Therefore, in teaching LEE both content and language are at the core of the language program, as the content is a vehicle for learning the language, and the language the means to understand the content.

### **Information and Communication Technology in English language teaching**

The advancement of Information and Communication Technology (ICT) is a dimension of globalization, which is inseparable from English language teaching. In fact, the access to technology and the internet has allowed the enhancement of the language learning programme through a wide array of materials and resources made available, as well as innovating teaching methods and making the language learner autonomous. As such, English teachers regard internet as one of the alternative media to teach language (Warschauer, 1996).

Students can use the internet for self-study purposes, without the help of a teacher, in order to research for a particular topic, to practise various language skills to improve their language competence, to have access to audio or visual resources, or to reading material etc. The use of the internet with the purpose of improving their English proficiency allows them to decide upon the materials or resources they use and also to set their own pace for learning. Thus, the internet enables learners to become autonomous, which is one of the skills students need to develop today (Felix, 2005). However, some theorists warn that the use of technology itself does not bring autonomy and the students need appropriate support, guidance or training to become autonomous learners (Arno-Marcia, 2012). Indeed, the use of technology might not lead to any improvement when it comes to the students' language proficiency, if their learning is not placed in an educational setting and facilitated and guided by the teacher standing on the side to oversee the process.

The literature makes reference to some of the technology-based language teaching approaches, which include examples such as: *computer mediated English*, *computer assisted language learning*, *web-based learning* and *the new age technological devices* (V. Parab, 2015). *Computer mediated English* refers

to the language that is created and used per convenience, not by convention, for example when resorting to a shortened communication via electronic devices, tools or applications (for example, in e-mails or messenger) that usually consists in using acronyms or letters instead of words or emoticons (TGIF – Thank God is Friday; u – you; ur – you are etc.)

*Computer assisted language learning (CALL)* is a method that consists in the computer being not only a mere tool, but also a tutor that gives stimulus to the learner. It can be used to make students' learning autonomous by centring it on resolving various language tasks. The students can use the computer to research on a particular topic for a project, to access online dictionaries or audio or visual resources, to practice pronunciation, to improve their grammar or vocabulary, and also to self-assess their progress.

*Web-based learning*, also called technology based learning, distance learning, online education or e-learning, provides opportunities to create a well-designed, learner-centred, affordable, interactive, flexible e-learning environment (Khan, 2005). In such an approach to language learning, language skills, both productive and receptive, can be practised and improved by the use of a variety of web-based activities. The most common technologies available for this kind of education are communication tools or platforms such as: e-mails, blogs, skype, smart phones, ipads, ipods etc.

*The latest technological devices* include: smart phones, e-readers, notebooks, video projectors, voice recorder devices, flash drives, portable scanners, 3D printers etc.

When it comes to teaching ESP, technology in its various forms has long been used in ESP and its impact on ESP has been more profound (Arno et al., 2006a). ESP teachers have always used it to develop materials and create situations relevant to their students' needs (Arno-Marcia, 2012).

However, the role of technology in language learning in general, and in ESP in particular, has changed over time and significantly so in recent years (Arno et al., 2006a). The view of learning changed with time from the behaviourist to communicative and then to an integrated approach (Warschauer & Healey, 1998) and that is why technology has also evolved and pervaded everyday life, and particularly the professional world. Such a shift has affected how technology is employed in ESP classes. Today, technology has become integrated into the classroom physically and pedagogically rather than being just an add-on. Computers are viewed as a tool to accomplish certain tasks or to communicate (Warschauer & Healey, 1998). For this reason, Garrett (2009) sees CALL as “the full integration of technology into language learning”.

But technology has brought about the internet as well. Apart from the significant role that technology has had on ESP teaching, the internet has had a considerable impact. As ESP focuses on meeting the needs of the learners and

on the use of authentic materials and tasks, technology has become a very suitable tool for ESP teaching (Arno et al., 2006a), as it allows learners to collaborate and engage in authentic communication in their professional environment and also to access up-to-date information relevant to their profession. Relative to the above mentioned ideas, we note that N. Kern (2013) identifies three roles of the internet in ESP, which are: a source for authentic, specialized material; a place for authentic communication; a collection of tools for sharing ideas, knowledge or materials.

In today's globalised society, the internet has gained a huge ground both in our private and professional lives and it gives people the opportunity to have a fast and efficient communication and collaboration, as well as to exchange information. This is why ESP teachers are pressured to prepare their students to "deal with global communicative practices online, in all their complexity" (White, 2007). Furthermore, as Zhong (2008) argues, the internet and the various tools it provides can help learners become more autonomous and also allow them to monitor their own learning. As such, the role of technology in language learning is that the learners have the opportunity to select and decide upon the content, the methods and the pace they want to use to meet their own learning needs. The use of the internet as a learning resource is appropriate in ESP contexts, as in such settings the students are rather experts of a discipline (Arno et al., 2006b), that is they master the content and, thus, they can as well become proficient in the language through the medium of the internet.

For ESP teachers the internet can be both a resource and a tool they might use in their classes. It can be employed to access to various audio and video resources, to find materials and ideas for their lessons, to give students online homework or further references. The internet may be used as a vehicle for online teaching, for attending webinars or conferences, for connecting with peers, writing or reading on online forums or platforms etc. Moreover, the technology has enable ESP instructors to expand and develop new roles such as materials designer, researcher, collaborator, communicator and assessor. The internet facilitates the collaboration and communication with field-experts or makes available a multitude of multimedia resources that will support the ESP teacher in designing appropriate materials or courses that meet their learners' needs (Arno-Marcia, 2012).

### **The use of technology in English for Law Enforcement (LEE)**

In Romania the training of prospective law enforcement officers falls within the remit of the Police Academy, a state budgeted higher education institution, part of the national academic system, which is subordinated to The Ministry of Home Affairs, as sole beneficiary of the graduates trained here. The

students enrolled at the academy specialize in several strands of law enforcement such as police, border police, penitentiaries, gendarmerie, fire-fighters and archives.

Furthermore, those who attend Police Faculty usually undertake further specialization in various areas of policing such as criminal investigations, fraud and financial crime investigation, countering organized crime, forensic science, traffic police, public order, transport police etc. as specified in the curriculum. Therefore, due to the students' specialized police training within the academy, a language teacher has to adjust the foreign language syllabus so as to both facilitate the acquisition of specialized law enforcement vocabulary and to practice and develop the students' language skills.

In teaching English for Law Enforcement, as a variety of ESP that involves the introduction of police-related content and language, technology can be used both as a tool and a resource. The tools available consist in any technological device, method or application both teachers and learners might use such as computers, notebooks, video recorders or projectors, tablets, mobile phones, e-mails, messenger, video and audio platforms etc., whereas the internet may be viewed as a resource.

In an ESP class, technology in the form of internet facilitates the replication of real-life professional situations. As such, audio or visual support resources extracted from *youtube*, for instance, can help a teacher of Law Enforcement English to introduce their students to the topics such as the use of firearms, shooting stances and shooting sessions, by teaching them with the help of the video material how to handle, load, unload, use a handgun, name its components or how to behave when taking part in a shooting session in a shooting range (for instance, a related video is available at <https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=oZfSgcKuzY8> or a visual material at <https://www.globalsecurity.org/military/library/policy/army/fm/3-23-35/chap2.htm>). Such a resource has proven very useful in my class, familiarizing my students with the English version of the vocabulary related to the components and use of firearms, while enabling them to practise these field-specific terms.

In addition, the internet as a source for authentic materials can provide the LEE teacher a wide array of official documents specific to police as an organization (usually available on web pages of police forces across the world), which can effectively be used in class to guide students in their learning how to fill in or draft such documents, such as a police media release, a suspect's description form, a crime incident report or a complaint, as well as a witness or a victim statement, and even arrest or search and seizure warrants. Examples of such police documents that we have used in class with a wide degree of effectiveness can be found at various web sites such as:

<https://police.uiowa.edu/sites/police.uiowa.edu/files/Witness-Statement.pdf>,

[http://formupack.com/pdf/forms/Federal/Courts/FederalCourts\\_AO442\\_20111026.pdf](http://formupack.com/pdf/forms/Federal/Courts/FederalCourts_AO442_20111026.pdf),  
[http://formupack.com/pdf-forms/Federal/Courts/FederalCourts\\_AO093\\_20100702.pdf](http://formupack.com/pdf-forms/Federal/Courts/FederalCourts_AO093_20100702.pdf)  
<https://www.pdfFiller.com/47451600-Suspect-Description-Worksheetpdf-Suspect-Description-Form-703-691-2131-First-Notify-POLICE-Various-Fillable-Forms>,  
<https://www.template.net/business/report-templates/sample-police-report-template/>.

Moreover, the internet can give appropriate input for practising role-plays of professional situations or for problem-solving in a LEE course. For instance, the teacher may research and find suitable lead-in input for stimulating the students to discuss or to act how they would enforce police powers. The input may consist in suggesting a policing-related context, the situation and the students are required to demonstrate what police powers will be used, when and how (for instance, situations such as the following can be documented using the internet and proposed to the students as problem-solving tasks: police officer vs. hostage taker or vs. abuse husband or suspicious-looking man, or vs. law-breaking driver). Similarly, students may be asked to explain how they would deal with offenders in other particular situations or how they would solve a case.

The technology in all its forms, as tools and resources, can facilitate both teachers and learners in a LEE class the access to dictionaries to look up word or various online resources such as audio support for listening tasks or police-related games that allow them to solve cases, while practising and developing detective skills (for instance, [www.detective-games.online/crime\\_investigation\\_games.html](http://www.detective-games.online/crime_investigation_games.html), <http://forensics.rice.edu/>, etc.). In addition, the internet can provide extensive information for various professional tasks police officers have to carry out and, therefore, the LEE students (enrolled in forensic studies) might research on the use of different equipment, for example, the crime scene kits used when investigating a crime scene or on evidence processing (video resource at <https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=1FxKwmq5HJw> or informative input at <https://www.nij.gov/topics/law-enforcement/investigations/crime-scene/guides/Pages/equipment-csi.aspx>).

For the LEE teacher, technology serves as source for authentic materials, which can be used as such (for example, police official documents) or can be developed into task-based activities or field-specific language courses. The experience as teacher and materials developer has taught us that the internet can be an invaluable source of relevant material related to various professions, including the police officer job. As such, we have been able to develop a language course for law enforcement students, a course which was designed as a resource that allows students to practice and develop all language skills due to its task-based approach, as well as expose students to contexts in the target language.

The materials included in the course had been carefully collected from a wide array of authentic sources, both written and visual, in order to fit the topic

areas relevant for the students' lexical needs as they had been identified by the needs analysis. Then the materials went through a thorough process of selection at the end of which only those texts that adequately met the course objectives were kept. Therefore, the course for law enforcement students and professionals is the result of an extensive process of documentation and selection of police-specific resources followed by the development of English language learning activities. The course includes broad topics arranged in an easy-to-follow sequence, from general to more specific topics organized in study units such as: *police organisation and ranks, police career sand training, police uniform and equipment, law enforcement weapons and vehicles, police ethics, police powers and procedures, police duties and responsibilities, types of crimes and criminals, punishments and the prison system, police investigations, international police cooperation, police force and the media etc.*

Among the tasks we have developed starting from authentic materials collected form the internet the course includes both pedagogical and real-life tasks. Examples of pedagogical tasks are: *filling in the gaps, matching words with their definitions, pairing words into collocations, answering comprehension questions/multiple choice questions/true-false questions/short answer questions, expressing opinions, contrasting and comparing things/situations, translating words/sentences/short texts, brainstorming, word formation tasks, solving crossword-puzzles, finding synonyms/antonyms etc.* The category of real-world tasks encompasses activities such as: *interpreting role plays (police officer recruitment interview, enforcing police powers and procedures, executing an arrest warrant, carrying out an intimate/vehicle search or a crime scene examination etc.), writing a police job application form/ a police report (incident/crime scene report)/ an action plan/ a media release, designing a police recruitment campaign poster, problem-solving, filling in a suspect's description form etc.*

### **Benefits and drawbacks of using technology in ESP**

The technology available today allows teachers in their classes to provide authentic contexts in which English is used, and thus expose students to different varieties and accents of English, as well as give the students the opportunity for listening practice. Moreover, technology, in the form of video or internet resources, gives the ESP learners access to specific language they need to communicate appropriately in their profession. In fact, apart from the availability of contexts that duplicate real-life situations and the varieties of English the internet can make easily accessible nowadays for both ESP teachers and learners, there are also incommensurable resources of authentic, real-time

information related to various professional fields that teachers may resort to when designing ESP teaching materials.

In ESP, the teacher's goal is to teach the language specific to a particular professional field, that is the purpose of ESP is to improve the learners' language proficiency through the use of the language in professional contexts. In the same line of thought, Butler-Pascoe (2009:1) argues that there is a "hybrid nature of ESP", which involves both teaching the language and "field-specific content". For this reason, the same author (2009:2-3) claims that technology offers numerous advantages for ESP, among which the most significant are: stimulus for interaction and communicative activities specific to a particular field; exposure to and understanding of socio-cultural aspects of a certain field or profession; authentic field-specific input; use of task-based activities mimicking tasks in field-specific contexts or situations; support of cognitive abilities and critical thinking skills; facilitation of practice with a view to developing the four language skills; student-centeredness; a myriad of methods for practising and developing various learning styles; stimulus for students' motivation and autonomy, as well as the exposure to the target language.

Besides the benefits of using technology in ESP classes, there are also some challenges that teachers or educational institutions may face such as (White, 2007): unavailability of technology, various degrees of competence in using technology of both teachers and students, time-consuming development of technology-integrated courses, difficulties in handling the new methods of managing technology-integrated classes or of dealing with technical issues, the need to constantly adapt oneself to one's ever-changing roles as teachers or students in online courses, for instance.

Taking into account these drawbacks that still exist and somewhat hinder the wide-implementation of technology in language classes in general, and in ESP courses in particular, the decision-makers have to think of and find the best possible solution to overcome such challenges. As a matter of fact, at this point, at least in Romania, technology is not broadly introduced in language classes as a result of an educational organization's teaching and learning strategy, but rather technology is used randomly by language teachers depending either on their propensity for technological novelty or on their actual need to use it because they cannot do otherwise. As mentioned before, in teaching ESP, one cannot do without the use of technological devices or the internet, as the ESP teacher needs to research in the field-specific area, to find and select authentic materials and even develop teaching resources.



## Conclusions

As society evolved, technology has become an integral part of both our personal and professional lives. As such, it has become a desideratum of contemporary life that people should be competent in using technology as nowadays some professional aspects, especially, cannot be dealt with but by using technology. That is why the educational sector has to keep up with this societal exigency. In an ESP context, for instance, teachers as well as students have to acknowledge that technology is a valuable add-on to their teaching and learning, which will act as a beneficial tool for them in attaining their overall goal, which is to teach or learn the target language.

It is not actually a matter of choice, I might say, as, whether they like it or not, both teachers and learners have to overcome those hindrances that might prevent them from becoming technology literate, as it can bring about numerous benefits such as: offering tools for students to practice real-life, authentic situations and thus acquiring professional skills, the opportunity to communicate internationally with their peers and thus crossing cultural borders by using various media and also to become autonomous learners; for teachers, providing the possibility to keep up with the latest information and developments in the target field, and also to experiment various technologies in their courses.

However, the ultimate goal the ESP teachers have to keep in mind is that the use of technology in their classes has to enhance the effectiveness of their students' target language learning.

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## GLOBAL AND INNOVATIVE TOOLS IN ENGLISH LANGUAGE LEARNING: STRENGTHS OR THREATS?

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**Abstract.** *The article aims to reveal and present the essence of English language learning/teaching modernization via the innovative and globally used methods or tools. Innovations cannot be created and used without the existence of the traditional methodology and conventional activities. Positive experience in traditional education can be modified integrating global ideas. There are many alternatives in innovative tools usage; teachers and students are not limited with their own decisions and possibilities provided. Still, an important issue exists regarding positive and negative effects of such innovative and global tools on learners. Do participants of the study process demonstrate clear perception of possible benefits or reject such innovations due to their disadvantages? The survey reveals the current situation, where innovative tools do not exist independently. The usage of computer games, songs, films, social media (social networks, Youtube, the Internet) is not clearly separated from the traditional tools as books, friends, travelling or meeting foreigners. An in-depth overview gives basis for further studies on the application of more innovative tools, such as interactive activities on the Internet, interactive boards/tables, blogs, forums, virtual learning environments, strategies proposed by the scientists as neuroprogramming, language coaching, etc.*

**Keywords:** *English language, innovative learning/teaching, innovative tools/methods.*

### Introduction

In 2012 The European Commission presented a new Rethinking Education Strategy where new competences important for the students as future employees were emphasized. Constantly changing society and labour market create challenges for the students at higher education institutions. They have to be ready to cope with unforeseen and unpredicted situations where newly acquired skills are important and fundamental. Pursuing current goals established by the education system, the skills of communication and communication in any foreign language cannot be denied. Due to the strengthening of internationalization of education and in order to achieve higher learning outcomes, it is suggested to apply modern / innovative methods and tools in the

study process. In accordance with various authors and scholars (Nunan, 2013; Richards & Rodgers 2014; Kukulska-Hulme & Traxler 2005), a successful differentiation of traditional and innovative learning strategies ensures sufficient development of skills and proficiency in various subjects. The European Council presented Conclusions regarding Collaboration in Education and Science (ET 2020), where one strategic objective is devoted to the improvement of quality and efficiency of education and teaching through an application of innovative technologies. Higher Education Language Strategy (2013 – 2022) of Foreign Language Studies highlights the development of language learning/teaching process. English language competence has to be acquired, and it provides a competitive advantage in the modern society and labour market. Higher education institutions have to be “open“, demonstrate innovative ideas and implement those involving students, members of the academic community and business representatives. Nowadays, the education system is in search of globally acknowledged and effective learning/teaching methods and tools, which could help students to develop a wide range of competences. New methodologies and learning/teaching tools oriented to provision of profound knowledge are being created by scientists and teachers-practitioners. Leonavičienė (2013) emphasizes that proficiency in a foreign language enhances self-confidence of language users and creates feelings of universality and versatility. English language learning should be organized consistently with the global situation in the world and labour market; balance between theory and practice has to be maintained. How to make this process unique, attractive and useful in the modern world with the ‘digital generation’ involved? Pedagogues and professionals are not limited to methodological materials and innovative tools. Besides that, traditional learning/teaching methods exist and are still applied in the study process. The key aim of pedagogues is to ensure provision of knowledge via technologies popular among the youth and appropriate preparation for the future professional activities. **Problem** may occur discussing and revealing strengths and/or threats of the global and innovative tools integration into English language studies. **Object:** Strengths and threats of the global and innovative tools applied into English language learning.

**Aim:** to analyze and specify strengths and (im)possible threats of the use of innovative tools/methods in English language learning.

**Goals:**

- to review the practice of traditional and innovative tools application into English language learning.
- to discuss strengths and possible threats of global/innovative tools application.

- to analyze students' practice of global and innovative tools application into English language learning at the universities in Klaipeda, Lithuania and Zielona Góra, Poland.

**Methods:** content analysis, survey, comparative analysis.

### **Innovations in educational tools**

Globally used innovative educational tools make the learning/teaching process more efficient and, without exception, students are responsible for the management of their own pace of learning and determining objectives. It is scientifically ascertained that students' self-motivation is higher when they use new technologies; a process of searching 'e-space' makes studying more student-oriented and engaging, the progress and learning outcomes are observed to be obviously higher. Herein certain innovative and globally used tools for the English language learning, which are emphasized due to their novelty and orientation to a student and his/her learning progress, are emphasized by Žegunienė (2012, 2013, 2014) and other scholars.

*Interactive board* is a smart board connected to the computer and multimedia device. It may replace a traditional black board and chalk, TV set and even personal computers. *Audio, video and multimedia devices*. Teaching material can be reorganized and presented differently. The learning process may vary depending on the topic chosen for the lesson. Students are able to deepen their knowledge watching videos depicting real-life situations, listening to conversations with a natural noise and various English accents. *Multimedia devices* are used for entertainment, team work and the presentations of projects. *The Internet* and its educational websites provide an unlimited selection of games, apps, songs and other activities. In addition, students are able to improve their writing working with online diaries or chatting with friends. Vocabulary is developed using *online dictionaries* with real pronunciation of newly-learned words. Teachers can search for innovations to be applied into efficient foreign language skills development in the special educational *forums* or *platforms*. Currently a new trend '*language coaching*' appeared where the main emphasis is on the combination of brain sciences and coaching, thus leading to a newly invented learning style '*tailored training*' (<http://www.efficientlanguagecoaching.com/>). *Laboratories* with the latest learning programmes are equipped and used by teachers in educational institutions. For instance, *Sanako Lab* is equipped with an advanced teaching/learning programme that makes the learning process student-oriented and provides more possibilities to study independently and in a modernized way. *Educational websites* and *forums* present educational material for any subject and advise teachers on the study process improvement. In this way, teachers' positive teaching and lesson

planning experience is exchanged internationally. *Virtual learning environments* as WebCT or Moodle allow students to work independently and distantly, therefore the communication and collaboration between a student and a teacher are guaranteed. *Smartphones* are widely used in the whole world especially by young people. Suggested *apps* and *online dictionaries* may be used to check information or to find new words and their definitions.

Generalizing, the familiarization with advanced educational technologies and their integration into the content of traditional English language learning/teaching methods and the modernization of the study process are obvious. The language teachers have to develop their own professional and pedagogical capabilities in order to use technologies and modern devices in the teaching process. Proper motivation of students and the establishment of certain conditions for modernized learning may be beneficial in various educational aspects. Students can feel self-confident in choosing their personal learning style, creating autonomy, and adapting the study process to their own requirements and needs. Furthermore, collaboration between students and teachers could be organized in a more efficient manner; provided knowledge is updated, original and related to the real-world situations.

### **Strengths of the global and innovative educational tools**

Easy access to modern portable devices such as laptops and smartphones with an Internet connection has its impact on language teaching and learning. As with each novelty, modern technology use can be a challenge, but also a new opportunity.

Their main advantage is the fact that the use of tools such as online dictionaries, or the Internet in general, offers an immense and immediate access to original materials, most of which free, which is a great asset and an important step forward when compared to the past. Nowadays, it is possible to communicate with people from all over the world without going out; reading original articles and books or watching films and videos in the original version has never been so easy. It all means that students learning foreign languages can have a much more intense contact with a given foreign language than just a few hours per week spent in the language classroom. This is true especially in the case of English, main language of international communication.

A questionnaire-based study (Kapica-Curzytek, Karczewska, & Sharp, 2017, in press) proves that students use English in online international communication. The Internet is where they look for information, where they spend their free time and make friends using social media. As a result, their exposure to the English language is much longer, which enhances the learning process and turns students into independent learners who can choose additional

materials of their interest to work with. It should be remembered that we are life-long learners who need to develop their competences also outside educational institutions and using the Internet makes us acquire that habit. In addition, when coping with the language outside school, students get used to using that language in real contexts and can appreciate how useful speaking a foreign language can be. Another advantage is the fact that they have access to original pronunciation with its various accents, which is often difficult to guarantee in schools with mostly non-native speakers teaching foreign languages.

Last few years have brought another tool. Nowadays, with constant Internet connection in their phones, students have access to all the online resources. What seems to be particularly useful in the language classroom is an access to online dictionaries and translation tools. As a previous study (Karczewska & Sharp, 2018, in preparation) shows, students do use online dictionaries and most of them do that during classes, especially at university. As the study shows, students do appreciate online dictionaries as they are quick and easy to use; moreover, online dictionaries provide a learner with more meanings, definitions, examples, pronunciation patterns and other useful information. When a given item is found, a learner may use other online dictionaries to check if it is appropriate or type it in a search engine to make sure that a given item is indeed used. What is very important, students learn to verify information they have found which is a crucial ability in life. It has to be made clear that in numerous classrooms there are no traditional dictionaries available, which means that it is necessary for students to use online dictionaries if they are to expand their vocabulary, in particular during writing and speaking classes. This in turn is a chance for the teacher to teach students how they should use online dictionaries and translation applications. Some teachers and students also believe that a word that is looked up by a student him- or herself will be remembered better than a word whose meaning is explained by the teacher. Therefore, students should be encouraged to be independent users of dictionaries. What the teacher should make his/her students aware of is the fact that looking for a foreign word is indeed a complex process which requires a lot of attention and a sort of detachment from what dictionaries show. Therefore, once students need to find a foreign word, they should be instructed to first find possible options in a bilingual dictionary and then check the meaning of the word chosen in a monolingual dictionary, to make sure that they are about to choose the right word. Speaking about new technologies, it would be also advisable to look for examples of real usage of a given word, to see if it is used in a particular context and how it is used. In addition, students should be instructed how to make use of all the functions dictionaries, both paper and electronic ones, offer. This means checking the word's pronunciation and spelling patterns, familiarizing with all



grammar information available, such as the plural form, countability/uncountability in the case of nouns or past tense and past participle form in the case of verbs as well as analyzing the examples provided to see how the word is used in context. This is the teacher's role to discuss all these issues with his/her students and show them how to use a dictionary in an effective way. In the case in which students encounter an unknown foreign word, the procedure is quite similar: they should pay attention to its spelling and pronunciation, and then check its meaning and see how the word is to be used correctly. When students learn how to follow this pattern properly, they do not need to ask their teacher to provide them with all the details, they are able to find what they need on their own. As a result, they are able to look for necessary information also outside the teaching context, as this is what they learn a foreign language for: to be able to use it in real situations, not in the classroom. This means independence in language use.

Unfortunately, as the previous study (Karczewska & Sharp) shows, students prefer bilingual to monolingual dictionaries: 57 out of 102 students questioned used bilingual dictionaries only, and the subjects were all English philology students at university who are expected to be at least intermediate speakers of English when they start their studies. Only thirty respondents used both types of dictionaries, which may mean that they follow the pattern described above, i.e. they first find a foreign word in a bilingual dictionary to later check it again in a monolingual dictionary. All the others just rely on bilingual dictionaries. As the study also shows, the most popular online resource is Google translate which only offers a direct translation of a given word, with no information on how to use a given word properly. This means that students are mainly interested in getting a quick solution without paying particular attention to all the details of the word's correct use. This tendency can be related to the general trend of a fast pace of life where there is little time for consideration. Also teaching practice proves that students often choose the first word suggested by a dictionary, without doing any critical choice in the matter. Obviously, these are general observations which do not apply to every single student, but they do represent a general situation. This means that, as we cannot neglect translation applications and online dictionaries, teachers should show their students how to use these tools in a more reasonable way.

Apart from online dictionaries, the Internet offers a vast array of other tools a foreign language learner can use. All websites with foreign films, music and articles are valuable as they teach both a given language and the culture of the country in which it is spoken. Words used by a favorite singer are easier to remember as one learns them while being relaxed and with music in the background, which seems to enhance the learning process. Not to mention the

fact that favorite songs are listened to many times and therefore one's exposure to new vocabulary is longer while learning lyrics by heart is a valuable way to expand one's vocabulary. Students can also develop the habit of reading foreign newspapers or watching news online in order to broaden their vocabulary. Even if online communication through social media seems to be the most frequent online activity, some students do mention reading online articles and they do observe the manifestation of English as a global language mostly in pop culture, films and music, which means they are receivers of English-language culture (Kapica-Curzytek, Karczewska, & Sharp, 2017).

All the above remarks show how powerful these innovative tools are. As they are an important part of today's world, they cannot be neglected in the field of foreign language teaching and learning.

### **(Im)possible threats in global and innovative English language learning/teaching**

Regardless of all the advantages of new technologies, one may observe that there are also some possible threats. As stated above, dictionaries in general and online ones in particular require an appropriate use. Students should be therefore instructed how to choose the correct term in the other language as there might be either no equivalent or more than one equivalent to choose. What is more, some translation applications may provide erroneous, mechanic translation that students should beware of. As already explained, students should be instructed how to make careful choices based on critical thinking instead of picking the first option available.

The major problem may be the use of modern devices in the classroom as students may tend to use their smartphones in various ways, not necessarily the one in which the teacher would like them to, e.g. playing games or reading posts on Facebook. There are indeed teachers who do not allow their students to use mobile phones in class at all and also some students do perceive using mobile phones in the classroom as a lack of respect for the teacher. As the previous study shows (see: Karczewska & Sharp), 60 % of university students were not allowed to use online dictionaries in the classroom when they are at school while at university 25 % of the respondents claimed not to be allowed to use them during classes. The results got confirmed in the survey conducted among teachers as some 78 % of them did allow their students to use online dictionaries in the classroom while 22 % did not. Those teachers explained that their ban on mobile phone use was either related to school rules or to the fear that students would use their devices in an inappropriate way. For other teachers using mobile phones was disruptive for the flow of the lesson and students seemed to lose interest in the topic. When students were asked to explain why their teachers

may not like them to use online dictionaries in the classroom, most of those who gave a reason (38 students) mentioned the fear that students would use their devices inappropriately.

Another problem is the fact that in order to appreciate modern tools, teachers have to know and use them themselves. According to Krajka (2012: 98), teachers are afraid to use computers in the classroom when they are not confident about their own skills in computer use. In addition to that, teachers are afraid to lose “the omnipotent and omniscient position” they would like to have. As a result, teachers' attitude has to change first as this is the main barrier in incorporating online tools into the classroom.

The next problem is technical in nature: still many universities do not provide fully-equipped lecture rooms, which means that teachers need to bring their own computers or tablets if they want to have access to the Internet and use it during classes. Therefore, some of them prefer more traditional solutions, i. e. a course book and CDs.

As far as the online use of English is concerned, it has to be remembered that nowadays most communication in English takes place between its non-native speakers; according to Nerrière and Hon (2009: 4) communication in English between its native speakers only represents merely 4 % of all the communication taking place in English. In all the other cases at least one party is a non-native speaker of English, with as much as 74 % of communication taking place between non-native speakers of the language only. Such estimates were confirmed in the previous study (Kapica-Curzytek, Karczewska, & Sharp, 2017, in press), where it turned out that students use English online mainly with other non-native speakers of English, people coming from different countries such as Germany or France, but also Saudi Arabia or Mexico. Therefore, English is a lingua franca for people of different origin who may present different levels of proficiency in it. That in mind, one should be particularly careful when learning from other non-native speakers of English, as errors due to interference with their mother tongue may occur. Unfortunately, that may apply to teachers as well. At the same time, not being exposed to native pronunciation, one does not have a chance to hear it, learn it and practice it. In addition, when speaking to non-native speakers of English, one is less likely to learn new vocabulary that is too advanced for most foreigners. All that said, students should be encouraged to seek opportunities to practice English with its native speakers, especially if we mean here university students majoring in English who want to become teachers or translators of English in the future, so they are expected to be excellent speakers of the language.

To sum up, it cannot be denied that English is a global language and the Internet even strengthened its position enabling an easier and more frequent international communication (Crystal, 2010: ix). At the same time the Internet revolutionized modern communication, enabling contacts with people from all over the world without even going out. As these changes cannot be reversed, modern school should also take them into account, teaching students how to function in that linguistic reality.

### Students' practice of global and innovative tools application on English language learning

Disclosure of the fundamental benefits and (im)possible threats of modern technologies and globally acknowledged educational tools integration into learning/teaching process led to the survey had been conducted where the main aim was to reveal the students' practice and application of modern tools used for English language learning and their benefit. The target group consisted of 87 students studying English at Klaipeda State University of Applied Sciences (KVK) and Klaipeda University (KU), Lithuania. These higher education institutions prepare specialists for various business spheres and English language studies continue 4 (KVK) or 8 (KU) semesters. The same study was conducted among 250 students of foreign languages at the University of Zielona Góra, Poland, both groups were filling the questionnaire prepared in their mother tongue. The interpreted data aimed to reveal frequency and nature of innovative tools usage in English language learning beside conventional studies at school, college or university. The results will be discussed in order to investigate similarities and differences between these two groups.

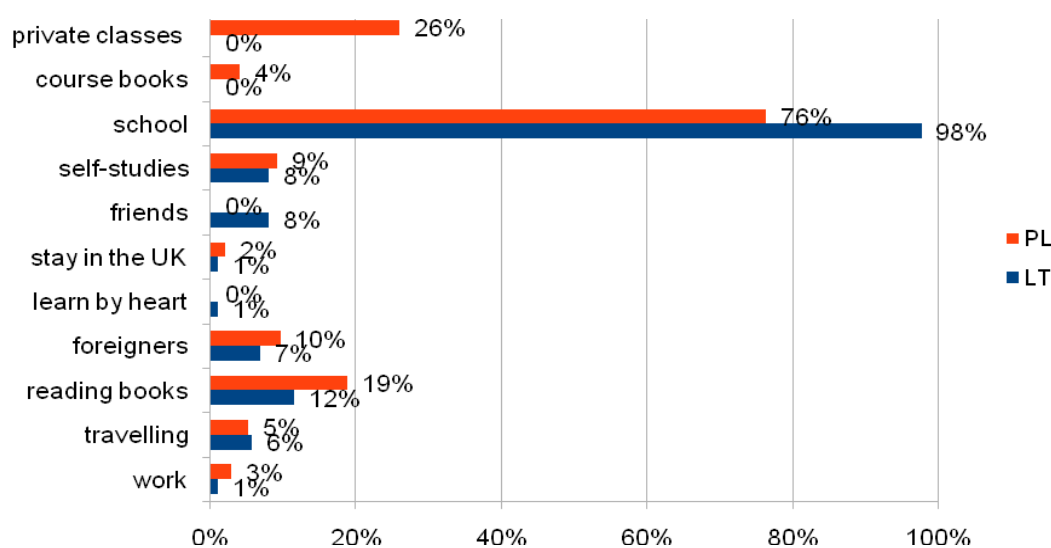


Figure 1. Traditional language learning methods

The respondents were asked to indicate how they acquired or developed English language skills emphasizing traditional and innovative educational tools used for this purpose. Following the theoretical material as a basis for the survey conducted, the students' answers were distinguished into two categories. These categories represent the usage of traditional and innovative methods/tools.

The survey data reveals that students apply conventional tools and methods to English language learning. The majority (76 % - PL and 98 % - LT) indicated that English was learned at school using traditional methods as reading, translating, retelling, etc. Besides that, the respondents noted several ways of language learning not included in the syllabus. Private lessons are incredibly popular among the Polish students in comparison with the Lithuanian students (26 % and 0 %). Approximately 19 % - PL and 12 % - LT of the respondents use books for language learning. Learning with a friend was pointed out by 8 % of the Lithuanian respondents whereas the Polish students did not indicate such a solution. Friends or other close people may encourage the achievement of higher learning results, so a possibility to study together is appealing to young people in Lithuania. Self-studies were mentioned by approximately equal parts of the respondents (9 % - PL and 8 % - LT). Self-studies may be perceived as homework to be done at home after school, college or university lectures which seems not to be so appealing to the students. Regardless of that viewpoint, self-study is a functional method where any student is responsible for his/her own time management, accomplishment of assignments and meeting deadlines. Insignificantly smaller groups (9 % - PL and 7 % - LT) learn English communicating with foreigners whom they are able to meet in the street, travelling or at their working places. Almost the same percentage of the respondents (5 % - PL and 6 % - LT) deepens their knowledge while travelling. They pointed that learning on-the-spot is a very attractive method of learning where several aims can be combined, such as cultural awareness, communication skills, openness, flexibility and adaptation. Work and residence in the UK were mentioned by 1 % - LT and 2 % - PL respondents. This choice is reasonably rare due to the students' status. The majority of them are unemployed or cannot be residents of the other country due to their studies in their higher education institutions. While the majority of the respondents are unemployed, it is an opportunity that might be used for deepening English language communication skills, and the respondents are aware of such future possibilities. Learning by heart or repeating information unconsciously was selected by 1 % - LT and none of PL respondents. Currently new learning trends appear, and some of them are based on the neuro-programming and repeating process. As it is proved by the scholars and scientists, the repeating process has to be divided into stages and the entire process has to be arranged in an

appropriate order to achieve the highest results. Such an activity is difficult and students have to devote a majority of their free time to do it.

As one can see, vast traditional learning opportunities have been mentioned by the respondents. Young people do not ignore the traditional methods as books, friends or travelling, but there is always a chance to modernize learning process and integrate technologies into language studies.

Consequently, the respondents were asked to consider more non-traditional or innovative methods of learning foreign language. The results are elucidated in the chart below.

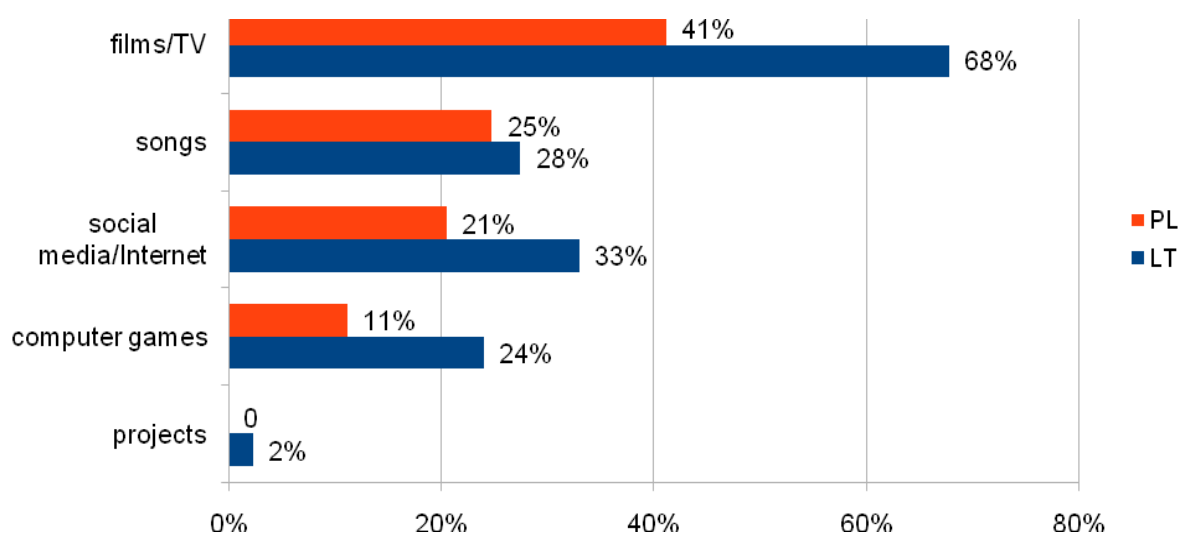


Figure 2. Innovative and global educational tool/methods

The respondents demonstrate appropriate understanding of the innovation and technology usage for English language learning. The majority of them (68 %- LT and 41 % - PL) are interested in films or TV programmes in English. Such a tool is available for every learner, and it has diverse aims beside the educational ones. The attractiveness of this tool consists in possibility to see the real-life situations and have some entertainment. Modernized television and TV channels provide the possibility to use subtitles for TV programmes or films. The students may listen and read scripts, thus both the reading and the listening skills are developed. The programme could be stopped or repeated in order to pronounce the text or an unknown word. A significantly smaller but similar in size groups (33 % - LT and 20 % - PL) use social media as an educational tool for learning. Social media comprise social networks (the most popular is “Youtube”) and the Internet generally. Nowadays, the “digital” generation prefers an “online” lifestyle. There are limitless educational possibilities: meet new friends, communicate with the old ones, participate in forums where

English is used for international communication, educational websites created by teachers and for teachers, allowing an exchange of experience or a try of innovative methods of learning, educational platforms and virtual learning environments. Songs (28 % - LT and 25 % - PL) and computer games were mentioned by respectively 24 % - LT and 11 % - PL of the respondents. Such activities are not so widely used for the educational purposes by the respondents; especially they are not preferred by the Polish students. The reasons may be a high level or a different type of English used, e.g. American English or complicated accents. Computer games require time and can be referred to as addiction. Despite the disadvantages, these activities retain their educational purposes and help to deepen knowledge in a very recreational way. This means that English is the language of international communication, used in both face to face communication and online interaction. Unfortunately, just 2 % - LT and 0 % - PL noted that projects could be a tool/method used by the students. Nowadays almost every higher education institution is a member of the Erasmus+ network. Participating in the students' exchange programmes provides a possibility to study abroad. As a result, international studies give a competitive advantage and international experience that is valuable in labour market.

## **Conclusions**

The results obtained in Lithuania and Poland, two countries that became members of the European Union in 2004 and are developing fast to join western countries, show that almost all students learn English and they do that in slightly different ways. In both countries the most popular way to learn the language is to attend English lessons at school. In Poland private language schools and lessons are also popular, especially those of foreign languages such as English. Reading in English as well as speaking to foreigners is a way to practice and improve language skills for both Lithuanian and Polish students.

In addition, the survey data indicates that students use modern technologies and tools such as social media (Facebook, Twitter, Instagram, Youtube, computer games, etc), computers, the Internet, films, songs, etc. In fact, these tools and methods are not currently referred to as innovative ones because every individual is familiar with them and these devices/tools play a vital role in the daily life of students, adults and even pupils at schools. After a review of the theoretical material, it is possible to conclude that students still demonstrate a lack of a deeper perception of innovations and technologies and their purposeful educational usage. Nobody mentioned personal computers or iPads, which are brought to lectures or are undoubtedly used at home, virtual learning environments (Moodle), blogs, apps, new learning strategies suggested by

scientists (neuroprogramming, coaching, etc.), smartphones, interactive boards/tables, etc. Innovative tools have a positive impact on motivation, create a recreational factor during studies and demand to improve and develop the competences and skills acquired.

At the heart of the issue there is the question whether the use of technologies in the English language learning/teaching improves acquisition or development of language skills or if it is simply a distraction/threat. These innovations and technologies help learners with listening and writing (particularly improvements in the amount of writing, length of texts and discourse features of these texts), with some suggestions that speaking can also be improved. However, in such a way students may be engaged in real learning experiences not found in books and speaking activities. One of the threats of using technology is that emphasis is put more on technology than on pedagogy. However, with all the progress taking place in the means of communication, modern educational institutions are expected to follow these trends and provide students with all necessary knowledge and skills that they will need in their future professional and private life.

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## **A SECOND LANGUAGE ACQUISITION. PRACTICING THE METHOD OF VIRTUAL CROSS- CULTURAL INTERACTION: INNOVATION OR ROUTINE?**

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***Abstract.** The current situation in the global arena may be characterized as a rapidly changing process with new trends appearing. This situation is not a problem for the young generation which has many different names, such as the “Net Generation”, “Digital Natives”, “Y” and/or “X” Generation, etc. As a matter of fact, these modern names are closely associated with high consumption of virtual media, such as the Internet. A great majority of young individuals perceive their own existence mainly in the virtual space. Thus, the modern approach to communication demonstrated by the young generation cannot be refuted by any educational institution or governmental body which are involved in various processes of policy creation and regulation of modern societal norms. The educational system can be referred to as a priority in the entire world, because newly educated and trained specialists take an active part in the processes of economic, political, education, etc. development aiming to create a positive image of their country in the world. Multilingualism is part of the daily life due to the provided ability to communicate at an international level. New opportunities, such as travelling or jobs and studies abroad, expand people's horizons and demand new skills. A second language is a must in the contemporary world. Language acquisition is more efficient when innovations are integrated into the educational field. This article aims at revealing the methods of practice of virtual cross-cultural interaction facilitating the acquisition and development of the foreign language communication skills. The conducted survey suggests that virtual cross-cultural interaction is an innovative routine acknowledged by every respondent, and all the positive aspects are clearly and indisputably presented by the survey participants.*

***Keywords:** second language acquisition, virtual cross-cultural interaction, social networks.*

### **Introduction**

The 21st century may be characterized by an enormous amount of information and a fast pace of new developments. Preparation of student for future life is a complex process that includes the transfer of knowledge, specific abilities, and generic skills. The objective of teacher is to create or develop a portfolio of a successful professional who would be able to adapt to, and to be competitive in, the modern society.

Currently, the study process has been closely related to the application of innovative devices or methods which can make the learning process more student-oriented and much more engaging and attractive. Traditional methods of a second language acquisition tend to be combined with innovations, such as the usage of multimedia, smartphones, Internet, interactive activities, etc. These tools and devices help teachers to provide advanced materials to their students who thus can get a larger amount of information in a contemporary way. Based on that, the author argues that innovations make a great impact on the new versions of the communication process. Interaction of people is promoted by the use of the Internet which expands the network of communicating individuals. The Internet provides a possibility to download and use various social networks for diverse purposes, with communication being the key one. Social networks (Facebook, Instagram, Twitter, YouTube, etc.) unite people of different countries in the entire world. Thus, there are no more obstacles to reach friends or interested people in any distant region of the world. If the communication and its boundaries are expanded, can it be beneficial for students and the process of studies? Everybody knows that the acquisition of languages makes a positive impact on the future career opportunities, on the preparation for professional activities, and the development of personality. Well-educated individuals may be referred to as “global” citizens who demonstrate a positive attitude to representatives of various cultures. The presented concepts of culture, language, and communication are closely interlinked, and this combination may be a well-organized educational tool for different level students learning a second language. The **problem** is formulated as follows: is the acquisition of a second language through the method of virtual cross-cultural interaction an innovative method or a daily routine? The article aims at disclosing the educational links between the phenomenon of culture and the communication process and, respectively, their benefit for a second language acquisition through virtual cross-cultural interaction. The **object** is to analyze the second language acquisition through the method of virtual cross-cultural interaction. The **tasks** to achieve the objective include: 1) a review of the use of social networks in the learning environment; 2) an analysis of the possibilities to acquire a second language through the method of virtual cross-cultural interaction; 3) the disclosure of an educational aspect of the use of social networks through students’ prism.

**Methods:** content analysis, theoretical analysis, survey, descriptive analysis.

### **Going from traditional to innovative in a second language acquisition**

A second language and the advantages provided by it have been lately emphasized and analyzed rather intensively; moreover, the knowledge of languages plays a key role in the global business, communication, and cross-

cultural environment. Teacher should know student's attitude to foreign languages and their willingness to improve in that area. Currently, teachers act as mediators between information sources and students, and they also are expected to find and apply the latest and the most relevant tools and methods in order to meet the needs of students and the modern society.

The basic understanding of the concept of *method* contains rational investigation/learning and a way of development, used for educational purposes in the studies of different subjects. Various scholars provide different interpretations of the concept and the entire process. Šernas (1995) defines a method as the totality of practical and theoretical operations used to perceive reality; it may be understood as a way of acting, as the rules and an appropriate order of activities used to achieve any educational aim or goal of learner or teacher. Gage, Berliner (1994) define a method as a model of repetitive actions of a learner that can be incorporated into the learning and/or teaching of different subjects and used by various teachers. Any educational model or a system of activities is implemented through various educational tools. Currently, the traditional methods and/or tools have been supplemented, or slightly modified, by means of innovations and technologies.

The traditional methods of a second language acquisition comprise the traditional learning environment (rooms/classrooms) with various course books, workbooks, dictionaries, etc. The question arises whether that is enough for the 'digital' generation. Young people have already got used to being interactive and to using technologies wherever and whenever they need or want. The basic principle of the contemporary life is 'to be online'. For that reason, both the educational system and teachers have to be ready to respond to the new needs. A review of the traditional methods is presented by Renau (2016) in the article *A Review of the Traditional and Current Language Teaching Methods*. The most popular traditional methods include the Grammar-Translation Method (introduced in 1840), the Audio-lingual Method (1950s), the Structural Approach (1971), Communicative Language Teaching (the late 1960s), Suggestopedia (1978), the Silent Way (1972), Community Language Learning (1972), and the Natural Approach (in 1983), including such conventional activities as speaking, reading, translating, asking questions, listening, writing, creating dialogues, doing role plays, etc., which are no longer sufficient for modern advanced studies. However, despite an innovative approach to the study process, the importance of the traditional methods cannot be totally denied, as proved by educationalists, such as Nunan (1991), Chomsky (1966), Curran (1972), Gattegno (1972), Krashen and Terrel (1983), Lozanov (1978), Menon and Patel (1971), because, to quote Nunan (1991), "...there will never be a method for all".

Upon analyzing the core of the problem and the possibility to acquire a second language, the following newly originated approaches and methods can be

named: simulations, projects, 'Tandem', portfolio, virtual learning environments, interactive activities/games, innovative tools (interactive boards, tables, tablet computers), as well as technology-integrated lessons, neuro-programming, coaching, etc. Trends have changed and, according to Motteram (2013), it is possible to meet a new breed of teachers-technologists. Course books and traditional activities have become strange to students, because teachers have already been making use of the new technologies (multimedia, tablet computers, iPads, smartphones, and the Internet) and increasingly integrating them into class activities. The above named innovations enable students to work and practice in a real environment with real people and in real life situations. The learning environment seems to have transformed into live learning sessions or chat forums. Practicing new methods and using innovative tools might be a challenge for teachers and their computer literacy skills. If a teacher faces technical difficulties or experiences a lack of proficiency in the field of technologies, these innovations can be hardly applied successfully and beneficially. Despite that, each participant of the study process should develop their own competences and move forward step by step. Innovative methods and tools enable teachers to take into consideration and to respond to the needs of learners, to manage the system of knowledge acquisition, and to adapt teaching methods to certain situations. The students are unique and have individual needs; therefore, multiple tools and methods provide flexibility and accessibility to every single learner, given their learning pace, autonomy, and personal characteristics.

Moving away from the aforementioned traditional methods and tools used for a second language acquisition has not been straightforward due to the pace of development of teachers' qualifications and their attitude to innovations. Such a situation calls for the modification of the entire study process, so that students could be provided with updated knowledge, and the innovative tools could be used for efficient collaboration. The study process has to be updated, upgraded, and made diverse and attractive for learner. To date, the traditional tools, such as course books, grammar books, workbooks, and notebooks have still been used by students in the learning process. However, innovative and globally used technologies provide more possibilities for students and upgrade the learning/teaching process in the conventional environment. The most popular example of using technologies in the lessons of foreign languages is computer application in language learning (CALL). Typically, teachers can use a computer with additional tools, such as CDs, DVDs, CD-ROMs, multimedia, and the Internet. Newly originated methods and tools can be used for new methods of teaching and learning, for making presentations, getting feedback, or for preparation of interactive tests. Information Communication Technology (ICT) penetrates into various spheres of our existence and brings positive changes in

education. According to Glosiene (2006), current technologies create a 'digital' competence, and this competence empowers teacher or student to manage knowledge more efficiently and to process increasingly large amounts of new information.

According to Sharma and Barrett (2007), students have been lately referred to as 'digital natives' or the 'net generation', as they are closely familiar with the information and communication technology which has become part of their leisure time. For this reason, educational technologies emerged and were integrated into the learning process, thus enabling students to benefit twice, i.e. to spend their time online and to perform some educational activities related to a second language acquisition. The virtual learning environment contributes to the differentiation of learning levels and provides each learner with flexibility and with access to necessary sources.

### **A second language acquisition through virtual cross-cultural interaction**

The authors focus on the connection between a second language acquisition and virtual cross-cultural communication which is a routine action in the daily life of young people. Such a method of communication is practiced via different types of social networks which have huge audiences of users in various countries of the world. The communication process cannot be denied or restricted, because we are social individuals, and therefore the satisfaction of the need for communication is the basis of our existence. Through communication, we transfer knowledge and facts about our culture and the cultural factors representing our lifestyle, attitudes, religion, economics, politics, customs, traditions, etc. If the communication process includes people from different cultures, it may develop in any foreign language. Consequently, beside the transfer of knowledge, a second language skills are acquired, developed, or even mastered, through cultural exchange. Levy (2007) emphasized that because of coming to know a culture – its products, practices, and perspectives – through language, the culture is meant to be the central focus of the second language teaching. Social networks and their access are available for everyone due to widely used mobile and web-based technologies; furthermore, highly interactive platforms have been created via which individuals and communities share, co-create, discuss, and modify the user-generated content. Scholars, such as Kietzmann et.al. (2011), presented seven blocks of social media which explain the benefits of the social networks usage in a second language acquisition context. Currently, more than 145 million users send on average 90 million 'tweets' per day, each consisting of 140 (or fewer) characters (Madway, 2010). These are mostly short status updates of what users are doing, where they are, how they feel, or connect to other sites. This fact represents the undisputable evidence of the frequency of social networks usage in daily life.

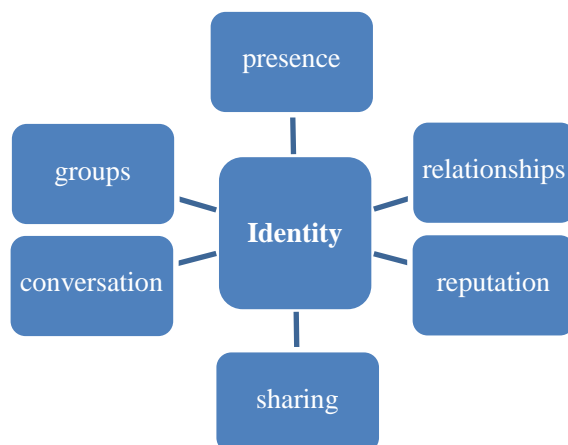


Figure 1. **Functionality of social media (Kietzmann et al., 2011)**

The functions of social networks demonstrate comprehensive involvement of individuals into the activity of any social network. The basic functions, such as as ‘conversation’ and ‘sharing’, confirm that such relationships call for foreign language skills and, if the communication is cross-cultural, a second language skills will be definitely developed. The ‘identity’ factor is important for identifying one’s own personality and representing the local/native culture, as well as its basic factors which have to create a positive image of the user’s country. Depending on the positive image, the relationships among groups or separate individuals will be established, and further relationships will be encouraged and continued.

The in-depth analysis of virtual cross-cultural interaction via various social networks may be used for educational purposes, and such an innovative method can be efficient in the process of a second language acquisition. The frequency of ‘tweeting’ is a significant evidence of its being a permanent daily activity that involves almost each member of our society.

### **Educational aspect of social networks usage through the students’ prism**

On reviewing the situation of innovative methods, the integration of various tools into the traditional methods of a second language acquisition, and the efficiency of cross-cultural interaction through social networks, the survey was conducted with the aim of revealing students' attitude to a second language acquisition by means of the method of virtual cross-cultural interaction through social networks. The target group consisted of 87 Klaipeda University (KU) students. The data aimed to disclose the respondents' attitude to virtual cross-cultural interaction via social networks and its relation to a second language acquisition.

The respondents were asked to indicate if they used social networks for cross-cultural interaction in their daily life (see Fig.2).

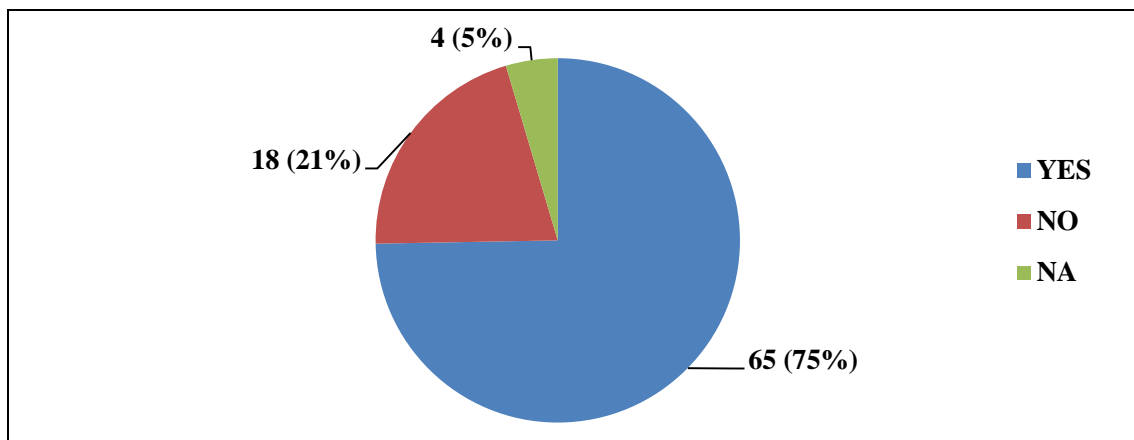


Figure 2. Social networks usage for virtual cross-cultural interaction

The obtained data witnessed that 65 (75 %) of the respondents used social networks for cross-cultural interaction in their everyday life. A significantly smaller amount of the respondents, i.e. 18 (21 %) indicated that social networks were not part of their everyday activities, and just 4 respondents (5 %) did not provide their answers.

To summarise the results, it is obvious that the students are interested and involved in the interaction process via social networks and demonstrate positive attitude to the possibility to establish relationships and continue them via virtual cross-cultural interaction

In further analysis of the issue, a question about the participation in social networks was asked. The respondents were asked to name the social networks they used for virtual interaction.

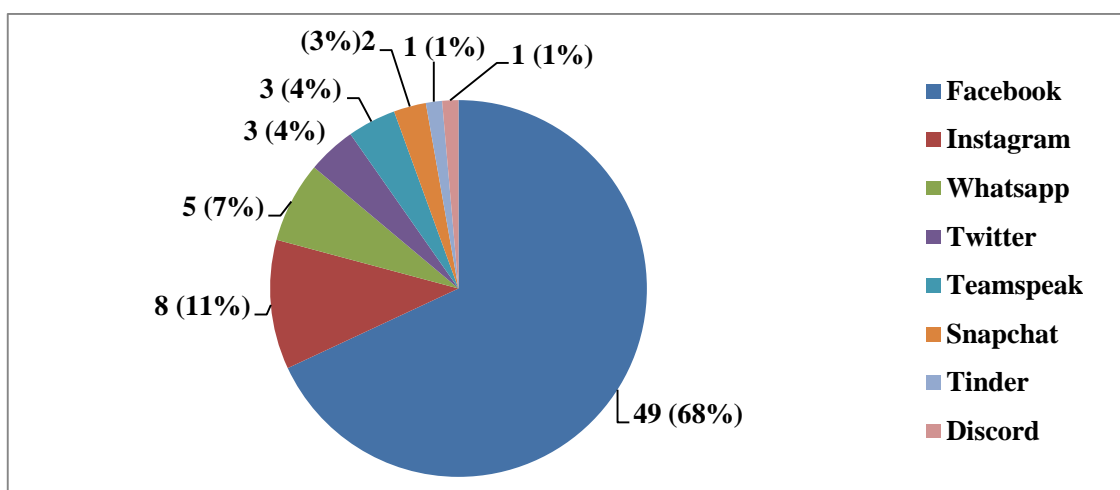


Figure 3. Social networks used for virtual cross-cultural interaction



The results of the survey revealed a vast diversity of social networks used for virtual cross-cultural interaction. The most popular was Facebook, indicated by 49 respondents (68 %). A considerably smaller percentage of the respondents (11 %) named Instagram; 7 %, Whatsapp; 4 % of the interviewed students indicated Twitter and Teamspeak, and approximately the same number of the respondents named Snapchat (2 %), Tinder (1 %), and Discord (1 %).

The variety of social networks named by the respondents demonstrated intensive virtual interaction across the world, because those networks were global. The globality of cross-cultural interaction illustrated the necessity of using foreign languages, which may be the key reason for a second language acquisition or the development of foreign language skills.

In order to disclose and analyze the necessity of a second language acquisition through virtual cross-cultural interaction, the respondents named a number of countries of the world they have been communicating with; some of them were represented as grouped (see Fig. 4).

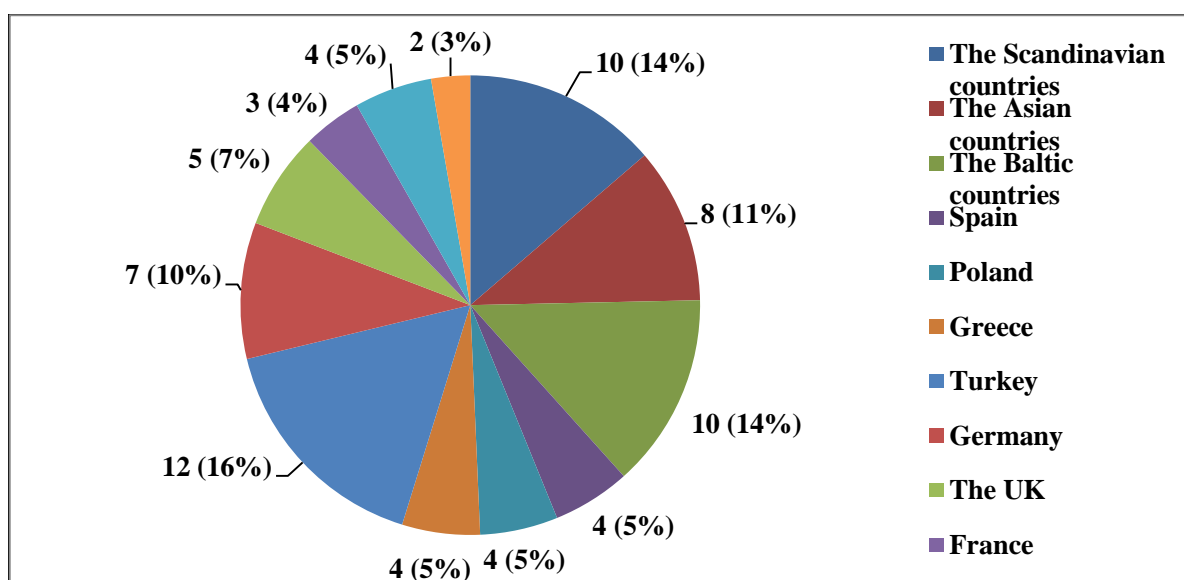


Figure 4. **Countries involved in virtual cross-cultural interaction**

The data of the survey demonstrated the diversity of the countries named by the respondents. The largest part of the respondents (16 %) chose Turkey as the target country for virtual cross-cultural interaction. The reason may be Erasmus+ Students' Exchange Programme, popular with KU students. Quite a few of the incoming students were from Turkey, so the face-to-face communication was transferred to the virtual media. The Scandinavian and Baltic countries were named by 14 % of the students. A slightly smaller percentage of the students indicated Germany (10 %) and Asian countries (11 %). The United Kingdom was named by 7 % of the respondents. The following numbers differed insignificantly

(from 5 % to 3 %), and they referred to such countries as Spain, Poland, Greece, Russia, France, and Italy, respectively.

Given the geographical location and the cultural characteristics of these countries, it can be seen that foreign languages play an important role in the virtual communication process. The interaction among the representatives of the indicated countries requires the skills of foreign languages. Therefore, the acquisition and the development of a second language skills are important for the process of virtual cross-cultural interaction.

### **Conclusions**

The article presents evidence that the transition from the traditional to innovative teaching/learning methods in the context of a second language acquisition is obvious, and innovations have been increasingly actively applied by teachers to the study process. The possibility to update and upgrade the study process through the integration of innovative methods, such as virtual cross-cultural interaction, and tools, such as computers, smartphones, iPads, tablet computers, etc., into traditional methods has been actively considered and implemented by teachers in all higher educational institutions. Innovations have become a daily routine and the lifestyle of the youth, and this trend is typical of the entire world with its population actively engaged in virtual interaction via social networks.

Social networks involve people in the virtual social routine and “tweeting”, moreover, such activities can be characterized by certain educational advantages, such as the acquisition of a second language through a cross-cultural prism. Social networks are based on the following seven functional blocks: identity, sharing, conversation, groups, relationships, presence, and reputation which play an important role in the process of interaction and a second language acquisition.

The conducted survey and the participants' responses proved that the students were engaged in online interaction and that the activity was not a kind of innovation for them, but rather a daily routine. Furthermore, the variety of social networks and countries named by them demonstrated a wide range of virtual cross-cultural interaction and the necessity to use foreign languages and/or to acquire the skills of a second language. This method of learning a second language is definitely attractive and beneficial for the young generation.

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